



**Association between
employee motivation and employee demographics
in the banking industry**

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by

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ABSTRACT

Fourteen years after the demise of apartheid and embrace of democracy, South Africa as a nation is still undergoing its transformation politically, socially and economically. This environmental churning has high impact on employee perceptions within the workplace, which subsequently affects retention rates. Among the challenges facing people managers in this environment is employee motivation. However, to thoroughly understand what motivates today's diverse employee base, one needs to look further than the current landscape into historical backgrounds, to build up character models for different demographics.

The study aimed to identify associations between employee motivation and employee demographics (gender, age, race and organisational level) in the South African banking industry by also taking into account South African history to understand these associations and to translate the insights gained into effective leadership.

A survey questionnaire, based on ten motivation factors, was adapted from similar studies pioneered by Kovach in 1946, who conducted subsequent studies in 1987 and 1995. The questionnaire for this study was forwarded via email to South African banking employees requesting them to provide demographic data and complete a short questionnaire with two countercheck questions per motivation factor. The collected data was then analysed to identify any associations by highlighting differences in means of the responses to the motivation factors between employee demographic categories. The means were also used to rank the ten motivation factors for each demographic category.

It was concluded that there were associations, particularly between generations and the motivation factors, while gender showed the least association. On the other hand, similarities were also identified. Deserving of particular mention are similarities indicative of the Ubuntu concept of African culture across all demographic categories. Recommendations for retention strategies were provided based on these conclusions.



DECLARATION

I, Mr Marvin Perumal, declare that this research report is my own work except as indicated in the references and acknowledgements. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Leadership to the Graduate School of Business Leadership (University of South Africa). It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

Mr Marvin Perumal (70991081)

Signed at

On the day of 2008



DEDICATION

To my parents, Krish and Jay Perumal, thank you for the foundation that you built within me, giving me the strength to believe that anything is possible. Making you both proud is my drive to succeed - I dedicate this report to you.



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CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION

1.1 Introduction

“Intercultural sensitivity is not natural. It is not part of our primitive past, nor has it characterised most of human history. Cross-cultural contact has often been accompanied by bloodshed, oppression or genocide. Clearly, this pattern cannot continue. Today, failure to exercise intercultural sensitivity is not simply bad business or bad morality – it is self destructive. So we face a choice: overcome the legacy of our history, or lose history for all time” (Bennet in ABSA, 2005b).

South African (SA) history has inflicted high degrees of physiological and psychology turmoil on its citizens. Under the apartheid regime, blacks experienced humiliating challenges from which buses they were allowed to board on the way home to which toilets were designated for their use, while whites were constantly plagued with worry of being the minority in power and implemented firm and harsh policies to sustain their superiority (Beaty and Harari, 1987). The freeing of Mandela marked a milestone in SA history as the beginning of a transformation process that would bring new challenges for nation but under the umbrella of a more equitable “rainbow nation” (Booyesen, 2007b). The election in 1994 specifically transferred power, practically overnight, to the blacks. These power shifts came not only in a political sense, but soon in an economic, legislative and social form as well. While equality was the undertone of the all the power shifts, SA was not starting from a clean slate, but was simultaneously grappling through traces of discrimination from its “previous life”. Job-hopping among high calibre blacks, emigration of valuable white talent in scarce skills, concerns over tokenism regarding recruitment of blacks, black women claiming that white males still hold influential positions in business and coloureds and indians accusing the new SA of being a “reverse apartheid” are among the most salient issues (Booyesen, 2007c) that the current democratic regime needs to resolve during this phase of transformation.



A key commonality among the symptoms of transformation listed above is the problem of employee attrition. Diversity management specialists strongly propose a paradigm shift in management practices away from traditional leadership towards transformational leadership (Booyesen, 2001) to improve employee retention. They recommend that a heterogeneous workforce be managed as such, with multiculturalism and not acculturation. SA leadership needs to embrace an integrative approach (Allard, 2002), where differences are appreciated and uniqueness is respected. The humanistic philosophy of Ubuntu (meaning “I am because we are”) and its embeddedness in African culture is pitched as the reference point for transformation leadership, valuing cooperation, caring, respect and generally being good and working for a common good (Booyesen, 2001). Leadership studies have identified a significant misalignment between Ubuntu and Eurocentric management practices while new support for an Afrocentric style of management that embraces the culture of Ubuntu is evident.

However, if diversity of the SA workforce demands integrative leadership practices and assimilation is being discouraged then that brings an added complexity of understanding what motivates employees from the different cultures. The salient social identities of race and gender are specific to SA, but internationally age and organisational levels have also proved to be challenging differentiating characteristics for managers when trying to maintain high motivation levels among employees (Wong, Sui and Tsang, 1999).

1.2 Purpose and Objectives of Study

The main objective of the study is to support retention efforts in the South African banking industry by furthering the understanding of what motivates their employees.

Among the associated objectives are:

- Provide a prioritised list of motivators that managers can integrate within their existing retention strategy



- Identify key differences in the sources of motivation among the diverse SA cultures
- Add to the existing South African body of knowledge in the field
- Ensure versatility of the research through the use of globally accepted theoretical models to facilitate inclusion in future studies of a similar nature and in so doing, support comparative analysis

1.3 Statement of the problem and sub-problems

Problem statement: To identify any associations between employee motivation factors and employee demographics (gender, age, race, organisational level) in the South African banking industry.

Subproblem 1: To identify any associations between employee motivation factors and gender in the South African banking industry.

Subproblem 2: To identify any associations between employee motivation factors and age in the South African banking industry.

Subproblem 3: To identify any associations between employee motivation factors and race in the South African banking industry.

Subproblem 4: To identify any associations between employee motivation factors and organisational level in the South African banking industry.

1.4 Delimitations and assumptions

1.4.1 *Delimitations*

- The study has been restricted to confirming the theory within the employee population of the SA banking industry.
- Only four demographic dimensions, viz. gender, age, race and organisational level will be included in the research study



-
- The race demographic is restricted to the four official South African race groups: black africans, coloureds, indians and whites
 - The age demographic will be analysed by a categorization that is equivalent of the following three generations (McNally, 2007; Yu and Miller, 2005):
 - Veterans (1920-1944): 64-88 years old
 - Baby Boomers (1945-1964): 44-63 years old
 - Generation X (1965-1980): 28-43 years old
 - Generation Y (1981-1999): 9-27 years old
 - The organisation levels that will be included in the study are (Financial Sector Charter Council, 2008):
 - Senior management
 - Middle management
 - Junior management
 - Non-management

1.4.2 Assumptions

- It is assumed that all participants in the study are South African citizens and can therefore be identified within one of the official race groups
- It is assumed that all employees in the sample can be categorised by the four age generations
- It is assumed that all employees in the sample can be categorised by the four organisational levels



1.5 Importance of study

Employee retention is a global concept which, in large companies, involves dedicated teams who devise strategies to reduce their organisation's attrition rate. In SA, however, retention strategies are executed on the backdrop of historical sentiments including discrimination, oppression and distrust. These varying degrees of emotion are based on the differentiators that make the SA workforce diverse. SA leaders are therefore tasked, not only with respecting the diverse workforce and its emotions, but also appreciating the same diversity (Allard, 2002) as leverage for employee motivation. One of the key questions in this sphere of managing and valuing diversity is to ascertain the motivation factors per diversity group. By understanding what motivates the members of each group to perform optimally, leaders are more capable of extracting value from the diversity of their employees. Integrating this knowledge with leadership in SA, can realise various benefits:

- The injection of black South Africans and women into organisations has been highlighted as a major change in the cultural diversity issues relevant to leadership and the workforce in SA. A mind shift has already been initiated to recognise the value that traditional women's skills and experience can add to leadership. Contrary to historical management styles, a feminine (as opposed to masculine) approach to leadership has the advantage of alignment with the spirit of equality and an increasing worldwide inclination towards horizontal organisations and workforce empowerment (Booyesen and Nkomo, 2006).
- Recognizing the reality of a truly South African workforce will require development of more indigenous management practices. This includes embracing Afrocentric management values that factor in very specific South African contextual and cultural factors, such as Ubuntu (Booyesen, 2001).
- Innovation, challenging environments and leverage of resources are key success factors in the competitive advantage of a company's strategy. Diversity management can have direct impact on the quality of innovative



delivery and is critical as a capability of SA organisations to compete in today's highly competitive, global marketplace (ABSA, 2005a).

1.6 Outline of research report

The report is broadly divided into two logical sections: the review of existing literature and the specific research study. Chapter 1 (current chapter) provides an introduction to the study and additional detail on the purpose and importance of the study. Other orientation-related aspects are also discussed. Chapter 2 introduces the theory behind the two key components of the study, that is, culture and motivation. The discussion is kept generic. Chapter 3 introduces the South African context and combines the theory from the previous chapter, predominantly culture-related, to deliver an integrated discussion of SA culture. As one of the demographic variables of the report, research on age in the form of generations is then considered before studies on cultural diversity is introduced. Past motivation studies are also highlighted with their links to the theorists mentioned in Chapter 2. Having covered the existing literature section of the report, Chapter 4 discusses the specific research study with an in depth discussion of the research design and methodology. Chapter 5 analyses the results of the data collected by the methodology employed and uses the data to test the hypotheses. The chapter also includes a rank of the motivation factors for each demographic variable. Chapter 6 combines the theories presented in chapter 2, the previous studies presented in chapter 3 and the results of this study presented in chapter 5 to derive conclusions and propose recommendations.

1.7 Conclusion

This chapter has set the scene for the rest of the report. A brief introduction highlighted the salient points of the study with a chronological review of events that motivates for a study of this nature in SA.

The goals of the study were then made explicit to guide the research along a clear path. This included the main problem and subproblems that will be



investigated during the course of the study. The delimitations and assumptions are crucial in defining the scope of the study with clear boundaries to ensure that the study is completed within the allotted timelines.

Towards the close of the chapter, the benefits of the research were made explicit. It is important that such a study hold benefits that are wider than its problems and subproblems and that the bigger picture is kept in mind. This sentiment is reiterated in the objective that the study be conducted with the flexibility for its results to be integrated into future studies.

Before delving into previous studies regarding culture and motivation, it is necessary to introduce these subjects through their related theories to better appreciate the studies that have been conducted in these areas. These theories follow in the next chapter.



CHAPTER 2: DISCUSSION OF THEORY – CULTURE AND MOTIVATION

2.1 Introduction

Before attempting to conduct a research study one needs to establish a clear understanding of the various theories that have been published over history. This will ensure that a comprehensive study is conducted which will add value to the respective field. The chapter therefore includes a generic discussion of the various theories associated with firstly culture and secondly motivation. The discussion begins with the acknowledgement that culture is not a simple concept, but has various dimensions and components that demand attention as one is trying to create an understanding. The second half of the chapter focuses on motivation theory and begins once again with a definition. The simplicity of this definition relative to culture is noted, but only until one enters the discussion of specific motivation theories. The theories have been categorised to facilitate understanding and allow cross-discussion of the theories highlighting their similarities and differences. The integration of all the mentioned motivation theories closes the chapter.

2.2 Culture Theory

2.2.1 Definition

Triandis and Suh (2002) provides a clear indication of the experience of trying to define culture when he says “the conceptualization of culture is by no means a simple matter.” In his attempt to succinctly define culture, Schein (1990) begins with the definition that “culture is what a group learns over a period of time as that group solves its problems of survival in an external environment and its problems of internal integration”. He considers from systems theory, Lewinian field theory and cognitive theory that systems tend towards an equilibrium, attempting to reduce dissonance and align basic categories or



assumptions. He adds that systems containing sub-systems complicates the total system and challenges the tendency towards equilibrium.

Schein (1990) defines culture as a pattern of basis assumptions, invented, discovered or developed by a group, while it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and is therefore taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems. The idea of a successful set of assumptions that can be considered valid and transmitted to future generations is reiterated by Triandis et al. (2002) citing Kluckhohn (1954), who goes on to say “culture is to society what memory is to individuals”. According to Booyesen (2007c), House (1993) and House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta (2004) define culture as common experiences of individuals which result in shared motives, values, beliefs, identities and interpretations or meanings of significant events.

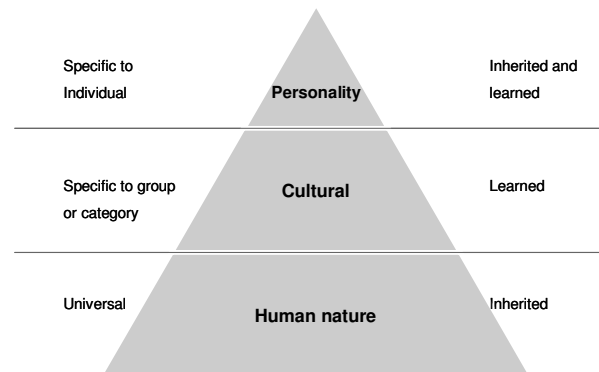
Trompenaars (1993) discusses three layers of culture namely, explicit artefacts and products, a middle layer of norms and values and an inner core of assumptions about existence. The explicit layer refers to the observable reality of language, food, buildings, monuments, fashion, etc. Norms on the other hand are a mutual sense a group has regarding “right” and “wrong” and therefore how one should behave. Values determine the definition of “good and bad” and therefore direct how one aspires or desires to behave. At the core are basic differences in values between cultures that are necessary for human existence. Trompenaars (1993) proposes “survival” as one of the basic values that people strive for.

Schein (1990) defines culture within the realms of psychology and anthropology. This view is supported by Hofstede (1980, 1994) referenced in Human (1996) where he defines culture as the “collective programming of the mind which distinguishes one group of people from another”. Human (1996) refers to this as the classical maximalist definition of culture. In reference to the current debates on culture definition and measurement, she places the protagonists on a continuum between maximalists (universalists) and



minimalists (particularists). Maximalists argue that a person's culture will tend to determine how that person interacts with others, while minimalists support the notion that culture is determined to a large extent by the perception of the other party in the interaction.

Hofstede (1991) in Booyesen (2007c) extends his definition of human mental programming to identify three levels: human nature, culture and personality:



Source: Hofstede (1991) in Booyesen (2007c).

Figure 2.1 Three levels of uniqueness in mental programming

According to Hofstede (1991), human nature is inherited and universal and is the basis of one's physical and psychological functioning. Booyesen (2007c) confirms that this level is independent of any cultural influences and relates only to one's ability to express needs, feelings and emotions. However, the next level "culture" determines how one reacts via feelings, emotions and actions to interpretations of the environment. This level is also specific to a group or category and is learned. The final level, "personality", is specific to an individual and is inherited and learned and relates to that individual's personal interpretations and associated adjustments of the environment (Hofstede, 1991). Personality is described as a function of genetic and environment influences which is confirmed by Triandis et al. (2002) who also states that cultural influences are the most important component of environmental influences. He cites Funder (1997) who defines personality as "an individual's characteristic pattern of thought, emotion and behaviour, together with psychological mechanisms – hidden or not – behind those patterns."



2.2.2 Social Identity group dynamics

In an attempt to explain the influence of intergroup interaction on human behaviour, many studies have been based on social identity theory (SIT) delivered by Turner and Giles in 1981 (Booyesen, 2007a). SIT, a cognitive theory, proposes that individuals are prone to identify with others in common social categories and this in turn influences human interaction. Booyesen (2007b) identifies three components of the psychological and sociological aspects of group behaviour:

- *Categorisation* refers to individuals classifying themselves and others into categories, for example, Indians, 20-somethings and white males
- *Identification* occurs when individuals associate themselves with a certain group in so far as it boosts their self-confidence
- *Comparison* describes individuals comparing groups to identify favourable bias against competing groups

The differentiation of people through categorisation is extended in self-categorisation theory particularly in reference to the “self” (Booyesen, 2007a). It explains how the characteristics of the category are assumed by the individual. These characteristics include attitudes and behaviours of the group that are deemed normative and cause those individuals who associate with the category to think and behave in line with the norm (as defined by the category). Stereotypes emerge when category prototypes are formed by like minded individuals who perceive that they share common features. It is explained further that re-personalisation categorises the ingroup fellow adherents and outgroup members and results in individual identities becoming submerged by stereotypical features which explains in-group favouritism and out-group derogation (Herriot & Scott-Jackson, 2002). This also indicates a fluid nature of identity where deindividualisation refers to the influence of changes in psychological processes of the group on the individual to evolve or adapt in tandem. Self-categorisation explains how some social identities gain saliency in



an environment, for example, race (black, coloured, indian, white) and gender (female, male) in South Africa.

In reference to some of her own work with Nkomo (2006), Booyesen relates findings that race is the dominant categorisation in the South African workplace while gender, ethnicity and professional identity are social identities that are usually embedded in the primary group identification (that is, race categorisation) for intra-group variation purposes.

Booyesen (2007b) makes reference to Roccas and Brewer (2002) who argues that one category evaluates others based on one dominant categorisation, also known as the primary categorisation or most salient categorization. Those individuals who share the salient social identity are known to the individuals' category as in-group members and those who don't have these characteristics in common, are known as out-group members. Booyesen (2007a) relates further that research identifies ethnic or cultural groups as being a highly utilized common denominator in social identification or identity formation (Bornman, 1999).

As per Schein's (1990) consideration of systems theory in defining culture and Alderfer's (1986) embedded group theory in Booyesen (2007a), two others aspects need some consideration: i) the effect of dominance between social identity groups and within social identity groups and ii) the influence of suprasystems on sub-systems.

For her study, Booyesen (2007a) defines social identity conflict as "any discordant transaction that occurs between members of different social identity groups, which can be attributed to identity group membership, and which causes members of either group to feel unsafe, undervalued or disrespected".

Embedded group theory firstly identifies the dominance between social identity groups and the related in- and out- group dynamics. Dominance may exist in number, hierarchy, status, power or access. The theory goes further to describes the influence of supra-systems on subsystems where dynamic parallel processes between the two levels of systems include forces of



dominance and subordination combined with efforts for mutual reinforcing and conflict. Alderfer (1986) summarises: “The effects of one’s own group’s occupying a favourable position in a system may be muted by its being at a relative disadvantage in the supra-system”.

2.2.3 Cultural Dimensions

Many research studies have been conducted to identify a universal list of cultural dimensions that can be used to describe the culture of a specific context. However, the complexity highlighted in the definition of culture penetrates even deeper to identifying an all-encompassing list. Different researchers have their preferences, for example, Booysen (2001) in her studies at South African retail banks regarding Afrocentric and Eurocentric management styles used the cultural dimensions of House, Wright and Aditya (1997), while Licht, Goldschmidt and Schwartz (2007) used his own version in his study of foundations of law and governance.

Complexity was described by Chick (1997) in Triandis et al. (2002) as the dimension that contrasted hunters/gatherers from information societies. The indices of cultural complexity include, among others, gross national product per capita, percent of population that is urban, size of cities and personal computers per capita.

Triandis et al. (2002) also described the dimension of tightness in reference to his own earlier work (Triandis, 1994, 1995) as the degree of enforcement of norms in a culture. Tight cultures strongly enforce a normative system while loose cultures tolerate deviations. The latter is predominant in heterogeneous societies, where multiple normative systems exist, people exercise independence and population density is high (limiting surveillance).

Of all the dimensions, the most important dimension (Triandis, 2004) is individualism and collectivism. Hofstede (1980) cited in Triandis (2004), House (2004) referenced in Booysen (2007a) and the GLOBE project (Javidan, 2006) all included this dimension or derivatives thereof in their studies. Collective societies are generally considered tight and simple (Triandis et al., 2002).



Collectivists believe behaviour is due to external factors, such as norms and roles and not internal factors, such as attitudes and personalities (Triandis, 2004). People give priority to ingroup goals rather than personal goals. There is a high concern for relationships which are maintained with high priority, especially in conflict situations. Individualism, on the other hand, is polar to collectivism, where the personal goals, justice at the expense of relationships and autonomy is emphasized. These societies are typically complex and loose.

Triandis et al. (2002) distinguishes between vertical and horizontal variances of collectivism and individualism. Vertical collectivists value tradition, in-group cohesion, respect for in-group norms and authority. Horizontal collectivists are more concerned with empathy, sociability and cooperation. Vertical individualist cultures are driven by competition and being the best to scale the hierarchy, while horizontal individualists de-emphasise hierarchical differentiation and focus on self-reliance, independence from others and uniqueness.

A further derivation of this dimension is delivered by House et al. (2004) in Booyesen (2007c) where he separates the dimension in-group and institutional encouraging of individualism/collectivism. Institutional individualism refers to organisational and societal institutional practices encouraging prioritizing of personal goals, conflict, independent views, competition for recognition and rewards. Institutional collectivism occurs when societal institutions emphasise group integration, group involvement in societal, legislative, economic, social and political processes, team work, lack of competition and conformity. In-group individualism involves loose ties between individuals, personal goals overruling group goals, privacy, attention to self and close family and individual freedom. In-group collectivism focuses on pride in membership of small groups, interdependence, collective behaviour, strong in-group ties, protection of members and in-group loyalty.

Triandis et al. (2002), in reference to his own work (Triandis, 1985) raised another perspective of individualism and collectivism when he argued that this dimension can be viewed from a cultural and individual level of analysis where allocentrism and idiocentrism would be the respective references. Idiocentric



emphasise self-reliance, competition, uniqueness and hedonism while allocentrics emphasise interdependence, sociability, family integrity and take into account the needs and wishes of in-group members. Triandis (2004) goes further to say that the allocentric/idiocentric ratio in collectivist cultures is approximately 65:35 and the converse is true for individualist cultures. Idiocentrics in collective cultures will feel dominated by the culture and want to escape, while allocentrics in individualist cultures will yearn for groups such as associations, unions, social movements and communes.

A high association exists between Hofstede's (1980) collectivism/ individualism dimension and Schwartz (2000) embeddedness/autonomy dimension respectively. Embeddedness, similar to collectivism, emphasises the individual committing to and maintaining the status quo, traditional order and restriction on behaviours that would disturb group solidarity. Polarised to embeddedness, autonomy encourages uniqueness and is further subdivided into two variations. Intellectual autonomy relates to individuals independently pursuing their own ideas and intellectual directions, while affective autonomy relates to individuals pursuing an affectively positive experience.

Hofstede (1980) in Triandis (2004) also identified Power Distance, which House et al (2004) describes as the extent to which society minimises (low power distance) or sustains (high power distance) inequalities of power and status between individuals and groups in all levels of society (Booyesen, 2007c). Triandis (2004) has associated high power distance with vertical variances of individualism/collectivism and low power distance with the horizontal variances of individualism/collectivism mentioned above. Licht et al. (2007) includes in his list of dimensions "hierarchy/egalitarianism" where high power distance is similar to a hierarchical culture and low power distance can be aligned to an egalitarian society.

Javidan et al. (2006) refers to Uncertainty Avoidance as the extent to which a society, organisation or group places emphasis on social norms, rules and procedures to ensure the predictability of future events. Triandis' (2002) dimension of tightness has direct relevance where a culture with high



uncertainty avoidance can be viewed as a tight society and the converse would reveal a loose culture. An example of a tight culture is Japan, which was even tighter in the 19th century, where deviation from norms can be received with great criticism (Triandis et al., 2002).

Masculinity and femininity was a further dimension from Hofstede (1980) referenced in Licht et al. (2007), which refers to the degree that acquisition of money and things is valued more than the high quality of life for others. Triandis et al. (2002) correlates masculinity to domestic political violence. House et al. (2004), in his extension of Hofstede (1980) is cited in Booysen (2007c) as dividing this dimension into two new dimensions: gender egalitarianism and assertiveness. Gender egalitarianism is the extent to which society maximises or minimizes gender inequality while assertiveness refers to the extent to which individuals are confrontational and aggressive in their interaction with others (Javidan et al., 2006). According to House et al. (2004) it is possible to consolidate these two dimensions into the masculinity/femininity dimension, where high egalitarianism and low assertiveness describes a feminine culture and low egalitarianism and high assertiveness refers to a masculine society.

House et al. (2004) includes three other dimensions including future orientation, humane orientation and performance orientation. Future orientation is the degree to which the culture encourages either past/present or future oriented thoughts and actions. Humane orientation refers to the extent of encouragement from society towards either hostile or aggressive behaviour versus fairness, generosity and kindness towards others. A high performance oriented culture emphasises achievement and excellence.

A third dimension from Licht et al. (2007) measures mastery or harmony in the relation of humankind to the natural and social world. Mastery encourages progress through self-assertion and exploitation of the natural and social environment. House's et al (2004) high assertiveness and high performance orientation can be associated with mastery. Harmony, at the other pole, emphasises acceptance of the social and physical world and trying to fit in, which conversely relates to low assertiveness and low performance orientation.

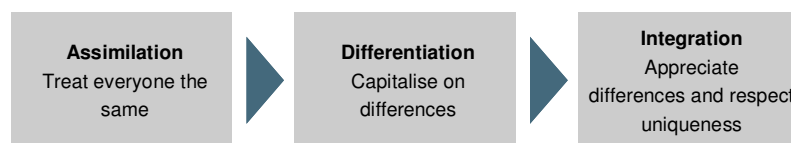


2.2.4 Cultural Diversity

Booyesen (2007c) emphasises the need to move away from assimilation or the “melting pot” theory to multiculturalism where diversity can be leveraged for competitive advantage. She identifies the risk of the potential alternative which includes misunderstandings, conflict, dissension, superiority and disrespect. As mitigation to these risks the following tasks are recommended for individuals in diverse groups:

- Acknowledge that cultural differences can result in conflict and misunderstanding
- Appreciate the differences between cultures in the groups and learn to accommodate and respect such differences
- Identify the similarities between cultures that can be used in conjunction with the differences to support each other and work effectively

According to Booyesen (2007c), Allard (2002) refers to the policy evolution of diversity management in America, depicted below. He discusses the movement in the past 30 years away from assimilation’s melting pot towards the affirmative action and equal opportunity programmes of differentiation and the present focus on multiculturalism which appreciates diversity and simultaneously encourages uniqueness in the realm of integration.



Source: Allard (2002:7) in Booyesen (2007c).

Figure 2.2 Diversity management policy evolution

Allard (2002) continues to explain that in America, policy modelling starting at the assimilation end of the model, rapidly shifted to the differentiation (an opposite extreme to assimilation) and has settled in a more stable area of the continuum that integrates elements of both extremes. He also cautions that



diversity theory is ahead of its practical implementation in organisations. Booyesen (2007c) draws a parallel to South Africa where organisations can be positioned either in the extremes of assimilation or differentiation.

Cox and Blake (2002) in Booyesen (2007c) explicitly identify key competitive advantages of managing cultural diversity. They categorise the advantages between i) “inevitability of diversity” which highlights that competitiveness is dependent on the need to hire more women and minorities which is the workforce demographics trend and ii) “value in diversity hypothesis” which equals a net-added value to organisational processes.

The “inevitability of diversity” advantages include:

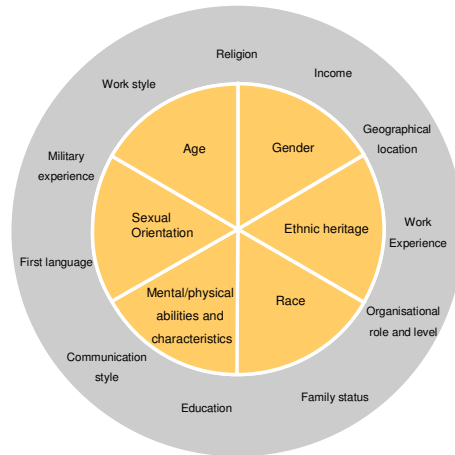
- Cost argument: Poor integration of increasingly diverse workforces will result in increasing costs into the future
- Resource acquisition argument: Organisations with the better integration of diverse workforces will attract the best personnel among women and ethnic minorities

The “value in diversity hypothesis” advantages include:

- Marketing argument: Diverse workforces can increase the cultural sensitivity of an organisation’s marketing efforts to the respective sub-populations of countries represented by personnel in the organisation’s workforce
- Creativity argument: Diversity of perspectives and alleviation of conformity will increase the levels of creativity
- Problem-solving argument: Diverse workforces increase the heterogeneity of decision making and problem solving groups resulting a greater variety of perspectives, a higher level of critical analysis and ultimately more thoroughly tested solutions
- System flexibility argument: Multiculturalism will demand a more fluid system and therefore one that is more flexible to react to environmental changes.



