# THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION, JOB SATISFACTION AND CORPORATE CULTURE

by

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I declare that

The relationship between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture

is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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Mrs W Roos June 2005

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**SUMMARY**

The aim of the study was two-fold: Firstly, the relationships of job satisfaction with the dimensions of employee motivation (energy and dynamism, synergy, intrinsic and extrinsic motives) and the domains of corporate culture (performance, human resources, decision-making and relationships) was investigated. Secondly, the relationships of employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture with a number of demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, education level and seniority) were explored. The findings indicated a statistically significant three-way relationship between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture, within which several aspects of these constructs contributed more powerfully towards the relationship than others. The age, gender, tenure, education level and seniority of employees were also shown to influence employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture.

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SUMMARY

## CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

Companies are made up of individuals organised in functional groups to attend to the business at hand. Some companies are successful and some are not. In their study of numerous American companies, Peters and Waterman (1982) found that a tight, culturally driven set of properties, which included rigidly shared values, invariably marked the 43 successful companies they focused on. They pointed out that the commitment of these companies' employees to their organisations' values and beliefs constituted a crucial factor in the success of these companies. Becker (1975 in Peters & Waterman, 1982) provided some theoretical underpinning to this phenomenon, by stating that people are motivated by an essential "dualism", which simultaneously drive them to need to be conforming members of a winning team, and to want to be stars in their own right. From Peters and Waterman's (1982) work it appeared that winning organisations display cultures that satisfy these dichotomous needs of the individuals who together make up those companies.

The idea of the centrality of culture to organisations has been given considerable credence by the highly successful application of the Mc Kinsey 7-S model of corporate excellence in business management. The model was developed by Peters and Waterman (1982), and placed culture (shared beliefs) in the centre of what they believed to be seven crucial factors to organisational success. The other factors included structure, systems, style, staff, skills and strategy. Numerous other authors, such as Alvesson (2002), Alvesson and Berg (1992), and Cooper, Cartwright and Earley (2001) regard the cultural perspective as an inspiring way to study and understand organisational functioning.

Taking its inspiration from the work of authors such as those mentioned above, this study aimed to explore the marketing research type of organisation from a cultural angle, with the specific purpose of assessing the relationship between an organisation's culture and the levels of job satisfaction and work motivation

experienced by those who ultimately render it successful or unsuccessful, namely its employees.

## 1.1 Problem statement

A myriad of studies have been conducted on employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture, as well as on various combinations thereof. As far as could be ascertained, the relationship between all of these constructs has, however, not been reported on in the same study as yet. In this regard, this study aimed to add to the body of knowledge in this particular domain of organisational psychology.

According to Schofield (1998), an authoritative study conducted by the Sheffield Effectiveness Programme (a joint research project between the Centre For Economic Performance at the London Stock Exchange and the Institute For Work Psychology at the University Of Sheffield) between 1991 and 1998 has shown decisively that the way people are managed has a powerful impact on both productivity and profitability. The study, which included measurement of levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees of 67 firms, found that five percent of the profitability variance, and 16 percent of the productivity variance between companies may be attributed to corresponding variance in job satisfaction levels between their employees. Furthermore, differences in corporate culture accounted for ten percent and 29 percent of variance in profitability and productivity respectively between firms. This study demonstrated the importance of job satisfaction, employee motivation and commitment, and corporate culture in organisational capability and effectiveness. According to Watson (1994) business has come to realise that a motivated and satisfied workforce can deliver powerfully to the bottom line.

Against the background of increasing global and local organisational competitiveness it is crucial for any organisation, and particularly for those in developing countries with limited skills resources, such as South Africa, to ensure that it develops and retains a loyal, dedicated, committed and able workforce on a consistent basis. A loyal, dedicated, committed and able staff complement

presupposes employees who are satisfied with the work that they do, and with the culture of the organisation they are employed by, and who are consequently motivated to continue their relationship with that organisation. A great many employees all over the world do not enjoy this level of job satisfaction and work motivation, and as a result often opt for seeking alternative employment where they may be able to experience a higher degree of job satisfaction. Such actions have an adverse effect on an organisation's ability to be profitable and successful over an extended period of time. Finck, Timmers and Mennes (1998) emphasised that only when employees are excited and motivated by what they do, will business excellence be achieved.

A variety of factors motivate people at work, some of which are tangible, such as money, and some of which are intangible, such as a sense of achievement (Spector, 2003). Although employees derive satisfaction from their work, or places of work, for different reasons, this study was concerned specifically with the investigation of the relationship between levels of satisfaction and factors associated with the culture of the organisation, and with relating this relationship to the motivation of employees at work. The primary point of departure is that the success of any organisation is heavily dependent on the inputs of its workforce, and that such inputs are determined to a large extent by personal characteristics, and by those facets of people's work environments that motivate them to invest more physical and mental energy into their work. In this way the organisation's objectives are pursued and met. Motivation and job satisfaction are therefore regarded as key determinants of organisational success, both of which are influenced by aspects of corporate culture. A thorough understanding of the nature and significant sources of employee satisfaction and motivation, insofar as these concepts are related to corporate culture, will enable employers to effect the required positive strategic changes, such as adapt their strategic human resource and organisational development planning and implementation towards optimal employee loyalty and retention. Examples of such strategies may include selecting incumbents with a high degree of potential fit with the organisation's culture, and to adapt certain of its human resource policies and practices, where these have been shown to hamper employee motivation and satisfaction.

## 1.2 Brief definitions of the employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture constructs

According to Pinder (1998 in Ambrose & Kulik, 1999) work motivation may be regarded as a set of internal and external forces that initiate work-related behaviour, and determine its form, direction, intensity and duration. The concept relates to the work context specifically, and includes the influence on work behaviour of both environmental forces, and those inherent in the person. In the workplace, work motivation presents as an invisible, personal and hypothetical construct that manifests itself in the form of observable, and therefore measurable, behaviours.

Sempane, Rieger and Roodt (2002) hold that job satisfaction relates to people's own evaluation of their jobs against those issues that are important to them. Since emotions and feelings are involved in such assessments, employees' levels of job satisfaction may impact significantly on their personal, social and work lives, and as such, also influence their behaviour at work.

Much controversy exists regarding the general nature of corporate culture as a construct (Cooper et al., 2001) and as a result several different definitions of the concept have been formulated, each from the unique perspective of its author. Schein (1985 in Cooper et al., 2001) offered a rather comprehensive and complex definition. He described corporate culture as the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to these problems. Alvesson (2002) supported this view by stating that a set of common, taken for granted ideas, beliefs and meanings among employees is necessary for continued organised activity, as it obviates the need for continual interpretation and re-interpretation of meanings.

## 1.3 Organisational challenges in the marketing research industry

With regard to employee motivation and job satisfaction, the typical South African marketing research environment poses several significant challenges to employers. It is by nature a fast-paced and highly pressured environment, due to a high degree of intricate process interdependence between work teams, stringent deadlines, high work volumes, and long work hours (Bard & Moore, 2000). In addition, marketing research analysts are also required to demonstrate a combination of analytical, writing and people skills, on top of a propensity for both a detailed and a conceptual approach to their work (Deetlefs, 2003). Very few individuals are able to combine such often incongruent but essential attributes comfortably, which may impact on their work satisfaction and motivation. The necessity for performing consistently to internal and external expectations in such a broad fashion is in itself highly stressful. In addition, the marketing research arena is not generally associated with highly lucrative employment benefit packages that offer suitable reward, especially with respect to the bulk of employees, who operate on the lower rungs of such organisations. All of these factors add to the difficulty that employers in the South African marketing research industry have in recruiting suitable employees, developing them to levels where they make a significant contribution to the profitability of the organisation, and ultimately in retaining them as intellectual and business capital over the long term.

Apart from the potential impact on the organisation, loyalty and retention of value-adding human resources in the marketing research arena also have economic implications on both a national, and increasingly on an international level. This follows from the fact that marketing research in South Africa is a huge, fast growing and highly competitive industry upon which several other industries rely for their short- and long-term strategic and operational directives. In addition, more and more South African marketing research companies are being commissioned to conduct major studies by, or in association with, international organisations. In order to be able to perform to international standards, these companies need to have their operations running smoothly on a consistent basis, but perhaps more importantly, require a professional, well trained and optimally productive human resource base.

The study at hand was based on a sample of 118 employees of a prominent South African marketing research company, who have been in its employ for at least six months. The sample represented a wide range of selected demographic variables, and included the entire scope of seniority levels in the company, from directors to junior researchers. It was deemed important to assess whether significant differences existed between the subgroups of employees, in their experience of work motivation and job satisfaction, and their perceptions of the organisation's corporate culture. The main objective was to investigate the concepts of job satisfaction, employee motivation and corporate culture as they related to this particular environment, to determine whether any significant differences were evident in the perceptions and experiences of the different subgroups of employees, and whether any significant relationships could be drawn between the dimensions of employee motivation, job satisfaction, and the perceived corporate culture of the organisation.

Although this study sampled employees in the marketing research field specifically, it is believed that its findings could be equally relevant to most other industries where organisational performance is largely dependent on the performance delivery by its staff. Despite their individual differences, the motivation theories show that by and large, people at work, wherever that may be, are motivated and satisfied by many of the same, or similar key characteristics of the workplace.

## 1.4 Objectives

As mentioned earlier, the study set out to investigate two sets of relationships, namely that between the constructs of employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture, as well as the relationships between these constructs and the demographic variables of age, gender, tenure, education level and seniority.

## 1.5 Research paradigm

The study adopted a quantitative approach. Mouton and Marais (1988) have cited several characteristics of a quantitative research paradigm. With reference to the operational specificity of the concepts upon which the research is based, precise and unambiguous definition is required, in addition to operationalisability, to make accurate measurement possible. As main guiding elements of the research, one or more explicit hypotheses are stated upfront, and in such a manner that they may be rejected or accepted, depending on the results of the study. The literature survey indicated a large number of possible hypotheses, and the current study consequently opted for a broader objective providing for all options. Quantitative research observation may be characterised as “objectifying”, in contrast to the subjectifying observation commonly applied in qualitative research, in that the researcher remains external to the process, and that observations are pre-planned and highly structured according to anticipated outcomes, within a context that is controlled as far as possible.

A quantitative research methodology, as opposed to a qualitative approach, was selected for this project, for a number of reasons. Firstly, the research was concerned with describing the concepts at hand and the relationships between them, and not with exploring, with the purpose of understanding surplus meanings of these constructs. Secondly, the nature of the main objective of the research, namely to investigate relationships between a number of clearly defined and operationalised constructs, called for precise measurement of these constructs, as they were being experienced and perceived by a representative sample of the target population of marketing research employees. Thirdly, the research pursued an explicitly stated objective, which was formulated at the start of the research process. This objective guided the research process. Finally, considerations surrounding convenience, time and cost also influenced the decision to adopt a quantitative research approach. The use of a survey research technique to obtain the required data was considered more convenient, as well as more time- and cost-effective against the background of the researcher’s specific circumstances than a qualitative approach.

## 1.6 Research methodology

In brief, the quantitative research process unfolded as follows.

The central aim was set, namely to investigate the relationship between the constructs of job satisfaction, employee motivation and corporate culture, and between the demographic profiles of the respondents and their levels of motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture perceptions. After determination of the most appropriate segmentation for the study, with the assistance of the Human Resources Department of the organisation, three assessment instruments were selected and administered to a sample of 118 employees (87% of the total staff complement) over a period of seven weeks. The assessment instruments included the Motivation Questionnaire (MQ), the Experience Of Work And Life Circumstances Questionnaire (WLQ), and the Corporate Culture Questionnaire (Lite) (CCQ Lite). These instruments were applied to assess the constructs of work motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture respectively. A maximum of 20 personnel participated in each of ten assessment sessions that lasted up to 90 minutes each. The MQ and CCQ answer sheets were computer-scored by Saville and Holdsworth Limited (SHL), who designed and supplied the instruments. The WLQ answer sheets were captured and scored by the researcher. The WLQ was developed by the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC). The data from all three instruments was consolidated in MS Excel format by SHL in preparation for analysis. In addition to a comprehensive set of reliability and descriptive statistics on the three measurement instruments, Pearson and canonical correlations were performed by RAU Statcon to analyse and interpret the data. ANOVA and the T-test for independent means were used to determine significant differences between the demographic groups selected for the study. The results were interpreted against the theoretical background pertaining to the constructs around which the study revolved, and were referenced to the literature in each case. The inferences made followed an inductive reasoning approach, since the generalisations made stemmed from data extracted from a relatively small sample.

The findings of the research study are presented in this dissertation, which has been copied to the host organisation, as well as to the two organisations that provided the assessment material, namely SHL and the HSRC. An article on the project has also been prepared for publication.

## 1.7 Layout of the dissertation

The remainder of the dissertation is structured as follows:

Chapter 2: Theories on motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture
Chapter 3: Literature review on the relationships between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture
Chapter 4: Research methodology
Chapter 5: Presentation of results
Chapter 6: Discussion of results
Chapter 7: Conclusions and recommendations
References
Annexures

## 1.8 Chapter summary

This chapter has provided a brief introduction to, and overview of the research study. The context and rationale of the study were set, and the constructs at hand were defined by means of reference to the literature. The chapter was concluded by a description of the objectives and methodology of the study. In Chapter 2 the theory underlying the constructs at hand are presented and discussed.

## CHAPTER 2

## THEORIES ON MOTIVATION, JOB SATISFACTION AND CORPORATE CULTURE

According to Khan (1997), in the current business environment, organisations in all industries are experiencing rapid change, which is accelerating at enormous speed. To be successful in a borderless, competitive global environment, companies must be sure to work hard on especially the people side of their business. This view is supported by Finck et al. (1998), who stated that companies must recognise that the human factor is becoming much more important for organisational survival, and that business excellence will only be achieved when employees are excited and motivated by their work. In addition, difficult circumstances, such as violence, tragedy, fear and job insecurity create severe stress in employees and result in reduced workplace performance (Klein, 2002). South Africa is no stranger to these types of daily stressors, and Swift (1999) therefore emphasised that corporate survival in present day South Africa hinges on management ability to motivate and inspire the workforce to pursue and take pride in both their own and corporate achievements. To this end, successful people management is especially important. There is much empirical evidence that effective people management and behaviour drive organisational profitability (Riskin, 2002).

The issue of what motivates employees has set a practical and theoretical agenda for organisational psychologists since the start of the 20$^{th}$ century (Haslam, Powell & Turner, 2000). Baron (1991, p.9) described motivation as "one of the most pivotal concerns of modern organisational research". Van Niekerk (1987) emphasised this point by stating that productivity is a function of both the motivation and the ability of an employee. Therefore, if motivation equals zero, so does productivity. Since employee performance is a joint function of ability and motivation, one of management's primary tasks, therefore,

is to motivate employees to perform to the best of their ability (Moorhead & Griffin, 1998).

In the field of organisational psychology, work motivation is approached from several angles. For example, some researchers feel work motivation study should start with an examination of the values of employees, since their values determine their needs, and their needs ultimately determine their behaviour (Osteraker, 1999). A crucial problem for others in contemporary organisation theory and research is how best to conceptualise and assess individual differences in motivational tendencies (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2000).

Sempane et al. (2002) noted that organisations represent highly complex social structures because of their dynamic nature. Employees, who are role players in them, render them competitive through their involvement and commitment. The relationship between organisation and employee is characterised by a high level of mutual interdependence, as both parties impact on the other's potential for success. Employee motivation and job satisfaction become crucial elements in this relationship. Extensive research has shown that employee motivation and job satisfaction are not brought about in isolation, but rather respond to organisational variables such as structure and working conditions (Schneider & Snyder, 1975). According to Sempane et al. (2002) organisational culture may therefore be promoted to ensure job satisfaction, with the ultimate aim of reaching the organisation's goals. The starting point is the measurement of the organisation's culture.

Corporate culture has emerged as a central theme in organisational psychology in recent years, and its initiatives are widely recognised as a legitimate source of corporate success (Bagraim, 2001). The term corporate culture has become a dominant feature in popular and academic literature since the 1980s, where it is often positioned as important in corporate competitiveness, in that a 'strong' culture ensures greater employee commitment, improved quality, more efficient

production, and increased responsiveness to customer needs (Peters & Waterman, 1982). The authors defined a strong culture as that where a high level of cultural alignment exists across the personnel corps of an organisation.

Employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture exert influence on the way in which employees perceive their work and work environment, and consequently on the way they behave in the workplace. In the ensuing section, each construct is covered individually in order to highlight its historical and theoretical development, as well as its relevance to the study at hand.

## 2.1 Motivation

In the section that follows, the early historical development of the motivation concept is discussed. It highlights the contribution of various scientific disciplines and schools of thought towards the way in which motivation was conceptualised over time, and is understood today. The discussion concludes with an account of some of the major theories of motivation that have been postulated over the years, and which shaped thought on the concept of motivation.

### 2.1.1 Historical development of the employee motivation concept

Cofer and Appley (1968) provided an interesting account of the early historical development of the employee motivation concept. MacLeod (1957 in Cofer & Appley, 1968) dated interest in motivational phenomena back to Darwin and Freud, and held that it is probably true that the form of the early dominant motivation questions stemmed largely from concepts relating to Darwinian evolution. Freud, and various others, were influenced by these concepts. However, most of the concepts in vogue have pre-Darwinian origins, such as the notion of evolution, instinct, hedonism, rationality and irrationality, unconscious processes, active mental forces, and mechanism and determinism.

Primitive man, in his comparison of himself to animals, must have discovered that a spiritual difference existed. This represented the earliest thoughts on dualism in humans, i.e. the belief in the co-existence of body and spirit or soul, which remained an important field of study and debate in Western philosophy, from Aristotle through the Church philosophers, such as Augustine and Aquinas, to Descartes and beyond.

Other issues, often related to the dualism concept, but connecting more specifically to matters of conduct, morals and ethics, also form part of the understanding of the background to the motivation construct. An important issue in this regard is the motivational implications inherent in many of the earlier explanations for, and conceptions of behaviour. There was a heavy emphasis among the Greek philosophers such as Socrates, Plato and Aristotle, on virtue and correct conduct through knowledge and reason, and on controlling passion through knowledge and rationality. Western thought adopted these notions in large part, with Christian emphasis having been placed more on purity of heart than on the value of knowledge. Here originated ideas regarding freedom of choice or will, and the notion of choosing the right conduct over the desired conduct. Rationality, however, was not regarded as the only motivation for behaviour. The denial of rational souls to animals led the Stoic school, which is mainly credited with this idea, to attribute the behaviour of lower organisms to instinct.

Although very important, Aristotle did not regard reason alone as sufficient to bring about the right action. The will to choose freely that which knowledge indicated to be good and correct, was seen as co-determinant of behaviour, and became habitual and pleasurable with repetition. To St Augustine, will was the most important aspect to life. This concept of knowledge and free will, as determinants of behaviour, set against instinct and passion, became firmly entrenched in the centuries that followed.

From time to time in the history of Western thought, emphasis was placed on the idea that factors not available to conscious awareness may influence behaviour, and that reason alone did not account for action. This notion laid the foundation for thoughts on hypnotism and psychoneurosis, for example.

Hedonism, or the idea that pain and pleasure shape behaviour, is supported by everyday experience, and has a long history. Aristippus of Cyrene is generally regarded as the originator of hedonism in philosophy. He believed pleasure was the only thing worth striving for, and equated virtue with the ability to enjoy. Hedonism languished from this time to the early Christian era, and became the chief principle of the British associationists and French associationists and empiricists. It still has an important place in the way motivation is conceptualised.

Implicit in all of the above-mentioned determinants of behaviour is the fact that views about the nature and motives of people differ. Through the ages human nature has been seen as intrinsically good, with evil sparked by a weak will, ignorance, or the ill effects of society, or as essentially evil, with law or social order required to keep it in check. There have also been various views on the driving motives of people, from an innate moral sense to do good, to a selfish concern to have only own needs served.

Darwin's evolution theory, published in 1859, has had a significant impact on the study of behaviour too, notably for his denial of any qualitative difference between humans and animals, and for his emphasis on the functional utility of various behavioural mechanisms, such as instinct, intelligence, and learning and motivation, for the organism's adaptation to and survival in his environment. These notions relate to modern-day ideas regarding people being motivated by various levels of 'survival' needs in their environment, including the workplace.

The manner in which the antecedents of behaviour were conceptualised at any particular time in history has given rise to the establishment of many theories on the motivation behind behaviour. Van Niekerk (1987) and Du Toit (1990) provide a brief account of how the thinking of the various schools of thought, from the religious theorists to the philosophers and social scientists, has evolved over time.

The traditional model of thought on motivation dominated during the period 1900 to 1930. This manner of conceptualising motivation is connected mostly to the thinking of Frederick Winslow Taylor and the scientific school of management. Their rather mechanistic point of departure was that workers generally do not want to work, and need to be motivated by financial reward. In other words, people are willing to work, but only if they get paid for it.

The traditional model made way for the human relations model that dominated between 1930 and 1960. Over time it became evident that the traditional model of motivation was not applicable to all circumstances or people, as workers appeared to be able to motivate themselves in many cases, and to not require constant supervision and control. At the same time, workers became increasingly suspicious of management, as their remuneration started losing equitability with their productivity. Worker dissatisfaction led to the establishment of the first trade and labour unions. Gradually, the mechanistic 'man-machine' idea of the previous movement made way for a better understanding of the nature of people, and especially of the importance of social relationships in the workplace on people's motivation to work, and the human relations model of motivation was established.

Around the 1960s it became popular to look upon motivation in terms of human potential. Although the human relations school represented a considerable advancement on traditional thinking, it could also not provide a complete explanation for all the nuances of behaviour in the workplace. It gradually made

way for the human potential model. According to theorists like McGregor, Maslow, Argyris and Likert, the human relations view simply allowed for a more sophisticated way than financial reward to manipulate the worker. They maintained that a worker is motivated by much more than just money or satisfying social relationships, and that especially a sense of achievement resulting from performing meaningful and challenging work is a potent employee need. They also argued that people are already motivated to perform their tasks effectively, and do not necessarily regard work as unwanted or unpleasant. This school of thought remains dominant in motivation theorising and application today.

### 2.1.2 Definitions of employee motivation

Walker (1980) stated that studies over the years have shown little relationship between measures of job satisfaction and performance outputs. Highly satisfied workers may be poor performers, whereas highly dissatisfied workers may be good performers. Several variables influence the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance, although no direct causal relationships between these have been identified as yet. However, it appears that motivation might account for much of the link between an employee's job satisfaction and job performance. In this sense, Walker regarded it as meaningful to view motivation as a summary factor, which Campbell and Pritchard (1976, p.78) defined as "a label for the determinants of the choice to initiate effort on a certain task, the choice to expend a certain amount of effort, and the choice to persist in expending effort over a period of time". Motivation, therefore, closes the satisfaction-performance loop, and has to do with a set of interrelated factors that explain an individual's behaviour, holding constant the variables controlled or influenced by management, as well as by individual skills, abilities and knowledge (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976).

The term motivation is derived from the Latin term ‘movere’, which means ‘to move’ (Baron, Henley, McGibbon & McCarthy, 2002). A great many definitions of the motivation construct have been postulated over the several decades during which this multi-faceted concept has been researched. The rich variety in perspectives on the topic of motivation is illustrated below.

According to Beck (1983) four basic philosophies underlie the various perspectives on work motivation. These were identified by Schein (1985a) as rational-economic man, social man, self-actualising man, and complex man. Theorists subscribing to the approach of rational-economic man assume that people are solely motivated by economic considerations, and that they are able to make rational economic decisions. Organisational policies emphasising pay and extrinsic reward structures originate from this view of motivation. In the case of social man, the assumption is that workers are primarily motivated by social needs, which may or may not be met by their work. In practice, proponents of this view would focus on establishing an environment conducive to satisfying and maintaining social interrelationships at work. From the perspective of self-actualising man, people are intrinsically motivated, and take pride in their work, and derive satisfaction from their accomplishments. Within this approach, workplace reward systems are highly performance-oriented. Lastly, the complex man view recognises that people are motivated by a great variation of motives, emotions, experiences and abilities, and that these change over time as new motives are learnt, and new skills change their attitudes towards their jobs. Organisations supporting this perspective offer highly individualised reward structures, and environments and ways in which employees are allowed to perform their duties.

The above-mentioned perspectives on the concept of motivation have inspired many useful and meaningful definitions of the construct. Schultz and Schultz (1998), for example, regarded motivation as simply the personal and workplace characteristics that explain why people behave the way they do on the job. Beck

(1983) expressed a similar view, and stated that motivation is concerned with explaining the variation in behaviour, such as why some people work harder than others. Work characteristics in this regard refer to specific characteristics of a person's job, for example its task variety, whereas personal characteristics include those determined by a person's personality, for example an intrinsic need for achievement.

Some authors take a slightly more intrinsically oriented stance, with work characteristics playing a lesser role. Spector (2003) saw motivation as an internal state that induces a person to engage in particular behaviours, and held that motivation may be viewed from two angles. On the one hand, motivation encompasses *direction*, where a particular behaviour is selected from a choice of behaviours, *intensity*, referring to the amount of effort put into a task, and *persistence*, which denotes the person's continuing engagement in the selected behaviour. On the other hand, motivation is also concerned with a desire to achieve a certain goal, which derives from the particular individual's own needs and desires. Petri (1996) also regarded motivation as the forces acting on or within a person to initiate and direct behaviour. It explains differences in intensity of behaviour, and why behaviour occurs in one situation, but not in another. The concept of motivation is therefore particularly useful in its ability to increase general understanding and prediction of behaviour. Gouws (1995) defined motivation as an inner wish or urge that originates with an individual, either consciously or unconsciously, to complete a task successfully because it is enjoyable, and not necessarily for what will be received in return.

Beach (1980) saw motivation as a willingness to expend energy to achieve a goal or reward. This author took somewhat of a behaviourist approach in stating that behaviour that is perceived to be rewarding will be repeated, whereas behaviour that goes unrewarded or is punished, tends to be extinguished. Beach (1980) did, however, recognise intrinsic motivation as related to the job content, and as that which occurs when people perform an activity from which they derive

satisfaction from simply engaging in the activity itself. Beach (1980) regarded extrinsic motivation as related to the job environment, which provides a person with the incentives and rewards he or she receives after having performed the work. A considerable field of interest covers the relationship of extrinsic reward and work motivation, and many companies have responded strongly to its findings. Successful organisations often attribute much of their success to a corporate culture that focuses on employee recognition, and openly recognise that "you get what you reward" (Wiscombe, 2002, p.46). In an age where retaining talent is crucial to their prosperity, companies realise that they need to do a better job at letting employees know that their work matters, by stepping up employee recognition (Clarke, 2001). Fortunately there also appears to be acknowledgement of the fact that people are inspired in dramatically different ways, and that employee motivation should never take a one-size-fits-all approach (Terez, 2001).

Van Niekerk (1987) saw work motivation as the creation of work circumstances that influence workers to perform a certain activity or task of their own free will, in order to reach the goals of the organisation, and simultaneously satisfy their own needs. Du Toit (1990) added that three groups of variables influence work motivation, namely individual characteristics, such as people's own interests, values and needs, work characteristics, such as task variety and responsibility, and organisational characteristics, such as its policies, procedures and customs.

Also from an organisational perspective, Pinder (1998) described work motivation as the set of internal and external forces that initiate work-related behaviour, and determine its form, direction, intensity and duration. The concept focuses on events and phenomena of the work context only, and includes the influence on work behaviour of both environmental forces and those inherent in the person. Pinder (1998) contended that an essential feature of this definition is that work motivation is an invisible, internal and hypothetical construct, and that researchers therefore have to rely on established theories to guide them in the

measurement of observable manifestations of work motivation. In terms of equity theory for example, work motivation is expected to manifest in both attitudinal (e.g. job satisfaction) and behavioural (e.g. performance) measures, whereas in terms of goal-setting theory the primary manifestation of motivation is behavioural (e.g. enhanced performance when ability remains unchanged).

In the field of organisation psychology, work motivation is clearly approached from several angles. As a result, a single comprehensive definition of motivation, which covers all purposes in the field, is not possible (Van Niekerk, 1987). Baron et al. (2002) concurred, and added that motivation is a complex phenomenon best understood within a multivariate systems framework. Such a comprehensive view should, at the very least, include the following aspects (Baron et al., 2002):

- Address the three sets of variables mentioned by Du Toit (1990), namely the characteristics of the person, job and organisation.
- Recognise the complex interrelationships and interactions that are likely to pertain to these factors.

The fundamental point of departure should be a thorough understanding of the nature of the individual, e.g. his or her needs, values, beliefs, expectancies, drive level and habits.

It is interesting to note that the concept of organisational commitment has come to partly replace that of motivation within the field of organisational behaviour (Lewicki, 1981). While the concept of motivation is linked to individualistic and task-centred reward systems, commitment seems to be linked to the identification of employees with a collective, that is, in terms of corporate values and norms. As such, management is concerned with cultivating motivation towards realising the mission and goals of the organisation, which are far above the ambitions and goals of any individual in it.

For purposes of this study, various elements of the many definitions and descriptions of motivation have been combined to form an eclectic view of the concept. Employee motivation was viewed as an innate force, shaped and maintained by a set of highly individualised factors that may change from time to time, depending on the particular needs and motives of the employee. Environmental forces, such as those related to the job itself and to the organisation, do not have a causal link with motivation, but impact on the level of motivation experienced by the employee. Together, the innate and environmental forces determine an employee's behaviour at work. Motivation was also regarded as a multi-dimensional concept that manifests in behaviours that may be observed, measured and, to some extent at least, predicted.

As already mentioned, the concept of motivation is very important in terms of organisational effectiveness, as it constitutes the crucial link between employee job satisfaction and employee performance, which in turn determines organisational profitability and success. In their quest to maintain an optimally motivated workforce, management's focus should therefore be on attending to the myriad of job-specific, as well as organisational factors which have been shown to contribute towards employee job satisfaction and motivation. One such factor, which resides on organisational level, is organisational or corporate culture. This concept is discussed in detail later in this chapter.

### 2.1.3 Theories of motivation

Motivation research draws on a large number of theoretical perspectives. Although some of these appear to be less influential than when they were originally postulated, such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (Wicker & Wiehe, 1999), their contributions as foundation layers and inspirations for subsequent theories are still evident and acknowledged.

According to Petri (1996) the vast array of motivation theories are based, in essence, on differing approaches to the origins or sources of motivation, e.g. energy, heredity, learning, social interaction, cognitive processes, activation of motivation, homeostasis, hedonism or growth motivation. Depending on the particular approach adopted, motivation theories are generally classified into three categories, namely needs-based, cognitive, and drive and reinforcement theories (Baron et al., 2002).

Needs-based theories, also referred to as content theories due to their explanation of the content of motivation (Hadebe, 2001), propose that internal states within individuals energise and direct their behaviour. These internal states are typically referred to as drives, needs or motives in these theories, of which those of Maslow, McGregor and Herzberg are well-known examples.

Cognitive theories do not focus directly on work as a potential source of motivation, but rather on the cognitive processes, such as thoughts, beliefs and values, which people use to make choices regarding their behaviour at work (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). For this reason these theories are also referred to as process theories. Examples include equity, expectancy and goal-setting theories.

Drive and reinforcement theories are based on behaviouristic approaches, which argue that reinforcement conditions behaviour (Hadebe, 2001), i.e. that behaviour that has been rewarded in the past will tend to be repeated, and behaviour that has been punished previously, will tend to be extinguished.

### 2.1.3.1 Needs-based theories

**Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory**

One of the most often-quoted motivation theories is that of Abraham Maslow, which he introduced in 1943 (Van Niekerk, 1987). The basic tenet of the theory is that people are motivated by their quest to satisfy their needs, or deficiencies, which may be grouped in five categories, and that these needs occur in a specific hierarchy, where lower order needs have to be satisfied before those of a higher order nature (Gouws, 1995). Maslow (1968, p.153) asserted that "gratification of one basic need opens consciousness to domination by another". Maslow's need hierarchy is portrayed in Figure 2.1.

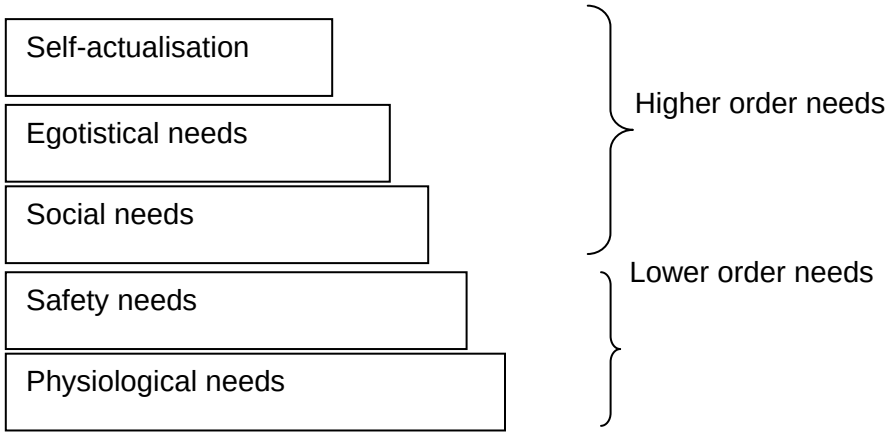


**Figure 2.1 : Maslow's hierarchy of needs**
Source: Van Niekerk (1987, p.151)

Physiological needs are related to basic survival, e.g. hunger or thirst. Safety needs do not only apply to physical safety and security, but also to a person's striving for personal security, such as a steady job. Social needs refer to friendship, love and social acceptance and support, whereas egotistical needs

involve a person's desire to be respected by others and by him- or herself. Self-actualisation occurs at the pinnacle of the needs hierarchy, as it represents a person's striving towards the full development of his potential, which is essentially never completely attained (Gouws, 1995). According to Maslow (1968), people always pursue what they do not yet have. Consequently, those needs that have already been satisfied, no longer provide motivation for action (Schultz & Schultz, 1998).

Over time, little empirical evidence has been produced to support the idea of a needs hierarchy, or the idea that as needs are satisfied, their importance diminishes (Baron et al., 2002). These shortcomings have been addressed in Alderfer's Existence-Relatedness-Growth (ERG) theory, which is an expansion of Maslow's theory. Alderfer condensed Maslow's five needs into three, which were termed 'Existence' (physical survival needs), 'Relatedness' (social needs) and 'Growth' (need for personal growth and development). Alderfer emphasised that these needs do not occur in a hierarchy, but rather on a continuum (Spector, 2003), and may in fact be experienced simultaneously (Alderfer, 1969). Alderfer's ERG theory has intuitive appeal, and is more directly applicable to employee motivation than Maslow's needs hierarchy theory. It also has greater empirical support ( Wanous & Zwany, 1977).

Despite the limited empirical support, needs hierarchy theory has had a positive impact on organisations, as it has focused attention on the importance of addressing employees' needs at work (Spector, 2003). In addition, one of its main constructs, the self-actualisation concept, has become very popular with especially managers and executives who have accepted this high-level need as a potent motivator (Schultz & Schultz, 1998).

**Herzberg's two-factor theory**

Frederick Herzberg's well-known and controversial theory of motivation was postulated in 1954, and developed from his work to determine the attitude of workers towards their jobs (Gouws, 1995). As such, it was originally intended to be a job satisfaction theory, but over time it was its motivational aspects that attracted most attention (Baron et al., 2002). Beach (1980) was of the opinion that this theory constitutes more of a work motivation than general human motivation theory.

The basic assumption of Herzberg's theory is that motivation originates from the job itself, and not from other external characteristics, and that those factors leading to job satisfaction ('motivators') are separate and distinct from those leading to job dissatisfaction ('hygiene/maintenance' factors) (Herzberg, 1966).

