

Investigating the relationship between motivation, engagement and turnover intention

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DECLARATION

I Kobashini Kallen, student number 35616733, declare that the dissertation titled “Investigating the relationship between motivation, engagement and turnover intention” is my own work which is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master in Commerce in the subject, Industrial and Organisational Psychology. All sources used are acknowledged as references.

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31 October 2019

SIGNATURE

DATE

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Chapter One

1.1 Introduction

An article released by Buzz (2018) indicated that the automotive industry in South Africa's is a key contributor to the country's economy. The article further states that the automotive industry plays both a strategic and catalytic role with regards to the economic development in the country owing to its significant investments, modern, advanced manufacturing activities, provider of quality employment, contribution to the country's GDP, earner of forex as well as its significant multiplier effect in the economy. Despite this value add to the South African economy however, there are many internal challenges faced by the automotive sector. One such challenge, is that the employee turnover rate is alarmingly high (Mullins, 2019). In order to rectify this situation, Mullins (2019) is of the opinion that the automotive industry should commit to a change strategy that embeds a high sense of purpose into the Employee Value Proposition. By doing so, individual employee potential can be unlocked whilst automotive companies can differentiate their brands from the competition by cultivating a workforce of engaged and inspired employees.

Similarly prior research undertaken by Govender and Parumarsur (2010) asserted that a motivated workforce may be the key to a thriving, successful organisation in our ever-increasing competitive environment where turnover and turnover intention threatens its very existence. Turnover, therefore, remains a significant factor in human resource management and this holds true for the automotive industry according to the Bureau for Economic Research report (Kemp, Manefeldt & Tucker, 2018). The analysis concluded that while conditions in the automotive industry have improved at the start of 2018, significant increases in production outputs and turnover growth is unlikely, therefore overall profitability remains under pressure (Kemp, Manefeldt & Tucker, 2018).

1.2 Background to the Research

Research has shown that the probability of employee engagement increases remarkably as employees find reasons to increase their motivation towards performing their jobs (Jungin, 2018). The author further states that when environmental changes occur, employees tend to become discontent, nervous, hesitant and annoyed with their work conditions, resulting in them eventually leaving the organisation. Hence, the need

to utilise human capital potential as a means to enhance organisational success in today's dynamic and uncertain corporate environment is an opportunity that cannot be missed.

Human capital potential can therefore be harnessed by fulfilling employees' growth, competence, relatedness and autonomous needs. These rewards are engrained in the concept of intrinsic motivation and plays an important role in self-determination theory. Krause, North and Davidson (2019) state that the self-determination theory is a macro theory based on human motivation, development and wellness. The theory argues that internal, external, and contextual factors, combine to influence the fulfilment of needs by either increasing or decreasing one's motivation to participate (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Furthermore, the self-determination theory suggests that the external effects of turnover intention is weaker in comparison to the effects of internal motivation (Jungin, 2018). This is primarily related to the fact that extrinsically motivated employees are controlled by external factors and less likely to behave spontaneously due to insufficient autonomy. On the other hand, intrinsically motivated employees with more autonomy and competence make an effort to decrease their turnover intention as a result of their work being interesting and fun (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Hence the self-determination theory affords this research a potential lens to distinguish between internal and external influences on motivation (Deci, Olafsen & Ryan, 2017).

When distinguishing between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, Ryan and Deci (2000b, p. 55-56) define intrinsic motivation as "the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence" and "doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable". Story, Stasson, Mahoney and Hart (2008) support this notion of wanting to engage in an activity in so far as due to the satisfaction derived from it. Other researchers have added that intrinsic motivation results in an individual's internal needs being met (Qayyum & Sukirno, 2012) in addition to being a key prerequisite for almost all successful business world interactions (Frey & Osterloh, 2002). Ryan and Deci (2000b) earlier indicated that "fun, enjoyment, interest, novelty, aesthetic value and challenge" adds to employees internal motivation, in contrast to external pressure, recognition or monetary rewards.

Conversely, external motivation refers to “doing something because it leads to a separable outcome” (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p.55), and is either connected to tangible incentives (Kuvaas, Dysvik & Nerstad, 2017) or is reliant on external factors (Qayyum & Sukirno 2012). These definitions, therefore, highlight factors in the external environment that have a direct bearing on employees’ motivation levels. The self-determination theory postulates that the negative consequences relating to turnover intention of having a workforce that is externally motivated are weaker than internal motivation effects. Since extrinsic factors influence external motivation, employees who are extrinsically motivated are less likely to behave in a spontaneous manner due to a lack of autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Comparatively, employees who are motivated from intrinsic sources tend to display more independence and competence, hence, their turnover intentions are relatively lower since they find their work interesting and engaging (Jungin, 2018).

1.3 Problem Statement and Motivation for the Study

It is of global concern that the wholesale and retail sector faces such low retention rates that could be linked to the worsening patterns of low employee morale and motivation (Hart, Stachow, Farrell & Reed 2007; Mulaudzi, 2015). This trend is also evident among employees of the intended automotive brand under study. Since the business is built on retailing motor vehicles, the managers at Dealerships around the country (Sales, Service, Parts and Workshop) are reliant on the attainment of sales targets, profits and margins to generate their income. When managers are not strongly motivated to optimise sales conditions and motivate their teams to do the same, a very bleak picture is painted and ultimately, they and/or their team members choose to rather resign from the organisation. Due to the motor trade environment, the assumption is that managers are extrinsically motivated as their performance is measured against individual productivity indicators, such as their personal sales volume and the volume of sales generated by their team (Msweli-Mbanga, 2004), which translates into financial reward. However, when these extrinsic financial rewards are threatened by tough economic conditions, managers at the dealerships re-evaluate their positions and often move to competitor brands in the automotive sector or to other more profitable dealerships within the same automotive group. Hence, this is supported by research undertaken by Anyim, Chid and Badejo (2012) who have

highlighted that national economic conditions influence the importance of money to citizens.

There appears to be a lack of consensus on the part money plays in motivating employees. Khalid, Salim and Locke (2011) disagree that money motivates individuals whereas Taylor (2007) claimed that money is likely one of the best employee motivators. Due to market constraints and tough economic conditions, it appears that even the most seasoned managers are currently being challenged. The problem is further compounded when these managers are motivated by more than just money, which has been a claim made by Greenberg and Baron (2000). While salaries and benefits do often stimulate and drive motivation (Stanley, 2008), Delaney and Royal (2017) assert that to optimise external sources of motivation, there should be clear communication around behavioural expectations and subsequent outcomes. As per these expectancy theories, should employees be extrinsically motivated by monetary incentives, they need to have a clear understanding of the criteria on which they will be evaluated, how success should objectively look like based on those criteria and whether the quality and quantity of work required to be considered successful aligns with the resulting rewards expected for these efforts (Delaney & Royal, 2017).

Whilst this research did not explore fair practices that prevailed at dealerships or what constitutes realistic sales targets in tough economic times, it has explored how managers (Sales, Service, Parts and Workshop) are motivated. This research further investigated where intrinsic and extrinsic motivation drives managers' engagement and consequently influence their turnover intention. Moreover, the research identified which facet of employee engagement created a positive environment for optimum engagement of managers, thereby reducing turnover intention.

The motivation for this study has therefore emanated from the opportunity to delve into the internal and external motivational drivers of managers within one automotive group in South Africa and the consequent behaviours so that the effects of turnover and intention thereof could be minimised. The King IV Report (2016) refers to the triple 'bottom line', which is the combined economic, societal and environmental context in which the corporation operates. In addition to the triple context, the King IV suggests that the six capitals (financial, manufactured, intellectual, human, social and relationship and natural capitals) be used as a pathway to integrated thinking and

sustainable development where the size of turnover should be in proportion to the size of the workforce. Given the sizeable costs of recruitment and training processes of new employees, managing the costs of high turnover rates has become a significant problem at a strategic level. Hence, the current research will aim to establish the relationship between motivation, employee engagement and turnover intention with the intention of contributing to the body of literature within this field. Furthermore, no such research has been conducted within the automotive industry in South Africa, making this a pioneering contribution.