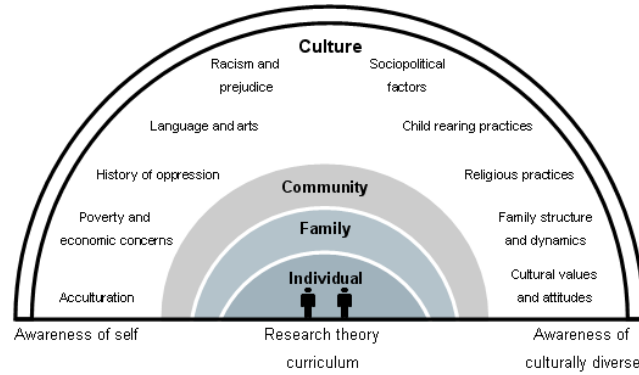
Allard (2002) classifies diversity into primary and secondary dimensions as depicted in the figure below. Primary dimensions are core to the individual and are immutable, for example, gender, race and physical appearance, while secondary dimensions can be changed or modified and include education, religion, income and family status. The combination of primary and secondary dimensions delivers an individuals values, priorities and perceptions.



Source: Allard (2002) In Booysen (2007c).

Figure 2.3 Primary and secondary diversity dimensions

Allard (2002) argues further that multiculturalism extends beyond the self of primary and secondary dimensions to include not only an independent view but also an interdependent view within the organisation and among fellow colleagues. **Figure 2.4** below, depicts the family, organisational and community influences with the global and larger cultural factors.



Source: Allard (2002) In Booysen (2007c).

Figure 2.4 Model of multicultural understanding

Trompenaars (1993) highlights the increasing urgency for international managers to elevate their cultural intelligence as the concept of glocalisation becomes more applicable to today's global business landscape. On the one hand, managers attempt to standardise on organisational design, systems and procedures in their global organisations, however they simultaneously need to adapt to local characteristics of the market, the legislation, the fiscal regime, the socio-political systems and the cultural system. The "balance between consistency and adaptation is essential for corporate success" (Trompenaars (1993:3). Human (1996) argues that managing diversity programmes positioned at promoting cultural intelligence sometimes incorrectly focus on managing culture. She cautions against the following signs of this confusion. Firstly, the definitions of culture in these programmes can be unnecessarily fixed and inflexible. Secondly, social variables that are discussed are limited to national or ethnic culture. Thirdly, these programmes tend to ignore the relationship between power and culture and the related impact on performance. Finally Human (1996) identifies that these programmes rarely request of delegates to enter a mode of self-reflection to internalise the concepts and begin with any change from within.

Culture theory will be used in the study to explain varying attitudes to motivation. Thus, having discussed culture theory in detail, a critical account of motivation theory follows as the second key topic of the research study.



2.3 Motivation Theory

2.3.1 Definition of Motivation

In his review of motivation theories, Ramlall (2004) starts his discussion with reference to the Latin word “movere”, meaning to move. He argues further that motivation represents “those psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction, and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal oriented”, specifically organisational goals (Mitchell, 1982). Robbins (1993) is also cited to define motivation as the “willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organisational goals, conditioned by the effort’s ability to satisfy some individual need”. Robbins (1993) continues to explain the motivation process is initiated by an unsatisfied need that creates tension in an individual and in turn creates drives to resolve that tension. This drive results in the search for a need to satisfy and in so doing reduce the tension. **Figure 2.5** below, illustrates this process.



Source: Robbins (1993) In Ramlall (2004).

Figure 2.5 The Motivation Process

The implication of the above model is that when employees are motivated, they are experiencing tension and to reduce the tension, they will exert effort. A higher tension (energy) will result in a higher level of effort. While motivation theorists differ in opinion as to the source of the energy, they generally agree that motivation requires a “desire to act, ability to act and having an objective” (Ramlall, 2004).

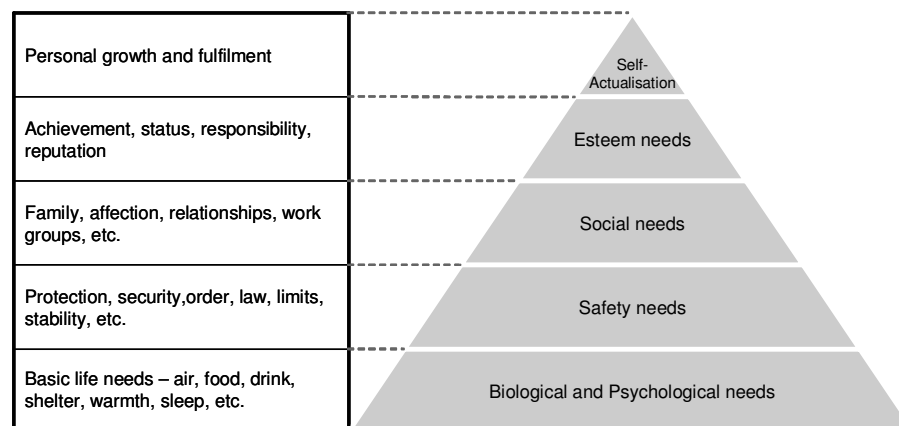
Ramlall (2004) categorises the theories reviewed into four categories: i) needs theory, ii) equity theory, iii) expectancy theory and iv) job design model. The following discussion on motivation theories uses the same structure. A review of organisational design is used as a mechanism to integrate the various theories discussed.



2.3.2 Needs Theory

Need theories pinpoint internal physiological and psychological deficiencies to stimulate action. The strength of these needs is influenced by environmental factors and is time and place dependent.

Maslow (1943), referenced in Ramlall (2004), was among the pioneers of motivation theories and developed his classical five level hierarchy of human needs: psychological and biological, safety, social, esteem and self-actualisation.



Source: Maslow (1943) In Ramlall (2004).

Figure 2.6 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

He referred to these as basic needs and believed that all human beings strived for self-actualization. The implication was that human beings are a perpetually wanting group. In its application in the workplace, Maslow's (1943) hierarchy gave managers the foresight to satisfy upcoming needs in its employees. Accordingly to Ramlall (2004), Champagne and McAfee (1989) argue that managers who heeded these insights and acted on them were considered more considerate, supportive and interested in employees' welfare. An important interaction of the levels is highlighted in Daryanto and Drayanto (undated) in that individuals move up the hierarchy satisfying each level such that once a level is satisfied, giving more of that level does not provide motivation. They go further to describe Alderfer's (1972) ERG theory, which holds that individuals move through a similar hierarchy as Maslow's (1943) with three levels:



existence, relatedness and growth. A fundamental difference with Maslow's hierarchy however is that Alderfer positions these three levels on a continuum more than a hierarchy which allows combinations of the needs to be activated and movement can be up or down the "hierarchy". Daryanto et al. (undated) also reference McClelland's (1975) three socially acquired needs: power, affiliation and achievement with a resemblance to Maslow's hierarchy. Power refers to the need to make others behave in a specific way, affiliation is the desire for close and friendly interpersonal relationships, while achievement is the drive to succeed and excel.

2.3.3 Equity Theory

Equity theory acknowledges the behaviour of individuals to compare the absolute amount of the rewards with their efforts and that received by others. The rewards include salary levels, increases and recognition (that is, tangible and intangible outputs), while the inputs include effort, experience, education and competence (Ramlall, 2004). Adams (1963) theory presented in Swinton (2007) is one of the most in depth studies on social exchange relationships. Equity theory is based on three assumptions: i) People develop beliefs of what is considered equitable reward for their efforts on the job, ii) People can compare outputs in the exchange with employees and iii) If people perceive their rewards as unfair compared to others, they will be motivated to take action. Organisations are therefore continuously challenged to develop reward systems that are fair and equitable to distribute rewards that are aligned to the value that employees associate to themselves for the organisation.

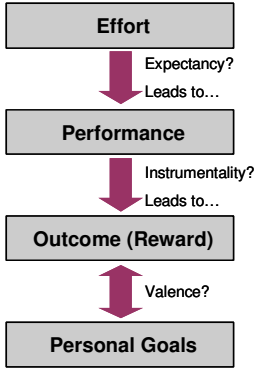
When employees believe that they are not being fairly rewarded, they have various options: i) Reduce input through directly restricting work output to realign the ratio of expected rewards versus received rewards, ii) Increase output in search of salary increases or a more enjoyable assignment, iii) Withdraw by quitting the job and seeking employment elsewhere.



2.3.4 *Expectancy Theory*

Ramlall (2004) describes expectancy theory as the expectation of combined rewards that motivates people to perform an action, where the variances in the degree of rewards are directly related to the degree of effort in the action.

Among the expectancy theories discussed is Vroom (1964) whose theory assumes “choices made by a person among alternative courses of action are lawfully related to psychological events occurring contemporaneously with the behaviour.” Vroom’s theory is commonly referred to as the “VIE” theory which is an abbreviation for the three mental components thought to instigate and direct behaviour: valence, instrumentality and expectancy. Valence refers to the emotional desire of people for the outcomes. An important attribute of the valence component is that it specifically refers to the perceived satisfaction that an individual expects from an outcome which is not necessarily equal to the real value derived from the outcome for the individual. Instrumentality is the belief of the probability of desired outcomes. Expectancy is an employees expectations based on their confidence levels of what they are actually capable of doing. **Figure 2.7** below, depicts Vroom’s expectancy theory. Porter and Lawler (1968), referenced in Ramlall (2004) extended Vroom’s work by attempting to identify the sources of people’s valences and expectancies and link effort with performance and job satisfaction. They concluded that the predictability of performance was a factor of an employee’s abilities, traits and roles. Another important conclusion in their studies was that employees’ expectation for future effort-reward probabilities is based on past experiences of these probabilities.



Source: Vroom (1964) In Ramlall (2004).

Figure 2.7 Vroom’s Expectancy Theory

2.3.5 Job Design Model

Theories in this category are based on the premise that the task itself is key to employee motivation, specifically a challenging job as opposed to a monotonous one is more motivating.

Herzberg (1968) cited in Ramlall (2004) conducted among the earliest studies into the effect of job design on motivation. Unlike Maslow’s five level hierarchy (1943), Herzberg (1968) suggested a two factor theory which argued that individual needs satisfaction does not progress in a hierarchy, but is influenced by two distinct sets of factors: hygiene factors and motivating factors. Hygiene factors (extrinsic) influences job dissatisfaction including pay, company policies, working conditions and the nature of supervision while motivating factors (intrinsic) influences job satisfaction including recognition, promotion, achievement and opportunities for personal growth.

Herzberg (1968) views extrinsic factors being relevant to a dissatisfaction continuum:



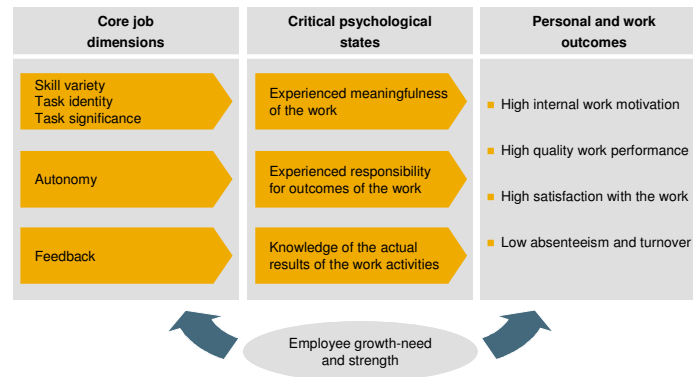
While, intrinsic factors are seen as applicable to a satisfaction continuum:





Extrinsic factors have a placating effect implying that when they are not adequately met, employees will become dissatisfied with their job. However, they do not contribute to any extent of satisfaction among employees, even if they are adequately met as this only creates a neutral environment. On the other hand, intrinsic factors do have direct impact on the satisfaction of employees and therefore have the ability to generate satisfaction (motivation). In 2005, Basett-Jones and Lloyd delivered a study that aimed to validate Herzberg's motivation theory. They confirmed Herzberg's predictions that money, like other extrinsic factors do not hold as much motivation power as do the extrinsic factors. In the same article, they highlight Herzberg's argument of the movement versus motivation question where he affirms that movement is related to the extrinsic factors that "drive the internal engine" while motivation (intrinsic factors) encourages the behaviour required for success (individual and organisational) in the contemporary world of hyper-competitiveness and globalisation.

The job characteristics model (**Figure 2.8**) is among the most popular current perspective on job design and, developed by Hackman and Oldman (1980) as cited in Ramlall (2004), it proposed that employee motivation is driven by three fundamental psychological states. Firstly, an employee must experience personal responsibility for the outcomes of a job. Secondly, the job must be experienced as meaningful in that the employee must feel that his/her contribution has an impact on the overall effectiveness of the organisation. Thirdly, the employee must be made aware of the degree of impact that he/she is contributing towards.



Source: Hackman and Oldman (1980) In Ramlall (2004).

Figure 2.8 Job Characteristics Model

Regarding the first psychological state of experiencing of responsibility for the outcomes of one job, providing an employee with autonomy including freedom, independence and discretion to make his/her own decisions in completion of the job will fulfil this need. This is consistent with McClelland's (1975) need for achievement among employees that contribute to motivation. Hackman and Oldman (1980) saw the sources of meaningfulness (second psychological state) as skill variety, task identity and significance. Skill variety refers to the demand from a job for multiple talents which makes the job more intrinsically motivating. Task identity is "the degree to which a job requires completion of a "whole" and identifiable piece work...doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome" (Hackman and Oldman, 1980:78). One of Herzberg's (1968) intrinsic factors, interesting work, would be consistent with task identity. Task significance addresses the satisfaction of the esteem needs of an employee to perceive his/her work as significant in its contribution. According to Alera (1990) the third psychological state of "knowledge for results" requires regular feedback to the employee to allow the employee to identify crucial relationships between job characteristics and behavioural outcomes (Ramlall, 2004).

2.3.6 Organisational Design

Daryanto et al. (undated) references McGregor (1960) who identified two distinct views of human nature and work: a negative view, labelled "Theory X" and a positive view labelled "Theory Y" (**Table 2.1**). Depending on an



organisation's management assumptions of its employees, different organisational design would be supported. Managers assuming Theory X will employ a mechanistic organisational structure, while managers assuming Theory Y will prefer an organic (adhocracy) system. A mechanistic (bureaucracy) structure is characterised by clear and centralised authority where most individuals are limited in their work by authority. Jobs are specialised and procedures to complete jobs are formal and standardised. The central principle of Theory X is direction and control enforced by centralised organisation and authority. In terms of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, only the first two levels (physiological and safety) are fulfilled and can be leveraged to motivate employees under Theory X. The central principle of Theory Y is the integration of individual and organisational goals where motivation can be drawn from the affiliation, esteem and self-actualisation levels of Maslow's (1943) hierarchy

Table 2.1 Key features of mechanistic and organic structures

System/Dimension	Mechanistic	Organic
Management system	Hierarchical structure of control	A network structure of control
Psychosocial system	Delineated by formal hierarchy	Diffuse
Structural system	Formal written communication	Low, few and general
Goals and values	Efficient performance	Effective problem solving
Overall organisation system	Single goal maximiser	Searching and adaptive
Environmental suprasystem	Certain, placid and stable	Turbulent uncertain

Source: Adapted from Kast and Rosenwieg (1974) In Daryanto et al. (undated)

Daryanto et al (undated) argues further that no one motivation theory is the answer in a heterogeneous environment and manager need to spend time with their employees and get to know them. This sentiment is reiterated by Osteraker (1999) whose study on measuring motivation concludes with the advice that personnel managers need to conduct their own interviews with their people to gain an understanding of their values and attitudes and so be in a better position to identify their best motivators. She goes further to caution against the direct use of static motivation theories in dynamic organisations and



recommends a contingency approach to motivation investigations in organisations where contextual factors are factored in.

Table 2.2 below, highlights the commonalities between the various motivation theories and the organisational design that supports the different components of each theory.

Table 2.2 Comparison of basic motivation categories

Org. Design	Maslow's hierarchy	Alderfer's categories	McClelland's needs	Herzberg's factors	
Theory X	1. Physiological needs	Existence needs		Working conditions	H Y G I E N E
	2. Safety needs Material Interpersonal		Power	Salary and benefits Supervision	
Theory Y	3. Affiliation, love and social needs	Relatedness needs	Affiliation	Fellow Workers	M O T I V A T O R S
	4. Self-esteem needs Feedback Self-confirming	Growth needs	Achievement	Recognition, Advancement, Responsibility	
	5. Self-actualisation			Job Challenge	

Source: Adapted from Schein (1980) In Daryanto et al. (undated)

Ouchi (1981), referenced in Braden (2000), proposed another management style called Theory Z or more popularly known as the “Japanese Management” style which was popularized during the Asian economic boom of the 1980s (Wikipedia, 2008). Theory Z focused on increasing employee loyalty to the company by providing a job for life with a strong focus on the employee, both on and off the job. According to Ouchi (1981), Theory Z management tends to promote stable employment, high productivity, and high employee morale and satisfaction. Braden (2000) indicates that similar to Theory Y, Theory Z also assumes employees are motivated by their self-actualisation need. She continues that the “Japanese Management” style assumes that employees do



not only seek out opportunities for increased responsibilities but actually crave these opportunities and the need to advance and learn more about the company.

2.4 Conclusion

The discussions of this chapter created an in depth generic background to the two major components of the study: culture and motivation. The chapter begins with a definition of culture that proves strong linkages between culture and the realms of psychology and anthropology. Hofstede's (1991) model of mental programming with three levels: human nature, cultural and personality are presented with an integration of Triandis' (2002) work on the cultural influences on personality. Booyesen (2007a) is then cited to highlight the social identity group dynamics including self categorisation, ingroup association and inter group conflict. In a temporary reference to culture, Booyesen et al. (2006) are noted for mentioning that race is the dominant categorisation in South Africa. The various proposed cultural dimensions are the next component discussed. Theorists, including Hofstede (1991), House (2004), Licht et al. (2007) and Triandis et al. (2002) are all referenced for their contributions to the search for a set of universal cultural dimensions. The review of culture theory is concluded with the topic of cultural diversity. The second half of the chapter delivers the various motivation theories in existing literature. After a brief definition of motivation, a categorisation proposed by Ramlall (2004) structures the discussion into needs-, equity-, expectancy- and job design-related motivation factors. The chapter then concludes with a discussion of organisational design which uses Theory X and Theory Y as a basis to compare the key attributes of each motivation theory. Theory Z (Ouchi, 1981) is also presented and while it bears large similarity to Theory Y, distinct differences are also identified.

This concludes the discussion of culture and motivation theory which provides a comprehensive platform to now review specific studies in these areas in the following chapter.



CHAPTER 3: REVIEW OF PRIOR STUDIES – CULTURE AND MOTIVATION

3.1 Introduction

This chapter adds context to the theoretical generic discussion of the previous chapter beginning with South African culture. The topic is subdivided further with an account of the country's history, setting the scene with specific focus on the apartheid regime. The chapter then crosses into the post 1994 period and reviews the power shifts initiated by the transfer of power from blacks to whites on a social, political, economic and legislative level and the resultant key social identity changes. A discussion of generational and maturity theory is engaged before the discussion extends to managing diversity. The review of studies related to motivation follows with a comparison of approaches to motivation research being the focus.

3.2 South African Culture

3.2.1 History

The SA history is riddled with numerous key events that have had significant impact on the state of the nation today. Many of these events formalised a society of oppression.

The country was colonised by both the English and the Dutch (also known as Boers or Afrikaners) in the nineteenth century. The discovery of diamonds around 1900 resulted in the Boer War. In the 1940's, the Afrikaner National Party, having gained a large majority over the English, devised apartheid as a seal to their control over the economic and social system. (Leonard, 1980; Thomas and Bendixen, 2000)

The Dutch settlers "will to power" eventually resulted in them gaining government control in 1948. What followed was the execution of the apartheid



laws that institutionalised racial discrimination. These included laws, such as the prohibition of marriages between non-whites and whites and sanctioning of “white-only” jobs. The Population Registration Act in 1950 required that all South Africans be grouped into three racial categories: white, black (African) or coloured (of mixed decent). The coloured category included a subcategory of Indians and Asians. Non-compliance with the race laws was met with severity and all blacks were required to carry “pass books” containing fingerprints, a photo and information on access to non-black areas (ABSA, 2005a).

The Bantu Authorities Act was introduced in 1951 and established a basis for ethnic government in African reserves, known as “homelands.”(ABSA, 2005a) These homelands operated as independent states within which all political rights, including voting, held by an African could only be exercised within the homeland. The purpose behind the Act was to strip Africans of their SA citizenship and thereby exclude them from input in the SA parliament, which held complete control over the homelands. Oppression was a key component in the social identity of blacks in South Africa during apartheid. Beaty et al. (1987) describe the lifestyle of working blacks compared to working whites. Blacks in factories, for example, were discriminated upon within the factory and then when they went home, the discrimination continued in the form of which coaches of the train they could use to go home, being careful not to use “whites-only” toilets, ensuring that they did not walk into a white bar for a drink, etc.

The Public Safety Act and the Criminal Law Amendment Acts passed in 1953 gave government the authority to declare stringent states of emergency and increased penalties for protesting against the laws of the country (ABSA, 2005a). The penalties included fines, imprisonment and whippings. One such execution of the acts is held firmly in memory of the Sharpeville massacre on March 21st, 1960. The refusal of a group of blacks to carry their passes resulted in a 156 day “emergency” that ended with 67 people dead and 187 people wounded. The exit of SA from the Commonwealth in 1961, allowed the Nationalist government to further entrench apartheid into the policies and laws of the Republic.



The apartheid policy was highly effective in sustaining preferential treatment for whites, as is demonstrated by the table below which provides a snapshot of the listed statistics from the late 1970s in SA.

Table 3.1 Selected SA demographic statistics (1970s)

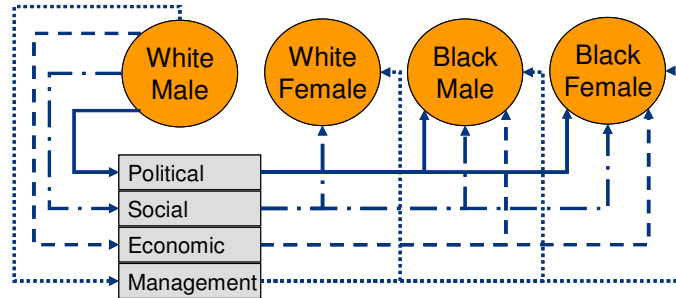
	Blacks	Whites
Population	19 million	4.5 million
Land Allocation	13%	87%
Share of National Income	<20%	75%
Ratio of average earnings	1	14
Minimum taxable income	R360	R750
Doctors/population	1/44 000	1/400
Infant mortality rate	20% (urban)	2.7%
	40% (rural)	
Annual expenditure on education per pupil	\$45	\$696
Teacher/pupil ratio	1/60	1/22

Source: Leonard (1980).

Both internal and external pressure forced the wheels of emancipation to turn with the release of Nelson Mandela in 1990. The struggle for a full democracy culminated in the eventual transformation to a country under the Government of National Unity in 1994. The unique cultural history of the country, however, has provided a complex heritage to the workplace dynamics of today

3.2.2 Power shifts

During apartheid in SA, most positions of power across social, political, economic and management were held by white males. The following figure summarizes the power shifts that characterised the post apartheid environment in South Africa:



Source: Booyesen (2007c).

Figure 3.1 Power shifts in South Africa post apartheid

In the 50 year reign of apartheid under the National Party, only six white women were allowed the opportunity to occupy parliamentary positions, giving SA a rank of 141 in the world in terms of women in parliament. (Booyesen, 2007c). The first democratic election on April 27th, 1994 brought a dramatic change of political power to the country with a transfer from whites to blacks. A significant new law instituted by the ANC, required a 30% percent quota of women in parliament, which facilitated the power shift towards blacks via a more equitable distribution between genders than pre-1994. SA rankings immediately changed to 15th world-wide for the number of women in parliament. In 2006, the representation of black women in parliament was at 33% ranking SA as 11th on the same survey (Nkomo and Littrell, 2005). At this time, the first female Deputy President for SA had also taken office.

As mentioned previously, Bornman (1999) “identifies ethnic or cultural groups as being a highly utilized common denominator in social identification or identity formation”. SA history has already taken society through a prototyping and stereotyping phase for its major political identity which is decidedly racial lines. The change in government in 1994 saw the black majority gain political power and dominance (represented by the ANC), while the white minority lost its political power and dominance. Booyesen (2007b) argues that the power shifts demand a re-evaluation of the existing prototypes of race since apartheid’s race based categorization of society has no place in a democratic environment.

A number of new legislations have been introduced since 1994 to facilitate the economic transformation of SA. Affirmative Action (AA) measures, for example,



have been introduced to establish a greater equality in the workplace and redress past unfair discrimination and unearned privilege. The Reconstruction and Development (RDP) and Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) strategy are in place to find the democratic balance in the political, social and economic SA landscape (Booyesen, 2007a). Other laws introduced include the Labour Relations Act of 1995, the Constitution of South Africa of 1996, The Basic Conditions of Employment Act of 1997, the Employment Equity Act of 1999, the Skills Development Act of 1998 and the Skills Development Levies Act of 1999. The last two acts support not only a redress of past wrongs but also ensured effective workplace recruitment through succession planning, development and training of people in designated groups and addressing of the skills gap (Booyesen, 2007c). The Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) codes of good practice extended the Black Economic Empowerment Act by not only proposing quotas for black ownership and management but also broadening the scope of the Act over the value chain of organisations and adding clauses to prevent tokenism. The BBBEE codes of good practice became law in 2007.

According to the BBBEE strategy document (Department of Trade and Industry, 2008:15), BBBEE is defined as “an integrated and coherent socio-economic process, that directly contributes to the economic transformation of South Africa, and brings about significant increases in the number of black people that manage, own and control the country’s economy, as well as significant decreases in income inequalities.” Terreblanche (2003) and Rautenbach (2005) cited by Booyesen (2007a) argue that there are currently too few BBBEE players making corporate deals. These players are also only the privileged few black individuals with strong political ties resulting in the BBBEE process being of benefit to only a selected few as opposed to broad-based empowerment. In a related effect, BBBEE has also given rise to the development of a strong black middle class, the so-called black elite, increasing the inequality in the black community.

Booyesen (2007b) indicates that another phenomenon which has been created by the new legislations includes job-hopping among experienced African black



managers due to the high demand and associated high remuneration offered to them. The high skills shortage among blacks provokes poaching which compounds the job-hopping phenomenon. She also refers to Bhorat (2001) who introduces another interesting statistic of white employees being the only race group with a drop in their absolute number of workers. Two key reasons are proposed to explain this statistic: growing emigration (also known as the brain drain) and early retirement. Emigration is a result of legislative measures introduced to increase the opportunities available to blacks compared to whites, which creates concerns among whites, for example, regarding career development. Booyesen (2004) cites a quote from an interviewee reiterates this sentiment: "Whites have no future, the white male career is on hold."

Social power, which was predominantly held by white males prior to 1994, has been redistributed more equally among all race groups, however mostly concentrated in the black group which is evident in the media (Booyesen, 2007c). This shift in social power has resulted in a great influence of Africanism on the social identity reconfiguration in SA. The possibility of an exclusive "African" group is posed, which would categorise all other race groups as out-groups, with the related inclusive privilege and out-group derogation. This would simply imply a new form of oppression in South Africa.

In 1994, management power resided predominantly with white males. A comparison on the most recent Commission of Employment Equity reports (Commission for Employment Equity, 2007) reveals a similar picture but a gradual (albeit slow) change towards black management power. Between the periods 2000 and 2006, Africans saw an increase of 5.1% but between 2004 and 2006 a drop by 0.5% in top management positions. Females on the other hand saw a healthier 9.2% increase between 2000 and 2006 of which between 2004 and 2006, 6.5% more females occupied top management positions. Between black and white females, 2004 to 2006 saw an increase of 2.2% and 4.0% respectively. For the same period, black males dropped by 1.1% and white males by 8%.



At senior management, Africans increased by 4.7% between 2000 and 2006 and 0.3% from 2004 to 2006. Females also saw an increase from 2000 to 2006 and 2004 to 2006 of 6.4% and 3.7% respectively. Between black and white females the period 2004 to 2006 brought an increase of 1.4% and 1.9% respectively. For the same period, black males dropped by 0.2% and white males by 5.4%. The results reveal an unconvincing and slow change in employment equity. A key concern, shared by Booysen (2007a), is that the slow progress of filling professional and middle management positions with black males and females will create succession planning challenges as these levels are “feeders” for senior management and top management.