The hygiene factors, which may be equated with Maslow's lower order needs, are placed along a continuum, from a state of dissatisfaction, to no dissatisfaction. These factors involve circumstances surrounding the task which do not lead to job satisfaction, but prevent dissatisfaction, if maintained adequately. Examples of these maintenance factors include the level of supervision, job status, work circumstances, service conditions, remuneration and interpersonal relationships (Herzberg, 1966).

Motivators, on the other hand, have a direct positive effect on the work situation, and lead to improved productivity. They may be equated with Maslow's higher order needs, and are also placed along a continuum – from a highly motivated to a highly unmotivated state. Aspects of the job itself, e.g. level of recognition, pleasure of performance, increased responsibility, and opportunities for advancement and promotion, serve as motivators (Herzberg, 1966).

The assumed independence of motivators and hygiene factors is a matter of some controversy in the field, and the theory in general has accumulated little empirical support. Nevertheless, the theory has had a major impact on organisational psychology (Baron et al., 2002), in that it has led to the re-design of many jobs to allow for greater participation of employees in planning, performing and evaluating their own work – a concept currently referred to as 'job enrichment' (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). Motivator/hygiene theory has been very successful in focusing attention on the importance of providing employees with work that is meaningful to them (Spector, 2003).

**McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y**

Gouws (1995) noted that McGregor's theory closely resembles that of Maslow, in that the factors McGregor believed act as motivators to people at work, are arranged and satisfied in a similar hierarchy. McGregor also placed physiological needs first, followed by physical and social needs. Egotistical needs are sub-categorised as self-regard needs on the one hand, which involve self-respect, self-confidence, autonomy, achievement, competence and knowledge, and reputation needs on the other. The latter include needs such as the status, recognition, respect and appreciation a person enjoys. The highest level of need is that of self-fulfillment, which people attempt to satisfy through continued self-development and creativity.

Douglas McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y represent an extension of his ideas on motivation to the direction and control of employees in the workplace. According to McGregor's Theory X, which articulates the traditional approach to motivation, people are not keen on work, and try to avoid it where possible. As a result, employees must be coerced and controlled by punitive measures to perform effectively. The average person is believed to lack ambition, avoid responsibility, and strive for security and financial compensation only. They are egocentric, and not at all mindful of organisational goals.

Theory Y, in contrast, reflects a more modern approach to motivation, in that most people are seen as keen to discipline themselves in order to successfully complete the tasks allocated to them. In addition, they seek responsibility, and are capable of creative problem solving. McGregor regarded Theory Y as a more accurate and realistic portrayal of human behaviour, since it represents the integration of individual and organisational goals. McGregor did, however, recognise that the theory does not offer a complete explanation for employee motivation (McGregor, 1960).

**McClelland's learned needs theory**

McClelland's theory, also referred to as the 'Three-Needs' theory (Gouws, 1995) or the 'Achievement Motivation' theory (Schultz & Schultz, 1998), was introduced in 1967. The theory is based on the position that achievement-oriented people share three major needs, which are not innate, but acquired through learning and experience (McClelland, 1987). McClelland assigned a specific code to each of the three needs, which include:

- the need for Power (n/PWR), which denotes the need to control others, influence their behaviour and be responsible for them;
- the need for Affiliation (n/AFF), which refers to the desire to establish and maintain satisfying relationships with other people;
- the need for Achievement (n/ACH), viewed as behaviour directed towards competition with standards of excellence.

Although not highly influential, McClelland's theory of motivation was certainly instrumental in focusing attention on the unusual needs of employees with a strong need to achieve (Beach, 1980).

**Hackman and Oldham's task enrichment theory**

Richard Hackman and Greg Oldham's model, which was introduced in 1980 (Van Niekerk, 1987), is also known as the 'job characteristics' theory (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). It developed out of the authors' research on objective measures of job characteristics that correlated with job satisfaction and work attendance (Schultz & Schultz, 1998).

The theory is based on the premise that three psychological states in particular are necessary to enhance a person's motivation and job satisfaction, namely :

- the experience of work as meaningful;
- the experience of work responsibility, i.e. the level of personal responsibility for a person's work;
- insight in job performance, i.e. how much insight a person has in how well or how poorly he is performing on his job.

The more intense the experience of these three states, the higher the person's motivation level will be (Porter, Lawler & Hackman, 1975).

Hackman and Oldham also identified five task characteristics believed to lead to the above motivational states. These characteristics, which include skills variety, task identity, task importance, autonomy and performance feedback, and their interplay with the three motivational states, are represented diagrammatically in Figure 2.2.

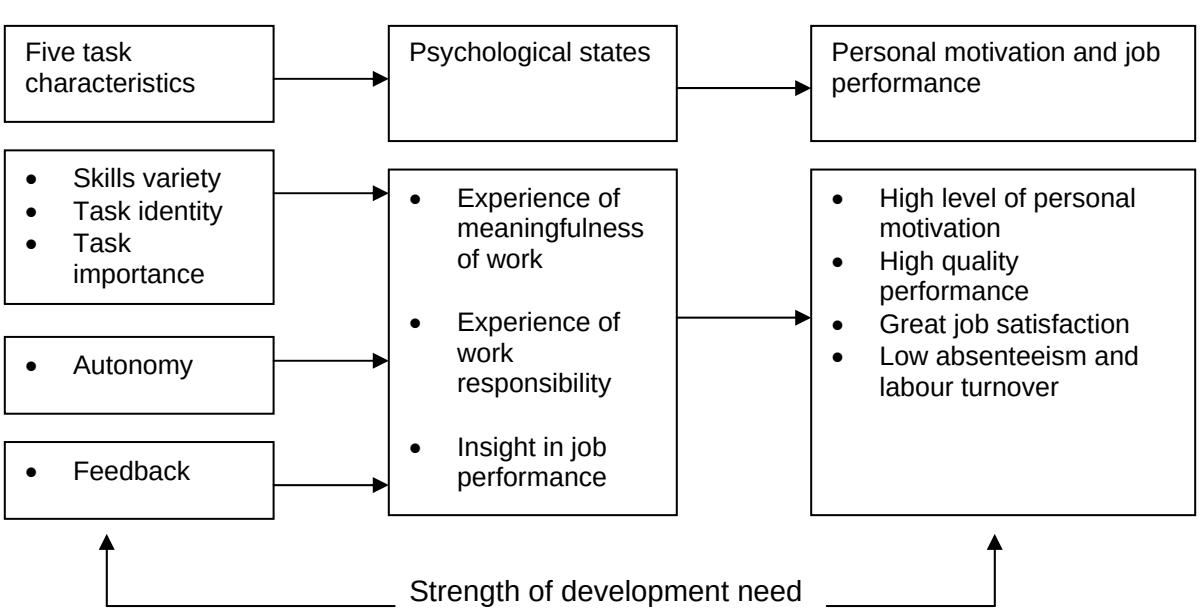


**Figure 2.2 : Hackman & Oldham's task enrichment model**
Source: Van Niekerk (1987, p.156)

Fundamental to this theory is the notion that the need for personal development, creativity and challenge has a very significant impact on the successful execution of a meaningful task. In addition, due to differing individual drives and needs, different people will respond differently to the same task (Van Niekerk, 1987).

The concept of task enrichment has proven to be very meaningful and useful in the workplace, and Hackman and Oldham's theory therefore continues to stimulate investigation (Tyagi, 1985). A meta-analysis of 200 studies, for example, confirmed the positive relationship between job characteristics, job satisfaction and performance (Fried & Ferris, 1987).

### 2.1.3.2 Cognitive theories

**Equity theory**

Equity theory was first introduced by Stacy Adams in 1965 (Hadebe, 2001). Its basic tenet is that people are motivated to achieve a condition of equity / fairness in their dealings with other people, and with the organisations they work for (Adams, 1965).

People make judgements or comparisons between their own inputs at work, e.g. their qualifications, experience and effort, and the outcomes they receive, e.g. pay and fringe benefits, status and working conditions. They then assign weights to these inputs and outputs according to their relevance and importance to themselves. The summed total produces an output / input ratio, which is the key issue in terms of motivation. If a person's output / input ratio is equal to that of another person, equity exists. A state of inequity leads to tension, which the individual tries to reduce by changing one or more elements of the ratio, e.g. increase or reduce his effort. Perceived inequity by the person is therefore the basis for motivation (Baron et al., 2002).

This theory helped to provide the basis for studying the motivational implications of perceived unfairness and injustice in the workplace. It also laid the foundation for more recent theories on *distributive* (how much is allocated to each person) and *procedural* justice (how rewards and job requirements are determined) (Cropanzano & Folger, 1996). In a meta-analysis of many of these theories, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) found that both distributive and procedural justice were related to job performance, job satisfaction and the intention to quit.

Equity theory has stimulated much research, but there has been a decline in interest of late because of its inability to predict people's perception of the equitability of their specific situation. Nevertheless, it has served to direct

attention to the importance of treating employees fairly, and the consequences of failing to do so (Spector, 2003).

**Goal-setting theory**

Goal-setting theory was first proposed by Edwin Locke in 1968 (Beck, 1983). Spector (2003) described this perspective on motivation as the assumption that people's behaviour is motivated by their internal intentions, objectives or goals, in other words, by what people consciously want to achieve.

According to Locke and Henne (1986) goals affect behaviour in four ways:

- they direct attention and action to those behaviours which a person believes will achieve a particular goal;
- they mobilise effort towards reaching the goal;
- they increase the person's persistence, which results in more time spent on the behaviours necessary to attain the desired goal;
- they motivate the person's search for effective strategies for goal attainment.

There are several prerequisites for the goal-directed behaviour to effectively improve job performance (Locke & Henne, 1986):

- a thorough commitment to the specific goal;
- regular feedback on the person's performance towards attaining the goal;
- the more challenging the goal is perceived to be, the better the person's performance is likely to be;
- specific goals are more effective than vague goals, e.g. "do your best";
- self-set goals are preferred over organisationally set goals. If this is not entirely possible, a person needs to at least have input into his own goals.

This theory has an intuitive appeal because of its clear relevance to the workplace (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). It is well supported by empirical research evidence (Locke & Latham, 1990). A meta-analysis of 72 on-the-job studies

pointed out that goal setting produces substantial increases in employee output (Wood, Mento & Locke, 1987). It is currently one of the most popular theories informing organisational approaches to employee motivation (Spector, 2003).

**Expectancy theory**

The original thinking behind what has come to be known as expectancy theory, or Vroom's Expectancy-Valence-Instrumentality (VIE) theory (Beck, 1983), can be traced back to the theorizing of Tolman and Levin in 1932 and 1938 respectively (Petri, 1996). Vroom was, however, the first scholar to elaborate on this thinking in a motivational context in 1964 (Gouws, 1995). Since its origins in the psychological theorising of some 60 years ago, the expectancy theory has been presented in many variations. Common to all versions is the basic tenet that people base their behaviour on their beliefs and expectations regarding future events, namely those maximally advantageous to them (Baron et al., 2002).

Essentially, the theory explains how rewards lead to behaviour, through focusing on internal cognitive states that lead to motivation. In other words, people are motivated to action if they believe those behaviours will lead to the outcomes they want. The said cognitive states are termed 'expectancy', 'valence' and 'instrumentality' (Spector, 2003).

Vroom's original theory posits that motivation (or 'force') is a mathematical function of three types of cognitions (Vroom, 1964):

Force = Expectancy x $\Sigma$ (Valences x Instrumentalities)

Where:

- force is the person's motivation to perform;
- expectancy is the perceived probability that a person has regarding his ability to perform the behaviour required to lead to a desired outcome, e.g. working hard enough to secure a promotion. (This aspect is similar to self-esteem or self-confidence, in that it relates to a person's belief that he can perform at the required level (Spector, 2003));
- valence is the value or the attractiveness of the outcome to the person;
- instrumentality is the perceived probability that a given behaviour will lead to the desired outcome.

There may be more than one outcome for each behaviour. According to Vroom's formula, for each outcome a valence and instrumentality are multiplied, and each resulting product then summed ($\Sigma$), and multiplied by the person's expectancy, to produce an overall force or motivation score (Spector, 2003). Hadebe (2001) points out that the multiplicative assumption implies that if any of the cognitive components equals zero, the overall level of motivation will be zero.

Vroom's expectancy model is represented diagrammatically in Figure 2.3.

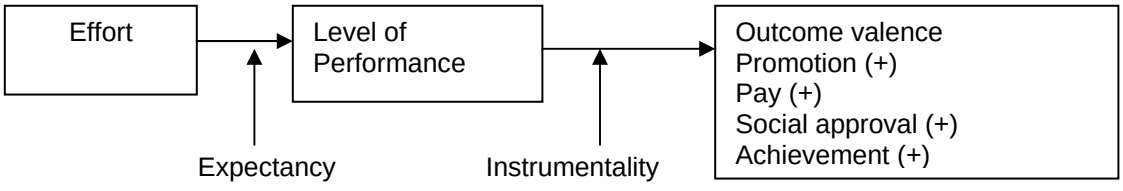


**Figure 2.3 : Vroom's Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy (VIE) model of job motivation and performance**
Source: Beck (1983, p.382)

Expectancy theory has represented a popular and influential approach since its introduction, but has been criticised for its assumption that people are as calculating and rational in their decision-making, as suggested. It has also been criticised for failing to take adequate account of people's cognitive limitations (Baron et al., 2002). Consequently, there has been mixed levels of support for the theory's usefulness in the workplace. According to Hadebe (2001) the theory has limited use, and is more valid for prediction of behaviour where effort–performance–rewards linkages may be clearly perceived by the individual. Support for the theory as an adequate predictor of job performance comes from authors such as Tubbs, Boehne and Dahl (1993), Van Eerde and Thierry (1996), Hackman and Porter (1968) and Fox, Scott and Donohue (1993).

#### 2.1.3.3 Reinforcement theories

Reinforcement theories, which assume that people's behaviour is determined by its perceived positive or negative consequences (Baron et al., 2002) are based on the 'Law of Effect' idea, which was first postulated by Thorndike (1911), and further developed by Woodworth (1918) and Hull (1943). Hull's drive theory elaborated on this idea and suggested that effort was the mathematical product of drive, multiplied by habit, and that habit was derived from behaviour reinforcement.

The consequences of behaviour may be tangible, such as money, or intangible, such as praise (Spector, 2003). In this regard, reinforcement theory was highly influential in firmly establishing the ideas relating to incentive and reward systems that are applied in most organisations today. As such, it provided the basis for the notion that rewards should be contingent with individual units of productivity (Schultz & Schultz, 1998).

As a motivation theory, reinforcement theory has fallen somewhat out of favour, as it merely describes relations between reinforcement and behaviour, but gives

little insight into motivational processes, e.g. whether or not a person wanted a specific reward, or why. Nevertheless, its relative popularity in the workplace is maintained by research that has shown that rewards can be highly effective in the enhancement of job performance (Spector, 2003).

### 2.1.4 Motivation theories: Composite summary

Each of the theories covered has contributed substantially towards current perspectives on and understanding of the concept of motivation in the workplace. The needs theories, for example, are largely responsible for organisations' recognition that people's behaviour at work is motivated by highly individualised innate needs and desires (Van Niekerk, 1987). Achievement-orientated people are, for example, driven by a much stronger need for power, affiliation and achievement than most other people (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). For this reason, employers need to ensure that they invest the necessary time and effort to assess the personal needs of individual employees, and customise their jobs and working environments accordingly (Walker, 1980). Due to their innate need to produce good work and develop themselves, most employees do not need constant supervision and direction and may, in fact, find such actions very demotivating. In addition, people need to experience their work as meaningful and challenging, and therefore require considerable input on the part of management to ensure a high degree of job enrichment on a continual basis (Beach, 1980).

The cognitive theories of motivation have helped employers to understand that, apart from their motivation being driven by innate needs, employees also apply deliberate conscious thought to their behaviour at work. Organisations are aware that people evaluate their inputs on the job against what they receive in return, and that they should therefore pay attention to the equitability between employee delivery and reward (Cropanzano & Folger, 1996). It is also prudent for organisations to offer a range of benefits, which may be acquired through

different levels of performance, to allow employees to set themselves challenging goals that they may attain via differing means they may perceive as instrumental towards those goals (Spector, 2003).

Once employees have met the requirements of their own jobs, and attained certain goals, they expect certain rewards to follow. In this regard, reinforcement theories have contributed much towards the establishment of a wide array of reward and performance incentives systems applied in organisations all over the world today (Beach, 1980).

In relating people's behaviour at work to the thinking of the creators of, and contributors towards the wide variety of needs, cognitive and reinforcement motivation theories, it appears that employee motivation originates largely from an interplay between three major domains of a person's life. There is influence exerted by a person's emotional and physical needs, for example the need for achievement and for personal space in the working environment. The person augments these emotional and physical needs through constant cerebral appraisal and response, based on issues such as fairness and justice. In addition, people apply active thought towards designing and pursuing job-related goals against the background of their own needs and their cognitive assessment of the situational feasibility of such objectives. In the latter regard, reinforcement of behaviour, whether acquired through personal or vicarious experience or other means, plays an important role in directing and maintaining motivated behaviour at work.

Clearly, the theorising of many an author and researcher over the years has resulted in the increased ability of organisations to transform these theories into practical and effective measures to address a highly complicated aspect of organisational psychology, namely the motivation of human behaviour at work, and to ensure organisational success and profitability in the process.

## 2.2 Job Satisfaction

The concept of job satisfaction enjoys increasing attention from organisations these days, since its importance and pervasiveness in terms of organisational effectiveness has been firmly established quite some time ago. Managers now feel morally responsible for maintaining high levels of job satisfaction among their staff, most probably primarily for its impact on productivity, absenteeism and staff turnover, as well as on union activity (Arnold & Feldman, 1986). The importance attached to job satisfaction was already significant during the first part of the 20th century, and Locke (1976) reported, for example, that over 3 000 related studies were published between 1935 and 1976 – an average of one publication every five days. Organisations recognise that having a workforce that derives satisfaction from their work contributes hugely towards organisational effectiveness and ultimate survival. Job satisfaction is regarded as related to important employee and organisational outcomes, ranging from job performance to health and longevity (Spector, 2003).

The importance of job satisfaction in the workplace is underscored by its inextricable connection to a person's entire life. Since a person's job is an all-important part of his life, it follows that job satisfaction is part of life satisfaction. The nature of the environment outside of the job directly influences a person's feelings and behaviour on the job (Hadebe, 2001). Judge and Watanabe (1993) reinforced this idea by stating that there exists a positive and reciprocal relationship between job and life satisfaction in the short term, and that over time, general life satisfaction becomes more influential in a person's life. Schultz and Schultz (1998) emphasised that people spend one third to one half of their waking hours at work, for a period of 40 to 45 years, and that this is a very long time to be frustrated, dissatisfied and unhappy, especially since these feelings carry over to family and social life, and affect physical and emotional health. A concept with such tremendous effect on personal and organisational life clearly deserves a corresponding amount of attention.

### 2.2.1 Definitions of job satisfaction

A great many definitions of the concept of job satisfaction have been formulated over time. Arnold and Feldman (1986, p.86) described job satisfaction as "the amount of overall affect that individuals have toward their job". High job satisfaction therefore means that an individual likes his or her work in general, appreciates it and feels positive about in. McCormick and Ilgen's (1980) definition rings similar. They also regarded job satisfaction as a person's attitude towards his or her job, and added that an attitude is an emotional response to the job, which may vary along a continuum from positive to negative. Beck (1983) added that since a job has many characteristics, job satisfaction is necessarily a summation of worker attitudes regarding all these. The good features are balanced against the bad, so that the overall job satisfaction is perceived as high or low. It appears that job satisfaction may be studied from two slightly different perspectives. Firstly, job satisfaction may be treated as a single, overall feeling towards a person's job. Alternatively, researchers may focus on the different aspects that impact upon a job, e.g. its rewards and social environment, and even characteristics of the job itself, such as its content. It is believed that this latter view permits a more comprehensive picture of job satisfaction, as an individual typically experiences different levels of satisfaction across different job aspects (Spector, 2003). It is this summed total of satisfaction with the different aspects of the job that many authors collectively refer to as job satisfaction.

Megginson, Mosley and Pietri (1982) stated that people experience job satisfaction when they feel good about their jobs, and that this feeling often relates to their doing their jobs well, or their becoming more proficient in their professions, or their being recognised for good performance.

Locke (1976) held that job satisfaction is simply a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences.

Work satisfaction results from the perception that one's job fulfils, or allows the fulfillment of, one's important job values. Phrased differently, work is gratifying if it complements one's personal desires and needs.

Schneider and Snyder (1975) regard job satisfaction as a personal evaluation of conditions present in the job, or outcomes that arise as a result of having a job. It appears then that job satisfaction encapsulates a person's perception and evaluation of his job, and that this perception is influenced by the person's unique disposition. People will therefore evaluate their jobs against those aspects that are important to them (Sempane et al., 2002).

Since job satisfaction involves employees' emotions and feelings, it has a major impact on their personal, social and work lives (Sempane et al., 2002), and for this reason may also influence their behaviour as employees, e.g. absenteeism (Locke, 1976; Visser, Breed & Van Breda, 1997). The collective job satisfaction of employees may also result in a particular organisational culture (Sempane et al., 2002).

Several authors concurred with the above-mentioned ideas regarding job satisfaction and emotional responses towards work, but add that several external aspects also impact on the latter. For example, Harrel (1968 in Vercueil, 1970) explained that job satisfaction is derived from and caused by many interrelated components. By determining which single component or combination thereof provides the highest level of job satisfaction, one can obtain an indication of the general level of job satisfaction. These components contribute towards a single dimension according to which job satisfaction may be determined. Personality variables may account for the other dimension to which job satisfaction may be related. Schultz and Schultz (1998) held the view that job satisfaction encompasses the positive and negative feelings and attitudes people hold about their jobs, and that these depend on many work-related characteristics, but also on personal characteristics, such as age, gender, health and social relationships.

People's personal motivations and aspirations, and how well these are satisfied by their work, also affect their attitude towards work.

### 2.2.2 The determinants of job satisfaction

The model in Figure 2.4, which was adapted from performance-motivation models developed by researchers such as Cummings and Schwab (1973), Nadler and Lawler (1977), Steers and Porter (1978) and Vroom (1964), provides an enlightening and comprehensive view of the interplay between the determinants of individual performance, satisfaction and motivation. From this model, Walker (1980) deduced that job satisfaction has several distinct dimensions, each of which is a matter of individual perception, as satisfaction is related to the needs of individuals. These dimensions are the ones typically used in studies surveying employee feelings and attitudes towards various job characteristics.

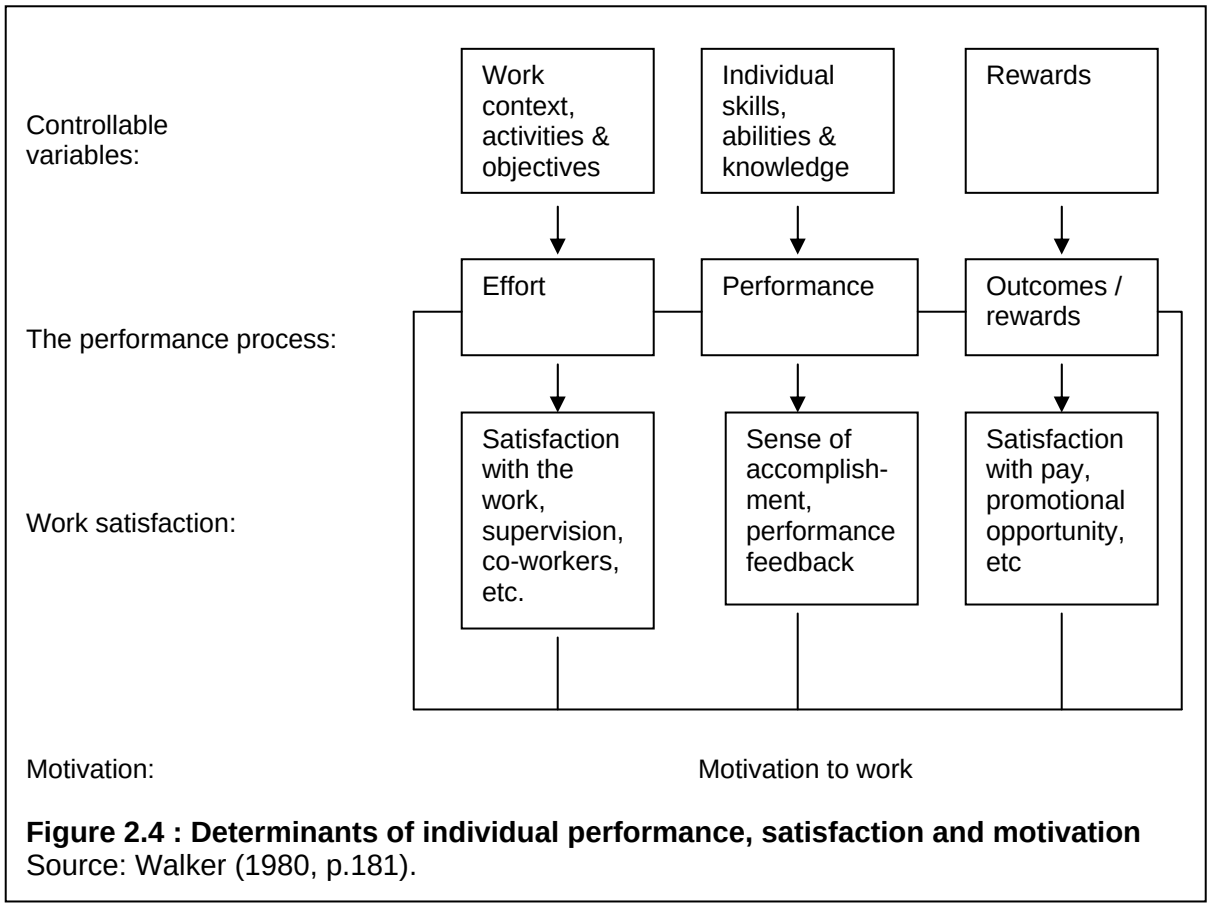


**Figure 2.4 : Determinants of individual performance, satisfaction and motivation**
Source: Walker (1980, p.181).

Walker (1980) elaborated on the model as follows. Certain variables relating to performance, job satisfaction and motivation are controllable, to a degree, by management. Examples of such variables include the work context, task activities or content, and job objectives. These variables have a direct effect on the nature and extent of a person's effort, and from his effort the person may gain satisfaction. However, although effort is a prerequisite for performance, individual competence also plays a role, since a person may also gain job satisfaction from a sense of accomplishment that follows competent task execution. The individual's performance results in one or more outcomes, which may either support organisational productivity, or represent personal rewards for the employee. Many workers measure their job satisfaction only in terms of the outcomes of their efforts.

A different perspective on why people like or dislike their job is offered by Spector (2003), who maintained that environmental aspects, personality variables, or a combination of these, serve as antecedents to job satisfaction. Environmental antecedents include the variety of job-related features that impact on job satisfaction, e.g. job characteristics and job tasks, as well as various aspects of the organisation. He distinguished a number of significant personal and environmental factors specifically, namely job characteristics, role variables, work-family conflict, age, gender, race, cognitive ability, job experience, use of skills, job congruence, and occupational level.

Job characteristics include the content and nature of job tasks themselves. A number of core job characteristics have been highlighted by Fried and Ferris (1987), who also produced mean correlations between each and job satisfaction. These are indicated in Table 2.1. It appears that alongside task identity, task significance and job scope, autonomy, skill variety and job feedback are factors exerting the most powerful impact on job satisfaction.

**Table 2.1: Dimensions of job characteristics and their mean correlations with job satisfaction**

| Characteristic | Mean Correlation | Description of Characteristic |
|---|---|---|
| Skill variety | 0,29 | The number of different skills necessary to do a job |
| Task identity | 0,20 | Whether or not an employee does an entire job or a piece of job |
| Task significance | 0,26 | The impact of job has on other people |
| Autonomy | 0,34 | The freedom employees have to do their jobs as they see fit |
| Job feedback | 0,29 | The extent to which it is obvious to employees that they are doing their jobs correctly |
| Job scope | 0,45 | The overall complexity of a job, computed as a combination of all 5 individual characteristics |

Source : Fried & Ferris (1987, p.292)

Role variables also impact on job satisfaction. According to Spector (2003) *role ambiguity*, namely the degree of uncertainty an employee experiences regarding his job functions and responsibilities, as well *as role conflict*, which arises when an employee is exposed to incompatible demands at work, or between work and his off-work situation, have a sizeable influence on employee satisfaction. This statement has been confirmed by a meta-analysis conducted by Jackson and Schuler (1985).

Work-family conflict is intricately linked to an employee's satisfaction at work. Job satisfaction is adversely affected when an employee experiences conflicting demands from his work and family situation. In a meta-analysis of related studies Allen, Herst, Bruck and Sutton (2000) found a negative correlation between job satisfaction and this aspect.

In addition to a variety of factors external to the individual, many authors agreed that personal characteristics of employees also impact considerably on job satisfaction. Many studies have shown this link in recent years (Brush, Moch &

Pooyan, 1987, Staw, Bell & Clausen, 1986). Interestingly, Staw, et al., (1986) also found that personality specifically has a highly enduring influence on job satisfaction. Personality factors that they assessed in adolescents could predict job satisfaction up to 50 years later.

Schultz and Schultz (1998) elaborated on a number of personal characteristics believed to impact on job satisfaction.

In general, it appears that job satisfaction increases with age. Possible reasons may include:

- dissatisfied younger people drop out of their jobs or move around too frequently to be counted in surveys;
- a sense of resignation develops as one gets older, which often results in either giving up pursuing fulfillment on the job, or finding it elsewhere;
- many older people have greater opportunities for fulfillment on the job, i.e. have better jobs, as their age and experience often bring increased confidence, competence, esteem and responsibility, and these characteristics bring about a greater sense of accomplishment;
- older people tend to value different things at work, e.g. may be less interested in task variety than younger people (Warr, 2001).

The research evidence regarding gender differences in job satisfaction is inconsistent and contradictory. Some studies have found no differences, e.g. De Vaus and McAllister (1991), but others have shown that there are sources of dissatisfaction, but that these differ between females who have chosen a career voluntarily, and those who are forced to work to support their families. There is some speculation that these dissatisfactions may, in fact, not be gender-related but rather sex-related, e.g. revolve around issues such as salary discrimination between men and women, and fewer promotion opportunities for women.

In general, more White than Non-white employees report satisfaction with their jobs. For Blacks specifically, some studies have found slightly lower job satisfaction (Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wormley, 1990, Tuch & Martin, 1991). However, large-scale unemployment among Non-white groups might be moderating the relationship between race and job satisfaction. Also, many Non-white employees have low-level jobs that rarely offer much opportunity for fulfillment.

Cognitive ability alone appears not to be a significant determinant of job satisfaction, but may be very important when considered in relation to type of work. A person too intelligent for his or her job is likely to experience insufficient challenge from his job, and become bored and dissatisfied. On the other hand, someone not intelligent enough is likely to experience frustration at not being able to handle the demands of the job. In addition, the relationship between job satisfaction and intelligence may be found in education. A number of studies have indicated a slight negative relationship to job satisfaction. This may be related to better-educated people having higher expectations of their jobs, and believing that their work should provide greater fulfillment and responsibility – and unfortunately, most jobs do not (Fried & Ferris, 1987).

Job experience is another factor that influences job satisfaction. In the early stages of employment, when the situation is still new and exciting, many employees are more satisfied than later on due to the stimulation and challenge of developing new skills and abilities. However, disenchantment sets in if regular evidence of progress and growth is not forthcoming. After a few years discouragement is quite common, due to disappointment about especially advancement in the job. Interestingly, job satisfaction appears to increase again after a number of years' experience, and improve steadily from there on. This relationship parallels the job satisfaction / age relationship, and some researchers therefore regard it as the same phenomenon (Schultz & Schultz, 1998).

Personal characteristics also include skills and abilities. Many studies have shown that people are happier at work if they use the abilities they believe they possess (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). Personality-job fit (Gouws, 1995), or job congruence, refers to the match between an employee's abilities and the requirements of the job. A positive correlation with job satisfaction is generally confirmed (Fricko & Beehr, 1992, Gottfredson & Holland, 1990).

In terms of personal characteristics affecting job satisfaction, it appears that higher occupational levels are generally associated with higher job satisfaction (Busch & Bush, 1978; Daftuar, 2001). It is believed that this is so because people at these levels have greater opportunities to satisfy their motivator needs, as well as greater autonomy, challenge and responsibility at work. These have great value in building self-esteem and self-actualisation needs, which boost satisfaction.

Job satisfaction appears to also vary across job categories, with high levels of job satisfaction experienced in entrepreneurial, technical, professional and managerial jobs. The least satisfaction is experienced by workers in manufacturing and service industries, and in wholesale and retail businesses (Schultz & Schultz, 1998).

Disappointed employee expectations of their jobs play a significant role in job dissatisfaction. Arnold and Feldman (1986, p.91) proposed a model of job satisfaction that illustrates that discrepancies between expectations employees hold of their jobs, and their actual work circumstances, have an impact on their job satisfaction. The model is presented in Figure 2.5.

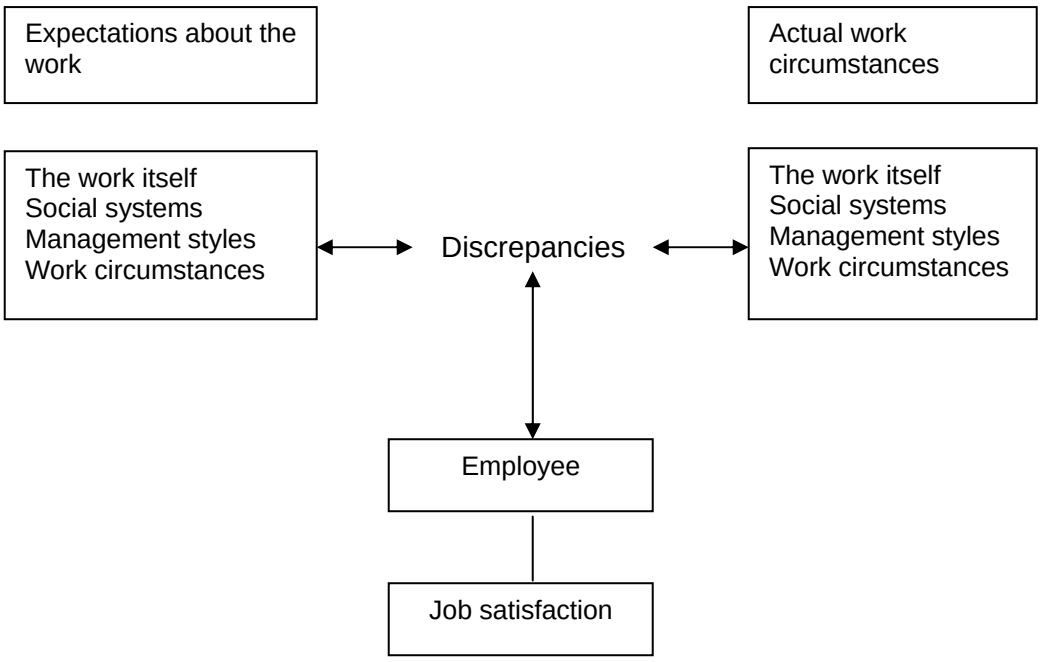


**Figure 2.5: A model of job satisfaction**
Source: Arnold & Feldman (1986, p.91)

According to Van Vuuren (1990), research on the issues that contribute towards job satisfaction does not agree about the extent of the contribution of any specific issue or issues towards job satisfaction. There are many issues, and each contributes towards job satisfaction to a greater or lesser degree.