1.4 Aims or Research Objectives

1.4.1 General aims.

The general aim of the research was to investigate the relationship between motivation, employee engagement and turnover intention amongst managers employed at dealerships within the chosen automotive retail group. More specifically, the research aimed to establish whether motivation or employee engagement was the stronger predictor of turnover intention and determine if any statistically significant differences existed for the different demographical groups.

1.4.2 Specific aims.

The specific literature aims were:

- Literature Aim 1: To conceptualise intrinsic and extrinsic motivation from prior literature.
- Literature Aim 2: To conceptualise employee engagement from literature.
- Literature Aim 3: To conceptualise turnover intention from literature
- Literature Aim 4: To determine the relationship between motivation, employee engagement and turnover intention from a theoretical perspective
- Literature Aim 5: To determine if motivation, engagement and turnover intention levels are likely to differ between various demographical groups from a theoretical perspective

The specific empirical aims were:

- Research Aim 1: To investigate the operational relationship between motivation, employee engagement and turnover intention

- Research Aim 2: To identify any correlations between the variables being studied
- Research Aim 3: To determine whether motivation and employee engagement predict turnover intention
- Research Aim 4: To determine which independent variable is a stronger predictor of turnover intention
- Research Aim 5: To determine if differences exist between the study's variables and the various demographic groups

1.5 Hypotheses

H₀: There is no correlation between the motivation levels of the respondents and their turnover intention

H₁: The motivation levels of the respondents correlate with their turnover intention

H₀: There is no correlation between employee engagement and their turnover intention

H₂: Employee engagement correlates with the turnover intention of respondents

H₀: There is no correlation between the motivation levels of respondents and their level of engagement

H₃: A correlation exists between motivation and employee engagement of the respondents in the study

H₀: Neither motivation nor employee engagement can predict turnover intention

H₄: Both motivation and employee engagement are predictors of turnover intention

H₀: No significant differences existed between the variables in the study and the various demographic groups

H₅: Significant differences were identified between the variables in the study and the various demographic groups

1.6 The Paradigm Perspective

1.6.1 The disciplinary context.

For the purpose of the present study, the following recognised fields were used as a framework for conceptualising the disciplinary relationship that grounded this research:

1.6.1.1 Industrial and organisational psychology.

Industrial and Organisational Psychology can be defined as “the scientific study of people within their work environment, which includes the application of psychological principles, theory and research to the work setting” (Riggio, 2009). Renecke (2001) concluded that Industrial and Organisational Psychology as a relevant discipline will continue to have, a central impact on the human condition where the principles are interwoven in management practice. The objectives of Industrial and Organisational Psychology is twofold; firstly, to conduct research with the intention of increasing knowledge and comprehending of employees’ behaviour at work; and secondly, to improve individual’s workplace behaviour, the work context and the psychological states of employees by applying the knowledge learnt (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). The goal of this research was therefore to study the behaviour of individual employees with regards to how their motivation and engagement levels influence their turnover intention. Hence this research aimed to understand the individual differences of the employees with the intention of firstly, utilising the knowledge to curb turnover intention and secondly, to inform the psychological agreement between employers and their employees.

1.6.1.2 Personnel psychology.

Within the Industrial and Organisational Psychology discipline, Personnel Psychology is viewed as a more traditional field (Muchinsky et al., 2005), often considered to be a sub-discipline representing the intersection between psychology and human resource management (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010). This field concerns itself with scientifically studying individual behavioural and job performance differences and the methodologies used to measure and predict such behaviours and performance (Cascio & Aguinis, 2011). Inherent to the present study, the activities of employee performance evaluation and the retention of talent within the scope of Personnel Psychology have been focused on as individual differences in the work context (Gibson, Payne, Morgan & Allen, 2018).

1.6.1.3 Organisational psychology.

The purpose of the field of Organisational Psychology is to examine and understand work from an organisational level, to interpret employee's organisational functioning as well as appreciate how the organisation functions as an integrated unit (Gibson et al., 2018). More specifically, the field of Organisational Psychology concerns itself with how organisations influence the attitudes and behaviours of employees (Bergh, 2009; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010). For this particular research study, the typical focus areas of motivation and employee engagement within the domain of Organisational Psychology, have come under scrutiny, so as to conceptualise how employees function within the organisation.

1.6.1.4 Employee and organisational well-being.

This discipline usually conducts research from the positive psychological paradigm viewpoint, overlapping to a degree with health and safety management and intervention training (Gibson et al., 2018). Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) suggested that positive psychology aims to facilitate changing the practice of psychology, which has tended to be preoccupied with repairing the worst, to shifting the focus onto building positive qualities in individuals and organisations. This focus of positive psychology is therefore applicable to the current research as this study aims to be attentive towards both the positive and negative features and facets of human functioning and experiences (Linley, Joseph, Harrington, & Wood, 2006). More especially, stressors are not meant to be seen as sources of difficulties, even though work demands and environmental contexts could consequently impact on employees' levels of engagement and motivation as well as their turnover intention. Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) therefore propose an alternative view where these difficulties can be understood, managed, and enjoyed in the workplace due to individuals possessing inherent strengths and virtues.

1.6.2 Behaviourism as the underlying psychological paradigm.

Behaviourists believe that Behaviourism is a systematic approach to understanding the behaviour of humans as they interact with their environment (Araiba, 2019). It assumes that all behaviour occurs either in response to certain stimuli from the

environment or as a result of a consequence of that individual's history, including reinforcement and punishment, in addition to the individual's current motivational state and controlling stimuli. Considering the systems perspective, individuals function within larger social networks such as work teams and organisations, for example. Industrial and Organisational psychologists are typically involved with studying employees' interactions with their work environment to create "open" systems (Watkins, 2001).

Some of the key advocates of Behaviourism, such as J.B. Watson and B.F. Skinner (Krapfl, 2016) developed a behaviour control paradigm by claiming that when an environment is manipulated, it can lead to the shaping of the behaviour of individuals (Rutherford, 2006). This was central to this research, in that, despite the current turbulent economic conditions, the promotion of the motivation levels of managers employed by the automotive group had the capacity to stimulate higher employee engagement and, as a result, limit resignation intentions, thereby decreasing the overall turnover statistics.

1.6.3 The research paradigm

This quantitative study was governed by the philosophical paradigm of positivism. This paradigm was applicable to the study since this scientific method produced precise, verifiable, systematic and theoretical answers to the research questions, thereby facilitating generalisability to other applicable contexts (Creswell et al., 2010). The positive psychological approach or stance was adopted by this research as it became imperative to keep employees healthy and resilient to hardships, such as tough economic climates (Bergh, 2009). Therefore, it was necessary to understand what motivated employees in order to keep them engaged, to reduce their intentions to leave the organisation and ultimately, reduce turnover rates. The issue of reducing turnover was particularly relevant to this study as statistics have indicated that the automotive group under study faced a huge challenge in this regard.

1.7 Research Design

1.7.1 Research approach

A quantitative research approach was employed to collect empirical data for the hypothesis testing for this study. Furthermore, many studies on turnover and

resignation had previously used a similar approach (Ghapanchi & Aurum, 2011) which this research replicated in order to fulfil its research aims.