Table 3.2 below, provides a 2007 snapshot and clear evidence that white males are still the dominant race/gender group in top management, senior management and professional and middle management (Commission for Employment Equity, 2007).

Table 3.2 Management employees by race and gender (2007)

Org. levels	Male				Female			
	African	Coloured	Indian	White	African	Coloured	Indian	White
Top management	8.4%	2.7%	4.5%	60.2%	2.9%	2.0%	1.7%	14.7%
Senior Management	9.8%	3.7%	5.4%	51.9%	3.6%	2.1%	2.3%	19.0%
Professional and middle management	13.0%	4.6%	5.1%	40.1%	7.2%	3.4%	3.2%	22.1%

Source: Adapted from Commission for Employment Equity (2007: 8)

The top management is made up, in descending order, of 60.2% white males, 14.7% white females, 8.4% African males, 4.5% Indian males, 2.9% African females, 2.7% coloured males, 2.0% coloured females and 1.7% Indian females. The senior management is made up, in descending order, of 51.9% white males, 19.0% white females, 9.8% African males, 5.4% Indian males, 3.7% coloured males, 3.6% African females, 2.3% Indian females and 2.1% coloured females. Professional and middle management is made up, in descending order, of 40.1% white males, 22.1% white females, 13.0% black



males, 7.2% black females, 5.1% indian males, 4.6% coloured males, 3.4% coloured females and 3.2% indian females.

The table reveals that the various legislations instituted since 1994 have not prevented white males from remaining the dominant position in all levels of management. Black males (African, indian and coloured) however, have now have made progress and assumed second place, moving white females into the third position.

As a significant economic sector in SA, the financial sector has the leverage to play a powerful role in achieving the transformation targets of the country. Acknowledging this role, in August 2002, at the NEDLAC Financial Sector Summit, the financial sector committed itself to the development of a Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) charter. This resulted in the Financial Sector Charter that became effective on 1 January 1994 to be applied until 31 December 2014 (Financial Sector Charter Council, 2008). In 2009 (based on the reports for the year ended 31 December 2008), the Charter Council will undertake a comprehensive mid-term review and make decisions regarding the implementation of the charter in its second term. The ownership provisions will be reviewed in 2011 to address identified shortcomings. The ownership provisions will be reviewed by the Charter Council in 2011 to decide what further steps (if any), to address identified shortcomings, should be taken at individual financial institution, sub sector, sector or national levels (Financial Sector Charter Council, 2008)

One of challenges highlighted in the charter is that “there are low levels of black participation, especially of black women, in meaningful ownership, control, management and high-level skilled positions in the sector”. Among the required imperatives that need to be satisfied, are the following human resource development relative imperatives (Financial Sector Charter Council, 2008):

- promote a non-racial, non-sexist environment and to enhance cultural diversity and gender sensitivity within the sector



- invest in human resource development across the full spectrum of skills, with special emphasis on increasing the participation of black people in skilled, strategic and operational leadership in the sector
- invest in and equip current and future leadership incumbents in the sector with the appropriate knowledge and capacity to enable them to play a central role in driving the transformation programme

The following Employment Equity and Skills Development targets are stipulated for 2008 on the charter scorecard (Financial Sector Charter Council, 2008):

- based on an estimated ratio of 10% for 2002, each financial institution will have a minimum target of 20% to 25% black people at senior management level;
- based on an estimated ratio of 1.6% for 2002, each financial institution will have a target of a minimum of 4% black women at senior management level
- based on an estimated ratio of 17%% for 2002, each financial institution will have a target of a minimum of 30% black people at middle management level
- based on an estimated ratio of 5% for 2002, each financial institution will have a target of a minimum of 10% black women at middle management level
- based on an estimated ratio of 28% for 2002, each financial institution will have a minimum target of 40% to 50% black people at junior management level
- based on an estimated ratio of 12% for 2002, each financial institution will have a target of a minimum of 15% black women at junior management level

Table 3.3 below, summarises the financial sector performance over 2005 and 2006 for the above target categories.



Table 3.3 Financial Sector Charter performance review (2006)

Occupational levels	Black people			Black women		
	2005	2006	Target	2005	2006	Target
Senior Management	16.70%	18.72%	25.00%	4.19%	5.17%	4.00%
Middle Management	28.37%	30.12%	30.00%	10.65%	12.42%	10.00%
Junior	39.71%	42.86%	50.00%	21.66%	24.21%	15.00%

Source: Financial Sector Charter Council (2008).

The above table provides clear indication that the statistics for blacks at senior management is significantly behind its 2008 target and the Financial Sector Charter Council (2008) remarks that current transformation dynamics would need to be accelerated to meet the target of 25% black senior managers by 2008. In fact, among the statistics for black managers only middle management has attained its target, while junior management statistics in 2006 compared to 2005 provide little comfort that the 2008 target of 50% will be reached. The performance statistics for black women in management positions is in stark contrast, with the 2008 targets being attained for all levels and the best performance recorded for junior management in 2006 at more than 9% above the 2008 target of 15%. Overall the results are positive for black women in the financial sector but disappointing for the full constituency of black employees.

3.2.3 Social Identity Changes

South African history has accustomed society to the salient race divides that has been the source of much social identity conflict before 1994 in the struggle against apartheid and post 1994 in addressing the wrongs of apartheid. As the democracy grows and the honeymoon phase of the “rainbow nation” comes to end, the true extent of progress is revealed and is received with mixed emotions (Booyesen, 2007c). This section intends to highlight a few cultural challenges within the workplace induced by the environment of the new South Africa. This escalates the need for regular research into the country’s increasingly heterogeneous economically active population.



One surprisingly negative reaction is from those whom transformation is intended to benefit: black people. Companies are reporting high attrition rates of these individuals and the reasons attributed to the low retention rates raise questions around the cultural sensitivity and commitment of the South African workplace to transformation (Booyesen, 2007b). It is claimed that many companies are rendering lip service when they speak about employment equity with no sincerity of commitment from top management. New recruits are refusing to assimilate into the current organisational culture of a company that lacks cultural sensitivity and does not value diversity. Strong traces of a white male dominant organisational culture send a message of exclusion to black recruits. Black employees also claim to be used as tokens in organisations without any real decision making responsibility or authority. A further grievance is with regards to poor talent management of black employees.

Intergroup tensions between whites and black Africans may appear to be obvious, set in the country's history, but Booyesen (2007b) highlights a deeper cultural difference that leads to two distinct conflicts between the groups. Firstly, the perception of time differs between the linear, sequential or monochronic perception held by Whites and the cyclical, synchronic or polychronic perception held by Blacks. Secondly, the dimension of collectivism and individualism reveals varied approaches to relationships between the groups.

At the root of the black African perception of time and association with a collectivist culture is the concept of Ubuntu (Booyesen, 2001). Ubuntu is a humanistic philosophy directly translated to mean "I am because we are" and focuses on people and relationships – group support, acceptance, respect, cooperation and sharing. Ubuntu is opposed to individualism and insensitive competition, but does not support extreme collectivism in favour of retaining some individuality. Schwartz (2000) cites Gyekye (1997) who agrees that Africans share many important values and practices, but are flexible to variations in individual or group preferences. The differing perceptions of time and relationships is a clear point of frustration between the two groups when the synchronic people conflict with sequential people by not remaining focused on the discussion of a specific issue within the allotted time but rather opting for



relationship building over the concern for time. Khoza (2007) also refers to Ubuntu when he explains how valuing humanity is one of the values that underpins the African leadership paradigm. He also reiterates the sentiment above that in the “African context, even though heroes and heroines are adored, rabid individualism is abhorred” (Khoza, 2007:25). Ubuntu is positioned as the balance in the paradox facing African leaders who, as with other leaders around the world, require power as the currency of leadership but simultaneously must “live by the tenets of consultation, persuasion, accommodation and cohabitation; shun coercion and domination” (Khoza, 2007:27). He explains that Ubuntu can be leveraged to overcome this apparent contradiction by approaching power relations with the mindset that all people are in kinship with each other and share the status of humanity. Khoza (2007) also comments on this contrast to the Western world view, predicated on the Darwinian philosophy of “survival of the fittest” which asserts that “self preservation is the first law of life”. Trompenaars (1993), like Darwinian philosophy also places emphasis on survival, to the extent that Trompenaars (1993) positions survival as one of the basic assumptions at the core of culture for human existence.

An interesting social dynamic created by the post 1994 legislations intended to redress the wrongs of apartheid is the ironic static positioning of Indians and Coloureds in the middle of Whites and Black Africans who are once again battling salient social identity issues in South Africa (Booyesen, 2007b). Coloureds have been known to remark that under the Apartheid regime they were not white enough and now under Democracy, they are not black enough.

Compared to all the race/gender social categories, white males are probably currently experiencing the highest levels of social identity anxiety (Booyesen, 2007b). High levels of job insecurity (hygiene factor) and low probabilities of future promotional opportunities (motivator) have led to high degrees of demotivation. To compound the precarious position of white males and females, many of these employees are required by their companies to train and mentor new black recruits that have been hired to replace them. As per Booyesen (2007b), one white male stated: “We are asking turkeys to vote for Christmas”.



Nonetheless, while the blacks have power in the political supra-systems, whites still hold the “legislative” positions in organisations which is where the decision making authority lies. Dlamini (2005) is then referenced, who argues further that companies still invest significantly in training and skills development to the benefit of white men.

Black women are seen as the only social category to have a double disadvantage in that they are of a subordinate gender and subordinate race (Booyesen, 2007b). This is one of the contributing factors to black women being ranked as number one to be affirmed by the employment equity legislation. Nkomo et al. (2005) commented that black females continue to be the most poorly represented group in leadership and management positions, which has wider inferences to all women in the workplace facing the proverbial glass-ceiling phenomenon. To reiterate the point made earlier, according to Alderfer’s (1986) embeddedness theory, the effects of one’s own group occupying a favourable position in a system may be muted by its being in a relative disadvantage in the supra-system, or vice versa.

3.2.4 Generations

Values structures, and therefore cultures, are also moulded and warped by the era in which one grows up. According to McNally (2007), Codrington (2005) remarked that “We forget that a 35-year-old man today is vastly different from a 35-year-old 10 years ago.” Factors such as the television one watches and the ruling government during childhood play a vital role. McNally (2007) continues that the generation gap has become far more pronounced because the world is changing fast and shrinking due to travel and technology.

Among black South Africans, we have Baby Boomers who fought in the struggle for democracy and the Internet generation who grew up in townships. According to McNally (2007), Neil Higgs, of the Black Diamond Study at Research Surveys comments that the black middle class hinges on two key factors: the younger group’s distance from the struggle and the balancing act in the between township traditions and Western influences. He goes further to divide the



generations into two broad categories separated by an age line of 24 years. The younger group is optimistic about black economic empowerment compared to the older group but are also simultaneously trying to integrate old traditions (e.g. labola) in their contemporary lifestyles.

McNally (2007) argues further that the Veteran Generation (1920 -1944) were greatly influenced by the great depression and World War 2. In South Africa, this generation lived through the early years of racial segregation that eventually evolved into a formal system of apartheid. When the Union of South Africa was formed on 31st May 1910, Afrikaner Nationalists were given a relatively free hand to reorganize the country's franchise according to existing standards of the now-incorporated Boer republics, the *Zuid Afrikaansche Repulick* (ZAR – South African Republic or Transvaal) and Orange Free State. The term Apartheid was introduced during the 1948 as part of the election campaign by DF Malan's *Herenigde Nasionale Party* (HNP – 'Reunited National Party') (Boddy-Evans, 2007). Loyalty is a predominant trait in these employees and they consider this to be an implicit, though key expectation, from an employer in terms of their employment contracts (McNally, 2007). Strong buy in into the company vision is an important element of the values level of culture of these employees (Schein, 1990). These employees also place great emphasis on culture artefacts that express neatness (e.g. attire), order, professionalism, tradition, control (e.g. everyone thinking similarly as stipulated by a "mission statement" with no flexibility for lateral thinking) and hierarchical organisation (e.g. title). Advancements in technology may also pose a challenge for this generation.

The Baby Boomers (1945 – 1964) grew up during a period of fighting the struggle against apartheid in South Africa for equality, freedom of speech and human rights (McNally, 2007), when some joined the white border posts or others joined the 1976 Soweto student uprising. It was also a time during which South African was experiencing exceptional financial performance a 14% growth rate in the 50's and 60's and the Rand was stronger than the dollar and at times even the pound (Mol, 2004). Other generations see baby boomers as loud, brash and individualistic and as employees they are particularly vocal in



the workplace. Artefacts (Schein, 1990) that deliver status such as perks that include big offices and designated parking bays are important in the culture of this generation. They value a highly supervised environment to identify where they can add value and demand full attention in conversation. Face-to-face conversation is preferred over email communication which is consistent with Raths' (1999) comment in Yu et al. (2005) that Baby Boomers are not technology savvy. It is important that they are explicitly informed as to what is required, how they will be measured what are the recognition and rewards (McNally, 2007). Yu et al. (2005) extends his list of attributes to hard workers, generally loyal, respectful of the chain of the command and expect managers to give direction and to lead them towards organisational goals. McNally (2007) and Yu et al. (2005) concur that they are also characterised by opting for lower risk options.

Generation X (1965 – 1980), also known as “Xers” (Yu et al., 2005), lived through key events in global history: end of apartheid in SA, fall of the Berlin Wall, dismantling of communism in Russia and Tiananmen Square in China (McNally, 2007). According to Codrington (2004), referred to by Mol (2004), in South African history, they are known as the generation who are old enough to remember apartheid and to be “judged” to be part of it, but not old enough to have fought for or against the struggle. They approach power with pragmatism and scepticism. These employees value honest (and brutal), transparency and frequent feedback. Individual, tailored attention is preferred over being viewed as a target segment in a mass market. Loyalty is much less important than to a Veteran employee and prestige artefacts such as corner offices and titles do not offer the same motivation that it does to Baby Boomers (Better Business Communication, 2007). They are results driven and look for additional work and training opportunities that offer continuous growth and stimulation and enjoy a fun working environment and demand meaning in the work that they engage in, which is aptly summarised by Yu et al. (2005): “Xers tend to be more independent, self-motivated and self-sufficient”. He continues to argue that Xers are more individualistic with a high need for autonomy and flexibility in their lifestyles and jobs and therefore have a lower dependency on leadership. Xers appear to have also broken the Maslow's hierarchy needs rule (Yu et al., 2005).



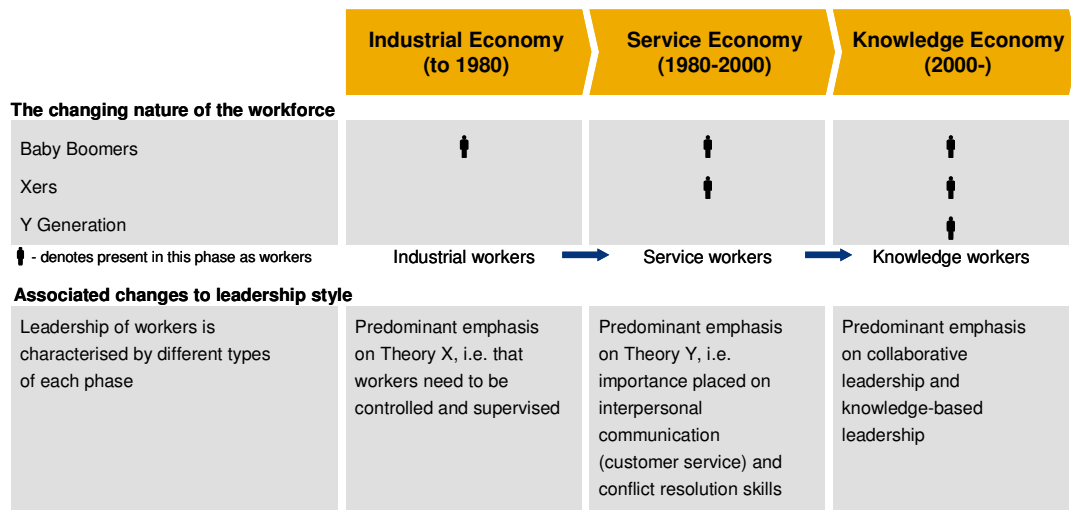
While Baby Boomers follow an individual development progress through education, career, marriage and promotion and finally attaining self-achievement, Xers prefer to squeeze the process and demand self-achievement from their job and basic needs at the same time. This appears to be more consistent with Alderfer's (1972) ERG Theory which positions needs on the platform of a continuum as opposed to an "incremental" hierarchy.

Generation Y (1981 – 1999), the Internet generation, was born into the Technology Age defined by Personal Data Assistants (PDA's) and the World Wide Web that together enable a shrinking of the "business globe" and the growing concept of the mobile office. In South Africa this generation is sometimes referred to as the "Millennial generation", having left school in this new millennium, or the "Born frees", in South Africa, because by the time they were old enough to understand the world around them, the country was free from the hold of apartheid. Many of the black Born frees have walked away from their culture and traditions; some cannot speak their parents' mother tongue. They don't know the Struggle heroes' names and most don't care to vote. Their white generational equivalents are much the same, unable to name Struggle heroes beyond Nelson Mandela and indifferent to current politics (Grant-Marshall, 2008). The generation as a whole is confident although not as individualistic as Generation X employees and therefore prefer group level organisation to thrive (McNally, 2007). This is a direct contradiction to Yu et al. (2005) who argues that Generation Y is more individualistic than Xers. Generation Y also values a challenging environment and sees greater responsibility as a highly attractive option for reward. Research has also shown that corporate social responsibility initiatives are important as a motivation factor in the employers of these individuals.

Yu et al. (2005) goes further to comment on the leadership styles that are required for the different generations. He proposes that as developed countries have moved through the so-called "industry economy" to the "service economy" and now towards the "knowledge economy", the need for traditional leadership will disappear, a sentiment shared by Booysen (2007c) in South Africa. He argues further that a new leadership style will need to disassociate with



hierarchical position-based leadership and assume a new knowledge-based influence where the knowledge workers would need to collaborate more with their leaders than be managed by them. The figure below depicts the chronology of phases and associated changes in leadership styles. In the industrial economy, Theory X was assumed by most leaders who supported the need to control and supervise workers who were thought to be lazy and needed to be motivated for productivity. The service economy brought the new approach of Theory Y when relationships, communication, customer service, conflict resolution training were priorities on the leadership agenda. The knowledge economy, Yu et al. (2005) continues, demand collaborative leadership of knowledge workers who see themselves as “associates” of an organisation more than “employees” to be managed.



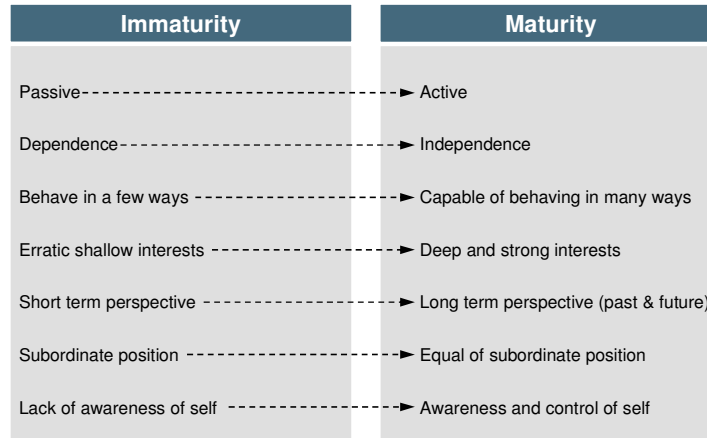
Source: Yu et al. (2005).

Figure 3.2 The changing nature of the workforce and leadership styles

McNally (2007) advises that it is very complex to understand how the generation gaps, in combination with other demographic factors, influence our personal knowledge of colleagues in the workplace. It is best to ‘throw away’ what one thinks one knows about these individuals based on personal history and to rather try to internalize the behaviours and emotions of your colleagues based on the experiences that they may have been exposed to in the era of their upbringing.



Generational theory cannot be used in an isolated manner however, to explain characteristic differences between ages. Although out of scope of this study, maturity theory also needs to be considered in such study. According to Argyris (undated) referenced in Accel (2006), seven personality changes, listed in **Figure 3.3** below, should take place in individuals as they develop into mature people.



Source: Argyris (undated) in Accel Team (2006).

Figure 3.3 Immaturity/Maturity continuum

Argyris (undated) argues that first, individuals move from a passive state as infants to a state of increasing activity as adults. Second, individuals shift from a state of dependency upon others as infants to a state of relative independence as adults. Third, individuals behave in only a few ways as infants, but as adults they are capable of behaving in many ways. Fourth, individuals have erratic, casual, and shallow interests as infants but develop deeper and stronger interests as adults. Fifth, the time perspective of children is very short, involving only the present, but as they mature, their time perspective increases to include the past and the future. Sixth, individuals as infants are subordinate to everyone, but they elevate themselves to equal or superior positions with others as adults. Seventh, as children, individuals lack an awareness of a "self," but as adults they are not only aware of, but they are able to control "self." As an example in combination with generational theory, one could find that baby boomers are responsible and committed employees today but in their younger



days of the 60s and 70s, they may have been free and irresponsible “hippies” who have since experienced varying degrees of maturity.

3.2.5 *Managing Diversity*

Leadership has also experienced its fair share of challenges to identify the best approach to the contemporary heterogeneous workplace in South Africa. As per the “Diversity management policy evolution”, assimilation is not an option in South African culture, where diversity is too engrained to be managed without an appreciation for multiculturalism. Afrocentric management practices are gaining favour as people acknowledge the failure of traditional leadership solutions based on Western practices which assume homogeneity. Nonetheless, South African organisations need to maintain global competitiveness and Manning (1996, 1997a, 1997b) cited in Booysen (2001) regards this as one of the most significant challenges in organisation leadership in SA: “how to simultaneously compete globally and function parochially”. Schwartz (2000) confirms different values between Western and African value profiles and the associated challenges of intercultural communication which further motivates for different leadership styles. Booysen’s (1999) findings revealed that the culture of white managers was congruent with Eurocentric management. They reflected high levels of performance orientation, above average levels of uncertainty avoidance, future orientation, power distance and assertiveness, below average levels of collectivism and humane orientation and a low level of gender egalitarianism. On the contrary, her sample of black managers was more Afrocentric in their approach. They reflected high levels of collectivism and humane orientation, above average levels of performance orientation, uncertainty avoidance and power distance, below average levels of assertiveness and future orientation and a low level of gender egalitarianism. These results are consistent with Schwartz (2000) who found that African nations in Sub-Saharan Africa were especially high in hierarchy and embeddedness but low in egalitarianism and intellectual autonomy. In summary, Eurocentric leadership is characteristic of transactional leadership, while Afrocentric leadership is more closely aligned to transformational



leadership. Ironically, a similar observation was made in relation to the apartheid era for white management, when Beaty et al. (1987) remarked that “American management textbooks, which abound in South African business courses, hardly prepare novice (white) managers for the resentment and scepticism that black workers will direct towards them”. Booyesen (2001) concluded that contemporary SA should not move forward with the objective to choose between Afrocentric and Eurocentric management approaches, but rather to place equal value on both in an integrative approach. SA leaders need to understand the different cultural expectations of all South Africans while corporate SA learn to South Africanise its leadership approaches to effectively mobilise the SA workforce.

In 1999, Booyesen conducted a study where she once again used Hofstede’s (1980) cultural dimensions as an instrument to gauge gender influences on managers in the SA retail banking industry. She concluded that males had above average levels of Performance Orientation, Uncertainty Avoidance, Collectivism, Future Orientation, Power Distance and Assertiveness but below average levels of Humane Orientation and low Gender Egalitarianism which are all generally associated with a “masculine” perspective of leadership in vertical and hierarchical organisational structures characterised by formal authority concentrated at the top. Females, on the other hand, were found to reflect above average levels of Performance Orientation, Humane Orientation, Uncertainty Avoidance, Collectivism and Power Distance with below average levels of Future Orientation and Assertiveness with low Gender Egalitarianism which are all generally associated with a “feminine” approach to leadership in horizontal or network organisational structures characterised by inclusivity. Booyesen joined Nkomo in another study (2006) which tested the validity of the “think manager, think male” stereotype in the South African context and added further clarity to the degree of masculinity/femininity required. **Table 3.4** below, lists typical characteristics of femininity and masculinity. Newton (2008) considers how we have gone through industrial and knowledge economies and have now entered the relationship economy, “which plays to the many strengths of women.” She highlights branding changes as displaying a definitive move towards “feminine” values. From the masculine task driven “Simpler, Better,



Faster”, Standard Bank, for example, has embraced “Inspired, Motivated, Involved”. Numerous other examples are evidence of the move away from “cutthroat one-size-fits-all competitiveness to a more individualised, one-on-one, nurturing approach to business”. As such, companies need to measure the negative impact that an over-masculine environment is having on their bottom line, understand the needs of females in their workforce and gear up to meet those needs so that they can retain their valued female staff. While Booyesen et al. (2006) confirmed previous research on the masculine management stereotype, they also identified a strong movement by females away from the stereotype and concluded that an androgynous nature would be most appropriate in leadership of the South African workforce.

The duality of Afrocentric and Eurocentric leadership and the shift towards the need for an androgynous leadership aligns with Allard’s (2002) explanation of diversity management swinging from assimilation to the other extreme of differentiation and finally settling on integration which is defined as “appreciating differences and respect(ing) uniqueness” of a heterogeneous workforce.

Table 3.4 Examples of characteristics of femininity and masculinity

Researcher	Femininity		Masculinity	
Capra (1983)	counteractive responsive co-operative	intuitive synthesising	demanding aggressive competitive	
Boydell and Hammond (1985)	illogical part of nature systemic right-brain submissive	holistic soft win-win spatial freeing	logical separate from nature mechanistic left-brain dominance	atomist hard win-lose sequential controlling

Source: Rigg and Sparrow (1994).

The 2007/2008 Global Competitiveness Report results for SA revealed, among others, the following competitive disadvantages in terms of the seventh pillar: “Labour market efficiency”:

- Hiring and firing practices



-
- Flexibility of wage determination
 - Cooperation in labour-employer relations
 - Female participation in the labour force
 - Pay and productivity
 - Rigidity of employment
 - Brain drain

These results highlight certain key negative influences on the country's global competitiveness. Firstly, it shows that gender inequality is clearly still a challenge in the South African business environment with females still not being afforded equal opportunity at all organisational levels. Pay and productivity relates to local businesses inability to match productivity and reward. This is an example of expectancy theory where the rewards being offered are insufficient in motivating people to perform an action (Vroom, 1964). Finally the brain drain has specific reference to this study in terms of delivering recommendations for inclusion in retention strategies that will alleviate the loss of skilled employees to other countries. While not individually directly associated with demographic factors, becoming more effective in diversity management is critical to improving SA's competencies as a global business player. The future prosperity and stability of the country, and quite possibly the entire continent, depend on it.

As stated above, among the levers to improve South Africa's global competitiveness is the ability of local businesses to better understand the needs of their employees and to use this knowledge to retain key skilled resources that are part of that company's sustainable competitive advantage. The next section reviews previous employee motivation studies that have investigated these needs.



3.3 Employee Motivation

In 2007, Manopoulos conducted an evaluation of employee motivation in the extended public sector in Greece. He based his questionnaire on motivation factors categorised by Herzberg's (1968) two factor theory of extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Each question provided a 4-point likert scale with ranges that were specific to the context of the questions. The following table lists the motivation factors used in the study:

Table 3.5 Manopoulos' categorization of motivation factors

Extrinsic factors	Intrinsic factors
Provision of fair wage	Opportunities to advance the field of employees' expertise
Provision of pay incentives	Need for creative work
Communication and cooperation in the working environment	Need for esteem and reputation
Opportunity for hierarchical advancement	Recognition for work
Security in the workplace	Need for competence
Working conditions	Opportunity to take responsibilities

Source: Manopoulos (2007).

Manopoulos (2007) categorisation of motivation factors appears to hold one inconsistency compared to Herzberg's (1968) two-factor theory. Herzberg indicated that "Opportunity for hierarchical advancement" is an intrinsic motivation factor, however the above table includes this factor under the extrinsic category. Upon closer investigation of Manopoulos' (2007) questionnaire, this confusion seems to be explained by the survey question linked to the factor: "The organisation has clear criteria for promotions, based on meritocracy and transparent procedures". This question is more related to the motivation factors "Communication and cooperation in the working environment" and "Provision of fair promotion procedures", in which case the motivation factor measured by the survey question is extrinsic, however it is perhaps named inconsistently.



