THE ROLE OF EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION AND REWARD STRUCTURES AS DRIVERS OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

NTOMBIZANELE NANGAMSO KWATSHA

STUDENT NUMBER: 2536812

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ABSTRACT

Robbins and Judge (2013, p. 13) define an organisation as a "consciously coordinated social unit, composed of two or more people, that functions on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals." Since an organisation's effectiveness is the result of the level of individual and collective employee performance (i.e. teams and organisational units) and their success in attaining these shared goals, organisations have realised the potential of people as a source of competitive advantage (Pfeffer, 1994).

The financial services industry has become fiercely competitive and is largely dependent on the collection of individuals working together to create the services that clients demand and are willing to pay for. South Africa has one of the best-developed financial sectors in the world and competition between the four major banks and insurance providers is fierce (Bhorat, Hirsch, Kanbur & Ncube, 2014). Since companies in the financial sector provide more or less the same services, they depend on their workers to transform scarce resources into valued services that clients demand. Thus, financial institutions are largely dependent on employees as their main source of competitive advantage. A good place to start is an organisation's total talent management framework, where reward and remuneration programmes are used as strategies to attract and retain the most talented employees. A substantive amount of literature has linked employee performance to commitment. In turn, commitment is largely dependent on the degree of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of employees (Altindis, 2011).

The objective of this study is to investigate the complex set of relationships between employee motivation, organisational commitment and reward structures. In addition, the current study aims to investigate the moderating effect of reward structures on the relationship between motivation and organisational commitment. In order to explore the set of complex relationships between the variables, a theoretical model was developed which was empirically tested. The study will make use of an *ex post facto* research design with multiple regression analyses to test the proposed structural relationships between motivation and organisational commitment. The sample was selected from employees at a large organisation working in the financial sector in the Western Cape. In total 250 participants were targeted, but only 180 participants completed the questionnaires.

The findings of the study revealed that work-life balance was seen as a predictor of intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation a predictor of continuance commitment. In addition to this, none of the proposed moderator variables significantly interacted with the independent variables. Notwithstanding the disappointing interaction effect, the direct effects validated by the study hold important implications for the design and implementation of reward packages in the workplace.

DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis, I declare that *The role of Employee Motivation and Reward Structures as drivers of Organisational Commitment*, in its entirety is my own work, original work that I am the owner of the copyright thereof (unless to the extent explicitly otherwise stated) and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Full Name: Ntombizanele Nangamso Kwatsha

Signed: *Nangamso Kwatsha* Date: August 2020

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All praise and honour goes to the Almighty God for giving me the strength to press on and complete this journey.

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1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The financial services industry is characterised by high levels of competition, dependence on technology-based processes and automation, all which deliver quality services to customers. Given the severe competition amongst financial institutions, it has become crucial that organisations offer higher quality services than their competitors. Technology has changed the way financial institutions operate and has become the primary force that keeps organisations competitive (Kumar, 2014).

Furthermore, the integration of technology with current workflow processes could potentially lead to significant increases in productivity, while simultaneously reducing costs. In a stagnant economic growth environment such as South Africa, this can be a major source of competitive advantage (Masocha, Chiliya & Zindiye, 2011). However, integrating technology with workflow may also cause significant job insecurity, especially for employees who lack the specialised skills to use the new technology and operating systems. This change on macro-level within the work environment creates an imbalance between demand and supply of the most talented employees with such specialised skills. Vaiman (2010) points out that skilled employees are highly educated with strong needs for professional satisfaction and fulfilment. As a result, organisations need to look at their total talent management framework to attract and retain the most talented employees, considering their high level of mobility. One of the most potent retention-and-attraction strategies is the reward-and-remuneration programme of an organisation. This strategy is important due to its direct impact on employees' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, in other words, personal enjoyment against seeking rewards or avoiding punishment.

Robbins (as cited in Aquinas 2006, p. 96) defines employee motivation as "the willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organisational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need". To gain a better understanding of employees, organisations need to be aware of what motivates their employees to meet their needs in the work environment. Labour constitutes a pivotal production factor since organisations are managed, operated and run by people. The deterministic assumption in Industrial Psychology implies that the behaviour of employees in principle should be explained in terms of probabilistic behavioural regularities (Kriek, 2019).

According to Becker and Huselid (1998), Human Resources (HR) practices have a direct impact on employees' motivation, skills, job design and work structures. Work aspects help increase the levels of productivity, creativity and discretionary efforts, which improve employees' operating performance. However, the fast-paced and changing organisational environment has altered the traditional view of human capital from a supportive resource to an enabling one. Stated differently, HR practices directly and indirectly have an impact on all spheres of organisational functioning. Therefore, the retention of the most talented employees has become top priority for most successful organisations (Özbilgin, Groutsis & Harvey, 2014).

Organisational commitment is arguably one of the most important indicators of an organisation's attractiveness. Organisational commitment is linked consistently to employees' desire to remain with a given organisation, especially those employees that are emotionally attached to the organisation. Organisations can therefore benefit from an in-depth understanding of organisational commitment and the factors that drive or shape it. Insight into such commitment of employees is highly valuable to organisations since it has been found to predict various desirable behaviours such as low turnover, low absenteeism, less conflict, increased positive role behaviour and high productivity (Kargar, 2012; Somers, 1995). However, organisational commitment only has value as an outcome variable if it helps uncover the conditional probability of the correlates that shape such commitment in the workplace. Stated differently, managers are interested in the factors that systematically influence individual employees' commitment towards the organisation. Although multiple factors have emerged as potential correlates of organisational commitment, it was found that intrinsic (intrapersonal) and extrinsic (organisational) rewards are linked consistently to workplace motivation, which, in turn, is linked to organisational commitment (Khalid & Aftab, 2017).

Convincing research has found that reward structures have the potential to activate employees' intrinsic as well as extrinsic motivation (Thompson, Strickland & Gamble, 2005; Werner & DeSimone, 2009). Essentially, employees' commitment can be viewed as a structurally interrelated set of behavioural competencies and latent outcomes. As such commitment is determined by a complex nomological network of latent variables that are causally related to each other. In the present study it is argued that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations impact organisational commitment directly and the strength of these relationships depends on the motivational potential of the rewards offered by organisations. Reward structures are pivotal in the proposed conceptual model since they may have a direct and moderating influence on organisational commitment.

1.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the complex set of relationships that can be inferred between motivation, organisational commitment and reward structures. More specifically, the aim was to develop a conceptual model that can explain the complex set of relationships between the aforementioned variables. Despite the wide-spread research on the relationship between motivation and commitment, the complex network of relationships between the sub-dimensions that make up these variables has to date not yet been explored in sufficient detail.

A further aim is examining the role of reward structures in the relationship between motivation and organisational commitment. Understanding the deterministic forces that influence organisational commitment will allow practitioners to develop interventions that have a systematic and predictable influence on employees' commitment to the organisation.

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND QUESTIONS

From existing research findings, it is clear that organisational commitment is a critical indicator of the unique culture and the general strength of human resources in an organisation. The questions remain why employees' level of commitment to an organisation vary and, more importantly, what the role of rewards is in promoting, or truncating such commitment.

In light of the discussion above, the research problem can be translated into the following general research question: *What is the relationship between organisational commitment, reward structures, and motivation of employees?*

This general research question can be unpacked into the following specific research questions:

- What are the direct relationships between the dimensions of organisational commitment and employee motivation?

- What is the moderating role of reward structures in determining organisational commitment and employee motivation?

1.4 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

Based on the research question above, the main aim for the study was to investigate the complex set of relationships that can be inferred between employee motivation, organisational commitment and reward structures.

From the main aim, the following specific objectives of the study were inferred:

- To investigate the direct relationships between the dimensions of organisational commitment and employee motivation.
- To evaluate the moderating role of reward structures on the relationship between employee motivation and total organisational commitment.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS

Chapter 1 presents an introduction and background to the variables that are explored in this research study. The rationale for the study is presented. The research questions, aim and objectives of the study, and variables are discussed briefly. Finally, the content of the following chapters is outlined.

Chapter 2 provides a detailed literature review of the variables under investigation, namely employee motivation, organisational commitment and reward structures. The main theories underpinning these variables will be discussed in detail.

Chapter 3 gives a detailed outline of the research methodology used to investigate the research problem. The research design, sampling method, and statistical techniques will be explained. Each of the measures used in the current study will also be discussed.

Chapter 4 outlines the main statistical findings of the study. The primary goal of this chapter is to examine whether statistical support was found for the research hypotheses.

Chapter 5 examines the results obtained in the study. This chapter aims to present the primary findings of the study and link the results to the greater body of literature in this field. The limitations of the study will be discussed and possible avenues of future research recommended.

1.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter provided an introduction and background that frame the research problem. The rationale for the study was presented and the research questions, aim and objectives of the study as well as primary variables discussed briefly. In addition, an outline of the content of the following chapters was presented.

The following chapter will provide an overview of the literature that was reviewed and which resulted in the formulation of this study's theoretical model. The suggested framework provides a perspective on understanding the link between the variables.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

As technology and the service sectors continue to dominate the global economy, attracting knowledgeable workers have become increasingly important for organisations hoping to be successful. It is argued that human capital remains a significant source of competitive advantage for organisations (Memon, Mangi & Rohra, 2009). Therefore, it is crucial for organisations to keep abreast of practices that encourage employees to remain productive and committed to their current organisation. In this way, not only will organisations be able to maintain a competitive advantage; the costs associated with the voluntary turnover of employees will also be reduced (Schlechter, Syce & Bussin, 2016).

One of the most important factors that define a thriving organisation is a motivated workforce. Broadly speaking, motivation can be divided into intrinsic and extrinsic forms. Some employees find personal satisfaction from the work that they do, which is explained by the concept of *intrinsic* motivation (Legault, 2016). Other employees, however, are motivated by the rewards (or lack of punishment) they receive in exchange for work performance. Being motivated by external factors (e.g. formal rewards and remuneration) is characterised as *extrinsic* motivation (Cameron & Pierce, 2002). When employees' needs are met, they are able to perform at a high level, which should help the organisation achieve important goals.

Building a motivated workforce often leads to organisational commitment, which can be defined as employees who identify with the organisation's goals, are willing to work towards these objectives and wish to remain in the organisation (Armstrong & Brown, 2006). Organisational commitment leads to long-term benefits for the company such as corporate success, loyalty, productivity, and low employee turnover (Altindis, 2011). Committed employees are less likely to take time off from work and are more productive, which implies lower costs for recruitment and retraining (Riggio, 2016). It is therefore important for managers to understand factors that drive employees' motivation and commitment to the organisation. According to Markovits (2012, p. 8), "a satisfied and committed employee is most likely to be motivated at work, to perform well and be effective, productive and efficient." Such commitment is clearly important for organisations to reach their goals in a competitive global environment, which include retaining customers and sustained growth in profits.

Literature indicates that the other side of the coin is also important insofar as demotivated employees are less likely to exert optimum effort into their work duties. When employee morale is low, it can lead to demotivated and low-performing workers (Carlaw, Carlaw, Deming & Friedmann, 2003). As a result, organisations are paying more attention to the factors that influence employees' motivation in the workplace. The subsequent section will investigate the concept of employee motivation in more detail, as well as the prevalent theories of motivation.

2.2 MOTIVATION

Robbins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt (2009) define motivation as the extent to which individuals strive to channel energy and maintain their efforts for as long as necessary to achieve certain goals. According to this definition, employees need the willingness or internal drive to propel themselves through efforts to attain the organisation's goals. Ramlall (2004) had earlier on defined motivation as a need or urge that drives an employee to act in a specific way. The drive is what pushes the employee to work towards a goal in order to satisfy that specific need and release the tension.

Theories of motivation aim to explain why people are moved to act in a particular manner. Some of the most prominent theories of motivation include Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Robbins & Judge, 2009), Alderfer's ERG theory (Griffin & Moorhead, 2009), and McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y (Pride, Hughes & Kapoor, 2010). The following section examines each of these theories in more detail.

2.2.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

One of the well-known theories of motivation is Maslow's hierarchy of needs. According to this theory, individual employees are likely to satisfy their basic and lower-order needs before their higher-order ones. The order, however, is not rigid, which implies that two different needs may emerge simultaneously. The lower-order need, however, is likely to dominate (Robbins & Judge, 2009).

Maslow believes that every person has an inner hierarchy of needs, namely:

1. *Physiological:* hunger, thirst, shelter, sexuality and other bodily needs.
2. *Safety:* security and protection from physical and emotional harm.

3. *Social:* affection, need to belong, acceptance and friendship.
4. *Esteem:* internal factors such as self-respect, autonomy and achievement, and external factors such as status, recognition and attention.
5. *Self-actualisation:* the drive to become what one is capable of, which can include personal or career growth, achieving one's potential, and self-fulfilment (Robbins & Judge, 2009).

The pyramid of needs provides a graphical representation of the theory. An employee is likely to satisfy the basic needs at the bottom of the pyramid first and move up as and when other needs arise.

Figure 2.1

Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Taken from Conley, C. (2007). *Peak: How great companies get their mojo from Maslow*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, p. 9.

Maslow's hierarchy is categorised into lower and higher-order needs. The lower-order needs are on the physiological and safety levels, while higher-order ones are part of the social, esteem and self-actualisation levels. Differentiation between the two orders of needs is based on the idea that those of higher-order can be satisfied intrinsically (i.e. personally) while the lower-order needs are satisfied by external factors (Robbins, Judge, Odendaal & Roodt, 2009). As individuals fulfil a lower-order need, the higher need intensifies and becomes the prevailing motivator (Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk & Schenk, 2008). The theory implies that it is impossible to fulfil higher-order needs if lower-order ones are not satisfied.

The most basic need from the above-mentioned hierarchy is physiological, which is necessary for survival. This need must be satisfied first as food, water and oxygen play a fundamental role in subsistence and affect a person's wellbeing. This need is likely to be fulfilled when employees can afford the basic necessities to subsist. When individuals' physiological needs are satisfied, higher-order needs may be triggered.

Safety needs are associated with shelter and feeling secure and protected. Employees may feel that they have satisfied this need when they are able to provide a home for their family in a secure area. Within the work context, this need could be satisfied, for example, when employees know that they have a guaranteed retirement income (Jex & Britt, 2014). Social needs arise when safety needs are met and focus on affection and belonging. In the workplace, the latter need could imply that an employee is being accepted by colleagues and forms part of a group. The need for esteem means individuals feel a sense of competence and mastery. In the workplace, this need is fulfilled when an employee performs a task effectively and efficiently and receives recognition for these efforts. The fifth and final need that emerges is self-actualisation, which is to realise one's potential and calling in life. This need is not necessarily met as individuals grow old, but it becomes a continuous journey of growth and development (Jex & Britt, 2014; Saiyadain, 2009).

The following section summarises Maslow's hierarchy of needs and indicates how it can be fulfilled within a work context. The workplace application of Maslow's pyramid is provided in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Potential means of fulfilment at work

Needs hierarchy	
Self-actualisation	Challenging projects, opportunities for innovation and creativity, training
Esteem	Important projects, recognition, prestigious office location
Belongingness	Sound relationships with co-workers, peers, superiors, customers
Safety	Job security: benefits such as life insurance, safety regulations
Physiological	Basic pay, workspace, heat, water, company cafeteria

Taken from Aquinas, P. G. (2006). *Organizational Behaviour: Concepts, realities, applications and challenges*. New Delhi: Excel Books, p. 99.

Maslow argues that as a lower-order need is fulfilled; it ceases to be a motivator and the following level is activated. According to Maslow, however, a need may not be fully satisfied before the next need emerges (Aquinas, 2006). Within an organisation, employees may find it easiest to fulfil the physiological, safety and social needs. These needs can be attained through salaries, company benefits and the relationships that employees build with co-workers. The esteem and self-actualisation needs are harder to satisfy. Organisations must be creative in structuring work that appeal to higher-order needs. For example, mentoring and coaching can be used in organisations, appealing to employees' needs for esteem and self-actualisation.

2.2.2 Alderfer's ERG theory

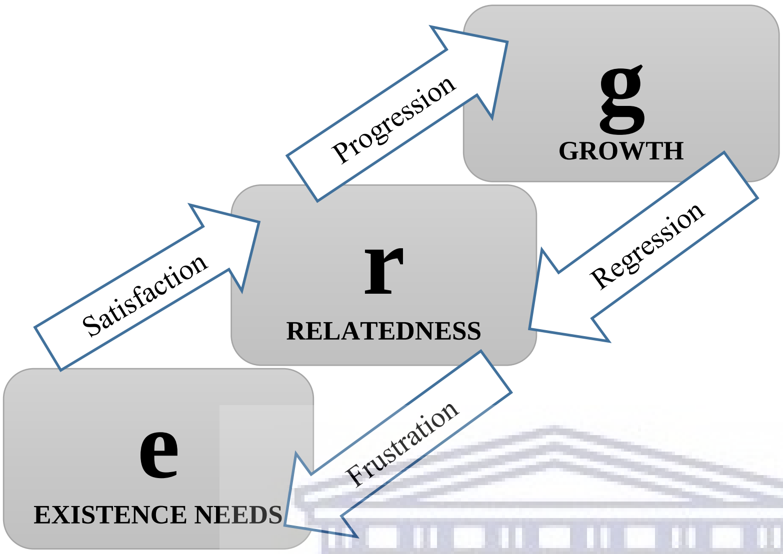
The ERG theory is similar to that of Maslow discussed above and was established by Clayton Alderfer, a psychologist from Yale. Instead of the five needs categories that Maslow identified, the ERG theory focuses only on three. The E, R and G represent three basic need categories (Griffin & Moorhead 2009, p. 95):

i. *Existence:* necessary for basic human survival and, similarly, correspond to the psychological and security needs of Maslow's hierarchy.
ii. *Relatedness:* the need to relate to others – similar to Maslow's belongingness and esteem.

iii. *Growth:* related to Maslow's needs for self-esteem and self-actualisation.

Figure 2.2

ERG theory



Taken from Redmond, B. F. (2010). *Need theories: What do I want when I work? Work attitudes and motivation.* University Park: The Pennsylvania State University World Campus, p. 6.

The ERG theory shows similarities with Maslow's hierarchy of needs. However, this theory differs from Maslow's design by the view that more than one level of needs may motivate any given person at the same time. For example, one may need to have interpersonal relations with co-workers and simultaneously may be seeking growth and development, thus tapping into both the relatedness and growth needs. Individual employees may satisfy the growth before the relatedness need, and may later be able to build relationships with others to satisfy the need for meaningful relationships. Furthermore, the importance of a need varies between individuals. For example, someone may place stronger emphasis on personal growth than on relationships, while for another person, relationships are more important.

Similar to Maslow's hierarchy, as individuals satisfy one level of needs, the following level will become relevant. However, different from Maslow, when employees become frustrated and are unable to satisfy a higher-order need, they will revert to the preceding need level (Griffin & Moorhead, 2009). In the context of the workplace, those employees who are in more specialised roles and whose work can be repetitive, may regress continually to a lower-level need, seeing that the higher-order needs are not met in the workplace. In the short term, such regression may not be problematic, however, over a longer period it is unlikely that employees will be intrinsically motivated by their work tasks when higher-order needs are not met. The implication of this theory is similar to that of Maslow – organisations must provide a work environment that appeals to the higher-order needs of workers, over and above their lower-order needs. Thus, eventually, competitive salaries and benefits may not be sufficient incentives to keep workers motivated.

2.2.3 Herzberg's two-factor theory

Herzberg's approach to motivation theory is different from those proposed by Maslow and Alderfer by considering facets of the job that could bring about motivation or motivate in a way that will produce satisfaction. Herzberg regards one group as hygiene factors and not motivators. Hygiene factors are as follows: company policy and administrative practices, supervision, interpersonal relations, physical working conditions, job security, benefits and salary. In other words, these factors as such do not lead to motivation. However, if not met, the individual employee will be dissatisfied. The second group of factors is viewed as motivational and are: achievement, recognition, challenging work, responsibility and advancements (promotion) (Miner, 2015).

The first group of factors mentioned above will not bring about motivation among employees in an organisation, but must still be present – otherwise employees will be dissatisfied. Herzberg refers to these as maintenance, hygiene or job-context factors. House and Wigdor (1970, p. 370) explain: "The satisfiers are related to the nature of the work itself and the rewards that flow directly from the performance of that work." The second group of factors directly affect an employee's motivational drive to do a good job, if absent one may be demotivated to perform and achieve their goals.

Herzberg describes how managers could apply this theory in practice by developing a technique referred to as job enrichment (Griffin & Moorhead, 2009). Job enrichment helps managers ensure satisfying, motivating aspects are present in employees' work context. Chitale, Mohanty and Dubey (2013) view job enrichment as an intrinsic source of motivation where employees work independently and use their discretion to perform key tasks, receive feedback on their performance and are satisfied when completing work that delivers the final product or service.