One of the main advantages of approaching research quantitatively is that statistical data can be used as a time and resource-saving tool (Eyisi, 2016). Bryman (2001) argued that a quantitative approach emphasises the objective nature of numbers in the collection and analysis of data, therefore making the research more scientific in nature. Eyisi (2016) also stated that if data is collected and analysed using scientifically-backed methods, generalisation becomes easily possible where the interpretation of the research findings can be considered as more than just mere coincidence. The opportunity to engage in replicable research is another benefit derived from quantitative studies, therefore, the current research could be repeated with almost identical results over time (Shank & Brown, 2007).

In addition to this study being quantitative in nature, a non-experimental, cross-sectional, predictive, survey-based design was employed. The data gathered from the survey was analysed to be able to generalise the findings from the chosen sample to the population, within the limits of random error (Bartlett, Kotrlik & Higgins, 2001). Salkind (2012) indicated that this type of research design is appropriate to “sample behaviours, cognitions and affect at a current moment in time.” Moreover, this type of predictive design was ideally suited to investigate the relationship between the variables under study (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister & Zechmeister, 2003).

1.7.2 Research method.

1.7.2.1 Research participants.

The target population’s size was 665 employees and consisted of Sales Managers (new and pre-owned) in addition to Aftersales Managers (Parts, Service and Workshop), employed across the Audi and Volkswagen brands, within the Volkswagen Group South Africa. The specific sample comprised 40% of each managerial category, that is, Sales (new and pre-owned), Parts, Service and Workshop who were randomly selected from the total population of Sales and Aftersales managers.

According to the competency profiling sessions conducted by SHL (2018) the main job responsibilities were identified for each of the Sales (new and pre-owned) and Aftersales (Parts, Service and Workshop) managers:

- The Sales Manager (new and pre-owned) is responsible for developing strategies, objectives and action plans to increase business and ensure that maximum profitability and sales volume targets are achieved and exceeded. Furthermore the Sales Manager (new and pre-owned) leads, manages and develops a team of sales executives.
- The Parts Manager's primary role is to profitably manage the Parts Department through effective planning, purchasing procedures, accurate inventory control, HR related issues, security, pricing, merchandising, displaying, advertising, internal and external customer services.
- The Service Manager's functionality entails managing the Service Department and the vehicle repair and vehicle service processes from front to end. This is usually achieved through driving cost, efficiencies, profitability, staffing, customer services, best workshop operating practices and time allocation controls.
- The Workshop Manager is responsible for the productivity and efficiency of the Service Department in addition to ensuring the profitability of the department.

When considering a sampling methodology, a stratified, random, convenient sampling method was used, where the judgment of the researcher was relied upon to make sure that the identified dealerships adequately represented the target population. In doing so, important sources of variation in the population were identified prior to selecting the sample that was reflective of this variation. The advantage of using this sampling technique was that it provided the researcher with the opportunity to make theoretical, analytic and logical generalisations from the sample surveyed (Sharma, 2017). Considering that stratified random sampling is a type of probability sampling, Babbie and Mouton (2001) emphasised that 1) researcher bias is eliminated, 2) the laws of mathematical probability are applied to estimate the accuracy of the sample as well as the limits and 3) population generalisability is understood. Furthermore, according to Burger and Silima (2006) this design is appropriate when one wants to obtain an adequately sized sample of a group that is only a small proportion of the targeted population.

The final sample consisted of approximately 270 managers. According to Bartlett, Kotrlik and Higgins (2001) this was considered more than adequate, given that the

population size was 665 and that categorical data was utilised with a 0.05 margin of error.

1.7.3 Measuring instruments.

The 6-item Intrinsic Work-Motivation scale, which was initially developed by Kuvaas (2006) and later revised by Kuvaas and Dysvik (2009), was used to measure participants' intrinsic motivation. Respondents were asked to rate themselves according to a 5-point rating scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree on statements such as "the tasks that I do at work are themselves representing a driving power in my job" and "the tasks that I do at work are enjoyable". This measure was chosen as it tapped into the main aspects of the construct definition offered by Deci, Connell and Ryan (1989) and has been proven to have average internal consistency reliability (Cronbach alpha) of 0.89 (Kuvaas et al., 2017).

Dysvik, Kuvaas and Gagné's (2013) 4-item scale assessed extrinsic motivation whereby the measure explored the degree to which work motivation was dependent on tangible incentives being offered. Respondents were asked to rate themselves according to a 5-point rating scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree on statements such as "if I am supposed to put in extra effort into my job, I need extra pay" and "it is important for me to have an external incentive to strive for in order to do a good job." The average internal consistency reliability of the extrinsic motivation measure was reported as $\alpha=.74$ (Kuvaas et al., 2017). In line with Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), acceptable internal consistency coefficients range from $\alpha=.73$ to $\alpha=.94$.

The well-known, self-report Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9), developed as a shorter version of the UWES-17 was utilised to measure managers' vigour, absorption and dedication as an indication of their engagement. The correlated three-factor model of the UWES-9 has much theoretical support (Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli, 2005; Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006) and therefore was selected for this study.

Factor analysis has revealed that the three key components strongly support the robustness of the UWES-9, allowing for deeper insights into employees' motivation to be obtained when used in conjunction with other instruments (Martin, 2017). Hence, Martin (2017) justified the use of the UWES-9 as a suitable employee engagement measure. The scale comprised 9 items (3 items per facet) which were rated on a 6-

point Likert scale varying from 0 (never) to 6 (always). Sample questions to which respondents answered were: “at my work, I feel bursting with energy” and “my job inspires me”. From a construct validity perspective, the UWES-9 has been shown to have statistically significant psychometric properties, with internal consistency reliabilities higher than $\alpha=.80$ across 10 countries, including samples from South Africa (Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova, 2006).

The shortened version of the Turnover Intentions Scale developed by Roodt (2004) consist of 6 items and measures the degree to which employees are considering leaving their jobs. Respondents were asked to rate themselves according to a 5-point rating scale on statements such as “how often have you considered leaving your job?” and “how likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?” Both Jacobs (2005) and Martin (2007) found Roodt’s (2004) scale to be both reliable ($\alpha=.91$ and $\alpha=.90$ respectively), in line with Nunnaly and Bernstein’s (1994) recommendations, as well as being factually valid.

1.7.4 Research procedure and ethical considerations.

In order to obtain the necessary data, the Sales Managers (new and pre-owned), in addition to the Aftersales Managers (Parts, Service and Workshop) were emailed a questionnaire (Annexure A), containing separate sections on biographical information, motivation, employee engagement and turnover intention. The reason for primarily including managers in the research sample was due to the fact that they remain employed at the same dealership for a longer length of time as opposed to the non-managerial staff, where turnover is high, thus adversely influencing the return rate of the survey questionnaire. A maximum period of one month was allocated for completion. The questionnaires were subsequently collated by the researcher, where after the responses were analysed.

The research was conducted in line with Creswell’s (2014) ethical framework suggestions, which indicated that all participants need to provide informed consent for the study, the researcher needs to take all necessary precautions to protect participants’ identities and allow them to withdraw from the study at any time. An informed consent form (Annexure B) was emailed to all participants of the intended sample.

Other ethical considerations included:

- The appropriate Research Ethics Committee at UNISA provided the researcher with ethical clearance to conduct this study prior to any data being collected. Ethical clearance was also obtained from the automotive group and permission granted from the Training Manager of the company for employees to participate in the research study.
- Permission to use the measuring scales for motivation, employee engagement and turnover intention was sought from the various developers.
- Employees were informed about the purpose of the research and that their participation was voluntary.
- A cover letter that explained the purpose of the research, the procedures that would be followed, potential benefits of the study, participant's right to confidentiality and anonymity, as well as participation and withdrawal options.
- Data was only shared with people who had authorised access, thereby ensuring the protection of respondents' identities.