Wysocki and Kepner (2000) posed seven questions in their study, each with the options of “agree” or “disagree” in an argument for management beliefs that reduce employee motivation and productivity. They concur that money, as an extrinsic factor, is more likely to be a demotivator, than a motivator while feedback, similar to the “Job characteristics model” of Hackman and Oldman (1980), is a crucial motivator. They further advise a ratio of 4:1 for positive-negative feedback to improve the organisational work climate.

In 1946, 1981 and 1995, Kovach conducted comparison studies between supervisors and employees in the industrial sector in the United States to highlight any differences in the prioritization of motivation factors between the two groups within each survey and over the 50 years. He noted that the supervisors’ rankings of his ten motivation factors remained almost the same for each year. He concluded that supervisors were very inconsistent in which factors they thought motivated employees and which factors actually did motivate their employees. In Herzberg’s (1968) terms, supervisors incorrectly ranked many extrinsic factors higher than they were ranked by the employees. Kovach (1995) attributed this misalignment to a phenomenon known as “self-reference” where supervisors were ranking motivation factors based on what would motivate them. Kovach (1995) used the following ten factors:

- Full appreciation of work done
- Feeling of being in on things
- Sympathetic help with personal problems
- Job security
- Good wages
- Interesting work
- Promotion and growth in the organization
- Personal loyalty to employees



- Good working conditions
- Tactful discipline

Wong et al. (1999) used Kovach's (1995) ten motivation factors categorized by Herzberg's (1968) extrinsic and intrinsic two-factor theory to measure the impact of motivation factors on Hong Kong hotel employees' choice of job-related motivators. The table below depicts this categorisation.

Table 3.6 Herzberg categorisation of Kovach's motivation factors

Extrinsic factors	Intrinsic factors
Good working conditions	Full appreciation of work done
Tactful discipline	Feeling of being involved
Job Security	Sympathetic help with personal problems
Good wages	Interesting work
	Opportunities for advancement and development
	Loyalty to employees

Source: Wong et al. (1999).

Kovach's (1995) subgroups of employees for analysis were based on gender, age and organisational level, amongst others. He found that females ranked "full appreciation for work" in first place, while men place it at second. Females placed "sympathetic help with personal problems" at position seven while males placed it in positions ten perhaps implying that females associate greater importance to interpersonal relationships and communication. According to Wong et al. (1999), females in Hong Kong's hotels ranked "interesting work", "feeling of being involved", "good working conditions" and "appreciation and praise for work done" as important. His analysis extends to indicate that candidates in his sample between 16 and 25 years old rated "interesting work: higher than any other age group which Wong et al. (1999) attributed to ambitious and career oriented younger employees preferring challenging jobs. That is contradictory to Kovach's (1995) under-30 age group who valued good wages, job security and promotion and growth as their top three choices. This reason proposed by Kovach (1995) for this is that they are new workers and are still fulfilling their basic needs. He also notes that as one moves up the age



groups, the extrinsic needs become less important. According to Maslow's (1943) theory, an individual moves up the hierarchy of needs as each level is fulfilled. This concept appears to apply not only to Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs but even an individual's specific version of a hierarchy of needs which according to most "Needs" theorists including Herzberg (1968) and Maslow (1943) should have extrinsic needs at its base. The important implication of this observation is that what is fulfilled cannot motivate any more. From an organisational level perspective, the lower-organisational level placed "good wages" and "job security" as number one and two while middle- and higher-organisational levels placed "job security" and "full appreciation of work done" as numbers one and two. This offers further motivation for the proposal that extrinsic needs require fulfilment before intrinsic needs, such as "self-esteem".

Interestingly, Kovach's ten motivation factors were used by Beaty et al. (1987) in South Africa to measure the alignment of white managers' perceptions of what motivated black employees. Social dynamics, such as lack of trust for white managers by blacks and fear of betrayal by informers among the blacks impacted the rank of the motivation factors for blacks depending on what they expected was actually possible which relates to Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory. While both ranked "good pay" as number one, each had a different perception of the motivation factor (Beaty et al., 1987). Whites viewed this purely as a corporate matter, while blacks could not resist contemplating this factor in the bigger picture of economic freedom. Ironically, job security was ranked relatively highly for blacks under the apartheid regime, while now under democracy and as the country works its way through the transformation process, white males are experiencing social identity anxiety (Booyesen, 2007b). "Interesting work" revealed a fundamental tension in apartheid where white managers expected blacks to only perform simple tasks and not take initiative. One interviewee attributed this to white managers not wanting to share any power by delegating any decision making and influential responsibilities to blacks as a mechanism of oppression (Beaty et al., 1987).



3.4 Conclusion

As stated in the introduction to the chapter, this chapter specifically adds the context of South Africa and some international reference to the theoretical foundation set in Chapter 2. South African history has been riddled with emotions of fear, tension and inequality, characterised by blacks fighting the struggle against whites who implemented strict measures to keep the blacks oppressed and reduce their ability to gain power. Following 1994 though, as mentioned in the chapter, significant power shifts were affected on a social, political, economic and legislative perspective. The net result has been a mixed bag of pains and gains for the South Africa. The redress of past inequality is certainly among one of the gains, however the claim by some races of a “reverse apartheid” phenomenon developing, is not the intention of transformation. Retention of whites and interestingly blacks in some circumstances is a focus for leaders of the new SA with calls for alignment of management practices with the “Ubuntu” humanistic philosophy. Each generation is then discussed with regards to varying sources of motivation and elements of South African history. The discussion continues by a super-imposing type of analysis of generation and economic eras (industrial, service and knowledge). A caveat is also introduced in the form of maturity theory as a consideration that should be taken account of (although not in this study) when attempting to explain generational characteristic differences. Studies on diversity management are also introduced where the impact on SA’s global competitiveness is highlighted.

Finally, employee motivation, discussed in depth, highlighted various motivation studies that have been conducted. Herzberg’s (1968) theory is certainly among the more popular that was employed together with varying extrinsic and intrinsic motivation factors. A well known set of motivation factors employed, even in South Africa during apartheid (Beaty et al., 1987), were those of Kovach (1995), who has himself used his list of factors to conduct comparative analysis spanning over decades.



Now that the theory and studies for culture and theory have been discussed in detail, the research methodology for this specific study is presented in the following chapter.



CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 provides an in-depth understanding of how the research study was conducted to resolve the problem statement identified in Chapter 1. The chapter begins with a translation of the four subproblems listed in Chapter 1 into four hypotheses. The research design is then explained, where the various options for the methodology are highlighted with brief discussions regarding the strengths and weaknesses of the different approaches. The methodology then introduces the context of the study and the selection of the specific alternatives discussed in the research design section. The discussion begins with the sample and then proceeds to the measurement instrument drawing focus to the questions and the scale used to measure responses. Each of the three sections in the questionnaire is described followed by the motivation for the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. The details of administering procedure are also outlined. The analysis of data section lists a step by step account of what was done with the data to provide results included in the report. Finally research limitations and ethical considerations conclude the chapter.

4.2 Hypothesis

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the following problem and associated sub-problems were tested by the hypotheses:

Problem statement: To identify any associations between employee motivation factors and employee demographics (gender, age, race, organisational level) in the South African banking industry.

Subproblem 1: To identify any associations between employee motivation factors and gender in the South African banking industry.

Subproblem 2: To identify any associations between employee motivation factors and age in the South African banking industry.



Subproblem 3: To identify any associations between employee motivation factors and race in the South African banking industry.

Subproblem 4: To identify any associations between employee motivation factors and organisational level in the South African banking industry.

As each subproblem involves the testing of associations between a nominal variable and the motivation factors, each hypothesis will test for “differences” rather than “relationships” between the groups (Diamantopoulos et al., 2000:135). Each sub-problem listed above was translated into a single hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 1: Differences exist in employee motivation factors between genders in the South African banking industry.

Hypothesis 2: Differences exist in employee motivation factors between generations in the South African banking industry.

Hypothesis 3: Differences exist in employee motivation factors between races in the South African banking industry.

Hypothesis 4: Differences exist in employee motivation factors between organisational levels in the South African banking industry.

4.3 Research Design

There are two paradigms of research, qualitative and quantitative (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005). In qualitative research, one collects numerous forms of data and examines them from various dimensions to construct a rich and meaningful picture of a complex, multifaceted situation. Quantitative research is best suited to answer questions about relationships among measured variables with the purpose of explaining, predicting and controlling phenomena. Quantitative research usually begins with a specific hypothesis to be tested, while qualitative research usually starts with general research questions rather than specific hypotheses. Qualitative study does not necessarily involve studying something new or modern, but rather initiates inquiry in a topic where little information



exists, the variables are unknown and/or a relevant theoretical base is inadequate or missing.

There are various different approaches to sampling, which falls into two broad categories: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. In probability sampling, the researcher specifies in advance that each segment of the population will be represented in the sample. This approach involves having some control of your sample to be able to target the specific segments of the sample. Utilizing non-probability sampling, the researcher has no way of predicting whether each segment of the population will be represented in the sample. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005) any population of more than 5000 units requires a minimum sample size of 400 to ensure a representative sample that can be used to draw useful inferences about the population.

Primary data is defined as data collected by the researcher him/herself, while secondary data would be sourced from existing repositories. Primary data is often the most valid, the most illuminating and the most truth manifesting (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005). Secondary data, on the other hand, farther away from the truth, is derived from primary data.

Two types of instruments are used for primary data collection: surveys and observations. An observation study would require direct contact either by the researcher or someone hired to conduct the exercise on behalf of the researcher. Apart from the additional cost and time required for observation studies, rater error is also possible if the raters are not trained to rate the behaviours consistently. The behaviour or attitude measured by an observation study also needs to be precise and concrete to identify when it occurs. A survey-based study involves “acquiring information about one or more groups of people...by asking them questions and tabulating their answers” (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005:183). This information could be characteristics, opinions, attitudes or questions. Survey-based research, like observation studies, is categorized in a larger parent category of descriptive research which explores the “as-is” situation to identify characteristics of an observed phenomenon or investigate possible correlations among two or more phenomena (Leedy and



Ormrod, 2005:183). This study did not investigate correlations but focused on identifying associations (characteristics) between employee demographics and motivation factors (observed phenomena). Surveys are more efficient and economical than observations. Appropriately chosen questions can be used to source information that would typically take much longer to obtain by way of observation. Surveys also facilitate a larger geographical area to be covered (Cooper and Emory, 1995). One of the key drawbacks of questionnaires however, is the poor response rate (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005).

Two types of techniques can be used to evaluate and quantify characteristics or opinions. A checklist is a list of characteristics or opinions that the respondents check to indicate whether an item is true or not. A rating scale is more appropriate when the researcher requires a response on a continuum e.g. Likert scales.

The advancement of technology offers the additional option of email for today's research studies as opposed to paper-based surveys for distribution of the questionnaires to the sample. Email surveys allow a faster and more cost saving distribution mechanism than paper-based surveys in addition to a greater geographical coverage. Email surveys also increase the response rate by being an easier way to complete and return the questionnaire. The researcher is also at an advantage with this mechanism as it allows easier online monitoring of the response rate and if it is within the budget of the study, a computer programme can be developed to automate extraction of the responses from the questionnaire into a format that can be uploaded to a statistics programme, e.g. SPSS.

The validity and reliability of the measurement instrument are also important aspects that need to be addressed as they influence the degree to which one can learn something about the phenomenon being studied and draw meaningful conclusions. Validity refers to the extent to which the measurement instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. Reliability is the extent to which the measuring instrument yields a certain result when the entity being measured has not changed (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005).



Different method of analysis (e.g. two sample t-test and one-way ANOVAs) are available, depending on specific elements of the study, such as the number of groups, the number of measures, the nature of the variables (e.g. nominal or interval) and whether the study involves identifying relationships.

4.4 Methodology

A quantitative approach was chosen for the study because of the main objective to test specific hypotheses as per section 4.2.

4.4.1 Sample

The South African banking industry has an employee base in excess of 30000 employees, which required a sample size of 400 to be representative. A non-probability hybrid of convenience and snowball sampling was employed to reach the required sample in the population. Convenience sampling unfortunately creates a risk (as evidenced by the data collected) of not reaching a representative subset of the population. The snowball approach was introduced as part of the approach to facilitate reaching as many employees as possible and obtaining the required sample size.

Two emails were sent to two distinct categories of individuals known by the researcher. One category, including only non-banking industry employees, received an email (Appendix B.3: Initial email to non-banking employees) requesting them to forward the email to four colleagues working in the banking industry, requesting the recipients to complete and return the survey and forward the email, thereby creating the snowball effect. The other category, including only banking industry employees, received an email (Appendix B.4: Initial email to banking employees) requesting them to complete and return the survey and to forward the email to four other colleagues working in the banking industry, thereby also creating the snowball effect. This approach dramatically increased the response rate for the survey with many recipients of the email obliging by forwarding on the email to four other recipients, while a few individuals even forwarded the email onto more than 25 other recipients.



Although the survey reached some individuals twice via different channels, these participants only returned the completed survey once.

The original proposal was based on approval at an HR department level from one of the four largest banks in South Africa. When the questionnaire was to be administered, the study was unfortunately denied access to the employee database which prevented a systematic stratified sampling process from being used. Appendix B.7: Original proposal letter to South African bank and Appendix B.8: Original proposal presentation to South African bank (all references to the specific bank removed) details the communication sent to the bank as a proposal for approval to conduct the study.

4.4.2 Measurement instrument

The data collection instrument used for this study was a quantitative descriptive survey based on a valid and reliable questionnaire which obtained information regarding the importance placed on motivation factors by employees across the four demographic dimensions. The questionnaire was based on Herzberg's (1968) motivational theories and adapted from Kovach's (1980, 1987) motivation studies.

The survey instructed the respondents to answer questions linked to ten job-related factors (Kovach, 1980, 1987) categorized according to Herzberg's (1968) two factor theory. It was originally planned to request survey participants to rank the ten job related motivation factors but this approach posed a few risks that would have negatively affected the validity and response rate of the questionnaire. These risks included:

- Misunderstanding of questionnaire instructions resulting in each factor behind rated individually on a scale of 1 to 10 instead of being assigned an exclusive rank position
- Participant mistakes in the rank process, such as assigning two factors to one position



- Ambiguity of the motivation factor by their original name
- Misleading impression of a short questionnaire that takes longer than originally anticipated due to large number of items (10 factors) that need to be ranked as opposed to rated

This resulted in the preferred option of a questionnaire with two simple questions posed to confirm the importance of each motivation factor. The second question was a “countercheck” (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005) to ensure reliability of the answers. The table below shows the links between each motivation factor and two statements on the questionnaire. The responses would then be analysed by each demographic subgroup to obtain a rank of Kovach’s (1995) ten motivation factors.

Table 4.1 Questionnaire statements link to motivation factors

Motivation factor	Statement #	Statement (“I require...”)
1. Full appreciation of work done	4	...more explicit performance criteria, against which I am rewarded accordingly
	10	...greater recognition and appreciation in the workplace
2. Feeling of being involved	6	...greater involvement in decisions that will directly affect me
	15	...management to share more accurate information about the organisation with me on a regular basis
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	13	...management to make more time to meet and listen to me
	8	...management to be more approachable to discuss my personal problems
4. Interesting work	2	...more creativity and meaning in my work
	19	...additional responsibility and stimulation in my work
5. Opportunity for development	17	...more opportunities to succeed in my working environment
	7	...more development opportunities that are aligned to my needs and aspirations
6. Loyalty to employees	11	...management to be more open and trustworthy
	14	...management to be more trustworthy to look after my best interests



Motivation factor	Statement #	Statement (“I require...”)
7. Good working conditions	1	...a greater work-life balance in my job
	16	...my workplace to be more friendly and have a greater sense of unity
8. Tactful disciplining	18	...management to provide me with more timely and specific feedback on my accomplishments
	20	...management to be more constructive and tactful when dealing with poor performance
9. Job security	3	...greater stability of employment at my company
	12	...greater job security in my organisation
10. Good wages	9	...a more market related salary
	5	...a higher remuneration in relation to my work commitment, position, experience and education

The next challenge was to mitigate the risk of the participants confusing job dissatisfaction and job satisfaction (motivation) (Herzberg, 1968). One of the concepts of Maslow’s (1943) theory was that, that which is fulfilled cannot be used to motivate. If participants answered the questionnaire with job dissatisfaction in mind, they would probably rate all the statements (factors) as “Agree strongly”, but if they were asked which factor, not currently fulfilled, would motivate them if it was fulfilled, their choice of which questions they “Agree strongly” with, would be limited to only motivation factors. To accomplish this, a term implying “an increase in”, was adjusted to the context and added to each statement while a universal “I require” was indicated as the prefix to all statements in the instructions for Section 3. Each question therefore read similar to “I require an increase in...”

With the choice of a rating scale preferred to the 10-point rank scale, the pertinent next design question was that of the likert scale. Firstly, there was the consideration of an even or odd number of options. As remarked by Leedy and Ormrod (2005), researchers have mixed views on this consideration. An even scale was opted to prevent respondents from “straddling the fence” in light of the responses being eventually aggregated per demographic subgroup. A six-point design was favoured in light of these considerations and for reliability



purposes to allow the participant an adequate variation of responses per statement to further facilitate the aggregated ratings of the motivation factors.

A checklist was used to capture the required demographic information, including gender, generation, race and organisational level. To avoid any sentiment of exclusion during completion of the survey among participants that may negatively impact the response rate, the request for “race” in the first section allowed for a category of “Other” with specification from the respondent. Any data related to a category outside the four delimited races was, however, not be used during the hypothesis testing of the study but was mentioned in the statistical analysis of the sample.

In totality, the questionnaire (Appendix A.1: Employee motivation survey) consisted of three sections: the first section requested demographic information (age, race, gender) from the respondents using checklists, section two required the respondents to rate 20 questions related to Kovach’s ten job-related motivation factors on a six-point likert scale (1=Agree strongly, 6=Disagree strongly) and section 3 allowed the respondent the option of providing contact details if he/she requires an executive summary of the report once complete.

Herzberg’s (1968) and Kovach’s (1980, 1987) work on motivation theory have been used for many years in employee motivation studies across the world and in different industries. For example, in 1999, Wong et al. conducted a research into possible relationships between demographic variables and the ten job-related motivators among Hong Kong hotel employees to suggest strategies to hoteliers for developing suitable motivation programmes for employees with different demographic backgrounds. In another study, Kovach (1987) conducted a study using his ten job-related motivation factors and Herzberg’s research to compare results with a similar survey conducted in the industrial sector in 1946. Beaty et al. (2001) also delivered results of Kovach’s motivation factors in South Africa comparing the responses of supervisors and employees. The multiple employs of Herzberg’s (1968) and Kovach’s (1980, 1987) motivation theory research studies supported the face validity of the questionnaire.



In 2005, Kovach himself conducted a study to answer the question “Does Herzberg’s motivation theory have staying power?” He employed a quantitative survey questionnaire with questions related to Herzberg’s two-factor motivation theory. The findings from data collected from over 3200 respondents in 32 large organisations concluded that the Herzberg’s theory still had utility nearly 50 years after it was first developed.

Using a survey questionnaire as opposed to an observation study also improved the reliability of the rating as the employees themselves were requested to rate the questions and not independent raters.

4.4.3 Administering procedure

An important part of the survey was that it was entirely voluntary. Although a recipient of the email would have received the questionnaire, it was up to the individual as to whether they wanted to respond.

The questionnaire was distributed exclusively (for purposes of reliability) via email with a return address on the questionnaire. The researcher setup an email address specifically for the purposes of the research to effectively manage the large number of respondents. The original email request however, was sent from the researcher’s private email address as it was thought that this would create a more personalized request to the recipients encouraging more of them to forward the email on for the snowball effect. It was noted however, that this did result in some responses being forwarded directly to the researcher’s private email box and not to the specific email address setup to collect the responses.

The questionnaire and the confidentiality letter (Appendix B.1: Letter from SBL confirming researcher as bona fide student) was attached to both emails with the cover letter in the body of the emails. This facilitated simpler forwarding of the questionnaire with the sender not required to formulate any additional body to the email as the original email was self-explanatory and in the words of the researcher. This also prevented any miscommunication regarding the purpose of the survey, adding to the questionnaire’s validity. As the only communication



between the researcher and the participants, this communiqué was motivational and passionate to engage the participants' enthusiasm to complete the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was tested in a pilot sample of 10 bank employees (Appendix B.2: Email to pilot sample). To ensure a comprehensive test that catered for cross cultural deviations in interpretation of the questionnaire, the chosen sample included participants with varying demographic attributes. The purpose of the pilot was to test various logistical qualifiers in the process. This includes: effectiveness of email communication in the banking environment, time taken to complete questionnaire, clarity of questionnaire instruction to the respondent, clarity of questionnaire content to respondent and motivation created to complete and return questionnaire. All comments received from the pilot were positive especially with regards to the time taken to complete the questionnaire. The original ten minutes allotted for completion of the questionnaire was therefore revised down to 5 minutes on the emails sent out for the "live" survey, which increased the response rate by requesting less time from the recipients.

The business process of the banks was assessed to ensure that the questionnaires are distributed during a period when no business critical activities were being conducted, such as, month-end. This facilitated a high and prompt return rate of the questionnaires. Another business activity period that was avoided was that of performance appraisals. This may have affected the reliability of the responses in their consistency as the responses may have been emotionally impacted.

A gentle reminder email (Appendix B.5: Reminder email to non-banking employees and Appendix B.6: Reminder email to banking employees) was sent to all participants whose responses had not yet been received within 2 weeks after sending out the questionnaire. The tone of this letter was especially important. One wanted to convey firmness and persuasion cushioned with diplomatic skill and tact. A copy of the questionnaire was also re-attached as a convenience to the participant and to prevent the loss of the questionnaire from



being cited as a reason for the lack of a response. A third reminder was sent within one week before the due date of the questionnaire,

On receipt of the questionnaire, a prompt 'Thank You' email was sent back to the recipient with the additional reassurance that the results would be made available to those who requested it.

4.4.4 Analysis of data

The following diagram summarizes the hypotheses that were tested in the study.

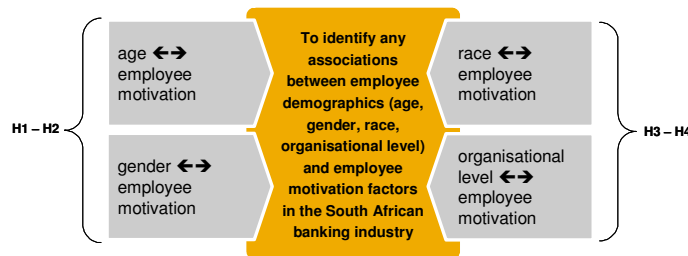


Figure 4.1 Hypotheses

The values of the four demographic variables are listed in the table below:

Table 4.2 Demographic variable values

Age	Gender	Race	Organisational Level
Veteran	Female	Black	Top management
Baby boomer	Male	Coloured	Senior management
Generation X		Indian/Asian	Junior management
Internet generation		White	Non-management

Gender and race are nominal variables. While age is typically a ratio variable, it will be analysed by a generation categorisation as a nominal variable to draw inferences regarding the different generations. Nonetheless, the variable will be required as a ratio input on the questionnaire for the purposes of potential statistical analysis. This will be combined with other descriptive and exploratory statistical analyses (frequencies, cumulative frequencies, percentages and histograms) of the entire questionnaire in order to describe the sample in terms



of the relevant biographical aspects and to get preliminary results for the item responses on the demographic dimensions as a whole.

The following process was followed for analysis of the data:

- For each respondent a mean of the two questions was calculated for each motivation factor
- The results from the previous step were used to calculate means for each generation, gender, race and organisational level with respect to the importance of each motivation factor
- For each motivation factor, the means of males and females were compared using individual sample t-tests.
- For each motivation factor, the means of the three generations were compared using ANOVA.
- For each motivation factor, the means of the four races were compared using ANOVA.
- For each motivation factor, the means of the four organisational levels were compared using ANOVA.
- For each generation, gender, race and organisational level, the means of the motivation factors were sorted (calculated in the second step) in ascending order (likert scale: 1 represented “Strongly agree” and 6 represented “Strongly disagree”) to ascertain rank.
- Graphically represent the associations and rank between the motivation factors and the genders, generations, races and organisational levels.

4.5 Limitations

A survey research posed a risk as a data collection mechanism in that they were based on self-report data, that is, people’s subjectivity. People delivered information as they perceived it, which was not necessarily factual. Attitudes



and responses were also “constructed on the spot” and related to the current context (Osteraker, 1999; Leedy and Ormrod, 2005), thereby revealing only a snapshot view. Another side effect of using questionnaires was that participants could have misrepresented responses to create a falsely favourable impression to the researcher.

The study was limited to four demographic variables: age, gender, race and organisational level. Among other demographic variables that were not included in the study are the following: marital status, department (e.g. marketing, human resources), education, tenure and monthly income.

The study was also only conducted in the banking industry. The literature review conveyed other examples of industries where the survey was conducted and as such the motivation factors are possibly applicable to all industries in an economy.

The employee motivation factors were all job related. They do not consider how non job related factors such as relationship with family and spouse, meaningful leisure, personal educational pursuits and successful role fulfilment in non job related activities might influence the employee motivation within the workplace.

The study used means of differences in motivation factor responses between demographic categories to identify the existence of associations between the demographic categories, but it did not measure the strength of these relationships. The number of motivation factors which did display a difference between categories (e.g. male and female) within a demographic (e.g. gender) was used as a relative measure to compare the association between motivation factors and other demographics within the study. This was based on the assumption of a constant strength weighting on each association between a demographic and a motivation factor.

4.6 Ethical considerations

In a research project of this nature where the responses of the participants could have had direct impact of their working relationships with managers and



peers, confidentiality by the researcher was of the utmost importance. This assurance, together with the principle of informed consent, was delivered in the cover letter which included the following (Leedy, et al., 2005):

- A brief description of the study
- The extent of the participant's involvement in the study
- That the participation was voluntary and that it could have been terminated at any point without penalty
- A guarantee that all responses remained private and confidential. A confidentiality letter from the researcher's university was included as an attachment on the email.
- Contact details in the event of any queries
- The option to be forwarded a summarized version of the results of the study once complete

As discussed in the literature review, similar studies have been conducted by other researchers. As such, their findings were used for the purpose of a literary background into the field of study but were not be plagiarised in the findings of this report.

The integrity of the results of the research was of utmost importance and as such the validity of the research and analysis techniques were beyond reproach. All techniques were fully documented and all results were made objectively.

4.7 Conclusion

The study assumed the quantitative paradigm based on primary data. A non probability hybrid of convenience and snowball sampling was employed to obtain the required sample of employees for the study. Two types of emails were sent out to initiate the snowball: one to banking and the other to non-



banking employees. The primary data was collected using a descriptive survey questionnaire. The questionnaire discussion highlighted the researcher's concern that the questionnaire was made as simple as possible to encourage a high response rate. Kovach (1995) and Herzberg (1968) were key contributors in the literature behind this study. Each of Kovach's (1995) ten motivation factors that are typically ranked were divided into two representative rating questions to simplify the process for the respondent and leave the work to the researcher to ascertain the rank. Following a discussion of the instrument's validity and reliability, the administering procedure is explained. The cover letter, pilot, integration with business processes, reminder and the eventual "thank you" letter are all discussed in detail. The analysis is discussed with specific steps to calculate the means of responses to the motivation factors and then compare them within each demographic to identify association before presenting the rank of the ten motivation factors for each of the fourteen demographic categories. A discussion of the limitations of the study and the ethical considerations highlighting confidentiality and informed consent of the respondent conclude the chapter. This chapter has set the scene for review of the results in the next chapter.



CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 will discuss the results from the study with the presentation of various tables and charts to deliver different elements of the analysis. The chapter begins with descriptive statistics regarding the sample and highlights specific changes in some of the demographic categories used in the analysis, compared to the literature, due to the sample that responded to the survey. The reliability and data distribution of the questionnaire are then considered before the chapter opens to the first of two key areas, which investigates the response differences in employee motivation factors between employee demographic categories to test the hypotheses. The second key area of the chapter then uses the means of the responses for each motivation factor to rank the factors per demographic category.