### 2.2.3 Theories on job satisfaction

According to Beck (1983) theories on job satisfaction involve motivational, emotional and informational components, as do other attitude theories. McCormick and Ilgen (1980) have selected and briefly elaborated on the following theories. Since these theories have already been discussed in detail in the section on motivation, only a succinct summary is provided.

According to comparison processes theory an individual is said to have some reference standard against which a job is judged (Walker, 1980). These references are determined largely by a person's internal motivation drivers. The size and direction of the difference between the employed standard and the actual situation determines the level of job satisfaction experienced. An employee motivated by monetary reward may, for example, derive considerable satisfaction from a job that pays more than a previous job, or a similar position the person compares it to. Comparison processes theory relates to needs theories of motivation to some extent, as the satisfaction measurement standards applied originate from a person's internal motives or needs.

From an instrumentality theory perspective, job satisfaction is said to be high if a person's job is perceived to be instrumental in getting him what he values or wants from his job. This equates with Vroom's (1964) VIE theory, which holds that rewards lead to certain behaviours, when these behaviours are believed to be instrumental in providing the desired outcome.

Social influence theory holds that people are influenced by how satisfied they believe other workers are with the same job (Van Vuuren, 1990). New employees may, for example, change their initial misgivings about their job when they discover that others performing the same tasks are satisfied with their work. In this sense social influence theory may share certain common features with equity theory.

Equity theory stipulates that people generally want to receive what they consider a fair or equitable return for their efforts at work. Greater satisfaction is experienced if they perceive the return or reward they receive as equitable. These perceptions may be based on previous or vicarious experience, or on people's observations of other employees, for example (Van Vuuren, 1990). Job satisfaction in this regard is related to the motivation to achieve a condition of

equity or fairness in people's dealings with others, as postulated by Adams (1965).

Two-factor theory relates to job satisfaction as well as it does to motivation, and posits that the things that provide employees with satisfaction at work are not the same as those that bring about dissatisfaction. This is Herzberg's theory of satisfiers and dissatisfiers, or the positive and negative aspects of the job. Dissatisfiers do not lead to job satisfaction, but prevent dissatisfaction if properly maintained, for example, acceptable service conditions. Satisfiers, on the other hand, impact directly on job satisfaction, for example, positive promotion aspects elevate levels of job satisfaction (Gouws, 1995).

### 2.2.4 Job satisfaction: Composite summary

The consolidated view of job satisfaction, for purposes of this study, is that the concept represents people's general attitudes towards, and feelings about their jobs, and that these attitudes and feelings are determined by a wide variety of factors relating to the person, the job, and the organisation as a whole. Employees' feelings and attitudes towards their work are influenced significantly by their sources of motivation and demotivation (Spector, 2003). In addition, the manner in which they perceive the culture of the organisation has a direct bearing on both their level of motivation, and the degree of job satisfaction they experience. It is important to note that these factors differ from person to person, and often also for the same person over time and across his life stages. The determinants of job satisfaction also differ in the extent to which they impact on job satisfaction, both between factors and between people. In addition to personal factors, job satisfaction may be determined by a number of dimensions within the work situation (Walker, 1980), such as organisational functioning, task or job characteristics, the physical working conditions, career matters (such as advancement potential), social or relationship matters, and aspects relating to remuneration packages and personnel policies.

The point of departure of some authors is that job and life dissatisfaction contribute to the general stress a person experiences (Judge & Watanabe, 1993). In order to obtain a more comprehensive view in this regard, causes of stress outside, as well as within the work situation, should therefore be assessed.

Since person-related and job-related variables appear to pre-determine both motivation and job satisfaction (Schultz & Schultz, 1998), the supposition was that a link exists between the two constructs.

## 2.3 Corporate culture

An organisation's culture has a crucial impact on its overall performance (Aucamp, 1996). In a subtle, but powerful way, culture determines which behaviours are rewarded, the extent to which people work constructively together, and the way in which decisions are made. It determines the manner in which the organisation processes information, responds to external demands and constraints, and motivates its employees. Consequently, a key task of managers is to understand, monitor and actively manage the culture of the organisation. A prerequisite in this regard is senior management's (since they set the 'cultural agenda') access to accurate, reliable and comprehensive information regarding the organisation's culture at any given time (Davies, Philp & Warr, 2000).

From an organisational point of view, culture exists at both the cognitive and emotional level, and is manifested in employee behaviour (Schein, 1984). It is deeply rooted within the organisational system and evolves over a long time, which also makes it very difficult to change (Sempane et al., 2002).

It is the cumulative achievement of each individual's objectives that determines the effectiveness of the strategies of the organisation as a whole. Individual objectives should flow from an explicit and coherent cascade from the corporate

strategy, and lie at the basis of individual motivation. In return, individual motivation stems in large measure from employees' sense of the extent to which an organisation's system of beliefs and practices complements their own, i.e. the so-called 'person-culture fit' (Davies et al., 2000). A clash of values often results in demotivation and dissatisfaction. From the above, it is clear that a link exists between employee motivation, job satisfaction, corporate culture, and organisational effectiveness.

The following section includes an overview of the historical development of the corporate culture perspective within the organisational sciences, whereafter the discussion progresses into an account of the manner in which several prominent authors conceptualise corporate culture.

### 2.3.1 Historical development of the corporate culture perspective

Over the last 50 years, corporate culture has become a far more important part of the behavioural landscape of the organisational sciences than before (Cooper et al., 2001). A number of corporate culture studies were already conducted in the 1940s, but a 'corporate culture boom' was experienced in the early 1980s. During this time organisations began to be viewed as 'little societies' (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984; Sathe, 1985). Schein (1985a, 1985b) also introduced his conceptual framework for the corporate culture construct during this time (Odendaal, 1997), which Hatch (1993) maintained is still regarded as a classical piece of work, since it continues to direct and inspire further research and theorising.

Business and academic interest in corporate culture still remains high today. During periods of change, including merger and acquisition situations, culture receives considerable attention, even in companies where it is not normally viewed as high priority (Alvesson, 2002).

The term ‘culture’, as it applies to the nature of societies or organisations, has traditionally been part of the anthropology domain. Because of its relevance to organisations, management theorists started borrowing and applying the term to business during the 1980s. Psychologists had already been using the related concept, ‘climate’, in especially a leadership context, and later on with reference to the entire organisation. Since then, these two concepts have developed somewhat independently of each other. Generally, climate was associated with quantitative comparisons between climate scores and other variables, such as job satisfaction. Of late, there is recognition of a considerable overlap between the concepts. However, climate is still viewed as the more limited concept of the two, covering primarily those parts of culture that are visible and measurable (Davies et al., 2000).

Ott (1989) provided the following comprehensive historical overview of the development of the corporate culture perspective, which illustrates how the concept evolved out of a long history with organisation theory. Several dominant perspectives of organisation theory in this regard are distinguished.

Although the earliest writings on management and organisations can be traced back to the Egyptians, Greeks and Romans, the origins of modern organisation theory actually started with the beginnings of the factory system in Great Britain in the 18$^{th}$ century. The classical perspective of organisations, which originated around this time, viewed workers as inter-changeable parts in an industrial machine made up of people, capital and machines. Both people and organisations were believed to behave in accordance with rational economic principles.

The classical perspective dominated well into the 1930s, and was still relatively influential in the 1980s (Merkle, 1980). Current organisational culture approaches reject the basic assumptions of this perspective, but built on its establishment of organisation theory as a serious field of inquiry (Alvesson,

2002). Its naïve and simplistic notions regarding people and organisations also served as cognitive and emotional motivators to find better explanations.

The neoclassical organisation perspective followed the classical perspective. The neoclassical school did not have an organisation theory of their own, but was regarded as an 'anti-school' due to their rejection of the basic ideas of the classical theorists. The neoclassicist, Elliott Jaques, is viewed by many as the founder of the organisational culture perspective, since his definition of culture of 1952 represents the earliest published use of the term 'culture' in an organisational context (Ott 1989). His definition reads as follows:

"An organisation's culture is its customary and traditional way of thinking and of doing things, which is shared to a greater or lesser degree by all its members, and which new members must learn, and at least partially accept, in order to be accepted into service in the firm. The culture of the factory consists of the means or techniques which lie at the disposal of the individual for handling his relationships, and on which he depends for making his way among, and with, other members of the group" (Cooper et al., 2001, p.xv).

The neoclassical school played a substantial role in the evolution of organisation theory and the development of the organisational culture perspective. It provided the intellectual, emotional and empirical impetus to break the classicalists' simplistic, mechanically oriented and monopolistic dominance of the field. It also opened the door for prolific theorising from the human relations school, and others that followed (Ott, 1989).

The human relations perspective characterised the human relations era that spanned the late 1950s and 1960s. It was shaped by the thinking of theorists such as Argyris, Herzberg, McGregor, Schein and Vroom, whose basic assumptions were that organisations exist to serve human needs, that organisations and their members need each other, and that a good fit between

the two benefits both (Spector, 2003). This school drew on a previously unparalleled array of theories and empirical research on human behaviour from the fields of psychology, social psychology and sociology, in focusing attention on some of the most vexing problems organisations face, e.g. how to increase employee motivation and gain organisational commitment. As such, it has been a powerful, pervasive force within organisation theory that spawned many of the approaches that followed (Spector, 2003).

The 'modern' structural perspective originated in the 1960s and represented a move back towards the more rational, goal-oriented and mechanistic classical view. (The term 'modern' serves to distinguish the pre-World War II classical structuralists from those of the 1960s and 1970s) (Ott, 1989). Theorists such as Fayol, Taylor, Gulick and Weber were concerned with many of the same issues as the classicalists, but their theories incorporated the many advancements in thinking since World War II. They are, for example, credited with the development of the important organisational concepts of 'differentiation', which refers to the division of labour based on the specialisation of skills, products and processes, and 'integration', which refers to the control and coordination of forces resulting from differentiations, which tend to pull the organisation apart (Bolman & Deal, 1984).

The systems and contingency perspective's intellectual basis was laid by people like Katz, Kahn and Thompson during the late 1960s (Ott, 1989). During this time the human relations approach was losing some of its vigour against the background of a strong move towards high technology, statistics, models, information systems and measurement (Aucamp, 1996). Systems theorists advocated the application of general systems theory to organisations, as well as the use of quantitative tools and techniques to understand and optimise the complex relationships among organisational variables. The organisational culture perspective has difficulty on both these accounts, as it rejects the idea of the artificial or mechanical controllability of an organisation, as proposed (Ott,

1989). It also rejects the heavy reliance on quantitative, quasi-experimental approaches to studying and measuring organisations (Van Maanen, 1979).

During the late 1970s organisation theory saw a move back from the prevailing mechanistic views, towards a stronger and more qualitative focus on human behaviour and values (Alvesson, 2002). The organisation was seen as a complex system of individuals and coalitions, each having their own interests, beliefs, values, preferences, perspectives and perceptions. Since there is competition for scarce resources between coalitions, conflict is inevitable. Competitive influence is gained through power and political activities. This view, termed the power and politics perspective, shares fundamental views with the organisation culture perspective, in that both reject the overarching structural, rational and mechanical view of the systems school. Also, both recognise that values, beliefs and preferences impact significantly on organisational behaviour. The differences that do exist between the two approaches are minor, and encompass mostly emphasis and semantics. Many current theorists, such as Kauter, Mintzberg and Pfeffer write from both perspectives (Ott, 1989).

### 2.3.2 Definitions of corporate culture

Although very similar in content, the large variety of definitions of corporate or organisational culture reflects the scope and depth of research in the field. Odendaal (1997) viewed corporate culture as a multi-dimensional construct that exists in the minds of people. It directs their thoughts and shapes their behaviour, and as such, represents a tool by which organisational behaviour may be managed. Similarly, Killman (1990) referred to corporate culture as the 'unconscious' of the organisation – it is to an organisation what personality is to an individual, i.e. it provides direction, meaning and mobility.

The most often encountered view of corporate culture incorporates the idea of shared values, beliefs, norms and behaviours (Weeks & Lessing, 1988).

Alvesson's (2002) similar and slightly expanded view held that corporate culture includes shared and learned world experiences, meanings, values and understandings which inform people, and which are expressed, reproduced and communicated partly in symbolic form. These views most probably took their lead from Schein's authoritative work on the subject, which holds that corporate culture, together with situational factors, form the basis for observable behaviour (Odendaal, 1997).

Schein (1985a, p.86) defined corporate culture as "a pattern of shared basic assumptions, invented, discovered or developed by a given group, as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, is to be taught to new members of the group as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems."

Inherent in Schein's definition is the notion that different groups or teams form spontaneous subcultures within the larger organisation (Weeks, 1988 in Schein, 1985a) based on their consensus regarding certain organisational issues (Schein, 1985a). These fundamental issues revolve around certain external adaptation and internal integration tasks (Schein, 1985a), as listed in Table 2.2.

**Table 2.2: The external and internal tasks facing all groups**

| External adaptation tasks | Internal integration tasks |
|---|---|
| Developing consensus on :<br><br>1. The core mission, functions, and primary tasks of the organisation vis-à-vis its environments.<br>2. The specific goals to be pursued by the organisation.<br>3. The basic means to be used in accomplishing goals.<br>4. The criteria to be used for measuring results.<br>5. The remedial or repair strategies if goals are not achieved. | Developing consensus on :<br><br>1. The common language and conceptual system to be used including the basic concepts of time and space.<br>2. The group boundaries and criteria for inclusion.<br>3. The criteria for the allocation of status, power, and authority.<br>4. The criteria for intimacy, friendship, and love in different work and family settings.<br>5. The criteria for the allocation of rewards and punishments.<br>6. Concepts for managing the unmanageable – ideology and religion. |

Source: Schein (1985a, p.52)

Schein (1985b) also stated that corporate culture is manifested at different levels in the organisation, as illustrated in Figure 2.6.

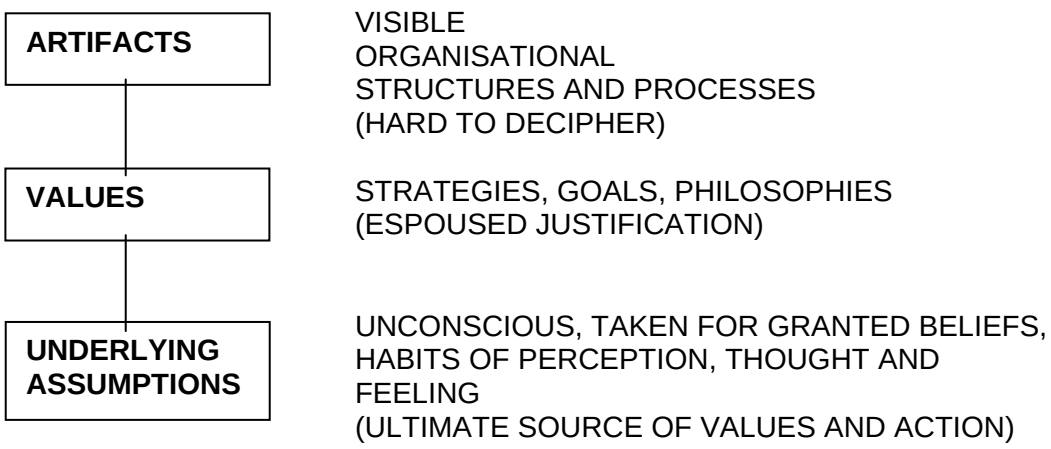


**Figure 2.6: The levels of organisational culture**

Source : Schein (1985b, p. 87)

According to Odendaal (1997) artefacts are easily recognisable, but it is difficult to determine why certain behaviours occur in a certain manner. Examples of such artefacts include the organisation's customs, traditions, ceremonies, language, slogans, philosophies and rules, many of which are often symbolic in nature (Owens, 1991). Values describe how people in a group communicate and negotiate, and how they justify behaviour. As such, it provides an unconscious and invisible basis for behaviour (Odendaal, 1997). These values often represent the beliefs of the organisation's leader (Stoner, 1989), and serve as criteria against which behaviour is measured (Owens, 1991). The underlying assumptions determine the manner in which people in the organisation behave, feel and think. They form the essence of the prevailing culture, of which the artefacts and values are manifestations (Odendaal, 1997). These are taken for granted, and not discussed or debated (Owens, 1991).

Every organisation's culture differs from that of the next, as it originates from the organisation's broader societal culture, the nature of its business or business

environment, and the beliefs, values and basic assumptions held by its founder(s) or early dominant leader(s) (Ott, 1989).

### 2.3.3 Corporate culture: Composite summary

Sathe (1985) pointed out that there is no one universally accepted corporate culture definition, and Owens (1991) added that there is, however, a fair amount of overlap between the many definitions. For purposes of this study, corporate culture was viewed as an intricate set of basic assumptions, beliefs and values which employees share and support, and which determine their behaviour, as well as their thoughts and feelings about their association with the organisation. The culture of an organisation develops over a long time, and is influenced to a great extent by its senior management's outlook on organisational matters. It is difficult to change, and impacts considerably on employee motivation and job satisfaction. Corporate culture in an organisation is manifested across several dimensions, such as the collective perceptions of staff and management of performance, decision-making, relationships, and the particular view of human resources within the organisation. Several of the aspects included in these dimensions also serve as determinants of job satisfaction and employee motivation, and as such establish a firm link between these concepts and that of corporate culture.

## 2.4 Relationships between the constructs of employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture

This chapter has dealt with the concepts of motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture, in an overview of the meaning and development of these constructs over the many years that they have stimulated thought and research. The long and illustrious history behind modern day perceptions of employee motivation, job satisfaction and the corporate culture perspective highlight the

evolution of these constructs against the background of the situational and historical context of the time.

Many different theories have shaped the way in which organisations currently perceive the need to think and respond creatively to employees' motivational and job satisfaction needs in the workplace, and to establish and maintain corporate cultures that are conducive to employee motivation and satisfaction.

For the purposes of this study, employee motivation was conceptualised as an internal force, unique to an individual, which is determined by a number of factors that hold personal meaning to the individual. These factors are not static, but may change over time, depending on the person's needs and motives at the time. Forces external to the person, such as aspects of the job and the organisation, do not necessarily cause motivation, but certainly influence the employee's level of motivation. Consequently, a set of internal and external motivation factors determines an employee's behaviour at work. A person's motivation is observable and measurable through the behaviours it manifests as, for example, via a competitive approach to work, or a preference for autonomy in the work situation. Motivation represents a significant link between job satisfaction and performance, and as such constitutes a major determinant of organisational profitability and success.

Job satisfaction was viewed as staff's general attitude towards, and feelings about their jobs, which are shaped by several person and job-related factors, such as job expectancies and task variety, respectively. As in the case of motivation, these factors are unique to individuals, and may also change over time, as they are determined by a person's unique set of motives and needs. An employee's perception of the organisation's culture is also an important determinant of job satisfaction.

Corporate culture is regarded as a complicated set of interrelated values, beliefs and assumptions which people at work share and support, and which consequently impact not only on their behaviour at work, but also on the way they think and feel about the company. An organisation's culture is directed largely by its founders and top management, and develops over a long period of time. Corporate culture is difficult to change, and exerts considerable influence on employees' motivation and satisfaction levels, insofar as these relate to the work environment. An organisation's culture is manifested across a number of organisational dimensions, for example, the company's perspective on performance, decision-making, working relationships, and human resources. These aspects link corporate culture to job satisfaction and motivation, as they too are viewed as determinants of both these constructs.

As variables affecting people's experience of work, employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture share certain common characteristics, in addition to the unique attributes each possesses. The various dimensions and aspects of the constructs of motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture relate to each other insofar as they all impact on the feelings, emotions, cognitions and behaviour of employees. Gouws (1995) pointed out that the factors that motivate employees are the same ones that contribute towards their satisfaction in the workplace, and subsequently concluded that motivated employees will generally also be satisfied with their work. The literature reflected in this chapter supports this opinion. It was found that similar sets of aspects relating to individual employees' levels of motivation, such as job expectancies, have an effect on their job satisfaction. The same observation was made with reference to aspects of the job itself, for example, work content, as well as with reference to characteristics of the organisation, such as its reward and recognition policy and procedures.

Based on the thinking of theorists in the fields of motivation, satisfaction and corporate culture research, it was concluded that a relationship exists between

these constructs. The foundation of this relationship is the similar impact that several similar and related personal, job and organisational aspects have on employee motivation and job satisfaction. Aspects of corporate culture, as noted earlier, also influence employee motivation and job satisfaction as part of the set of organisational aspects impacting on motivation and satisfaction. Personal, job and organisational (i.e. cultural) aspects found to affect employee motivation and job satisfaction are reflected in Table 2.3.

Motivated and satisfied employees are a vital prerequisite to the success of the organisation, which is why these concepts should enjoy considerable and ongoing attention on all levels of the business.

**Table 2.3: Personal, job and organisational determinants of employee motivation and job satisfaction**

| EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION | JOB SATISFACTION |
|---|---|
| Personal factors: | |
| 1. Beliefs<br>2. Drive level<br>3. Expectancies<br>4. Habits<br>5. Interests<br>6. Needs / motives<br>7. Values | 1. Abilities<br>2. Age<br>3. Cognitive ability<br>4. Gender<br>5. Job competence<br>6. Job congruence (personality / job fit)<br>7. Job expectancies<br>8. Job experience<br>9. Knowledge<br>10. Occupational level<br>11. Personality<br>12. Race<br>13. Skills |
| Job factors: | |
| 1. Autonomy<br>2. Job content<br>3. Job goals<br>4. Performance feedback<br>5. Responsibility<br>6. Skill variety<br>7. Task importance<br>8. Task variety | 1. Autonomy<br>2. Coworkers<br>3. Job content<br>4. Job objectives<br>5. Job scope<br>6. Performance feedback<br>7. Role ambiguity<br>8. Role conflict<br>9. Skill variety<br>10. Social interaction<br>11. Supervision<br>12. Task identity<br>13. Task significance<br>14. Work activities |
| Organisational factors: | |
| 1. Organisational structure<br>2. Policies, procedures and customs<br>3. Reward / recognition programmes<br>4. Working conditions | 1. Management styles<br>2. Organisational structure<br>3. Policies and procedures<br>4. Reward / recognition programmes<br>5. Social systems<br>6. Working conditions |

## 2.5 Chapter summary

This chapter presented many of the most well-known and authoritative theories and definitions of motivation and job satisfaction, and contextualised these within their historical development, along with the many perspectives on corporate culture. It also framed the constructs of employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture as they were being viewed in this study. The next chapter presents an overview of the literature pertaining to the relationships between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture, in addition to previous research on the relationship between respondent demographic profiles and the constructs under investigation.

# CHAPTER 3

# LITERATURE REVIEW ON THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION, JOB SATISFACTION AND CORPORATE CULTURE

The theoretical background to the study at hand pointed towards the influence of several variables relating to individual employees, such as their particular needs, values and interests, as well as characteristics of their jobs, and characteristics of the work environment or organisation as a whole, on their experience of motivation and job satisfaction. It was also noted that the corporate culture construct under investigation is represented collectively by the set of organisational characteristics influencing employee motivation and job satisfaction, since these portray the underlying values, beliefs and assumptions of the organisation. If either employee motivation or job satisfaction is to be affected, one or more of these personal, job-related or organisational variables should be changed or affected (Perry & Porter, 1982). Taking its lead from the theory in this regard, this chapter presents an overview of research on the relationships between the constructs of employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture. The research literature has also facilitated the interpretation of the findings. The overall purpose of this chapter is to evaluate the relative contributions of related research studies, and to apply their findings and conclusions in directing the present study, both in refining objectives and in the interpretation of the results.

## 3.1 Relationships between demographic variables and employee motivation and job satisfaction

In Chapter 2 it was indicated that, in addition to aspects relating to the job and the organisation specifically, various personal characteristics, such as motives and needs, influence the level of job satisfaction that employees derive from their work. These personal characteristics can be expanded, amongst others, to a number of demographic variables, such as age, gender, job experience, education level and occupational level. It was also found that there is considerable overlap between variables affecting job satisfaction, and those affecting employee motivation,

suggesting that the demographic characteristics impacting on employee motivation may also affect job satisfaction in similar ways. For this reason, the possible effects of certain demographic characteristics of employees on their motivation and job satisfaction were explored. The demographic variables investigated included age, gender, job tenure, education level and occupational level, or seniority. The discussion that follows concentrates on the relationships between the demographic variables mentioned and employee motivation firstly, and on job satisfaction secondly, whereafter certain similarities and differences between the two sets of relationships are reviewed.

### 3.1.1 Relationships between demographic variables and employee motivation

The literature has provided some insight into worker motivation and how it may be affected by personal characteristics such as age, gender, education level and job tenure. Although no age-motivation relationship was recorded in a number of similar studies (Bhargava & Kelkar, 2000; Gouws, 1995; Jernigan, Beggs & Kohut, 2002), other data suggested that older adults, and therefore adults in the later stages of their careers, are less driven by the need to prove themselves through their achievements, which is generally accompanied by competitive behaviour at work, and that they might be more driven by aspects such as meaningful work (Tolbert & Moen, 1998). In an examination of motivational traits and tendencies in achievement settings in the workplace, Heckhausen (1997) found that middle-aged adults (defined as 30 years and older) and older adults (defined as 40 years and older) were less likely to have the same achievement-oriented motive strength than younger adults. Supporting findings came from Bellenger, Wilcox and Ingram (1984), as well as from Kanfer and Ackerman (2000), who reported significant age differences between adults younger and older than 30 years on all but one of the appetitive motivational traits measured. The differences related to 'Desire To Learn', 'Mastery / Achievement', 'Other Referenced Goals', 'Competitiveness', 'Worry' and 'Emotionality / Fear Of Failure'. The latter trait did not register significant differences between the age groups studied, but younger adults recorded much higher numerical averages on this trait than older adults. Kovach (1995) also found significant differences between age groups, in that the under-30 group placed high

value on good wages, whereas the 31 to 40 group regarded job security as highly important. The over-50 workers attached most importance to support with their personal problems. It appears that as employees age, they are less motivated by pay and the desire to achieve and master new skills, and less likely to compete with their colleagues than younger employees. A plausible reason may be that older employees have generally already satisfied their basic needs, such as adequate pay, and have already competitively pursued work achievements during the earlier phases of their careers when they were also younger. It may also be that they focused on other goals in their later careers, for example on building and supporting their families, contributing towards community life, and preparing for retirement. If this is indeed the case, some support is also provided for the finding that workers in their late career stage are more interested in praise than money (Bellenger et al., 1984; Huddleston, Good & Frazier, 2002), since they would have already laid the financial foundation for their future. These authors suggest that recognition may not be as highly valued among those in mid-career as other types of rewards, as this is a time in life when employees may have financial obligations which make financial rewards more desirable than those not accompanied by money. Explaining the lower value of rewards, or 'Reward Valence' scenario, which was found by some authors (Bellenger et al., 1984; Huddleston et al., 2002) for people just starting out in their careers, is a little more problematic though, since one would expect them to be more anxious to establish themselves financially as soon as possible. Perhaps it can be argued that less tenured employees have a stronger need to feel successful and competent in their work than to earn impressively, and that they gain this feeling largely from the positive feedback received from others in the workplace. Once they have established themselves as successful and competent, which generally happens later in their work lives, a focus shift towards a preference for monetary reward occurs. Consequently, it seems reasonable to think that younger and less tenured employees might also be more achievement-focused than higher tenured people. Although some support was recorded (Bellenger et al., 1984; Huddleston et al., 2002), several studies found no significant relationship between job tenure and employee motivation (Bhargava & Kelkar, 2000; Gouws, 1995; Jernigan et al., 2002; Kovach, 1995; Moon, 2000).

In their study of 334 Russian retail workers where the sample was almost equally divided into three education level groupings, namely those with secondary school, technical school and university education, Huddleston et al. (2002) found that higher educated respondents tended to be more powerfully motivated by intrinsic rewards such as praise and recognition, than their less educated counterparts. They termed this attribute 'Recognition Valence', meaning the importance or value attached to recognition. This finding was supported by Western studies (Bellenger et al. 1984; Tolbert & Moen, 1998). The authors did not offer a possible explanation for this result, except to suggest that workers' reward preferences seem to change based on social factors such as education level, and on career progression. Further deductions might have been possible had there been any indication of whether certain sectors of the samples were employed at a more senior level than others. It may simply be that people who are inclined to pursue academic goals are generally more motivated by a sense of achievement than by financial reward. Several authors found no significant relationship between education level and employee motivation (Bhargava & Kelkar, 2000; Gouws, 1995; Moon, 2000; Stinson & Johnson, 1977).

Kanfer and Ackerman (2000), Meyer and Braxton (2002), and Tolbert and Moen (1998) found significant differences in the motivational drives of men and women at work, in that female employees obtained much higher numerical scores than males on all the achievement-oriented traits mentioned earlier, with statistically significant differences in the first-mentioned study recorded for 'Mastery' and 'Emotionality'. It follows from these findings that women at work are driven by a need to master their tasks to a larger extent than their male colleagues. A problematic element is, however, introduced by women's considerably higher levels of 'Emotionality'. The high-score combination of 'Mastery' and 'Emotionality' may lead to considerable work stress in females, as the positive effects of pursuing goals are offset by the intensified fear of failure experienced during such goal striving. It is possible that the two to one ratio of females to males in the sample introduced a bias towards the female scenario, and that the differences in the scores of the motivational traits between the two genders might not have been that pronounced had the sample been more equally divided between males and females. Huddleston et al. (2002)

found that female employees showed a stronger preference for aspects of their jobs that relate to security, such as pay and job security. Kovach (1995) found that women in the workplace attached considerably more importance to interpersonal relationships and communication than men, and related the finding to women's continuing endeavours to cope with their dual role of homemaker and employee, where both these aspects demand attention. From these results it seems that although women are more strongly motivated by goal achievement, they are simultaneously more fearful of failure than men, and also more inclined to focus on interpersonal and security-related characteristics of the job than men. This suggests that women may feel that they need to work harder than men to achieve the same outcomes (Huddleston, et al., 2002). Their stronger preference for rewards that bolster their security situation may relate to the notion that women generally earn less than men, and are less likely to find suitable alternative employment, especially as they age (Huddleston, et al., 2002). A caveat in terms of the generalisability of the Huddleston et al. (2002) results in Western society needs to be attached to this interpretation, as the study involved Russian respondents only. According to these authors, Russian culture differs considerably from Western culture, and therefore the paradigms upon which the thinking and behaviour of the genders in the two societies are based may differ significantly. In addition, Russia was only starting to transform from a production-oriented economy to a typically Western market-oriented economy at the time the study was conducted, which might account for a number of differences in results too. Some studies failed to show a significant relationship between gender and employee motivation (Gouws, 1995; Moon, 2000; Stinson & Johnson, 1977).

Despite the inclusion of occupational seniority as respondent variable in a number of studies, several did not report any statistically significant relationship in this regard (Bhargava & Kelkar, 2000; Gouws, 1995; Stinson & Johnson, 1977). Kovach (1995), however, found a statistically significant difference based on seniority, or organisational level, in that lower-level employees were far more motivated by good wages than middle and higher levels, who tended to value job security and recognition more. This finding, namely that more senior employees are generally more strongly motivated by higher-order needs, such as achievement, personal

growth and recognition, than by lower-order needs, such as pay, was supported by Bellenger et al. (1984).

### 3.1.2 Relationships between demographic variables and job satisfaction

Research literature indicated that job satisfaction, like employee motivation, is influenced by personal characteristics of employees, such as age, gender, job tenure, education level and seniority, with a number of studies demonstrating such links in recent years. Ritter and Anker (2002) maintained that there does not seem to be a clear-cut relationship between age and job satisfaction, as none was found in any of the five South American and European countries they studied, although their data did point towards a U-shaped relationship. They speculated that the absence of a clear pattern in this regard related to age differences having mirrored indirect and possibly conflicting influences, for example, different earnings between younger and older people. Other researchers who have studied age in this regard indicated that job satisfaction appears to increase with age (Schultz & Schultz, 1998), and that employees older than 40 years seem to be considerably more satisfied in the workplace than their younger counterparts (Huddleston et al., 2002). Several reasons were posited for this relationship, for example, that dissatisfied youngsters tend to move around between jobs and do not stay around long enough to develop adequate job satisfaction. Those who do, often reach a stage where their extended period of service brings about increased competence, occupational confidence, responsibility and autonomy, all of which work increased job satisfaction in hand. Older workers also appear to be better able to resign themselves to their particular job situation, and to find aspects thereof that bring about contentment. In essence, older people tend to value different things at work (Bellenger et al., 1984), for example, they may be less interested in task variety than younger people (Warr, 2001). Huddleston et al. (2002) agreed that job satisfaction appears to increase with age, and also drew a distinction between workers younger than 40 and those who are older. In their study the latter group expressed more satisfaction with their jobs than younger workers. Although their study incorporated the views of Russian retail workers, the authors believed these results were aligned with those of many Western studies, which also maintained that job satisfaction increases with age. As possible

explanation for the case of the Russian workers specifically, they surmised that younger workers were less satisfied because they might have held higher expectations about the promises of market reform that had not yet been met at the time of the study. Sempane et al. (2002) found no significant relationship between age and job satisfaction.

Despite wide demographic representation, including gender, in the samples of several studies (Beisiegel, 2003; Bellenger et al., 1984; Busch & Bush, 1978; De Vaus & McAllister, 1991; Guppy & Rick, 1996; Huddleston et al., 2002; Sempane et al., 2002; Senior, 2003), no significant gender difference in job satisfaction has been shown. All of these studies employed correlation analysis in their assessment of the said possible relationship, and their samples covered several hundred respondents in a number of different industries, notably pharmaceutical and retail, in both the public and private sectors. In addition, the collective samples also included an adequate spread of respondents on the basis of age, gender, job tenure, education level and seniority to render the results generalisable. There was general agreement between authors (Busch & Bush, 1978; Huddleston et al., 2002; Mason, 1997) that it is the specifics of the job that impact on job satisfaction, and not the gender of the employee itself, and that this accounted for the absence of a significant direct correlation between job satisfaction and gender. Busch and Bush (1978) specifically held that in the cases where gender differences in job satisfaction have been reported, these differences might have been more closely related to the person's role in the particular job than his or her gender. In other words, men and women in similar positions / roles are not expected to experience different levels of job satisfaction. Guppy and Rick (1996) were in accordance with the conclusion that occupation-specific characteristics affect job satisfaction, and not gender per se. The proviso that all of these authors added was that other critical and relevant variables should be controlled when investigating the gender-job satisfaction relationship, for example, age and employment level or seniority. Indeed, a number of gender differences in job satisfaction were evident when such variables were examined, indicating that gender affected job satisfaction in combination with these variables. These findings led authors such as Mason (1997) to emphasise that any observed differences in job satisfaction are attributable not to gender, but to other

variables that systematically co-vary with gender due to the ubiquitous sex-segregation of jobs. In this regard, Guppy and Rick (1996) found certain bivariate correlations between gender and job satisfaction, such as that for males a considerably stronger positive relationship between employment level and perceived control was observed than for females. Based on this finding one may then surmise that a stronger relationship between employment level and job satisfaction exists for males than females, since the same study also found that perceived control, or autonomy, in the workplace is a significant predictor of job satisfaction. A higher employment level should therefore lead to elevated job satisfaction, with the relationship being more pronounced for males than females. A further example of the bivariate correlations between gender and job satisfaction was provided by the Busch and Bush (1978) project which found that non-professional women were more satisfied with the job aspects of pay, their coworkers and promotional aspects than their male colleagues. Professional women appeared more satisfied with all job components measured, which included work, pay, promotion, supervision and coworkers, than professional men. In this case, professional status seemed to have moderated the relationship between gender and job satisfaction. Thus it seems that job satisfaction may be affected by within-gender differences as well. Interestingly, despite contradicting results, and the finding regarding gender covariance, Guppy and Rick (1996) also found a number of direct gender differences in certain facets of job satisfaction, such as that men generally placed heavier emphasis on promotional aspects than women, and less emphasis on relationships with coworkers and clients. Consequently, men appeared to obtain more satisfaction from positive career advancement prospects than women, whereas women tended to focus more on their work relationships in this regard than men. From the above, it appears that the question of whether or not gender affects job satisfaction has been answered both affirmatively and negatively in the literature, i.e. a number of authors have found support for the notion of a direct relationship between gender and job satisfaction, and several have not. In the case of Guppy and Rick (1996), support was found for both a direct relationship between gender and job satisfaction, and for a relationship between these variables, where gender co-varied with certain other variables, such as education level. Locke and Henne (1986), for example, supported the perspective that gender in and of itself is a determining factor in job satisfaction. In

contrast, Griffin and Bateman (1986 in Mason, 1997) rejected this notion, by supporting the opposing belief that these differences are attributable to differences in opportunities and experience.