1.7.5 Statistical analyses.

IBM SPSS version 25 (IBM SPSS, version 25, 2017) was used to conduct the statistical analyses for this study.

The data analysis commenced by calculating and interpreting the descriptive statistics of the sample, by determining the frequencies, means and standard deviations for each subscale of the variables under study. The individual item ratings for each subscale were ranked in descending mean score order as rated by the participants to further enhance result interpretation.

This was followed by a range of inferential analyses. First, the internal consistency reliabilities for each of the scales were calculated (Wadkar, Singh, Chakravarty & Argade, 2016). The Pearson Product-Moment correlations then determined the direction and strength of the relationships between the variables of motivation, employee engagement and turnover intention. The level of confidence was set at 95% ($p \leq 0.05$) to significantly reduce any chances of type I errors. Cohen's (1992)

guidelines were referred to interpret each correlation's practical significance: $r \leq .10$ (small); $r \leq .30$ (moderate); and $r \geq .50$ (large).

A multiple linear regression was run to identify whether extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation and work engagement significantly predicted turnover intention. Finally, independent sample t-tests, ANOVA's and non-parametric correlations were performed to explore whether any relationships existed between the constructs and the demographic variables.

1.8 Discussion of Results

The results were reported without referring to the identities of the managers or Dealerships to maintain confidentiality towards the respondents. Secondly, the discussion of the results aligned with the hypotheses either being accepted or rejected, according to the findings of the data analyses. An attempt was also made to provide explanations for the findings supported by the literature review, where prior conclusions and trends have been documented.

1.9 Chapter Layout

1.9.1 Chapter 1: Scientific orientation of the research.

This chapter laid the foundation of this research study. It commenced with a brief introduction and provided the background and motivation for the study as well as the overall research process followed.

1.9.2 Chapter 2: Literature review.

Chapter 2 provides a thorough theoretical background on the variables under study by giving attention to the historical examination and definition of each variable. It also includes conclusions from previous research and emphasises the relationships between the constructs as found in existing literature. The literature has been used to motivate the importance of research being done on this topic and how the current study contributes to existing research.

1.9.3 Chapter 3: Research article.

Chapter 3 will outline the operational aspects of the study by discussing the research design, the specific methodology employed, ethical considerations, an analysis of the results, and a summary of the findings in a research article format.

1.9.4 Chapter 4: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations.

Lastly, Chapter 4 will discuss the conclusions drawn, limitations of the study and the recommendations provided to both the organisation as well as for further research.

Chapter Two

2.1. Introduction

From as early as the 20th century, scholars and practitioners were convinced that external motivating factors such as rewards, punishment, external controls and incentives were needed to ensure that employees performed optimally, persevered, and remained productive (Heath, 1999; Steers, Mowday & Shapiro, 2004). However, the birth of a new human relations movement gave rise to an alternative perspective of what motivates employees (Steers et al., 2004). Scholars considered the possibility of work being inherently engrossing and fun (Herzberg, 1964; McGregor, 1957), and as a consequence, today there exists a variety of theories aimed at understanding the dynamics of intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation.

The researcher has chosen to expound on Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory as it provides a conceptual framework for understanding intrinsic and extrinsic motivation within the context of the current study. Furthermore Mapolisa (2015) indicated that Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory is one of the most popular motivation theories that exist. It has also been used extensively in various studies related to employees' behaviour (Tims, Derks & Bakker, 2016). According to the theory, the fundamental constructs are valence, instrumentality, and expectancy. Vroom (1964) firstly described valence as the perceived value of the rewards to the recipient; secondly instrumentality was seen as the belief that one's performance will be rewarded and finally expectancy was categorised as the belief that one's effort will result in performance.

Expectancy theory therefore sheds light on the behaviour of employees, in that, employees demonstrate positive job performance when they perceive that their work outcomes produce specific rewards. In addition, expectancy theory suggests that motivation is an extrinsic factor, since it makes the claim that employees will perform an activity only if they have an expectation of either obtaining positive consequences (e.g., monetary reward) or escaping negative consequences (e.g. avoiding dismissal) (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In support of expectancy theory, Kanfer, Frese, and Johnson (2017) asserted that, when employees perceive that goal accomplishment produces intrinsic or extrinsic outcomes, employees adopt organisational-desired work goals, which increases employee retention.

Based on expectancy theory, it can be argued that employees will tend to increase their efforts at work when the reward has more personal value to them (Mulder, 2018). Hence the challenge for organisations will be to determine which rewards employees' value and which rewards motivate them. Mulder (2018) state that organisations often consider financial bonuses to be the best way to motivate employees, although expectancy theory has not shown that financial reward is necessarily the most important factor to employees. Furthermore, some economists have explained that managers who choose incentive schemes impair employees' perception of their tasks and abilities in the long term (Jungin, 2018). Hence, a proper balance should be struck between offering a financial bonus and setting a clear performance standard, tailored to individual employees.

2.2 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

In the past, the field of psychology had based a person's motivation off of two factors: the first being for the individual's need for survival and procreation, and the second was derived from extrinsic rewards as well as punishments (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000). It was then subsequently discovered that there was another reason for an individual performing certain acts. At this juncture, reference was therefore made to motivation emanating from within an individual, where an individual aspires to meet internal needs, and this was termed "intrinsic motivation" (Snelgar, Shelton & Giesser, 2017). The concept of motivation has also gradually evolved in management literature with a deeper focus on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and motivators (Singh, 2016). For these reasons, this research will focus on two main categories of motivation, namely intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Despite intrinsic and extrinsic motivation being different concepts, an employee can be both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated (Jungin, 2018). However, if employees believe that the offering of external rewards is a way for employers to coerce and control them, they may actually find the workplace more stressful, resulting in them being less engaged in the task at hand (Robbins & Judge, 2014).

2.2.1 Intrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic motivation has been typically defined as “the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 56), in contrast to completing tasks for some outward outcome, such as external rewards or recognition. When intrinsically motivated, a person is moved to act for the fun, challenge, enjoyment, interest, novelty, and aesthetic value (Jungin, 2018). According to White (1959) intrinsic motivation appears to have its roots in animal behaviour, where it was discovered that many organisms engage in exploratory, playful, and curiosity-driven behaviours even in the absence of reinforcement or reward. These spontaneous behaviours are also displayed by humans, from the onset of birth, where the behavioural observations include being active, inquisitive, curious, and playful (Ryan & Deci, 2000b) Furthermore, Ryan and Deci (2000b) have claimed that this readiness to learn and explore, is not influenced by extraneous incentives but through an individual’s inherent interests which enables one to grow in knowledge and skills.

Lee, Reeve, Xue and Xiong (2012) found that individuals who experience intrinsic motivation undergo an intense psychological process which stem from deep-rooted feelings, thereby resulting in a complex neurophysiological activity. Later research undertaken by Singh (2016) concluded that intrinsic motivators are psychological feelings employees experience when they engage in meaningful work and perform it well. In recent times, Ryan and Deci (2017) asserted that intrinsic motivation gives rise to a strong valuation of personal investment and engagement. Throughout the last three decades, intrinsic motivation has had a positive impact of on creativity and innovation which has been considered critical for an organisation to maintain its competitive advantage (Anderson, Potoènik & Zhou, 2014). In another study by Kuvaas, Buch, Weibel, Dysvik and Nerstad (2017) internal motivation was found to affect performance more than extrinsic motivation. Nevertheless, Kuvaas et al. (2017) still found extrinsic motivation to also act as a key determinant of performance, especially when there is little intrinsic motivation or when measuring results and outcomes are relatively easy. Similarly, Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford (2014) concluded that high employee performance was a result of employees being autonomously motivated towards their work. After four decades of research, meta-analytical evidence

has demonstrated that autonomous motivation not only influences work performance, but also performance within academic and physical domains (Cerasoli et al., 2014).