5.2 Final sample size

A total of 137 valid responses were received by the close of the survey, which was deemed sufficient to conduct the analysis and draw inferences from the results. The original email was sent to 18 banking colleagues, while 52 non-banking colleagues received the request to the questionnaire on to their banking colleagues. Although, the email did contain the instruction to include the motivation survey email address on all emails that forwarded the questionnaire to a new level of the snowball, this was not always done as some responses were received without a trace to the sender, which created difficulty in ascertaining an accurate response rate.

5.3 Respondent profile

Four demographic dimensions were considered in the research study including gender, age, race and organisational level. Although the survey requested direct entry for the age demographic, the analysis coded this data into the four



generations: Veterans, Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y. The rest of the demographic factors were analysed as per the groups requested on the survey questionnaire. Table 5.1 below describes the composition of the employee sample by the five demographics including in the survey questionnaire.

Table 5.1 Composition of employee sample by demographics

Demographic		Frequency	Percentage
Factor	Category		
Generation	Veterans	0	0
	Baby Boomers	46	33.6
	Generation X	57	41.6
	Generation Y	34	24.8
Gender	Male	78	56.9
	Female	59	43.1
Race	Black	18	13.1
	Coloured	9	6.6
	Indian	61	44.5
	White	46	33.6
	Other	3	2.2
Organisational level	Senior management	17	12.4
	Middle management	27	19.7
	Junior management	41	29.9
	Non-management	52	38.0
Functional business area	Business banking	23	16.8
	Corporate Investment	13	9.5
	Finance	15	10.9
	Group Economics	0	0
	Group Strategy	6	4.4
	Human Resources	16	11.7
	Information Technology	23	16.8
	Marketing and Comm.	0	0
	Operations	18	13.1
	Retail Banking	21	15.3



Demographic		Frequency	Percentage
Factor	Category		
	Other	2	1.5

One of the first impressions that one notes about the sample composition from Table 5.1 is that no respondents were located in the veteran (older than 64 years old) generation. On the other hand, the highest number of responses among the generations was generation X with 57 (41.6%) responses, while generation Y accounted for the lowest (24.8%) among the generations. The sample split between the two genders is also disparate, with more the 55% of the respondents being male and 43.1% being female. The composition of respondents across the four races is unevenly spread with the highest percentage recorded by Indians returning 61 (44.5%) of 137 questionnaires and the lowest number of surveys received from coloureds who formed 6.6% of the sample size, which was just below half of the responses received from blacks (13.1%). Three surveys were received with indication of races outside these four races groups, all of whom were of Chinese decent. These three surveys were not included in the analysis. Finally, the number of responses in each management level was in a distinctly ascending order from senior to non-management with 17 (12.4%) senior managers and 52 (38.0%) non-managers returning the questionnaire.

Although functional business area is not considered the hypothesis of this study, it was included in the questionnaire. No respondents were reached in the group economics and marketing and communications functional business areas, while the highest response rate was between information technology and business banking employees with 23%, followed closely by 21% of the responses being received from retail banking employees. Two employees responded to this question by adding their specific functional business area to the list due to none of the options of the questionnaire being applicable.

It should also be noted that although 152 questionnaires were received, 15 questionnaires were regarded as completely invalid when assessed against any of the following criteria:



- Incomplete responses for any questions in section A or B
- Selection of multiple responses for any question in section A or B
- Omission of responses for any question in section A or B

5.4 Reliability analysis and data distribution

Kendall's tau-b was used to measure the reliability of the questionnaire. Kendall's tau-b is a nonparametric measure of association based on the number of concordances and discordances in paired observations. Concordance occurs when paired observations vary together, and discordance occurs when paired observations vary differently (SAS Institute, 1999)

In the case of this study, each of the ten motivation factors was linked to two questions on the survey, as described in Table 4.1. Kendall's tau-b values were therefore calculated in **Table 5.2** below, between each of the two questions per motivation factor.

Table 5.2 Kendall's tau-b for questions linked to motivation factors

Motivation factor	Statement #	Kendall's tau-b
1. Full appreciation of work done	4	0.483
	10	
2. Feeling of being involved	6	0.519
	15	
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	13	0.524
	8	
4. Interesting work	2	0.542
	19	
5. Opportunity for development	17	0.696
	7	
6. Loyalty to employees	11	0.707
	14	
7. Good working conditions	1	0.331
	16	
8. Tactful disciplining	18	0.502
	20	



Motivation factor	Statement #	Kendall's tau-b
9. Job security	3	0.660
	12	
10. Good wages	9	0.658
	5	

Most Kendall tau-b values indicated a high concordance between the two “countercheck” (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005) questions related to each motivation factor, with the exception of the questions for motivation factor “Good working conditions” which had a moderate concordance. This was indicative of high validity in the questionnaire as the two questions per motivation factor were answered with similar responses.

Table 5.3 below, lists the coding used in the analysis for the likert scale responses. In hindsight, it was identified subsequent to the questionnaires being sent out that the likert scale was perhaps counter intuitive in its layout. Perhaps, a swapping of the “agree” and “disagree” sides of the scale would have made the questionnaire easier to complete, that is, with disagree to agree running from left to right , rather than vice versa.

Table 5.3 Likert scale coding

Likert Scale	Code
Agree strongly	1
Agree	2
Agree somewhat	3
Disagree somewhat	4
Disagree	5
Disagree strongly	6

As per **Table 5.4** below, the means and medians are predominantly less than or equal to 3.5 indicating that most responses to the questions were in greater agreement with the questions to a certain degree.



Table 5.4 Summary statistics per motivation factor

Statistic	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8	Factor 9	Factor 10
Mean	2.832	2.821	3.478	3.102	2.668	2.891	2.989	2.971	3.544	2.387
Std Error	0.111	0.103	0.104	0.107	0.113	0.119	0.097	0.111	0.111	0.097
Median	2.5	2.5	3.5	3	2.5	2.5	3	3	3.5	2
Mode	2.5	2	2.5	4	1	2	3	3	5	2
Std. Dev.	1.295	1.202	1.220	1.255	1.327	1.396	1.138	1.297	1.295	1.131
Sample Var.	1.677	1.444	1.488	1.574	1.762	1.947	1.296	1.683	1.678	1.279
Kurtosis	-0.749	-0.948	-0.775	-1.080	-0.818	-0.846	-0.776	-0.982	-1.038	-0.069
Skewness	0.457	0.398	-0.087	0.054	0.414	0.449	0.270	0.178	-0.121	0.742
Range	4.5	4	5	4.5	5	5	4.5	4.5	5	4
Min.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Max.	5.5	5	6	5.5	6	6	5.5	5.5	6	5
Count	137	137	137	137	137	137	137	137	137	137

The following figures (Figure 5.1 - Figure 5.10) graphically represent the distribution of responses per motivation factor with trend lines (polynomial, order=3). These figures also support the predominantly positive skew of the distribution indicated in the table above, with the exception of factor 3 and factor 9 showing a slightly negative skew of the distribution as evidenced by the means being lower than medians and the negative skewness in both cases. On the other extreme the most prominent positive skew is for factor 10.

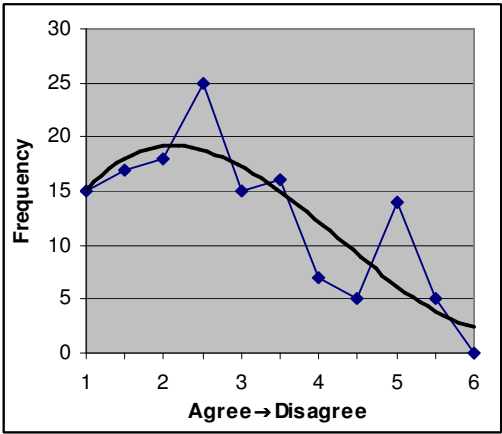


Figure 5.1 Factor 1 Distribution

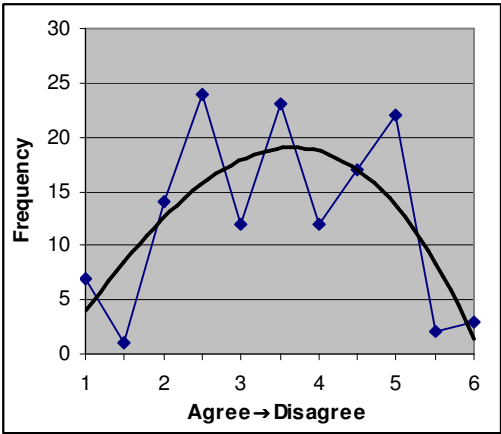


Figure 5.3 Factor 3 Distribution

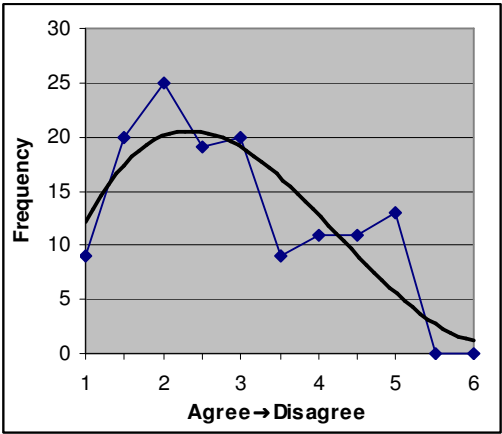


Figure 5.2 Factor 2 Distribution

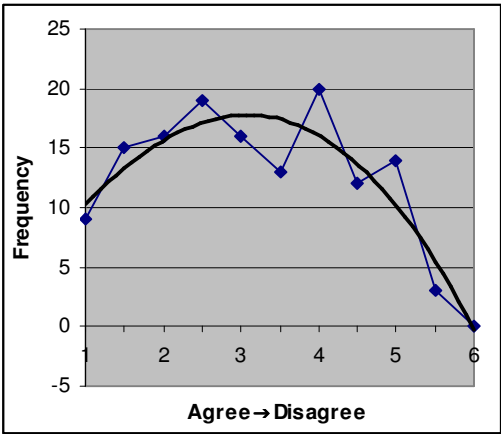


Figure 5.4 Factor 4 Distribution

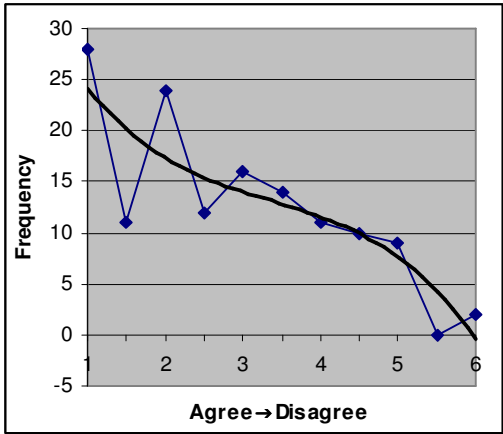


Figure 5.5 Factor 5 Distribution

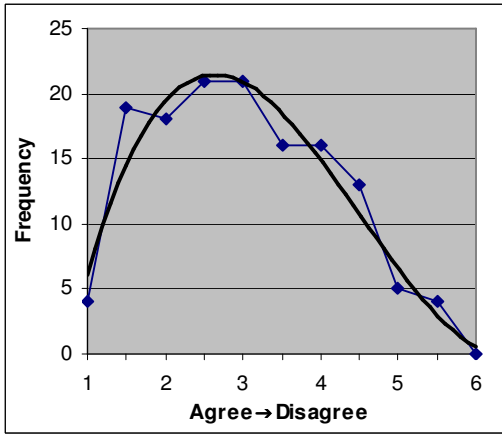


Figure 5.7 Factor 7 Distribution

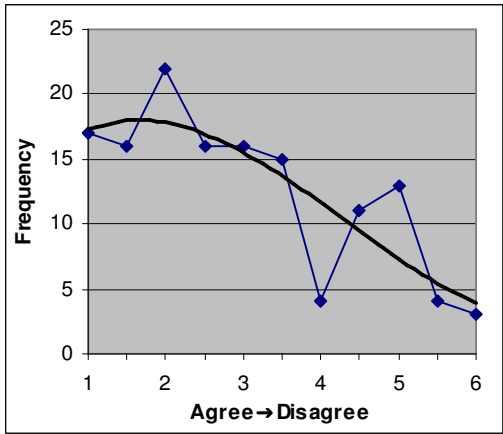


Figure 5.6 Factor 6 Distribution

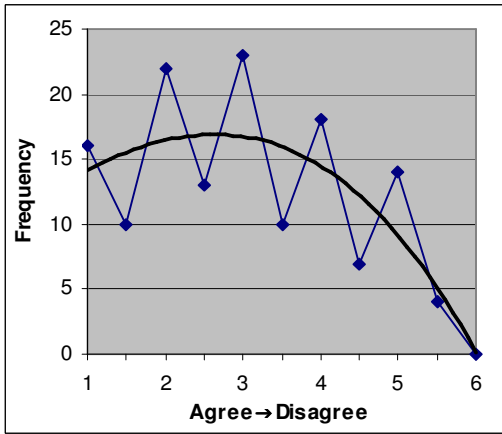


Figure 5.8 Factor 8 Distribution

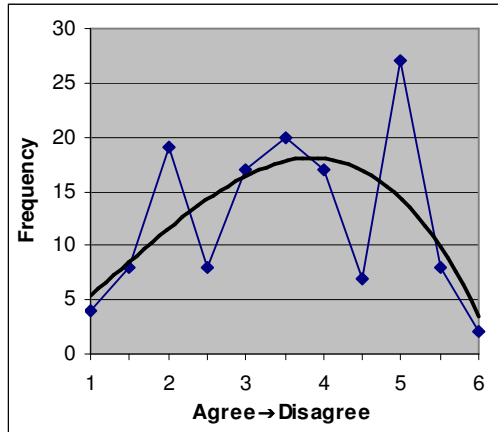


Figure 5.9 Factor 9 Distribution

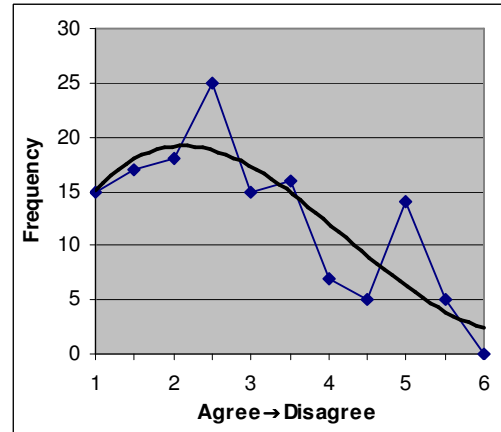


Figure 5.10 Factor 10 Distribution

5.5 Differences in motivation between demographics

The following section addresses the hypotheses from Section 4.2, repeated for reference below:

Hypothesis 1: Differences exist in employee motivation factors between genders in the South African banking industry.

Hypothesis 2: Differences exist in employee motivation factors between generations in the South African banking industry.

Hypothesis 3: Differences exist in employee motivation factors between races in the South African banking industry.

Hypothesis 4: Differences exist in employee motivation factors between organisational levels in the South African banking industry.

5.5.1 Hypothesis 1: Gender differences

Figure 5.11 below, graphically represents the comparison of means between the two gender groups: males and females. As can be observed, males



tendered to be in more disagreement than females and across all ten motivation factors.

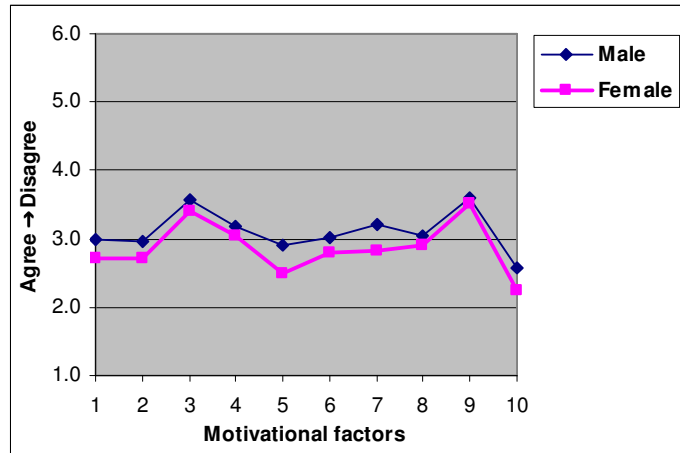


Figure 5.11 Gender comparison of means

The alternate and null hypotheses were as follows:

H1: Differences exist in employee motivation factors between genders in the South African banking industry.

H0: Differences do not exist in employee motivation factors between genders in the South African banking industry.

This hypothesis was tested using the two-sample t-test to measure the equality of means of responses per employee motivation factor between males and females. An inequality of means at a 5% significance level for a motivation factor would reject the null hypothesis, thereby supporting the alternate hypothesis that differences exist in that specific motivation factor between genders in the South African banking industry.

Table 5.5 below, lists the means for the responses of males and females across the ten motivation factors.



Table 5.5 Selected summary statistics for Gender

Factor	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
1. Full appreciation of work done	Female	78	2.7116	1.24452	0.14091
	Male	59	2.9915	1.35345	0.17620
2. Feeling of being involved	Female	78	2.7115	1.22877	0.13913
	Male	59	2.9661	1.15916	0.15091
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	Female	78	3.4038	1.29449	0.14657
	Male	59	3.5763	1.11731	0.14546
4. Interesting work	Female	78	3.0321	1.33713	0.15140
	Male	59	3.1949	1.14100	0.14854
5. Opportunity for development	Female	78	2.4808	1.33738	0.15143
	Male	59	2.9153	1.28369	0.16712
6. Loyalty to employees	Female	78	2.7949	1.42208	0.16102
	Male	59	3.0169	1.36131	0.17723
7. Good working conditions	Female	78	2.8205	1.15087	0.13031
	Male	59	3.2119	1.09152	0.14210
8. Tactful disciplining	Female	78	2.9103	1.36454	0.15450
	Male	59	3.0508	1.20950	0.15746
9. Job security	Female	78	3.5128	1.24831	0.14134
	Male	59	3.5847	1.36506	0.17772
10. Good wages	Female	78	2.2372	1.15299	0.13055
	Male	59	2.5847	1.07940	0.14053

In **Table 5.6**, the above means for males and females are compared to each other for each factor.



Table 5.6 Independent two sample t-test for Gender

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
1. Full appreciation of work done	Equal variances assumed	1.536	0.217	-1.256	0.211	-0.27999
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.241	0.217	-0.27999
2. Feeling of being involved	Equal variances assumed	0.472	0.493	-1.230	0.221	-0.25456
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.240	0.217	-0.25456
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	Equal variances assumed	1.639	0.203	-0.818	0.415	-0.17243
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.835	0.405	-0.17243
4. Interesting work	Equal variances assumed	1.967	0.163	-0.751	0.454	-0.16286
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.768	0.444	-0.16286
5. Opportunity for development	Equal variances assumed	0.299	0.586	-1.916	0.058	-0.43449
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.927	0.056	-0.43449
6. Loyalty to employees	Equal variances assumed	0.115	0.735	-0.922	0.358	-0.22208
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.927	0.355	-0.22208
7. Good working conditions	Equal variances assumed	0.025	0.874	-2.015	0.046*	-0.39135
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.030	0.044*	-0.39135
8. Tactful disciplining	Equal variances assumed	1.654	0.201	-0.627	0.532	-0.14059
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.637	0.525	-0.14059
9. Job security	Equal variances assumed	1.648	0.201	-0.321	0.749	-0.07193
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.317	0.752	-0.07193
10. Good wages	Equal variances assumed	0.079	0.779	-1.795	0.075	-0.34757
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.812	0.072	-0.34757

Notes: * Denotes significance level < 0.05



From the results above, at the 5% significance level, H_0 cannot be rejected for nine out of the ten motivation factors thereby rejecting the alternate hypothesis that differences exist in these factors between genders. H_0 was rejected (supporting H_1) specifically for factor 7 with a small F-value indicating similar variances and therefore a p-value of 0.046, which was less than 0.05 indicating different means between males and females. The alternate hypothesis of a difference in motivation factors between the genders is therefore only supported by factor 7. An extended version of the table above can be found in Appendix C.1: Independent two sample t-test for Gender.

5.5.2 Hypothesis 2: Generation differences

The literature review indicated that there were four generations including veterans, baby boomers, generation X and generation Y. However, no survey responses were received from the veteran category resulting in the following findings only being applicable to three generations.

Figure 5.12 below, graphically represents the comparison of means between the three generations: baby boomers, generation X and generation Y. As can be observed, Baby boomers tended to be in more disagreement relative to the other two generations across all ten motivation factors.

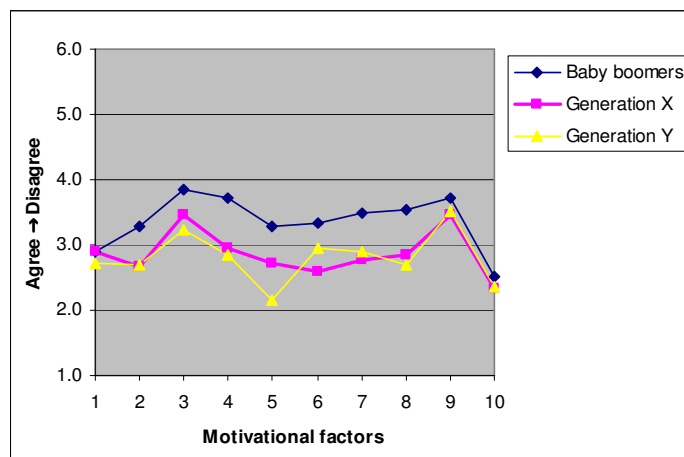


Figure 5.12 Generation comparison of means



The alternate and null hypotheses were as follows:

H_1 : Differences exist in employee motivation factors between generations in the South African banking industry.

H_0 : Differences do not exist in employee motivation factors between generations in the South African banking industry.

This hypothesis was tested using the one-way ANOVA to measure the equality of means of responses per employee motivation factor between the generations. An inequality of means at a 5% significance level for a motivation factor would reject the null hypothesis, thereby supporting the alternate hypothesis that differences exist in that specific motivation factor between generations in the South African banking industry.

Table 5.7 below, lists the means for the responses of each generation across the ten motivation factors.

Table 5.7 Selected summary statistics for Generation

Factor	Generation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
1. Full appreciation of work done	Generation Y	46	2.7065	1.20911	0.17827
	Generation X	57	2.8947	1.33208	0.17644
	Baby Boomers	34	2.8971	1.36947	0.23486
	Total	137	2.8321	1.29518	0.11065
2. Feeling of being involved	Generation Y	46	2.6848	1.12229	0.16547
	Generation X	57	2.6579	1.15788	0.15337
	Baby Boomers	34	3.2794	1.29212	0.22160
	Total	137	2.8212	1.20162	0.10266
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	Generation Y	46	3.2283	1.13874	0.16790
	Generation X	57	3.4561	1.28619	0.17036
	Baby Boomers	34	3.8529	1.15161	0.19750
	Total	137	3.4781	1.22004	0.10423
4. Interesting work	Generation Y	46	2.8370	1.12079	0.16525
	Generation X	57	2.9561	1.28619	0.17036
	Baby Boomers	34	3.7059	1.20678	0.20696
	Total	137	3.1022	1.25461	0.10719



Factor	Generation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
5. Opportunity for development	Generation Y	46	2.1522	0.94204	0.13890
	Generation X	57	2.7105	1.33613	0.17697
	Baby Boomers	34	3.2941	1.49807	0.25692
	Total	137	2.6679	1.32742	0.11341
6. Loyalty to employees	Generation Y	46	2.9457	1.20291	0.17736
	Generation X	57	2.5877	1.31313	0.17393
	Baby Boomers	34	3.3235	1.66462	0.28548
	Total	137	2.8905	1.39552	0.11923
7. Good working conditions	Generation Y	46	2.9022	1.03612	0.15277
	Generation X	57	2.7632	1.21782	0.16130
	Baby Boomers	34	3.4853	1.00367	0.17213
	Total	137	2.9891	1.13835	0.09726
8. Tactful disciplining	Generation Y	46	2.6957	1.13274	0.16701
	Generation X	57	2.8509	1.24271	0.16460
	Baby Boomers	34	3.5441	1.44792	0.24832
	Total	137	2.9708	1.29729	0.11084
9. Job security	Generation Y	46	3.5109	1.27143	0.18746
	Generation X	57	3.4649	1.30883	0.17336
	Baby Boomers	34	3.7206	1.32683	0.22755
	Total	137	3.5438	1.29546	0.11068
10. Good wages	Generation Y	46	2.3587	1.09373	0.16126
	Generation X	57	2.3333	1.22596	0.16238
	Baby Boomers	34	2.5147	1.03342	0.17723
	Total	137	2.3869	1.13110	0.09664

In **Table 5.8**, the above means for each generation are compared to each other for each factor.

Table 5.8 One-way ANOVA for Generation

Factor		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1. Full appreciation of work done	Between Groups	1.093	2	0.546	0.322	0.725
	Within Groups	227.046	134	1.694		
	Total	228.139	136			
2. Feeling of being involved	Between Groups	9.515	2	4.757	3.412	0.036*
	Within Groups	186.854	134	1.394		
	Total	196.369	136			



Factor		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	Between Groups	7.676	2	3.838	2.641	0.075
	Within Groups	194.758	134	1.453		
	Total	202.434	136			
4. Interesting work	Between Groups	16.843	2	8.421	5.722	0.004*
	Within Groups	197.226	134	1.472		
	Total	214.069	136			
5. Opportunity for development	Between Groups	25.671	2	12.836	8.039	0.001*
	Within Groups	213.967	134	1.597		
	Total	239.639	136			
6. Loyalty to employees	Between Groups	11.741	2	5.870	3.108	0.048*
	Within Groups	253.117	134	1.889		
	Total	264.858	136			
7. Good working conditions	Between Groups	11.629	2	5.814	4.733	0.010*
	Within Groups	164.605	134	1.228		
	Total	176.234	136			
8. Tactful disciplining	Between Groups	15.478	2	7.739	4.859	0.009*
	Within Groups	213.405	134	1.593		
	Total	228.883	136			
9. Job security	Between Groups	1.467	2	0.734	0.434	0.649
	Within Groups	226.770	134	1.692		
	Total	228.237	136			
10. Good wages	Between Groups	0.756	2	0.378	0.292	0.747
	Within Groups	173.241	134	1.293		
	Total	173.996	136			

Notes: * Denotes significance level < 0.05

From the results above, at the 5% significance level, H_0 cannot be rejected for four out of the ten motivation factors thereby rejecting the alternate hypothesis that differences exist in these factors between generations. H_0 was rejected (supporting H_1) specifically for factor 2 with a p-value of 0.036, factor 4 with a p-value of 0.004, factor 5 with a p-value of 0.001, factor 6 with a p-value of 0.048, factor 7 with a p-value of 0.010 and factor 8 with a p-value of 0.009, all of which were less than 0.05 indicating different means between the generations.

Table 5.9 below lists selected homogenous subsets of the three generations which show differences between subsets for the ten motivation factors.



Table 5.9 Homogenous subsets for Generation

Factor	Generation	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
			2	1
4. Interesting work	Generation Y	46	2.8370	
	Generation X	57	2.9561	
	Baby Boomers	34		3.7059
	Sig.		0.900	1.000
5. Opportunity for development	Generation Y	46	2.1522	
	Generation X	57	2.7105	2.7105
	Baby Boomers	34		3.2941
	Sig.		0.123	0.101
6. Loyalty to employees	Generation X	57	2.5877	
	Generation Y	46	2.9457	2.9457
	Baby Boomers	34		3.3235
	Sig.		0.479	0.440
7. Good working conditions	Generation X	57	2.7632	
	Generation Y	46	2.9022	2.9022
	Baby Boomers	34		3.4853
	Sig.		0.842	0.052
8. Tactful disciplining	Generation Y	46	2.6957	
	Generation X	57	2.8509	
	Baby Boomers	34		3.5441
	Sig.		0.848	1.000

The table above reveals for factors 4 and 8, a similarity between generation X and Y but a difference between these two generations and the baby boomers. On the other hand, generation X does not differ from generation Y and baby boomers for factor 5, but generation Y and baby boomers have responded differently for these factors. Lastly, for factors 6 and 7, generation Y did not differ from the other two generations, but generation X and baby boomers did differ in opinion. The detailed Scheffe comparisons for the table above can be found in Appendix C.2: One-way ANOVA for Generation (Scheffe).