According to Koontz and Weihrich (2010), job enrichment gives employees more freedom to do their job. In this regard, job enrichment determines the resources (material or equipment) that employees require to perform their duties and encourages them to participate and collaborate with their colleagues. Thus, employees feel they are responsible for their tasks, thereby helping them understand how their work contributes to the organisation's success. Job enrichment may be effective as it is likely to give employees the opportunity to grow, take ownership and be innovative in their current role. However, if employees are motivated purely by monetary considerations, job enrichment is unlikely to satisfy their primary need.

2.2.4 McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

According to McGregor's view, theory X represents the assumption that employees dislike work and function effectively in highly controlled work environments. In contrast, theory Y assumes that employees accept responsibility and work towards an organisation's goals (Pride, Hughes & Kapoor, 2010).

The assumptions held by managers under theory X are that employees are not keen to work and would attempt avoiding tasks where possible. Employees, therefore, must be forced to achieve their goals. Furthermore, employees will avoid taking responsibility and require formal direction. Finally, it is assumed that employees typically lack ambition (Robbins & Judge, 2009). In contrast to these negative views, McGregor discusses positive assumptions in theory Y, suggesting that people actually consider work as an important part of their lives and do not naturally dislike working. The author also points out that employees become committed to their goals when it is clear how these are linked to rewards. Additionally, according to theory Y, employees are willing to take responsibility and have the potential to help the organisation achieve its goals.

Both theory X and Y are relevant in organisations and help describe managers' assumptions about their employees. The important implication of the theory is that managers are likely to treat their employees based on how they view them. If managers regard employees as inherently lazy and untrustworthy, they are likely to treat them as such, which in turn will cause employees to be disengaged at work and dissatisfied in their jobs. The process becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy, insofar as employees are likely to act and perform according to the expectations of their direct managers. Clearly, any organisation will want to employ workers who reflect the characteristics of theory Y. Therefore, it is important to understand and apply the characteristics of the theory-Y management style. These characteristics are: involving employees in decision-making, giving them challenging tasks to complete and enjoying sound relations with them. This theory introduces managers to strategies that will help them motivate employees in the workplace, in ways that will make the latter productive contributors in the work arena.

2.2.5 Skinner's reinforcement theory

The reinforcement theory was developed by the psychologist B. F. Skinner and describes the view that behaviour is motivated and controlled by using rewards and sanctions (Ricketts & Ricketts, 2010). According to this theory, over time, individuals learn the relationship between actions and its repercussions. Thus, individuals will increase forms of behaviour that produce positive outcomes and decrease those forms that result in negative outcomes. Hartel and Fujimoto (2015) identify four basic processes in the reinforcement theory. Positive reinforcement occurs when someone's behaviour results in a pleasant outcome such as a reward, which increases the motivation to repeat that behaviour. Negative reinforcement occurs when behaviour results in the withdrawal of an unpleasant consequence, which motivates the individual to repeat that behaviour. Punishment occurs when an individual's behaviour has an unpleasant consequence, which motivates that person to avoid this form of behaviour. Finally, extinction takes place when the behaviour lead to the removal of a pleasant consequence, thereby motivating the person to avoid that behaviour altogether.

Skinner cautions that reinforcement is not necessary on each occasion for one to repeat a particular behaviour, and just because someone is trained to behave in a certain way does not mean this form of behaviour will be adopted permanently. It is therefore important that managers indicate clearly to employees which form of work behaviour is desirable and link this form to rewards. Similarly, it is important that managers identify and communicate undesirable patterns of work behaviour and inform employees on how to correct them (Hartel & Fujimoto, 2015).

2.2.6 Vroom's expectancy theory

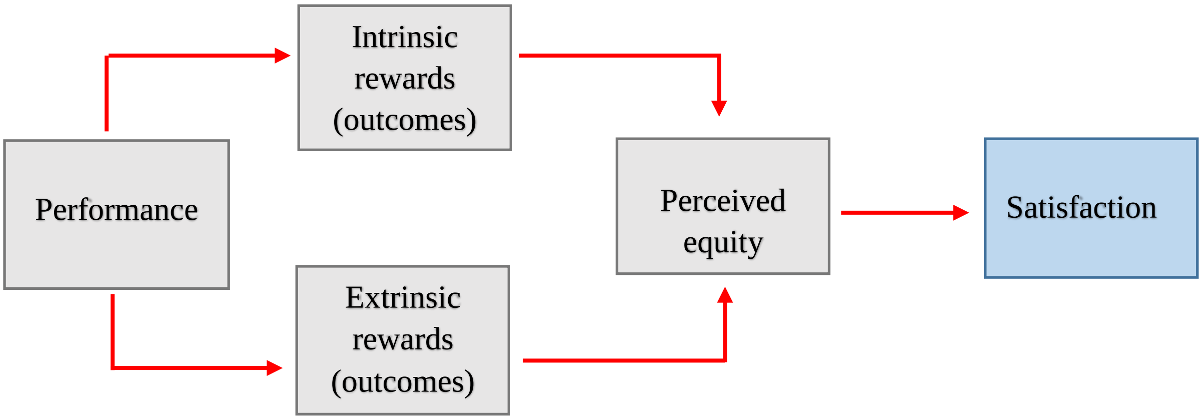
According to Lunenburg (2011, p. 2), the expectancy theory is based on three key components, which state "a person is motivated to the degree that he or she believes that (a) effort will lead to acceptable performance (expectancy), (b) performance will be rewarded (instrumentality), and (c) the value of the rewards has positive value (valence).” These three key components of the theory were inferred from Vroom’s four assumptions (Vroom, 1964). Firstly, employees join an organisation with expectations about their needs and motivation, which determine how they respond to the organisation. Secondly, employees’ behaviour is the outcome of the sensible choice they have made based on their calculated expectations. Thirdly, employees have different needs that they seek to satisfy in the workplace. Finally, employees will choose from alternatives to improve results for their personal gain.

According to Lunenburg (2011, p. 3), “Vroom suggests that motivation, expectancy, instrumentality, and valence are related to one another by the equation Motivation = Expectancy x Instrumentality x Valence.” This equation suggests that a high level of motivation will result when expectancy, instrumentality and valence levels are high. Furthermore, if one of the variables equals zero, the entire motivational potential will also equal zero.

Porter and Lawler (1968) build on the expectancy theory and are of the view that performance leads to satisfaction mediated by abilities, traits and role perception. The main characteristics of the model are effort, performance and satisfaction. Effort is the amount of energy that one applies to a task. The effort is determined by the value of the reward and the perception of effort-reward probability. Performance is determined by the amount of effort that one exerts and its ability to accomplish a task. Satisfaction depends on the amount of the reward one achieves. If the rewards exceed or meet individual employees’ expectations, they will be satisfied. However, if the rewards fall short of the perceived equitable ones, the employees will be dissatisfied (Murugesan, 2012).

Figure 2.3

Porter and Lawler's extension of the expectancy theory



Taken from Griffin, R. W. (2015). *Fundamentals of management*. Boston: Cengage Learning, p. 301.

Porter and Lawler's (1968) theory therefore proposes that if performance results in an equitable reward, either intrinsic or extrinsic, employees will be satisfied. Ryan and Deci (2000) explain that intrinsic motivation implies performing a task that is inherently interesting or enjoyable to oneself. The reward would be completing the specific task and finding satisfaction in the action as such. The authors identify drivers that lead to intrinsic motivation, namely autonomy, relatedness and competence. Autonomy is the need to have control over one's own life; relatedness is to establish and maintain relations with others; and competence is the need to excel and succeed (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Based on these drivers, intrinsic motivation can be grouped into three types:

i. Intrinsic motivation towards knowledge: performs an activity for pleasure or for learning and understanding something.
ii. Intrinsic motivation towards accomplishment: taking part in an activity for the pleasure of accomplishing something.
iii. Intrinsic motivation towards stimulation: performs an activity to attain a stimulating experience (Olsson, 2008).

Extrinsic motivation means performing an activity or task in order to attain a more tangible outcome or a reward – or avoid external sanctions. Ryan and Deci (2000) explores extrinsic motivation by identifying a continuum of behaviour regulations that gauge the degree to which a form of behaviour has been incorporated into one's sense of self. The behaviour regulations can be expressed as four steps on a continuum:

i. *External regulation:* one's behaviour is controlled by external incentives such as praise and rewards.
ii. *Introjected regulation:* performing an act or activity to enhance or maintain approval from oneself or others.
iii. *Identified regulation:* one identifies with the behaviour, finds it important to oneself and accepts it as one's own.
iv. *Integrated regulation:* the most autonomous type of extrinsic motivation, which occurs when the behaviour is integrated fully with one's inner personal values and beliefs (Olsson, 2008).

Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are therefore important if management should understand which rewards will be valuable to employees. Managers who understand their employees' individual needs and what motivates them (either intrinsically or extrinsically) are better able to offer rewards that are meaningful to each employee. This means that for employees to be motivated, proper and fair rewards must be in place that are equitable to the effort that they exerted. The theory also predicts that the same reward may not have similar motivational potential for all employees. The potential to motivate depends largely on the degree to which individual employees ascribe value to the reward. For example, it can be expected that any given reward will be significantly more potent when integrated autonomously with the person's values and belief systems. Such integration stands in contrast to external regulation, which is contingent on incentives.

2.2.7 Adams' equity theory

The equity theory was developed by Stacy Adams and is based on the notion that everybody wants to be treated fairly (Ricketts & Ricketts, 2010). This theory proposes that people are motivated to maintain equitable or fair relationships between themselves and others, and avoid inequitable interaction (Mukherjee, 2009). When judging equity, people compare themselves to others by focusing on two variables: inputs and outputs. Within the work context these pair of concepts can be translated into what employees get out of their jobs (e.g. remuneration, fringe benefits, prestige) in comparison to the contributions or investments that they make (e.g.

time worked, effort exerted, units produced) (Pride, Hughes & Kapoor, 2012). Equity is a function of individuals' perception of their own input-to-outcome ratio.

When applying equity theory to remuneration and benefits, equity can be expressed in terms of three different scenarios, namely: equitable payment, underpayment inequity and overpayment inequity.

Equity: when two employees, occupying the same or similar jobs, each perceive the ratio of their inputs to outcomes as equal to that of the fellow employee to whom they are being compared. This scenario suggests that employees are satisfied with the pay from the employer. When the ratios are different, this implies inequity.

Underpayment: inequity occurs when the ratio of inputs to outputs is perceived to be less favourable than the standard or what is perceived as normative. Employees who perceive they are working harder than colleagues who perform the same job for the same salary, may feel that they are underpaid. Such employees may experience feelings of anger towards the employer.

Overpayment: inequity emerges when the ratio of the employee's input to outcome is more favourable than the compared standard. In such a case, the employee may feel guilt rather than anger.

According to the theory mentioned above, when employees perceive they are in a state of inequity, they attempt to reach equality, which will help them feel satisfied (Jex & Britt, 2014). Thus, in a sense, the equity theory is concerned less with the type of rewards, rather with the ratio according to which rewards are allocated to peers. The absolute value or magnitude is not the most important factor in inequity, rather whether rewards are distributed equally. According to this theory, employees are motivated to achieve equality in rewards by comparing them to their reference group.

2.2.8 Locke's goal-setting theory

The goal-setting theory is based on the premise that employees will work harder when they have clear goals on which they have agreed (Mills, Mills, Bratton & Forshaw, 2006).

According to this theory, employees are motivated by working towards goals they helped create. Eysenck (2004) identifies three key characteristics of the theory:

i. Employees are motivated by the goals that they set.
ii. Higher or difficult goals require higher levels of effort or performance.
iii. Effort depends on the level of commitment to the goal.

Even when a goal is difficult, it is important that it should still be realistic despite being challenging. A goal that seems unattainable may end up demotivating employees and decrease their overall commitment. The basic components of the theory are as follows:

- *Goal specificity:* the degree to which the set goal is detailed precisely and clearly.
- *Goal acceptance:* the extent to which employees understand and value the goal that was set.
- *Performance feedback:* provided on the quality of past performance, and how much progress is made in accomplishing the goal (Kurtz & Boone, 2009). Within the organisation, such feedback can be through performance contracts, managers and employees sitting down one-on-one and agreeing on tasks, timeframes and standards of delivery. Feedback may take on the form of a manager reviewing employees' progress and giving guidance and assistance when needed.

According to the theory above, employees will be motivated to the extent that they regard the goal as important, well-defined and possible to achieve. The final step is providing feedback to employees on their progress in reaching the specified goal.

The theories discussed above, have important implications for organisations, seeing that employees show different motivational potential for the same rewards. Maslow's and Alderfer's theories posit that extrinsic rewards are likely to satisfy only employees' subsistence needs, while meaningful work is required to meet intrinsic needs. Herzberg's theory points out that fair and market-related remuneration is only important to keep employees from becoming dissatisfied, however, does not serve as a source of real motivation.

McGregor's theories X and Y explain that managers' perceptions of employees will dictate how they relate to and treat their subordinates. Skinner stresses that rewards and punishment are the primary motivating forces that drive behaviour. According to his theory, specific behaviour must be rewarded and unwanted behaviour discouraged through sanctions or punishment. Vroom's VIE theory and Locke's goal-setting theory argue that behaviour should be instrumental in achieving goals and that these goals should be valued by subordinates in order to reach the highest motivational potential. According to Adam's equity theory, employees are motivated to achieve equity according to the ratio of their inputs and outcomes. The ratio of inputs to outputs are compared to a relevant reference group.

Considering the various motivational theories, the following section examines the role of reward structures on employees' motivation.

2.3 REWARD STRUCTURE

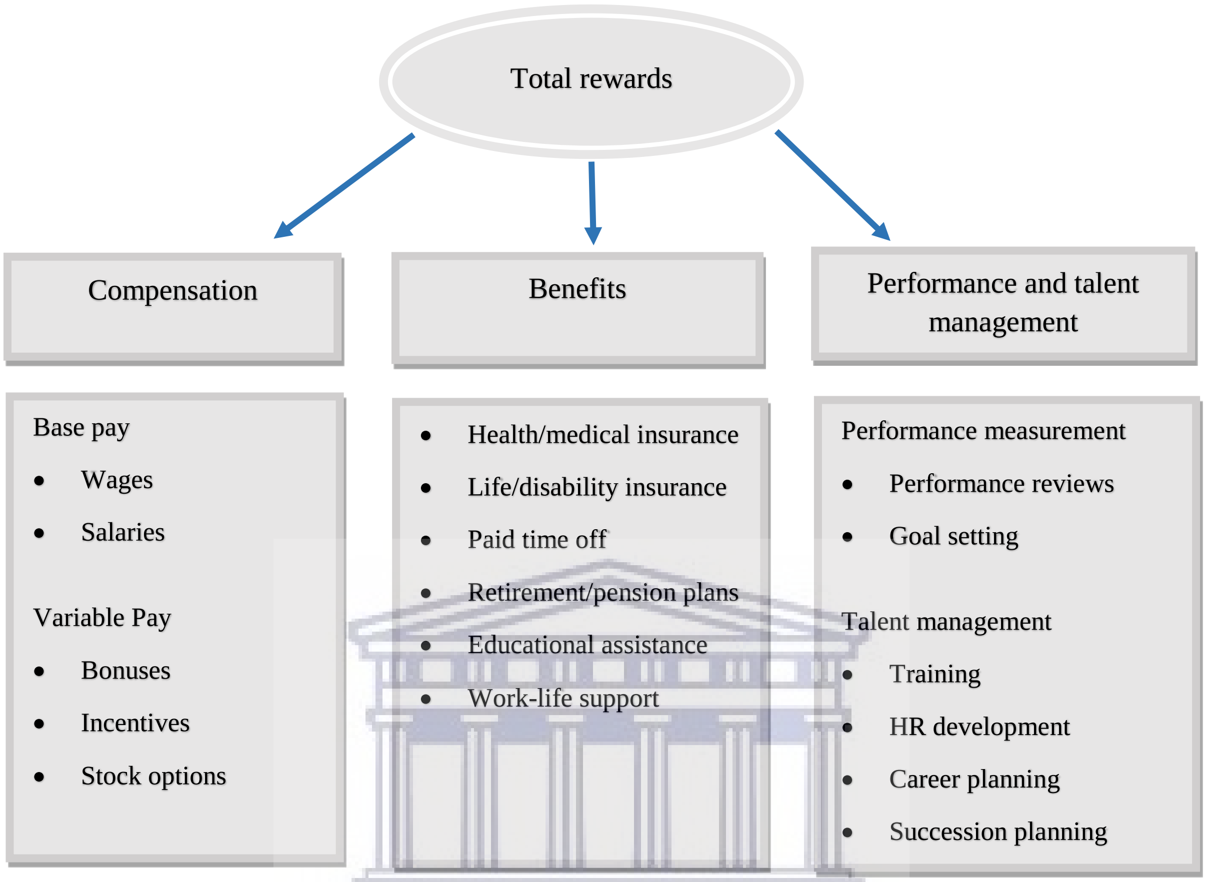
When reward structures are designed properly within an organisation, they become powerful motivational tools to drive individual, group and organisational success (Thompson, Strickland & Gamble, 2005). Werner and DeSimone (2009) state that a reward structure focuses on the types of rewards that an organisation uses, how it distributes those rewards (individual or group) and the criteria for distribution (results and non-performance). It is therefore important to understand the types of rewards available in different organisations. This understanding is important because it can either activate intrinsic or extrinsic motivation of employees. Against the background of the foregoing section, it is clear that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation leads to vastly different motivational outcomes for employees. The different types of rewards that make up an employee's remuneration package typically include pay, benefits, recognition, career development, training, special projects and assignments (Gallo, 2011).

2.3.1 Total rewards

A total rewards framework allows employers to consider their employees' reward preferences and design reward packages that meet these needs (Bussin & Toerien, 2015). Such reward preferences are not mere compensation and employee benefits but include performance and talent management. In this regard, performance and talent management help managers identify and retain existing talent in an organisation as well as offer development and growth opportunities (Bussin, 2014). This form of management will allow the organisation to identify the appropriate combination of rewards that is likely to lead to the highest level of motivation and subsequently performance (Snelgar, Renard & Venter, 2013). Figure 2.4 provides a breakdown of total rewards into three categories, namely compensation, benefits, performance and talent management.

Figure 2.4

Total rewards



Taken from Mathis, R. L., & Jackson, J. H. (2011). *Human resource management: Essential perspectives.* Boston: South-Western Cengage Learning, p. 360.

Each one of the three dimensions outlined in Figure 2.4 above is critically important to the overall value proposition of employers and aims to activate intrinsic and extrinsic motivation among employees. The total-rewards framework acknowledges that retention and motivation may be two sides of the same coin and that a combination of incentives is needed to retain the most productive human resources in an organisation. Each of these components is discussed in more detail in the following subsections.

2.3.1.1 Compensation

Direct compensation is the tangible form of reward that an employee receives for work done and goals achieved in an organisation. This form of compensation is monetary and can be categorised as base and variable pay (Mathis & Jackson, 2011). Base pay is the basic monetary compensation that employees receive in return for work done. This payment can be in the form of wages, which is compensation based on the hours worked, or a salary, which is a consistent amount paid out irrespective of hours worked (Mathis, Jackson, Valentine & Meglich, 2016). According to Korir and Kipkebut (2016), base pay may be used to determine additional payments linked to competence and skills. Base pay, therefore, may differ between employees although they are recruited for the same role. Human resource (HR) practitioners use salary bands to establish the variance in pay for a given role. The minimum point is the lowest level of remuneration; the maximum point is calculated at the ceiling of the salary scale and a midpoint lies at the 50th percentile. These salary bands serve as a guide for HR practitioners and line managers when making offers to new appointments (Aswathappa, 2013).

Variable pay is a performance-related reward, which is not included permanently in an employee's basic salary. Such pay entails additional remuneration that must be earned repeatedly based on performance. Thus, variance pay includes incentives and bonuses that employees may earn over and above their basic salary. Incentives are remuneration paid to employees with its primary objective to encourage and motivate future performance (Sloan, 2007).

Performance incentives form part of most jobs in the financial sector industry. A common form of performance incentive is commission. Commission is a percentage or an agreed amount that employees earn when reaching a specified goal or target (Mathis, Jackson, Valentine & Meglich, 2016). Incentives provide a means through which organisations can set the level of performance and expectations for their employees, to encourage the behaviour that drive key organisational goals (Mathis, Jackson, Valentine & Meglich, 2016). However, when the demands for incentives are unrealistic or perceived as impossible to achieve, it may lack a motivational impact on employees' performance. The relationship between incentives and performance may be linked to Locke's goal-setting theory and Vrooms expectancy theory, seeing that employees will exert energy to meet their goals in an effort to obtain incentives and rewards. Organisations need to take these two models into consideration when structuring remuneration packages for employees.