After considering other research findings, McKnight, Phillips and Hardgrave (2009) concluded that intrinsically motivating job characteristics such as task identity, significance, skill variety, autonomy and feedback produce positive outcomes such as job satisfaction and job performance. Renard and Snelgar (2014) have also found that employees who are intrinsically motivated are also more engaged at work.

Furthermore, the influence of intrinsic motivation may be diminished by the effects of extrinsic motivations, such as social demands, roles, and pressures, due to employees accepting to be accountable for extrinsically boring and pressured tasks; this is especially the case of highly extrinsically motivated employees (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). After conducting 128 experiments, Ryan and Deci (2000b) concluded that palpable, material rewards appear to negatively affect intrinsic motivation quite substantively. In response to this conclusion, Pink (2009) countered that the intrinsic elements of autonomy, mastery and purpose influence workforce motivation more than extrinsic monetary rewards.

Zaman, Nas, Ahmed, Raja & Marri (2013) proposed that being intrinsically motivated does not imply that employees do not seek external rewards, but rather that external rewards alone are not adequate to maintain motivation. Delaney and Royal (2017) in their normative data study found that individuals high on intrinsic and low on extrinsic motivation are most likely to experience tension and become disengaged with their work or withdraw from the organisation altogether.

2.2.2 Extrinsic motivation.

Locke and Schattke (2019) defined extrinsic motivation as a “means-end relationship” where an individual does something in order to obtain some future value. Whilst Snelgar, Shelton and Giesser (2017) asserted that extrinsic motivation comes from sources outside of the person, Rheinberg and Engeser (2018) have disagreed with this viewpoint. Instead the authors have concluded that ‘extrinsic’ relates to outside the task as it pertains to the value a chosen activity can lead to. Hence extrinsic motivation thus contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, rather than its instrumental value (Ryan & Deci, 2000b).

Extrinsic rewards are usually tangible and include incentives such as salary, benefits, bonuses and promotions (Qayyum & Sukirno, 2012). Thomas (2009) postulated that these external rewards are likely seen to adequately compensate for the unfulfilling, boring nature of the task at hand.

According to Miserandino (1996), if employees are self-determined by internalising and integrating externally motivated tasks, they have the capacity to improve their psychological well-being, work performance and work engagement. Alternatively, if extrinsic motivators are incorrectly managed and implemented, employees may shift their focus towards financial gain only (Snelgar et al., 2017). This shift in focus has been proven by Zobel (1999) to give rise to undesirable effects in employees, such as a decline in confidence or a sense of demotivation, especially if their targets are not attained. Similarly, Ryan and Connell (1989) previously concluded that if employees are motivated and inspired solely by extrinsic factors, there is typically also a decline in the interest and enjoyment they show towards their work. The conclusion arrived at by Mundhra and Jacob (2011) therefore holds true, that extrinsic motivation tends to be short-lived since it only lasts as long as the external factors are present. Moreover, extrinsic motivators place the focus on earning prizes and recognition, rather than emphasising the importance of doing the actual task at hand well (Singh, 2016).

2.2.3 Relationships between motivation and demographic variables.

2.2.3.1 Age differences and motivation.

According to Heyns and Kerr (2018), there is some conflicting literature on the topic of whether generations have opposing views on what can be considered as meaningful motivational drivers. Empirical evidence has however suggested that as employees age, their intrinsic work motivation increases whilst their extrinsic motivation decreases (Kooij, De Lange, Jansen, Kanfer & Dikkers, 2011; De Lange, Bal, Van der Heiden, De Jong & Schaufeli, 2011). More recently, Millennials were found to have both higher intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as well as the lowest amotivation from all generation groups (Heyns & Kerr, 2018). In studies conducted by Truxillo (2009) and Inceoglu, Bartram and Segers (2012) it was evident that older individuals (individuals 50–59 and 60+) were more intrinsically motivated rather than extrinsically. In somewhat of a contradiction, Govender and Parumasur (2010) found that employees aged 41–50 years ranked economic rewards as one of the most satisfying motivators, more so

than those aged 26–30 years. Additionally employees aged 18–20 years were found to be the least happy with economic rewards.

Heyns and Kerr (2018) found a significant positive correlation when they examined correlations between age groups and intrinsic motivation, however, the same could not be said for extrinsic motivation. A prior study by Smith (2010) determined that different generations find different rewards motivating since they are guided by distinct values and influenced by particular external circumstances. From this conclusion, Grobler, Wörnich, Carell, Elbert and Hatfield (2011) suggested that strategies aimed at motivating and rewarding employees should be cognizant of these group differences in the workplace. However, when examining employee reward preferences, Snelgar, Renard and Venter (2013) inferred that younger employees had less of a preference for base and variable pay compared to more matured staff members.

2.2.3.2 Gender differences and motivation.

The findings of Snelgar et al (2017), Stettes and Zimmerman (2013) confirm that females are generally more intrinsically motivated than males. Additionally, whilst South Africa females showed higher levels of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation when compared to German females, these results were not statistically significant (Snelgar et al., 2017). Studies undertaken by Govender and Parumarsur (2010) revealed that male and female employees may perceive work differently, given that significant variations in intrinsic satisfaction and social relationship sub-dimension scores of motivation were observed. It was also asserted that men likely value instrumental motivators, such as salary and bonuses, more than women, who typically tend to perceive workplace interpersonal relationships, respect from employers, and work life-family life balance more important than external factors.

2.2.3.3 Culture differences and motivation.

As indicated above, Snelgar et al (2017) found that South Africans valued intrinsic motivation over extrinsic motivation, unlike their German counterparts. Previous research undertaken by Nujjoo and Meyer (2012) has also concurred that South Africans are typically less extrinsically, and rather more intrinsically motivated.

2.3 Employee Engagement

The term “employee engagement” is often interchangeable with “work engagement”, which has been defined as “an employee’s multi-domain state (i.e., cognitive, emotional, and behavioural) which is directed toward expected organisational performance-related outcomes” (Shuck & Wollard, 2010). Similarly, Shaheen and Farooqi (2014) opined that employee engagement is made of three key components: cognitive, physical and emotional. Allen (2014) added that employees may be considered as being highly engaged at work if they exhibit higher levels of all three facets. In yet another definition offered by Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá and Bakker (2002, p. 74) work engagement is “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption”. Recently, the definition of employee engagement has been extended to include a sense of stimulation and energy experienced by employees while carrying out their work tasks (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006), whilst Mone and London (2010, p.17) stated that “someone who feels involved, committed, passionate and empowered and demonstrates those feelings in work behaviour” are characteristic of an engaged employee.

Employee engagement has also characterised by three dimensions, namely vigour, dedication and absorption. Firstly vigour refers to the willingness to invest effort, low fatigue, high levels of energy and resilience and persistence in the face of difficulties (Bakker, 2011; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Secondly, Bakker (2011) and Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) defined dedication as the sense of significance an individual derives from doing their job, a feeling of pride and enthusiasm about work, feeling challenged and inspired at work. In addition, individuals with high dedication have been said to identify strongly with their work and to experience it as being meaningful, challenging and inspiring. Finally absorption referred to the feeling of being totally and happily immersed in work, often finding it difficult to detach from work (Bakker, 2011; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003). Furthermore, Bakker (2011) claimed that employees with high absorption are happily engrossed in their work and demonstrate the ability to fully concentrate on the task at hand.