5.5.3 Hypothesis 3: Race differences

The original intention of the analysis was to include all four races: blacks, coloured, indians and whites. However, as per **Table 5.1**, a relatively smaller



number of responses were received from the black and coloured group compared to the whites and indians. As such, the analysis includes a recoded race which combines the responses from the blacks and coloureds into a single race.

Figure 5.13 below, graphically represents the comparison of means between the three races: whites, indians and blacks/coloureds. As can be observed, indians tendered to be in more agreement relative to the other two races across all ten motivation factors.

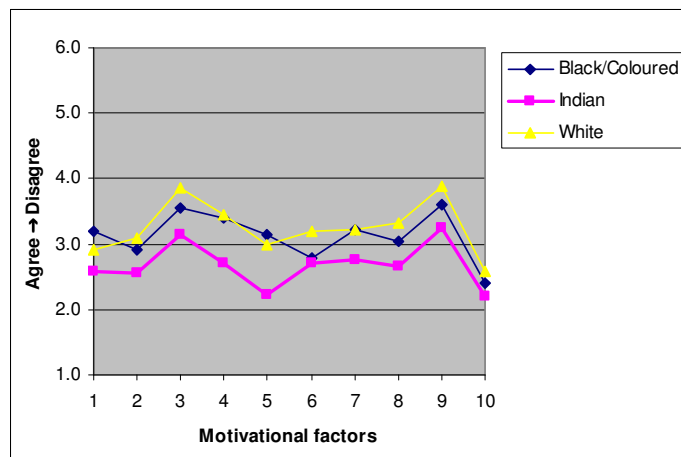


Figure 5.13 Race comparison of means

The alternate and null hypotheses were as follows:

H_1 : Differences exist in employee motivation factors between races in the South African banking industry.

H_0 : Differences do not exist in employee motivation factors between races in the South African banking industry.

This hypothesis was tested using the one-way ANOVA to measure the equality of means of responses per employee motivation factor between the races. An inequality of means at a 5% significance level for a motivation factor would reject the null hypothesis, thereby supporting the alternate hypothesis that differences exist in that specific motivation factor between races in the South African banking industry.



Table 5.10 below, lists the means for the responses of each race across the ten motivation factors.

Table 5.10 Selected summary statistics for Race

Factor	Race	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
1. Full appreciation of work done	Black/Coloured	27	3.1852	1.70490	0.32811
	Indian	61	2.5902	1.16372	0.14900
	White	46	2.9239	1.13023	0.16664
	Total	134	2.8246	1.29088	0.11152
2. Feeling of being involved	Black/Coloured	27	2.9259	1.39851	0.26914
	Indian	61	2.5492	1.03965	0.13311
	White	46	3.0978	1.23657	0.18232
	Total	134	2.8134	1.20412	0.10402
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	Black/Coloured	27	3.5556	1.16300	0.22382
	Indian	61	3.1475	1.35814	0.17389
	White	46	3.8696	0.95123	0.14025
	Total	134	3.4776	1.22760	0.10605
4. Interesting work	Black/Coloured	27	3.4074	1.45468	0.27995
	Indian	61	2.7213	1.14573	0.14670
	White	46	3.4565	1.05844	0.15606
	Total	134	3.1119	1.23032	0.10628
5. Opportunity for development	Black/Coloured	27	3.1481	1.75310	0.33738
	Indian	61	2.2295	1.06291	0.13609
	White	46	2.9783	1.18770	0.17512
	Total	134	2.6716	1.32515	0.11448
6. Loyalty to employees	Black/Coloured	27	2.7963	1.35348	0.26048
	Indian	61	2.7213	1.42748	0.18277
	White	46	3.2065	1.37670	0.20298
	Total	134	2.9030	1.40284	0.12119
7. Good working conditions	Black/Coloured	27	3.2222	1.17942	0.22698
	Indian	61	2.7623	1.13139	0.14486
	White	46	3.2174	1.07317	0.15823
	Total	134	3.0112	1.13632	0.09816
8. Tactful disciplining	Black/Coloured	27	3.0370	1.53125	0.29469
	Indian	61	2.6639	1.13182	0.14491
	White	46	3.3152	1.30537	0.19247
	Total	134	2.9627	1.30301	0.11256
9. Job security	Black/Coloured	27	3.6111	1.48928	0.28661
	Indian	61	3.2541	1.29622	0.16596



Factor	Race	N	Mean	Std.	Std. Error
	White	46	3.8804	1.08620	0.16015
	Total	134	3.5410	1.29204	0.11161
10. Good wages	Black/Coloured	27	2.4074	1.24836	0.24025
	Indian	61	2.2049	1.12315	0.14381
	White	46	2.5870	1.01272	0.14932
	Total	134	2.3769	1.11793	0.09657

In **Table 5.11**, the above means for each race are compared to each other for each factor.

Table 5.11 One-way ANOVA for Race

Factor		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1. Full appreciation of work done	Between Groups	7.317	2	3.658	2.236	0.111
	Within Groups	214.312	131	1.636		
	Total	221.629	133			
2. Feeling of being involved	Between Groups	8.322	2	4.161	2.954	0.056
	Within Groups	184.514	131	1.409		
	Total	192.836	133			
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	Between Groups	13.877	2	6.938	4.872	0.009*
	Within Groups	186.556	131	1.424		
	Total	200.433	133			
4. Interesting work	Between Groups	17.127	2	8.564	6.090	0.003*
	Within Groups	184.194	131	1.406		
	Total	201.321	133			
5. Opportunity for development	Between Groups	22.380	2	11.190	6.942	0.001*
	Within Groups	211.173	131	1.612		
	Total	233.552	133			
6. Loyalty to employees	Between Groups	6.559	2	3.279	1.684	0.190
	Within Groups	255.180	131	1.948		
	Total	261.739	133			
7. Good working conditions	Between Groups	6.937	2	3.469	2.757	0.067
	Within Groups	164.796	131	1.258		
	Total	171.733	133			
8. Tactful disciplining	Between Groups	11.310	2	5.655	3.454	0.035*
	Within Groups	214.503	131	1.637		
	Total	225.813	133			
9. Job security	Between Groups	10.454	2	5.227	3.236	0.042*
	Within Groups	211.571	131	1.615		



Factor		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Total	222.024	133			
10. Good wages	Between Groups	3.859	2	1.930	1.557	0.215
	Within Groups	162.359	131	1.239		
	Total	166.218	133			

Notes: * Denotes significance level < 0.05

From the results above, at the 5% significance level, H_0 cannot be rejected for five out of the ten motivation factors thereby rejecting the alternate hypothesis that differences exist in these factors between races. H_0 was rejected (supporting H_1) specifically for factor 3 with a p-value of 0.009, factor 4 with a p-value of 0.003, factor 5 with a p-value of 0.001, factor 8 with a p-value of 0.035 and factor 9 with a p-value of 0.042, all of which were less than 0.05 indicating different means between the races.

Table 5.12 below lists selected homogenous subsets of the three races which show differences between subsets for the ten motivation factors.

Table 5.12 Homogenous subsets for Race

Factor	Generation	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
			2	1
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	Indian	61	3.1475	
	Black/Coloured	27	3.5556	3.5556
	White	46		3.8696
	Sig.		0.315	0.503
4. Interesting work	Indian	61	2.7213	
	Black/Coloured	27		3.4074
	White	46		3.4565
	Sig.		1.000	0.983
5. Opportunity for development	Indian	61	2.2295	
	White	46		2.9783
	Black/Coloured	27		3.1481
	Sig.		1.000	0.837

As indicated in the table above, the black/coloured race responded similarly to indians and whites for factor 3, whereas indians and whites differed in their responses for this factor. For factors 4 and 5 however, indians differed from a subset of the white and black/coloured groups. The detailed Scheffe



comparisons for the table above can be found in Appendix C.3: One-way ANOVA for Race (Scheffe).

5.5.4 Hypothesis 4: Organisational level differences

The original intention of the analysis was to include all four organisational levels: senior, middle, junior and non-management. However, as per **Table 5.1**, a relatively smaller number of responses were from the senior and middle management levels compared to the junior and non-management levels. As such, the analysis includes a recoded organisational level which combines the responses from the senior and middle management into a single organisational level.

Figure 5.14 below, graphically represents the comparison of means between the three organisational levels: senior/middle, junior and non-management. As can be observed, senior management tendered to be in more disagreement relative to the other two organisational levels across all ten motivation factors.

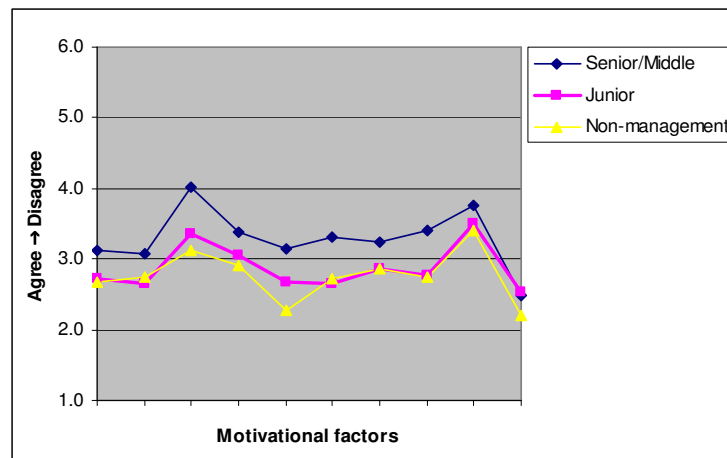


Figure 5.14 Organisational level comparison of means

The alternate and null hypotheses were as follows:

H₁: Differences exist in employee motivation factors between organisational levels in the South African banking industry.



H_0 : Differences do not exist in employee motivation factors between organisational levels in the South African banking industry.

This hypothesis was tested using the one-way ANOVA to measure the equality of means of responses per employee motivation factor between the organisational levels. An inequality of means at a 5% significance level for a motivation factor would reject the null hypothesis, thereby supporting the alternate hypothesis that differences exist in that specific motivation factor between organisational level in the South African banking industry.

Table 5.13 below, lists the means for the responses of each organisational level across the ten motivation factors.

Table 5.13 Selected summary statistics for Organisational level

Factor	Organisational level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
1. Full appreciation of work done	Senior/Middle management	44	3.1250	1.18677	0.17891
	Junior management	41	2.7317	1.31386	0.20519
	Non-management	52	2.6635	1.34937	0.18712
	Total	137	2.8321	1.29518	0.11065
2. Feeling of being involved	Senior/Middle management	44	3.0682	1.23227	0.18577
	Junior management	41	2.6585	1.15347	0.18014
	Non-management	52	2.7404	1.20249	0.16676
	Total	137	2.8212	1.20162	0.10266
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	Senior/Middle management	44	4.0227	1.03965	0.15673
	Junior management	41	3.3537	0.99526	0.15543
	Non-management	52	3.1154	1.37061	0.19007
	Total	137	3.4781	1.22004	0.10423
4. Interesting work	Senior/Middle management	44	3.3750	1.16202	0.17518
	Junior management	41	3.0610	1.29998	0.20302
	Non-management	52	2.9038	1.27586	0.17693
	Total	137	3.1022	1.25461	0.10719
5. Opportunity for development	Senior/Middle management	44	3.1364	1.24529	0.18773
	Junior management	41	2.6707	1.35374	0.21142
	Non-management	52	2.2692	1.26592	0.17555



Factor	Organisational level	N	Mean	Std.	Std. Error
6. Loyalty to employees	Total	137	2.6679	1.32742	0.11341
	Senior/Middle management	44	3.3182	1.40634	0.21201
	Junior management	41	2.6585	1.31548	0.20544
	Non-management	52	2.7115	1.39096	0.19289
	Total	137	2.8905	1.39552	0.11923
7. Good working conditions	Senior/Middle management	44	3.2500	1.08639	0.16378
	Junior management	41	2.8537	1.10252	0.17218
	Non-management	52	2.8750	1.19178	0.16527
	Total	137	2.9891	1.13835	0.09726
8. Tactful disciplining	Senior/Middle management	44	3.4091	1.21652	0.18340
	Junior management	41	2.7805	1.30886	0.20441
	Non-management	52	2.7500	1.28529	0.17824
	Total	137	2.9708	1.29729	0.11084
9. Job security	Senior/Middle management	44	3.7500	1.18371	0.17845
	Junior management	41	3.5000	1.38744	0.21668
	Non-management	52	3.4038	1.31372	0.18218
	Total	137	3.5438	1.29546	0.11068
10. Good wages	Senior/Middle management	44	2.4886	1.14368	0.17242
	Junior management	41	2.5244	1.07791	0.16834
	Non-management	52	2.1923	1.15535	0.16022
	Total	137	2.3869	1.13110	0.09664

In **Table 5.14**, these means for each organisational level are compared to each other for each factor.

Table 5.14 One-way ANOVA for Organisational level

Factor		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1. Full appreciation of work done	Between Groups	5.667	2	2.833	1.707	0.185
	Within Groups	222.472	134	1.660		
	Total	228.139	136			
2. Feeling of being involved	Between Groups	4.108	2	2.054	1.432	0.243
	Within Groups	192.260	134	1.435		
	Total	196.369	136			
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	Between Groups	20.527	2	10.264	7.561	0.001*
	Within Groups	181.907	134	1.358		



Factor		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Total	202.434	136			
4. Interesting work	Between Groups	5.390	2	2.695	1.731	0.181
	Within Groups	208.679	134	1.557		
	Total	214.069	136			
5. Opportunity for development	Between Groups	17.921	2	8.961	5.416	0.005*
	Within Groups	221.717	134	1.655		
	Total	239.639	136			
6. Loyalty to employees	Between Groups	11.920	2	5.960	3.157	0.046*
	Within Groups	252.938	134	1.888		
	Total	264.858	136			
7. Good working conditions	Between Groups	4.424	2	2.212	1.725	0.182
	Within Groups	171.809	134	1.282		
	Total	176.234	136			
8. Tactful disciplining	Between Groups	12.472	2	6.236	3.861	0.023*
	Within Groups	216.411	134	1.615		
	Total	228.883	136			
9. Job security	Between Groups	2.968	2	1.484	0.883	0.416
	Within Groups	225.269	134	1.681		
	Total	228.237	136			
10. Good wages	Between Groups	3.199	2	1.600	1.255	0.288
	Within Groups	170.797	134	1.275		
	Total	173.996	136			

Notes: * Denotes significance level < 0.05

From the results above, at the 5% significance level, H_0 cannot be rejected for six out of the ten motivation factors thereby rejecting the alternate hypothesis that differences exist in these factors between organisational levels. H_0 was rejected (supporting H_1) specifically for factor 3 with a p-value of 0.001, factor 5 with a p-value of 0.005, factor 6 with a p-value of 0.046 and factor 8 with a p-value of 0.023, all of which were less than 0.05 indicating different means between the organisational levels.

Table 5.15 below lists selected homogenous subsets of the three organisational levels which show differences between subsets for the ten motivation factors.



Table 5.15 Homogenous subsets for Organisational level

Factor	Organisational level	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
			2	1
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	Non-management	52	3.1154	
	Junior management	41	3.3537	
	Senior/Middle management	44		4.0227
	Sig.		0.624	1.000
5. Opportunity for development	Non-management	52	2.2692	
	Junior management	41	2.6707	2.6707
	Senior/Middle management	44		3.1364
	Sig.		0.335	0.231

From the above table is it clear that for factor 3, non-management and junior management responded similarly to factor 3, whereas senior/middle management differed from the other two organisational levels. On the other hand, for factor 5, junior management's responses coincided with both of the other two organisational levels, while senior/middle and non-management differed from each other. The detailed Scheffe comparisons for the table above can be found in Appendix C.4: One-way ANOVA for Organisational level (Scheffe).



5.5.5 Hypotheses Summary

The following table provides a summary view, indicating support (✓) or rejection (✗), for the four alternate hypotheses tested against each motivation factor in this section.

Table 5.16 Summary view of hypotheses testing

Motivation factor	Gender	Generation	Race	Org. level
1. Full appreciation of work done	✗	✗	✗	✗
2. Feeling of being involved	✗	✓	✗	✗
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	✗	✗	✓	✓
4. Interesting work	✗	✓	✓	✗
5. Opportunity for development	✗	✓	✓	✓
6. Loyalty to employees	✗	✓	✗	✓
7. Good working conditions	✓	✓	✗	✗
8. Tactful disciplining	✗	✓	✓	✓
9. Job security	✗	✗	✓	✗
10. Good wages	✗	✗	✗	✗

Where the table above indicates support for the alternate hypothesis, this implies differences in employee motivation factors between the categories of the corresponding demographic. As can be observed, there is support for the existence of differences in at least 50% of the motivation factors between the demographic categories of generation, race and organisational level, while for gender, only one factor out of the ten supported the alternate hypothesis.

Table 5.17 below, assumes a weighting of “1” for every mean and calculates the arithmetic mean for the extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Based on the questionnaire setup, where higher means indicate lower motivators, a difference (extrinsic-intrinsic) between these two sets of means were calculated per demographic category to test the hypothesis that extrinsic factors are dissatisfaction motivators and intrinsic factors are satisfaction motivators. A positive difference would support this hypothesis.



Table 5.17 Intrinsic/Extrinsic comparisons

Motivation factor	Gender		Generation			Race			Organisational level		
	Female	Male	Baby Boomers	Generation X	Generation Y	Black/ Coloured	Indian	White	Senior	Junior	Non-management
1. Full appreciation of work done	2.7116	2.9915	2.8971	2.8947	2.7065	3.1852	2.5902	2.9239	3.1250	2.7317	2.6635
2. Feeling of being involved	2.7115	2.9661	3.2794	2.6579	2.6848	2.9259	2.5492	3.0978	3.0682	2.6585	2.7404
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	3.4038	3.5763	3.8529	3.4561	3.2283	3.5556	3.1475	3.8696	4.0227	3.3537	3.1154
4. Interesting work	3.0321	3.1949	3.7059	2.9561	2.8370	3.4074	2.7213	3.4565	3.3750	3.0610	2.9038
5. Opportunity for development	2.4808	2.9153	3.2941	2.7105	2.1522	3.1481	2.2295	2.9783	3.1364	2.6707	2.2692
6. Loyalty to employees	2.7949	3.0169	3.3235	2.5877	2.9457	2.7963	2.7213	3.2065	3.3182	2.6585	2.7115
Intrinsic	2.8558	3.1102	3.3922	2.8772	2.7591	3.1698	2.6598	3.2554	3.3409	2.8557	2.7340
7. Good working conditions	2.8205	3.2119	3.4853	2.7632	2.9022	3.2222	2.7623	3.2174	3.2500	2.8537	2.8750
8. Tactful disciplining	2.9103	3.0508	3.5441	2.8509	2.6957	3.0370	2.6639	3.3152	3.4091	2.7805	2.7500
9. Job security	3.5128	3.5847	3.7206	3.4649	3.5109	3.6111	3.2541	3.8804	3.7500	3.5000	3.4038
10. Good wages	2.2372	2.5847	2.5147	2.3333	2.3587	2.4074	2.2049	2.5870	2.4886	2.5244	2.1923
Extrinsic	2.8702	3.1080	3.3162	2.8531	2.8669	3.0694	2.7213	3.2500	3.2244	2.9147	2.8053
Difference (Extrinsic-Intrinsic)	0.0144	-0.0021	-0.0760	-0.0241	0.1078	-0.1003	0.0615	-0.0054	-0.1165	0.0590	0.0713

The highest positive difference is calculated for generation Y, while the highest negative difference is calculated for senior management.



5.6 Rank of motivation factors by demographic category

This section will expand on the analysis conducted above by deriving a rank for the motivation factors by each demographic category based on the calculated means of the responses.

5.6.1 Gender rank

Table 5.18 below, lists the motivation factors and the corresponding rank for females and males.

Table 5.18 Rank of motivation factors for Gender

Motivation factor	Gender			
	Female		Male	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
1. Full appreciation of work done	2.7116	4	2.9915	4
2. Feeling of being involved	2.7115	3	2.9661	3
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	3.4038	9	3.5763	9
4. Interesting work	3.0321	8	3.1949	7
5. Opportunity for development	2.4808	2	2.9153	2
6. Loyalty to employees	2.7949	5	3.0169	5
7. Good working conditions	2.8205	6	3.2119	8
8. Tactful disciplining	2.9103	7	3.0508	6
9. Job security	3.5128	10	3.5847	10
10. Good wages	2.2372	1	2.5847	1

Figure 5.15 below, translates the table above into a graphical comparison of the motivation factors for gender.

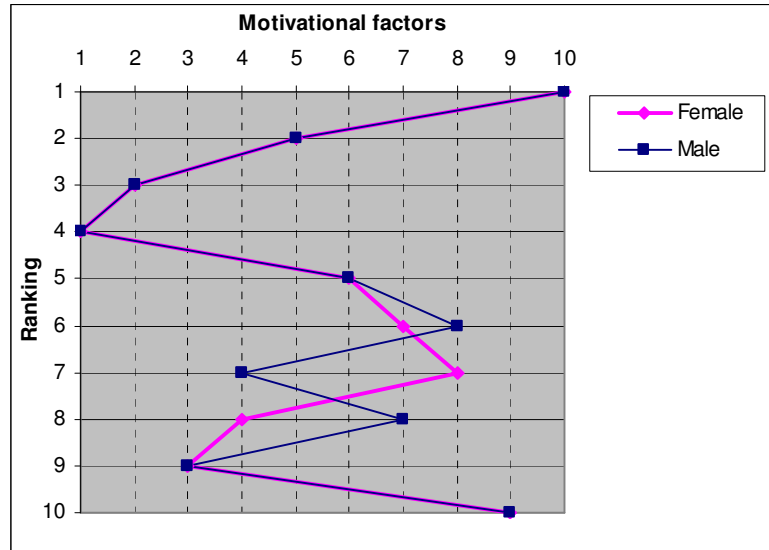


Figure 5.15 Rank of motivation factors for Gender

While most of the ranks for the motivation factors are aligned between males and females, differences are observed for factors 4, 7 and 8. The largest disparity between the genders is for factor 7, which yields similar deductions made earlier, where factor 7 was highlighted by the two sample t-test for its inequality of means between the two genders, thereby being the only support for the alternate hypothesis for a difference in motivation factors between genders.

5.6.2 Generation rank

Table 5.19 below, lists the motivation factors and the corresponding rank for baby boomers, generation X and generation Y.

Table 5.19 Rank of motivation factors for Generation

Motivation factor	Generation					
	Baby Boomers		Generation X		Generation Y	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
1. Full appreciation of work done	2.8971	2	2.8947	7	2.7065	5
2. Feeling of being involved	3.2794	3	2.6579	3	2.6848	3



Motivation factor	Generation					
	Baby Boomers		Generation X		Generation Y	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	3.8529	10	3.4561	9	3.2283	9
4. Interesting work	3.7059	8	2.9561	8	2.8370	6
5. Opportunity for development	3.2941	4	2.7105	4	2.1522	1
6. Loyalty to employees	3.3235	5	2.5877	2	2.9457	8
7. Good working conditions	3.4853	6	2.7632	5	2.9022	7
8. Tactful disciplining	3.5441	7	2.8509	6	2.6957	4
9. Job security	3.7206	9	3.4649	10	3.5109	10
10. Good wages	2.5147	1	2.3333	1	2.3587	2

Figure 5.16 below, translates the table above into a graphical comparison of the motivation factors for the generations.

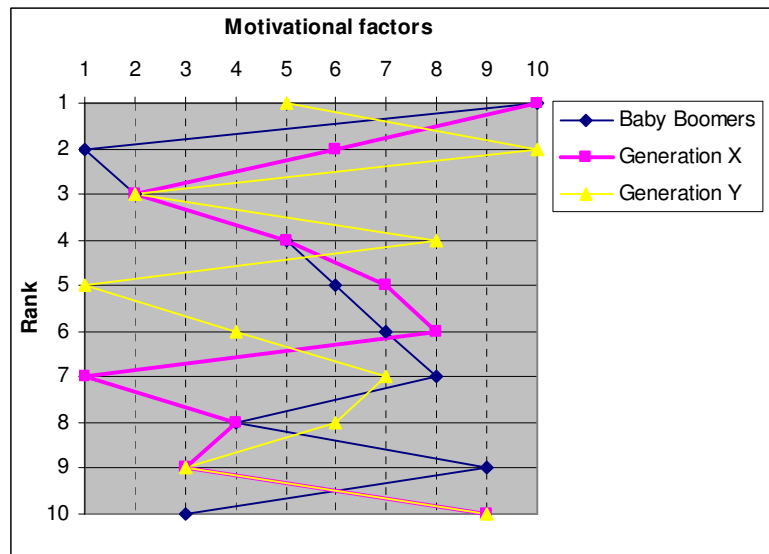


Figure 5.16 Rank of motivation factors for Generation

As can be observed from the figure above, all generations converge on a ranking position of 3 for factor 2, while on the other end of the list the generations rank the two least important motivators between factor 9 and 10. A high disparity is also noticed at the position of most important factor were the relative older generations, the baby boomers and generation X rank factor 10 as their greatest motivator, while generation Y chose factor 5 for this position,



which is the other two generations ranked as 4th on their list. Factor 10 was positioned 2nd for generation Y, which still indicates a high importance across all generations for this factor.

5.6.3 Race rank

Table 5.20 below, lists the motivation factors and the corresponding rank for blacks/coloureds, whites and indians.

Table 5.20 Rank of motivation factors for Race

Motivation factor	Race					
	Black/Coloured		Indian		White	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
1. Full appreciation of work done	3.1852	6	2.5902	4	2.9239	2
2. Feeling of being involved	2.9259	3	2.5492	3	3.0978	4
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	3.5556	9	3.1475	9	3.8696	9
4. Interesting work	3.4074	8	2.7213	6	3.4565	8
5. Opportunity for development	3.1481	5	2.2295	2	2.9783	3
6. Loyalty to employees	2.7963	2	2.7213	6	3.2065	5
7. Good working conditions	3.2222	7	2.7623	8	3.2174	6
8. Tactful disciplining	3.0370	4	2.6639	5	3.3152	7
9. Job security	3.6111	10	3.2541	10	3.8804	10
10. Good wages	2.4074	1	2.2049	1	2.5870	1

Figure 5.17 below, translates the table above into a graphical comparison of the motivation factors for race.

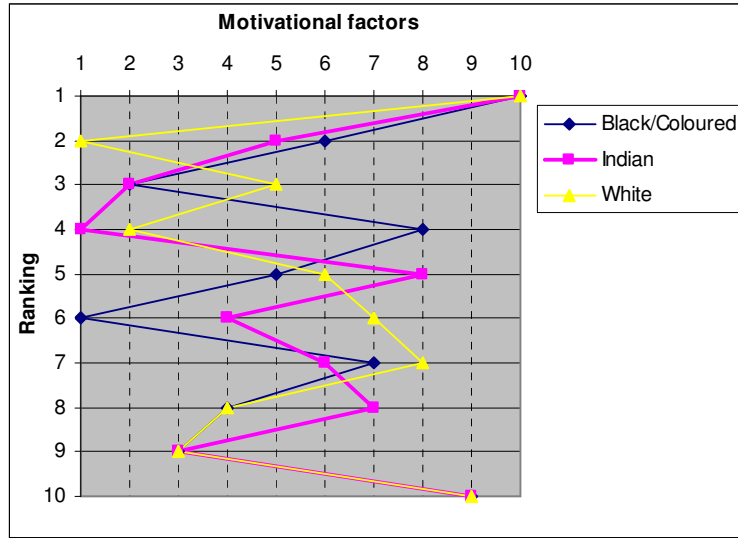


Figure 5.17 Rank of motivation factors for Race

All races coincided on their two least motivating factors, that is, factors 9 and 10, while on the opposite end of the list the races also converged on factor 10 for the top of their list of motivators. A high disparity is observed for the rest of motivators across the races, where 50% of the rank list (positions 1, 5, 6, 7 and 8) are all assigned different motivators for each position by each race.

5.6.4 Organisational level rank

Table 5.21 below, lists the motivation factors and the corresponding rank for senior/middle, junior and non-management.