A bonus is a discretionary payment, with no prior commitment, made to employees annually and usually at the end of the year (Sloan, 2007). Such an incentive can be made when an organisation performs well in a particular financial year and meets and/or exceeds its profit targets. A bonus is the amount that organisations award to individual employees to demonstrate appreciation for past performance.

2.3.1.2 Employee benefits

Employee benefits are a range of additional rewards provided by an employer as part of an employee's remuneration package. Benefits are indirect rewards, which include insurance cover, company car, medical aid, pension fund, sick leave pay and educational assistance (Korir & Kipkebut, 2016). In South Africa, companies are compelled by law to provide certain basic benefits to their employees. The Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997 makes provision for leave (annual, sick, maternity and family responsibility), for work on public holidays as well as for unemployment insurance benefits.

Medical or health insurance schemes include cover to employees for medical expenses. Employees have different medical needs such as hospitalisation, access to medication and treatment by medical practitioners. Life insurance is a benefit an organisation provides according to which a lump sum of money is paid to the family of the employee after his/her death. (Armstrong & Murlis, 2007). Disability insurance covers employees' salary in the event that they are unable to work due to either short-term or long-term disability. This benefit ensures employees' salary is continually paid during the period they are unable to work (Power, 2019). Paid time off work may be in a form of annual leave, where employees may go on vacation and spend time with their family. Such time off also includes family responsibility leave where an employee is given time off work to attend family responsibilities. Other forms of benefits that organisations may offer are study loans and educational assistance for employees' children. The latter benefit assists employees by paying tuition for their children's education or daycare facilities for young children (Nicholls, 2012).

A retirement or pension plan is a benefit organisations provide for its employees to make financial provision for their retirement, or is paid out to their dependents after employees' death (Armstrong, 2010). Work-life support is afforded to employees by their organisation through, for example, flexible working hours, which help them balance their work and family life (WorldatWork, 2008).

Over the past decade the list of benefits which organisations offer have expanded dramatically since companies are searching for new ways to attract and retain the most talented employees. Benefits are often an incremental source of motivation beyond an equitable base salary, seeing that benefits can be tailored to individuals' specific needs. For certain employees, more time off work and a flexible work arrangement may be important, particularly if they are rearing a young family. For others, educational grants and comprehensive fringe benefits may be more important. An extensive benefit strategy will allow organisations to cater for the individual needs of employees.

2.3.1.3 Performance and talent management

Jensen, McMullen and Stark (2007) view performance management as the process that measures an employee's individual performance against set standards as agreed by the employee and the employer. The scholars point out that certain individuals are of particular value to an organisation – either in view of their "high potential" for the future or because they are fulfilling business or operation-critical roles. Thus, performance management involves attracting, identifying, developing, engaging, retaining and placing these outstanding individuals. Therefore, such management is proactive, focuses on the future and provides information and tools for employees to plan for growth and acquire new opportunities (Bussin, 2014). Performance and talent management are interlinked, as the ultimate purpose of the latter management is to attract and retain the most talented employees. The main philosophy of performance management is to retain those employees who perform at a high level of efficiency and productivity (Bussin, 2014). Until more recently, performance and talent management have not always been recognised as an important component of the remuneration strategy. However, more recently performance management has emerged as an important source of personal growth and talented employees are attracted to work for supervisors who are good mentors (Baqutayan, 2014).

The remuneration policy forms part of the larger retention-and-attraction strategies that are contained in the talent management plan. The reward-and-remuneration policy is not only geared to drive performance, but also to retain the best talent in the organisation and attract extra role behaviour that may benefit the organisation. It is important to understand that when viewing the remuneration policy from this perspective, it entails more than simply paying employees for agreed outcomes (Armstrong & Murlis, 2007; Bussin, 2002).

2.3.2 WorldatWork elements of total rewards

Numerous models of total rewards have been researched over the past decades. These include the Towers Perrin and Hay Group Models (Armstrong & Murlis, 2007). All the models include both financial and non-financial rewards. Most of the reward and incentive components have been discussed in detail. The focus in the following subsection is specifically on the WorldatWork model.

The following basic five elements make up total rewards (WorldatWork, 2007):

i. *Compensation:* is the remuneration or pay provided to employees for services rendered. This entails salary, performance bonus and long-term pay, which may include shares.

ii. *Benefits:* refers to aspects such as unemployment fund, medical aid, life insurance, retirement insurance, or leave.

iii. *Work-life:* denotes workplace flexibility, paid and unpaid time off, as well as health and well-being programmes.

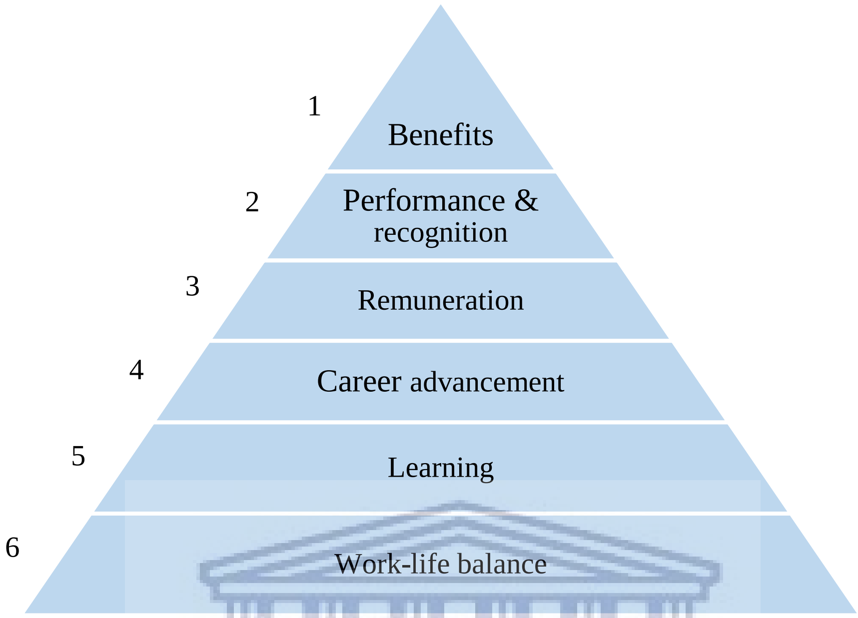
iv. *Performance and recognition:* alignment of organisational, team and individual efforts to achieve business goals and acknowledge employees' efforts or performance.

v. *Development and career opportunities:* learning experiences designed to enhance employees' skills and competencies and support their plans to advance their career.

Pregnolato (2010) conducted a study in which she sought the ideal mix of reward preferences by involving knowledge workers from different ethnic, gender and age groups within diverse industries and sectors. She developed a questionnaire based on the WorldatWork elements of total rewards. Figure 2.5 graphically portrays the rewards, arranged from the most important and valued to the least important, according to the results of her study.

Figure 2.5

The overall ideal mix of total rewards



Taken from Pregnolato, M. (2010). *Total rewards that retain: A study of demographic preferences.* Cape Town: University of Cape Town, p. 83.

Figure 2.5 illustrates that the top three rewards, benefits, performance and recognition as well as remuneration, are all monetary-based, while the rest of the rewards are non-monetary (Pregnolato, 2010). The top three rewards are motivated extrinsically and the rest are linked to intrinsic motivators. It is therefore important that managers think about the mixture of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards in order to attract the best employees and keep them motivated to perform consistently at the highest level. From the figure above, it can be deduced that although relationship features of a job is important for intrinsic motivation, remuneration and benefits remain an important extrinsic motivator (Pregnolato, 2010).

Not only is motivation important on its own, but it is also necessary to establish its link to organisational commitment. Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979, cited by Van den Berg, 2011), view motivation as an important predictor of organisational commitment (Darolia, Kumari & Darolia, 2010; Tella, Ayeni & Popoola, 2007; Warsi, Fatima & Sahibzada, 2009). In turn, organisational commitment as a construct can be divided into three sub-dimensions: affective, normative and continuance. These three sub-facets provide a conceptual framework that help explain why employees are attracted to their organisations. Affective commitment can be described as the emotional attraction. Normative commitment implies that employees remain with organisations because they feel it is the normative or moral thing to do. Continuance commitment is concerned with the costs employees associate with leaving the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The following section examines organisational commitment in more detail, with specific reference to the three types.

2.4 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organisational commitment is an important indicator since it provides a framework to understand employees' attachment to a specific organisation (Khan, Khan, Kundi, Khan, & Yar, 2014). The present study investigated employees working in the financial industry. Due to the specialised nature of this sector, it is important that organisations attract and retain the most talented employees. The rewards offered by organisations have the potential to strengthen employees' commitment. The study of organisational commitment is important because it is related strongly to an employee's intention to leave or remain in an organisation. In addition, organisational commitment is linked to multiple key organisational variables such as higher employee performance, extra role behaviour and lower levels of absenteeism and presenteeism.

Early attempts by Etzioni (1961) to define commitment focused on the hold organisations have on their employees due to their involvement with the company (Bussing, 2002). Etzioni differentiated between various types of involvement. Moral involvement is the positive connection employees enjoy with the organisation. This connection is characterised by employees' acceptance of and identification with the organisation's goals, values and standards. Calculative involvement entails a relationship of exchange between the employee and the organisation. Thus, employees become committed to the organisation due to the rewards received for their work contribution. Finally, alienative involvement denotes a negative relationship between the employee and organisation. Employees are likely not to have the drive and intention to meet an organisation's goals, or may not be receiving sufficient rewards or incentives for their effort. Nevertheless, they still feel obliged to remain in the organisation since they perceive they have relatively few alternative options (Bussing, 2002).

Porter (1974) defines organisational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organisation. Salancik (1977) concurs with this view and adds, "It is the state of being in which an individual becomes bound by actions and beliefs that sustain activities and involvement" (Cooper, 2003). Thus, organisational commitment is the extent to which employees are dedicated and willing to work for the company. The likelihood that they will remain in the organisation is high (Jex & Britt, 2014). From this point of view, organisational commitment is characterised by employees accepting the company's goals and being willing to make an effort in pursuing these goals.

Organisational commitment can be regarded as a binding force that is experienced mentally, or a psychological state that leads employees towards a particular course of action (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Zangaro (2001) points out that employees are considered to be committed to an organisation if they willingly stay on and dedicate themselves to achieve the organisation's goals. The explication above can be summarised in the definition by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979). According to them, organisational commitment occurs when an employee has: 1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; 2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and 3) a strong desire to maintain membership within the organisation (Mguqulwa, 2008).

As mentioned, Meyer and Allen (1991) categorised organisational commitment in terms of three themes: affective, continuance and normative commitment. In this regard, commitment can be viewed as employees' *emotional* connection towards the organisation, recognition of the *costs* associated with leaving the organisation and a moral *obligation* to remain with the organisation (Mguqulwa, 2008). Resource practitioners must understand which antecedents are related to each type, in order to design interventions that will impact on the desired level of commitment. The following section will examine specifically the expected relationship between motivation, reward structures and the three levels of organisational commitment.

2.4.1 Model of organisational commitment

Allen and Meyer (1990) conceptualised the three-component model of organisational commitment. Each sub-dimension is considered a distinguishable and independent variable since employees are likely to experience each sub-component differently (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Kaptijn, 2009). The three components are expounded in the following subsections.

2.4.1.1 Affective commitment

Affective commitment occurs when employees are emotionally attached, can identify with and is involved in the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). According to Kaur and Sandhu (2010), employees who have positive experiences that satisfy their basic needs are more likely to develop a stronger affective attachment to the company. These employees stay on in an organisation voluntarily and not because they feel obligated. Employees have the willingness to meet organisational goals and perceive their values as aligned with those of the organisation. Strong levels of affective commitment indicate an emotional attachment to the organisation. Managers can increase the level of affective commitment in their employees by communicating appreciation for their contributions and showing interest in their well-being (Nelson & Quick, 2012). Appreciation for contributions can be communicated through rewards. Incentives and recognition awards may show or communicate to employees that their contributions towards the organisation are valued and appreciated. Affective commitment can be increased when employees feel that the organisation has their best interests at heart, such as offering salaries higher than the industry average and providing them with interesting work assignments.

However, it is likely that affective commitment may be driven by rewards that are not only extrinsic. Building a relationship of trust with subordinates may be a stronger driver of affective commitment (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytski, 2002). An employee may reciprocate with positive attitudes toward the organisation such as affective bonds and feelings of loyalty (Saygan, 2011). However, at the same time, it can be expected that growth and self-actualisation goals should foster affective commitment, which in turn should promote intrinsic motivation (Machado, 2013).

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, p. 316) explain, "Any personal or situational variable that contributes to the likelihood that an individual will become intrinsically motivated in a course of action will contribute to the development of affective commitment." This view suggests that intrinsic motivation leads to affective commitment. Choong, Wong and Lau (2011) investigated 247 academics from four Malaysian private universities. Their findings showed that affective commitment indicated the strongest positive relationship with intrinsic motivation, followed by the relationship with continuance and normative commitment. Thus, the relationship between affective commitment and intrinsic motivation is supported strongly in the existing literature (O'Driscoll & Randall, 1999; Andressen, Konradt & Neck, 2012).

Overall, it was found that non-monetary rewards are a more powerful predictor of affective commitment than monetary rewards (Malhotra, Budhwar & Prowse, 2007). This finding is consistent with Ryan and Deci's (2000) model of motivation.

Huang (2015), undertaking studies in the United States and China, sought to examine whether motivation affects organisational commitment and job satisfaction differently in the two countries. A total of 330 participants completed a questionnaire and the results for both countries showed that there was a positive association between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment (Altindis, 2011; Andresen, Roxenhall & Frick, 2014; Tsegaye, 2017).

In light of the discussion above, the following hypothesis can be formulated:
H_1: A positive relationship is expected between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.

Camillus (2011) explored the link between intrinsic motivators and Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The scholar found that intrinsic factors such as achievement, recognition, meaningful work itself, career advancement and growth, are in line with Maslow's higher-order needs (belonging, esteem and self-actualisation). Intrinsic motivators indicate that, at times, monetary rewards may not motivate employees, but recognition and a sense of achievement could. Khan and Zafar (2014) found that training is a strong driver of organisational commitment in general and affective commitment in particular. Considering the literature reviewed on total rewards, talent management includes learning, career advancement and growth and is linked to intrinsic motivation.

Grund and Titz (2018) sought to determine the relationship between further training and affective commitment. Their study, in which 7 000 employees from 837 firms took part, was conducted in Germany in the processing (metal and electrical industry) and service sectors. It was found that employees who participated in further training are associated positively with affective commitment. Furthermore, Grund and Titz (2018) point out that availability of training in an organisation can be viewed as an indication that the company cares for its employees. Other studies have also found a positive association between affective commitment and learning in the workplace (Von Treuer, McHardy & Earl, 2013; Wu & Liu, 2006). Therefore, it can be expected that learning and career advancement amplify (moderate) the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment. This relationship is posited in the following hypotheses:

H_2: Learning moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.
H_3: Career advancement moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.

St-Hilaire and De La Robertie (2018) investigated predictors of employees’ affective commitment to an organisation at different group levels. One of the predictors of affective commitment was found to be internal motivation, which entails meaningful work, co-worker relationships, promotion and learning opportunities. The results showed a significant and positive relationship between internal motivation and affective commitment. The results indicated further that when employees experience pleasurable social relationships, an increase in organisational commitment is evident. This finding therefore indicates a significant correlation between a pleasant co-worker environment and affective commitment.

A study conducted among 293 industrial workers in South Korea examined the role of affective commitment in work-life balance and in-role performance. Such performance refers to completing work as specified in one’s contract and achieving the required outcomes and behaviours by serving the organisation’s objectives. The findings from the mentioned study showed that affective commitment has a positive influence on in-role performance (Kim, 2014). Furthermore, Isa, Romle, Udin, Zahid, Embi and Zabri (2016) found that factors of intrinsic motivation and affective commitment influence job performance. The purpose of their study was to identify how motivation and commitment influence job performance among employees based on 210 students’ perspectives at Universiti Utara Malaysia.

According to motivational theories such as that of Vroom, it is expected that performance may follow goals that are important (valence) to individuals, also given that they have the means (instrumentality) to reach those goals (Lunenburg, 2011). Accordingly, it is expected that intrinsic motivation will have a direct positive relationship with affective commitment. However, the relationship should be reinforced by strong perceptions of work performance. Highly productive employees typically get more access to resources in organisations which would increase their emotional attachment to the company (Munyua, 2017). Such attachment will, in turn, influence their levels of intrinsic motivation. Therefore, it can be expected that performance will moderate the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment. Previous research also indicate a direct relationship between work-life balance and affective commitment (Kim, 2014).

Another study, by Al Momani (2017), also found a significant relationship between work-life balance and affective commitment. The participants in this study were 144 working women from the King Abdullah University Hospital in Jordan. Gautam (2019) conducted a study in the Nepali banking industry where the relationship was investigated between the components of a comprehensive reward system and employee motivation. The study involved 200 employees who held different positions with the banks. One of the components of the examined reward system was work-life balance. The results of the study showed a positive relationship between work-life balance and employee motivation. Furthermore, in a study amongst 770 small and medium enterprises, owners in Indonesia, Rani and Desiana (2019) investigated the relationship between intrinsic motivation and work-life balance on financial and non-performance mediated by affective commitment. The results showed that intrinsic motivation and work-life balance have a significant and positive impact on affective commitment. Considering there is a significant relationship between intrinsic motivation, work-life balance and affective commitment, in the present study, it is expected that work-life balance will have a direct effect on intrinsic motivation. In addition, it is expected that work-life balance will amplify (moderate) the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment. In light of the discussion above, the following relationships are hypothesised:

H_4: Performance and recognition moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.
H_5: Work-life balance moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.
H_6: A positive relationship is expected between work-life balance and intrinsic motivation.

2.4.1.2 Continuance commitment

Continuance commitment entails the costs employees associate with leaving an organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Employees who perceive greater costs in leaving their current organisation than to remain, will stay on in the organisation since it makes financial sense.

Employees may be committed to their employer because of the salary they receive and may feel that quitting would disadvantage their family (Robbins, Judge, Millett & Boyle, 2013). Basic pay may play a large part in continuance commitment. If individuals' lifestyle and quality of life reach a high level, it may be difficult for them to leave a high-paying position, even if they are not emotionally committed to the organisation. Milkovich and Newman (2005) state that employees may view rewards as an exchange between them and their organisation for what is due to them, or as compensation for their work inputs. The way in which employees view the exchange, determines whether they may want to stay or leave the organisation. Employees may also remain with an organisation because other job alternatives are not as desirable as their current employment situation. However, if a newer and more lucrative position becomes available, employees would be tempted to pursue the opportunity (Saygan, 2011). From a cost perspective, employees may stay on in an organisation because it is beneficial to do so, at least until a better opportunity arises.

Huang (2015) states that theoretically, continuance commitment is related to extrinsic rather than intrinsic commitment. The cost associated with leaving an organisation refers mainly to the loss of extrinsic rewards such as money and job security. Thus, there tends to be a connection between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment. Tsegaye (2017) conducted a study in a large manufacturing company, where 128 employees took part. The aim was to determine the impact of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on organisational commitment. The findings indicated a strong relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment. These findings are in accordance with the theories of Herzberg and Alderfer that acknowledge the primary link between base pay and salaries and extrinsic motivation.

Khalid and Aftab (2017) investigated the influence of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on the three forms of organisational commitment. The results showed that continuance commitment is affected strongly by the type of extrinsic rewards, compared to affective and normative commitment. In addition, employee salary was linked to continuance commitment, more so than affective and normative commitment. The aforementioned study included 513 faculty members from 34 universities in the Rawalpindi and Islamabad region in Pakistan. Furthermore, a study investigating the Nigerian manufacturing industry found that employee benefits influence continuance commitment. This study included 31 manufacturing companies in the Rivers State, where data were collected through a questionnaire completed by 210 respondents (Umoh, Amah & Wokocha, 2014).

Based on the discussion above, it is theoretically clear why a direct relationship could be expected between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment. This proposition is in line with the theories of Maslow as well as Herzberg. Employees will be extrinsically motivated to meet their substance needs by transactionally committing themselves to the organisation through continuance commitment. However, it can also be argued that the relationship will be stronger between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment when the level of benefits and remuneration is higher (Khalid & Aftab, 2017). Thus, the expected relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment will be amplified (moderated) when the pay and benefits is higher. This assumption is in accordance with the conservation of resources theory. This theory flows from the premise that individuals strive to retain and protect resources which are valuable to them. Stress occurs when these resources are threatened or lost. Furthermore, resources lost are more powerful than those gained and tend to affect individuals more over time (Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu & Westman, 2018).