Based on the definitions provided on employee engagement and the explanation of the three dimensions of the construct, it can be suggested that employee engagement

should be a key influencer that motivates and facilitates individual employees to approach work tasks with more energy, dedication and captivation, which ultimately would enhance their performance-related outcomes. Furthermore the terms 'work engagement' and 'employee engagement' seem to be closely aligned with Shuck, Nimon and Zigarmi (2017) referring to employees who wholeheartedly associate with others for the service of work they are preoccupied with, displaying their thoughts and feelings, creativity, beliefs and values, and interpersonal relationships with others. Such engaged employees embrace their roles physically, cognitively and emotionally, feeling personally involved in work accomplishments (Buitendach, Bobat, Muzvidziwa & Kanengoni, 2016). Additionally, Kim (2014) found supportive evidence that suggests that a variety of organisational outcomes, such as job and financial performance, turnover intention, customer satisfaction, profit, safety, physical and mental health are influenced by work engagement. Moreover, Vilnai-Yavetz and Levina (2018) asserted that it is likely that employees will engage and be motivated by their work and offered incentives if they are provided with the resources and support required to complete their work.

2.3.1 Levels of engagement.

Naidoo, Abarantyne and Rugimbana (2019) hypothesise that engagement levels internationally are not very high, which is why worldwide, economies are paying for the consequences of active disengagement. The empirical Gallup (2013) survey revealed that under 36% of employees worldwide are actually engaged with their jobs. The remaining 64% have indicated that they are either actively disengaged, meaning that they may behave in a troublesome, unfavourable manner towards the organisation, or just neutral, showing little concern towards organisational activities (Bhattacharya, 2015; Gallup, 2013). The Gallup survey (2013) further indicated that South African employees boast the highest percentage of active disengagement globally, with only 9% of employees indicating that they are engaged with their work; 46% of employees indicated that they were neutral towards their work and a staggering 45% admitted to being actively disengaged in the workplaces.

2.3.2 Relationships between employee engagement and demographic variables.

2.3.2.1 Age differences and employee engagement.

Generally, there seems to be a consensus that age is an important consideration when measuring employee engagement however the literature has yielded contradictory results regarding these two variables. Some studies have concluded that mature employees tend to be more engaged with their work than their younger or middle-aged contemporaries (James, McKechnie, & Swanberg, 2011; Pitt-Catsouphes & Matz-Costa, 2008; Rana & Chopra, 2019). More specifically, Mostert and Els (2013) observed that older employees experience significantly higher levels of dedication than younger workers. Conversely Avery, McKay and Wilson (2007) and Robinson, Hooker and Hayday (2007) suggested an inverse association between age and employee engagement describing that engagement levels to be highest with employees who are younger. They explained that as the age of employee increases, their engagement levels begin to decline. On the other hand, research findings by Hakeem and Gulzar (2015), Albdour and Altarawneh (2014) and Mani (2011) identified no significant differences in the engagement level of employees based upon the differences in the age groups.

2.3.2.2 Gender differences and employee engagement.

In recent times, women have increasingly been occupying roles in professional positions and this had led to social scientists, psychologists, and employers re-evaluating the changing status of women in addition to how they experience their work. Previous studies on gender differences provided inconsistent findings. Firstly a weak but vague relationship was found between work engagement and gender (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). Secondly, other research has revealed no relationship between gender and employee engagement (Chaudhary & Rangnekar, 2017; Hakeem & Gulzar, 2015; Lee & Eissenstat, 2018; & Yadav, 2016). Along with this, Reissová, Šimsová, and Hášová (2017) study proved that gender differences are not related to employee engagement levels in blue-collar occupations in the automotive industry. Finally, some differences were noted between gender and employee engagement. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) concluded that males had significantly higher levels of dedication and absorption scores than women on the Utrecht Work

Engagement Scale (UWES). Contrary to these findings, female employees were seen to be more dedicated towards their jobs than male employees while male employees showed higher scores on the dimensions of vigour and absorption than their female counterparts (Kong, 2009).

Schaufeli and Bakker's (2004) study indicated that farmers and managers generally exhibit high scores on all subscales of the UWES, and blue-collar workers and physicians typically scoring the lowest. These results also showed that home care workers were more vigorous and dedicated, while military police officers demonstrated very little dedication and absorption by their work, even though they displayed moderate vigour.

2.3.2.3 Culture differences and employee engagement.

In South Africa diversity is a prominent concept as various individuals work together to perform organisational tasks and goals (Patel, 2014). Furthermore Patel (2014) posited the workplace has become more multicultural over the years and even operate on a global scale. In light of recent organisational trends, a demand has been placed on senior leaders to manage diversity and engage the various ethnic groups so as to facilitate participation and involvement that translates into organisational effectiveness (Mazibuko & Govender, 2017). According to the literature reviewed on ethnic or racial differences in relation to employee engagement, prior research found no significant differences in the experience of employee engagement amongst different racial groups (Bakken and Holzemer, 2000; Salamonson, Andrew & Everett, 2009). More recently, however, Boikanyo and Heyns (2019) undertook to investigate the effect of work engagement on the total quality management practices in a petrochemical organisation. The authors discovered that the mixed race group emerged as being most engaged, followed by the Indian participants while the Black participants were the least engaged. Furthermore the ANOVA results showed a significant difference on the dimension of Absorption on the Utrecht Work Engagement scale. Additionally, Patel (2014) examined race differences across the divisions of the retail group. He concluded that White employees ranked as the most engaged, followed by Indian and Coloureds, while Black employees rated as the least engaged.

2.4 Turnover Intention

Turnover intention of employees has been defined as the likelihood of an employee to leave the current job which he or she is responsible for (Ngamkroeckjoti, Ounprechavanit & Thongdee Kijboonchoo, 2012). Furthermore a distinction has been made between voluntary and involuntary turnover. Perez (2008) posited that voluntary turnovers resulted in significant cost, both in terms of direct cost, such as replacement, or in terms of indirect cost, such as the pressure on remaining staff or the loss of social capital. On the other hand, Belete (2018) referred to involuntary turnover as the decision taken by management to force an employee to leave the organisation.

Past research undertaken by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) and Igbaria and Greenhaus (1992) understood intentions to be the best predictor of actual behaviour. Other studies dating back from the late '70s into the early '90s have illustrated a consistent positive correlation between employee's intentions to resign and actual turnover behaviour. Jungin (2018) recently stated that turnover intention theory is focused on behavioural intentions to resign or remain in a job and confirmed that employee's journey through a number of phases when making this decision, with intentions adequately predicting actual turnover behaviour. Within the last 50 years, many articles have been published on voluntary turnover intention (Naidoo, 2018) with a multitude of root causes being identified, such as stress (Moore & Burke, 2002) support at work (Erturk, 2014) and job dissatisfaction (Rigotti, 2009).

George (2015) found that important organisational level turnover intention factors for professional workers are issues such as the style of management, engaging workplace experiences, access to sufficient resources, a sense of flexibility, teamwork and the opportunity for growth by means of skills development or career advancement. At job level, independence, workload decision flexibility, transparency and fairness in pay, opportunities for employees to craft their jobs and space to allow for work-life balance are important.

In a local study undertaken by Bester, Stander and Van Zyl (2015) the main findings were that employees' intention to resign from organisations can be predicted from 1) how employees perceive empowering leader behaviours (holding them responsible, autonomous decision-making and encouraging staff development), 2) their own psychological empowerment and 3) behaviours indicative of organisational

citizenship, such as loyalty, deviant behaviour and participation. Of greater importance to the present study is Muteswa and Ortlepp (2011), who discovered that if certain intrinsic motivators are absent, such as perceiving work as challenging and having the freedom to make decisions and act on them, South African managers' are more likely to have intentions of resigning.

For the field of human resource management, turnover continues to be a relevant and significant challenge where turnover intention theory, assists to conceptualise this phenomenon (Robison 2010; Vance, Vaiman & Andersen 2009).