Table 5.21 Rank of motivation factors for Organisational level

Motivation factor	Organisational level					
	Senior/ Middle		Junior		Non- management	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
1. Full appreciation of work done	3.1250	3	2.7317	5	2.6635	3
2. Feeling of being involved	3.0682	2	2.6585	2	2.7404	5
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	4.0227	10	3.3537	9	3.1154	9
4. Interesting work	3.3750	7	3.0610	8	2.9038	8
5. Opportunity for development	3.1364	4	2.6707	4	2.2692	2



Motivation factor	Organisational level					
	Senior/ Middle		Junior		Non- management	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
6. Loyalty to employees	3.3182	6	2.6585	3	2.7115	4
7. Good working conditions	3.2500	5	2.8537	7	2.8750	7
8. Tactful disciplining	3.4091	8	2.7805	6	2.7500	6
9. Job security	3.7500	9	3.5000	10	3.4038	10
10. Good wages	2.4886	1	2.5244	1	2.1923	1

Figure 5.18 below, translates the table above into a graphical comparison of the motivation factors for the organisational levels.

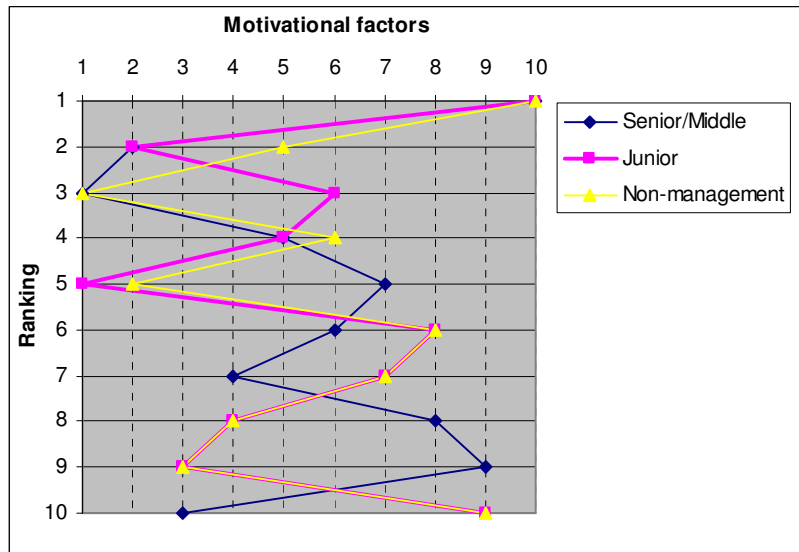


Figure 5.18 Rank of motivation factors for Organisational level

As per the previous demographic categories, organisational level also identified factors 9 and 10 as the two least important motivators. Factor 10, similar to most demographic categories of other demographics is positioned as the most important factor. It was also observed that there is convergence of rank for junior and non-management for six out of the ten motivation factors particularly among the five least important factors (positions 6 to 10) where both organisational levels have the same rank for each factor.



5.6.5 Rank summary

Table 5.22 Summary view of ranking

Motivation factor	Gender		Generation			Race			Organisational level		
	Female	Male	Baby Boomers	Generation X	Generation Y	Black/ Coloured	Indian	White	Senior	Junior	Non-management
1. Full appreciation of work done	4	4	2	7	5	6	4	2	3	5	3
2. Feeling of being involved	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	2	2	5
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	9	9	10	9	9	9	9	9	10	9	9
4. Interesting work	8	7	8	8	6	8	6	8	7	8	8
5. Opportunity for development	2	2	4	4	1	5	2	3	4	4	2
6. Loyalty to employees	5	5	5	2	8	2	6	5	6	3	4
7. Good working conditions	6	8	6	5	7	7	8	6	5	7	7
8. Tactful disciplining	7	6	7	6	4	4	5	7	8	6	6
9. Job security	10	10	9	10	10	10	10	10	9	10	10
10. Good wages	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1

The above table combines the rank results for all the demographics across the ten motivation factors and provides a comparison. The nature of this study isolated the different demographics and did not analyse cross-combinations e.g. black females in generation Y holding senior management positions. However, the above table allows one to identify the absolute overlaps between groups across different demographic categories that have ranked a motivation factor in exactly the same position, e.g. all white female baby boomers ranked “Tactful disciplining” as 7th on their list of motivators.



At the high of end of the rank list, “Good wages” is clearly supported across the groups as a key motivation factor. One exception to the factor not being ranked first is for generation Y, which is the only category that ranks “Opportunity for development” higher. On the other extreme of the rank, positions 9 and 10 are held between “Sympathetic help with personal problems” and “Job Security”. Both extremes tie in with earlier data distribution analyses which identified matching skew properties for these factors, that is, a high positive skew (towards “agreement”) for factor 10 and negative skews (towards disagreement) for factors 3 and 9.

5.7 Conclusion

This chapter has delivered an insightful analysis into the results of the study regarding the differences in employee motivation factors between the employee demographic categories. The least difference was found between genders compared to the other three demographics of generations, race and organisational level. The greatest differences were identified with generation where six of the ten motivation factors exhibiting changes between the generations. The intrinsic and extrinsic comparison also revealed deviations from the hypothesis that intrinsic motivators would be greater motivators with more than half of the demographic categories requiring greater focus on extrinsic motivators. Gender followed a similar trend to the main hypothesis testing in the ranks of the motivation factors, where males and females showed the greatest alignment compared to the other demographic categories. A few motivation factors dominated the extremes of the rank. “Job Security” and “Sympathetic help with personal problems” alternated between position nine and ten across all demographic categories with position one being held almost consistently by “Good wages”. The one exception was with generation Y who preferred “Opportunity for development” in their position one.

The following chapter engages in a discussion regarding the results delivered in this chapter and highlights comparisons with theory and previous studies to draw insights for recommendations to effective leadership.



CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

As stated earlier, Hofstede (1980) defined culture as the "collective programming of the mind which distinguishes one group of people from another". The study aimed to identify associations between the collective programmings of categories within specific demographics (gender, age, race, and organisational level) and the elements of the job that motivates people in these categories. Chapter 6 combines the research into theory and previous studies, regarding both culture and motivation, with the results of this specific study to identify key conclusions and highlight recommendations.

6.2 Discussion

From the results of the study, minimal association was established between gender and the ten motivational factors, as evidenced by the response means of only one factor showing difference, that is, by the factor "Good working conditions". For this specific factor, males, compared to females, were of the opinion that this factor was less of a motivator. This difference of opinion was reiterated in the rank of the motivation factors between the genders, where males ranked the motivation factor as 8th and females gave this higher priority in position 6. There were only two other variations in the rank of the motivation factors between males and females and that was for factor 4, "Interesting work", and factor 8, "Tactful discipline", each of which were one position apart between the ranks by males and females. The rest of the motivation factors (7 out of the 10) were ranked equally, including the top five motivators, indicative of similar high motivators between the genders.

"Good working conditions" is categorised among Herzberg's (1968) extrinsic (hygienic) factors and within the first layer of Maslow's hierarchy (**Table 2.2**), biological and physiological needs (Ramlall, 2004). According to McGregor



(1960) in Daryanto et al. (undated), managers assuming Theory X, where direction and control, enforced by a centralised organisation and authority, are limited to leverage the first and second layer of Maslow's hierarchy as motivators. This would imply that a more mechanistic organisational structure would create a slightly higher degree of motivation among females than males according to the study, which is more aligned to the characteristics of a masculine leadership style (Rigg and Sparrow, 1994). While Booyesen et al. (2006) recommend a more androgynous leadership style, this would also allow leadership the flexibility to assume different management styles (Theory X, Theory Y, etc.) depending on the employees that are being motivated.

The greatest association with motivational factors was identified with the three generations where the means of responses for six of the ten motivation factors were different between the generations. These included "Feeling of being involved", "Interesting work", "Opportunity for development", "Loyalty to employees", "Good working conditions" and "Tactful discipline". In almost all of these motivation factors, the homogenous subsets showed baby boomers to be isolated in their opinion of these motivation factors compared to the other generations, where they were of the opinion that these factors were low motivators. This was indicative of two, less granular, groups with baby boomers in one group and generation X and Y in the other, which is contrary to McNally (2007) who also identified two groups with generation Y isolated from the rest.

While consistent with the rest of the generations in a high rank for "Good wages", Baby boomers also ranked "Full appreciation for work done" and "Feeling of being involved" in position two and three. These factors relate to the third layer of Maslow's hierarchy "Affiliation, love and social needs" in **Figure 2.6**, which is contradictory to Yu et al. (2005) who commented that baby boomers are respectful to the chain of command, which is more in line with a Theory X management style. However, the two factors mentioned above, in rank position two and three, are appealed to by a Theory Y management style that typically appeals to the third layer of Maslow's hierarchy as depicted in **Table 2.2**. Further, baby boomers ranked "Job Security" as ninth which also argues against McNally (2007) and Yu et al. (2005) that baby boomers are risk



averse. Overall, however baby boomers considered extrinsic factors, which are fundamentally appealed to by Theory X, as evidenced by Schein (1980) in **Table 2.2**, as lower motivators than intrinsic motivators.

Of the three generations, generation X had the most balanced receipt to extrinsic and intrinsic factors, which supports Yu et al. (2005) in the proposition that generation X prefers to squeeze the process and demand self-achievement from their job and basic needs at the same time. This deduction also assumes Alderfer's (1972) ERG Theory referred to in Booyesen (2007a), which positions needs on the platform of a continuum as opposed to an "incremental" hierarchy. A contradiction to Better Business Communication (2007) was found where it was proposed that loyalty is not important to this generation but the results reveal a rank of "Loyalty to employees" as number two.

Generation Y on the other hand, while showing high similarity to rankings at the extremes of the list, revealed a distinct contrast in one particular factor, "Opportunity for development", by positioning this factor as its highest motivator. This was indicative of an ambitious generation that values a challenging environment and see greater responsibility as a highly attractive option for reward. The job-hopping fear of many generation Y employees was also supported by the lowest ranking of "Loyalty to employees" across the generations by generation Y – based on the assumption that they expect a similar degree of loyalty to which they are willing to commit. They also showed the highest alignment with Herzberg's (1968) categorization of motivation factors in Wong et al. (1999) which expects intrinsic factors to be higher motivators being on the satisfaction continuum as opposed to extrinsic factors which can only leverage the dissatisfaction continuum for employees.

Across all generations, the study supported the notion that the era within which an employee was raised and events of the time, be it apartheid, the release of Nelson Mandela or the "9/11" attacks, are all significant in the character makeup of the employees in the workplace today.

Race was the second highest demographic in terms of the degree of association with the motivators with 50% of the motivators recording different



means between the races. These included “Feeling of being involved”, “Interesting work”, “Opportunity for development”, “Tactful discipline” and “Job Security”. While all homogenous subsets depicted some isolation of Indians and the other two races, a consistent difference was found between the perceptions of Indians and Whites regarding these factors, where Indians were consistently of the opinion that these were greater motivators.

Nonetheless, on their individual ranking, Whites ranked “Opportunity for development” very high in position three, which is indicative of Booyesen’s (2007b) comment that the lack of these opportunities, due to BEE legislation, in the workplace has led to a high degree of demotivation and anxiety for whites in the workplace. A related concern perhaps emanates from equity theory, which acknowledges the behaviour of individuals to compare the absolute amount of the rewards with their efforts and that received by others, specifically in terms of this study, the comparison that whites make with their black counterparts. Blacks, on the other hand, ranked “Loyalty to employees” as their second most important motivator, which by definition implies a need for open and honest communication across the organisation. This “affiliation” related motivator contradicts previous studies that highlighted the fear of losing black employees claiming that they now use BEE legislations as leverage to find higher paying jobs. This Ubuntu infused behaviour by Blacks is consistent with comments made by Khoza (2007) who went further to express that “rabid individualism is abhorred” by the values consistent with such behaviour. “Loyalty to employees” was ranked sixth and fifth by Indians and Whites respectively.

Among all three races, Indians were the only group to show an inclination towards intrinsic factors, while Blacks and Whites both rated extrinsic factors more positively, to the extent that Blacks/Coloureds recorded the second highest negative (extrinsic/intrinsic) difference between the means of the two sets of factors (**Table 5.17**).

With only four of the ten motivation factors showing any change between the different organisational levels, this demographic was found to have the second



least association with the motivation factors. Organisational level is an interesting dimension in that it implicitly highlights changes in the motivation levers during the career progression of an employee through the management ranks of an organisation. The specific motivation factors which did show some association included “Sympathetic help with personal problems”, Opportunity for development”, “Loyalty to employees” and “Tactful discipline”. The homogenous subsets showed that senior management were less convinced of these as motivation factors than the other two organisational levels. This indicated that these motivational factors were perhaps an expectation on employee psychological contracts with their managers but not necessarily expectations at a senior management level. Support for this deduction was also found in relation to non-managers who ranked “Opportunity for development” as second on their list of motivation factors.

Senior managers however, were calculated as having the highest negative difference across all demographic categories between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation factors which reveals a general dissatisfaction among senior managers (Herzberg, 1968). According to Maslow (1943), referenced in Ramlall (2004), motivation factors relevant to the first three layers need to be resolved before any satisfaction related (intrinsic) motivation factors can be addressed. The other two organisational levels both showed high positives for the mean differences between extrinsic and intrinsic factors.

The largest difference in the motivation factor rank was for the factor “Feeling of being involved”, for which non-management ranked this factor as fifth and junior management and senior management positioned it as second. This maybe due to managers at all levels (senior, middle and junior) acknowledging the greater need to be involved in the organisation to understand how to achieve its growth. This aligns suitably with the “Japanese management” style or Theory Z (Ouchi, 1981) in Braden (2000) that assumes an employee’s attitude to work includes craving opportunities to advance and learn more about the organisation.

The extrinsic and intrinsic comparison on a whole brought to the fore an interesting argument in consideration of Herzberg’s (1968) description of these



categories. According to Herzberg (1968), these extrinsic factors contribute only to different degrees dissatisfaction, while intrinsic are used to ensure satisfaction. If one analyses the differences calculated for each demographic category (**Table 5.17**), it is clear that the greater tendency for employees was towards extrinsic factors, that is, factors which are addressed by focusing on the first two layers of Maslow's (1943) hierarchy (**Figure 2.6**), specifically, biological and physiological and safety needs. This was perhaps indicative of a currently greater dissatisfaction than satisfaction among many of the South African banking employees. On the other hand, the results also revealed that some employees were not dissatisfied (extrinsic), but rather required greater satisfaction in their working environments (intrinsic).

The rank of the motivation factors across the demographic groups reveals a few insightful observations, some of which have already been alluded to. At the extremes of the ranks, the different demographic categories, to a high degree, positioned specific factors similarly. Position nine and ten, implying the least strength as motivators, was held by either "Job Security" or "Sympathetic help with problems". At the other end of the continuum, the greatest motivator was, with the exception of generation Y, "Good Wages". Rank position two was inconsistent across the demographic groups, but if one goes a step further, rank three was held predominantly by "Feeling of being involved". This related again to the Theory Y appeal to Maslow's hierarchy level of "Affiliation, love and social needs". Whereas earlier the discussion was only with regards to Blacks, this commonality across demographic categories hints at a more widely accepted collectivism among the greater South African population and perhaps an embracing of the spirit of Ubuntu. The variation of motivation factors between the extremes of the ranks however, revealed an importance of all motivation factors depending on the mix of demographic categories begin addressed.

The study succinctly revealed the complexity in motivating employees of different demographic categories. A thorough understanding of the political, economic, legislative and historical landscape of a country and the resulting influences on its people can contribute significantly to leadership effectiveness



in an environment. The following section extracts learnings from the study and presents recommendations for effective leadership.

6.3 Recommendations

The following recommendations can be used as input into an organisation's retention strategies, specifically within career development and rewards and appraisal systems.

- **Train organisational leaders to be sensitive to employee behavioural changes in each demographic category (gender, generation, race and organisational) influenced by the South African environmental (political, social, economic, etc.) landscape.**

The different races in South Africa are influenced in different ways by the oppression of the country's history, the gap between female and male perceptions in the workplace is closing and the different generations grew up through different experiences around them. These sensitivities should be inculcated in organisational leadership training and "flexibility" should be added to the list of critical success factors for leadership effectiveness in a diverse workplace.

- **Customize career development plans depending on the organisational level of the employees being addressed.**

An employee's current position in his/her career plays an important role in how that employee is motivated particularly in the need for development opportunities, being involved, loyalty, job security, interesting work and full appreciation for work done. A study similar to this one within an organisation would super-impose the pattern of these motivators on that organisational structure thereby revealing an organisation-specific motivation map.

- **Encourage a culture that avoids stereotyping, appreciates generalisations, but ultimately respects the individual.**



Employees should be encouraged to not use studies such as these as sources for accurate generalisations of their colleagues. The results from research are guidelines for explanation of selected commonalities among behaviours within a demographic category. Ultimately each employee should be respected for individual thought and action. Among other contradictions to generalisations, this study showed Baby Boomers as being less risk averse than commonly believed and that females are increasingly assuming attributes of masculinity.

- **Focus employee motivation activities to first resolve those factors that affect dissatisfaction, and then address those that improve employee satisfaction.**

Some motivation factors only reduce dissatisfaction (extrinsic), but do not necessarily create employee satisfaction (intrinsic).

- **Exhibit creativity in employee motivation and incorporate these initiatives in the value proposition of employment for current and future employees.**

The study showed good wages (extrinsic) continues to be one of the highest motivators among employees. In reality, employers can and should only use this as leverage for motivation to a certain degree. Leadership in an organisation should be creative to explore the value of all motivation factors. Increasing use of financial reward as a motivator will eventually only realise diminishing returns on employee motivation.

- **Leverage organisational learning as a tool for encouraging multidimensional learning as a core competence.**

South African organisations need to find the “sweet spot” in managing diversity by integrating an appreciation for the nation’s differences and the respect for uniqueness in business transactions for a competitive advantage. Collective processes should take place within organisations in such a way that social units learn and develop this core competence – individuals need to learn if social aggregates are to learn.



- **Employ effective communication to foster greater trust between the organisation's leadership and employees and among employees themselves.**

Intercultural communication will eliminate communication barriers, such as insufficient exchange of information, semantic difficulties, different perceptions among senders and receivers, etc.

- **Use a common vision to focus efforts and realise synergies in diversity.**

The study identified a need for being involved in an organisation's activities as a motivator for employees in the banking industry. The ability of employees to identify a link between their (relatively granular) activities and the organisation's strategy and vision should not be under-estimated as a high employee motivator to exercise cross-cultural synergies to achieve that vision.

- **National cultural values, such as Ubuntu, are applicable to all citizens and must be incorporated into South African leadership styles.**

Behind many of the motivators that ranked highly in the study was the concept of Ubuntu. Umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu – I am because you are, you are because we are – are powerful foundations for values that bind a nation towards the betterment of all and entrench a mindset in future generations. Such similarities hold high value in fostering cohesion and focus across different demographic backgrounds.

- **Regularly conduct organisational-specific motivation studies, similar to this one, to continuously update retention strategies.**

The motivators for the different races would have been different during apartheid, in 1994 with the welcome of democracy and today when the ruling party in South Africa has split between its experienced past and youthful future leadership camps. As such, motivation studies need constant



re-assessment to realign understanding of what motivates employees and therefore what is required for effective leadership.

6.4 Recommendations for future research

The following future research needs would supplement the conclusions from this study:

- Extend this study to identify the strength of the associations between different demographics and motivation factors to confirm the assumption of a constant weighting on each association between a demographic and a motivation factor.
- Conduct a quantitative analysis that combines different demographic categories and identifies associations between the cross-demographic groups and motivation factors
- Conduct a qualitative study in a South African context to identify themes in motivation factors that confirms the validity of the motivation factors used in this study.
- Expand this study to compare the perceptions of leaders to the effect of these motivation factors on their employees, similar to Kovach's (1987, 1995) study on industrial employees.
- Conduct a quantitative study to find the links between motivation factors and productivity in a specific industry or a comparison study over multiple industries. Confirm whether high employee satisfaction equates to high productivity in all industries.
- Conduct a quantitative study to include other demographics, such as tenure, current monthly income, highest education level and marital status.
- Conduct a quantitative study across departments in an organisation or across organisations in an industry to identify associations between motivation factors and financial performance.



- Conduct a qualitative assessment of the human resource systems in an organisation, such as career development, rewards and performance appraisal, and test the weightings assigned to the motivation factors by these systems with employees' perceptions of the motivation factors.

6.5 Conclusion

As per the objective of the study, various associations have been identified in motivation factors between the demographic categories. The complexity of the topic and the fact that the human psyche is at the heart of its validity, prevents one colour being painted over the story to reveal a single simple truth.

Among the key conclusions in the discussion were the convergence between males and females on a merge of leadership characteristics typically categorised neatly between masculinity and femininity. Generation has proven to be a greater contributor to differences in motivation compared to race and organisational level. This by no means discounts race and organisational level as socio-political and socio-economic influences of our current South Africa has shown differences in these demographic categories. Whites, who may experience a degree of anxiety in the current job market, look to opportunities for development to safeguard their roles in organisations, while blacks, due to the employment transformation being achieved through BEE, are motivated by better wages.

During his statement at the African Renaissance Conference in Johannesburg on September 28th, 1998, President Thabo Mbeki made the following comment:

“The new African world which the African Renaissance seeks to build is one of democracy, peace and stability, sustainable development and a better life for the people, non-racism and non-sexism, equality among the nations and a just and democratic system of international governance. None of this will come about of its own. In as much as we liberated ourselves from colonialism through struggle, so will it be that the African Renaissance will be victorious only as a result of a protracted struggle that we ourselves must wage.”



(Mbeki, 1998:7)

A recurring theme during that statement was “Yesterday is a foreign country – tomorrow belongs to us!”

As we move through the grind of transformation and progress from the shadows of the past, we should indeed acknowledge the peculiarities of our nation and address them as such. While we draw knowledge from our peers across the seas to provide hints to optimal play in the global business arena, we should never lose sight of whom and what we are: “Africans!”

While we have clear differences that we need to respect and exploit as a competitive advantage in our organisations, we also have similarities that we should embrace and leverage as the glue that binds our nation’s people. Studies, similar to this, are motivated by the cry for a better understanding of local behaviours to establish the best balance in local leadership for SA’s successful global business engagement.



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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Survey Instrument

Appendix A.1: Employee motivation survey

The objective of the following survey is to gather data for statistical analysis of the association between employee motivation factors and employee demographics (age, gender, race and organisational level). Your input is confidential and will be used for research purposes only. The individual responses need to be consolidated before any statistical inferences can be made. Therefore, the results will only be presented in a summarized form as part of the final report. Thank you for the time afforded in completing this survey.

Instructions:

- The survey is divided into three sections.
- Section 1 requests demographic data of the respondent.
- Section 2 consists of a table which requires the respondent to rate each statement on a four point scale ranging from “Strongly agree” to “Strongly disagree” by marking the relevant block for that question with an “X”.
- If the survey is being completed electronically, the respondent may double click on the box to be marked and select the “Checked” radio button to place an “X” in the box.
- Section 3 is optional and requests contact information if an executive summary of the results should be forwarded to the respondent.
- Once complete, please forward the survey to marvin.perumal@gmail.com or fax to 0866527026 before 1st August 2008.



Section 1: Demographic Details

Please select one option only for the following questions:

1. Indicate your age in years?

--	--	--

2. Indicate your gender?

Gender	Mark with "X"
Female	
Male	

3. Indicate your race group?

Race	Mark with "X"
Black	
Coloured	
Indian	
White	

If other, please specify: _____

4. Indicate your organisational level?

Organisational Level	Mark with "X"
Senior management	
Middle management	
Junior management	
Non-management	



Section 2: Rating of statements

Please rate each of the following statements with an “X” in the appropriate column. Each statement begins with “I require...”:

#	Statement	Rating					
		Agree strongly	Agree	Agree somewhat	Disagree somewhat	Disagree	Disagree strongly
1	...a greater work-life balance in my job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	...more creativity and meaning in my work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	...greater stability of employment at my company	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	...more explicit performance criteria against which, I am rewarded accordingly	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	...a higher remuneration in relation to my work commitment, position, experience and education	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	...greater involvement in decisions that will directly affect me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	...more development opportunities that are aligned to my needs and aspirations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	...management to be more approachable to discuss my personal problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	...a more market related salary	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



#	Statement	Rating					
		Agree strongly	Agree	Agree somewhat	Disagree somewhat	Disagree	Disagree strongly
10	...greater recognition and appreciation in the workplace	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	...management to be more open and trustworthy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	...greater job security in my organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	...management to make more time to meet and listen to me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	...management to be more trustworthy to look after my best interests	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	...management to share more accurate information about the organisation with me on a regular basis	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16	...my workplace to be more friendly and have a greater sense of unity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	...more opportunities to succeed in my working environment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18	...management to provide me with more timely and specific feedback on my accomplishments	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19	...additional responsibility and stimulation in my work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



#	Statement	Rating					
		Agree strongly	Agree	Agree somewhat	Disagree somewhat	Disagree	Disagree strongly
20	...management to be more constructive and tactful when dealing with poor performance	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section 3: Contact details (optional)

Please provide the following information if you wish to receive an executive summary of the research results:

First name : _____

Surname : _____

Email address : _____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE IN THIS SURVEY



Appendix B: Communique

Appendix B.1: Letter from SBL confirming researcher as bona fide student



Ref: Mrs Elsabe Broodryk

Tel: + 27 11 6520352

e-mail: broodje@unisa.ac.za

Web: www.sblunisa.ac.za

2008-05-23

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This letter serves to confirm that Mr M Perumal, student number 70991081, a registered final year student at the Graduate School of Business Leadership is for 2008. The student will be doing the Research Report (MBLREP-P) in 2008 as part of the requirements to obtain the MBL postgraduate degree.

The MBL provides highly professional management development at postgraduate level - with particular emphasis on the theory as well as the practice of management in the education process. It also strives to offer practical learning experience and an opportunity for the development of leadership qualities



The Business School will observe any confidentiality requirements regarding information made available to the student in assisting with this study. The content of research reports may not be used by the author or any other person without the permission of the SBL. The student must give this agreement as well to the confidentiality requirement.

On behalf of the Business School and Mr Perumal we thank you for participating in this research project.

Yours sincerely

PROF AE BOOYSEN

MANAGER: RESEARCH

+27 11 6520253

0824515003

AEBooyesen@sbls.ac.za

Appendix B.2: Email to pilot sample

Hello

In completion of my MBL degree at the UNISA SBL, I am required to conduct a research study. As part of the research methodology, a pilot run is necessary to highlight any improvements in the survey prior to its "live" run that will be used to draw statistics. In this regard, please find attached an employee motivation survey. I know that you are busy with your own work commitments, but I would appreciate it if you could spend 10 minutes to complete and return the survey by 17:00 on 2008/07/18 using both the contact details (email and fax) included in the survey.



Thanks and regards,

Marvin

Appendix B.3: Initial email to non-banking employees

Hi

I require your assistance, please. In completion of my Masters degree, I am required to conduct a research study. In this regard, a banking industry specific employee motivation survey and a confidentiality letter from the university, is attached.

Please forward the survey to at least 4 colleagues who are employees at one of the South African banks with the request to complete (which requires only 5 minutes) and return the survey by 17:00 on 2008/08/08 using either of the contact details (fax or email) provided in the questionnaire. Kindly request that they too forward the survey onto at least 4 of their colleagues and so on, thereby creating a "snowball" effect. It is important that all email forwards of the survey copy in ("Cc:") motivation.survey2008@gmail.com. This is required to calculate the response rate in the results of the survey.

I know that you are busy with your own work commitments, but it would be appreciated if you would please assist with the request above. The survey requires a minimum response of 400 banking employees to deliver representative results.

Thanks and regards,

Marvin

Appendix B.4: Initial email to banking employees

Hi

I require your assistance, please. In completion of my Masters degree, I am required to conduct a research study. In this regard, a banking industry specific



employee motivation survey and a confidentiality letter from the university are attached. The following two activities are kindly requested:

1. Spare 5 minutes to complete and return the survey by 17:00 on 2008/08/08 using either of the contact details (fax or email) provided in the questionnaire.
2. Forward the survey to at least 4 colleagues who are also employees at one of the South African banks. Kindly request that they too return their completed surveys and forward the survey onto at least 4 of their colleagues and so on, thereby creating a "snowball" effect. It is important that all email forwards of the survey, copy in ("Cc:") motivation.survey2008@gmail.com. This is required to calculate the response rate in the results of the survey.