In theory, higher performance will lead to improved benefits to and remuneration of employees, which in turn will make them want to conserve resources. This affective response is likely to manifest in stronger levels of extrinsic motivation and, thereby lead to continuance commitment. This relationship becomes self-perpetuating insofar as higher performance creates higher-level incentives to preserve resources, in other words, extrinsic motivation will improve. When considering the link between continuance commitment and extrinsic motivation, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H_7: A positive relationship is expected between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment.
H_8: Remuneration moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment.
H_9: Benefits moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment.
H_{10}: A positive relationship is expected between benefits and extrinsic motivation.
H_{11}: A positive relationship is expected between remuneration and extrinsic motivation.

H_{12}: Performance and recognition moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment.

2.4.1.3 Normative commitment

Normative commitment takes place when an employee feels an obligation to stay on in an organisation based on moral beliefs (Allen & Meyer, 1990). This indicates that employees consider it as morally responsible to remain in an organisation irrespective of whether they are satisfied with their jobs or not (Korir & Kipkebut, 2016). Employees may feel obliged to remain in an organisation and avoid exchanging jobs too often. They may view loyalty to an organisation as an important value and may take pride in their years of uninterrupted service in a given company. Tsai and Shih (2016) posit that normative commitment tends to be more prevalent in organisations that value loyalty and, in turn, communicate with employees through rewards. Vuuren (as cited in Altindis, 2011) indicates that normative commitment is a form of extrinsic motivation. Considering the latter finding, a positive relationship can be expected between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment.

Altindis (2011) examined the relationship between job motivation and organisational commitment among health professionals in Turkey. The results indicate that normative commitment and extrinsic motivation show a high and positive relationship. A total of 185 respondents from four state hospitals in one province participated in this study. Another study by Wadhawan, Mishra and Garg (2017) in India found that compensation relates positively to normative commitment. This study took place in the pharmaceutical sector and the data were collected from 200 medical representatives. Furthermore, Rahaman, Abdul and Rahman (2016) conducted a study to determine whether the commitment of Bangladesh railway employees is based on compensation and benefits. The results of the study showed that compensation and benefits had a positive relationship with normative commitment.

The findings above indicate that when employees' compensation and benefits increase they feel an obligation to remain in the organisation. Therefore, it makes sense to expect strong positive correlations between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment. Furthermore, one would expect the results to be amplified (moderated) by increased remuneration and benefits. Employees may justify their behaviour from a moral perspective to remain with an organisation if it satisfies their subsistence needs. Based on the foregoing discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H_{13}: A positive relationship is expected between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment.

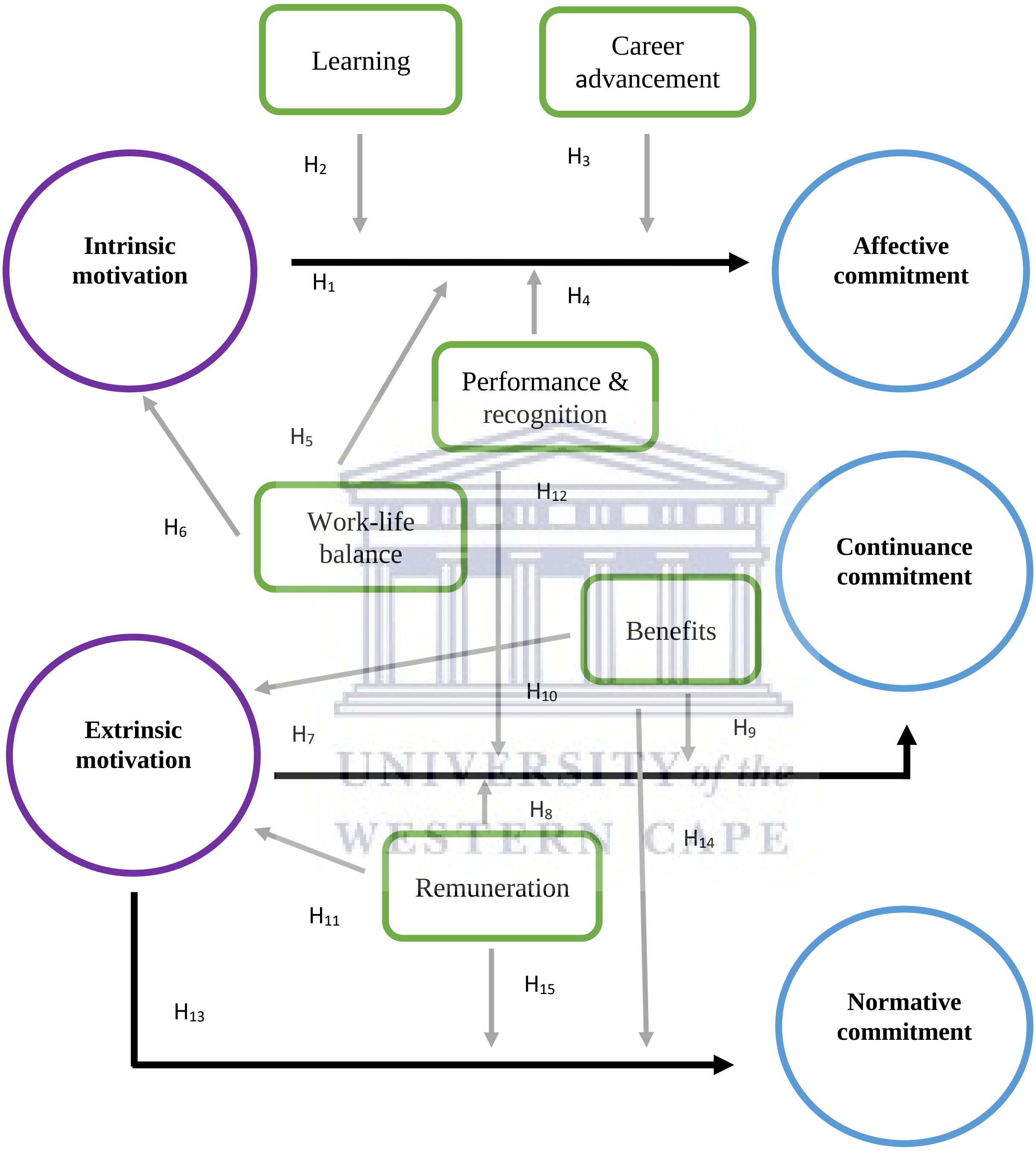
H_{14}: Benefits moderate the relationship between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment.

H_{15}: Remuneration moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment.

Considering the hypotheses collectively, the proposed relationships can be presented as an integrated conceptual model in the form of a nomological network. The 15 hypotheses are presented collectively in the model depicted in Figure 2.6.

Figure 2.6

Theoretical framework



2.5 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter first sought to explain the important role that human resources play in helping an organisation gain a competitive advantage within the financial services industry. Thereafter, the focus shifted to the role of talent management and how the rewards-and-remuneration strategy can be used to promote such management in organisations. Next, the main motivational theories were discussed. These theories provide important insight into how employees are motivated in the workplace by satisfying their most important and salient needs. An important and powerful motivator was found to be the rewards that organisations offer employees.

The reward structures that organisations offer will most likely impact employees' attachment to the company. The link between motivation and organisational commitment is the rewards that drive the three different levels of commitment. The reviewed literature indicates that motivation contributes to an individual's degree of commitment. Various hypotheses were formulated, based on the expected relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and the three forms of commitment. In addition, other hypotheses were formulated focusing on the moderating potential of reward structures.

The following chapter (ch 3) will present the research methodology, which entail the research design, the data collection methods, and the statistical techniques used to investigate and analyse the research problem. Furthermore, the research measures used to operationalise the latent constructs under consideration will be discussed in detail.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an outline of how the research methodology was used to investigate the relationship between employee motivation and organisational commitment, as moderated by reward structures. The research design, sampling strategy, and data collection procedure are discussed in detail. Furthermore, the research instruments and their psychometric properties are investigated. The chapter concludes with the statistical techniques used to analyse the data as well as identifying the strengths and limitations of the techniques.

3.2 HYPOTHESES

Theorising led to the formulation of several hypotheses aimed at answering the main research questions of the study.

The research hypotheses conceptualised in the present study were posited as follows:

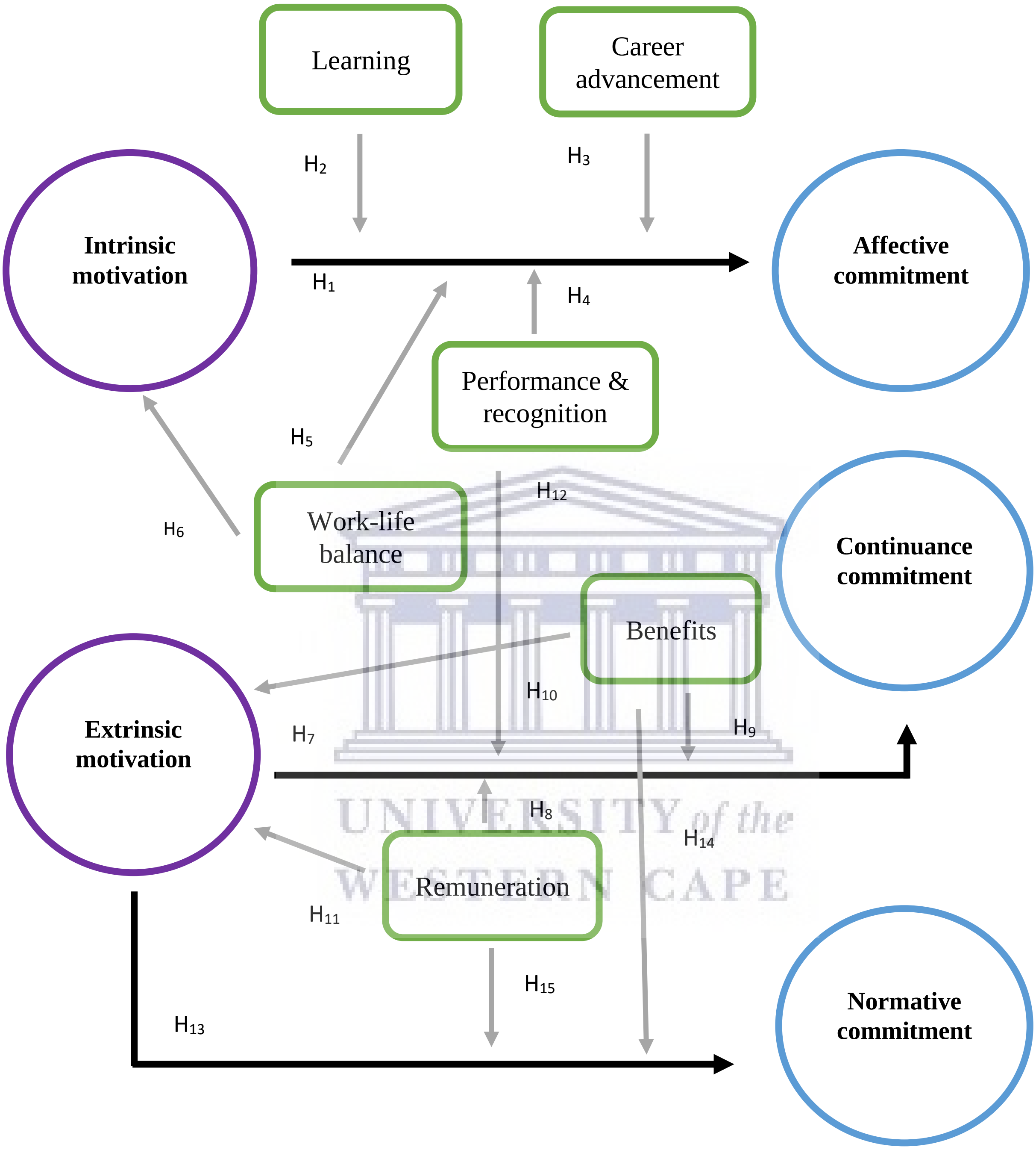
- H_1: A positive relationship is expected between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.
- H_2: Learning moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.
- H_3: Career advancement moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.
- H_4: Performance and recognition moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.
- H_5: Work-life balance moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.
- H_6: A positive relationship is expected between work-life balance and intrinsic motivation.
- H_7: A positive relationship is expected between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment.
- H_8: Remuneration moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment.

- H_9: Benefits moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment.
- H_{10}: A positive relationship is expected between benefits and extrinsic motivation.
- H_{11}: A positive relationship is expected between remuneration and extrinsic motivation.
- H_{12}: Performance and recognition moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment.
- H_{13}: A positive relationship is expected between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment.
- H_{14}: Benefits moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment.
- H_{15}: Remuneration moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment.

The individual hypotheses can be presented graphically in the form of a conceptual model. The conceptual model is depicted as Figure 3.1:

Figure 3.1

Theoretical framework



3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is the blueprint that gives direction on how the research study should be carried out. This design provides the framework that the researcher follows to test the relationships between variables empirically (Chawla & Sondhi, 2011). In this regard, the research design is an important plan that helps the researcher answer the primary research question through the chosen research methodology.

3.3.1 Quantitative research

In this study, a quantitative research approach was followed to investigate and test the formulated hypotheses. Williams (2007) explains that quantitative research involves collecting data and statistically quantifying the information in order to support or refute the relationship between the variables under investigation. The advantages of quantitative research methods, such as questionnaires, are that these can be administered to a relatively large group of participants at low cost. The results can be tabulated in a short period and the numerical data can facilitate comparisons between organisations or groups (Choy, 2014). Furthermore, the method is objective and the results can be standardised readily (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). An additional advantage is high external validity. The disadvantages of this method are that it is limited in addressing the "how" and "why" questions, therefore it does not provide depth and detail. The method depends on selecting a rather large sample of participants and using robust statistical techniques to investigate relationships (Koul, 2009). Causality between results cannot be inferred from cross-sectional correlational designs.

For the purposes of the present study, an *ex post facto* and correlational research design was used. Correlational research designs help establish whether there is a relationship between two or more variables and thereafter describes the nature of that relationship (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009). The *ex post facto* research design is a non-experimental one used to investigate the causal relationship between variables. *Ex post facto* research designs are often used when the researcher does not have control over the independent variables since their effect has already occurred. The researcher looks back to discover whether differences in group results are related to differences in the observed criterion measures (Goddard & Melville, 2004). Three questionnaires were used to collect data that were analysed in the study.

3.3.2 Approach to the study

This study investigated employees in a single financial institution in Cape Town. The data were collected by using questionnaires as measuring instruments. Permission to collect data was granted by the human resources director of the chosen organisation. The questionnaires were then administered electronically, accompanied by a consent form requesting participants to take part in the study and assuring them that their responses would be kept confidential. Additionally, the purpose of the research was explained and respondents were informed that they could withdraw their participation from the study at any stage, without any consequences.

In addition, the following ethical considerations were applied in the data collection phase of the study:

- *Voluntary participation:* All the respondents who took part did so freely without being threatened or bribed. All candidates were presented with information about the study and the potential risks involved when participating.
- *No harm to the participants:* In conducting this research no participants were injured or harmed. Also, no one was forced to participate in the study.
- *Anonymity and confidentiality:* No connection can be made between the completed questionnaires and the participants' personal information. Furthermore, the participants were assured that the information they provided would be kept confidential and would only be used for research purposes.
- *Participants' consent:* Each participant in the study had to provide their consent for the results to be used for the purposes of the research study.

By adhering to the above-mentioned ethical guidelines during the data collection procedure, the researcher was confident that no respondents were harmed. Informed consent obtained before data collection assured anonymity and confidentiality of the participants' responses. However, in the unlikely event that a respondent may have needed psychological support, the necessary support infrastructure was in place through the company's employee assistance programme. The information page that was presented at the start of the survey questionnaire highlighted the rights of the respondent and provided the contact details for counselling and support services within the organisation.

3.3.3 Population and sampling

3.3.3.1 Population

Cooper and Schindler (2003) define a population as the total collection of elements from which a researcher wishes to make inferences. For the present study, the population consisted of employees in management-level roles within the South African financial sector. The sample was drawn from a large organisation in the financial services industry in Cape Town. In the financial institution at which this research was conducted, every permanent employee receives the same benefits, which include medical aid, pension fund contributions, sick leave pay and maternity (or paternity) leave.

3.3.3.2 Sample

A sample can be defined as a subset, comprising members chosen from the population under investigation (Sekaran, 2003). Due to the large number of employees in the population, not all of them could be included in the present study. As a result, a smaller sample of candidates was selected to take part in the research. For the purposes of this research, the Raosoft sample size calculator was used to establish the ideal sample size. The size calculator assists by providing a calculated sample size from a given population. The aim is to produce a 95% confidence interval, which is desirable when conducting research through quantitative methods (Anderson, 2006). In total, 250 employees were targeted to participate in the study and 180 questionnaires in total were completed. The number of managers in the entire financial services industry differs according to the various sources. However, according to most accounts the national population of managers in the banking sector constitutes between 20 000 and 30 000 (Bank SETA, 2020). When working with an average of 25 000, the margin of error on a sample of 180 would be 6.90%. Although this margin is higher than the recommended norm of 5%, the researcher was largely satisfied with the sample, given the risk of sampling error (Raosoft Sample Size Calculator, 2004).

Certain demographic variables were captured in the questionnaire for two primary reasons: firstly, to describe the sample, and secondly to use as control variables, if needed. A summary of the sample is presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Sample characteristics

Sample Characteristics		**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Gender	Male	68	37.8%
	Female	112	62.2%
	Missing values	0	0%

Ethnicity	African	77	42.8%
	Asian	5	2.8%
	Coloured	77	42.8%
	White	21	11.7%
	Missing values	0	0%
Education	Matric	47	26.1%
	Certificate	26	14.4%
	Diploma	30	16.7%
	Degree	48	26.7%
	Post-graduate degree	29	16.1%
	Missing values	0	0%
Department	HR	33	18.3%
	Marketing	16	8.9%
	Credit Risk	8	4.4%
	IT	35	19.4%
	Finance	5	2.8%
	Legal & Compliance	7	3.9%
	Call Centre Managers	51	28.3%
	Other	25	13.9%
	Missing values	0	0%
Total N=180			

The sample comprised 68 males (37.8%) and 112 females (62%). This indicates the sample consisted of mostly females. When considering ethnicity, most of the sample was made up of Black respondents (42.8%), Coloured respondents (42.8%) and White respondents (11.6%), followed by Asian respondents (2.8%). Qualification levels indicated that the majority of the sample have a degree (26.7%). A post-graduate degree is held by 16.1%, a diploma by 16.7%, a certificate by 14.4% and a matric certificate by 26.1%. Regarding the departments that participated in the study, the majority (28.3%) of the respondents were Call Centre managers.

In addition, other departments were represented as follows: IT 19.4%, HR 18.3, Marketing 8.9%, Credit Risk 4.4%, Finance 2.8%, Legal and Compliance 3.9% and other departments 13.9%.

In the organisation where this study was conducted, every permanent employee receives a basic salary that are paid at the end of each month. In addition, they all receive medical aid cover, life insurance and pension fund benefits, which the organisation subsidises partly. Employees also have access to a number of leave benefit options including annual leave, sick leave, study leave, maternity/paternity leave and family responsibility leave. There are, however, certain benefits that are not afforded to every employee within the organisation. These include sign-on bonuses and share options, as these benefits tend to be offered only to prospective employees at senior levels and with scarce skills. Bonuses also depend on an employee's performance and overtime is paid to those in non-managerial roles. The company's educational assistance benefit is designed to assist those employees who are on entry-level and managerial role levels, before progressing to higher career levels. Performance reviews and goal setting are conducted through a process called Managing and Aligning Performance (MAP). This process entails having conversations with their employees and agreeing on goals that must be met within a specified period.

3.3.3.3 Sampling procedures

A non-probability sampling method was used in this study, in the form of convenience sampling. Cooper and Schindler (2003) points out that unrestricted non-probability samples are referred to as convenience samples, where the researcher has the freedom to include all participants in the final sample. In convenience sampling, people are selected based on their availability and willingness to respond (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009).

There are certain advantages in utilising a convenience sampling method: it is easier, less expensive and less time consuming than, for instance, the probability sampling technique. The latter involves identifying every individual in the population and using a laborious random process to select participants (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009). The following disadvantages of convenience sampling are well-documented: it is considered a weak form of sampling since the researcher makes no attempt to know the population and exercises limited control over the representativeness of the sample with a strong possibility that the obtained sample is biased

(Gravetter & Forzano, 2009). Bias may also be evident when one gender or age group is sampled significantly more than another group.