A number of studies have assessed the relationship between job satisfaction and job tenure among several other demographic variables such as age, gender, education level and seniority (Bellenger et al., 1984; Busch & Bush, 1978; Guppy & Rick, 1996; Huddleston et al., 2002; Sempane et al., 2002), one of which conducted a meta-analysis of the results of 37 similar studies that included job tenure as one of the independent variables influencing job satisfaction (Robie, Ryan, Schmieder, Parra & Smith, 1998). None of these found any significant direct effect of job tenure on job satisfaction. However, Fried and Ferris (1987) maintained that job experience, insofar as it relates directly to job tenure, has an effect on job satisfaction. Both Ronen (1978) and these authors argued in favour of a U-shaped relationship, in that in the early stages of employment, when the situation is still new and exciting, many employees are more satisfied than later on, due to the stimulation and challenge of developing new skills and abilities especially. However, disenchantment sets in if regular evidence of progress and growth is not forthcoming. After a few years discouragement is quite common, due to disappointment about especially advancement in the job. Interestingly, job satisfaction appears to increase again after a number of years' experience, and improve steadily from there on. This relationship parallels the job satisfaction / age relationship discussed earlier, and some researchers therefore regard it as the same phenomenon. Evidence on the relationship between job satisfaction and job tenure seems inconclusive at this stage and in need of further research.

As regards education level, certain authors indicated that job satisfaction decreases as education level increases (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Gouws, 1995; Huddleston et al., 2002; Shepard, 1973). A feasible explanation offered by the researchers for this inverse relationship is that further educated people tend to expect more from their jobs in terms of fulfillment and responsibility, for example, and that these expectations are often deflated by the inability of most jobs to live up to these expectations on a sustained basis. The resultant disillusionment leads to the

reduced satisfaction higher educated employees experience. Another view was based on a study that spanned five European countries (Ritter & Anker, 2002), where it was found that higher education was consistent with considerably higher levels of job satisfaction. As explanation the authors suggested that the relationship between education level and job satisfaction probably reflected the composite effect of the positive relationship between education and income on the one hand, and that between income and job satisfaction on the other.

There has been considerable interest in the relationship between job satisfaction and worker seniority or job / employment level in the organisation (Bellenger et al., 1984; Busch & Bush, 1978; Coster, 1992; Daftuar, 2001; Guppy & Rick, 1996; Huddleston et al., 2002; Kline & Boyd, 1994). The literature was consistent in showing a positive relationship between job level and job satisfaction (Ronen, 1978; Vroom, 1964; Weaver, 1988). The studies were conducted in several different countries, and together spanned in excess of 2 000 respondents representing a wide range of demographic backgrounds. Seniority was framed as job complexity and responsibility, and measured in a number of different ways, for example by senior, middle and lower management, by top, middle and junior officers, and by overall hierarchical level in the organisation. Possible explanations for the linear relationship between seniority and job satisfaction came from many authors. Based on their work with South African aircraft pilots, Hoole and Vermeulen (2003) proposed that increased responsibility and authority, as well as more prestige, more promotion and socialisation opportunities at work, as well as better remuneration accounted for the satisfaction differential between senior and junior pilots. Kline and Boyd (1994) suggested that upper-level employees' job satisfaction is affected mostly by decision-making and jurisdiction, whereas that of lower level employees is influenced primarily by the opportunity to establish themselves as successful and competent, and the resultant feelings of contentment. In this vein, Fried and Ferris (1987) concurred that higher occupational levels are generally associated with higher job satisfaction because people at these levels have greater opportunities to satisfy their needs for greater autonomy, challenge and responsibility at work. These have great value in building self-esteem and self-actualisation, which boost satisfaction in return. Higher levels of responsibility and a wider span of authority and autonomy

serve as powerful determinants of satisfaction in the workplace, as do the status of a more senior appointment, as well as better remuneration and the auxiliary benefits that normally accompany more senior positions. Some researchers believed that added satisfaction from being in a more senior position also comes from the increased opportunities these employees have to satisfy their motivational drives, for example their need for achievement and self-fulfillment, and that these opportunities are somewhat more limited on the lower levels (Kline & Boyd, 1994).

### 3.1.3 Correspondence in the relationships between demographic variables and employee motivation and job satisfaction

From the preceding discussion, it is evident that the demographic variables of age, gender, tenure, education level and seniority affect both employee motivation and job satisfaction, to various degrees. Age appears to impact employee motivation and job satisfaction in a similar way, in that, for both constructs, a distinction is to be made between people older than 30 or 40, and those younger, when considering a relationship with age. To this extent it appears that older employees, typically those older than 30 or 40, are less motivated by competition and an achievement drive than their younger colleagues, and are also more interested in job security and support for their personal problems. Younger employees appear to be more competitive, achievement-orientated, and motivated by financial reward. In the case of job satisfaction, a consistent difference is evident between younger workers, and those older than 40, with the latter generally being more satisfied at work.

Where gender differences have been found, significant similarity in its effect upon both employee motivation and job satisfaction is evident. Women seem more highly motivated by achievement on the job, job security and interpersonal communication and relations, than men. As a result, women tend to derive more satisfaction from interpersonal relations at work. Men appear to obtain more satisfaction from aspects relating to promotion, career advancement and seniority. Women appear to be more highly motivated, and consequently satisfied, by aspects relating to their immediate jobs, whereas men seem more pursuant of career matters in their quest for job satisfaction.

Job tenure, or the amount of time an employee has spent in his or her job or career, appears to affect motivation, in that less tenured employees tend to be more motivated by financial reward and less by praise and recognition, as in the case of higher tenured employees. An employee's job tenure does not seem to influence job satisfaction on its own, but does so when related to job experience. From this perspective, tenure has a curvilinear relationship with job satisfaction, in that employees' job satisfaction levels generally start off quite high in their careers, when they have little job experience, decline for a period of time as they gain job experience, and then rise again towards mid- and late career, when they reach higher levels of job mastery due to more experience.

Education level has been found to also impact on both employee motivation and job satisfaction. Higher educated people are more strongly motivated by intrinsic rewards than less educated people, who have a higher preference for extrinsic rewards. Although one study reported a contradictory finding, the majority of authors agreed that higher educated employees are generally less satisfied than their less educated colleagues. A clear relationship between education level and both employee motivation and job satisfaction is evident, in that with a higher education comes a stronger motivation by intrinsic reward, as opposed to extrinsic reward, but a simultaneous lower level of job satisfaction, reflecting greater expectations of personal fulfillment possibly not met.

Seniority has a clear and consistent impact on job satisfaction, in that more senior personnel experience higher levels of job satisfaction. This variable also has an impact on motivation, in that middle- and higher-level employees tend to value higher-order aspects, such as recognition, authority and responsibility more than lower-order aspects, such as pay and other extrinsic rewards, whereas more junior employees tend to value the latter more highly. More senior employees are in a better position to satisfy both their higher- and lower-order needs, which impacts on their level of job satisfaction.

Given these findings, the present study aimed to investigate the relationships of employee motivation and job satisfaction with the said demographic variables, namely age, gender, job tenure, education level and seniority.

## 3.2 Relationships between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture

As mentioned earlier, the theory behind research on the relationship between employee motivation and job satisfaction has indicated that numerous variables of a personal, job and organisational nature influence the level of motivation and job satisfaction that employees experience in the workplace. Furthermore, as also noted previously, many of the personal, job and organisational characteristics that influence employee motivation, exert a similar effect on job satisfaction. This includes people's needs with regard to their work and the work environment, as well as the nature and content of their jobs, and the working conditions under which they perform their daily tasks. Due to overlap in many cases, it is difficult for many of these characteristics to be categorised in absolute terms as personal, job-related or organisational. For example, the content of a person's job may be regarded as a personal attribute from the perspective that the person needs meaningful and stimulating work in order to be satisfied and motivated at work. However, from another perspective, job content may also be viewed as a characteristic of the job that is impacting on employee motivation and job satisfaction.

The sections that follow discuss the relationships between job satisfaction and a number of motivational (or personal) and job-related characteristics firstly, and organisational characteristics (including corporate culture) secondly. The first section covers characteristics that are both personal and job-related in nature, since they may be viewed from both angles, as explained earlier. The second section explores organisational characteristics in this regard. Through this discussion the nature of the three-way relationship between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture comes into view.

### 3.2.1 Relationships between employee motivation and job satisfaction

The basis upon which relationships between employee motivation and job satisfaction and corporate culture are observed is provided by the notion that people's perceptions and behaviour in the workplace are driven by a set of personal, innate needs (Maslow, 1968), and by their perceptions of numerous job-related and organisation-related aspects (Du Toit, 1990; Gouws, 1995; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). From Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory perspective, people's motivational needs may be transformed into expectancies which drive behaviour at work, if the behaviour is believed to lead to a certain outcome, and that particular outcome is considered desirable. Observation of relationships between employee motivation and job satisfaction in the workplace specifically is important, since several aspects of the work environment serve as powerful motivators to employee performance (Herzberg, 1966), and performance is inextricably linked to the success or failure of the organisation. Agreement on several of the major research findings, which are discussed below, exists between researchers. This is indicative of the availability of solid empirical research evidence that organisational practice may be informed by.

The aspects affecting people's motivation at work may be grouped into different dimensions, for example, their energy and dynamism, their synergy with the work environment, as well as their intrinsic and extrinsic motives. These dimensions cover, and are based on, the well-researched theoretical dimensions of employee motivation, which were discussed in Chapter 2. For example, certain needs or motives experienced by employees are indicative of their energy and dynamism while at work, such as their need for achievement and power, their level of activity under pressure, and the extent to which they are motivated by a competitive environment. Similarly, several employee needs and motives portray the nature and level of synergy or harmony between their motivation profiles and their work environments. These include, for example, the extent to which people are motivated by opportunities for interaction at work, by praise and tangible recognition, by the synergy between their own and the company's values and principles, by their need for job security, and by their need for opportunities for continual personal growth and development. Employees' intrinsic motivation dimension is reflected by aspects

such as their need for meaningful and stimulating work, for flexible structures and procedures surrounding their tasks, and for an adequate level of autonomy in their jobs. The extrinsic dimension of employees' motivation profiles is represented by aspects such as their need for financial reward, positive promotion prospects, and position and status in the firm.

A number of studies have shown that the extent to which people are motivated by challenging tasks (Du Plessis, 2003; Maslow, 1968; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002; Stinson & Johnson, 1977) and by the sense that their abilities are being stretched, directly impact on the job satisfaction they experience. According to goal-setting theory, people are motivated by their internal intentions, objectives and goals (Spector, 2003). In a study aimed at assessing the effect of perceived quality of work life on job satisfaction, Coster (1992), for example, found a positive correlation between goal involvement in the execution of tasks and job satisfaction. Corroborating results came from the work of Bellenger at al. (1984) and Strydom and Meyer (2002), who rated the experience of success through goal attainment as the most important source of job satisfaction. Although the sample in the latter study consisted of only 29 middle-level managers, support for its findings was provided by the former study, where the sample was considerably larger and more representative of a broader spectrum of employee categories. These results are easily explained by the significant contribution that success and achievement make towards a person's self-esteem (Beach, 1980), and which also reinforce his or her sense of making a positive contribution towards the organisation. People with a need for achievement and who experience success in this regard acquire a stronger belief and confidence in themselves, which encourages them to contribute towards the goals and objectives of the organisation.

A need for achievement is often linked to a need for power in the workplace. Many employees are motivated by opportunities for exercising authority, taking responsibility, negotiating, and being in a position to influence others. This follows from the thinking of theorists like McClelland (1987), who postulated through the theory of learned needs that achievement-oriented people tend to be driven by the need for power more than others. A relationship between this motivational

dimension and job satisfaction has been shown by authors such as Becherer, Morgan and Richard (1982), who demonstrated that the stronger the experience of responsibility, or the ability to control and influence others, and therefore power, was in the workplace, the higher the level of job satisfaction tended to be. Similar findings were produced by Coster (1992), and by Hoole and Vermeulen (2003), who found that the authority to take action and to exercise the accompanying responsibility, resulted in enhanced job satisfaction. Together these findings lend credence to the concept that power is a significant predictor of job satisfaction in those workers who are motivated by it.

Certain needs or motives on the part of employees determine the level of synergy between their motivational drive system and the characteristics of their work environment. From the work of Cohen-Rosenthal and Cairnes (1991), Hoole and Vermeulen (2003), Strydom and Meyer (2002), Van Vuuren (1990) and Visser et al. (1997) it was deduced that many employees experience job satisfaction because their need for interaction with others at work is being satisfied to some extent. Hoole and Vermeulen (2003) found, for example, that pilots who enjoyed more social interaction with colleagues, staff and clients experienced significantly higher levels of job satisfaction than those who did not have much social contact with others at work. Social relations with clients and subordinates were also found to elevate the job satisfaction of a small group of managers from a variety of industries (Strydom & Meyer, 2002). An impressive finding in this regard was that, next to the experience of success, the affiliation motive was found to be a significant contributor towards job satisfaction. This result came from a large study (Visser et al., 1997) that measured several dimensions of job satisfaction in the workplace. The needs theories (Alderfer, 1969; Herzberg, 1966; Maslow, 1968; McGregor, 1960) emphasise that people need and appreciate the support they receive from those they share their work environment with, and that this support and interaction make them feel much happier at work.

Once their more basic needs have been met, employees are often driven more strongly by egostical needs (Maslow, 1968). Bellenger et al. (1984) and Guppy and Rick (1996) explored people's need for praise and other outward signs of recognition

for their achievements. In their investigation of characteristics of the work environment that may potentially impact on job satisfaction, they concluded that recognition of performance is a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Employees experience their jobs as far more pleasant and rewarding when they receive appropriate recognition for their accomplishments (Beach, 1980; Van Vuuren, 1990).

The personal values people hold, compel many employees to uphold their ideals and conform to high ethical and quality standards, even in the workplace. Hoole and Vermeulen (2003) found that having to compromise these principles at work, for example by not adhering to adequate safety standards, or producing work of inferior quality, diminishes the satisfaction experience of such employees. Viswesvaran and Deshpande (1996) and Deshpande (1996) concurred with this notion by showing that an instrumental climate, i.e. where people protected their own interests at the expense of their personal principles, had a significantly negative effect on job satisfaction.

The need for security is one of the most basic needs, according to Alderfer's (1969), Maslow's (1968), and McGregor's (1960) theories. According to Davy, Kinicki and Scheck (1997) job security refers to one's expectations about continuity in a job situation, and extends to concern over loss of desirable job features such as promotion opportunities and working conditions. The extent to which people are motivated by contextual factors, such as pleasant working conditions and job security has a bearing on their job satisfaction. This was found by authors such as Cohen-Rosenthal and Cairnes (1991), Davy et al. (1997), Hoole and Vermeulen (2003), and Ritter and Anker (2002), who emphasised that job security is an important predictor of job satisfaction. Moon (2000) also posited a relationship between these variables. Visser et al. (1997) demonstrated that a lack of job security impacts negatively on job satisfaction. Their result was based on the perceptions of a large group of marketing personnel from the South African motor manufacturing industry, who linked their job security fears to a number of external issues primarily, notably the prevailing political situation in the country and the related future of the motor manufacturing industry. A number of internal practices were also linked to their concerns, for example, appointments made from outside

instead of internally, and the perceived lack of promotion opportunities. Bellenger et al. (1984) and Johnie (1989) found that job security was significantly less important to younger, and more senior employees than to older, and more junior employees. They argued that older people may be less occupationally mobile than younger ones, and therefore more dependent on their current jobs, and that they may have greater financial commitments too. More senior people may feel more confident about alternative employment opportunities than more junior employees.

The need theories (Alderfer, 1969; Maslow, 1968; McGregor, 1960) hold that self-actualisation is one of the powerful higher-order needs that motivate people at work. In line with people's need for achievement at work, it is expected that their satisfaction will increase as more opportunities for further training and development and acquisition of new skills present themselves. Coster (1992) confirmed this notion through the finding that learning opportunities represented a substantial predictor of job satisfaction. People place a high premium on their own personal development, especially since it affirms and boosts their sense of self-worth, and satisfies their need for self-actualisation.

With reference to employees' intrinsic motivation dimension, task enrichment theory holds that a person's motivation is increased by his or her experience of meaningful and enriching job content (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Porter et al., 1975; Tyagi, 1985). Job enrichment involves the structuring of various elements of the job content, for example, increasing job responsibilities, the variety of tasks, or employee autonomy (Hackman, 1977 in Perry & Porter, 1982). The literature reported a positive relationship between job satisfaction and the need of employees to perform jobs that provide them with variety, interest and stimulation (Herzberg, 1987). Coster (1992), for example, found that for all hierarchical levels in the organisation, stimulating job content had significant predictive value when it came to job satisfaction, and that the related dimensions of problem-solving and mental effort also correlated positively with job satisfaction. Strydom and Meyer (2002) confirmed this finding by stating that the content of the work itself has a direct effect on job satisfaction, in that the more interesting the tasks an employee has to perform are, the higher his or her level of job satisfaction is expected to be. Kemp, Wall, Clegg

and Cordery (1983) reported a significant and unambiguous effect of meaningful work design on job satisfaction. Shepard (1973) found that workers in highly specialised, repetitive jobs exhibited the lowest levels of job satisfaction among workers performing a variety of jobs. Similarly, Stinson and Johnson (1977) found a consistent negative relationship between task repetitiveness and job satisfaction, regardless of whether the respondent exhibited a high need for achievement. In other words, even employees who are not highly achievement-oriented, experience decreased job satisfaction when performing repetitive, unstimulating work. Further confirmation of the linear relationship between job satisfaction and employees' need for stimulating activity at work came from Vercueil (1970) and Visser et al. (1997), who found challenging work to be a significant determinant of job satisfaction. Both the latter and the Stinson and Johnson (1977) studies incorporated large samples that spanned all levels of the organisation. They also involved a wide variety of tasks across several levels of complexity. These characteristics reinforce the generalisability and validity of the findings of these studies. A number of research projects that operationalised stimulating work as skill variety applied in the execution of tasks (Becherer et al., 1982; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Jernigan et al., 2002) reported that jobs that require the application of a wider array of skills from an employee enhance the level of job satisfaction of that employee, and as such represents a powerful contributor towards job satisfaction. In addition, depending on an employee's satisfaction level, the skill variety component of the job was found to significantly influence his or her affective commitment towards the organisation (Jernigan et al., 2002). The latter finding should be interpreted and applied with caution, since the entire sample of this study consisted of nursing personnel only, with the exclusion of other industries. In general, the literature has indicated that an employee's job content has an important and pervasive effect on his or her experience of satisfaction at work.

Autonomous activity is an innate need experienced by many people (Beach, 1980; Coster, 1992; Vercueil, 1970). A number of studies have found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and the extent to which employees are motivated by being given scope for greater self-regulation in their work. Several authors have demonstrated a significant positive correlation between the level of

autonomy a person experiences at work and his or her level of job satisfaction (Agho, Mueller & Price, 1993; Becherer et al., 1982; Coster, 1992; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Guppy & Rick, 1996; Jernigan et al., 2002; Orpen, 1994; Stinson & Johnson, 1977; Tyagi, 1985; Weaver, 1988). Interesting auxiliary findings included that compromised satisfaction with aspects relating to work autonomy exerted a significant impact on an employee's alienative commitment (or intention to withdraw support from the organisation) towards the organisation (Jernigan et al., 2002). An employee's perceived control over his or her own work was also found to moderate the relationship between the levels of motivation and job satisfaction experienced (Orpen, 1994). The literature showed that the nature of the relationship between motivation and job satisfaction is determined to a large extent by people's perceptions of the amount of control they have over their own work. Together the results of the mentioned studies allow adequate generalisability, as the samples were generally large, and represented a multitude of occupations, industries and respondent demographics.

The extrinsic dimension of employee motivation is concerned with the premium placed on material reward at work. Material, or extrinsic, rewards are those provided by the organisation, that are tangible and visible to others (Bellenger et al., 1984). Research on issues surrounding material reward for work performance reported a significant positive correlation between the extent to which people are motivated by financial reward and their level of satisfaction with their work (Agho et al., 1993; Bellenger et al., 1984; Hoole & Vermeulen, 2003; Mol, 1990; Strydom & Meyer, 2002; Thomson, 2003; Visser et al., 1997). However, Bellenger et al. (1984) added that pay appeared to be significantly less important to more senior employees, who valued higher-order rewards more highly, for example, recognition and respect from colleagues. As with praise and recognition, material reward represents a visible means by which an employee's contribution towards the interests of the company, and as such also his or her value to the organisation, may be affirmed. For many, it also represents affirmation of their self-worth, and successful pursuit of their self-actualisation aspirations.

Status also represents an avenue for enhancing a sense of self-worth. Hoole and Vermeulen (2003) found that the extent to which people are motivated by outward signs of position, status and due regard for rank, is positively related to their experience of job satisfaction. Jernigan et al. (2002) agreed, and added that a low level of satisfaction with an employee's status at work is likely to lead to an increased level of alienative commitment towards the organisation.

Many employees, especially highly achievement-orientated people, are strongly motivated by having encouraging promotion prospects in their jobs, as these offer opportunity for advancement in their careers and in the companies they work for (Bellenger et al., 1984; Sylvia & Sylvia, 1986; Van Deventer, 1987). In this vein, it has been shown that promising promotion prospects significantly enhance an employee's job satisfaction (Coster, 1992; Hoole & Vermeulen, 2003) and that negative promotion practices, for example, prolonged temporary status, bring about a decrease in job satisfaction (Visser et al., 1997).

With the exception of the study by Visser et al. (1997) which followed a triangular approach, the predominant research methodology employed in all of the relational studies mentioned in the previous section was quantitative correlation analysis, supported by regression analysis in the cases where any measure of predictive value in the particular relationship between employee motivation and job satisfaction was pursued.

The previous section reviewed a number of selected studies on the relationship between employee motivation and job satisfaction. Several major findings that were reported on repeatedly dominate the work done in this field. Overall it appears that most employees are happy at work when they are able to realise their occupational goals and ambitions, and when they can take control of their work environments, and often the people in it too. By doing so, their needs for affirmation of their self-worth and value to the company, as well as their ability to control their own destiny to some extent, are satisfied. At the same time employees derive satisfaction from a sense of belonging to the community at work and sharing important values and principles with them, and from growing and developing alongside them for the betterment of

themselves and the organisation as a whole. Employees also need to be recognised for their achievements and contribution to the company's prosperity, and to feel secure in their jobs in order to experience job satisfaction. Fears about losing their jobs have an especially adverse effect on their satisfaction with their work situation. For many employees it is also important to be able to uphold their personal principles and values at work. Employees are intrinsically motivated by stimulating job content and the autonomy to organise it as they see fit. Job satisfaction follows when these matters meet employees' expectations. A number of extrinsic motives such as financial reward, status and career advancement also contribute towards an employee's job satisfaction. From a certain perspective it is believed that these represent nothing more than visible, and often tangible, evidence of an employee's self-worth and value, and his or her ability to earn well. In other words, a substantial relationship is believed to exist between a worker's need for extrinsic modes of reward and the need for affirmation of achievement and power, which is often expressed more subtly.

### 3.2.2 Relationships between job satisfaction and corporate culture

Optimising the fit between company culture and the satisfaction of its employees is likely to enhance employees' service to customers, as well as their commitment and willingness to contribute to the company's success. Employee satisfaction is crucial for business success, especially considering that cultural differences have been found to account for ten percent of the variation in profitability between firms, and for 29% of the variance in productivity (Schofield, 1998).

Despite the long-standing debate between researchers around the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction (Sempane et al., 2002), and the view that a void appears to exist in the literature examining this link (Lund, 2003), some support for relationships between job satisfaction and certain dimensions of corporate culture has been found. Several of these dimensions are discussed in the section that follows. As mentioned before, these dimensions of corporate culture represent organisational aspects impacting on job satisfaction, alongside the personal and job-related aspects that were discussed in the previous section.

An organisation's culture may be regarded as consisting of a number of cultural dimensions or domains, such as a performance domain, human resources domain, decision-making domain, and relationships domain. As in the case of employee motivation, these domains extend from the thoroughly researched cultural dimensions discussed in Chapter 2. A company's concern for the amount and quality of work that gets done, and its encouragement of the creativity that accompanies the execution of tasks, for example, are indicative of its performance culture, as are aspects such as its customer and commercial orientation. The human resources cultural domain of the organisation is reflected by its policies and views regarding the value and treatment of employees, and its display of sincere concern, on various levels, for its employees. The decision-making culture of an organisation is displayed in large part by the formalisation of its structures and procedures, and by the nature of its participative management approach especially. The relationships culture is framed within the nature and strength of the lateral and vertical relations between its members, as well as by its communication effectiveness and the level of interpersonal cooperation experienced by employees.

An excessive performance emphasis by an organisation on the amount of work to be done by individual employees has a decreasing effect on their job satisfaction. This is the opinion of Agho et al. (1993), who found a distinct negative relationship between employee satisfaction and role overload, which they defined as 'the degree to which various role expectations exceed the amount of time and resources available for their accomplishment' (p.1012). Concurring findings came from Becherer et al. (1982) and Bhargava and Kelkar (2000). Employees carrying unrealistic workloads are not likely to experience adequate levels of satisfaction for any amount of time. The Agho et al. (1993) study was based on a large and demographically well-structured sample. It also involved the revision of the authors' earlier, comprehensive, and already sturdy causal model of job satisfaction in order to re-verify the link between job satisfaction and a number of personal, job-related and organisational variables posited by the earlier Price-Mueller model. Both of these aspects added weight to these findings.

Work quality concerns also impact on employee satisfaction. According to Cohen-Rosenthal and Cairnes (1991) and Putti and Kheun (1986), a strong relationship exists between job satisfaction and the culture dimension of standards in the workplace. The authors did not define 'standards' specifically, but from the context of the studies the term was purported to refer to an organisation's adherence to and enhancement of standards of quality in work output and the safety and security of staff and clients alike. The authors concluded that employees are happier working in an environment where they feel safe and secure, and where they are associated with work of a high standard.

Many employees, but especially those motivated by opportunity for creative and innovative activity, flourish in work environments where these activities are promoted. Previous research indicated that organisations that encourage and support their employees in the development and exploration of new ideas are more likely to have a more satisfied workforce than those that do not. From a sample in excess of 8 000 full-time government employees, Johnson and McIntye (1998) found that creativity/innovation registered a strong positive correlation with job satisfaction. In another similar investigation involving important elements of employee behaviour, notably job satisfaction, Odom, Boxx and Dunn (1990) found that an innovative culture enhanced not only job satisfaction, but also employee commitment to the organisation. This finding was supported by the significant positive correlation recorded by Coster (1992) between job satisfaction and employees feeling free to, and being encouraged to suggest new ideas regarding their work and the work arena. It appears, therefore, that workers are generally more satisfied with their work when it is framed in a culture of innovation and creativity.

A number of characteristics portray the organisation's human resources cultural domain. One such characteristic is its apparent concern for the people in its employ, which may be displayed through a supportive attitude towards employees, in a people-oriented, encouraging and trusting environment. To this extent, Agho et al. (1993) found especially supervisory support to be a strong contributor towards job satisfaction. Putti and Kheun (1986) found that an environment characterised by warmth and support was conducive to higher levels of job satisfaction among

employees. Ritter and Anker (2002) concurred that employer attitudes, particularly insofar as they embodied trust, open and honest relations with, and sincere concern for employees, were significant determinants of job satisfaction. Further confirmation that a supportive corporate culture enhances not only job satisfaction, but also employee commitment and group cohesion came from Odom et al. (1990) and from Van Vuuren (1990). Collectively these findings indicate that employees depend and thrive on the concern and support from those they work for, and share their working lives with.

Closely related to a culture of concern is a culture of non-discrimination between employees. An organisational characteristic that employees often place a high premium on, especially in a country like South Africa where issues surrounding democracy are high on labour agendas, is due regard for fairness and equal opportunities for all workers in especially areas such as recruitment, selection, assessment and career development. Organisations that have this aspect firmly entrenched in their cultural profile are therefore likely to ensure higher levels of satisfaction among their employees (Coetzee & Vermeulen, 2003; Ritter & Anker, 2002; Veeran & Katz, 2002). Visser et al. (1997) were able to support this notion through their work with a large group of South African marketing personnel of different demographic backgrounds. Their study, which employed an interesting triangulation approach that integrated the results of qualitative and quantitative measurements, showed that employees' perceived discrimination in the workplace had a significantly negative effect on their job satisfaction. Their study defined 'discrimination' as inequitable access to senior appointments, fringe benefits and career opportunities by various population groups. Assuming, on this basis, that there is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and a discriminative organisational culture, it poses the intriguing question as to whether the absence of such a culture would work higher levels of job satisfaction in hand.

The decision-making culture of an organisation also influences the job satisfaction of its members. The picture emerging from the literature on the relationship between job satisfaction and the degree of formalisation an organisation subscribes to, namely the extent to which its dominant approach to business operations is

bureaucratic and highly structured, and guided by elaborate sets of rules and regulations, was that a predominantly bureaucratic culture is not conducive to employee satisfaction, organisational commitment or to the general quality of working life (Du Preez, 2003; Goodman, Zammuto & Gifford, 2001; Lok & Crawford, 2001; Odom et al., 1990). McNeely (1983) held that the rationalistic conditions characteristic of a bureaucratic culture might be viewed as repressive and alienating, especially since hierarchical decision-making, which is a key feature of a bureaucracy, is likely to create feelings of powerlessness and resentment in those excluded from the process. This line of thought was supported by Visser et al. (1997) who added that a management style characterised by an autocratic and dictatorial approach suffocates employee individualism, and as such detracts from an employee's sense of satisfaction at work. Strydom and Meyer (2002) studied the attitudes and perceptions of middle-level managers towards several sources of job satisfaction and posited that work conditions, be they loose and informal, or highly structured and regulated, serve as powerful predictors of job satisfaction. They emphasised that it is unlikely that there would be a standard set of working conditions that would appeal to all employees in all spheres of working life. However, regardless of the particular preference of a specific employee in this regard, his or her level of job satisfaction is bound to be affected by the synergy or discrepancy between that preference and the degree of formalisation encountered at work.

The level of structural formalisation an organisation subscribes to is related to the extent to which its employees are involved in day-to-day decision-making. Research evidence indicated that increased job satisfaction follows from cultures that encourage and allow employees to participate in decision-making on various levels in the company. Mohrman, Lawler and Ledford (1996) applied a broad definition of employee involvement, which included all the organisational practices that move information, knowledge, power and rewards downward in the organisation, and found that such employee involvement had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction. Specific research findings in this regard included, for example, that job satisfaction was positively influenced by employees participating in the setting of job standards (Churchill, Ford & Walker, 1976; Elizur, 1990), by management involving

staff in decision-making (Du Preez, 2003; Maree, 2000), by employees having some degree of influence over their own jobs (Gunter & Furnham, 1996), and by employees assisting in problem solving (Cohen-Rosenthal & Cairnes, 1991). The positive relationship between job satisfaction and a participative management style was further confirmed by Packard (1989), Valoyi, Lessing and Schepers (2000), and by Visser et al. (1997). Job satisfaction was also found to register a strong positive correlation with the involvement of employees in decision-making (Johnson & McIntye, 1998; McNeely, 1983). People draw satisfaction from being involved in the decisions about matters that affect them. It may therefore be surmised that employees would favour organisations that follow a participative management approach, since work life represents an important and substantial part of the lives of many employees, where they need to be in a position to exercise an adequate amount of control to feel not only safe and secure, but also valued for the contribution they make towards the organisation's goals and success.

Relationships with superiors, subordinates and colleagues in the workplace have been identified as an important contributor towards employee satisfaction (Cohen-Rosenthal & Cairnes, 1991; Du Preez, 2003; Gunter & Furnham, 1996; McNeely, 1983; Ritter & Anker, 2002; Strydom & Meyer, 2002; Visser et al. 1997). The consensus among these authors was that job satisfaction is facilitated significantly by an organisational culture characterised by positive lateral and vertical relations between staff, and by effective and efficient interpersonal cooperation. Access to close friends in the immediate work unit increased the strength of the relationship (Agho et al., 1993). Having positive interpersonal relations with people at work aids the need for support from others that many people have, especially at work. This aspect of an organisation's cultural profile is unfortunately largely beyond management's control, unlike many other dimensions of corporate culture.

As with the discussion on the relationship between job satisfaction and aspects of a personal- and job-related nature, the studies reported on in the previous section adopted similar dominant research methodologies, in that the variable(s) being explored were correlated with the construct under investigation, namely employee motivation or job satisfaction. Only the study by Visser et al. (1997) deviated from

the almost standard approach that included correlation, and in some cases regression as principal method of analysis, by combining a qualitative and quantitative angle in their study. Where no specific mention was made thereof, the reader may accept that the author deemed the sample size, structure and nature of the study under discussion as adequate for generalisation of its findings, and therefore as suitable to guide the study at hand.

Overall, the literature supported the views of Putti and Kheun (1986) and Sempane, et al. (2002) that corporate culture is highly correlated with job satisfaction. Based on the clear relationship found between these variables, Sempane et al. (2002) stated that job satisfaction may be useful in the prediction of employee perceptions of corporate culture, since the extent of employees' satisfaction in the workplace influences the manner in which they perceive aspects of the organisation's culture.

Since research has found that the aspects that motivate employees are the same as those affecting their job satisfaction, it is reasonable to argue that employees would experience job satisfaction where the various aspects of the organisation's culture, as discussed in the section above, are in harmony with their individual motivation profiles, and that the relationship between employee motivation and corporate culture would be established in this manner. This line of reasoning is reinforced by the fact that theories of job satisfaction involve motivational and emotional components (Beck, 1983), which underscores the interrelatedness between aspects impacting job satisfaction, and those impacting employee motivation. Against the background of the previous discussion, one might expect employees to seek out and retain their employment with certain employers based on, at least to some degree, the extent to which certain cultural dimensions of the organisation that are important to them, complement their own profile of motives and needs. It could, for example, be surmised that people strongly motivated by authority, scope for responsibility and ample opportunity to influence the work of others might be extremely demotivated in an organisation where authority and decision-making were centralised and limited to only a few people in the top echelons of the business. Similarly, it could be expected that employees with a high need for affiliation would thrive in an organisation with a

highly people-oriented culture, characterised by warm and supportive interpersonal relations between those who make up the organisation.