I know that you are busy with your own work commitments, but it would be appreciated if you would please assist with the two requests above. The survey requires a minimum response of 400 South African banking employees to deliver representative results.

Thanks and regards,

Marvin

Appendix B.5: Reminder email to non-banking employees

Hi

As acknowledged in the original email, I understand that everyone is perhaps busier than they would like to be and to find time for the essential and required is challenging enough without setting aside time for the little extras and fulfilling those intentions.

Regarding the survey sent about one and a half weeks ago, there has been no reply. Perhaps with the timeline set to this coming Friday, you only planned on forwarding the questionnaire to your colleagues during this week.

To this intention, I send this reminder and for your convenience, I have also attached the original survey and confidentiality letter. Please find a few



moments during this week to forward through the survey to colleagues in the South African banking industry allowing them sufficient time to return the completed survey and facilitate the "snowball" effect for maximum coverage by Friday, 2008/08/08.

Thank you once again for your assistance.

Kind regards,

Marvin

Appendix B.6: Reminder email to banking employees

Hi

As acknowledged in the original email, I understand that everyone is perhaps busier than they would like to be and to find time for the essential and required is challenging enough without setting aside time for the little extras and fulfilling those intentions.

Regarding the survey sent about one and a half weeks ago, there has been no reply. Perhaps with the timeline set to this coming Friday, you only planned on completing, returning and forwarding the questionnaire to your colleagues during this week.

To this intention, I send this reminder and for your convenience, I have also attached the original survey and confidentiality letter. Please find a few minutes during this week to complete and return the survey and forward it to other colleagues in the South African banking industry allowing them sufficient time to also return the completed survey and facilitate the "snowball" effect for maximum coverage by Friday, 2008/08/08.

Thank you once again for your assistance.

Kind regards,

Marvin



Appendix B.7: Original proposal letter to South African bank

Dear Sir/Madam

Request to conduct survey for academic research

I am currently studying my Masters in Business Leadership (MBL) at the University of South Africa (UNISA). This year is my final year of study and one of the deliverables for the year is a research report. I have decided to conduct my research into the association between employee demographics (age, gender, race and organisational level) and employee motivation factors.

Employee motivation is becoming an increasingly relevant topic for discussion in the current business environment. Globalisation driven by technological advancements is opening up doors to employees for jobs around the world. The various political, economic and social events in South Africa compound the retention challenges facing employers trying to hold on to their key staff. The modern-day employee need for mobility and versatility further requires that employers become more astute to the requirements of their employees. Finally, South Africa's diversity is an additional dimension for consideration by employers.

For this purpose, I kindly request that *Bank X's* retail division be engaged to conduct a survey for the research study. The questionnaire is simple and will not consume more than 10 minutes of each employee's time. Only the head office employees will participate. The confidentiality of the participants will be maintained and the final report will only contain aggregated results for statistical inferences. On completion of the study, a copy of the report can be made available to the bank via email free of charge.

I am also bound by the University's ethics rules and guidelines regarding any data gathered for research purposes. Please find the following attached for your perusal:

1. Letter from the SBL confirming my registration and positioning of the research report towards completing my MBL



2. Survey questionnaire to be issued to employees

Thank you in advance for your assistance in this regard. Please feel free to contact me or UNISA should you have any queries.

Please confirm your approval for the study at *Bank X*.

Thanks and regards,

Marvin Perumal

Mobile: 072 172 2484

Fax : 0866527026

Email : marvin.perumal@gmail.com



Appendix B.8: Original proposal presentation to South African bank

**Research proposal:
“Association between employee demographics and employee motivation factors”**

09 June 2008
Marvin Perumal
(MBL Student, UNISA SBL)




Objective of study

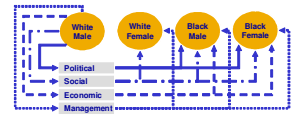
Support retention efforts at retail division by furthering the understanding of what motivates their employees

Among the associated objectives are:


- Provide a prioritised list of motivators that managers can integrate within their existing retention strategy
- Identify key differences in the sources of motivation among the diverse SA cultures
- Add to the existing South African body of knowledge in the field
- Ensure versatility of the research through the use of globally accepted theoretical models to facilitate inclusion in future studies of a similar nature and in so doing, support comparative analysis




South Africa – post 1994 power shifts




- Sources of tension prevalent among salient social identity groups
 - Blacks upset by notion of “tokenism”
 - Whites experience social identity anxiety with job insecurity and low probability of future promotional opportunities
 - Indians/Coloureds concerned to once again be in the middle of now “reverse apartheid”
- Retention strategies challenged by traces of discrimination rooted in country’s history



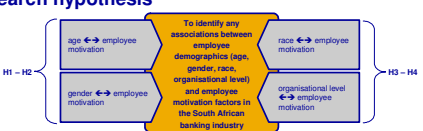
Valuing diversity




- Between continuum extremes of assimilation and differentiation, the integrated approach values multiculturalism
 - Lower costs achieved by early integration of increasingly diverse workforces
 - Attract best personnel by gaining reputation for better integration of diverse workforce
 - Increase cultural sensitivity of marketing efforts
 - Increase creativity through diversity of perspectives
 - Improve decision making through heterogeneous problem solving
 - More fluid and flexible system, demanded by multiculturalism, better positions the organisation for change




Research hypothesis




- Need for effective retention strategies becoming increasingly crucial in South African workplace
- Retention directly linked to employee motivation
- Race and gender are salient social identities in South Africa
- Age (baby boomers, X generation, Y generation) and organisational level included in international studies
- All four hypotheses of main problem assume existence of an association between each demographic sub-group and the motivation factors



Maslow and Herzberg



- Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (1943) has been linked to Herzberg’s two-factor theory (1968)
- Extrinsic factors influence job dissatisfaction
 - When adequately met, only create a neutral environment
 - Known as “hygiene” factors
- Intrinsic factors influence job satisfaction
 - When adequately met, have the ability to generate satisfaction
 - Known as “motivators”



Association between employee motivation and employee demographics in the banking industry



<p>Herzberg and Kovach</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Extrinsic factors</th> <th>Intrinsic factors</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>1. Good working conditions</td> <td>5. Full appreciation of work done</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2. Tactful discipline</td> <td>6. Feeling of being involved</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3. Job Security</td> <td>7. Sympathetic help with personal problems</td> </tr> <tr> <td>4. Good wages</td> <td>8. Interesting work</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>9. Opportunities for advancement and development</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>10. Loyalty to employees</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Kovach formulated ten motivation factors (1945) Factors used in 1946, 1981 and 1995 to conduct comparison studies in the industrial sector in the United States Herzberg categorised Kovach's ten motivation factors using two-factor theory (1968) Proposed research study is based on Kovach's ten motivation factors 	Extrinsic factors	Intrinsic factors	1. Good working conditions	5. Full appreciation of work done	2. Tactful discipline	6. Feeling of being involved	3. Job Security	7. Sympathetic help with personal problems	4. Good wages	8. Interesting work		9. Opportunities for advancement and development		10. Loyalty to employees	<p>Researcher profile</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Graduated BSc. Information Technology in 2002 at University of Natal Employed as Senior Consultant at global software vendor since 2003 Currently third year MBL student at UNISA School of Business Leadership (SBL) Achieved individual ranking in top ten for 2007 (MBL2) Achieved group ranking in top ten for 2007 (MBL2) Research study contributes towards completion of degree Bound by confidentiality of UNISA SBL Timelines for deliverable submissions to SBL <ul style="list-style-type: none"> First draft due August 22nd, 2008 Second draft due September 22nd, 2008 Final copy due December 1st, 2008 	<p>Benefits and conclusion</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Minimal cost <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 10-15 minutes required by each employee for completion of questionnaire No resource requirements as researcher will conduct all administrative functions including distribution and collection of questionnaires (unless otherwise requested) Only 10% (sample size) of retail division employees at head office will be engaged in survey Free copy of study will be emailed once statistical analysis is complete Possibility for study to be extended in the future to other divisions Valuable insight into motivation of diverse workforce can serve as input into retention strategies Facilitates finding balance between Afrocentric and Eurocentric management styles in South African workplace Integrated approach to diversity management reduces tension, encouraging appreciation for differences and respect for uniqueness, ... <p style="text-align: center;">Raising the level of corporate cultural intelligence (CQ)</p> 
Extrinsic factors	Intrinsic factors															
1. Good working conditions	5. Full appreciation of work done															
2. Tactful discipline	6. Feeling of being involved															
3. Job Security	7. Sympathetic help with personal problems															
4. Good wages	8. Interesting work															
	9. Opportunities for advancement and development															
	10. Loyalty to employees															

Appendix C: Supplementary data analysis

Appendix C.1: Independent two sample t-test for Gender

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Upper	Lower
1. Full appreciation of work done	Equal variances assumed	1.536	0.217	-1.256	135	0.211	-0.27999	0.22300	-0.72101	0.16103
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.241	119.190	0.217	-0.27999	0.22562	-0.72673	0.16676

Association between employee motivation and
employee demographics in the banking industry



		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Upper	Lower
2. Feeling of being involved	Equal variances assumed	0.472	0.493	-1.230	135	0.221	-0.25456	0.20694	-0.66382	0.15469
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.240	128.546	0.217	-0.25456	0.20526	-0.66069	0.15156
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	Equal variances assumed	1.639	0.203	-0.818	135	0.415	-0.17243	0.21076	-0.58924	0.24439
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.835	132.602	0.405	-0.17243	0.20650	-0.58089	0.23604
4. Interesting work	Equal variances assumed	1.967	0.163	-0.751	135	0.454	-0.16286	0.21682	-0.59166	0.26593
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.768	132.990	0.444	-0.16286	0.21210	-0.58240	0.25667
5. Opportunity for development	Equal variances assumed	0.299	0.586	-1.916	135	0.058	-0.43449	0.22682	-0.88306	0.01409
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.927	127.564	0.056	-0.43449	0.22552	-0.88073	0.01176
6. Loyalty to employees	Equal variances assumed	0.115	0.735	-0.922	135	0.358	-0.22208	0.24092	-0.69853	0.25438
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.927	127.721	0.355	-0.22208	0.23945	-0.69588	0.25173
7. Good working conditions	Equal variances assumed	0.025	0.874	-2.015	135	0.046	-0.39135	0.19424	-0.77549	-0.00721
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.030	128.249	0.044	-0.39135	0.19281	-0.77284	-0.00986
8. Tactful disciplining	Equal variances assumed	1.654	0.201	-0.627	135	0.532	-0.14059	0.22433	-0.58426	0.30307
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.637	131.576	0.525	-0.14059	0.22060	-0.57698	0.29580
9. Job security	Equal variances assumed	1.648	0.201	-0.321	135	0.749	-0.07193	0.22426	-0.51544	0.37159
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.317	118.783	0.752	-0.07193	0.22707	-0.52155	0.37770
10. Good wages	Equal variances assumed	0.079	0.779	-1.795	135	0.075	-0.34757	0.19358	-0.73041	0.03528
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.812	128.961	0.072	-0.34757	0.19181	-0.72707	0.03193



Appendix C.2: One-way ANOVA for Generation (Scheffe)

Dependent Variable	(I) Generation	(J) Generation	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Upper Bound	Lower Bound
1. Full appreciation of work done	Generation Y	Generation X	-0.18822	0.25799	0.767	-0.8268	0.4504
		Baby Boomers	-0.19054	0.29440	0.811	-0.9193	0.5382
	Generation X	Generation Y	0.18822	0.25799	0.767	-0.4504	0.8268
		Baby Boomers	-0.00232	0.28206	1.000	-0.7005	0.6959
	Baby Boomers	Generation Y	0.19054	0.29440	0.811	-0.5382	0.9193
		Generation X	0.00232	0.28206	1.000	-0.6959	0.7005
2. Feeling of being involved	Generation Y	Generation X	0.02689	0.23405	0.993	-0.5525	0.6062
		Baby Boomers	-0.59463	0.26707	0.088	-1.2557	0.0665
	Generation X	Generation Y	-0.02689	0.23405	0.993	-0.6062	0.5525
		Baby Boomers	-0.62152	0.25588	0.056	-1.2549	0.0119
	Baby Boomers	Generation Y	0.59463	0.26707	0.088	-0.0665	1.2557
		Generation X	0.62152	0.25588	0.056	-0.0119	1.2549
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	Generation Y	Generation X	-0.22788	0.23894	0.636	-0.8194	0.3636
		Baby Boomers	-0.62468	0.27266	0.076	-1.2996	0.0503
	Generation X	Generation Y	0.22788	0.23894	0.636	-0.3636	0.8194
		Baby Boomers	-0.39680	0.26124	0.319	-1.0435	0.2499
	Baby Boomers	Generation Y	0.62468	0.27266	0.076	-0.0503	1.2996
		Generation X	0.39680	0.26124	0.319	-0.2499	1.0435
4. Interesting work	Generation Y	Generation X	-0.11918	0.24045	0.885	-0.7144	0.4760
		Baby Boomers	-0.86893(*)	0.27438	0.008	-1.5481	-0.1897

Association between employee motivation and employee demographics in the banking industry



Dependent Variable	(I) Generation	(J) Generation	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Upper Bound	Lower Bound
	Generation X	Generation Y	0.11918	0.24045	0.885	-0.4760	0.7144
		Baby Boomers	-.74974(*)	0.26289	0.019	-1.4005	-0.0990
	Baby Boomers	Generation Y	.86893(*)	0.27438	0.008	0.1897	1.5481
		Generation X	.74974(*)	0.26289	0.019	0.0990	1.4005
5. Opportunity for development	Generation Y	Generation X	-0.55835	0.25045	0.087	-1.1783	0.0616
		Baby Boomers	-1.14194(*)	0.28579	0.001	-1.8494	-0.4345
	Generation X	Generation Y	0.55835	0.25045	0.087	-0.0616	1.1783
		Baby Boomers	-0.58359	0.27382	0.107	-1.2614	0.0942
	Baby Boomers	Generation Y	1.14194(*)	0.28579	0.001	0.4345	1.8494
		Generation X	0.58359	0.27382	0.107	-0.0942	1.2614
6. Loyalty to employees	Generation Y	Generation X	0.35793	0.27240	0.424	-0.3164	1.0322
		Baby Boomers	-0.37788	0.31084	0.480	-1.1473	0.3916
	Generation X	Generation Y	-0.35793	0.27240	0.424	-1.0322	0.3164
		Baby Boomers	-0.73581	0.29782	0.051	-1.4730	0.0014
	Baby Boomers	Generation Y	0.37788	0.31084	0.480	-0.3916	1.1473
		Generation X	0.73581	0.29782	0.051	-0.0014	1.4730
7. Good working conditions	Generation Y	Generation X	0.13902	0.21967	0.819	-0.4047	0.6828
		Baby Boomers	-0.58312	0.25067	0.070	-1.2036	0.0374
	Generation X	Generation Y	-0.13902	0.21967	0.819	-0.6828	0.4047
		Baby Boomers	-.72214(*)	0.24017	0.013	-1.3166	-0.1276
	Baby Boomers	Generation Y	0.58312	0.25067	0.070	-0.0374	1.2036
		Generation X	.72214(*)	0.24017	0.013	0.1276	1.3166

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Dependent Variable	(I) Generation	(J) Generation	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Upper Bound	Lower Bound
8. Tactful disciplining	Generation Y	Generation X	-0.15523	0.25012	0.825	-0.7744	0.4639
		Baby Boomers	-.84847(*)	0.28542	0.014	-1.5550	-0.1420
	Generation X	Generation Y	0.15523	0.25012	0.825	-0.4639	0.7744
		Baby Boomers	-.69324(*)	0.27346	0.043	-1.3702	-0.0163
	Baby Boomers	Generation Y	.84847(*)	0.28542	0.014	0.1420	1.5550
		Generation X	.69324(*)	0.27346	0.043	0.0163	1.3702
9. Job security	Generation Y	Generation X	0.04596	0.25784	0.984	-0.5923	0.6842
		Baby Boomers	-0.20972	0.29422	0.776	-0.9380	0.5186
	Generation X	Generation Y	-0.04596	0.25784	0.984	-0.6842	0.5923
		Baby Boomers	-0.25568	0.28189	0.664	-0.9535	0.4421
	Baby Boomers	Generation Y	0.20972	0.29422	0.776	-0.5186	0.9380
		Generation X	0.25568	0.28189	0.664	-0.4421	0.9535
10. Good wages	Generation Y	Generation X	0.02536	0.22536	0.994	-0.5325	0.5832
		Baby Boomers	-0.15601	0.25716	0.832	-0.7926	0.4805
	Generation X	Generation Y	-0.02536	0.22536	0.994	-0.5832	0.5325
		Baby Boomers	-0.18137	0.24639	0.763	-0.7913	0.4285
	Baby Boomers	Generation Y	0.15601	0.25716	0.832	-0.4805	0.7926
		Generation X	0.18137	0.24639	0.763	-0.4285	0.7913



Appendix C.3: One-way ANOVA for Race (Scheffe)

Dependent Variable	(I) Race categories	(J) Race categories	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Upper Bound	Lower Bound
1. Full appreciation of work done	Black/Coloured	Indian	0.59502	0.29565	0.136	-0.1370	1.3271
		White	0.26127	0.31009	0.702	-0.5065	1.0291
	Indian	Black/Coloured	-0.59502	0.29565	0.136	-1.3271	0.1370
		White	-0.33375	0.24977	0.412	-0.9522	0.2847
	White	Black/Coloured	-0.26127	0.31009	0.702	-1.0291	0.5065
		Indian	0.33375	0.24977	0.412	-0.2847	0.9522
2. Feeling of being involved	Black/Coloured	Indian	0.37675	0.27433	0.392	-0.3025	1.0560
		White	-0.17190	0.28773	0.837	-0.8843	0.5405
	Indian	Black/Coloured	-0.37675	0.27433	0.392	-1.0560	0.3025
		White	-0.54865	0.23175	0.064	-1.1225	0.0252
	White	Black/Coloured	0.17190	0.28773	0.837	-0.5405	0.8843
		Indian	0.54865	0.23175	0.064	-0.0252	1.1225
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	Black/Coloured	Indian	0.40801	0.27584	0.338	-0.2750	1.0910
		White	-0.31401	0.28931	0.556	-1.0304	0.4023
	Indian	Black/Coloured	-0.40801	0.27584	0.338	-1.0910	0.2750
		White	-.72202(*)	0.23303	0.010	-1.2990	-0.1450
	White	Black/Coloured	0.31401	0.28931	0.556	-0.4023	1.0304
		Indian	.72202(*)	0.23303	0.010	0.1450	1.2990
4. Interesting work	Black/Coloured	Indian	.68610(*)	0.27409	0.047	0.0074	1.3647
		White	-0.04911	0.28748	0.986	-0.7609	0.6627

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Dependent Variable	(I) Race categories	(J) Race categories	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Upper Bound	Lower Bound
	Indian	Black/Coloured	-.68610(*)	0.27409	0.047	-1.3647	-0.0074
		White	-.73521(*)	0.23155	0.008	-1.3085	-0.1619
	White	Black/Coloured	0.04911	0.28748	0.986	-0.6627	0.7609
		Indian	.73521(*)	0.23155	0.008	0.1619	1.3085
5. Opportunity for development	Black/Coloured	Indian	.91864(*)	0.29348	0.009	0.1920	1.6453
		White	0.16989	0.30781	0.859	-0.5923	0.9320
	Indian	Black/Coloured	-.91864(*)	0.29348	0.009	-1.6453	-0.1920
		White	-.74875(*)	0.24793	0.012	-1.3626	-0.1349
	White	Black/Coloured	-0.16989	0.30781	0.859	-0.9320	0.5923
		Indian	.74875(*)	0.24793	0.012	0.1349	1.3626
6. Loyalty to employees	Black/Coloured	Indian	0.07498	0.32261	0.973	-0.7238	0.8738
		White	-0.41023	0.33837	0.482	-1.2480	0.4276
	Indian	Black/Coloured	-0.07498	0.32261	0.973	-0.8738	0.7238
		White	-0.48521	0.27254	0.209	-1.1600	0.1896
	White	Black/Coloured	0.41023	0.33837	0.482	-0.4276	1.2480
		Indian	0.48521	0.27254	0.209	-0.1896	1.1600
7. Good working conditions	Black/Coloured	Indian	0.45993	0.25926	0.211	-0.1820	1.1019
		White	0.00483	0.27192	1.000	-0.6684	0.6781
	Indian	Black/Coloured	-0.45993	0.25926	0.211	-1.1019	0.1820
		White	-0.45510	0.21902	0.120	-0.9974	0.0872
	White	Black/Coloured	-0.00483	0.27192	1.000	-0.6781	0.6684
		Indian	0.45510	0.21902	0.120	-0.0872	0.9974

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Dependent Variable	(I) Race categories	(J) Race categories	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Upper Bound	Lower Bound
8. Tactful disciplining	Black/Coloured	Indian	0.37310	0.29578	0.453	-0.3593	1.1055
		White	-0.27818	0.31023	0.670	-1.0463	0.4899
	Indian	Black/Coloured	-0.37310	0.29578	0.453	-1.1055	0.3593
		White	-.65128(*)	0.24988	0.036	-1.2700	-0.0326
	White	Black/Coloured	0.27818	0.31023	0.670	-0.4899	1.0463
		Indian	.65128(*)	0.24988	0.036	0.0326	1.2700
9. Job security	Black/Coloured	Indian	0.35701	0.29376	0.480	-0.3703	1.0844
		White	-0.26932	0.30810	0.683	-1.0322	0.4935
	Indian	Black/Coloured	-0.35701	0.29376	0.480	-1.0844	0.3703
		White	-.62634(*)	0.24816	0.045	-1.2408	-0.0119
	White	Black/Coloured	0.26932	0.30810	0.683	-0.4935	1.0322
		Indian	.62634(*)	0.24816	0.045	0.0119	1.2408
10. Good wages	Black/Coloured	Indian	0.20249	0.25733	0.734	-0.4347	0.8396
		White	-0.17955	0.26990	0.802	-0.8478	0.4887
	Indian	Black/Coloured	-0.20249	0.25733	0.734	-0.8396	0.4347
		White	-0.38204	0.21740	0.217	-0.9203	0.1562
	White	Black/Coloured	0.17955	0.26990	0.802	-0.4887	0.8478
		Indian	0.38204	0.21740	0.217	-0.1562	0.9203



Appendix C.4: One-way ANOVA for Organisational level (Scheffe)

Dependent Variable	(I) Organisational level (recoded)	(J) Organisational level (recoded)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Upper Bound	Lower Bound
1. Full appreciation of work done	Senior/Middle management	Junior management	0.39329	0.27969	0.375	-0.2990	1.0856
		Non-management	0.46154	0.26393	0.221	-0.1918	1.1149
	Junior management	Senior/Middle management	-0.39329	0.27969	0.375	-1.0856	0.2990
		Non-management	0.06825	0.26911	0.968	-0.5979	0.7344
	Non-management	Senior/Middle management	-0.46154	0.26393	0.221	-1.1149	0.1918
		Junior management	-0.06825	0.26911	0.968	-0.7344	0.5979
2. Feeling of being involved	Senior/Middle management	Junior management	0.40965	0.26001	0.292	-0.2340	1.0533
		Non-management	0.32780	0.24536	0.412	-0.2796	0.9351
	Junior management	Senior/Middle management	-0.40965	0.26001	0.292	-1.0533	0.2340
		Non-management	-0.08185	0.25017	0.948	-0.7011	0.5374
	Non-management	Senior/Middle management	-0.32780	0.24536	0.412	-0.9351	0.2796
		Junior management	0.08185	0.25017	0.948	-0.5374	0.7011
3. Sympathetic help with personal problems	Senior/Middle management	Junior management	.66907(*)	0.25291	0.033	0.0430	1.2951
		Non-management	.90734(*)	0.23866	0.001	0.3166	1.4981
	Junior management	Senior/Middle management	-.66907(*)	0.25291	0.033	-1.2951	-0.0430
		Non-management	0.23827	0.24334	0.620	-0.3641	0.8406
	Non-management	Senior/Middle management	-.90734(*)	0.23866	0.001	-1.4981	-0.3166

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Dependent Variable	(I) Organisational level (recoded)	(J) Organisational level (recoded)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Upper Bound	Lower Bound
4. Interesting work		Junior management	-0.23827	0.24334	0.620	-0.8406	0.3641
	Senior/Middle management	Junior management	0.31402	0.27088	0.512	-0.3565	0.9846
		Non-management	0.47115	0.25562	0.187	-0.1616	1.1039
	Junior management	Senior/Middle management	-0.31402	0.27088	0.512	-0.9846	0.3565
		Non-management	0.15713	0.26064	0.834	-0.4880	0.8023
	Non-management	Senior/Middle management	-0.47115	0.25562	0.187	-1.1039	0.1616
		Junior management	-0.15713	0.26064	0.834	-0.8023	0.4880
	5. Opportunity for development	Senior/Middle management	Junior management	0.46563	0.27922	0.253	-0.2255
Non-management			.86713(*)	0.26348	0.005	0.2149	1.5194
Junior management		Senior/Middle management	-0.46563	0.27922	0.253	-1.1568	0.2255
		Non-management	0.40150	0.26866	0.330	-0.2635	1.0665
Non-management		Senior/Middle management	-.86713(*)	0.26348	0.005	-1.5194	-0.2149
		Junior management	-0.40150	0.26866	0.330	-1.0665	0.2635
6. Loyalty to employees	Senior/Middle management	Junior management	0.65965	0.29823	0.090	-0.0786	1.3979
		Non-management	0.60664	0.28142	0.102	-0.0900	1.3033
	Junior management	Senior/Middle management	-0.65965	0.29823	0.090	-1.3979	0.0786
		Non-management	-0.05300	0.28695	0.983	-0.7633	0.6573
	Non-management	Senior/Middle management	-0.60664	0.28142	0.102	-1.3033	0.0900

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Dependent Variable	(I) Organisational level (recoded)	(J) Organisational level (recoded)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Upper Bound	Lower Bound
7. Good working conditions		Junior management	0.05300	0.28695	0.983	-0.6573	0.7633
	Senior/Middle management	Junior management	0.39634	0.24579	0.276	-0.2121	1.0048
		Non-management	0.37500	0.23194	0.274	-0.1991	0.9491
	Junior management	Senior/Middle management	-0.39634	0.24579	0.276	-1.0048	0.2121
		Non-management	-0.02134	0.23649	0.996	-0.6067	0.5641
	Non-management	Senior/Middle management	-0.37500	0.23194	0.274	-0.9491	0.1991
Junior management		0.02134	0.23649	0.996	-0.5641	0.6067	
8. Tactful disciplining	Senior/Middle management	Junior management	0.62860	0.27585	0.078	-0.0542	1.3114
		Non-management	.65909(*)	0.26031	0.044	0.0147	1.3035
	Junior management	Senior/Middle management	-0.62860	0.27585	0.078	-1.3114	0.0542
		Non-management	0.03049	0.26542	0.993	-0.6265	0.6875
	Non-management	Senior/Middle management	-.65909(*)	0.26031	0.044	-1.3035	-0.0147
		Junior management	-0.03049	0.26542	0.993	-0.6875	0.6265
9. Job security	Senior/Middle management	Junior management	0.25000	0.28144	0.675	-0.4467	0.9467
		Non-management	0.34615	0.26559	0.430	-0.3113	1.0036
	Junior management	Senior/Middle management	-0.25000	0.28144	0.675	-0.9467	0.4467
		Non-management	0.09615	0.27080	0.939	-0.5742	0.7665
	Non-management	Senior/Middle management	-0.34615	0.26559	0.430	-1.0036	0.3113

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Dependent Variable	(I) Organisational level (recoded)	(J) Organisational level (recoded)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Upper Bound	Lower Bound
10. Good wages		Junior management	-0.09615	0.27080	0.939	-0.7665	0.5742
	Senior/Middle management	Junior management	-0.03575	0.24506	0.989	-0.6424	0.5709
		Non-management	0.29633	0.23126	0.442	-0.2761	0.8688
	Junior management	Senior/Middle management	0.03575	0.24506	0.989	-0.5709	0.6424
		Non-management	0.33208	0.23580	0.374	-0.2516	0.9158
	Non-management	Senior/Middle management	-0.29633	0.23126	0.442	-0.8688	0.2761
		Junior management	-0.33208	0.23580	0.374	-0.9158	0.2516