3.3.4 Data collection

The research instruments were collated into a single questionnaire that was hosted on an online software platform. Links were sent out to the target sample in the form of an email. The email was accompanied by an information sheet detailing the goal of the study as well as the rights of the respondents. Detailed instructions were provided on how to complete the questionnaire. All responses were integrated into a single database and the level of anonymity and confidentiality was guaranteed since no personal identification information was requested. The questionnaires were presented to the participants in the following format:

- Section A: Biographical questionnaire
- Section B: Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS)
- Section C: Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ).
- Section D: Total Rewards Preference Questionnaire

Permission to use all the questionnaires was granted by the authors. The questionnaires took approximately 15 minutes to complete and contained 60 items.

3.4 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The measures used to collect data for this study are discussed individually in the following section. Four measuring instruments were used to collect the data, namely a biographical questionnaire, the Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS), Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Total Rewards Preference Questionnaire.

The questionnaires used in the study were selected based on their strong psychometric properties. Therefore, most of the chosen measuring instruments have been used in previous research projects, which means their validity and reliability have been established in other studies. Reliability is concerned with the consistency of a given measure, and validity assesses whether the measure measures what it is supposed to do (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009). Stated differently, validity is typically concerned with how permissible decisions are, based on test scores.

3.4.1 Biographical questionnaire

For the purposes of this study, biographical information of participants was obtained using a self-developed biographical questionnaire. Questions focused on gender, age, ethnic group, education, years in service (tenure), type of employment (part-time or full-time), and the department in which the employee worked. This information was collected to allow for comparative analyses and describe the characteristics of the sample.

3.4.2 Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS)

Tremblay, Blanchard, Taylor, Pelletier and Villeneuve (2009) state that the WEIMS is a measure based on the self-determination theory, which distinguishes intrinsic from extrinsic motivation. The WEIMS consists of 18 items with the following six subscales:

- *Intrinsic motivation (IM):* employees find the activity inherently satisfying.
- *Integrated regulation (INTEG):* individual employees identify with the value of the activity to the extent that it becomes part of the sense of self.
- *Identified regulation (IDEN):* one completes an activity since one identifies with its value, meaning and accepts it as one's own.
- *Introjected regulation (INTRO):* means regulating one's behaviour through self-worth contingencies, such as self-esteem or guilt.
- *External regulation (ER):* implies performing an activity because of the rewards.
- *Amotivation (AMO):* employee either lack the intention to act, or does it passively.

Self-determined motivation consists of identification, integration and intrinsic motivation, whereas non-self-determined motivation consists of amotivation, external regulation and introjection. The instrument is based on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from "does not correspond at all", "does not correspond", "neutral", "correspond moderately" to "correspond exactly" (Tremblay et al., 2009). External regulation was used to measure extrinsic motivation, and the subscale of intrinsic motivation was used to operationalise such motivation. Thus, not all the dimensions in the measure were used to operationalise intrinsic as well as extrinsic motivation.

3.4.2.1 Reliability of the WEIMS

The reliability of a measure refers to its consistency (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009). Tremblay et. al. (2009) postulates that Cronbach's alpha, which measures the internal consistency of the questionnaire's six subscales, ranges from 0.64 to 0.83. The six subscales' alpha values were as follows: IM 0.80, INTEG 0.83, IDEN 0.67, INTRO 0.70, EXT 0.77 and AMO 0.64. These values indicate that the items are adequate to measure extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. In the study by Tremblay et. al. (2009) the researchers sought to examine the applicability of the WEIMS in different work environments in order to assess the factorial structure and psychometric properties of the measure. In total, 465 military workers across Canada and 192 civilians, men and women, voluntarily completed the questionnaire. No studies could be found that used the measure within the South African context.

3.4.2.2 Validity of the WEIMS

Factor analysis was used to determine the construct validity of the measure. Foxcroft and Roodt (2009) explain that the construct validity of a measure is the extent to which it measures the traits it is supposed to do. Support was found for the factor structures of the WEIMS, compared to the original measure called the Blais Work Motivation Scale (BIWM), which is the original French version of the WEIMS. The results show that the six-factor structure of the WEIMS has three items per construct as indicators and all 18 items had loadings higher than 0.30, according to Tremblay et. al. (2009). These scholars further found that every item loaded on their respective latent construct as follows: intrinsic motivation (IM4 0.41; IM8 0.34; IM15 0.40), integrated regulation (INTEG5 0.44; INTEG10 0.41; INTEG18 0.42), identified regulation (IDEN1 0.45; IDEN7 0.63; IDEN14 0.33), introjected regulation (INTRO6 0.44; INTRO11 0.38; INTRO13 0.56), external regulation (EXT2 0.87; EXT9 0.82; EXT16 0.70), and amotivation (AMO3 0.36; AMO12 0.44; AMO17 0.34) (Tremblay et. al., 2009).

The study from Tremblay et al. (2009) also gives evidence of criterion validity where it assessed the relationship between the WEIMS's subscales and a series of psychological constructs, which were considered either motivational antecedents, or consequences. Tremblay et. al. (2009, p. 219) found evidence that "perceived organisational support and positive work climate correlated positively with four out of the five types of motivation (ranging from 0.24 to 0.41), and correlated negatively with amotivation (-0.23 and -0.25, respectively); job satisfaction and organisational commitment correlated positively with work self-determined types of motivation (ranging between 0.40 and 0.46 for satisfaction and 0.32 to 0.41 for commitment).” Results from these studies indicate that the discriminant and convergent validity were intact for the measure.

3.4.3 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was designed by Meyer and Allen (1991) to measure employees’ commitment towards their organisation. In particular, the questionnaire provides information on the three types of organisational commitment, namely:

- *Affective:* employees being emotionally attached to and able to identify with the organisation and who is involved in it.
- *Continuance:* the costs an employee associates with leaving the organisation.
- *Normative:* when an employee feels an obligation to stay in the organisation based on moral beliefs.

The measure comprises 24 items with the mentioned three subscales (affective, normative and continuance commitment), each subscale consisting of eight items. Responses are captured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “uncertain”, “agree” to “strongly agree” (Maharaj & Schlechter, 2007).

3.4.3.1 Reliability of the OCQ

The reliability estimates for the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) proved to be satisfactory, suggesting that the measure is reliable. Studies have found that an alpha coefficient of 0.70 is the cut-off point for reliability (Pallant, 2001). Dursun (2015) found that the internal consistencies of the OCQ yielded Cronbach’s alphas on a range of 0.70 to 0.85 in a sample of 722 teachers from 17 different secondary schools from the center of Bolu Province in Turkey. The internal consistencies of the OCQ dimensions are as follows: Affective Commitment Scale 0.83, Continuance Commitment Scale 0.70, Normative Commitment Scale 0.77 and 0.86 for the overall measure (Dursun, 2015).

3.4.3.2 Validity of the OCQ

Allen and Meyer (1990) found support for the construct validity of the OCQ in a wide variety of studies that used the measure. The measure correlates significantly with the affective commitment scale (ACS), providing evidence for convergent validity, but not with the continuance commitment scale (CCS), which offers evidence for discriminant validity. Bergman (2006, cited by Jaros, 2007), points out that the US and Canadian studies show that the normative commitment scale (NCS) does not indicate a high degree of discriminant validity with the affective commitment scale (ACS). The correlation between the scales was found to be 0.54. In non-Western cultures, the correlation between these two scales is higher (0.66), yet the normative commitment scale shows greater discriminant validity compared to the other subscales. An example is a Chinese study that found a correlation between NCS and ACS (0.64). Additionally, the researchers found that NCS plays a moderating role between ACS and the dimension of citizenship behaviour (Chen & Francesco, 2003, as cited by Jaros, 2007).

3.4.4 Total Rewards Preference Questionnaire

The Total Rewards Preference Questionnaire was developed by Pregnolato (2010) using the WorldatWork Total Rewards model (2007). This questionnaire was designed to determine which total rewards respondents deemed most important in deciding whether to stay or leave their current organisation. The questionnaire consists of 20 questions and six subscales covering total rewards, namely:

- Performance and recognition, including short-term incentives linked to one's performance plus shares.
- Work-life balance, including two underlying constructs, which are work-life practices (employers' support for a balanced lifestyle and flexible work arrangements) and work-life balance organisational climate (social friendships at work, team-building exercises and health and wellness programmes).
- Learning, comprising on-the-job training and leadership or management development programmes.
- Career advancement, including exposure to opportunities or projects outside of one's current department or business unit and fast-tracking career progression.
- Remuneration is the base salary targeting the top end of the market as well as the retention bonus.
- Benefits, including the retirement fund contribution plus medical cover.

Performance and recognition were covered by five items, Work-life balance by eight items, Learning by two items, Career advancement by two items, Remuneration by two items and Benefits by one item (Pregnolato, 2010). The instrument comprises a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from “not at all important”, “not important”, “uncertain”, “important” and “very important”.

3.4.4.1 Reliability

The reliability on the 20-item scale was assessed and the Cronbach’s alpha scores for the subscales ranged from 0.68 to 0.73, indicating good internal consistency (Pregnolato, Bussin & Schlechner, 2017). Cronbach’s alpha scores, respectively, are the following: Learning and Career advancement 0.697, Remuneration and benefits 0.693, Performance and recognition 0.675, Work-life balance (organisational climate) 0.728, Work-life balance (practice) 0.691 (Pregnolato, 2010).

3.4.4.2 Validity

Before conducting the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity were conducted and the results were found to be significant (Pregnolato, 2010). These results confirm that the data were appropriate and that the EFA could be conducted. The Principle Component Analysis (PCA), using Varimax with the Kaiser normalisation rotation, was used to establish the underlying factor structure of the scale, which was based on the WorldatWork total rewards model (2007). PCA indicates the construct validity of the measure and the results obtained suggest that the questionnaire was valid (factor loadings ranged from 0.669 to 0.87) (Pregnolato, Bussin & Schlechner, 2017).

The rationale for using the three questionnaires for this study was that they were proven to be both reliable and valid in previous studies and within diverse geographical contexts.

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES

The data collected in the study were captured using a Microsoft Excel Spreadsheet and analysed using the Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS, version 21, 2017). A number of statistical methods were used to test the hypotheses in this study. According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2012) descriptive statistics is a technique used to summarise, organise and simplify data. Usually, tables or graphs are used to organise scores so that it is easy to view the entire set of scores. This also entails summarising a set of scores and computing an average for those scores. Privitera (2012) suggests that it includes frequencies, measures of central tendency and variability. In the current study, descriptive statistics were used to describe the most prominent characteristics of the sample as well as to screen for outliers in the data. Descriptive statistics were also used to assess the violation of assumptions of regression analysis (multicollinearity, linearity, homoscedasticity of residuals and multivariate normality). The following section will discuss the treatment of missing values in data.

3.5.1 Missing values and data preparation

Missing data is a common issue in almost all research studies and may impact on the conclusion to be drawn from data. Kang (2013) is of the view that missing data is data value that is not captured for a particular variable being investigated. There are various reasons why missing data are found in data and these include respondents not answering all the items in a questionnaire or accidently leaving out the questions. Respondents may leave some items blank because they do not understand the question or statement, are not willing to give an answer or are not interested in completing the entire questionnaire (Sekaran, 2003). The absence of data presents numerous problems, such as the reduction of statistical power which may lead to the probability that the null hypothesis will be rejected. It can also reduce the representativeness of the sample and complicate the analysis of the study. Any one of these distortions is likely to threaten the validity of the results and affect the conclusions of the study negatively (Kang, 2013). However, since there were minimal missing values in the current study, it was decided to use pairwise deletion in cases where missing values occurred. Pairwise deletion is a statistical procedure implemented when cases of missing data are removed and not included in the final set. A researcher will not omit the data set completely, however the analyses will be completed on other variables without non-missing values (Enders, 2010). Pairwise deletion is a simple yet effective approach to use when there is not a high percentage of missing data.

3.5.2 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics draw conclusions about the population from information contained in a sample (Mendenhall, Beaver & Beaver, 2008). The following inferential statistical methods were used to test the research hypotheses:

- item analysis;
- exploratory factor analysis;
- multiple regression analysis; and
- moderation analysis by way of hierarchical multiple regression.

3.5.2.1 Item analysis

Item analysis is conducted to ascertain the contribution of each item to the overall reliability of the measure or sub-scale. Each item of the instrument is examined for its ability to discriminate between those respondents whose total scores are high and those that are low (Sekaran, 2003). The internal consistency of a measure is evident when different items of the same measure or subscale correlate with each other. This process is used to determine the reliability of an instrument (Furr & Bacharach, 2008). Cronbach's alpha is used to measure internal consistency and ranges from 0 to 1 and measures the inconsistency amongst factors. A negative Cronbach's alpha indicates great variance between items; 0.7 is acceptable level, whereas 0.95 and higher indicate that the items may be redundant (Hajjar, 2018).

3.5.2.2 Exploratory factor analysis

Factor analysis is the process in which measurable and observable variables are reduced to fewer variables that share a common source. In self-report measures, factor analyses are often done to determine the construct validity of measures (Williams, Onsman & Brown, 2010). Construct validity demonstrates that the instrument is measuring the constructs that it claims to measure (Brown, 2000). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is conducted when the researcher wants to determine the number of factors that influence variables and analyse which of those variables "go together" (Yong & Pearce, 2013). In EFA, the researcher has no expectations of the number or nature of the variables, as this process is exploratory. When dealing with a questionnaire, the items can be reduced to smaller sets to reveal underlying concepts, which in turn, make the interpretation of the data easier. Williams et al. (2010) states that the objectives of exploratory factor analysis are to:

- Reduce the number of variables.
- Examine the relationship between variables.
- Assess the construct validity of a scale or measure.
- Develop a single analysis and interpretation.
- Address two or more variables that are correlated.
- Prove or disprove the proposed theories.

However, EFA can also be conducted in a confirmatory fashion (Van Prooijen & Van der Kloot, 2001) by specifying the number of theoretical factors to extract. In the current investigation, EFA was used to test the dimensionality of the measures used in the regression analyses (Kasper & Ünlü, 2013). Since, the dimensionality of most measures in the current study was known, EFA was used in a confirmatory fashion. Restricted maximum likelihood EFA extractions with promax rotation were performed on the various scales and subscales. Promax rotation is regarded as a practical method to use since it allows one to work quickly with large set of variables. Promax rotation entails raising the loadings to a power of four, resulting in greater correlation among the factors (Gorsuch, 1997; Yong & Pearce, 2013). Promax rotation is regarded as a hybrid method that initially rotates factors orthogonally and then obliquely, allowing for correlation between factors. However, if the factors are truly orthogonal, the promax will rotate the factors at right angles (Allen, 2017).

The advantages of using EFA as opposed to CFA are that EFA is easier to execute and is generally more robust against termination issues. An added benefit is that EFA can be conducted with conventional statistical programmes. This is not the case with CFA, which is typically specified by specialised software programmes (Ten Holt, Van Duijn, & Boomsma, 2010).

3.5.2.3 Multiple regression analysis

The relationship between motivational and organisational commitment was determined through simple regression analysis. This technique examines the relationship between independent variables and a single dependent variable (Spicer, 2005). One of the advantages of using linear regression in a study is that it helps analyse the strength of the relationship between the outcome variable (dependent variable) and the predictor variables.

R-squared is referred to as the coefficient of multiple determination. Statistically, this indicates the percentage of the variance in the dependent variable that the independent variables explain collectively. R-squared is measured between 0 and 1. If the value is close to 1, then this indicates a strong relationship between variables (Mertler & Reinhart, 2016). If the value of the coefficient is 0, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis. The F-test indicates whether the relationship between variables is statistically significant or not. Stated differently, the mentioned test increases the confidence in the tested hypothesis. Partial correlation gives insight into the relationship between two variables while nullifying the effect of other variables that may affect the relationship. Standardised regression coefficients are often used to estimate the strength of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables (Mertler & Reinhart, 2016).

Regression analysis tends to be illustrated by a theoretical or conceptual model drawn in the form of a path diagram. However, there are numerous assumptions that need to be tested prior to conducting the regression analyses, including multicollinearity, linearity, homoscedasticity of residuals and multivariate normality, to be discussed in detail in the section below.

3.5.2.3.1 Assumptions of regression analysis

Schreiber-Gregory, Jackson and Bader (2018) are of the view that multicollinearity is evident when there is high correlation between the independent variables. The assumption about the absence of multicollinearity assumes that there is little or no multicollinearity in the data. This may be tested by computing the matrix of Pearson's bivariate correlation amongst all the independent variables. If the correlation coefficient represented by r is greater than 0.8, then multicollinearity exists (Schreiber-Gregory et al., 2018). High multicollinearity is problematic as it can affect the results of the research. The researcher may need to remove the variable that is not essential to the model or replace the two highly correlated variables with one that combines the crux of the original variables. Alternatively, multicollinearity can be reduced by centering the variables. Centering is data transformation applied by subtracting the mean from each case (Rovai, Baker & Ponton, 2013).

The assumption of linearity is that there are straight-line relationships between the dependent variable and the independent variables. In addition, linearity represents the change in the dependent variable that is associated with the change in the independent variable (Freedheim, Weiner, & Schinka, 2003; Sekhar, 2016). Linearity can also be examined through residual plots which give the combined effect of all the variables. When nonlinearity exists, the predictions of the study are likely to be in error (Sekhar, 2016).

Homoscedasticity is an assumption that the variance of error around the regression line is the same for all the independent variables (Weiner, 2003). The researcher may assume that the error is spread out consistently amongst the variables. The violation of homoscedasticity results in bias estimates in regression analysis. The scatterplot of residuals with the independent variables is the method of examining homoscedasticity (Keith, 2006).

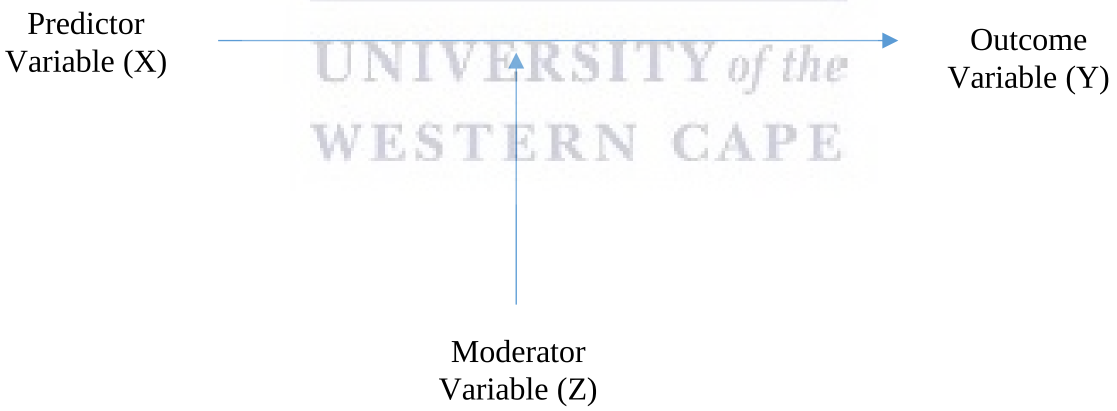
The assumptions of multivariate normality suggest that the distribution of test scores is distributed normally and this is represented by a bell-shaped curve with a mean of 0 and one standard deviation (Schreiber-Gregory, Jackson & Bader, 2018). The assumption can be determined by a Quantile-Quantile (Q-Q) Plot. The observed and expected values are plotted on a graph. If the data are close to a straight line, the data distribution can be considered normal (Thode, 2002). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk are statistical tests that test the normality of data. If the tests are not significant then normality exists. The p-value of these tests needs to be more than 0.05 then for the data is to be considered as normally distributed (Verma & Abdel-Salam, 2019).

3.5.2.4 Moderated regression analysis

Moderated regression analysis seeks to test statistically whether the relationship between a predictor variable and an outcome variable depends on a moderator variable (Montoya, 2019). Considering this definition, the moderator effect is a variable that alters or strengthens the relationship between the predictor and the outcome variables. The diagram in Figure 3.2. below illustrates this relationship.

Figure 3.2

Diagram of moderator effect



Taken from Frazier, P. A, Tix, A. P. and Barron, K. E. (2004). Testing moderator and mediator effects in counseling psychology research. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 51*, 115-134.