The previous section covered the results and opinions of researchers who have explored the effects of certain aspects of an organisation's cultural profile on the satisfaction experienced by its employees. Positive relationships were found in the performance, human resources, decision-making and relationships domains of corporate culture. With regard to an organisation's perspective on work performance, research evidence indicated that employee satisfaction tends to be positively affected by an organisation where unreasonable demands are not made in terms of the amount of work the available employees are required to perform, and where effective measures are put in place to ensure high standards of quality and safety. Cultures where creativity and innovation are encouraged and rewarded are likely to elevate all-round job satisfaction too. A company's human resource policies and procedures have been found to have a direct effect on employee satisfaction, for example, the extent to which concern for employees is shown in the form of a supportive attitude towards them, in both their personal and work capacity, and by the way the company makes equal opportunities of all kinds accessible to all employees, bears a strong positive relationship with job satisfaction. People enjoy and appreciate being included in decisions, especially those that affect them directly in one way or another. Where companies have encouraged and allowed their staff to contribute towards everyday decisions and planning, a sizeable positive job satisfaction correlate was observed. This aspect is very closely tied to the degree of formalisation displayed in an organisation's operational approach, and numerous reports have indicated that a predominantly bureaucratic culture has a detrimental effect on employee satisfaction. This finding underscores the notion that employees are more satisfied in a work environment where they enjoy more freedom in performing their tasks, and are not overly restricted by bureaucratic policies and procedures, through the encouragement of innovation and creativity. Support was found for the notion that employees, being generally socially oriented by nature, perceive the quality of their work life as more satisfactory when it is characterised by warm and supportive interpersonal relations with superiors, subordinates, colleagues and clients. Whereas most other dimensions of corporate culture are to a greater or

lesser degree under the organisation's control, the nature and quality of the multi-directional relations between those who make up the organisation is unfortunately not. Although not an easy feat, it is in the organisation's interest to ensure, as far as possible, an optimal fit between the job satisfaction of its employees and other dimensions of its culture profile, so that the relations domain in the company may benefit from the elevated job satisfaction levels resulting from the other positively received cultural elements.

### 3.2.3 The three-way relationship between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture

The literature discussed in the preceding section pointed towards a number of relationships found between several personal, job-related and organisational variables and employee motivation on the one hand, and job satisfaction on the other hand. It appears that many parallels between the constructs of employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture may be drawn based on these relationships. For example, it was found that a need for achievement bore a strong positive relationship with an employee's job satisfaction, and that a significant relationship existed between employees' job satisfaction and an organisation's performance culture. In the same vein, parallels may be drawn between a person's need for affiliation and the organisation's interpersonal relations culture, and between an employee's need for flexibility and autonomy in his or her task execution and the extent to which the organisation's operations structure and decision-making approach facilitate job satisfaction on this issue. It was consequently concluded, as several authors also pointed out, that personal, job-related and corporate culture variables exert a similar influence on employee motivation and job satisfaction, and that, in this fashion, a three-way relationship between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture is evident.

The present study investigated the relationships of job satisfaction with the dimensions of employee motivation (energy and dynamism, synergy, extrinsic and intrinsic motives) and the domains of corporate culture (performance, human resources, decision-making and relationships). The relationships between the

dimensions of employee motivation and the domains of corporate culture were also investigated.

## 3.3 Chapter summary

The literature review discussed in this chapter has shown that employees' demographic descriptors and their personal motivation profiles are related to the way they experience and perceive their jobs and their organisational environment, and therefore ultimately to their level of job satisfaction. Parallels were evident between the effects that several demographic descriptors, such as age, gender, job tenure, education level and seniority, have on employees' motivation and job satisfaction, and on their perception of the prevailing corporate culture. The second part of the chapter elaborated on the three-way relationship between employee motivation, job satisfaction and the employing organisation's culture. These learnings provide valuable insights to the field of organisation psychology, from where organisational practice takes considerable lead.

Chapter 4 describes the methodology employed to explore the role of demographic variables and the above-mentioned relationships between the constructs of employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture.

# CHAPTER 4

# RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

From the theoretical background covered in Chapter 2, and the research literature on the constructs of employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture, which was discussed in Chapter 3, it was deduced that a relationship between these constructs existed. This study therefore aimed to explore the three-way relationship between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture. This was done by investigating the relationship between job satisfaction and dimensions of employee motivation, between job satisfaction and domains of corporate culture, and between dimensions of employee motivation and domains of corporate culture. In addition, the study investigated the relationships of employee motivation and job satisfaction with the demographic variables discussed in the previous chapter, namely age, gender, job tenure, education level and seniority, since these variables were indicated as impacting on the constructs under investigation. The procedure followed in conducting the research is described in this chapter.

## 4.1 Research design

Although considerations surrounding convenience, timing and cost also influenced the decision regarding the choice of methodology, a quantitative research design was deemed appropriate, primarily because of the descriptive nature of the project. It allowed for the precise and objective measurement of the dimensions of the constructs of employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture, as experienced by the respondents. The study was guided by a general aim statement that was based on the theory and literature survey, and set at the conceptualisation of the project. This was considered preferable to citing an extensive list of hypotheses detailing each of the many expected relationships, as these would be discussed in detail with the findings of the study. Given the particular circumstances, notably the limited time available due to the data having been collected during work hours, the survey research technique was selected. In this way a substantial amount of data could be obtained from a large number of employees in a relatively short

period of time. It allowed for three measuring instruments to be administered in a single data collection session.

### 4.1.1 Research aims

The present study investigated the relationships of job satisfaction with the dimensions of employee motivation (energy and dynamism, synergy, extrinsic and intrinsic motives) and the domains of corporate culture (performance, human resources, decision-making and relationships). The relationships between the dimensions of employee motivation and the domains of corporate culture were also explored. In addition, the relationships between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture and the demographic variables of age, gender, tenure, education level and seniority were also investigated.

### 4.1.2 Sample

The sample was extracted from the staff establishment of a marketing research company, and consisted of 118 employees across top and middle management, as well as general staff levels. The sample was segmented by five demographic categories, namely age, gender, job tenure, education level and seniority.

### 4.1.3 Measurement instruments

Three instruments were applied to measure the constructs concerned. These included the Motivation Questionnaire (MQ) which measured the dimensions of employee motivation, the Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire (WLQ) which assessed the job satisfaction of the sample, and the Corporate Culture Questionnaire (CCQ Lite) which provided an assessment of the perceived culture of the organisation. The WLQ was developed by the Human Sciences Research Council and the MQ and CCQ Lite by SHL.

## 4.2 Sampling and sample structure

### 4.2.1 Sampling

The sample consisted of 87% (N = 118) of the permanent staff complement of a prominent marketing research company with several branches in South Africa. Participation was voluntary, although a letter from the Managing Director that encouraged employees to partake in the study, and ensured confidentiality of their responses, assisted in securing the sizeable sample. A convenience sample was used, as it was conveniently accessible through the permission granted by the management of the company, and not specifically designed or structured for the research project. A convenience or opportunity sample is most often used in qualitative research, as it represents a non-probability sampling technique. Probability sampling, i.e. sampling based on mathematical probability theory, is preferable in quantitative studies, such as the study at hand. However, considerations relating to time and cost especially, prohibited use of such sampling techniques. As can be seen from the sample structure below, all levels of staff in the company participated in the study, i.e. from the most junior, to the most senior. Since the sample is also made up of almost the entire company, it also includes employees from all functional units in the company. As with research in general, the marketing research process follows a universal routine, and organisational structures and processes are set up to optimise this process. Due to the universal nature of the core business of marketing research companies, these structures and procedures were assumed to be similar. Since the sample was one of convenience, and not formally structured based on the overall structure of the marketing research industry in general, the assumption was made that most marketing research organisations would apply similar business and structural operations, due to the similar nature of their work. It was therefore accepted that the convenience sample upon which the study was based, would be adequately representative of the marketing research industry in South Africa.

### 4.2.2 Sample structure

The sample size and structure are shown in the tables below. The total sample consisted of 118 employees.

The age distribution of the sample is presented in Table 4.1. Respondents' age was recorded as completed years, with partially completed years rounded off to the next year. The majority of employees were between 20 and 30 years old, and a very small group 41 or older.

**Table 4.1: Age distribution**

| Age group | n |
|---|---|
| 20 – 30 years | 69 |
| 31 – 40 years | 35 |
| 41 or older | 14 |
| Missing responses | - |
| N | 118 |

The gender distribution is presented in Table 4.2. There was an almost equal distribution of men and women in the sample, with females numbering slightly more than males.

**Table 4.2: Gender distribution**

| Gender | n |
|---|---|
| Male | 55 |
| Female | 63 |
| Missing responses | - |
| N | 118 |

The job tenure distribution is presented in Table 4.3. Job tenure represents the period of service personnel have had with the host company at the time of the collection of the data. All periods of service were recorded as completed years, with partially completed years exceeding six months rounded off to the next year. There was a fairly equal distribution of employees among the various categories of tenure, except for the majority, who had between three and five years of service, and those who had more than 10 years of service, who were in the minority.

**Table 4.3: Job tenure distribution**

| Years of service / Job tenure | n |
|---|---|
| Less than 1 year | 29 |
| 1 – 2 years | 20 |
| 3 – 5 years | 36 |
| 6 – 10 years | 22 |
| More than 10 years | 10 |
| Missing responses | 1 |
| N | 118 |

The education level distribution is presented in Table 4.4. Most employees had a college or technikon qualification. Similar sized groups had a high school qualification, and B- and postgraduate degrees.

**Table 4.4: Education level distribution**

| Level of education | n |
|---|---|
| High school | 24 |
| College / Technikon | 43 |
| University - B Degree | 21 |
| University - Post graduate degree | 28 |
| Missing responses | 2 |
| N | 118 |

The seniority distribution is presented in Table 4.5. The seniority levels were defined as follows:

- Senior management: Chief Executive Officer, Managing Director and Executive Directors.
- Middle management: Line Managers, Key Account Managers, and staff functioning in a relatively senior capacity on an individual basis in their particular functional units.
- Staff: All other staff.

Senior and middle management represented eight and 23% of the staff complement respectively, with the general staff making up the rest.

**Table 4.5: Seniority distribution**

| Seniority | n |
|---|---|
| Senior management | 9 |
| Middle management | 27 |
| Staff | 82 |
| Missing responses | - |
| N | 118 |

## 4.3 Measurement instruments

The section that follows provides an overview of the development and properties of the MQ, CCQ and WLQ that were used to collect the research data (Baron et al., 2002; Davies et al., 2000; Van Zyl & Van Der Walt, 1991).

### 4.3.1 The Motivation Questionnaire (MQ)

The Motivation Questionaire (MQ) used in the assessment of employee motivation was first developed in the United Kingdom by SHL during the 1980s, and was fully revised in 2002. It is concerned with the assessment of individual differences in the factors that energise, direct and sustain behaviour in the workplace. Its model is based on an extensive review of psychological and management literature, from which 32 initial constructs were extracted to initiate item development. Items were written as short, job-related statements, and a normative format was selected over an ipsative format, in order to provide more in-depth respondent information. Four field trials, involving 1 400 people from different organisational backgrounds and levels, were conducted before the final questionnaire was produced. Factor analyses were applied after Trail 3 to optimise the questionnaire structure. This reduced the number of scales from 26 to 18, and the number of items from 266 to 144. The four second-order factors (Energy, Synergy, Intrinsic and Extrinsic) that provided the final framework of the questionnaire explained 61% of the response variance. More than 700 respondents participated in the standardisation and validation of the questionnaire. Several norm groups have been used in the design and development of the instrument. The General Population norm group (N = 651), extracted from the general British population, was selected as reference basis for the

study. The structure of the General Population sample group is contained in Annexure A. It covers a wide range of demographic categories, namely job level, industry sector, gender, ethnic origin, age and education level of both unemployed and economically active people. The MQ is appropriate for the study at hand, as it was designed primarily for use with managerial, sales, professional, technical, supervisory and graduate trainee jobs, and other similar groups in the assessment of employee motivation in the workplace. The sample of the present study included most of these categories of staff. The instrument is easy to use, and it is modern and versatile in that it covers a wide range of applications on individual, job and organisational level.

The MQ applies the Likert response scale listed below. It includes eight items per scale, totaling 144 items that are completed on custom-designed, computer-read answer sheets. Responses are recorded according to the following five-point scale, the raw score range of which is 8 – 40. The raw score range has been transformed into a sten scale. The lowest possible score per item in a scale indicates that the particular scale does not hold considerable motivation value for the individual, and may even reduce his or her level of motivation. On the other end, the highest possible score indicates that the particular scale holds considerable motivation value for the individual. Where items loaded negatively, as indicated in the description of the scales below, reverse scoring was applied.

1 = Greatly reduces my motivation to work
2 = Tends to reduce my motivation to work
3 = Has no effect on my motivation to work
4 = Tends to increase my motivation to work
5 = Greatly increases my motivation to work

The dimensions and scales of employee motivation assessed by the MQ include the following.

Energy and dynamism (56 items)

Level of activity (E1)

The extent to which people are motivated by having to work under pressure, cope with multiple demands, and accomplish a great deal within a rapid time frame.

Typical positive loading item: “Being required to do several things at once”.

Typical negative loading item: “Being able to take my time over jobs”.

Achievement (E2)

The extent to which people are motivated by being given challenging targets, and by the feeling that their abilities are stretched.

Typical positive loading item: “Having a job that challenges my abilities”.

Typical negative loading item: “Having no targets to meet”.

Competition (E3)

The extent to which people are motivated by the impact of working in a competitive environment.

Typical positive loading item: “Knowing if I work hard I can be the best in the department”.

Typical negative loading item: “The lack of any competition in the organisation”.

Fear of failure (E4)

The extent to which people are motivated by the need to avoid failure, criticism and negative judgements by others, and the loss of self-esteem which is likely to accompany these experiences.

Typical positive loading item: “Fear of being seen to fall down on the job”.

Typical negative loading item: None.

Power (E5)

The extent to which people are motivated by the opportunities for exercising authority, taking responsibility, negotiating and being in a position to influence others.

Typical positive loading item: “Having to decide about another employee’s future”.

Typical negative loading item: “Not directing the work of others”.

Immersion (E6)

The extent to which people are motivated by work that requires commitment way beyond ‘normal’ working hours.

Typical positive loading item: “Having to take work home”.

Typical negative loading item: “Being able to forget about work once I leave the office”.

Commercial outlook (E7)

The extent to which people are commercially or profit-orientated.

Typical positive loading item: “Working for a profit-making organisation”.

Typical negative loading item: “A lack of emphasis on commercial success in the organisation”.

Synergy (40 items)

Affiliation (S1)

The extent to which people are motivated by opportunities for interaction with other people in their work.

Typical positive loading item: “An emphasis on teamwork on the job”.

Typical negative loading item: “Having little contact with colleagues”.

Recognition (S2)

The extent to which people are motivated by praise and other outward signs of recognition for their achievements.

Typical positive loading item: “Being congratulated on a job well done”.

Typical negative loading item: “My boss making no comment on my work”.

Personal principles (S3)

The extent to which people need to be able to uphold ideals and conform to high ethical and quality standards.

Typical positive loading item: “Knowing that what the organisation does is ethically correct”.

Typical negative loading item: “Knowing that the organisation does things that are detrimental to society”.

Ease and security (S4)

The extent to which people are motivated by contextual factors, such as pleasant working conditions and job security.

Typical positive loading item: “Having a secure position in the company”.

Typical negative loading item: “Working in uncomfortable conditions”.

Personal growth (S5)

The extent to which people are motivated by opportunities for further training and development and the acquisition of new skills.

Typical positive loading item: “Having to learn a new skill”.

Typical negative loading item: “Not having anyone in the company that I can learn from”.

Intrinsic motivation (24 items)

Interest (I1)

The extent to which people are motivated by jobs that provide them with variety, interest and stimulation.

Typical positive loading item: “Working where there is always something of interest going on”.

Typical negative loading item: “Never having any complex problems to get absorbed in”.

Flexibility (I2)

The extent to which people are motivated by the absence of clearly defined structures and procedures for managing tasks.

Typical positive loading item: “Working in a fluid, unstructured environment”.

Typical negative loading item: “Having clear rules and systems for doing tasks”.

Autonomy (I3)

The extent to which people are motivated by being given scope for organizing their work as they see fit.

Typical positive loading item: “Being free to organise my own work”.

Typical negative loading item: “Being closely supervised in the job”.

Extrinsic motivation (24 items)

Material reward (X1)

The extent to which people are motivated by financial reward.

Typical positive loading item: “Being able to earn more money by working harder”.

Typical negative loading item: “Being in a low paid job”.

Progression (X2)

The extent to which people are motivated by having good promotion prospects.

Typical positive loading item: “Having good prospects for advancement”.

Typical negative loading item: “Not advancing in the company”.

Status (X3)

The extent to which people are motivated by outward signs of position and status and due regard for rank.

Typical positive loading item: “Having a job title that reflects my status in the company”.

Typical negative loading item: “Not getting facilities commensurate with my position”.

Internal consistency reliability has been used to estimate the reliability of the questionnaire, as it is recognised as a stringent test in this regard. Optimum alpha coefficients for a measure such as the MQ should range from 0.6 to 0.8 (Baron et al., 2002). Cronbach alpha coefficients of between 0.47 and 0.83 for the different MQ scales have been obtained for the General Population sample (N = 651), the psychometric properties of which were used as comparative and normative basis for the present study. Internal consistency reliabilities for the General Population sample are listed in Annexure A.

Sound validation data for the MQ has been collected via 13 comparative studies between MQ profiles and other instruments such as the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT). Several criterion studies were also conducted to confirm the validity of the MQ (Baron et al., 2002). These studies, which are described in detail in the questionnaire manual, have found evidence for the following forms of validity:

- Faith validity, or the blind faith that the MQ is valid
- Face validity, or the appearance that the MQ measures what it is designed to measure
- Content validity, or the representativeness of the items of the MQ of the domain to be measured, namely employee motivation
- Criterion-related validity, or the relationship between the scores obtained through the MQ and the performance on a given criterion
- Construct validity, or the extent to which the MQ measures the theoretical construct of employee motivation.

South African validation data was being collected at the time the study was conducted.

### 4.3.2 The Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire (WLQ)

The Experience Of Work And Life Circumstances Questionnaire (WLQ) was developed in South Africa and released in 1991 by the HSRC, with an aim to assess the level and causes of stress of an individual inside and outside of the workplace. It has been standardised for South African audiences whose reading and writing abilities are at least on a Grade 10 level. The experimental questionnaire, which contained 165 items, was administered to 270 respondents from a variety of demographic backgrounds. Item analysis, which excluded items with a discrimination value lower than 0,3, reduced the questionnaire to 115 items. A description of the standardisation sample (N = 651) is contained in Annexure B. It covers the demographic categories of home language, gender, educational qualification and age.

The questionnaire is based on the rationale that an employee with a high score on the relevant questionnaire items experiences a high level of stress. A high level of stress could mean that the employee experiences problems arising from the environment, which could lead to a reduced level of job satisfaction, in the case of stress emanating from work-related issues.

The WLQ format is normative, and consists of two parts, namely Experience of Work, and Circumstances and Expectations. The first part of the questionnaire (Experience of Work) assesses the respondent's actual general stress level, which is most often used for diagnostic and counseling purposes. Although the complete instrument was administered to the respondents, only the second part thereof (Circumstances and Expectations) was applied in the analysis, since the study was not concerned with the measurement of employees' general stress levels.

The Circumstances and Expectations section of the questionnaire consists of a total of 76 items. The Circumstances section includes 23 items and distinguishes between circumstances that could possibly cause stress within the work situation (seven items) and outside of the work situation (16 items). The latter part covers issues such as family problems, personal finance and health, which were irrelevant to, and therefore not used in the study. The Expectations section comprises 53 items, all of which deals with the extent to which expectations in the work situation are perceived to be fulfilled.

The following five-point response scale is used throughout the questionnaire, and records the frequency of respondent perceptions on the relevant issues:

1 = Virtually never
2 = Sometimes
3 = Reasonably often
4 = Very often
5 = Virtually always

Each section or scale applies a different raw score range, as indicated below. Each scale was interpreted according to specific interpretation guidelines provided by the

questionnaire developers. These are included in the description of each scale below.

**Circumstances and expectations**

The questions in this part of the questionnaire assesses the causes of a person's stress, from both a prevailing circumstances and expectations point of view. With regard to circumstances that could cause stress in the work situation, high scores indicated problematic cases. Seven items covered the following areas:

- Functioning of the organisation
- Characteristics of the task(s) to be performed
- Physical working conditions and job equipment
- Social and career matters
- Remuneration, fringe benefits and personnel policy

Expectations of the work situation is covered by 53 items, spread over a number of subdivisions, that measure the extent to which an individual's expectations of his work situation are fulfilled. Expectations are categorised in the same fashion as for the work situation listed above. Unlike the items in the preceding parts of the questionnaire, these questions are formulated in reverse, i.e. low scores indicate that the respondent has a problem with the expectation under scrutiny.

Organisational functioning (7 items)
Expectations regarding participation in decision-making, trust in supervisors, effective organisational structure, positive management climate, recognition of performance, and open communication channels with supervisors are measured in this section. Scores in this section could range from 2 – 11 (very high), to 12 – 16 (high), to 17 – 34 (normal).

Characteristics of task(s) to be performed (14 items)
This section includes expectations regarding getting the work done on time, having sufficient knowledge and information available to do the job, taking full responsibility for part of the work, applying new ideas, autonomy in post, not receiving

contradictory instructions, not having to function under unnecessary time pressures, work load and having enough work to stay busy, and diversity in the job. Also covered are other potential stressors, such as participation in tasks that will not by their nature create conflict or strain interpersonal relationships, subject the respondent to tough or uncomfortable physical demands, endanger his own or other people's lives, negatively affect the respondent's life, and demand continued intense concentration. Scores in this section could range from 9 – 34 (very high), to 35 – 40 (high), to 41 – 69 (normal).

Physical working conditions and job equipment (7 items)
This part covers expectations regarding the availability and good working condition of job equipment, and working in a physically adequate environment (e.g. good lighting, seating, etc). Scores in this section could range from 2 – 13 (very high), to 14 – 18 (high), to 19 – 34 (normal).

Career opportunities (8 items)
Expectations regarding further training, use of talents, work progress, and job security are assessed in this section of the questionnaire. Scores in this section could range from 3 – 16 (very high), to 17 – 21 (high), to 22 – 39 (normal).

Social matters (7 items)
Expectations regarding job status, positive relations with supervisors and colleagues, and reasonable social demands are measured. Scores in this section could range from 2 – 16 (very high), to 17 – 20 (high), to 21 – 34 (normal).

Remuneration, fringe benefits and personnel policy (10 items)
This section measures expectations regarding adequate remuneration and fringe benefits, as well as working under a just personnel policy. Scores in this section could range from 0 – 17 (very high), to 18 – 22 (high), to 23 – 48 (normal).

Kuder-Richardson 8 internal consistency reliability coefficients of the different fields of the WLQ were found to range from 0.83 to 0.92, and test-retest reliability coefficients varied from 0.62 to 0.80. The WLQ has also been found to compare

favourably with the 16PF Questionnaire in this regard. The Kuder-Richardson 8 and Test-retest reliability coefficients are presented in Annexure B.

Both face validity and content validity are indications of content validity (Van Zyl & Van der Walt, 1991). Since the WLQ was developed according to a theoretical model, and evaluated by a panel of experts, the authors assumed it to have face validity. The questionnaire is also purported to have logical validity, since it was based on a careful behavioural definition of its underlying construct, namely stress. In addition, this construct has been analysed into the various parts that it represents, and the questionnaire items have been determined to have adequate discrimination value. The construct validity of the WLQ is based on a fairly significant correlation found between its different scales (intratest validity method) and its adequate correlation with the 16PF, PHSF (Personal, Home, Social and Formal Relations Questionnaire) and the Questionnaire on the Reaction to Demands in Life. These correlations are shown in Annexure B.

### 4.3.3 The Corporate Culture Lite Questionnaire (CCQ)

The Corporate Culture Questionnaire (CCQ) was developed by SHL over the course of several years during the 1990s. It represents an assessment instrument that:

- ensures a wide coverage of key features of corporate culture that are easily understood and applied;
- incorporates features of corporate culture that are important to management practices;
- permits the derivation of continuous scores of corporate culture, rather than placing organisations in absolute / separate categories.

The conceptual framework of the questionnaire was built on considerable consultation of theoretical and management literature from many overlapping perspectives in the field of corporate culture. An integrative model comprising four principal domains and 21 scales of corporate culture was derived through six trials involving 397 respondents in the United Kingdom, as well as a series of extensive item and statistical analyses. Factor analysis reduced the questionnaire to 126

items across 21 scales, with six items per scale. The present study utilised a shortened version of the CCQ, namely the CCQ Lite, which consisted of 23 culture scales comprising three items each. A manual detailing information on the CCQ Lite was being developed at the time of publishing the results of the present study, based on a similar process followed in the development of the original CCQ.

The CCQ Lite was based on a model that recognised 23 major cultural dimensions, which were categorised along four principal domains of culture. Each of these comprised between five and seven scales, each containing three items. The raw score range is 3 – 15. The lowest possible score indicated strong disagreement with the particular dimension of corporate culture, and the highest score indicated strong agreement on the issue. Scores in between indicated disagreement, uncertainty or non-applicability, or agreement. The questionnaire included 69 questions, answered according to the following five-point response scale:

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Unsure or not applicable
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly agree

The following domains and scales of corporate culture are measured by the questionnaire.

Performance domain

Concern for quantity (P1)

In organisations scoring highly on this scale there is a strong emphasis on the amount of work done. Productivity is likely to be a key issue, and people are expected to carry heavy workloads. Organisations with extremely high levels of concern for quantity may find that the quality of work may suffer and/or that this extreme emphasis on industriousness produces resentment from the workforce. In low scoring organisations, targets or output levels may take second place to other

priorities, such as restricting the market availability of a product or service, or adherence to safety standards.

Concern for quality (P2)

High scoring organisations have a strong commitment to the achievement of high standards. A thorough, meticulous, precise and accurate approach to work is valued. Organisations with cultures reflecting extremely high levels of concern for quality may find that there is an associated cost in terms of the amount of work done or in failing to meet deadlines. Alternatively, over-emphasis on quality may degenerate into obsessional myopic perfectionism. Low scores on this scale may indicate that attention to detail in the delivery of products or services is not valued, and that quality awareness is below that in other organisations.

Use of new equipment ((P3)

In high scoring organisations up to date equipment is available when needed and full advantage is taken of recent developments in techniques and technology. Organisations with extremely high scores on this scale may be technology driven rather than technology supported. In other words, technology has become the end rather than the means. Low scoring organisations may not be alert to opportunities represented by new developments in equipment, tools or machinery. Alternatively, despite awareness of new possibilities, they may remain committed to the use of traditional skills or craftsmanship in preference to automation or mechanisation.

Encouragement of creativity (P4)

This dimension concerns the extent of encouragement and support given to employees for the development and exploration of new ideas. Organisations scoring highly on this dimension place a strong value on innovation in working practices, products or services. There may sometimes be a certain degree of antipathy towards traditional practices. Extremely high levels of creativity may be associated with levels of risk that exceed those acceptable in other organisations. Organisations with low scores on this scale do not value innovation and probably do not provide support for ingenuity and originality. Indeed, the development of new ideas may be actively

discouraged. Alternatively the operating environment may be such that high levels of employee creativity would not necessarily be advantageous or progressive.

Customer orientation (P5)

In high scoring organisations people recognize the requirement to put the customer first, and customer service is treated very seriously. Customer service is important throughout the organisation and, in some cases, steps may be taken to anticipate or even create customer demands. Extremely high scores on this scale may indicate that concern to meet customers' needs sometimes overrides attention to operational efficiency. Organisations with low scores on this dimension may be remote from their clients or customers and insensitive to, or unaware of, their needs or changes in those needs.

Commercial orientation (P6)

This scale seeks to address more directly the extent to which organisations focus solely on activities that benefit the bottom line. In high scoring organisations profitability and return on capital are likely to be key performance indicators. People may feel that the organisation will do anything to gain profit, and will demand close attention to the costs involved in taking on any activity. In extremely high scoring organisations there may be a degree of ruthlessness in achieving financial gain or cost reduction, leading at times to a short-term-profit-now perception. In low scoring organisations much activity may occur that is not justified in terms of its impact on the organisation's financial standing.

Human resources domain

Concern for employees (H1)

In high scoring organisations the employer is seen as considerate and employees feel that management is concerned about employees' welfare, and there is support for people when they have problems. High scoring organisations may find that this aspect of their culture interferes with their effectiveness, either through an excessive focus on human-centred aspects of decisions, or through an organisational reluctance to confront difficult human resource decisions. Employees may

sometimes feel ‘smothered’ by the high scoring organisation. Low scores indicate that employees are viewed primarily as ‘cogs in the machine’, rather than as individuals to be valued in their own right.

Job involvement (H2)

People feel enthusiastic about their jobs and are motivated to work well in organisations that score highly on this scale. They strive to improve their work and want to perform at their best. Because they actively enjoy their work, find it interesting or stimulating, people are willing to make special efforts in their job. Extremely high scores may indicate that routine or boring tasks are sometimes overlooked. Low scores may be indicative of poorly motivated staff, who find their work unrewarding and who are reluctant to invest extra energy in carrying out their jobs.

Concern for career development (H3)

This scale concerns the extent of an organisation’s commitment to the training and development of its employees. In high scoring organisations this commitment is substantial, training is highly valued, and career development within the organisation is treated seriously. Organisations with extremely high scores may fail to recruit appropriate skills from outside, or may provide excessive training, beyond that which is required for effective performance. Alternatively, they may increase employee expectations beyond their capacity to meet them. Low scoring organisations invest little in training, and their employees may feel that career paths or opportunities for progression are poorly defined.

Emphasis on performance-related rewards (H4)

In high scoring organisations people receive recognition for their achievements and high levels of performance are rewarded in terms of pay or promotions. The organisation is genuinely meritocratic. Organisations with extremely high scores might have difficulties in establishing targets that are perceived as fair, and in accurately assessing individual performance. Some individuals in those organisations may feel that their effort is not appropriately rewarded, since there is an over-emphasis on results/outputs and insufficient regard for effort/input. In low

scoring organisations good performers could feel frustrated or resentful that their rewards are undifferentiated from poorer performers.

Concern for equal opportunities (H5)

High scoring organisations are seen as providing equal opportunities in the areas of recruitment, selection, assessment and career development. Policies and practices are seen as equally fair to all groups of people. Moderately high scores could be indicative of complacency rather than an active equal opportunities policy. Where there has been a recent equal opportunities initiative, scores may be lowered if some of the majority group feel threatened by the loss of their previous advantages. In low scoring organisations some groups are seen as unfairly disadvantaged, through either overt sexism and racism or a failure to take proactive steps to counter inequality of opportunity.

Decision-making domain

Degree of formalisation (D1)

High scoring organisations are likely to be very bureaucratic and structured with clear sets of rules and regulations. In extremely high scoring organisations a surfeit of formalisation may lead to inflexibility and inefficiency and the degree of conformity required may stifle individualism to an excessive degree. Low scores on this scale may indicate a lack of structure and rules, such that people are unclear about what is expected of them. Alternatively, low scores may reflect a positive emphasis on procedural flexibility and individual adaptability to meet the needs of a situation.

Employee influence on decisions (D2)

Organisations scoring highly on this dimension are those in which employees have considerable autonomy and discretion in decision-making. Management in high scoring organisations encourages employees to work independently without close supervision. Authority and responsibility may be highly devolved and employees actively participate in decisions about tasks or projects. Extremely high scores on this scale may be associated with disorder and disorganisation resulting from an absence of central control, guidance and coordination. In low scoring organisations

decision-making is highly centralised and handled directively, without widespread participation.

Decision-making effectiveness (D3)

This scale describes the extent to which routine decisions are made effectively and efficiently. In high scoring organisations appropriate decisions (either rational or intuitive) are made with due speed, rather than delayed. The outcomes of decision-making are likely to be of high quality. People ensure that before making a decision they have ascertained the necessary facts and information and/or have consulted appropriately to gather views and opinions from relevant personnel. In low scoring organisations decision quality is likely to be poor, with little consultation and/or characterised by excessive caution, inconsistency or delay.

Concern for the longer term (D4)

This scale assesses the organisation's commitment to planning ahead. High scores indicate a positive commitment to anticipating future demands, constraints and possibilities. People look beyond the immediate future in formulating decisions, in order to balance long-term requirements with short-term needs. Forecasting may be regarded as a key activity throughout the organisation and longer-term thinking is explicitly valued. In organisations with extremely high scores there may be an excessive focus on strategic issues to the detriment of immediate operational realities. Low scoring organisations tend to be reactive in style, concerned with the 'here and now' and immediate 'fire fighting'.

Rate of change (D5)

This scale concerns the pace of change in the organisation. High scores indicate an organisation where things are changing very rapidly. Restructuring and reorganisation may be common. Whilst this may be an appropriate response to a dynamic, rapidly changing external environment or marketplace, extremely high scores could be associated with the risk of producing confusion, inefficiency and demoralisation amongst employees. Very rapid change is not always appropriate. Low scores on this scale point to an organisational environment where change is the

exception rather than the rule. There may be a reluctance to embrace new methods or approaches and resistance to the introduction of improved systems or structures.

Environmental concern (D6)

High scores on this scale point to a strong commitment to ecological issues. The importance of behaving with consideration for the environment is widely recognised, and decisions are taken with an eye to their environmental impact. Products are designed or manufactured in an 'environment friendly' manner, waste material is recycled wherever possible, and/or processes that may pollute the environment are avoided. Organisations with extremely high scores may have difficulty balancing their 'green' concerns with commercial or other operational demands. Low scoring organisations are likely to pay only little attention to issues of conservation, pollution and environmental protection.

Concern for safety (D7)

This scale focuses on the attention paid to safety, both of customers and the workforce. High scoring organisations ensure that safety is high on everyone's agenda and that any risk factor within normal working situations is minimized. Extremely high scoring organisations may find limitations to their operating efficiency are encountered in trying to ensure that all of the safety angles are covered. Low scoring organisations may pay little attention to safety and risk factors, potentially storing up disaster in the long term.

Relationships domain

Vertical relations between groups (C1)

The scale concerns the quality of relationships between different hierarchic levels in an organisation. Organisations with high scores are likely to have good relationships between management and other staff. There are relatively few destructive conflicts, and there is less likely to be hostility or suspicion between management and other staff than in most organisations. Extremely high scores in some cases may be a manifestation of conflict avoidance or suppression. In low scoring organisations

conflict is endemic with relationships between management and other groups being marked by damaging discord or antagonism.

Lateral relations between groups (C2)

This scale concerns the quality of relationships between groups (rather than individuals) at the same level of an organisation. In high scoring organisations sections or departments cooperate rather than compete with each other. Potential inter-divisional conflict or rivalry is addressed, and departments collaborate effectively together towards the achievement of the organisation's goals. Organisations with extremely high scores should bear in mind that some controlled intergroup competition may enhance organisational effectiveness. In low scoring organisations there is likely to be a harmful sense of hostility between groups or sections. People will often be destructively critical of other departments and blame them for deficiencies within the organisation.

Interpersonal cooperation (C3)

This scale covers the effectiveness with which individual employees work together. In high scoring organisations individuals work together constructively. Conflicts are resolved without great difficulty and interpersonal relations are relatively harmonious. At an extreme, this type of work environment may limit organisational effectiveness by minimizing productive debate and the free expression of ideas and opinions. Low scoring organisations have little interpersonal cooperation, and work requiring collaboration between individuals may be ineffectively performed.

Communication effectiveness (C4)

This dimension covers both vertical and horizontal communications. People ensure that others are kept up to date and information is widely shared. Channels of communication are open, clear end direct, and the information provided is relevant, specific and timely. Extremely high scores may be associated with information overload, and/or inadequate attention to other organisational priorities. Low scores on this scale may reflect either deliberate withholding of information, or merely inadequacy in this regard. In both cases the consequences are likely to be demoralisation, mistrust and reduced operational effectiveness.