2.4.1 Consequences of turnover.

When employees actually leave an organisation, the consequences can be far-reaching and particularly severe for roles where a prerequisite for successful work performance is experienced in similar profiles (Allen, Bryant & Vardaman 2010). Researchers have highlighted the significant costs associated with turnover (Bothma, 2011) where the largest burden seems to be related to the costs incurred when recruiting for a replacement (Cascio & Boudreau, 2008). Allen et al (2010) supported this finding, however they also documented other costs pertaining to the turnover phenomenon, such as lost productivity, lost labour time and, at least whilst they are still learning what is expected of them in their new role, reduced productivity of the new hire. The training and development investments made by an organisation are also lost when employees eventually act on their intention to leave (Mello, 2011). Previous studies undertaken by Cascio and Boudreau (2008) have suggested that overall turnover costs range from 90% to 200% of the resigning employee's wage.

In addition to the above turnover consequences, organisational knowledge is lost, customer satisfaction declines and ultimately, profits are reduced. The issue of reduced profit stems from the loss of overall productivity owing to excessive employee turnover, which is often symptomatic of other dilemmas that the organisation is faced with (Iqbal, 2010). Less research has been done on the emotional effects of the intention to resign and actual turnover, however, Allen et al. (2010) have claimed that not only is replacement expensive, but remaining employees are also disrupted and demoralised by these changes.

2.4.2 Relationships between turnover intention and demographic variables.

2.4.2.1 Age differences and turnover intention.

In their meta-analysis, Cotton and Tuttle (1986) determined that age correlated negatively to employee turnover. More recent findings highlight the negative, yet significant relationship between age and employees intentions to leave (Harris, Andrews & Kacmar, 2007; Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; Rothrauff, Abraham, Bride & Roman, 2011).

Within the South African context, it was concluded that employees aged 50 years or older were less likely to have intentions of resigning from their positions, suggesting that older staff members may be more reluctant to resign due to the struggles associated with finding new employment (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2013). Schlechter, Syce and Bussin (2016) also found that the intention to resign increased with age amongst the younger employees (under 35 years), who were also more likely to actually leave than older workers.

2.4.2.2 Gender differences and turnover intention.

Several studies appear to support the moderating influence of gender in prediction models for turnover intention (Burke, Koyuncu & Fiksenbaum, 2008; Coyne & Ong, 2007; Harris et al., 2007; Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009). According to Almer and Kaplan (2002) men displayed higher depersonalisation levels than women, which enhances their turnover intention. However, within the South African context, Du Plooy and Roodt (2013) found no differences in gender and turnover intention, thereby contradicting previous studies. The most plausible explanation for the results obtained by Du Plooy and Roodt (2013) was that both genders are exposed to the same work environments and stimuli and therefore no differences in responses should be expected.

2.4.2.3 Racial differences and turnover intention.

Du Plooy and Roodt (2013) found that racial category did act as a moderator in the prediction model for turnover intention. These findings confirmed previous studies by Fang (2001) and Harris et al (2007). There is also research that supports the idea that previously disadvantaged groups exhibited higher job mobility (Jacobs, 2005; Thomas, 2002; Vallabh & Donald, 2001).

2.5 Relationships between the Variables under Study

2.5.1 Motivation and employee engagement.

Jungin's (2018) study inadvertently hypothesises a direct relationship between motivation and job involvement that can be accepted as employee engagement, since it considers the synchronised investments made by employees with all their available energy. International studies by Rich, Lepine and Crawford (2010) build on Kahn's research, which suggests that employees who are emotionally connected to their jobs are highly motivated, highly disengaged staff members suppress their emotional energies and as such, may appear mechanical, inactive and unconnected.

International research conducted by Tang and Tang (2012) highlighted that employee engagement influenced employee participation. Highly engaged employees expressed more willingness to communicate with their leaders and organisations to improve the service quality of their organisations (Tang & Tang, 2012).

An empirical engagement study conducted by Putra, Cho and Liu (2015) within the hospitality industry reported that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are significant factors affecting workforce engagement. This study also suggested that if the work environment could be made more comfortable, with more meaningful jobs, employees' intrinsic motivation would increase and ultimately lead to increased staff engagement (Putra et al., 2015).

Specific studies connecting intrinsic motivation to employee engagement have drawn from Herzberg's (1968) sentiment that interesting, challenging work is likely to motivate employees and increase their acceptance of responsibility and encourage personal work achievements. Along this line of thought, within the South African context, the work undertaken by Amabile and Kramer (2011) identified that when employees felt content and positive about their work-life, they tended to display more creativity and productivity, implying intrinsic motivation towards one's work and positive regard toward co-workers and the organisation broadly. These intrinsic factors have been found to resonate with employee's needs to develop, succeed, progress

and find meaning in their tasks and the organisation (Amabile & Kramer, 2011; Thomas, 2002).

Another local study reported on by Rothmann and Rothmann (2010) highlighted the importance of extrinsic motivational factors such as organisational support and growth opportunities, which were found to be the best predictors of vigour, dedication and absorption when pinning down employee engagement.

Rothmann and Welsh's (2013) research investigated the external motivators such as rewards, recognition and organisational support, which was found to contribute to employee engagement, just not as the psychological characteristics of meaningfulness and availability. Meintjes and Hofmeyr (2018) later concurred that workforce engagement in competitive sales environments were influenced by perceived corporate support. Furthermore, Rothmann and Rothmann (2010) added that the best predictor of employee engagement was the perception of employees doing meaningful work. More recently, Renard and Snelgar (2017) deduced that intrinsic rewards do not increase levels of employee engagement directly, even though they correlate positively with intrinsic motivation and work engagement. However, increased intrinsic motivation was due to intrinsic rewards, which resulted in a decrease in employees' intention to resign and increased engagement (Renard & Snelgar, 2017).

2.5.2 Relationships between motivation and turnover intention.

Jungin's (2018) international public sector studies highlighted that turnover intentions of public employees were only negatively, yet significantly correlated to intrinsic motivation, whilst there was no significant relationship with extrinsic motivation. On closer inspection of the findings, it was apparent that when local revenue officers were content with their future work opportunities as well as education and training possibilities, they tended not to leave their current organisations (Kim, 2018).

Still, within the international arena, job autonomy and intrinsic work motivation were examined by Galletta, Portoghese and Battistelli (2011) to understand how these variables influenced work commitment and mediated attrition amongst nurses in Italy. The results indicate that the nurses felt an increased sense of identity and connection to work when provided with the opportunity and independence to craft their own work activities, diminishing their intentions to resign (Galletta, et al., 2011). Employees who

were intrinsically motivated also felt attached to their work, which also correlated negatively with turnover intention. Galletta et al (2011) emphasised that practically, there is a relationship between job autonomy and positive moods and outlooks at work, implying that a key organisational strategy that should be implemented to maintain low attrition rates is the sustenance of independent, motivated, and dedicated employees.

Local studies have also focused on intrinsic motivation and its influence on turnover intention. Recent research undertaken by Renard and Snelgar (2017) confirmed that intentions to resign decreased when intrinsic rewards and motivation increased. When examining intrinsic rewards in greater detail, Muteswa and Ortlepp (2011) found that when challenging work and autonomy were not present in the work environment, it influenced managers' resignation intentions. Similarly, Preenen, De Pater, Van Vianen and Keijzer (2011) demonstrated that when employees were given challenging assignments, their turnover intentions decreased. This is supported by Walters's (1975) early findings which stated that turnover is a direct result of meaningless work and the failure of employers to grow employees adequately according to their needs.