Hierarchical multiple regression was used to determine the effect of the moderating variable. In particular, the researcher examined the interaction effect between the predictor variable and the moderated variable to ascertain whether or not there is a significant effect on the outcome variable (Hayes, 2017). Furthermore, the regression technique considers the effect the moderating variable has on the relationship between the dependent and the independent variable and whether introducing the moderating variable changes the relationship between the two variables (Cohen as cited by Frazier, Tix & Barron, 2004). The PROCESS analytic tool developed by Hayes (2017) are used to test moderation. Two steps are followed to examine the moderation effect. Step one in the regression model entails entering the predictor and the moderator variables as main effects; in step two the interaction effect is entered and examined whether it has significant effect and changed the direction of the relationship in step one. Moderation occurs when the direction and/or strength of the relationship between the dependent and independent variable is affected by a third variable (Dardas & Ahmad, 2015). For this study, reward structures as moderating variables were hypothesised to change the relationship between employee motivation and organisational commitment.

3.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter provided insight into the research methodology used in the study. The following aspects were explained in detail: research design, the sample used, and the data-gathering techniques. The research instruments and statistical techniques used to confirm or disprove the research hypotheses were discussed. Furthermore, the treatment of missing values and data preparation were explored. Finally, the assumptions of regression analysis were investigated.

The following chapter (ch 4) will investigate the empirical findings based on the proposed substantive hypothesis.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to report on the findings of the statistical analyses discussed in the previous chapter. The variables discussed, namely employee motivation, organisational commitment and reward structures, were subjected to exploratory factor analysis and item analysis. The aim of conducting item analysis and factor analysis was to establish the reliability and construct validity of measures prior to including them in the multiple regression model. The proposed substantive hypotheses conceptualised in Chapter 2 were statistically validated in this chapter using the research design and strategy discussed in Chapter 3.

This chapter will discuss the approach used to manage missing values, followed by a discussion of the descriptive statistics. Thereafter, the reliability and validity of the measures included in the conceptual model are discussed. Finally, the results of the multiple regression analysis are discussed to determine the proposed hypotheses that constitute the conceptual model.

4.2 MISSING DATA

In total, 180 respondents completed the electronic survey. Only completed responses were used in the analyses. For this reason, there were no missing values, but one of the responses was deleted since the age entered was out of range. As a result, there were no missing values and it was not necessary to analyse missing values patterns in the data or to impute missing values.

4.3 UNIDIMENSIONALITY

To verify the unidimensionality of each scale and subscale used within the research study, exploratory factor analysis was conducted (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2014). The various scales and subscales were put through a restricted maximum likelihood EFA extraction with promax rotation. Before EFA results were interpreted, the data needed to meet these three requirements: (i) inter-item correlations that are higher than .30 in general and statistically significant ($p < .05$); (ii) a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy that approaches unity (at least > .60); and (iii) a Bartlett's test of sphericity that is significant ($p < .05$), resulting in the rejection of the hypothesis of identity matrix (Pallant, 2001).

In addition, the eigenvalues-greater-than-one rule was used to identify the distinct factors that needed to be retained (Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, 2004). Factor loadings greater than 0.50 were considered satisfactory. This indicated that the items reflected the factors they were meant to reflect. (Kinnear & Gray, 2004). Furthermore, negatively worded items were reversed prior to conducting the factor analysis.

4.3.1 Unidimensionality of the Affective Commitment subscale

Before factor analyses could be conducted, a number of items had to be reversed because they were negatively worded. The initial factor analyses that were conducted suggested that not all the items may not be unidimensional. The results from the EFA indicated all the positively worded items loaded on the first factor, while all the negatively worded items loaded on the second factor. This tendency for respondents to react symmetrically to positive and negative items is an artefact of EFA and often results in the extraction of multiple factors (Coleman, 2013; Greenberger, Chen, Dmitrieva, & Farraggia, 2003; Quilty, Oakman, & Risko, 2006). As a result, two eigenvalues greater than one were extracted. Since there was no convincing theoretical argument for why the negatively worded items should load on a separate factor, it was decided to rerun the analyses and force the extraction of a single factor.

The KMO measure of sampling adequacy returned a value of .835 and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .001$), demonstrating adequate evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable. The first eigenvalue explained 36.036% of the common variance. The factor loadings displayed satisfactorily loaded items (> 0.50) on the single factor, except for two items at R_AC4 and AC2, which reported factor loadings smaller than the normative cut-off of .50. The model and item-specific statistics of the final factor analysis is displayed in Table 4.1 and Table 4.2.

Table 4.1: Unidimensionality analysis of Affective Commitment subscale

Subscale	Number of items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Percentage common variance
Affective Commitment	8	.835, $p < .05$	1	36.036

Table 4.2 demonstrates the factor loadings. Item R_AC6 had the highest loading of .768 and item AC2 had the lowest loading of .434. Two items had a factor loading marginally lower than 0.50; however, it was decided to retain these items, since the items were marginally lower than 0.50.

Table 4.2: Factor Loadings for Affective Commitment subscale

	Factor 1
R_AC6 I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation.	.768
AC7 This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.719
AC1 I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	.671
A3 I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.	.571
R_AC8 I do not feel a strong sense of belonging in my organisation.	.551
R_AC5 I do not feel 'part of the family' in my organisation.	.539
R_AC4 I think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one.	.466
AC2 I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it.	.434

The results in the foregoing tables suggest that Affective Commitment scale can be regarded as unidimensional.

4.3.2 Unidimensionality of the Continuance Commitment subscale

Before factor analyses could be conducted, two items had to be reversed because they were negatively worded. The initial unrestricted factor analyses that were conducted suggested that the items may not be unidimensional. The data showed that item R_CC1 had a low communality value of .016, whereas item CC3 had a high value of .999. Item CC3 can be regarded as a Heywood case since the item approach unity (Bernstein, 2012). In addition, items R_CC1 and CC3 were the only items that loaded on the second factor. Since both these items were problematic, it was decided to remove these items from the scale and redo the analyses. In addition to this, item R_CC4 reported a negative factor loading even after being reverse scored. For this reason, it was decided to delete item R_CC4 as well. The final factor analyses were then conducted on the remaining five items.

A KMO measure of sampling adequacy of .790 and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) was achieved, demonstrating adequate evidence that the items were factor analysable. The first eigenvalue explained 38.750% of the common variance. The factor loadings displayed satisfactorily loaded items (> 0.50) on the single factor, except for item CC5, which reported a lower factor loading value of .471. The model and item-specific statistics of the factor analyses are displayed in Table 4.3 and Table 4.4

Table 4.3: Unidimensionality analysis of Continuance Commitment subscale

Subscale	Number of items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Percentage common variance
Continuance Commitment	5	.790, p < .05	1	38.750

Table 4.4 demonstrates the factor loadings. CC7 had the highest loading of .740 and Item CC5 had the lowest loading of .471. Although items CC5 reported a factor loading less than 0.50, the researcher was generally satisfied with the strength of the remaining items in the measure.

Table 4.4: Factor Loadings for Continuance Commitment subscale

	Factor 1
CC7 One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	.740
CC8 One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice. Another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here.	.715
CC6 I feel I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.	.603
CC2 It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.	.541
CC5 Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	.471

Based on the foregoing tables, the final retained items in the scale can be regarded as unidimensional. The next section will look at the dimensionality of the normative commitment scale.

4.3.3 Unidimensionality of the Normative Commitment subscale

Before factor analyses could be conducted, three items had to be reversed because they were negatively worded. The initial factor analyses that were conducted suggested that the items may not be unidimensional. All the negative items loaded on one factor and the data showed that item R_NC8 had a low communality value of .082, whereas item R_NC3 had a high value of .999. With regard to the abnormally high factor loading for item R_NC3, this can be regarded as evidence of a Heywood (Bernstein, 2012). A second factor analysis was conducted and a forced one-factor solution was applied. The data indicated that item R_NC8 reported a low communality value of .067 and a factor loading of .259. A decision was made to delete item R_NC8 and the final factor analyses were conducted on the remaining seven items.

A KMO measure of sampling adequacy of .717 and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .001$) were achieved, demonstrating adequate evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable. The first common factor explained 27.616% of the common variance. The factor loading displayed satisfactorily loaded items (> 0.50) on the single factor. The model and item-specific statistics of the factor analyses are displayed in Table 4.5 and Table 4.6.

Table 4.5: Unidimensionality analysis of Normative Commitment subscale

Subscale	Number of items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Percentage common variance
Normative Commitment	7	.717, $p < .05$	1	27.616

Table 4.6 demonstrates the factor matrix. NC4 had the highest loading of .714 and Item R_NC3 had the lowest loading of .333.

Table 4.6: Factor Loadings for Normative Commitment subscale

	Factor 1
NC4 One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.	.714
NC6 I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one's organisation.	.693
NC7 Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organisation for most of their careers.	.618
NC5 If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere it would not feel right to leave my organisation.	.447
R_NC2 I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his/her organisation.	.364
NC1 I think that people these days move from organisation to organisation too often.	.344
R_NC3 Jumping from organisation to organisation does not seem at all unethical to me.	.333

Unidimensionality was achieved for the Continuance Commitment subscale since all items loaded on one factor. Although there were four items that did not strictly adhere to the normative cut-off of 0.50, it was decided to retain all four items since their values were marginally lower and still higher than 0.30 in absolute terms. The decision was further supported by the fact that if all the items lower than 0.30 were deleted, the scale length would be reduced by half, which may have an impact on the validity of the dimension and eventual regression analyses.

4.3.4 Unidimensionality of the Performance and Recognition subscale

Factor analyses were first conducted on the full total rewards questionnaire. The items were loaded randomly on different factors and did not show clear factor structure. Factor analyses were then conducted on the subscales that had enough items, which included performance and recognition with five items, as well as work-life balance with eight items. Factor analyses could not be performed on the benefits, learning, career advancement and compensation subscales as they had less than three items per dimension due to the restricted degrees of freedom. For this reason, the dimensionality of these measures could not be established prior to the regression analysis.

It was decided to conduct the EFA on the performance and recognition scale first. The initial factor analyses conducted suggested that the items may not be unidimensional. The data showed that some items loaded on factor one while the rest loaded on factor two. This led to the decision to apply a forced one-factor solution since there was no theoretical justification for splitting the scale into two dimensions. Item TRQ20 showed a low communality value of .074 and it was decided to delete this item. After the deletion of this single item the analyses were conducted again on the remaining items.

The EFA on the revised measures reported a KMO measure of sampling adequacy of .675 and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .001$) was achieved, demonstrating adequate evidence that the items were factor analysable. The model and item-specific statistics of the factor analyses are displayed in Table 4.7 and Table 4.8.

Table 4.7: Unidimensionality analysis of Performance and Recognition subscale

Subscale	Number of items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Percentage common variance
Performance and Recognition	4	.675, p < .05	1	41.096

Table 4.8 demonstrates the factor loadings. TRQ6 had the highest loading of .834 and item TRQ1 had the lowest loading of .380.

Table 4.8: Factor Loadings for Performance and Recognition subscale

	Factor 1
TRQ6 The extent to which you believe your contribution and work is valued.	.834
TRQ5 The quality of performance feedback and performance discussions you have had with your supervisor.	.768
TRQ8 The extent to which you are provided with challenging targets	.463
TRQ1 Recognition provided to you by your employer e.g., financial recognition such as a cash, paid travel.	.380

Evidence from the foregoing section suggests that the solution is unidimensional and that most factor loading were robust. However, it is important to mention that items TRQ8 and TRQ1 did not comply with the normative cut-off value of 0.50.

4.3.5 Unidimensionality of the Work-Life Balance subscale

The initial factor analyses conducted suggested that the items may not be unidimensional. Item TRQ14 showed a high communality value of .999 and it was decided to delete this item. This is referred to as a Heywood case, where the communality estimates are either too low or high (Bernstein, 2012). A second analysis was conducted and a forced one-factor solution was applied. The data indicated that item TRQ12 loaded higher than one and because of this, this item was deleted. A third analysis showed that items TRQ2, TRQ10 and TRQ13 reported low communality values of .091, .167 and .025 respectively. Based on this analysis, it was decided to delete these items from the measure since they did not reflect enough common variance in the measure. The final forced one-factor solution was conducted on the remaining three items. A KMO measure of sampling adequacy of .634 and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity (*p* < 0.001) were achieved, demonstrating adequate evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable. The model and item-specific statistics of the factor analyses are displayed in Table 4.9 and Table 4.10

Table 4.9: Unidimensionality analysis of Work-Life Balance subscale

Subscale	Number of items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Work-Life Balance	3	.634, $p < .05$	1	43.669

Table 4.10 demonstrates the factor loadings. TRQ15 had the highest loading of .751 and item TRQ9 had the lowest loading of .477.

Table 4.10: Factor Loadings for Work-Life Balance subscale

	Factor 1
TRQ15 The degree to which your employer encourages and organises team building or other social networking activities amongst employees.	.751
TRQ16 Your employer's provision of employee health and wellness programmes, e.g. employee assistance programmes, counselling services, fitness centres.	.720
TRQ9 Having a manageable workload and reasonable work pace.	.477

Unidimensionality was achieved for the Work-Life Balance subscale since all items loaded on one factor. Factor loadings of items ranged from .751 to .477. Although the results of the final EFA looks promising, one should interpret the results with caution since so many of the items had to be deleted to arrive at a unidimensional solution.

4.3.6 Unidimensionality of the Extrinsic Motivation subscale

Factor analyses were conducted on the External Regulation dimension of the Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS) since it was the dimension that was conceptually closest to Extrinsic Motivation. A KMO measure of sampling adequacy of 0.598 and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .001$) were achieved, demonstrating adequate evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable. The model and item-specific statistics of the factor analyses are displayed in Table 4.11 and Table 4.12.

Table 4.11: Unidimensionality analysis of Extrinsic Motivation subscale				
Subscale	Number of items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Extrinsic Motivation	3	.598, $p < .05$	1	30.778

Table 4.12 demonstrates the factor loadings. Item ER9 had the highest loading of .715 and item ER16 had the lowest loading of .411.

Table 4.12: Factor Loadings for Extrinsic Motivation subscale	
	Factor 1
ER9 Because it allows me to earn money.	.715
ER2 For the income it provides me.	.494
ER16 Because this type of work provides me with security	.411

Unidimensionality was achieved for the Extrinsic Motivation subscale since all items loaded on one factor. Items ranged from .715 to .411.

4.3.7 Unidimensionality of the Intrinsic Motivation subscale

Factor analyses were conducted on the three items that make up the Intrinsic Motivation dimension of the Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS). A KMO measure of sampling adequacy of .671 and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .001$) were achieved, demonstrating adequate evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable. The model and item-specific statistics of the factor analyses are displayed in Table 4.13 and Table 4.14.

Table 4.13: Unidimensionality analysis of Intrinsic Motivation subscale				
Subscale	Number of items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Performance and Recognition	3	.671, $p < .05$	1	49.084

Table 4.14 demonstrates the factor loadings. IM15 had the highest loading of .774 and item IM4 had the lowest loading of .587. All the factor loadings were robust and adhered to the minimum cut-off value of 0.50.

Table 4.14: Factor Loadings for Intrinsic Motivation subscale	
	Factor 1
IM15 For the satisfaction I experience when I am successful at doing difficult tasks.	.774
IM8 For the satisfaction I experience from taking on interesting challenges.	.727
IM4 Because I derive much pleasure from learning new things.	.587

4.4 ITEM ANALYSIS-RELIABILITY RESULTS

The internal consistency of the measurement scales and subscales was determined by conducting item analysis. This was done to identify items that did not contribute to the reliability of the measures and to ensure that the measuring scales were measuring the same construct consistently (Sekaran, 2003). Item analysis was assessed by means of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. As a general rule of thumb, values closer to 1.00 are indicative of strong internal consistency. As a guide, reliabilities less than 0.60 are considered to be low, the 0 .70 range is acceptable, and those over 0.80 good (Sekaran, 2003).

In addition to item analysis, the item-total correlation was considered. This metric indicates the degree to which each item correlates with the total tests scores (Furr & Bacharach, 2008). Items with low coefficients of 0.20 and below indicate that the item is not sufficiently correlating with the specific variable (Panayides, 2013). Deleting the item could lead to a higher Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the full scale. The item-analysis is based on the revised scales, which resulted from the factor analyses.

4.4.1 Reliability analysis of the various subscales

Table 4.15 below summarises the internal consistency of each scale. For each of the revised measures, the Cronbach's alpha, mean and variance are displayed.

Table 4.15: Reliability analysis results of the subscales

Subscale	Number of scales	Cronbach's alpha	Mean	Variance
Affective Commitment	8	.81	27.25	28.73
Continuance Commitment	5	.75	15.90	16.42

Normative Commitment	7	.71	20.82	20.30
Extrinsic Motivation	3	.54	11.49	4.17
Intrinsic Motivation	3	.74	13.04	3.61
Career Advancement	2	.64	8.98	1.40
Learning	2	.80	8.87	1.80
Performance and Recognition	4	.67	17.14	5.50
Remuneration	2	.58	9.14	1.12
Work-Life Balance	4	.68	16.44	6.92

The Affective Commitment subscale consisted of eight items. The results of the item analysis are indicated in Table 4.16. The item analysis related to the Affective Commitment subscale displayed a Cronbach's alpha of 0.807. The subscale, therefore, shows good reliability. In addition, none of the item-total correlations reported values lower than 0.20 and, therefore, none of the items were considered for deletion.

Table 4.16: Reliability Analysis results of the Affective Commitment subscale

Affective Commitment (Cronbach's alpha =.807)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
AC1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	.632	.807	.767
AC2	I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it.	.384	.807	.804
AC3	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.	.514	.807	.786
R_AC4	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one.	.393	.807	.803

R_AC5	I do not feel like 'part of the family' in my organisation.	.469	.807	.794
R_AC6	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation.	.670	.807	.761
AC7	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.634	.807	.772
R_AC8	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.	.483	.807	.790

The Continuance Commitment subscale consisted of five items. The results are displayed in Table 4.17. The item analysis conducted for the Continuance Commitment subscale yielded a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.75. The subscale, therefore, displays acceptable reliability. Item CC5 displayed the lowest item-total correlation. However, it was decided to keep the item since the overall scale reliability was good. Also, deleting CC5 would result in a reduction of overall reliability of the scale.

Table 4.17: Reliability Analysis results of the Continuance Commitment subscale

Continuance Commitment (Cronbach's alpha =.752)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
CC2	It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.	.476	.752	.723
CC5	Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	.425	.752	.741
CC6	I feel I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.	.503	.752	.714
CC7	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	.600	.752	.677
CC8	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice. Another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here.	.587	.752	.681

The revised Normative Commitment subscale consisted of seven items and the results are displayed in Table 4.18. The item analysis conducted for the Normative Commitment subscale yielded a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.707. The subscale, therefore, displays acceptable levels of reliability. Item NC1 displayed the lowest item-total correlation (.284), however, it was decided to retain the item since deleting the items would not result in an increase in Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha.

Table 4.18: Reliability Analysis results of the Normative Commitment subscale

Normative Commitment (Cronbach's alpha =.707)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
NC1	I think that people these days move from organisation to organisation too often.	.284	.707	.703
R_NC2	I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his/her organisation	.336	.707	.697
R_NC3	Jumping from organisation to organisation does not seem at all unethical to me.	.348	.707	.690
NC5	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere it would not feel right to leave my organisation.	.385	.707	.682
NC4	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.	.547	.707	.638
NC6	I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one's organisation.	.513	.707	.648
NC7	Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organisation for most of their careers.	.510	.707	.650

The Extrinsic Motivation subscale consisted of only three items. This is the minimum number of items that allows factor analyses on a factor due the restriction in degrees of freedom. The results are shown in Table 4.19. The item analysis relating to the Extrinsic Motivation subscale produced a Cronbach's alpha of .542. Based on this metric, the scale displays below-average reliability. However, considering that the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is sensitive to test length, it makes sense that the internal consistency may be low for this particular scale (Žukauskas, Vveinhardt & Andriukaitienė, 2018). The item-total correlations, however, were above 0.20 and, therefore, none of the items were considered for deletion.

Table 4.19: Reliability Analysis results of the Extrinsic Motivation subscale

Extrinsic Motivation (Cronbach's alpha = .542)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
ER2	For the income it provides me	.349	.542	.453
ER9	Because it allows me to earn money	.419	.542	.333
ER16	Because this type of work provides me with security	.299	.542	.520

The Intrinsic Motivation subscale consisted of only three items. Due the limited degrees of freedom, this is the minimum number of items on which factor analyses can reasonably be done. The results are shown in Table 4.20. The item analysis relating to the Internal Motivation subscale produced a Cronbach's alpha of 0.735. The subscale displayed acceptable reliability. None of the items reported item-total correlations lower than 0.20, therefore, none were considered for deletion.