Awareness of organisational goals (C5)

In high scoring organisations the key objectives and strategic goals have been well disseminated. The main commercial issues facing the organisation have been clearly described and there is a widely understood vision of the future. People are aware of the organisation's top priority goals and its overarching 'mission'. (Note that a stated recognition of those goals is not necessarily accompanied by action directed at their achievement). Extremely high scores may sometimes be associated with an excessive concern for expressions of mission to the detriment of more immediate organisational concerns. Low scoring organisations have failed to create an awareness of the key strategic and commercial issues facing them. One consequence of this may be inadequate coordination of effort within a 'rudderless' organisation.

Means, standard deviations and alpha coefficients from the final trial (N = 274) in the development of the questionnaire are presented in Annexure C. This trial found the alpha coefficients of the various scales to range from 0.72 to 0.89.

Comprehensive data on the reliability of the CCQ Lite was being collected at the time of issuing the research findings. The norm group consisted of managerial and staff levels of a range of organisations in the financial services, transport, pharmaceutical, health and food industries. The exact structure of the standardisation sample group was not available.

Validity data for the CCQ Lite was also being gathered at the time of issuing. However, according to Davies et al. (2000) there was already encouraging evidence for both the face and content validity of the instrument at the time. Construct validation was continuing, and the results to date were supportive. SHL emphasised that it is difficult to carry out substantial investigations into the criterion-related validity of any instrument to record features of an organisation, and in many cases such studies are of limited value with regard to generalisation. Research in this field was, however, also continuing to strengthen the body of evidence supporting the instrument's validity.

## 4.4 Data collection and processing

Several preparatory meetings were held with senior staff of the Human Resources division of the company, in order to determine the appropriate segmentation for the study, and decide on the logistical execution of the project that would allow for the collection of the required data in the shortest amount of time. A list of staff that would be participating in the project was compiled. It was decided that all permanent staff in the employ of the organisation for at least six months would be invited and encouraged to provide input into the study. A letter from the Managing Director to all selected members of staff, requesting their open and honest participation, and assuring them of the confidentiality of their responses, launched the project in the field. Apart from assurances regarding respondent confidentiality, ethical issues such as a full explanation of the aim of the research to the respondents, and assurance of confidentiality of the host company name, were also built into the project.

The data collection for the project took place over a period of seven weeks. The three assessment instruments, each measuring one of the three constructs pertaining to the study, were administered by the researcher to the staff. Each session, to which up to 20 employees were invited, lasted between 50 and 90 minutes. One group of staff, from a satellite branch in a different part of the country, was administered by an SHL Consultant, in a manner identical to that of the other sessions, which were administered by the researcher.

The MQ and CCQ answer sheets were computer-scored by SHL, and the WLQ answer sheets were captured and scored by the researcher. The raw data was prepared for analysis in MS Excel format, and processed by the Statistical Consultation Service (Statcon) of the Rand Afrikaans University.

## 4.5 Data analysis and interpretation

Interpretation of the results was conducted on the basis of a comprehensive analysis of the total sample, and of a number of demographic segments thereof, namely age, gender, job tenure, level of education and seniority.

The data analysis incorporated scores for total job satisfaction, and for the various dimensions of employee motivation and domains of corporate culture.

In addition to a comprehensive set of reliability and descriptive statistics, a number of statistical procedures were applied in order to explore the relationships as set out in the general aims of the study. All statistical analyses were based on the assumption that the sample (N = 118) was drawn from a normally distributed population. This was a reasonable assumption, given that a sample size of 25 or 30 is generally considered sufficiently large for most situations (Howell, 2002). Pearson correlations were calculated on the total sample, firstly between the sub-dimensions within each of the individual measuring instruments. The Pearson product-moment coefficient (r) measures the extent to which two variables are related (StatSoft, 2002). Secondly, the correlations between the various dimensions within each instrument were calculated. Once again, the total sample was used for this procedure. The Pearson correlation analyses provided an indication of the cohesiveness of the sub-dimensions within major dimensions, as well as of the major dimensions within a particular assessment instrument. The correlation analyses highlighted the strength and direction of the relationship between each set of sub-dimensions and dimensions of the individual instruments. This indicated the extent to which the various sub-dimensions and dimensions of the particular instrument formed a cohesive unit for the valid measurement of the relevant construct, for example, employee motivation. In order to determine if there were any significant differences between the means of the different demographic groups, a t-test for independent means was run on gender, and an analysis of variance (ANOVA) test on each of the remaining four demographic variables. The distinction between these two tests for significant differences between groups was made, as each of the latter variables comprised more than two groups, which rendered t-tests inappropriate. The t-test

could, however, be used for gender, as only two groups (male and female) were involved (Howell, 2002). Finally, canonical correlation analysis between the instruments was performed. This statistical technique represents a procedure for assessing the relationship between two sets of variables (StatSoft, 2002). A significant correlation between two sets of variables is termed a canonical root. The sequential canonical correlation analysis procedure determines the canonical correlations, one by one, beginning with the largest root or correlation, whilst only statistically significant roots are retained for interpretation. Each root represents a unique proportion of the variability in the two sets of variables, which renders successively extracted roots uncorrelated with each other, and accounting for less and less variability. Canonical correlation analysis assumes a normal distribution of the data. The procedure was carried out three times, to assess whether any relationships existed between the various dimensions, domains and scales of employee motivation, corporate culture and job satisfaction, according to the general aims of the study.

### 4.6 Chapter summary

This chapter provided an overview of the methodology followed in the research process. A detailed discussion of the development, structure and psychometric properties of the three measurement instruments used in the study was preceded by a section covering the research design, including the research aims, sample structure and measuring instruments, as well as by a description of the sample, and how it was obtained. The final section covered the data collection and processing procedure, and the analysis and interpretation of the data. Together the material presented in this chapter provided the basis for the processing and interpretation of the data.

Chapter 5 presents the processed and analysed data obtained by means of the MQ, CCQ Lite and WLQ.

# CHAPTER 5

# PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

This chapter presents and discusses the results of the research study. The first section presents the reliability and descriptive statistics of the measurement instruments, as determined for this sample. Thereafter differences between the demographic groups are examined, followed by a presentation of the performance scores obtained for each of the questionnaires. The last section looks at the relationships between the different constructs, namely employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture. The chapter is concluded with a discussion of the results obtained.

The MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite comprise 18, 6 and 23 variables respectively. In order to reduce these to a more manageable number of variables for interpretation purposes, the variables of the MQ and CCQ Lite were condensed into four dimensions, in the case of the MQ, and four domains in the case of the CCQ Lite. The products of the consolidation of certain variables into MQ dimensions and CCQ Lite domains were shown in Chapter 4. The dimensions of the MQ, namely Energy and Dynamism, Synergy, Intrinsic and Extrinsic were derived on the basis of factor analyses carried out by the test developer. In the absence of similar statistical information for the CCQ Lite, an intercorrelation analysis across all scales was performed. The procedure determined the four cultural domains, namely Performance, Human Resources, Decision-making and Relationships, which were used to interpret the data of the study. Please refer to Annexure D for the above-mentioned factor and intercorrelation analyses.

## 5.1 Reliability of the measurement instruments

An assessment instrument's internal consistency reliability, which is expressed as a Cronbach alpha coefficient, is the degree of relatedness of the individual items in one factor or scale (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 1996). Cronbach alpha coefficients have been calculated for the current study and compared to the results of the

standardisation sample. The Cronbach alpha coefficient has a range of 0 - 1, where 0 indicates no internal consistency and 1 indicates the maximum internal consistency (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Although the reliability of all the tests used in this study has already been determined and found satisfactory by the developers of each, the reliability of each instrument for the total sample in the present study was also investigated. This information added to the overall reliability data on these instruments.

According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) the acceptable level for the Cronbach alpha depends on what is being measured, with the general rule of thumb being 0.75. Nunnally (1978) is of the opinion that 0.7 is acceptable. Owen and Taljaard (1996) state that in cases requiring calculation of only an average for a characteristic across a number of people (as in the case of the present study), an instrument with a reliability coefficient as low as 0.30 can still be useful, provided that the group is sufficiently large. In general, an instrument with a reliability coefficient of approximately 0.60 can provide useful information, provided the test results are interpreted with the requisite care and expertise. These values may be used as a guideline when deciding on the acceptability of the internal consistency reliability of a scale, or measuring instrument as a whole. For purposes of this study a Cronbach alpha of 0.6 or higher was considered acceptable to high, and that below 0.6 was regarded as low.

### 5.1.1 Reliability of the Motivation Questionnaire (MQ)

Table 5.1 below provides the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of the scales of the MQ. All reliability coefficients were considered acceptable to high, with the exception of Personal Principles, Personal Growth and Interest scales, that were low. Reliability coefficients ranged from 0.66 to 0.85 across the scales of the Energy and Dynamism dimension, from 0.55 to 0.76 across the scales of the Synergy dimension, from 0.54 to 0.72 for the Intrinsic dimension, and from 0.66 to 0.73 for the Extrinsic dimension. These reliability coefficients found for the study sample were similar to those determined for the standardisation sample, as indicated in the previous chapter (Baron et al., 2002).

**Table 5.1 Reliability of the MQ scales**

| Dimensions and scales of MQ | Cronbach Alpha |
|---|---|
| **Energy and Dynamism** | |
| Level of activity | 0.76 |
| Achievement | 0.66 |
| Competition | 0.73 |
| Fear of failure | 0.85 |
| Power | 0.68 |
| Immersion | 0.79 |
| Commercial outlook | 0.69 |
| **Synergy** | |
| Affiliation | 0.73 |
| Recognition | 0.76 |
| Personal principles | 0.55 |
| Ease and security | 0.69 |
| Personal growth | 0.57 |
| **Intrinsic** | |
| Interest | 0.54 |
| Flexibility | 0.64 |
| Autonomy | 0.72 |
| **Extrinsic** | |
| Material reward | 0.66 |
| Progression | 0.68 |
| Status | 0.73 |

### 5.1.2 Reliability of the Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire (WLQ)

As can be seen from Table 5.2 below, the WLQ had a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of 0.87 across all the scales in this questionnaire. Its internal consistency reliability was therefore considered acceptable to high. Reliability coefficients of all the scales in this test ranged from 0.74 to 0.88, which were also acceptable to high and very similar, although lower than those for the standardisation sample.

**Table 5.2 Reliability of the WLQ scales**

| Scales of WLQ | Cronbach Alpha |
|---|---|
| **WLQ** | 0.87 |
| Organisational functioning | 0.82 |
| Task characteristics | 0.74 |
| Physical working conditions | 0.78 |
| Career matters | 0.75 |
| Social matters | 0.79 |
| Remuneration, benefits, policy | 0.88 |

### 5.1.3 Reliability of the Corporate Culture Lite Questionnaire (CCQ Lite)

The internal consistency reliability of the CCQ Lite scales is given below in Table 5.3. Most reliability coefficients were acceptable to high, except for low reliabilities recorded for Concern for Quantity, Concern for Quality, and Commercial Orientation in the Performance domain, and Degree of Formalisation, Rate of Change, and Environmental Concern in the Decision-making domain. Reliabilities across the scales within the four domains ranged from 0.45 to 0.85 for the Performance domain, from 0.64 to 0.81 for the Human Resources domain, 0.49 to 0.79 for the Decision-making domain, and from 0.60 to 0.79 for the Relationships domain. The reliabilities found in the present study were generally lower than those determined for the standardisation sample (Davies et al., 2000).

## Table 5.3 Reliability of the CCQ Lite scales

| Domains and scales of CCQ Lite | Cronbach Alpha |
|---|---|
| **Performance domain** | |
| Concern for quantity | 0.55 |
| Concern for quality | 0.52 |
| Use of new equipment | 0.85 |
| Encouragement of creativity | 0.74 |
| Customer orientation | 0.76 |
| Commercial orientation | 0.45 |
| **HR domain** | |
| Concern for employees | 0.80 |
| Job involvement | 0.64 |
| Concern for career development | 0.69 |
| Emphasise performance-related rewards | 0.81 |
| Concern for equal opportunities | 0.77 |
| **Decision-making domain** | |
| Degree of formalisation | 0.49 |
| Employee influence on decisions | 0.79 |
| Decision-making effectiveness | 0.63 |
| Concern for the longer term | 0.78 |
| Rate of change | 0.58 |
| Environmental concern | 0.57 |
| Concern for safety | 0.73 |
| **Relationship domain** | |
| Vertical relations between groups | 0.77 |
| Lateral relations between groups | 0.72 |
| Interpersonal cooperation | 0.79 |
| Communication effectiveness | 0.73 |
| Awareness of organisational goals | 0.60 |

### 5.1.4 Summary

As the aforegoing tables show, the reliabilities of the three instruments used in this study were acceptable to high, with a few exceptions where reliabilities were low. In the latter cases, the reliabilities were, however, not so low as to be of concern.

## 5.2 Descriptive statistics of the measurement instruments

The descriptive information for the total sample, namely sample size, score range, mean and standard deviation of the questionnaire scales are provided in this section. This data provides an overview of the performance of the study sample on the various tests, and an in-depth look into the variance in the sample group on the various sources of motivation and job satisfaction, as well as in the perceptions on the prevailing corporate culture within the work context. Where raw scores have been presented, as in the case of the WLQ, interpretation has been made according to the guideline provided by the test developer, which was explained in Chapter 4. For the MQ and CCQ Lite, sten scores were interpreted in terms of the norms of the standardisation samples in each case.

### 5.2.1 Descriptive statistics for the MQ

The mean scores given are mean total scores that were calculated by adding and averaging all individual items in each scale. Raw scores were used in these calculations, and subsequently converted into stens. Individual items were answered on a 5-point scale where 1 indicated low motivation and 5 indicated high motivation. The raw score range of the scales of the MQ was 8 – 40. The higher the total score, the higher the motivational value attached to the construct represented by the particular scale, and vice versa. The descriptive information for each of the instrument's scales is presented and discussed below. The sten mean scores depicted in Table 5.4 indicate that the response style of the sample group was fairly similar to that of the majority of people in the General Population standardisation group, since with two exceptions, the scores were clustered around the average range of the sten norm, namely between four and seven. No low scores were

observed, and two scales recorded scores high enough to fall outside of the average range, namely Ease and Security and Material Reward. The mean sten scores in the Energy and Dynamism dimension ranged from 3.61 to 5.94, those in the Synergy dimension from 5.54 to 7.64, in the Intrinsic dimension from 4.80 to 5.14, and in the Extrinsic dimension from 6.37 to 8.65. The scores were generally lowest in the Intrinsic and Energy and Dynamism dimensions. From the standard deviations indicated for each scale it was evident that the variance of scores within the different scales was relatively small. These ranged from 3.122 to 6.615. The variance between the different scales was also low.

**Table 5.4 Descriptive statistics for the scales of the MQ (n = 118)**

| Dimensions and scales | Minimum raw score | Maximum raw score | Mean (Raw score) | Mean (Sten) | Std. Deviation (Raw score) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Energy and Dynamism** | | | | | |
| Level of activity | 9 | 36 | 23.37 | 3.90 | 5.291 |
| Achievement | 20 | 40 | 32.81 | 5.00 | 3.576 |
| Competition | 14 | 38 | 29.71 | 5.89 | 4.143 |
| Fear of failure | 8 | 36 | 17.11 | 3.97 | 6.615 |
| Power | 17 | 39 | 28.23 | 4.46 | 4.148 |
| Immersion | 8 | 28 | 16.54 | 3.61 | 4.921 |
| Commercial outlook | 13 | 39 | 28.58 | 5.94 | 4.092 |
| **Synergy** | | | | | |
| Affiliation | 18 | 40 | 31.11 | 5.54 | 4.250 |
| Recognition | 26 | 40 | 35.03 | 6.59 | 3.586 |
| Personal principles | 25 | 39 | 33.12 | 6.18 | 3.122 |
| Ease and security | 24 | 40 | 34.63 | 7.64 | 3.343 |
| Personal growth | 25 | 40 | 34.42 | 6.60 | 2.829 |
| **Intrinsic** | | | | | |
| Interest | 22 | 39 | 32.58 | 4.80 | 3.465 |
| Flexibility | 10 | 27 | 19.94 | 5.13 | 3.779 |
| Autonomy | 17 | 40 | 32.08 | 5.14 | 4.138 |
| **Extrinsic** | | | | | |
| Material reward | 27 | 40 | 36.36 | 8.65 | 3.260 |
| Progression | 24 | 40 | 34.86 | 6.62 | 3.494 |
| Status | 23 | 39 | 32.22 | 6.37 | 3.794 |

### 5.2.2 Descriptive statistics for the WLQ

The WLQ asked respondents to indicate the frequency with which certain situations occurred in the workplace, on a scale from 1 (virtually never) to 5 (virtually always). The total scores over all questions in each of the scales were computed and the mean total scores are presented below in Table 5.5. Since the number of items differed across the scales, each of the scales of the WLQ was scored on a different range, and was therefore interpreted individually according to the interpretation guidelines provided by the test developers. This guideline specified the scores falling within the normal, high and very high range. Mean raw scores were used in the interpretation of the results. The raw score range applicable to each scale, as well as the interpretation guideline for each, were provided in the previous chapter. The scores in this section were indicative of the extent to which expectations in the work situation were being fulfilled, i.e. low scores indicated lower satisfaction with the aspects concerned, and vice versa. The mean scores on all scales fell well within the specified normal range, with the exception of Career Matters and Remuneration, Fringe Benefits and Personnel Policy, which were in the high range. There was a fair degree of differentiation in scores within the scales of the WLQ, with the largest variance around the mean recorded for Remuneration, Benefits and Policy.

**Table 5.5 Descriptive statistics for the scales of the WLQ**

| Scales | Raw score range | Minimum raw score | Maximum raw score | Mean (Raw score) | Std. Deviation (Raw score) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Organisational functioning | 2 - 34 | 2 | 33 | 18.75 | 5.947 |
| Task characteristics | 9 - 69 | 23 | 65 | 46.36 | 8.065 |
| Physical working conditions | 2 – 34 | 13 | 34 | 26.53 | 5.716 |
| Career matters | 3 – 39 | 3 | 37 | 20.83 | 7.392 |
| Social matters | 2 – 34 | 5 | 34 | 23.75 | 5.330 |
| Remuneration, benefits, policy | 0 - 48 | 2 | 46 | 18.07 | 10.000 |

### 5.2.3 Descriptive statistics for the CCQ Lite

The CCQ Lite was based on a model that recognised 23 major cultural types, which were categorised along four principal domains of culture, each comprising a number of scales. Respondents could indicate their level of agreement with the statements, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Raw scores could potentially range from 3 to 15. A total mean score was calculated over all items in each scale. Interpretation was based on sten scores.

The descriptive statistics of each of the 23 scales are given below in Table 5.6. On the whole, respondents displayed a fairly similar response style to that of the standardisation group. No low scores were recorded on any of the scales measuring aspects of corporate culture. With four exceptions in the Performance domain, all scales registered scores in the average range. High scores were recorded for Concern for Quantity, Concern for Quality, Encouragement of Creativity and Customer Orientation. The sten scores in the Performance domain ranged from 6.83 to 8.09, those in the Human Resources domain from 5.46 to 6.76, and those in the Decision-making and Relationships domains from 4.61 to 7.20 and from 5.97 to 7.04 respectively. The variance of scores within all scales was low. Between the various scales the variance was also low, except for the four Performance domain scales mentioned.

**Table 5.6 Descriptive statistics for the scales of the CCQ Lite (n = 118)**

| Domains and scales | Minimum raw score | Maximum raw score | Mean (Raw score) | Mean (Sten) | Std. Deviation (Raw score) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Performance domain** | | | | | |
| Concern for quantity | 7 | 15 | 12.78 | 7.66 | 2.084 |
| Concern for quality | 5 | 15 | 12.17 | 7.55 | 2.031 |
| Use of new equipment | 3 | 15 | 11.41 | 6.83 | 2.936 |
| Encouragement of creativity | 4 | 15 | 11.54 | 7.78 | 2.452 |
| Customer orientation | 6 | 15 | 12.75 | 8.09 | 1.930 |
| Commercial orientation | 6 | 15 | 11.19 | 7.27 | 2.101 |
| **Human resources domain** | | | | | |
| Concern for employees | 3 | 15 | 8.61 | 5.46 | 2.921 |
| Job involvement | 4 | 13 | 8.31 | 5.89 | 2.289 |
| Concern for career development | 3 | 14 | 8.40 | 5.86 | 2.715 |
| Emphasise performance-related rewards | 3 | 15 | 8.20 | 6.09 | 3.123 |
| Concern for equal opportunities | 4 | 15 | 11.35 | 6.76 | 2.712 |
| **Decision-making domain** | | | | | |
| Degree of formalisation | 6 | 15 | 11.19 | 7.18 | 1.939 |
| Employee influence on decisions | 3 | 15 | 8.51 | 5.96 | 2.861 |
| Decision-making effectiveness | 3 | 15 | 9.97 | 6.96 | 2.309 |
| Concern for the longer term | 3 | 15 | 10.28 | 7.20 | 2.542 |
| Rate of change | 5 | 15 | 10.48 | 6.13 | 2.301 |
| Environmental concern | 4 | 15 | 9.45 | 6.36 | 2.020 |
| Concern for safety | 5 | 12 | 8.94 | 4.61 | 1.392 |
| **Relationships domain** | | | | | |
| Vertical relations between groups | 3 | 15 | 9.14 | 5.97 | 2.739 |
| Lateral relations between groups | 3 | 14 | 9.20 | 6.15 | 2.760 |
| Interpersonal cooperation | 3 | 15 | 10.92 | 7.04 | 2.352 |
| Communication effectiveness | 3 | 15 | 8.44 | 6.90 | 2.772 |
| Awareness of organisational goals | 3 | 14 | 10.19 | 6.97 | 2.394 |

### 5.2.4 Summary

The descriptive statistics of all the measurement instruments showed that there was considerable similarity between the response styles of the sample group and that of the average population, with the majority of scores falling within the average range of each instrument. There was little variance in scores within and across the various scales for the MQ and CCQ Lite, with a greater variance within the scales of the WLQ. Within the MQ the highest scores were recorded in the Extrinsic and Synergy dimensions, with Ease and Security and Material Reward registering higher than average scores. With regard to the WLQ, only two scales, namely Career Matters and Remuneration, Benefits and Policy were within the high range. Within the CCQ Lite, high scores were obtained for four scales in the Performance domain, namely Concern for Quantity, Concern for Quality, Encouragement of Creativity and Customer Orientation.

## 5.3 The influence of demographic variables on employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture

Hypotheses cannot be tested directly on the population, due to time and financial constraints, and the population being too large in most cases. Differences which appear to exist between groups in the sample data may in reality, namely in the actual population, not exist (Salkind, 2000). Consequently, it is common practice for researchers to apply a guideline for determining which differences are large enough to be considered 'real' and which are due to chance. The most common practice is to state a specific significance level that must be reached. The significance level, which supports such a decision, is a statement of the probability that an observed difference is due to chance. The higher the probability or p-value, the less the probability is that the observed relationship between variables in the sample is a reliable indicator of the actual relationship between the respective variables in the population. A smaller p-value is therefore preferred in most cases (StatSoft, 2002). Conventionally, the p-levels of 0.05 and 0.01 are used by most researchers to determine the significance of the statistical tests performed. For the purposes of the present study a significance level of 0.05 was considered adequate. All relationships

between variables denoted by p-values equal to, or smaller than 0.05, were therefore regarded as significant, i.e. as indicative of a true relationship in the population. The absence of a linear relationship between variables were indicated by p-values larger than 0.05.

In order to determine whether there were any significant differences with regard to employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture between the demographic groups, the analysis of variance test (ANOVA) was performed on the raw scores, except in the case of gender, where the t-test was performed. The ANOVA test was inappropriate here, as only two variables (male and female) were involved, whereas each of the other demographic variables comprised multiple variables. Differences were considered significant for p-values equal to, or less than 0.05. Equal variances were assumed based on Levene's test for equal variances, i.e. all p-values were found to be insignificant. Where three or more groups were compared, the Scheffe Post Hoc test was performed to indicate between which groups the differences were evident. The numerical differences found have been reported for all demographic variables. Interpretation in the case of the MQ and CCQ Lite was based on sten scores, whereas raw scores were used for the WLQ.

Throughout this section only significant results have been shown in order to highlight these, and to reduce the considerable volume of the information.

### 5.3.1 Age

The mean scores of the three different age groups (20-30,31-40 and 41+) on the scales of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite are compared in Table 5.7. Only two significant age differences were found with regard to the motivational aspects of the MQ. Although the Scheffe Post Hoc test showed no difference between any of the age groups selected for the study, the youngest group of respondents (20-30 years) rated Competition highest, and there was a progressive increase in the ratings on Status from older to younger employees. The age differences in motivation found were limited to the Energy and Dynamism and Extrinsic dimensions. No significant differences were found for age on the scales of the WLQ. With respect to

perceptions on corporate culture (CCQ Lite), significant differences were recorded only within the Performance domain. There was a progressive increase in Customer Orientation ratings from younger to older employees. A similar observation was made for Commercial Orientation, where older employees (31 and older) rated this aspect higher than younger employees. No difference was indicated between specific age groups for these scales.

**Table 5.7 Comparison of age groups on the scales of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite: ANOVA**

| | Age groups – Mean | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Scales of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite | **20-30 years (n = 69)** | **31-40 years (n = 35)** | **41 years or older (n = 14)** | **F-value** | **p-value** |
| | **Raw score (Sten)** | **Raw score (Sten)** | **Raw score (Sten)** | | |
| **MQ** | | | | | |
| Competition | 30.49 (6.20) | 28.26 (5.34) | 29.50 (5.71) | 3.55 | 0.032 |
| Status | 32.93 (6.78) | 31.66 (6.05) | 30.14 (5.14) | 3.86 | 0.024 |
| **CCQ Lite** | | | | | |
| Customer orientation | 12.39 (7.86) | 13.03 (8.29) | 13.86 (8.79) | 4.06 | 0.020 |
| Commercial orientation | 10.80 (6.93) | 11.83 (7.80) | 11.57 (7.64) | 3.17 | 0.046 |

### 5.3.2 Gender

Table 5.8 indicates that, with the exception of Fear of Failure in the Energy and Dynamism dimension of the MQ, where males scored higher than females, no significant differences were evident for motivation between the two genders. With respect to job satisfaction (WLQ), males rated both Task Characteristics and Physical Working Conditions higher than females. There were also a number of

significant differences between males and females with respect to their perspectives on the company's culture (CCQ Lite). In all domains males rated a number of cultural aspects significantly higher than females. These aspects included Encouragement of Creativity, Concern for Employees, Concern for Equal Opportunities, Employee Influence on Decisions, Concern for Safety, Vertical Relations between Groups and Communication Effectiveness. The only cultural aspects rated significantly higher by women than men were Customer Orientation and Commercial Orientation.

**Table 5.8 Comparison of gender groups on the scales of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite: T-test for independent means**

| | Gender – Mean | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Scales of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite** | **Female (n = 63)** | **Male (n = 55)** | **t-value** | **p-value** |
| | **Raw score (Sten)** | **Raw score (Sten)** | | |
| **MQ** | | | | |
| Fear of failure | 15.90 (3.62) | 18.49 (4.38) | -2.15 | 0.03 |
| **WLQ** | | | | |
| Task characteristics | 44.57 | 48.40 | -2.64 | 0.01 |
| Physical working conditions | 25.52 | 27.69 | -2.08 | 0.04 |
| **CCQ Lite** | | | | |
| Encouragement of creativity | 11.05 (7.46) | 12.11 (8.15) | -2.39 | 0.02 |
| Customer orientation | 13.13 (8.25) | 12.33 (7.91) | 2.29 | 0.02 |
| Commercial orientation | 11.65 (7.68) | 10.67 (6.80) | 2.58 | 0.01 |
| Concern for employees | 8.00 (5.11) | 9.09 (5.85) | -2.01 | 0.05 |
| Concern for equal opportunities | 8.65 (6.35) | 9.27 (7.24) | -2.57 | 0.01 |
| Employee influence on decisions | 8.11 (5.59) | 9.18 (6.38) | -2.10 | 0.04 |
| Concern for safety | 10.76 (4.44) | 12.02 (4.80) | -2.47 | 0.01 |
| Vertical relations between groups | 8.65 (5.63) | 9.69 (6.36) | -2.09 | 0.04 |
| Communication effectiveness | 7.76 (6.37) | 9.22 (7.51) | -2.94 | 0.00 |

### 5.3.3 Job tenure / Years of service

Table 5.9 shows that, with regard to employees' length of service, no significant motivational differences (MQ) were recorded. With regard to job satisfaction (WLQ), the only significant result was recorded for Career Matters, where employees with one to two years service rated this aspect the lowest. The data also shows that the tenure groups with more than two years service rated Career Matters progressively higher. The Scheffe Post Hoc test indicated a difference in perceptions on Career Matters between the group with 1 – 2 years service and the group with more than 10 years service. With respect to the CCQ Lite, the data reflected in Table 5.9 indicates that significant differences between tenure groups were found in the Decision-making and Relationships domains. Degree of Formalisation was rated highest by the least tenured groups (up to five years) and lowest by the highest tenured groups (six or more years). Both Vertical Relations Between Groups and Lateral Relations between Groups were rated highest by the least tenured group, and lowest by the highest tenured group.

**Table 5.9 Comparison of tenure groups on the scales of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite: ANOVA**

| Scales of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite | Tenure groups - Mean | | | | | F-value | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Less than 1 year (n = 29) | 1-2 years (n = 20) | 3-5 years (n = 36) | 6-10 years (n = 22) | 10+ years (n = 10) | | |
| | Raw score (Sten) | Raw score (Sten) | Raw score (Sten) | Raw score (Sten) | Raw score (Sten) | | |
| **WLQ** | | | | | | | |
| Career matters | 20.10 | 17.50 | 20.33 | 23.14 | 26.60 | 3.43 | 0.011 |
| **CCQ Lite** | | | | | | | |
| Degree of formalisation | 11.59 (7.55) | 12.20 (8.05) | 11.03 (7.06) | 10.36 (6.45) | 10.60 (6.60) | 3.18 | 0.016 |
| Vertical relations between groups | 10.14 (6.72) | 7.75 (4.95) | 9.17 (6.00) | 8.68 (5.68) | 9.80 (6.30) | 2.68 | 0.035 |
| Lateral relations between groups | 10.28 (6.86) | 8.00 (5.30) | 9.50 (6.39) | 8.68 (5.86) | 8.60 (5.60) | 2.58 | 0.041 |

### 5.3.4 Education level

A few significant motivational differences were brought about by the education level variable, but the Scheffe Post Hoc test showed no significant difference between any specific groups. Table 5.10 shows that within the Energy and Dynamism dimension of the MQ, Competition was rated highest by the lower educated groups (High School and College/Technikon) and lowest by the two groups with university education. Within the Intrinsic domain the reverse was noted. Employees with High School and College/Technikon qualifications rated Interest the lowest, and those with university qualifications rated this aspect highest. No significant differences in scores on the scales of the WLQ were found between the different education groups. With regard to cultural issues (CCQ Lite), Table 5.10 shows a progressive increase

in ratings on Concern for Quantity with higher educational qualifications. Ratings on Concern for Equal Opportunities followed a similar pattern in that the highest rating came from the university graduates, and the lowest rating from the High School and College/Technikon groups. Again significant differences were not limited to specific groups.

**Table 5.10 Comparison of education level groups on the scales of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite: ANOVA**

| | Education level groups - Mean | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Scales of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite** | **High school (n = 24)** | **College / Technikon (n = 43)** | **University / B Degree (n = 21)** | **University / Post graduate (n = 28)** | **F-value** | **p-value** |
| | **Raw score (Sten)** | **Raw score (Sten)** | **Raw score (Sten)** | **Raw score (Sten)** | | |
| **MQ** | | | | | | |
| Competition | 30.58 (6.42) | 30.40 (6.33) | 27.43 (4.90) | 29.64 (5.86) | 2.97 | 0.035 |
| Interest | 32.04 (4.42) | 31.79 (4.00) | 33.76 (5.52) | 33.64 (5.29) | 2.74 | 0.047 |
| **CCQ Lite** | | | | | | |
| Concern for quantity | 11.88 (7.04) | 12.63 (7.51) | 13.05 (7.90) | 13.54 (8.18) | 3.04 | 0.03 |
| Concern for equal opportunities | 10.88 (6.42) | 10.53 (6.23) | 12.48 (7.57) | 12.29 (7.36) | 4.27 | 0.01 |

### 5.3.5 Seniority

Reading from Table 5.11, several significant differences were observed between the different hierarchical levels of staff on the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite. The Scheffe Post Hoc test highlighted differences in perceptions on both the MQ and CCQ Lite (Human Resources domain) variables between Top Management and the remaining seniority groups. Within the Energy and Dynamism dimension of the MQ the ratings on Level of Activity increased progressively with higher seniority in the organisation. Commercial Outlook was rated highest by Top Management and lowest by Middle

Management. Interestingly, with only one exception, namely Task Characteristics, all scales of the WLQ recorded significant differences between seniority groups, to the extent that there was a progressive increase in scores as seniority increased. In measuring employee views on company culture, significant differences on several of the CCQ Lite scales were found for the different levels of seniority. There was a consistent increase in scores, from Staff to Top Management in a number of scales in the Performance, Human Resources and Decision-making domains. These included Encouragement of Creativity, Concern for Employees, Emphasise Performance-related Rewards and Concern for Equal Opportunities. Also within the Human Resources domain, Top Management rated Concern for Career Development highest. Degree of Formalisation was rated progressively higher as seniority decreased. Employee Influence on Decisions was rated highest by Middle Management and lowest by staff.

**Table 5.11 Comparison of seniority groups on the scales of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite: ANOVA**

| Scales of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite | Seniority - Mean | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Top Management (n = 9) | Middle management (n = 27) | Staff (n = 82) | F-value | p-value |
| | Raw score (Sten) | Raw score (Sten) | Raw score (Sten) | | |
| **MQ** | | | | | |
| Level of activity | 27.33 (5.44) | 23.74 (3.96) | 22.82 (3.71) | 3.15 | 0.05 |
| Commercial outlook | 31.00 (6.89) | 26.93 (5.26) | 28.87 (6.06) | 4.20 | 0.02 |
| **WLQ** | | | | | |
| Organisational functioning | 22.78 | 19.89 | 17.93 | 3.49 | 0.03 |
| Physical working conditions | 30.33 | 27.63 | 25.76 | 3.37 | 0.04 |
| Career matters | 30.67 | 24.30 | 18.61 | 19.19 | 0.00 |
| Social matters | 27.67 | 25.33 | 22.79 | 5.31 | 0.01 |
| Remuneration benefits, policy | 30.56 | 21.56 | 15.55 | 13.71 | 0.00 |
| **CCQ Lite** | | | | | |
| Encouragement of creativity | 13.44 (9.33) | 12.07 (8.19) | 11.16 (7.48) | 4.62 | 0.01 |
| Concern for employees | 11.33 (7.22) | 9.00 (5.70) | 8.18 (5.18) | 5.41 | 0.01 |
| Concern for career development | 10.78 (7.78) | 7.85 (5.41) | 8.32 (5.80) | 4.27 | 0.02 |
| Emphasise performance-related rewards | 12.11 (8.78) | 8.63 (6.48) | 7.63 (5.67) | 9.99 | 0.00 |
| Concern for equal opportunities | 13.67 (8.22) | 12.00 (7.19) | 10.88 (6.46) | 5.73 | 0.00 |
| Degree of formalisation | 10.00 (6.00) | 10.52 (6.59) | 11.54 (7.50) | 4.93 | 0.01 |
| Employee influence on decisions | 8.56 (6.11) | 9.81 (6.96) | 8.07 (5.61) | 3.96 | 0.02 |

### 5.3.6 Summary

The preceding section provided a large volume of data. The main findings on dimension and domain level, as well as clear trends emerging from the results, are discussed below.