Table 4.20: Reliability Analysis results of the Intrinsic Motivation subscale

Intrinsic Motivation (Cronbach's alpha =.735)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
IM4	Because I derive much pleasure from learning new things.	.499	.735	.720
IM8	For the satisfaction I experience from taking on interesting challenges.	.580	.735	.625
IM15	For the satisfaction I experience when I am successful at doing difficult tasks.	.602	.735	.598

The Career Advancement subscale consisted of two items. The results are indicated in Table 4.21. The item analysis conducted for the Career Advancement subscale displayed a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .640. The scale displays internal consistency that falls below the normative guideline of 0.70. Therefore, the regression results that include the career advancement subscale should be interpreted with caution. Both items reported item-total correlation in excess of the normative cut-off value of 0.20.

Table 4.21: Reliability Analysis results of the Career Advancement subscale

Career Advancement (Cronbach's alpha =.640)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
TR4	The opportunities offered to you by your company for career advancement, e.g., job advancement/promotions, internships and apprenticeships with experts, internal job posting.	.482	.640	-
TR7	The level of challenge and interest you derive from your job.	.482	.640	-

The Learning scale consisted of two items. The results are indicated in Table 4.22. The item analysis conducted for the Learning scale displayed a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.796. The subscale, therefore, displays acceptable levels of reliability. Both items reported high item-total correlations and there would not be an increase in the Cronbach's alpha if any of the items were deleted. These results seem to suggest that both items contributed to the internal consistency of the measure.

Table 4.22: Reliability Analysis results of the Learning subscale

Learning (Cronbach's alpha = .796)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
TR3	The opportunities offered to you by your company for learning and career development outside of your current job, e.g., sabbaticals, coaching, mentoring, leadership training.	.661	.796	-
TR11	The opportunities offered to you by your company for training within your current job, e.g., skills training.	.661	.796	-

The performance and recognition subscale consisted of four items. The results are displayed in Table 4.23. The item analysis conducted for the performance and recognition subscale yielded a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .669. The subscale, therefore, displays below-adequate reliability. Item TRQ1 displayed the lowest item-total correlation, and if it were to be deleted, reliability would increase to 0.722. This would suggest that this item does not contribute to the overall internal consistency of the measure. However, due to the relatively small number of items, the decision was made to retain item TRQ1.

Table 4.23: Reliability Analysis results of the Performance and Recognition subscale

Performance and Recognition (Cronbach's alpha = .669)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
TRQ1	Recognition provided to you by your employer, e.g., financial recognition such as cash, paid travel.	.291	.669	.722
TRQ5	The quality of performance feedback and performance discussions you have had with your supervisor	.599	.669	.502

TRQ6	The extent to which you believe your contribution and work is valued.	.633	.669	.486
TRQ8	The extent to which you are provided with challenging targets.	.339	.669	.671

The Remuneration subscale consisted of two items. The results of the item analysis are indicated in Table 4.24. The item analysis related to the Remuneration subscale displayed a Cronbach's alpha of 0.582. The subscale demonstrates poor reliability. However, due to the limited number of items and the fact that none of the items reported poor item-total correlations, the decision was made not to delete any additional items in the scale.

Table 4.24: Reliability Analysis results of the Remuneration subscale

Remuneration (Cronbach's alpha =.582)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
TRQ17	The provision of a competitive pay package (i.e., basic salary plus benefits, allowances or variable pay).	.410	.582	-
TRQ19	Your employer's provision of incentive bonuses/variable pay.	.410	.582	-

The Work-Life Balance subscale consisted of four items. The results are displayed in Table 4.25. The item analysis conducted for the Work-Life Balance subscale yielded a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.684. The subscale, therefore, displays a low level of internal consistency reliability. However, all items showed strong item-total correlations and the deletion of any of the items will not result in an increase in the Cronbach's alpha. Nonetheless, due to the low level of reliability the results pertaining to this specific subscale should be interpreted with caution.

Table 4.25: Reliability Analysis results of the Work-Life Balance subscale				
Performance and Recognition (Cronbach's alpha =.684)				
Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
TRQ9	Having a manageable workload and reasonable work pace.	.532	.684	.598
TRQ12	The extent to which your employer supports a balanced lifestyle (between your work and personal life).	.363	.684	.679
TRQ15	The degree to which your employer encourages and organises team building or other social networking activities amongst employees.	.526	.684	.581
TRQ16	Your employer's provision of employee health and wellness programmes e.g. employee assistance programmes, counselling services, fitness centres.	.495	.684	.603

The overall outcomes of the item analyses as performed on the various subscales are displayed in Table 4.26. The results suggest that all the scales reported acceptable reliability, except the extrinsic motivation, career advancement, performance and recognition, remuneration and work-life balance subscale. It is important to note that with the exception of extrinsic motivation, all the scales with low reliability estimates are from the Total Rewards Questionnaire. Considering this evidence in conjunction with the EFA results and also considering that the individual items were shown to be unidimensional and internally consistent, the revised scales were used to construct the factor scores used in the regression analyses. However, it is worth noting that due to the lack of reliability of some measures – the hypotheses including these variables – should be interpreted with caution.

Table 4.26: Composite reliability scores for indicators for each subscale

Variable:	**Total Composite:**
Affective Commitment	.807
Continuance Commitment	.752

Normative Commitment	.707
Extrinsic Motivation	.542
Intrinsic Motivation	.735
Career Advancement	.640
Learning	.796
Performance and Recognition	.669
Remuneration	.582
Work-Life Balance	.684

4.5 PEARSON'S CORRELATION ANALYSIS

The aim of this study was to build a conceptual model that explains the interactive relationship of reward structures on the relationship between the dimensions of motivation and commitment in the workplace. In order to test the conceptual model, each of the proposed relationships can be tested individually by means of regression analyses. Prior to conducting the regression analyses, the correlations between independent and dependent variables were assessed by means of bivariate correlations. It is important to note that the substantive hypotheses will not be statistically validated using the bivariate correlations. The aim of the bivariate correlations is to test the assumption of linear relationships between variables that are a prerequisite for regression analyses. These relationships were analysed using Pearson's correlation technique and the coefficients are presented in Table 4.27.

4.5.1 Direct relationships

The results from the correlation analyses are summarised in Table 4.27 below.

Table 4.27: Bivariate correlation results for direct relationships

Proposed relationship:	Correlation:
H_1: A positive relationship is expected between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.	$r = .325, p < .05$
H_6: A positive relationship is expected between work-life balance and intrinsic motivation.	$r = .167, p < .05$
H_7: A positive relationship is expected between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment.	$r = .097, p > .05$

H_{10}: A positive relationship is expected between benefits and extrinsic motivation.	$r = .009, p > .05$
H_{11}: A positive relationship is expected between remuneration and extrinsic motivation.	$r = .102, p > .05$
H_{13}: A positive relationship is expected between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment.	$r = .031, p > .05$

Table 4.27 above indicates that the correlations displayed a statistically significant and positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment ($r = .325$, $p < .05$), with higher levels of intrinsic motivation leading to higher levels of affective commitment. This corresponds with Hypothesis 1. A statistically significant positive correlation was found between work-life balance and intrinsic motivation ($r = .167$, $p < .05$), which suggests that increased levels of work-life balance are associated with an increase in intrinsic motivation. These results are in line with Hypothesis 6.

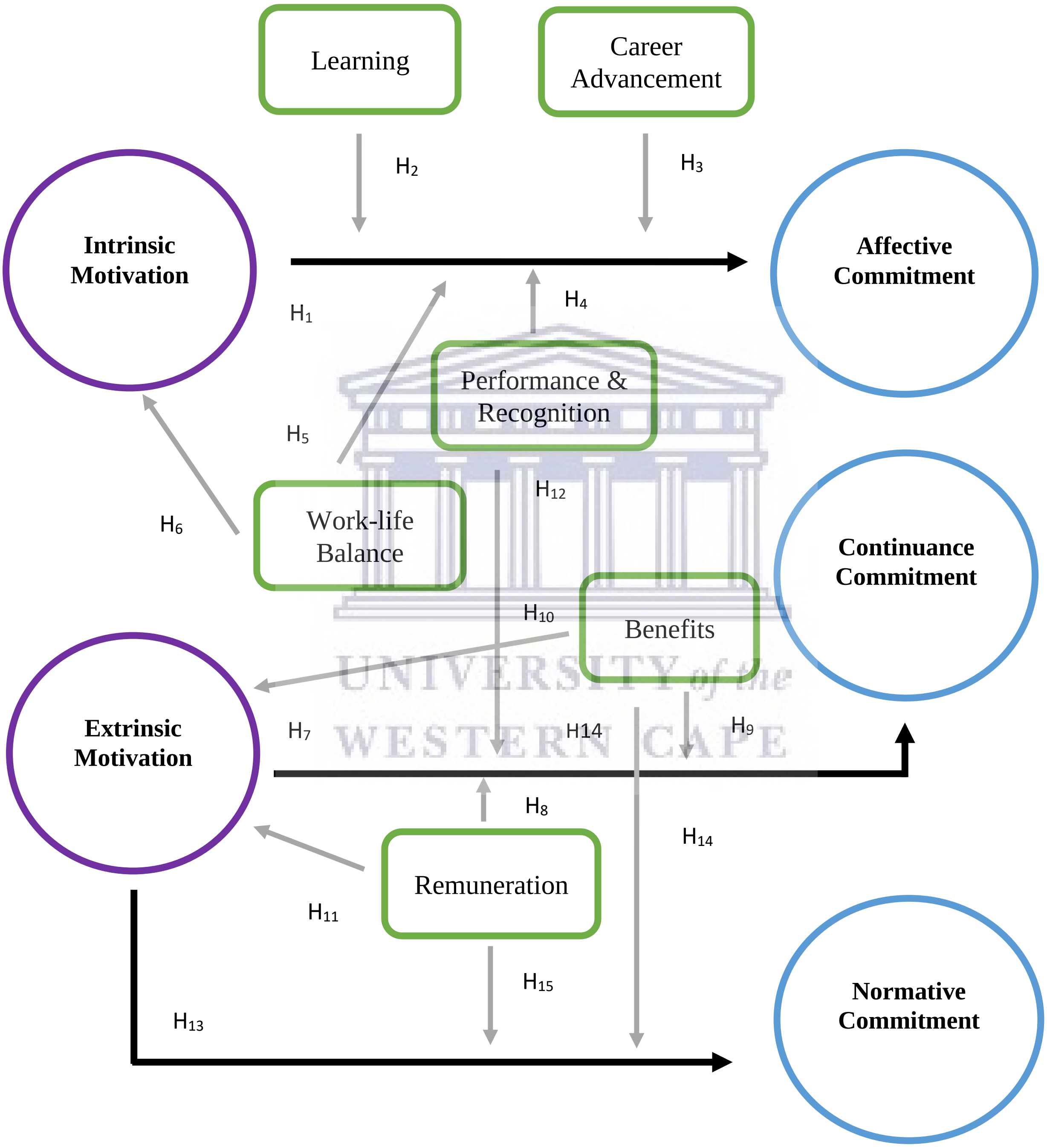
The results of the correlation analysis conducted to determine the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment did not report a statistically significant relationship ($r = .097$, $p > .05$) and as a result was not supported by the data. The results of the correlation analysis conducted to determine the relationship between benefits and extrinsic motivation ($r = .009$, $p > .05$), indicated a non-significant relationship. The results of the correlation analysis conducted to determine the relationship between remuneration and extrinsic motivation ($r = .102$, $p > .05$), indicate a non-significant relationship between the two variables. Finally, the results of the correlation analysis conducted to determine the relationship between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment did not report a statistically significant relationship ($r = .031$, $p > .05$) and consequently was not supported by the data.

4.6 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Figure 4.1 contains all the theoretical relationships proposed in the current study. The correlation analyses suggest that most of the independence variables were indeed related to the dependent variables in a linear manner, which is an important pre-requisite for regression analyses. However, some of the relationships in the bi-variate correlations were not significant and for this reason we would not expect the results from the regression analyses between these variables to be significant. The next section will look at the regression analyses results that were used to validate the proposed substantive hypotheses contained in the theoretical framework.

Figure 4.1

Theoretical framework



In total, six direct relations were investigated, and two of those hypotheses were supported by the results. The rest of the hypotheses demonstrated non-significant relationships between the variables. The results of the regression analyses are presented in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28: Direct relationships: Results from the regression analysis		
Hypothesis:	Beta value and statistical significance	R-squared value and F-test
H_1: A positive relationship is expected between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.	B = .325, p < .05	R^2 = .106, F = 21.069, p < .05
H_6: A positive relationship is expected between work-life balance and intrinsic motivation.	B = .167, p < .05	R^2 = .028, F = 5.137, p < .05
H_7: A positive relationship is expected between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment.	B = -.097, p > .05	R^2 = .009, F = 1.685, p > .05
H_{10}: A positive relationship is expected between benefits and extrinsic motivation.	B = -.009, p > .05	R^2 = .000, F = .014, p > .05
H_{11}: A positive relationship is expected between remuneration and extrinsic motivation.	B = .102, p > .05	R^2 = .010, F = 1.863, p > .05
H_{13}: A positive relationship is expected between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment.	B = .031. p > .05	R^2 = .001, F = .175, p > .05

Hypothesis 1 predicted a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment. Results from the regression analysis demonstrate that a statistically significant and positive result was obtained (B = .325, p < .05). The results indicate that empirical support was obtained for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 6 predicted a positive relationship between work-life balance and intrinsic motivation. Results from the regression analysis demonstrate that a statistically significant and positive result was obtained (B = .167, p < .05). Thus, empirical support was obtained for Hypothesis 6.

Hypothesis 7 predicted a positive relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment. The results from the regression analysis that was conducted indicate a negative and non-significant result (B = -.097, p > .05). This result indicates that empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 7 since the reported relationship was not congruent with the original hypothesised relationship.

Hypothesis 10 predicted a positive relationship between benefits and extrinsic motivation. The results from the regression analysis that was conducted indicate a negative and non-significant result (B = -.009, $p > .05$). The results indicate that empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 10 since the reported relationship was not congruent with the original hypothesised relationship.

Hypothesis 11 predicted a positive relationship between remuneration and extrinsic motivation. Results from the regression analysis demonstrate a non-significant result (B = .102, $p > .05$). The results indicate that empirical support was not obtained for Hypothesis 11.

Hypothesis 13 predicted a positive relationship between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment. Results from the regression analysis demonstrate a non-significant result (B = .031, $p > .05$). The results indicate that empirical support was not obtained for Hypothesis 13.

4.6.1 Interacting relationship

In total, nine interacting relationships were investigated, and none of the moderating relationships were found to be statistically significant. The Hayes approach was used to test the interaction effects. Table 4.29 illustrates the moderation analyses between the variables.

Table 4.29: Interacting relationships: Results from the regression analysis

Hypothesis:	Beta value and statistical significance	
H_2: Learning moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.	B_{Intrin} B_{Learn} $B_{Interact}$	= .329, $p < .05$ = .082, $p > .05$ = .109, $p > .05$
H_3: Career advancement moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.	B_{Intrin} B_{Career} $B_{Interact}$	= .327, $p < .05$ = .138, $p > .05$ = .216, $p > .05$
H_4: Performance and recognition moderate the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.	B_{Intrin} B_{Perf} $B_{Interact}$	= .327, $p < .05$ = .121, $p > .05$ = .088, $p > .05$

H_5: Work-life balance moderates the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.	B_{Intrin} B_{WLB} $B_{Interact}$	= .346, $p < .001$ = -.012, $p > .05$ = .004, $p > .05$
H_8: Remuneration moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment.	B_{Extrin} B_{Rem} $B_{Interact}$	= -.981, $p > .05$ = -.150, $p > .05$ = -.089, $p > .05$
H_9: Benefits moderate the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment.	B_{Extrin} B_{Ben} $B_{Interact}$	= -.098, $p > 0.5$ = -.000, $p > .05$ = -.172, $p > .05$
H_{12}: Performance and recognition moderate the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment.	B_{Extrin} B_{Perf} $B_{Interact}$	= -.089, $p > .05$ = .340, $p > .05$ = -.164, $p > .05$
H_{14}: Benefits moderate the relationship between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment.	B_{Extrin} B_{Ben} $B_{Interact}$	= .034, $p > .05$ = .046, $p > .05$ = -.037, $p > .05$
H_{15}: Remuneration moderates the relationship between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment.	B_{Extrin} B_{Rem} $B_{Interact}$	= .047, $p > .05$ = -.194, $p <.05$ = -.049, $p > .05$

The moderated regression analysis suggests that the main effect between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment was statistically significant (B = .329, $p < .05$), whereas the relationship between learning and affective commitment was non-significant (B = .082, $p >$ .05). The interaction added in step 2 suggests that learning does not moderate the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment (B = .109, $p > .05$). The results therefore indicate that empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 2 since the reported relationship was not congruent with the original hypothesised relationship.

The moderated regression analysis suggests that the main effect between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment was statistically significant (B = .327, $p < .05$), whereas the relationship between career advancement and affective commitment was non-significant (B = .138, $p > .05$). The interaction added in step 2 suggests that career advancement does not moderate the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment (B = .216, $p > .05$). The results therefore indicate that no empirical support found for Hypothesis 3 since the reported relationship was not congruent with the original hypothesised relationship.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that performance and recognition moderate the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment. The direct effect between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment was significant (*B* = .327, $p < .05$), while the relationship between performance and recognition and affective commitment was non-significant (*B* = .121, $p > .05$). The interaction added in step 2 suggests that performance and recognition do not moderate the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment (*B* = .088, $p > .05$). The results therefore indicate that no empirical support was found for Hypothesis 4 since the reported relationship was not congruent with the original hypothesised relationship.

The results suggest that the direct effect of intrinsic motivation and affective commitment was significant (*B* = .346, $p < .05$), whereas the relationship between work-life balance and affective commitment was non-significant (*B* = -.012, $p >$ 05). The interaction added in step 2 suggests that work-life balance does not moderate the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment (*B* = .004, $p > .05$). The results indicate that empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 5 since the reported relationship was not congruent with the original hypothesised relationship.

The direct effect of extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment was non-significant (*B* = -.981, $p >.05$), while the relationship between remuneration and continuance commitment was also non-significant (*B* = -.150, $p > .05$). The interaction added in step 2 suggests that remuneration does not moderate the relationship between intrinsic motivation and continuance commitment (*B* = -.089, $p > .05$). The results indicate that empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 8 since the reported relationship was not congruent with the original hypothesised relationship.

The direct effect of extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment was non-significant (*B* = -.098, $p > .05$), while the relationship between benefits and continuance commitment was also non-significant (*B* = -000, $p > .05$). The interaction added in step 2 suggests that benefits do not moderate the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment (*B* = -.172, $p > .05$). The results indicate that empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 9 since the reported relationship was not congruent with the original hypothesised relationship.

Hypothesis 12 predicted that performance and recognition moderate the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment. The direct effect of extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment was non-significant (*B* = -.089, *p* > .05), whereas the relationship between performance and recognition and continuance commitment was also non-significant (*B* = .340, *p* > .05). The interaction added in step 2 suggests performance and recognition do not moderate the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment (*B* = -.164, *p* > .05). The results do not support Hypothesis 12 since the reported relationship was not congruent with the original hypothesised relationship.

Hypothesis 14 predicted that benefits moderate the relationship between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment. The direct effect of extrinsic motivation and normative commitment was non-significant (*B* = .034, *p* > .05), while the relationship between benefits and normative commitment was also non-significant (*B* = .046, *p* > .05). The interaction added in step 2 suggests that benefits do not moderate the relationship between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment (*B* = -.037, *p* > .05). The results do not support Hypothesis 14 since the reported relationship was not congruent with the original hypothesised relationship.

The results suggest that the direct effect of extrinsic motivation and normative commitment was non-significant (*B* = .047, *p* > .05), whereas the relationship between remuneration and normative commitment was negative and significant (*B* = -.194, *p* < .05). The interaction added in step 2 suggests that remuneration does not moderate the relationship between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment (*B* = -.049, *p* > .05). The results indicate that empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 15 since the reported relationship was not congruent with the original hypothesised relationship.

4.7 SUMMARY

The aim of this chapter was to present the results based on the hypotheses formulated in chapter 2. This chapter began by explaining how missing values were handled and then discussed the results of the exploratory factor analyses. In addition, the reliability of each measure was investigated. The hypotheses were empirically tested by means of simple linear regression and, in the case of moderation analyses, multiple regression. Overall, the regression analyses found support for two out of the six direct relationships, whereas the moderated analyses indicated that none of the reward structures moderates the relationship between motivation and commitment.