Significant age differences were recorded only within two dimensions of the MQ, namely Energy and Dynamism and Extrinsic, and within the Performance domain of the CCQ Lite. No significant age differences were recorded on any of the scales of the WLQ. Clear trends emerging from the data included Competition and Status on the MQ, as well as Customer Orientation and Commercial Orientation on the CCQ Lite.

With regard to gender, significant differences were recorded on the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite. A clear trend was evident across all scales where these differences were observed, in that males rated all but two aspects of the CCQ Lite (Customer Orientation and Commercial Orientation) higher than females. The significant differences were recorded in the Energy and Dynamism dimension of the MQ (Fear of Failure), in two scales of the WLQ (Task Characteristics and Physical Working Conditions), and in all domains of the CCQ Lite.

Although a number of significant differences between groups were visible for the tenure demographic variable, specific trends were less clear than in the case of gender. With respect to the WLQ only Career Matters registered a significant difference. Within the CCQ Lite three scales in the Decision-making and Relationships domains recorded significant differences, namely Degree of Formalisation, Vertical Relations between Groups and Lateral Relations between Groups. No tenure differences were recorded on the MQ.

A number of significant differences were evident with regard to education level of employees, namely Competition and Interest in the Energy and Dynamism and Intrinsic dimensions of the MQ. In the Performance and Human Resources domains

of the CCQ Lite, Concern for Quantity and Concern for Equal Opportunities showed significant differences. No significant differences were recorded for the WLQ.

Several significant differences related to seniority were observed on the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite. Within the Energy and Dynamism dimension of the MQ, Level of Activity showed a progressive increase as seniority increased. Except for Task Characteristics, all WLQ scales showed significant differences for seniority, with all scores increasing as seniority increased. Within the Performance, Human Resources and Decision-making domains of the CCQ Lite, significant differences were recorded for Encouragement of Creativity, Concern for Employees, Concern for Career Development, Emphasise Performance-related Rewards, Concern for Equal Opportunities, Degree of Formalisation and Employee Influence on Decisions.

## 5.4 Correlations within and between dimensions, domains and scales of the questionnaires

In this section, the correlations between the various scales within the dimensions of the MQ, WLQ and the domains of the CCQ Lite, as well as between the scales of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite, are examined. The latter section is handled on dimension and domain level to limit and consolidate the large amount of information.

Correlation analysis provides insight into the extent to which variables are associated, and whether they are positively or negatively associated. The strength of the association is indicated by an r value, or correlation coefficient, which ranges between –1 and 1. A perfect negative relationship is denoted by a correlation coefficient of –1, and a perfect positive relationship by 1. A positive relationship indicates that the values of one variable increase as those of the other variable increase, and vice versa. For a negative relationship the opposite is true (Sham, 2002). A significant relationship is denoted by a p-value smaller than or equal to 0.05 (StatSoft, 2002).

The correlation data, as discussed in the sections that follow, was calculated on raw scores, and reinforced the construct validity of the measurement instruments used in

the study, and lent support for the use of the motivational dimensions and corporate culture domains in the presentation and interpretation of the results.

### 5.4.1 Correlations within the MQ

Except for an insignificant correlation between Achievement and Fear of Failure in Table 5.12, significant positive correlations were found between all the scales within the Energy and Dynamism dimension of motivation. This indicated that as each of the motivational aspects represented by each scale increased or decreased, so did the other it was correlated with. Since the scales within a single dimension are theoretically related, and together form the construct or dimension in question, a high degree of relatedness between the scales is expected. Tables 5.13, 5.14 and 5.15 show that, with one exception, significant positive correlations were found between the scales within the Synergy, Intrinsic and Extrinsic dimensions of motivation. The exception constituted the correlation between Flexibility and Interest in the Intrinsic dimension.

**Table 5.12 Pearson correlations between the scales of the Energy and Dynamism dimension of the MQ (n = 118)**

| | | Level of activity | Achievement | Competition | Fear of failure | Power | Immersion | Commercial outlook |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Level of activity | Correlation | 1 | 0.410 | 0.410 | 0.480 | 0.330 | 0.700 | 0.470 |
| | p-value | | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Achievement | Correlation | | 1.000 | 0.410 | 0.110 | 0.250 | 0.270 | 0.440 |
| | p-value | | | 0.000 | 0.248 | 0.007 | 0.003 | 0.000 |
| Competition | Correlation | | | 1.000 | 0.280 | 0.530 | 0.330 | 0.540 |
| | p-value | | | | 0.002 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Fear of failure | Correlation | | | | 1.000 | 0.240 | 0.440 | 0.190 |
| | p-value | | | | | 0.008 | 0.000 | 0.044 |
| Power | Correlation | | | | | 1.000 | 0.190 | 0.530 |
| | p-value | | | | | | 0.043 | 0.000 |
| Immersion | Correlation | | | | | | 1.000 | 0.260 |
| | p-value | | | | | | | 0.005 |
| Commercial outlook | Correlation | | | | | | | 1.000 |
| | p-value | | | | | | | |

**Table 5.13 Pearson correlations between the scales of the Synergy dimension of the MQ (n = 118)**

| | | Affiliation | Recognition | Personal principles | Ease and security | Personal growth |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Affiliation | Correlation | 1.000 | 0.310 | 0.240 | 0.360 | 0.440 |
| | p-value | | 0.001 | 0.010 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Recognition | Correlation | | 1.000 | 0.310 | 0.410 | 0.330 |
| | p-value | | | 0.001 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Personal principles | Correlation | | | 1.000 | 0.310 | 0.270 |
| | p-value | | | | 0.001 | 0.004 |
| Ease and security | Correlation | | | | 1.000 | 0.440 |
| | p-value | | | | | 0.000 |
| Personal growth | Correlation | | | | | 1.000 |
| | p-value | | | | | |

**Table 5.14 Pearson correlations between the scales of the Intrinsic dimension of the MQ (n = 118)**

| | | Interest | Flexibility | Autonomy |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Interest | Correlation | 1.000 | 0.130 | 0.350 |
| | p-value | | 0.161 | 0.000 |
| Flexibility | Correlation | | 1.000 | 0.190 |
| | p-value | | | 0.045 |
| Autonomy | Correlation | | | 1.000 |
| | p-value | | | |

**Table 5.15 Pearson correlations between the scales of the Extrinsic dimension of the MQ (n = 118)**

| | | Material reward | Progression | Status |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Material reward | Correlation | 1.000 | 0.630 | 0.450 |
| | p-value | | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Progression | Correlation | | 1.000 | 0.540 |
| | p-value | | | 0.000 |
| Status | Correlation | | | 1.000 |
| | p-value | | | |

### 5.4.2 Correlations within the WLQ

As is evident from Table 5.16, all the scales of the WLQ correlated positively and significantly with one another, indicating that as satisfaction with one aspect of the work environment increased or decreased, so did the other in the relationship.

**Table 5.16 Pearson correlations between the scales of the WLQ (n = 118)**

| | | Organisational functioning | Task characteristics | Physical working conditions | Career matters | Social matters | Remuneration, benefits, policy |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Organisational functioning | Correlation | 1.000 | 0.650 | 0.390 | 0.620 | 0.630 | 0.670 |
| | p-value | | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Task characteristics | Correlation | | 1.000 | 0.500 | 0.490 | 0.670 | 0.580 |
| | p-value | | | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Physical working conditions | Correlation | | | 1.000 | 0.380 | 0.410 | 0.440 |
| | p-value | | | | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Career matters | Correlation | | | | 1.000 | 0.590 | 0.690 |
| | p-value | | | | | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Social matters | Correlation | | | | | 1.000 | 0.490 |
| | p-value | | | | | | 0.000 |
| Remuneration, benefits, policy | Correlation | | | | | | 1.000 |
| | p-value | | | | | | |

### 5.4.3 Correlations within the CCQ Lite

Table 5.17 reports the intercorrelations for the Performance domain. Significant positive correlations were recorded between most scales. Three scales did not correlate well with the remaining scales within this domain. These are Concern for Quantity, Encouragement of Creativity and Commercial Orientation. According to Table 5.18 and Table 5.20 all scales of the Human Resources and Relationships domains correlated significantly and positively with one another. A number of significant correlations are evident from Table 5.19, most of which were positive. Two significant negative relationships were recorded. As was the case with the Performance domain, a number of scales within the Decision-making domain of the CCQ Lite correlated poorly with the remaining scales. These problem scales were Degree of Formalisation, Concern for Safety and Rate of Change.

**Table 5.17 Pearson correlations between the scales of the Performance domain of the CCQ Lite (n = 118)**

| | | Concern for quantity | Concern for quality | Use of new equipment | Encouragement of creativity | Customer orientation | Commercial orientation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Concern for quantity | Correlation | 1.000 | 0.090 | -0.110 | 0.070 | 0.140 | 0.330 |
| | p-value | | 0.323 | 0.232 | 0.438 | 0.132 | 0.000 |
| Concern for quality | Correlation | | 1.000 | 0.270 | 0.180 | 0.480 | 0.150 |
| | p-value | | | 0.003 | 0.053 | 0.000 | 0.109 |
| Use of new equipment | Correlation | | | 1.000 | 0.180 | 0.440 | 0.190 |
| | p-value | | | | 0.048 | 0.000 | 0.040 |
| Encouragement of creativity | Correlation | | | | 1.000 | 0.400 | 0.040 |
| | p-value | | | | | 0.000 | 0.688 |
| Customer orientation | Correlation | | | | | 1.000 | 0.340 |
| | p-value | | | | | | 0.000 |
| Commercial orientation | Correlation | | | | | | 1.000 |
| | p-value | | | | | | |

**Table 5.18 Pearson correlations between the scales of the Human Resources domain of the CCQ Lite (n = 118)**

| | | Concern for employees | Job involvement | Concern for career development | Emphasise performance-related rewards | Concern for equal opportunities |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Concern for employees | Correlation | 1.000 | 0.500 | 0.600 | 0.590 | 0.500 |
| | p-value | | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Job involvement | Correlation | | 1.000 | 0.460 | 0.440 | 0.190 |
| | p-value | | | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.037 |
| Concern for career development | Correlation | | | 1.000 | 0.510 | 0.330 |
| | p-value | | | | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Emphasise performance-related rewards | Correlation | | | | 1.000 | 0.450 |
| | p-value | | | | | 0.000 |
| Concern for equal opportunities | Correlation | | | | | 1.000 |
| | p-value | | | | | |

**Table 5.19 Pearson correlations between the scales of the Decision-making domain of the CCQ Lite (n = 118)**

| | | Degree of formalisation | Employee influence on decisions | Decision-making effectiveness | Concern for the longer term | Rate of change | Environmental concern | Concern for safety |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Degree of formalisation | Correlation | 1.000 | -0.350 | -0.130 | -0.170 | -0.150 | -0.080 | -0.200 |
| | p-value | | 0.000 | 0.154 | 0.065 | 0.104 | 0.386 | 0.028 |
| Employee influence on decisions | Correlation | | 1.000 | 0.480 | 0.410 | 0.110 | 0.210 | 0.180 |
| | p-value | | | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.257 | 0.024 | 0.046 |
| Decision-making effectiveness | Correlation | | | 1.000 | 0.530 | -0.010 | 0.250 | 0.080 |
| | p-value | | | | 0.000 | 0.930 | 0.007 | 0.410 |
| Concern for the longer term | Correlation | | | | 1.000 | 0.210 | 0.320 | 0.150 |
| | p-value | | | | | 0.019 | 0.000 | 0.100 |
| Rate of change | Correlation | | | | | 1.000 | -0.010 | -0.010 |
| | p-value | | | | | | 0.881 | 0.917 |
| Environmental concern | Correlation | | | | | | 1.000 | 0.420 |
| | p-value | | | | | | | 0.000 |
| Concern for safety | Correlation | | | | | | | 1.000 |
| | p-value | | | | | | | |

**Table 5.20 Pearson correlations between the scales of the Relationships domain of the CCQ Lite (n = 118)**

| | | Vertical relations between groups | Lateral relations between groups | Interpersonal cooperation | Communication effectiveness | Awareness of organisational goals |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Vertical relations between groups | Correlation | 1.000 | 0.670 | 0.600 | 0.410 | 0.240 |
| | p-value | | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.008 |
| Lateral relations between groups | Correlation | | 1.000 | 0.630 | 0.430 | 0.250 |
| | p-value | | | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.006 |
| Interpersonal cooperation | Correlation | | | 1.000 | 0.510 | 0.350 |
| | p-value | | | | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Communication effectiveness | Correlation | | | | 1.000 | 0.430 |
| | p-value | | | | | 0.000 |
| Awareness of organisational goals | Correlation | | | | | 1.000 |
| | p-value | | | | | |

### 5.4.4 Correlations between the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite

In order to gain insight into the nature of the relationships existing between the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite, a series of Pearson intercorrelations were run on the raw scores. The tables below depict the correlations between the MQ and WLQ, between the CCQ Lite and WLQ, and between the MQ and CCQ Lite. The intercorrelations involved the dimensions of the MQ, the domains of the CCQ Lite, and the scales of the WLQ.

From the correlation analysis between the MQ and WLQ shown in Table 5.21, it is evident that significant positive correlations occurred between all the scales of the WLQ and the Energy and Dynamism dimension of the MQ. There were no significant correlations between the scales of the WLQ and the Synergy or Intrinsic dimensions, and only one relationship between the WLQ scales and the Extrinsic dimension correlated significantly.

**Table 5.21 Pearson correlations between the dimensions of the MQ and the scales of the WLQ**

| | | Energy and Dynamism | Synergy | Intrinsic | Extrinsic |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Organisational functioning | Correlation | 0.390 | -0.040 | -0.080 | 0.020 |
| | p-value | 0.000 | 0.632 | 0.396 | 0.871 |
| Task characteristics | Correlation | 0.460 | 0.080 | 0.050 | 0.110 |
| | p-value | 0.000 | 0.377 | 0.604 | 0.234 |
| Physical working conditions | Correlation | 0.270 | 0.060 | -0.010 | 0.040 |
| | p-value | 0.003 | 0.502 | 0.925 | 0.695 |
| Career matters | Correlation | 0.270 | -0.030 | -0.050 | -0.020 |
| | p-value | 0.003 | 0.737 | 0.568 | 0.818 |
| Social matters | Correlation | 0.350 | 0.130 | 0.120 | 0.150 |
| | p-value | 0.000 | 0.148 | 0.178 | 0.110 |
| Remuneration, benefits, policy | Correlation | 0.410 | -0.140 | -0.070 | -0.210 |
| | p-value | 0.000 | 0.117 | 0.448 | 0.022 |

Table 5.22 shows that, with the exception of the relationship between Social Matters and Performance, all the WLQ scales and CCQ Lite domains correlated significantly and positively with one another.

**Table 5.22 Pearson correlations between the domains of the CCQ Lite and the scales of the WLQ**

| | | Performance | Human Resources | Decision-making | Relationships |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Organisational functioning | Correlation | 0.280 | 0.710 | 0.560 | 0.610 |
| | p-value | 0.002 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Task characteristics | Correlation | 0.210 | 0.470 | 0.480 | 0.540 |
| | p-value | 0.020 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Physical working conditions | Correlation | 0.420 | 0.370 | 0.390 | 0.450 |
| | p-value | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Career matters | Correlation | 0.350 | 0.630 | 0.420 | 0.350 |
| | p-value | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Social matters | Correlation | 0.170 | 0.440 | 0.290 | 0.480 |
| | p-value | 0.068 | 0.000 | 0.002 | 0.000 |
| Remuneration, benefits, policy | Correlation | 0.270 | 0.700 | 0.570 | 0.430 |
| | p-value | 0.003 | 0.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |

Table 5.23 shows that Energy and Dynamism was the only dimension of the MQ that correlated significantly and positively with the CCQ Lite domains.

**Table 5.23 Pearson correlations between the dimensions of the MQ and the domains of the CCQ Lite**

| | | Energy and Dynamism | Synergy | Intrinsic | Extrinsic |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Performance domain | Correlation | 0.220 | 0.050 | -0.020 | 0.160 |
| | p-value | 0.014 | 0.555 | 0.868 | 0.083 |
| Human resources domain | Correlation | 0.360 | -0.060 | -0.080 | -0.100 |
| | p-value | 0.000 | 0.501 | 0.382 | 0.292 |
| Decision-making domain | Correlation | 0.390 | -0.080 | -0.140 | -0.050 |
| | p-value | 0.000 | 0.371 | 0.120 | 0.628 |
| Relationships domain | Correlation | 0.390 | 0.070 | 0.030 | 0.080 |
| | p-value | 0.000 | 0.484 | 0.708 | 0.418 |

### 5.4.5 Canonical correlations between the MQ, WLQ and the CCQ Lite

In the previous section Pearson intercorrelations indicated the extent of the linear relationships that existed between the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite. In order to gain deeper insight into these relationships, specifically in terms of significant drivers in these relationships, the data was subjected to canonical correlation analysis. This is a statistical procedure that allows for the analysis of the linear relationship between two multidimensional variables, or the correlation between two sets of variables, as opposed to regression, where the independent variable consists of one variable only. The outcome variables (set of dependent variables) can be compared to the impacting variables (set of independent variables) simultaneously (Statsoft, 2002). The findings of this procedure are indicated below.

#### *5.4.5.1 Correlation between the MQ dimensions and WLQ scales*

For this analysis the independent set of variables was the MQ dimensions, and the dependent set of variables the WLQ scales. Table 5.24 provides the overall model fit for the canonical correlation between the MQ and the WLQ. The first two canonical functions were significant, but only the first had an adequately high correlation (0.525) for further interpretation. This canonical function explained 27% of the variance.

**Table 5.24 Canonical correlation analysis for the MQ dimensions and the WLQ scales (n = 118)**

| Measures of Overall Model Fit for Canonical Correlation Analysis | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Canonical Function | Canonical Correlation | Canonical $R^2$ | Chi-square | df | Probability |
| 1 | 0.525 | 0.275 | 62.641 | 24 | 0.000 |
| 2 | 0.404 | 0.163 | 26.666 | 15 | 0.031 |
| 3 | 0.233 | 0.054 | 6.764 | 8 | 0.562 |
| 4 | 0.068 | 0.004 | 0.520 | 3 | 0.912 |

From Table 5.25 it can be seen that the highest loading on the dependent, or WLQ side, was for Remuneration, Benefits and Personnel Policy (0.917), followed by Task Characteristics (0.804). On the MQ, or independent side, by far the highest loading was recorded for Energy and Dynamism (0.922). These significant correlations were all positive.

**Table 5.25 Canonical structure for the first canonical function between the MQ dimensions and the WLQ scales**

| | Function 1 |
|---|---|
| Correlations between the dependent variables – WLQ scales and their canonical variate | |
| Organisational functioning | 0.725 |
| Task characteristics | 0.804 |
| Physical working conditions | 0.499 |
| Career matters | 0.525 |
| Social matters | 0.570 |
| Remuneration, Benefits and Policy | 0.917 |
| Correlations between the independent variables – MQ dimensions and their canonical variate | |
| Energy and Dynamism | 0.922 |
| Synergy | -0.148 |
| Intrinsic | -0.051 |
| Extrinsic | -0.226 |

### *5.4.5.2 Correlation between the WLQ scales and CCQ Lite domains*

For this analysis the dependent set of variables was the WLQ scales, and the independent set of variables the CCQ domains.

Table 5.26 provides the overall model fit for the canonical correlation between the WLQ and CCQ Lite. All the canonical functions or correlations were significant, with the first recording a high correlation of 0.811, and the second a moderate correlation of 0.512. For purposes of this study a canonical correlation or p-value of 0.45 was regarded as cut-off guideline for interpretation. The variance explained by the first and second functions were sizeable, namely 66% and 26% respectively. Since the third function's canonical correlation was also relatively small, i.e. smaller than 0.45, only the first two functions were interpreted.

**Table 5.26 Canonical correlation analysis for the WLQ scales and the CCQ Lite domains (n = 118)**

| Measures of Overall Model Fit for Canonical Correlation Analysis | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Canonical Function | Canonical Correlation | Canonical $R^2$ | Chi-square | df | Probability |
| 1 | 0.811 | 0.657 | 180.136 | 24 | 0.000 |
| 2 | 0.512 | 0.263 | 60.690 | 15 | 0.000 |
| 3 | 0.385 | 0.148 | 26.731 | 8 | 0.001 |

Interpreting the canonical functions involves examining the direction and magnitude of the canonical loading assigned to each variable in the function. The interpretation can be compared with the interpretation of factor loading in factor analysis, assessing the relative contribution of each variable to the canonical function. From Table 5.27 it is therefore evident that, on the dependent side, namely the WLQ scales, Organisational Functioning (0.905) had the biggest loading, followed by Remuneration, Benefits and Policy (0.890), Career Matters (0.771), Task Characteristics (0.642), Social Matters (0.536), and lastly Physical Working Conditions with a loading of 0.511. For the first canonical function, the dependent side was thus mostly defined by Organisational Functioning and Remuneration, Benefits and Policy. This dependent variable, or combination of WLQ scales, was mostly explained, from the independent variable combination side, or CCQ Lite

domains, by the Human Resources domain with a loading of 0.966, followed by the Decision-making domain with a loading of 0.779. The Relationships domain (0.684) and Performance domain (0.434) had the smallest correlations with the WLQ.

**Table 5.27 Canonical structure for the first canonical function between the WLQ scales and the CCQ Lite domains**

| | Function 1 |
|---|---|
| Correlations between the dependent variables – WLQ scales and their canonical variate | |
| Organisational functioning | 0.905 |
| Task characteristics | 0.642 |
| Physical working conditions | 0.511 |
| Career matters | 0.771 |
| Social matters | 0.536 |
| Remuneration, Benefits and Policy | 0.890 |
| Correlations between the independent variables – CCQ Lite domains and their canonical variate | |
| Performance domain | 0.434 |
| Human Resources domain | 0.966 |
| Relationships domain | 0.684 |
| Decision-making domain | 0.779 |

From Table 5.28 it can be seen that the highest loading on the dependent side in the second function was Physical Working Conditions. The domain in the independent combination variable, or CCQ Lite, that explains the dependent variable the most was the Decision-making domain (-0.724).

**Table 5.28 Canonical structure for the second canonical function between the WLQ scales and the CCQ Lite domains**

| | Function 2 |
|---|---|
| Correlations between the dependent variables – WLQ scales and their canonical variate | |
| Organisational functioning | -0.178 |
| Task characteristics | -0.046 |
| Physical working conditions | 0.662 |
| Career matters | 0.195 |
| Social matters | -0.191 |
| Remuneration, Benefits and Policy | -0.092 |
| Correlations between the independent variables – CCQ Lite domains and their canonical variate | |
| Performance domain | -0.071 |
| Human Resources domain | 0.069 |
| Relationships domain | -0.149 |
| Decision-making domain | -0.724 |

### *5.4.5.3 Correlation between the MQ dimensions and CCQ Lite domains*

For this analysis the independent set of variables was the CCQ Lite domains, and the dependent set of variables the MQ dimensions. The canonical correlation between the MQ dimensions and the CCQ Lite domains showed a fairly weak relationship between these two sets of variables.

Table 5.29 provides the overall model fit for the canonical correlation between the MQ and CCQ Lite, and shows that only the first canonical function was statistically significant, and larger than 0.45. The second canonical function was therefore not interpreted. The first canonical function explained 22% of the variance in the correlation.

**Table 5.29 Canonical correlation analysis for the MQ dimensions and the CCQ Lite domains (n = 118)**

| Measures of Overall Model Fit for Canonical Correlation Analysis | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Canonical Function | Canonical Correlation | Canonical $R^2$ | Chi-square | df | Probability |
| 1 | 0.470 | 0.2209 | 42.136 | 16 | 0.000 |
| 2 | 0.380 | 0.1444 | 14.029 | 9 | 0.121 |

Table 5.30 indicates that in the MQ variable combination only the Energy and Dynamism dimension loaded sizeably (-0.923), which indicated that the MQ variable combination was explained mainly by the Energy and Dynamism dimension. On the independent side, it was mainly the Relationships domain (-0.906), followed by the Human Resources domain (-0.861) and the Decision-making domain (-0.769) that influenced the dependent MQ variable combination. Both the dependent and independent correlations were negative, indicating that as scores on the MQ variables increased, so did those on the CCQ Lite variables, and vice versa.

**Table 5.30 Canonical structure for the first canonical function between the MQ dimensions and the CCQ Lite domains**

| | Function 1 |
|---|---|
| Correlations between the dependent variables - MQ dimensions and their canonical variate | |
| Energy and Dynamism | -0.923 |
| Synergy | 0.134 |
| Intrinsic | 0.230 |
| Extrinsic | 0.125 |
| Correlations between the independent variables – CCQ Lite domains and their canonical variate | |
| Performance domain | -0.406 |
| Human Resources domain | -0.861 |
| Relationships domain | -0.906 |
| Decision-making domain | -0.769 |

### 5.4.6 Summary

Pearson correlation analysis between the scales of the three questionnaires produced a number of interesting findings. Essentially, with very few exceptions, the scales within the various dimensions and domains of the measurement instruments correlated well with each other, indicating good construct validity across the board. With respect to the MQ it was found that all scales within the four dimensions correlated significantly and positively with each other, except for one relationship in the Energy and Dynamism and Intrinsic dimensions respectively. Similarly, all scales of the WLQ correlated significantly and positively with each other. With regard to the CCQ Lite, all scales within the Human Resources and Relationships domains correlated significantly and positively with each other, while three scales

within the Performance and Decision-making domains respectively were problematic.

The Pearson correlation analysis performed to assess the nature of the interrelationships between the three measurement instruments also highlighted a number of noteworthy findings. Positive linear relationships were observed between the Energy and Dynamism dimension of the MQ and both the WLQ and the CCQ Lite. None of the remaining three dimensions of the MQ correlated with either the WLQ or the CCQ Lite. Finally, except for the one relationship between Social Matters and the Performance domain, significant and positive relationships between all WLQ scales and all CCQ Lite domains were observed.

Canonical correlation analyses provided a more in-depth look into the various relationships that existed between the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite. With respect to the positive relationship between the MQ and WLQ it transpired that the most significant contributors to the relationship were Energy and Dynamism, as independent variable, and both Remuneration, Benefits and Policy and Task Characteristics as dependent variables.

Two significant relationships emerged between the WLQ and CCQ Lite. In the first canonical function the CCQ Lite domains impacted upon the WLQ scales, with the most important contributions coming from the Human Resources and Decision-making domains as independent variables, and Organisational Functioning and Remuneration, Benefits and Policy as dependent variables. The second canonical correlation between the WLQ and CCQ Lite showed a significant negative relationship between the Decision-making domain as independent variable, and Physical Working Conditions as dependent variable.

One significant positive canonical correlation emerged in the relationship between the MQ and CCQ Lite, in that the Relationships domain of the CCQ Lite, or independent variable, followed closely by the Human Resources and Decision-making domains, exerted the most powerful influence on the Energy and Dynamism dimension of the MQ, or dependent variable.

From the above it seemed that, in addition to providing auxiliary information on the most significant contributors in the relationships between the MQ, WLQ and the CCQ Lite, the canonical correlations also served as reinforcement of the Pearson correlation results covered earlier.

## 5.5 Chapter summary

This chapter reported in detail on the results obtained in the study. Firstly, the reliability and descriptive statistics of the measurement instruments were presented, followed by a presentation of the findings regarding the influence of demographic variables on the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite. The last section covered the results pertaining to the various relationships between the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite.

Chapter 6 provides a detailed discussion on the results presented in this chapter.

# CHAPTER 6

# DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The results obtained by means of the various statistical analyses mentioned in the previous chapter are discussed in this chapter. A discussion of the findings pertaining to the reliability and descriptive statistics of the measurement instruments is followed by an overview of the interplay between the demographic variables of the respondents and the constructs of employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture. The last part of the discussion focuses on the relationships between the said constructs.

## 6.1 Reliability of the measurement instruments

By means of Cronbach alpha coefficients the reliability of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite was found to be acceptable. For only a few scales low reliabilities were recorded, but these were not considered problematic, as interpretation was not based on individual scales. All scales of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite therefore contributed towards the study and towards the interpretation of the results. The reliability coefficients of the sample were in agreement with those determined for the standardisation groups by the test developers, which reinforced the overall reliability of the study.

## 6.2 Descriptive statistics of the measurement instruments

The descriptive statistics calculated for each questionnaire, namely sample size, score range, mean and standard deviation, gave an overview of the performance of the sample on the various tests, and of the variance of the scores on each scale of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite. In accordance with the information in the manual, interpretations on MQ and CCQ Lite performance were based on stens, whereas raw scores were used for the WLQ. For each of the measurement instruments the sample group's performance compared to that of the average group in the standardisation sample. For the most part, there was also little variance in scores

within and across the scales of the MQ and CCQ Lite, with relatively larger variance observed within the scales of the WLQ.

With respect to the MQ, the results showed that the score variance within each scale of each of the four dimensions was small, as was the case for the variance between scales. Using the norm for the standardisation group, the majority of scores of the sample group fell within the average sten score range, namely between four and seven. This indicated that the sample respondents experienced similar levels of motivation in the workplace, on the particular aspects measured, to the average population. Exceptions included Ease and Security, and Material Reward, where mean scores were high. This suggested that the sample group was motivated, to a larger extent than the general population, by contextual factors in the workplace, such as pleasant working conditions and job security. This was indicative of a strong need for ease and stability associated with the work environment package, which may have been reflective of some experience of unease and instability in the work environment. Furthermore, the respondents also appeared to be more highly motivated by tangible recognition, specifically in financial terms, for their contribution at work. They were therefore likely to invest much energy into their work if they thought their pay was good, and perceived a direct link between their level of expertise and effort, and the remuneration they received in return. The results indicated that there was little differentiation on an overall level between the respondents' levels of motivation emanating from Energy and Dynamism, Synergy, and Intrinsic and Extrinsic needs and motives.

From the job satisfaction assessment made by the WLQ it was deduced that the employees were as satisfied as most people with most aspects relating to their employment situation, namely the Organisational Functioning, their Task Characteristics and Physical Working Conditions, and the Social Matters relating to their work. They were, however, more satisfied with matters of a Career and Remuneration nature, which registered higher than average scores. They were reasonably satisfied with Organisational Functioning aspects such as their participation in decision-making, the effectiveness of the organisational structure, and the openness of the communication channels in the company. Their Task

Characteristics, for example, work deadlines, autonomous functioning and task variety, were also perceived as satisfactory, as were their Physical Working Conditions and job equipment. The respondents found the general interpersonal relations climate in the company, both with colleagues and management, satisfactory. Issues relating to Career Matters and Remuneration, Fringe Benefits and the company's Personnel Policy scored highly, indicating that employees regarded the available opportunities for career advancement and their general job security, as well as their salaries and auxiliary benefits, and the policy governing these, as highly satisfactory. In addition, respondents' expectations regarding further training, the use of their skills and abilities, progress in work and job security appeared to be fulfilled to a high degree. It was noted that although the respondent group as a whole indicated high satisfaction with Career Matters and matters relating to Remuneration, Fringe Benefits and Personnel Policy, variance in responses was considerable, especially in the latter case. This indicated that not all employees were equally highly satisfied with the matters mentioned.

Regarding the performance on the CCQ Lite, the results showed little variance in responses within the 23 cultural aspects measured, as well as between the scales, except for the scores of the scales of the Performance domain that were mostly higher than those in the remaining three domains. Most scores fell within the average sten range, indicating that the respondents held very similar views to the majority of the population when it came to cultural aspects of the organisation. There were four exceptions to this observation, involving four scales of the Performance domain, where scores were high. These scales included Concern for Quantity, Concern for Quality, Encouragement of Creativity and Customer Orientation. These findings pointed towards a company culture encompassing a strong and pervasive emphasis on productivity and performance, resulting in heavy workloads and tight deadlines. At the same time, there seemed to be a particularly strong Customer Orientation, with the accompanying emphasis on the application of high ethical and quality standards throughout the business. All of these demands placed on employees were supported by emphasis on, and Encouragement of Creativity and innovative development of ideas and concepts, aimed at bolstering productivity and organisational development, and grow market share. Overall, the sample group

appeared to hold similar perceptions of the Human Resources, Decision-making and Relationships characteristics of the organisation, with their opinions on the Performance culture being slightly stronger.

The descriptive data pointed towards low variance in scores within and between the scales of the tests, although greater variance within the WLQ scales was observed. The respondent group's performance on the three questionnaires appeared average in comparison to the norms of the relevant standardisation groups. However, there were some differences in that the employees appeared to be motivated and satisfied to a larger extent than the average population by certain characteristics of the work environment.

## 6.3 The influence of demographic variables on employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture

Included in the cluster of personal characteristics that influence employees' levels of motivation and job satisfaction at work, and their perceptions of the organisation's culture, are the demographic profiles of the employees. The present study focused on the age, gender, job tenure, education level and seniority of staff of the organisation, with a view to determine whether any significant differences existed between employee groups. Based on raw scores comparisons, an influence of demographic variables on employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture was found. When considering the sten scores in the interpretation of the findings, the significant differences often appeared to be of little practical consequence. In the section below the clear trends found are discussed in terms of the literature and theory referred to in the previous chapters.

### 6.3.1 Age

With respect to age, the few significant differences found were limited to the Energy and Dynamism and Extrinsic dimensions of the MQ, and the Performance domain of the CCQ Lite. Clear motivational trends were visible when it came to Competition and Status, in that, as employees aged, they were less highly motivated by a

competitive work environment and by aspects that portrayed outward signs of status in the workplace. Several studies found the same inverse relationship between employee age and competitive behaviour at work (Bellenger et al., 1984; Tolbert & Moen, 1998). It could perhaps be argued that as employees age and are able to assert themselves through their knowledge and expertise, they experience less need to compete with colleagues and to find occupational acknowledgement through alternative sources, such as Status.

No significant age differences emerged with respect to job satisfaction, which was unexpected, since several previous studies found that job satisfaction appeared to increase with age (Huddleston et al., 2002; Schultz & Schultz, 1998). However, others also found no clear-cut relationship between these variables (Ritter & Anker, 2002), which supports the findings of the present study.

With respect to corporate culture, significant differences were recorded in the Performance domain, and it appeared that as employees aged, their focus on the customer and on the profitability of the company intensified. Such a finding was not unexpected, since an interest in aspects beyond their own job and work environment could conceivably follow from maturity in the work arena, which could be a function of age.

### 6.3.2 Gender

Significant gender differences were observed on all three constructs relevant to the study, namely employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture, with a clear trend highlighted by the consistently higher ratings given by males on all MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite aspects. The significant differences occurred in the Energy and Dynamism dimension of the MQ, in all domains of the CCQ Lite, and in the Task Characteristics and General Working Conditions scales of the WLQ. Although a plausible explanation would not come to mind, it appeared, for example, that male employees were motivated to a higher degree than female employees by a Fear of Failure at work. This result contradicted the findings of a few authors (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2000; Meyer & Braxton, 2002; Tolbert & Moen, 1998) that females

seemed to be more strongly motivated by the need to master their tasks, and therefore, by implication, by a fear of failure at task mastery.

Despite no direct link between job satisfaction and gender having been found in the literature (Beisiegel, 2003; Bellenger et al., 1984; Busch & Bush, 1978; De Vaus & McAllister, 1991; Guppy & Rick, 1996; Huddleston et al., 2002; Sempane et al., 2002; Senior, 2003), the study data showed that male employees were more satisfied with both the Task Characteristics and Physical Working Conditions of their work environment. It could be surmised that the men in the sample had a higher preference and tolerance for the highly technical, pressurised and routine type of work that typically characterises the marketing research environment, and that they held lower expectations than the women of aspects that contributed towards pleasant working conditions.