The results are discussed in more detail in the following chapter. Chapter 5 will also focus on the limitations of the study and make recommendations for future research stemming from the present study.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary goal of this research study centred on the relationship between employee motivation, reward structures and organisational commitment. The literature review led to the formulation of a comprehensive structural model that was tested empirically through regression analyses. Descriptions of the relationships between the variables studied resulted in a structural model that was operationalised with an *ex post facto* correlational research design. The sample and the methods used to collect and analyse data were discussed in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 presented and discussed the results from the statistical analyses. The aim of this chapter was to discuss the findings in more detail; including the hypotheses that were found to be significant and those for which limited or no empirical support was found. Furthermore, this chapter points out the limitations of the study, makes recommendations for future research and emphasises the practical implications for the organisation.

5.2 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main aim for the study was to investigate the complex set of relationships that can be inferred between employee motivation, organisational commitment and reward structures.

From the main aim, the following specific objectives of the study were inferred:

- To investigate the direct relationships between the dimensions of organisational commitment and employee motivation.
- To evaluate the moderating role of reward structures on the relationship between employee motivation and total organisational commitment.

A number of important linkages emerged from the variables and a total of 15 hypotheses were formulated to explore the relationships between these variables. The theoretical model presented in Chapter 2 can be broken down into six direct relationships and nine interacting ones. The results of the statistical analyses are presented in the following section.

5.3 SUMMARY OF THE RELIABILITY AND UNIDIMENSIONALITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

In order to be confident of the findings from the regression analyses, the measuring instruments were evaluated to ensure they were reliable and valid. Exploratory factor analysis was used to determine the unidimensionality and validity of the chosen measures. The results indicate that after certain modifications, most of the measures were unidimensional. Most of the scales required revision since items either loaded on secondary factors that were not theoretically sensible, or reported low factor loadings. Some of the items were deleted since they were Haywood cases with abnormally high communality values. After revision, the researcher is confident that all of the scales were unidimensional.

The results of Cronbach's alpha coefficients presented in Table 5.1, give an indication of the reliability of each measure. All the scales reported acceptable reliability, except the subscales of extrinsic motivation, career advancement, performance and recognition, remuneration and work-life balance. All relationships including these variables, should be interpreted with caution since the variables contain large error variance.

Table 5.1: Reliability analysis results of the subscales

Subscale	Number of scales	Cronbach's alpha	Mean	Variance
Affective Commitment	8	.81	27.25	28.73
Continuance Commitment	5	.75	15.90	16.42
Normative Commitment	7	.71	20.82	20.30
Extrinsic Motivation	3	.54	11.49	4.17
Intrinsic Motivation	3	.74	13.04	3.61
Career Advancement	2	.64	8.98	1.40
Learning	2	.80	8.87	1.80
Performance and Recognition	4	.67	17.14	5.50

Remuneration	2	.58	9.14	1.12
Work-life Balance	4	.68	16.44	6.92

5.4 DISCUSSION OF DIRECT RELATIONSHIPS

In total, the theoretical model contained six direct relationships. Statistical support was found for the relationships proposed by Hypotheses H1 and H6. Support was obtained for the positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment. This finding is corroborated by research conducted by Udin, Handayani, Yuniawan and Rahardja, (2017), who sought to determine the antecedents and consequences of affective commitment amongst Indonesian engineers working in an automobile sector. Their results indicated that intrinsic motivation has a significant positive effect on affective commitment. This finding thus confirms that when employees are intrinsically motivated, they tend to show high levels of affective commitment since they feel emotionally attached to the organisation.

In addition, a positive relationship was found between work-life balance and intrinsic motivation, which is in line with previous research findings. Azeez, Fapohunda and Jayeoba (2019) conducted a study to investigate the effects of healthy workplace practices on intrinsic motivation. Their results showed that work-life balance has a significant impact on intrinsic motivation. This finding confirms results of the current study and therefore suggests that when employees feel their wellbeing is taken care of by the employer, they feel more connected and loyal to the organisation.

Hypothesis 7 was not supported by the data, as the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment was found to be negative and non-significant. Initially, it was expected that a strong positive relationship should exist between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment. However, Saracli, Keskinturk, Cicek and Gazeloglu (2014) similarly found no significant effect of continuance commitment on extrinsic motivation. The reason may be that employees perceive their inputs to be larger than the rewards received and therefore do not view monetary rewards as a motivator to stay in an organisation. These employees may therefore believe that they could possibly receive improved salaries and benefits elsewhere. Another possible reason could be due to the low reliability levels indicated by the extrinsic motivation subscale. The relationship between any two variables are attenuated by the unreliability of the independent and dependent variable. Due to the low level of internal consistency for the extrinsic motivation scale, a significant relationship may not be observed.

Hypothesis 10 predicted a positive relationship between benefits and extrinsic motivation. The results from the regression analysis indicated a negative and non-significant relationship. In addition, Hypothesis 11 predicted a positive relationship between remuneration and extrinsic motivation. Eshun and Duah (2011) explored whether rewards motivated employees to perform in an organisation. The research was conducted in a number of companies situated in the Accra and Tema municipalities of the Greater Accra region in Ghana. A number of 20 employees underwent a 45 to 60-minute interview and results showed 17 participants indicated that rewards do not motivate them to improve their performance. In addition, the three other respondents emphasised that monetary rewards are a contractual agreement between employer and employees, which should be honoured when employees achieve what was set out for them. This present study also found that benefits and remuneration do not have a significant relationship with extrinsic motivation. This result runs contrary to existing research, which suggests a strong relationship between remuneration and extrinsic motivation (Bhadoriya, 2013; Deb, 2009). As the case was with Hypothesis 7, such a non-significant relationship can be attributed to the unreliability of the extrinsic motivation measure.

Finally, results from the regression analysis did not support the predicted positive relationship between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment. Results were non-significant, which indicated that extrinsic motivation does not impact normative commitment. Prastiwi, Pujiono, Aisyaturrahmi and Bon (2019) investigated the effect of reward systems on the commitment and performance of public sector employees in the Madiun Regency Government situated in the western part of East Java. One on the hypotheses they tested revealed that extrinsic rewards affect normative commitment negatively. More specifically, the results showed that financial benefits such as bonuses, remuneration and health insurance do not result in committed employees. Based on the foregoing, seemingly some of the literature corresponds with the findings on Hypothesis 13.

Against the foregoing section only two hypotheses were supported by the statistical analyses, namely the direct relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment as well as the positive relationship between work life balance and intrinsic motivation. The foregoing section aimed to answer primary research object, namely to investigate the direct relationships between the dimensions of organisational commitment and employee motivation.

The results of the statistical analyses suggest that only partial support was found for the proposed relationships.

5.5 DISCUSSION OF INTERACTING RELATIONSHIPS

Based on the theoretical framework developed in Chapter 2, nine interacting variables were proposed. Statistical support was not found for any of the moderating relationships. Possible reasons for the lack of empirical support are discussed below.

Hypotheses 2, 3, 4 and 5 have the same main effect, which is the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment, with the only differences being the moderating variables for each of the hypotheses. The following moderating variables were tested: learning, career advancement, performance and recognition as well as work-life balance. Results from the moderated regression analyses indicate that the interaction effect did not explain additional variance beyond the main effects. Thus, the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment is not moderated by any of the variables. These results suggest that learning, career advancement, performance and recognition, as well as work-life balance, may have an additive effect on affective commitment, but not an interactive effect. This finding is surprising since it is to be expected that these variables would amplify the strong relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment. However, no support was found for these proposed interactive relationships. One possible reason is the relatively low reliability levels of the moderators. Career advancement, performance and recognition as well as work-life balance reported reliability levels lower than the cut-off alpha coefficient of 0.70. Interaction effects are small and often hard to detect (Little, 2013). In addition, large sample sizes are needed with high statistical power to detect interaction effects (Darlington & Hayes, 2016). Thus, the problem may be that the current sample was not large enough to generate sufficient statistical power, helping to detect the interaction effects.

Hypotheses 8, 9 and 12 focus on the same main effect, namely the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment. For all three hypotheses, the relationship between the main effects were not statistically significant. This result is surprising, since voluminous research found strong relationships between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment. Employees with high levels of continuance commitment fundamentally motivated to stay in an organisation because they depend on the benefits and remuneration that are offered. It would be expected that remuneration, benefits and performance further amplify this strong positive relationship. However, results from the moderated regression analyses indicated that the interaction effect did not explain additional variance over and above the main effect. Thus, it was found that the relationship between extrinsic motivation and continuance commitment is not moderated by any of the variables. Therefore, no support was found for Hypotheses 8, 9 and 12.

Finally, Hypotheses 14 and 15 focus on the same main effect, which is the relationship between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment. No statistical support was found for the proposed relationships. The moderating variables tested were benefits and remuneration, respectively. It is interesting to note that no statistical relationship was found for the direct effect between extrinsic motivation and normative commitment. Considering that normative commitment is viewed as a form of extrinsic motivation (Vuuren as cited in Altindis, 2011), it may be that the respondents do not perceive monetary rewards as a motivator to stay in the organisation. Their loyalty to the organisation may be due to relationships formed and feelings of acceptance rather than extrinsic rewards. Another possible reason could be due to the low reliability levels of the extrinsic motivation subscale. Theoretically, it may be that individuals who are normatively committed are not motivated by extrinsic rewards. If that is the case, it would not be expected that benefits and remuneration moderate the relationship. Mehmood and Khan (2018) found no relationship between normative commitment and extrinsic motivation.

The foregoing section aimed to answer second research objective, namely to investigate the role of reward structures on the relationship between employee motivation and organisational commitment. The results of the statistical analyses suggest that rewards structures do not moderate the relationship between employee motivation and reward structures.

5.6 MANAGERIAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Motivated employees tend to be more committed to the organisation than those who are not. Literature confirmed that motivation precedes organisational commitment. However, each employee may be motivated by different aspects. It is therefore worthwhile for managers to understand what reward structures motivate individual workers. More importantly, it is important to understand which reward structures amplify the relationship between motivation and commitment. This was the main aim of the present study. In an era where organisations have to compete for the services of the most talented employees, the bevy of reward structures may strengthen organisational commitment and performance. However, reward structures may not have the same impact on all three forms of commitment.

Organisational commitment has three dimensions that managers should understand, namely: affective, continuance and normative commitment. This suggests that employees may stay in an organisation for different reasons. Employees may be emotionally attached to the organisation; believe it would be costly for them to leave; or they may feel morally obliged to remain. The psychological mechanism underlying each type of commitment is important to discern. Clearly, it is optimal to foster a sense of affective commitment to the organisation amongst employees since this will create an emotional attachment to the company. The study demonstrated that the individual linkages between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and the three forms of commitment are nuanced and unique. For this reason, there is probably no universal approach that will simultaneously elicit all forms of commitment. The same argument applies to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Considering the significant results of this study, work-life balance was seen as a predictor of intrinsic motivation. This suggests that when employees can find a balance between their personal and work demands they are likely to be intrinsically motivated. The second significant result found that extrinsic motivation is a predictor of continuance commitment. This is hardly surprising and has been confirmed in numerous studies (e.g. Khalid & Aftab, 2017; Mehmood & Khan, 2018; Tsegaye, 2017). However, the overarching theme remains important in that the relationship and linkages to affective commitment are vastly different from that of continuance commitment. Stated differently, organisations should implement policies and reward structures that encourage affective and continuance commitment. The original hypothesising suggested that the strong relationship between continuance commitment and extrinsic motivation would be amplified by remuneration and benefits. On the other hand, the relationship between intrinsic motivation and affective commitment should be boosted by work-life balance, learning, and career advancement. Unfortunately, this broad pattern of results did not emerge from the empirical results.

5.7 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Although the overall set of results are promising in terms of theory and practice, certain key limitations may impact the overall utility of the results. The most important limitations, and the potential remedies to these limitations, are discussed subsequently, linked to recommendations for future study on this topic.

Firstly, a clear limitation of using convenience sampling is that results cannot be generalised to the greater population to include, for example, other financial institutions (Jager, Putnick, & Bornstein, 2017). In addition, the sample used for this study was relatively small and from a single organisation. It is therefore suggested that multiple organisations should be included in future research for the results to be more representative of the greater population in the financial sector of South Africa. The relatively small sample size in all likelihood had a negative effect on the statistical power to detect interaction effects. It would be interesting to test the same interaction effects in a larger sample, with higher degrees of statistical power and across multiple samples from the financial services industry.

Thirdly, this study made use of a self-report questionnaire. Questionnaires can be susceptible to response bias, with respondents attempting to represent themselves favourably through their answers, rather than indicating their true feelings or perceptions (McDonald, 2008). In addition, this method is limited in its ability to address the "how" and "why" questions, therefore it fails to provide depth and detail (Koul, 2009). To remedy this deficiency, more diverse forms of data collection should be applied in future to overcome the single method bias. A possible example would be mixed method research, which includes (qualitative) semi-structured interviews.

Regarding the questionnaires used, future research should not use the Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS) and the Total Rewards Preference Questionnaire. The Extrinsic Motivation Scale of the WEIMS showed poor reliability. The subscales of the Total Rewards Preference Questionnaire, namely career advancement, performance and recognition, remuneration, as well as work-life balance, reported below average internal consistency. Furthermore, several scales only had a few items that did not make the scale conducive for factor analyses.

Despite the limitations, the study still has important implications for theory and practice. One of the fruitful areas of future research is to investigate whether reward structures are mediators or moderators. In the present study, reward structures were modelled as moderators, however, research evidence suggests that such structures may be mediators between motivation and organisational commitment (Bayraktar, Araci, Karacay & Calisir, 2017). Furthermore, multilevel models can provide more information on the impact of rewards structures on commitment levels of groups as well as individuals. In the present study, commitment was modelled on individual level, however, reward structures on individual level may aggregate to commitment on group level. For example, the work-life balance may lead not only to commitment of individual employees, but potentially to stronger team commitment.

5.8 CONCLUSION

The main aim of this study was to investigate the complex set of relationships between employee motivation, organisational commitment and reward structures. Although extensive research has been undertaken on the relationship between motivation and organisational commitment, the network of relationships between the sub-dimensions that make up these variables has not been explored sufficiently in literature. The current study aimed to address the research gap. However, the empirical results did not support most of the relationships proposed in the model. However, the results did suggest that work-life balance predicts intrinsic motivation. This suggests that when employees manage to find the correct balance between their work and personal lives because of opportunities provided by their organisation, they become intrinsically motivated to do more for the organisation. The second significant result was that Extrinsic Motivation is a predictor of Continuance Commitment. This relationship proposes that an employee motivated by monetary rewards tend to stay in an organisation because they feel that it would be costly for them to leave the organisation. In addition to these findings, employers need to put together employee reward systems which would provide managers with a suite of programmes and rewards to use to motivate employees individually. Furthermore, the study recommends that managers and practitioners are better equipped to develop interventions that will have a systematic and predictable influence on organisational commitment if they have an understanding of the deterministic forces that influence organisational commitment.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Cover Letter

Dear Participant

In partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Master's Degree in Industrial Psychology, at the University of the Western Cape (UWC), I am required to complete a dissertation on a topic of my choice.

I have decided to study "The role of employee motivation and reward structures as drivers organisational commitment". Part of the study involves obtaining valuable data from a selected group using questionnaires to elicit responses from the participants. I would greatly appreciate it if you could assist me, by taking a couple of minutes of your time, to complete my questionnaires. Please click on the link to access the questionnaire: https://form.myjotform.com/83262465136558

I assure you that I will treat all information provided in these questionnaires as strictly confidential. Your assistance is truly appreciated.

Thank you kindly.

Miss. N.N. Kwatsha
nanga.kwatsha@webmail.co.za
UWC: Department of Industrial Psychology

Appendix B: Questionnaire

Employee motivation, Organisational Commitment and Total Rewards Questionnaire

Biographical Information

Please complete the following details for purposes of the research study by selecting the option appropriate to you.

1. **Gender**

   ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. **Age (please state your age in complete years) _______**

3. **Ethnic Group:**

   ☐ African ☐ Coloured ☐ Asian

   ☐ White ☐ Other

4. **Highest level of education completed:**

   ☐ Matric ☐ Certificate ☐ Diploma

   ☐ Degree ☐ Post Graduate Degree

5. **In which area are you currently employed?**

   ☐ HR ☐ Marketing ☐ Credit Risk

   ☐ IT ☐ Finance ☐ Legal & Compliance

   ☐ Call Centre Team Leader ☐ Call Centre Manager ☐ Other

6. **Years of service in the company______________**

7. **Do you work part-time or full-time?**

   ☐ Part-time ☐ Full-time

Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation **Instructions:** Using the scale below, please indicate to what extent each of the following items corresponds to the reasons why you are presently involved in your work.		Does not correspond at all	Does not correspond	Neutral	Corresponds moderately	Correspond exactly
1.	Because this is the type of work I chose to do to attain a certain lifestyle.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2.	For the income it provides me.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3.	I ask myself this question, I don't seem to be able to manage the important tasks.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4.	Because I derive much pleasure from learning new things.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5.	Because it has become a fundamental part of who I am.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6.	Because I want to succeed at this job, if not I would be very ashamed of myself.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7.	Because I chose this type of work to attain my career goals.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8.	For the satisfaction I experience from taking on interesting challenges.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9.	Because it allows me to earn money.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10.	Because it is part of the way in which I have chosen to live my life.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11.	Because I want to be very good at this work, otherwise I would be very disappointed.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12.	I don't know why, we are provided with unrealistic working conditions..	①	②	③	④	⑤
13.	Because I want to be a "winner" in life.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14.	Because it is the type of work I have chosen to attain certain important objectives.	①	②	③	④	⑤

15.	For the satisfaction I experience when I am successful at doing difficult tasks.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16.	Because this type of work provides me with security.	①	②	③	④	⑤
17.	I don't know, too much is expected of us.	①	②	③	④	⑤
18.	Because this job is a part of my life.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Organisational Commitment Questionnaire **Instructions:** This section focuses on the employee's commitment to the organisation. Please read the statements below and answer all by indicating your answer.		**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Uncertain**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
1.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2.	I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside it.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3.	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4.	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5.	I do not feel like 'part of the family' in my organisation.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6.	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7.	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8.	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9.	I think that people these days move from organisation to organisation too often.	①	②	③	④	⑤

10.	I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his/her organisation.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11.	Jumping from one organisation does not seem at all unethical to me.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12.	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel right to leave my organisation.	①	②	③	④	⑤
13.	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14.	I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organisation.	①	②	③	④	⑤
15.	Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organisation for most of their careers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16.	I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore.	①	②	③	④	⑤
17.	I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	①	②	③	④	⑤
18.	It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.	①	②	③	④	⑤
19.	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now.	①	②	③	④	⑤
20.	It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organisation right now.	①	②	③	④	⑤
21.	Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	①	②	③	④	⑤
22.	I feel I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.	①	②	③	④	⑤

23.	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	①	②	③	④	⑤
24.	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice. Another organisation may not match the overall benefits I have here	①	②	③	④	⑤

Total Rewards Questionnaire **Instructions:** The following questions are aimed at determining which rewards you value most in your total rewards package. Please read the statements below and answer all by indicating your answer. How important do you consider each of the following factors to be in deciding whether to stay with your current employer?		**Not at all important**	**Not important**	**Uncertain**	**important**	**Very important**
1.	Recognition provided to you by your employer e.g. Financial recognition such as a cash, paid travel.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2.	The extent to which your employer respects differences in race, gender and age.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3.	The opportunities offered to you by your company for learning and career development outside of your current job e.g. sabbaticals, coaching, mentoring, leadership training.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4.	The opportunities offered to you by your company for career advancement e.g. job advancement/promotions, internships, and apprenticeships with experts, internal job posting.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5.	The quality of performance feedback and performance discussions you have had with your supervisor.	①	②	③	④	⑤

6.	The extent to which you believe your contribution and work is valued.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7.	The level of challenge and interest you derive from your job.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8.	The extent to which you are provided with challenging targets.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9.	Having a manageable workload and reasonable work pace.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10.	Having supportive and like–minded colleagues.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11.	The opportunities offered to you by your company for training within your current job e.g. skills training.	①	②	③	④	⑤
12.	The extent to which your employer supports a balanced lifestyle (between your work and personal life).	①	②	③	④	⑤
13.	Your employer's provision of work/life programmes such as flexible working arrangements, flexible hours.	①	②	③	④	⑤
14.	Having social friendships at work.	①	②	③	④	⑤
15.	The degree to which your employer encourages and organises team building or other social networking activities amongst employees.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16.	Your employer's provision of employee health and wellness programmes e.g. Employee Assistance Programmes, counselling services, fitness centres.	①	②	③	④	⑤
17.	The provision of a competitive pay package (i.e. basic salary plus benefits, allowances or variable pay.	①	②	③	④	⑤

18.	Your employer's provision of medical aid, retirement and pension benefits.	①	②	③	④	⑤
19.	Your employer's provision of incentive bonuses/variable pay.	①	②	③	④	⑤
20.	The provision of recognition via non-	①	②	③	④	⑤

Thank you for your participation