Several corporate culture differences between the gender groups were observed. The research data indicated that male employees held stronger perceptions than female employees on several aspects in all domains of the company's culture. These included Encouragement of Creativity, Concern for Employees, Concern for Equal Opportunities, Employee Influence on Decisions, Concern for Safety, Vertical Relations between Groups and Communication Effectiveness. The only exceptions, i.e. where females perceived a stronger culture in the company than males, was on Customer Orientation and Commercial Orientation. References from the literature to either confirm or disagree with these findings were not found.

### 6.3.3 Tenure

Significant differences between tenure groups were highlighted in the areas of job satisfaction, and the Decision-making and Relationships domains of corporate culture. No differences were recorded for employee motivation. On Career Matters in the WLQ an interesting trend was observed. Job satisfaction levels started off quite high in employees with less than one year service, and declined as they accumulated more service, and increased again for employees with six or more years of service. This data echoed the findings of Fried and Ferris (1987) that a U-

shaped relationship existed in this regard, namely that employees in both the early and late stages of their careers tended to be more satisfied than their counterparts in the middle phase of their careers. Their explanation for their finding may indeed have held true for the sample group too, namely that the novelty attached to the early years in a job or career could work job satisfaction in hand, as could boosted confidence resulting from increased job experience in later years. The years in between, where employees are still finding their feet and are experientially insecure, could contribute towards a decline in satisfaction.

In terms of corporate cultural (CCQ Lite) issues, it appeared that employees with up to five years of service held stronger views on the organisation's Degree of Formalisation, or bureaucratic culture, than those with six or more years of service. It is plausible that the latter group, i.e. those with more than six years service, may have been in more senior positions where bureaucratic procedures were not as frequently encountered, whereas the lesser tenured group may have been subjected to these routinely, and consequently may have developed a stronger sensitivity in this regard. With regard to interpersonal relations in the organisation, employees with less than one year service held the strongest perceptions of both hierarchical and lateral relations between staff. Employees with between one and two years service displayed the lowest views. The increased attention that new employees often receive in the form of organisational familiarisation and training, and the temporary disillusionment following the drop in attention after the induction period, may contribute towards this finding.

### 6.3.4 Education level

Educational background provided for a number of significant differences in the Energy and Dynamism and Intrinsic dimensions of the MQ, and in the Performance and Human Resources domains of the CCQ Lite. For the most part, it appeared that higher educated employees (notably graduated staff) were less motivated by Competition in the workplace than those with High School or College/Technikon qualifications. However, the graduated group of employees were more motivated by meaningful and stimulating job content than the others. This finding was supported

by Bellenger et al. (1984) and Tolbert and Moen (1998). With reference to organisational culture perceptions, the results suggested that employees' focus on work volume and productivity increased in tandem with a higher educational background. A similar finding pointed towards more pronounced views on the organisation's Concern for Equal Opportunities among employees with university qualifications. No significant differences were observed for job satisfaction.

### 6.3.5 Seniority

Seniority was the demographic variable where not only the largest number of significant differences were observed, but also the clearest trends in respondent perceptions on employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture were noted. In general, it appeared that levels of motivation and job satisfaction, as well as the strength of organisational culture perceptions, increased in parallel with seniority. In the Energy and Dynamism dimension of the MQ, the data indicated that as seniority increased, so did the extent to which respondents were motivated by Level of Activity, i.e. by excessive work demands, especially with respect to load and time requirements. These results were supported by the similar findings of Bellenger et al. (1984) and Kovach (1995). It makes intuitive sense that, in order for staff to progress through the hierarchical ranks, they would need to experience hard work and long hours as motivating and rewarding. Although a significant difference was recorded on Commercial Outlook, no clear trend emerged from the data.

A striking double trend emerged in the relationship between seniority and job satisfaction. Firstly, the seniority variable registered significant differences on all aspects of job satisfaction, except for Task Characteristics where no difference was found. Secondly, job satisfaction on all aspects increased progressively as seniority increased, indicating that Top Management were the most satisfied, and Staff the least satisfied, with the general functioning of the organisation, the physical working conditions, the extent to which people's careers were being advanced through training and other means of development, the social atmosphere in the company, and with the remuneration and benefits structures and policies of the firm. Once again the above results of the study were reinforced by a consistent show of a

positive relationship between seniority and job satisfaction by various researchers (Ronen, 1978; Vroom, 1964; Weaver, 1988). Several plausible reasons for these links have been posited, for example, that the increased responsibility and authority, as well as more prestige, promotion and socialisation opportunities normally associated with senior appointments inherently accounted for elevated job satisfaction (Hoole & Vermeulen, 2003). The same argument might be relevant to aspects such as greater autonomy (Fried & Ferris, 1987) and increased opportunity for decision-making and exercising of jurisdiction (Kline & Boyd, 1994).

With regard to corporate culture and seniority, several trends in the Performance, Human Resources and Decision-making domains emerged from the data. Perceptions relating to corporate culture issues generally strengthened with occupational seniority. Employee perceptions of the extent to which creativity and innovation were encouraged in the company increased as hierarchical level increased. Since this is an important responsibility of management at all levels, such a finding was expected. Not surprisingly, perceptions regarding the level of Concern for Employees and Concern for their Career Development also increased with occupational level. By the nature of their job descriptions, Middle and Top Management need to be concerned with their employees' well-being. Higher seniority was also associated with elevated views on the company's Emphasis on Performance-related Rewards and its Concern for Equal Opportunities for all staff. In contrast to this finding, perceptions of the degree to which procedures and structures were highly formalised and bureaucratic, increased as occupational level decreased, indicating that lower levels of staff held the strongest views on this issue. It seemed plausible that the junior levels of staff would be sensitised to formalised procedures and structures, as these form part of the daily marketing research chain of activities. No clear trend emerged on Employee Influence on Decisions, for which a significant difference was also recorded.

### 6.3.6 Summary

The present study aimed to investigate the relationships of employee motivation and job satisfaction with the demographic variables of age, gender, job tenure education level and seniority. The investigation included assessing whether there were any

significant differences between the various demographic groups with respect to these constructs. In a number of cases previous research findings supported the study data, and in other cases results were found that could not be corroborated by the literature. The data recorded for corporate culture were also reported, although no comparison with findings in the literature could be made, as none had been found.

For age, significant differences were found for employee motivation and corporate culture, and none for job satisfaction. It appeared that older employees were less motivated by Competition and Status in the workplace than their younger colleagues, and also more focused on customer needs and the company's commercial perspective.

Several significant gender differences were recorded for the Energy and Dynamism dimension of employee motivation, two job satisfaction scales and all domains of corporate culture. A strong trend emerged. Almost without exception, male employees rated the measured aspects higher than female employees, indicating for example that men were more highly motivated by a Fear of Failure at work, that they were more satisfied with aspects of their jobs and the work environment, and that they held stronger perceptions on most cultural characteristics of the organisation.

Significant differences on job tenure were observed for job satisfaction and the Decision-making and Relationships domains of corporate culture. A notable trend was the U-shaped relationship of tenure with satisfaction on Career Matters. It appeared that satisfaction in this regard was highest among employees with the least and the most years of service. On the corporate culture side, a trend that stood out was the decline in strength of perceptions about the bureaucratic culture of the organisation among employees with less experience and tenure.

Employees from different educational backgrounds differed significantly on employee motivation and cultural perceptions, specifically in the Energy and Dynamism and Intrinsic motivational dimensions, and Performance and Human Resources cultural domains. Generally, it appeared that higher educated employees were less

motivated by Competition in the workplace, but more highly motivated by meaningful and stimulating work. In addition, the same group felt more strongly about the company's Concern for Equal Opportunities for all employees than their less educated colleagues. Finally, views on workload and productivity issues sharpened with higher education levels.

Significant differences for the seniority demographic variable were recorded for all three constructs, in the Energy and Dynamism domain of the MQ, in all WLQ scales except Task Characteristics, and in the Performance, Human Resources and Decision-making domains of the CCQ Lite. Level of Activity held more motivational value to employees as they progressed upward through the ranks. The same trend was noted for job satisfaction, in that employees were progressively more satisfied with most work-related aspects as they became more senior in the company. On most cultural issues the same trend was evident. There was a steady increase in the strength of employee opinions on the company's Encouragement of Creativity, its Concern for the Employees and their Career Development, as well as on the firm's Emphasis on Performance-related Rewards and its Concern for Equal Opportunities for all its personnel. The reverse trend was observed for the Degree of Formalisation in the organisation, where perceptions were stronger among less senior staff. It seemed that the overall trend pointed towards increased levels of motivation and job satisfaction, as well as stronger cultural perceptions, as seniority increased.

## 6.4 Correlations within and between the dimensions, scales and domains of the questionnaires

Pearson intercorrelation matrices were determined for the scales of the individual dimensions of the MQ, for the scales of the WLQ, and for the scales of the domains of the CCQ Lite. With only two exceptions, all scales in the various dimensions of the MQ correlated significantly and positively with each other. The same was found for the scales of the WLQ, and for the Human Resources and Relationships domains of the CCQ Lite. Within the Performance domain of the CCQ Lite three scales showed no significant correlations with most other scales in the same domain, and were therefore regarded as problematic. These scales were Concern for Quantity,

Encouragement of Creativity and Commercial Orientation. A similar outcome was found for the Decision-making domain of the CCQ Lite, where the Degree of Formalisation, Rate of Change and Concern for Safety scales registered problematic. The Decision-making domain also recorded the only two negative significant correlations on scale level in the study, indicating an inverse relationship between the respondents' perceptions of the Degree of Formalisation in the organisation, and both its Concern for Safety, and the extent of Employee Influence on Decisions in the workplace. The degree of intercorrelation between the dimensions, scales and domains of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite respectively was indicative of the sound construct validity of these instruments, and allowed for the confident use thereof in the study. It also supported the combination of scales into various dimensions and domains in the case of the MQ and CCQ Lite respectively.

## 6.5 Relationships between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture

The strength and direction of the correlations found during the data analysis brought the relationships between the constructs under investigation into view. In this process, correlating the WLQ scales with the dimensions and domains of the MQ and CCQ Lite provided additional and more useful data than would have been the case if an overall total for the WLQ had been used. On a scale level, the data conformed largely to expectations extracted from the relevant theory and literature. In addition, the linear relationships found via the Pearson correlations were confirmed to a large degree by the canonical correlation analysis.

Intercorrelation analyses between the three measurement instruments highlighted three significant relationships, namely between the WLQ and the Energy and Dynamism dimension of the MQ, between the WLQ and all domains of the CCQ Lite, and between the CCQ Lite and the Energy and Dynamism dimension of the MQ. Subsequent canonical correlations confirmed the positive relationship between employee motivation and job satisfaction. It also identified the major contributors to this relationship, namely aspects relating to employees' salaries and other financial benefits, the nature of the work they perform, and their personal Energy and Dynamism motivators.

### 6.5.1 Relationships between employee motivation and job satisfaction

The Energy and Dynamism dimension of employee motivation encompasses those aspects that relate to employees' need for vigorous activity and immersion in their work, and the extent to which they are motivated by achievement and the need to avoid failure. It also incorporates their being motivated by a competitive work environment, by the opportunity to exercise power and authority, and by a clear link between their own contribution and the commercial outlook of the operation. This data suggested firstly that there was a significant and positive relationship between all aspects of job satisfaction, and those needs and motives of the employees that contained elements of energy and dynamism. The staff's satisfaction with the characteristics of their immediate work environment, job content, employment parameters and career prospects increased, along with a number of motivators associated with the work situation. These included the extent to which they were motivated by a considerable work load and stimulating work content, the need to achieve work success, avoid failure and exercise authority in a competitive work environment, as well as by a workplace demanding due emphasis on commercial growth and development. Within the overall relationship between job satisfaction and employee motivation, those linear relationships involving the characteristics of the jobs themselves, and matters involving remuneration and benefits structures in the company were most powerful. From the aforegoing it was evident that a significant relationship existed between job satisfaction and employee motivation, insofar as the energy and dynamism dimension of motivation was concerned.

Both the concept of job satisfaction and the Energy and Dynamism dimension of employee motivation have been well researched over several decades, and are based on a sound theoretical footing, as was shown in Chapter 2. Previous research has pointed towards a number of significant relationships between the two concepts. For example, it was found that job satisfaction was directly affected by the extent to which employees perceived their work as challenging and stimulating (Du Plessis, 2003; Maslow, 1968; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002; Stinson & Johnson, 1977). Coster (1992) found a relationship between job satisfaction and goal orientation, to the

extent that goal pursuance positively influenced job satisfaction. The same finding was noted by Bellenger et al. (1984) and by Strydom and Meyer (2002). Goal-setting theory underscores these findings by positing that people are motivated by their internal intentions, goals and objectives (Spector, 2003). Task enrichment theory further supports this notion by holding that people's motivation is increased by their experience of meaningful and enriching job content (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Porter et al., 1975; Tyagi, 1985). Employees are able to satisfy their need for self-actualisation through performing challenging and stimulating work. The need theorists categorise this particular need as a higher-order need (Alderfer, 1969; Maslow, 1968; McGregor, 1960) and authors such as Coster (1992), Vercueil (1970) and Visser et al. (1997) have found a direct relationship between this motive, on the part of employees, and their level of job satisfaction. Highly energetic and dynamic individuals are also motivated by the opportunity to exercise power over others, according to McClelland's (1987) learned needs theory. Previous and the current research have indeed shown the need for power to be directly related to the experience of job satisfaction (Becherer et al., 1982; Coster, 1992; Hoole & Vermeulen, 2003). From the above it appeared that the relationship found between job satisfaction and motives emanating from employees' energy and dynamism was widely supported by both theory and research.

### 6.5.2 Relationships between job satisfaction and corporate culture

The study found a linear relationship between job satisfaction and corporate culture, indicating that employees' perceptions of the various cultures within the organisation, namely its performance, human resources, decision-making and relationships orientation, related directly to their level of satisfaction with the characteristics of their work environment. These characteristics broadly involved the manner in which the organisation functioned, the content of their jobs and the nature of the environment they worked in, as well as the extent to which their careers were furthered and they were remunerated by the firm. In a positive relationship between job satisfaction and corporate culture, the data found the major drivers to include employee views on the manner in which the organisation functioned, and their feelings about their remuneration and benefits.

Once again, the literature supported the above-mentioned results, except for a negative relationship, found by Agho et al. (1993), Becherer et al. (1982) and Bhargava and Kelkar (2000), between job satisfaction and excessive pressure by the company to produce heavy workloads. In contrast to their findings the present study found the respondents to be more inclined to be satisfied when presented with large work volumes. Although it was found that employees were motivated by and derived job satisfaction from large workloads and tight deadlines, as mentioned earlier, the findings of the above authors suggested that excessiveness in this regard had the opposite effect. With reference to the present study, it could perhaps be surmised that since consistent heavy workload is inherent to the marketing research territory and not at all unusual to people in the field, that this aspect did not elicit a negative response with respect to job satisfaction. The positive relationship recorded between employees' satisfaction and the enforcement of quality and safety standards in the workplace was echoed by the work of Cohen-Rosenthal and Cairnes (1991) and Putti and Kheun (1986). The employees also indicated that they derived satisfaction from the encouragement of creativity and innovation at work, and this finding too was supported by a number of authors (Coster, 1992; Johnson & McIntye, 1998; Odom et al., 1990).

The study data revealed that positive perceptions of the human resources culture of the organisation was related to elevated job satisfaction on the part of the employees. This was the case, for example, for a perceived concern for employees by the organisation, which was also found in numerous previous investigations (Agho et al., 1993; Odom et al., 1990; Putti & Kheun, 1986; Ritter & Anker, 2002; Van Vuuren, 1990). Closely linked to a general concern for employees were the company's endeavours to ensure that all staff have equal access to all opportunities on offer. This culture was also shown to be positively linked to job satisfaction, and was reinforced by the work of authors such as Coetzee and Vermeulen (2003), Ritter and Anker (2002), Veeran and Katz (2002) and Visser et al. (1997).

As was expected, job satisfaction emerged as positively related to the decision-making culture of the organisation. Specific examples of similar findings in the

literature included a negative relationship between job satisfaction and a strong bureaucratic culture, where employees had to conform to many set rules and procedures (Du Preez, 2003; Goodman et al., 2001; Lok & Crawford, 2001; Odom et al., 1990), and a positive relationship between job satisfaction and the extent to which employees were included in day-to-day decision-making. The latter link was powerfully supported by many studies (Churchill et al., 1976; Cohen-Rosenthal & Cairnes, 1991; Du Preez, 2003; Elizur, 1990; Gunter & Furnham, 1996; Johnson & McIntye, 1998; Maree, 2000; McNeely, 1983; Mohrman et al., 1996; Packard, 1989; Valoyi et al., 2000; Visser et al., 1997).

The results displayed a positive and reciprocal relationship between job satisfaction and the relationships culture in the company. This finding was not unexpected, as poor relationships with others in the workplace are generally believed to undermine job satisfaction. The literature has shown this to be the case, via the work of, for example, Agho et al., (1993), Cohen-Rosenthal and Cairnes (1991), Du Preez (2003), Gunter and Furnham (1996), Mc Neely (1983), Ritter and Anker (2002), Strydom and Meyer (2002) and Visser et al. (1997).

### 6.5.3 Relationships between employee motivation and corporate culture

Although no specific reference to studies on the relationship between employee motivation and corporate culture was encountered in the literature, the study data showed that there was indeed a positive relationship between these constructs. Furthermore, this relationship was driven mainly by the Energy and Dynamism dimension of an employee's motivational profile, and his or her perceptions of especially the company's Human Resources, Decision-making and Relationships culture. The emergence of such a relationship was expected, since the data highlighted positive linear relationships between the Energy and Dynamism dimension of employee motivation and job satisfaction, and between job satisfaction and corporate culture. Syllogistic reasoning then pointed towards a resultant link between employee motivation and corporate culture. As indicated in Chapter 3, this argument was reinforced by the fact that theories of job satisfaction also involve motivational and emotional components (Beck, 1983), indicating that if job

satisfaction is positively linked to both employee motivation and corporate culture, a link between employee motivation and corporate culture should also exist.

### 6.5.4 Summary

Overall, there was a considerable degree of overlap between the findings of the present and previous investigations into the relationships between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture. The response styles of the sample employees were therefore very similar to those of many others in several other industries, both in South Africa and internationally. This serves as powerful support for and confirmation of the reliability and validity of the findings of the present study. On the one hand the relationships of job satisfaction with the dimensions of employee motivation and the domains of corporate culture have been confirmed, as have those between the dimensions of employee motivation and the domains of corporate culture.

The relationships between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture were investigated on three levels. Firstly, the correlations within the dimensions, scales and domains of the MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite were determined and found to be adequately cohesive in representing the underlying theoretical constructs. This also supported the presentation and interpretation of the study data on dimension and domain level, in the case of the MQ and CCQ Lite respectively. Secondly, the correlations between the dimensions, scales and domains of the three measurement instruments showed that significant relationships existed between the scales and domains of both the WLQ and CCQ Lite and the Energy and Dynamism dimension of the MQ, and between all scales and domains of the WLQ and CCQ Lite respectively. Finally, the relationships between the complete sets of data for each measurement instrument were extracted by means of canonical correlation analysis, from which it transpired that certain aspects of employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture contributed more powerfully towards the said relationships than others. Both the study data and supporting research evidence were in line with the notion that people's perceptions and behaviour in the workplace are driven by a set of personal, innate needs (Maslow, 1968), and by their perceptions of numerous

job- and organisation-related variables (Gouws, 1995; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2002). The expectation was therefore that some kind of relationship between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture would exist. The findings brought the nature of this three-way relationship between the constructs under investigation into full view.

## 6.6 Chapter summary

This chapter provided a comprehensive discussion of the results of the investigation. The sequence of the discussion covered a brief overview of the reliability of the measurement instruments and the descriptive statistics of each, followed by detailed coverage of the influence of demographic variables on employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture. The validity of the instruments was discussed, while the last section explored the relationship between the constructs at hand, and highlighted noteworthy findings in that regard.

Chapter 7 summarises and concludes these findings, and provides a number of recommendations for corporations in the marketing research industry based thereon.

# CHAPTER 7

# CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings gleaned from the study are concluded in this chapter. Where prudent, recommendations with regard to the issues highlighted are also offered, in the hope that these might be useful and meaningful to the marketing research industry.

## 7.1 Problem statement

This research study set out to investigate the relationships of job satisfaction with the dimensions of employee motivation and the domains of corporate culture, as well as the relationships between the dimensions of employee motivation and the domains of corporate culture. In addition, it explored the effect of a number of demographic variables, namely age, gender, job tenure, education level and seniority on employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture. The aims of the study were set against the background of certain challenges faced by the marketing research industry, notably its considerable work load and deadline pressures, the need for research staff to work effectively on both a conceptual and detailed operational level, and the industry's reputed uninspiring remuneration and benefits structures in comparison to its expectations. All of these challenges render the recruitment and retention of high calibre employees, who add value to the core business over the long term, a considerable feat. These challenges are exacerbated by the fact that marketing research operates in a rapidly developing and competitive environment, especially in countries such as South Africa, where not only local business is growing fast, but increasing international activity is taking place. It is therefore crucial for marketing research organisations to ensure that they are continually able to attract and retain professional, efficient and productive staff. Since high levels of motivation and satisfaction, which presupposes an adequate employee-culture fit, make this challenge considerably more achievable, stakeholders in the industry need to understand how employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture relate to work and the working environment, and therefore ultimately to the bottom line.

## 7.2 Brief overview of the research methodology

The MQ, WLQ and CCQ Lite were administered to the majority of staff permanently employed by a prominent marketing research house, whereafter the questionnaires were scored and the data processed for further analysis by the developer of the MQ and CCQ Lite. The statistical analysis of the data was subsequently performed by the statistical consultation service of a leading South African university. This phase included the determination of the reliability and descriptive data of the three measurement instruments, as well as a series of Pearson and canonical correlation analyses. The Pearson correlations were carried out in order to assess the construct validity of the instruments used in the study, and to investigate the relationships within and between the various dimensions, scales and domains of the different tests. The canonical correlation procedure augmented this information by highlighting the major drivers in the relationships between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture. In order to determine whether the selected demographic variables had any significant effect on the said constructs, a number of tests for significant differences between the categories of each demographic variable were applied. This step preceded the determination of the Pearson and canonical correlations. For all demographic variables except gender, analyses of variance (ANOVA) were performed, whereas the T-test for independent means was performed for gender. The Scheffe Post Hoc test was also performed for all demographic variables with three or more groups, to indicate whether there were significant differences between any specific groups within the particular demographic variable. In the final step, the large volume of data generated by the numerous statistical analyses on the data from the three very comprehensive tests were interpreted against both the theories underpinning employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture, and the literature in this regard.

## 7.3 Conclusions and recommendations regarding the influence of demographic variables on, and the three-way relationship between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture

From the two main sets of study data, namely those relating to the relationship between the demographic variables of the respondents and their stance with respect to employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture, and those relating to the relationship between these constructs, a number of conclusions have been drawn. The literature cited work that both supported some of the findings, and work that did not. The discussion that follows covers the specific findings of the present study, and the conclusions and recommendations that have been put forward have been based solely on these findings. The data was relevant to the sample used in the study, which was believed to be sufficiently representative of the marketing research industry, for purposes of this study. Although many of the results may have generic application, it needs to be borne in mind that the discussion was focused first and foremost on the marketing research industry. In essence, this discussion aimed primarily at creating an awareness of the significant issues highlighted by the findings. Whatever recommendations accompanied these should be regarded as auxiliary.

### 7.3.1 The relationship between demographic variables and employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture

The findings of the first part of the study suggested that there was interplay between employees' demographic profiles and their levels of motivation and satisfaction at work, as well as their perceptions of the culture of the organisation. Age impacted on employee motivation and on their cultural perceptions, but showed no relationship with their experience of job satisfaction. Clear trends emerging suggested that as employees age, they become less inclined to be motivated by competition in the workplace, or by overt indicators of occupational status. In addition, it appeared that older employees are also more inclined than younger ones to focus on customer service and the commercial well-being of the organisation. It may therefore be in the

organisation's interest to ensure that its performance and seniority systems are differentiated and offer motivators that appeal to employees of all ages. Placing older people in positions where a stronger awareness of customer satisfaction and the commercial performance of the organisation is necessary, will add considerable value.

Employee gender displayed a marked influence on employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture in that, with almost no exception, male employees appeared to be more highly motivated, more satisfied, and held stronger cultural views than female employees. Specifically, men were more strongly motivated by a fear of failure than women, and more satisfied with the characteristics of their jobs and work environments. They generally also held stronger perceptions on a variety of cultural issues, such as the company's encouragement of creativity amongst its staff, its profit orientation, its concern for employee well-being and access to equal opportunities, the extent of employee participation in decision-making, the amount of concern for the safety of staff and customers, as well as the quality of staff relations across the various hierarchical levels, and the overall effectiveness of communication throughout the organisation. Females, on the other hand, displayed a stronger orientation towards the company's clientele and the organisation's commercial standing in the business world, than men. From these results it seemed as if companies might do well to ensure that especially their male employees always work towards challenging goals to keep them motivated, not only by virtue of the challenge of the task, but also for fear of failing at achieving them. It might also be prudent to explore why female employees tend to be less satisfied with their task characteristics and work environments than their male colleagues, and address this unsatisfactory and potentially problematic situation, particularly since women represent a large sector of the labour force, especially in the marketing research industry. Similarly, managements should be aware that males appear to be holding stronger cultural perceptions than females on most organisational issues, and that this holds implications for their own and their female counterparts' motivation and job satisfaction in the organisation. For example, the reason for males experiencing a stronger creativity encouragement culture than females, or having a stronger belief that the company cares about its staff and offers equal opportunities for all, should

be investigated, as it might indicate that those opinions are held because males are being favoured in this regard, which would almost certainly impact adversely on female employees' motivation and satisfaction levels.

The study data indicated that employees' periods of service influenced their job satisfaction and certain perspectives of the organisation's culture, whilst their levels of motivation remained unaffected by their tenure. It seemed that job satisfaction was highest among employees with the least (less than one year) and a higher (three years or more) number of years in the job, and that those with one to two years service experienced a decline in job satisfaction. This finding suggested that sufficient attention should be paid to the needs and requirements of especially staff with between one and two years of service, so as to prevent their decline in job satisfaction from mobilising them towards seeking alternative employment. In the marketing research industry this group of employees might very well consist largely of young people, in which case the appropriate motivators should be in place to enhance the company's retention potential. As mentioned earlier, a competitive work environment and visible tokens of performance and achievement appear to be some of the aspects that hold considerable motivation value for younger personnel. With regard to views on corporate culture, a large proportion of employees, namely those with between one and five years of service, perceived a stronger bureaucratic culture than the rest. Since a culture that is experienced as highly bureaucratic might have a negative effect on many employees' motivation and satisfaction, it is important for companies to assess such perceptions and implement actions to effect a more balanced and positive view of operations among staff. Better still would be to ensure that the company culture subscribes to only that level of bureaucracy that is necessary for orderly operations, and that sufficient flexibility is allowed for employees not to feel restricted by rigid structures and procedures.

The demographic variable of education level showed a number of significant effects on employee motivation and on their perceptions of the organisation's culture. However, no effect on the job satisfaction of the respondents emerged. The results indicated that higher educated staff, notably those with tertiary and postgraduate degrees are less motivated by work involving an element of competition than the

employees with High School and College/Technikon qualifications. They are, however, more motivated by job content than the latter group. Meaningful and stimulating work would therefore serve as more powerful motivators to them than to their lesser-educated colleagues. This is an important aspect for managements to consider not only when recruiting, moving or promoting people, but also when designing job profiles and the accompanying skills and educational requirements. The findings further suggested that the higher educated personnel tended to have stronger views on the organisation's emphasis on productivity, and on its concern about issues surrounding equal access of all staff to the range of benefits and opportunities.

Seniority was highlighted as having a considerable influence on all the constructs under investigation. It appeared that as personnel occupied more senior positions in the organisation, not only did their level of energetic and dynamic motivation increase, but also their satisfaction with their jobs and work environments. Although it is impossible for all staff to occupy senior positions, it would serve companies well to be aware that junior staff are less inclined to be motivated by considerable pressure for productivity. Only as staff climb the corporate ladder, do they become more highly motivated by heavier workloads and deadlines. In addition, as staff mature and develop in the company, and occupy more senior positions as a result, they seem to grow more satisfied with various aspects of their jobs and work environments. This bodes well for company success, and makes continual monitoring of the general satisfaction levels of people progressing through the ranks advisable. Several clear trends also surfaced with respect to the link between employees' occupational level, and their cultural perceptions of the organisation. On the whole, it appeared that the more senior personnel were, the stronger or more positive their perceptions were on issues such as the extent to which creativity and innovation were encouraged, the degree of company concern for employees, their career development and equal opportunities for all, and on the extent to which performance was linked to recognition and reward. However, the lower staff were positioned in the organisation, the more pronounced they believed the bureaucratic culture of the organisation to be. This coincided with the views of lesser tenured staff, namely those with up to five years service. As already mentioned, employee

perceptions of corporate culture impact on their motivational approach to work and on their experience of satisfaction whilst at work. For this reason corporations endeavouring to establish and maintain motivated and satisfied staff corps should keep close tabs on how their people view matters of culture in the organisation.

From the aforegoing it is clear that the demographic profiles with which people enter employer organisations ultimately affect such companies' profitability and effectiveness indirectly by impacting on the employees' motivation and job satisfaction. It is therefore advisable that personnel demographics be recognised and appreciated fully for their considerable potential to affect organisational growth and development. Enterprises should ensure that, as far as practically possible, there is adequate scope for individual customisation of work content and performance reward structures, as well as characteristics of the work environment, based on demographic profile. The challenges posed by such an approach are likely to be outweighed by the benefits in terms of business performance.

### 7.3.2 The relationship between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture

The second part of the study was concerned with exploring the relationship between the three constructs of interest, and a three-way relationship between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture was found. Specifically, it appeared that the respondents' job satisfaction was directly related to those motives and needs that were associated with their energy and dynamism. Furthermore, their job satisfaction was also directly related to the manner in which they perceived the culture of the organisation, and finally, the results showed that the employees' energetic and dynamic motivational profile was also directly related to their views of the culture of the enterprise. From these results the deduction was made that a three-way relationship between employees' job satisfaction, their corporate culture perceptions, and the energy and dynamism dimension of their motivational make-up existed. Furthermore, certain aspects exerted a stronger influence in this relationship than others. For example, it was found that in the relationship between employee motivation and job satisfaction, matters relating to energy and dynamism,

and to task characteristics and remuneration matters, exercised the most impact. Similarly, in the relationship between job satisfaction and corporate culture, the highest impact was exerted by matters relating to organisational functioning, physical working conditions and remuneration and benefits, as well as by human resources and decision-making cultural aspects respectively. Lastly, in the relationship between employee motivation and corporate culture, energy and dynamism motivational aspects, along with human resources and relationships culture issues were most influential. Collectively these findings indicated that, although a firm relationship existed between employees' motivational profiles, their level of job satisfaction, and their corporate culture perspectives, the three-way relationship is largely shaped by the following variables:

Employees' energy and dynamism motivational characteristics
Employees' perceptions of their task characteristics
Employees' perceptions of their physical working conditions
Employees' perceptions of their remuneration and benefits structures
Employees' perceptions of the organisation's human resources culture
Employees' perceptions of the organisation's decision-making culture
Employees' perceptions of the organisation's relationships culture

The above findings provided powerful tools that marketing research organisations in particular may apply in their quest to provide an optimal fit between the personal characteristics of their personnel and those of the work environment in order to bring about high levels of job satisfaction and motivation, which ultimately determine organisational development and survival to a large degree.

### 7.3.3 Summary

In terms of the overarching objectives of the study, it was found that relationships on both levels existed, namely between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture, as well as between employee demographics and these constructs. Where possible or appropriate, a number of recommendations were offered to companies in the marketing research industry.

## 7.4 Contribution of the study towards psychological and organisational knowledge

Based on the findings of the study it is believed that the present study contributed to the body of psychological and organisational knowledge in the following ways:

By being one of the first South African studies to investigate and confirm the nature of the three-way relationship between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture, through an improved understanding of how knowledge of this relationship may be used to direct and inform strategies for organisational effectiveness and business excellence.

By adding to the understanding of the effect that the demographic profiles of employees exert on their experience of the organisation's culture, as well as on their own motivation and satisfaction at work

By adding to the large amount of existing research confirming the many well-known theories of motivation and job satisfaction which have already stood the test of time in their ability to direct and explain scientific enquiry.

## 7.5 Limitations of the study

The major limitations of the study were as follows:

The respondent sample was fairly small, and drawn from only one organisation. A larger sample of respondents from several marketing research organisations would have increased the generalisability of the results.

The measurement instruments were complicated in that they contained numerous scales that had to be cross-correlated for purposes of the study. This resulted in an almost unwieldy volume of information.

## 7.6 Further research

It is recommended that further research in this area includes:

More extensive investigation into the relationship between motivation and corporate culture.

More extensive investigation into the relationship between the demographic variables of employees and corporate culture.

The application of structural equation modelling to provide a more detailed and directional view of the deeper relationships between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture.

Extending similar research to other industries.

## 7.7 Chapter summary

This chapter briefly reviewed the context, objectives and methodology of the study. It concluded the major findings of the study, and offered a number of recommendations to employers in the marketing research industry. The contribution of the project towards psychological and organisational knowledge was discussed, and reference made to its limitations as a scientific study. Finally, suggestions regarding related future research were made.

**ANNEXURE D**

**Table D1 INTERCORRELATIONS ON THE CORPORATE CULTURE QUESTIONNAIRE**

| | | Performance | Human Resources | Decision-making | Relationships |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Performance | Correlation | 1.0000 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | p-value | p= --- | p=0.000 | p=0.000 | p=0.000 |
| Human Resources | Correlation | 0 | 1.0000 | 1 | 1 |
| | p-value | p=0.000 | p= --- | p=0.000 | p=0.000 |
| Decision-making | Correlation | 0 | 1 | 1.0000 | 1 |
| | p-value | p=0.000 | p=0.000 | p= --- | p=0.000 |
| Relationships | Correlation | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1.0000 |
| | p-value | p=0.000 | p=0.000 | p=0.000 | p= --- |

**Table D2 FACTOR LOADINGS FOR 18 SCALES FROM THE STANDARDISATION TRIALS AFTER VARIMAX ROTATION )LOADINGS BELOW 0.4 OMITTED)**
**(Source:** Baron, H., Henley, S., McGibbon, A., & McCarthy, T. (2002). Motivation questionnaire manual and user's guide. United Kingdom.)

| Scale | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 | Factor 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Active** | **0.75** | | | |
| **Achievement** | **0.60** | **0.44** | | |
| **Competition** | **0.71** | | **0.47** | |
| **Fear of Failure** | **0.55** | | | |
| **Power** | **0.60** | | | |
| **Immersion** | **0.75** | | | |
| **Commercial Outlook** | **0.64** | | **0.40** | |
| **Affiliation** | | **0.76** | | |
| **Recognition** | | **0.48** | **0.52** | |
| **Personal Principles** | | **0.65** | | |
| **Ease and Security** | **-0.58** | | | |
| **Personal Growth** | | **0.65** | | |
| **Interest** | | | | **0.58** |
| **Flexibility** | | | | **0.74** |
| **Autonomy** | | | | **0.72** |
| **Material Reward** | | | **0.80** | |
| **Progression** | | | **0.70** | |
| **Status** | | | **0.78** | |

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