2.5.3 Employee engagement and turnover intention.

To ensure employees are retained, their resignation intentions need to be eliminated, with employment engagement proposed as a solution (Harter et al., 2002; Shuck et al., 2011; Slatten & Mehmetoglu, 2011). Furthermore, staff with higher turnover intentions have been argued as having lower levels of engagement (Harter et al., 2002; Shuck, Reio & Rocco, 2011). Alarcon and Edwards (2011) found that job satisfaction and turnover intentions were predicted by employee engagement.

The relationship between work engagement and turnover intentions is therefore empirically established (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004); with multiple studies finding turnover intentions to correlate negatively with engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; Park & Gursoy, 2012; Robyn & Du Preez, 2013; Shacklock, Brunetto, Teo & Farr-Wharton, 2014).

In South Africa, Bothma and Roodt (2013) identified that participant scores on the Turnover Intention Scale were significantly related to job engagement, work-role identity, burnout, helping behaviour, work alienation and task performance, confirming previous studies linking resignation intentions with actual engagement with work

(Bakker & Demerouti, 2006; Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2000; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2001; 2004). Other local studies on turnover intention have suggested that inadequate compensation was the strongest contributor of employees intending to resign, followed by perceived work-life imbalance, a lack of career advancement opportunities and insufficient supervisor support (Dhanpat, Modau, Lugisani, MaboJane & Phiri, 2018).

2.6 Conclusion

The literature discussed above makes it apparent that workplace engagement is a significant predictor of employees' intentions to resign from an organisation and further links to reduced absenteeism rates and increased productivity, profitability and customer loyalty (Gallup, 2013). As such, it is evident that workforce engagement needs to be addressed as a strategic priority to guarantee ceaseless business success.

Chapter Three Research Article

Orientation: The aim of this study was to explore the relationships between motivation, employee engagement and turnover intentions amongst a sample of managers in the automotive industry in South Africa.

Research purpose: The main purpose of the study was to establish whether motivation or employee engagement was a stronger predictor of employees' turnover intentions and determine whether statistically significant differences existed between different demographical groups.

Motivation for the study: 21st century organisations are faced with significant challenges in the management of talent and human capital. One of these challenges is voluntary employee resignation that has a negative effect on sales targets, profits and margins.

Research design, approach, and method: Primary data analysis was performed quantitatively on a cross-sectional surveyed sample of managers who work at dealerships of a prominent South African Automotive Group (n = 125).

Main findings: The results of the study confirmed that the intrinsic motivation of employees is higher than their extrinsic motivation. The mean turnover intention score across the sample indicated that the respondents want to remain with the present organisation. The analysis from the regression confirmed that both vigour and extrinsic motivation predict turnover intention. Each of the subscales of the UWES displayed positive correlations with intrinsic motivation and was also negatively correlated with turnover intention; hence the total UWES showed a similar positive correlation with intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, extrinsic motivation correlated negatively with vigour and dedication but correlated positively with turnover intention. Moreover, intrinsic motivation correlated negatively with turnover intention. No significant differences were noted between automotive brands, managerial positions or age. Marginal significant differences were noted between genders, where females demonstrated higher *absorption*, employee engagement and intrinsic motivation levels compared to their male counterparts. A statistically significant difference existed between Black and White respondents, where Black respondents scored significantly higher on the *vigour* subscale of the UWES than their White counterparts.

Practical and managerial implications: The study suggested that employee engagement could be enhanced by providing employees with the right opportunities and conditions. As such, managers should strive to increase their understanding of how to keep employees motivated in line with the human resource (HR) value chain, by employing resultant evidence-based, employee retention strategies and interventions.

Contribution and value add: The study described in this article operationalised Industrial/Organisational (I/O) psychological concepts and examined their unique relationships to establish better predictive validity of a turnover intentions model.

Keywords: intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, employee engagement, turnover intention

3.1 Introduction

According to turnover intention theory, which is focused on behavioural intentions to remain at or resign from a job, employees advance through a sequence of phases when coming to a decision to resign, with employee turnover intentions being demonstrated to predict actual turnover behaviour (Jungin, 2018). This paper has adopted the conclusion offered by Govender and Parumarsur (2010) where it has been asserted that, to ensure that organisations thrive and succeed in increasingly competitive environments, ensuring that staff are motivated may be the answer to how high turnover statistics can be reduced. Turnover, therefore, remains a significant issue in human resource management and this holds equally true for the automotive industry, according to the Bureau for Economic Research report (Kemp, Manefeldt & Tucker, 2018).

It has been stated that employee engagement increases significantly as they become increasingly motivated to perform their jobs (Jungin, 2018). It has also been proven that when environmental changes occur, dissatisfaction and emotional frustration increases towards employees' work conditions, resulting in them eventually leaving the organisation. This dilemma provides organisations with a powerful opportunity to maximise the utilisation of the human capital available to them to triumph during times of turbulence and change within their corporate environments.

3.2 Employee Motivation

From as early as the 20th century, scholars and practitioners were convinced that external motivating factors such as rewards, punishment, external controls and incentives were needed to ensure that employees performed optimally, persevered, and remained productive (Heath, 1999; Steers, Mowday & Shapiro, 2004). However, the birth of a new human relations movement gave rise to an alternative perspective of what motivates employees (Steers et al., 2004). Scholars considered the possibility of work being inherently engrossing and fun (Herzberg, 1964; McGregor, 1957), and as a consequence, today there exists a variety of theories aimed at understanding the dynamics of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation.

3.2.1 Intrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic motivation has been typically defined as “the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 56), in contrast to completing tasks for some

outward outcome, such as external rewards or recognition. When intrinsically motivated, a person is moved to act for the fun, challenge, enjoyment, interest, novelty, and aesthetic value (Jungin, 2018). According to White (1959) intrinsic motivation appears to have its roots in animal behaviour, where it was discovered that many organisms engage in exploratory, playful, and curiosity-driven behaviours even in the absence of reinforcement or reward. These spontaneous behaviours are also displayed by humans, from the onset of birth, where the behavioural observations include being active, inquisitive, curious, and playful (Ryan & Deci, 2000b) Furthermore, Ryan and Deci (2000b) have claimed that this readiness to learn and explore, is not influenced by extraneous incentives but through an individual's inherent interests which enables one to grow in knowledge and skills.

Lee, Reeve, Xue and Xiong (2012) found that individuals who experience intrinsic motivation undergo an intense psychological process which stem from deep-rooted feelings, thereby resulting in a complex neurophysiological activity. Later research undertaken by Singh (2016) concluded that intrinsic motivators are psychological feelings employees experience when they engage in meaningful work and perform it well. In recent times, Ryan and Deci (2017) asserted that intrinsic motivation gives rise to a strong valuation of personal investment and engagement. Throughout the last three decades, intrinsic motivation has had a positive impact of on creativity and innovation which has been considered critical for an organisation to maintain its competitive advantage (Anderson, Potoènik & Zhou, 2014).

In another study by Kuvaas, Buch, Weibel, Dysvik and Nerstad (2017) internal motivation was found to affect performance more than extrinsic motivation. Nevertheless, Kuvaas et al. (2017) still found extrinsic motivation to also act as a key determinant of performance, especially when there is little intrinsic motivation or when measuring results and outcomes are relatively easy. Similarly, Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford (2014) concluded that high employee performance was a result of employees being autonomously motivated towards their work. After four decades of research, meta-analytical evidence has demonstrated that autonomous motivation not only influences work performance, but also performance within academic and physical domains (Cerasoli et al., 2014).

After considering other research findings, McKnight, Phillips and Hardgrave (2009) concluded that intrinsically motivating job characteristics such as task identity, significance, skill variety, autonomy and feedback produce positive outcomes such as job satisfaction and job performance. Renard and Snelgar (2014) have also found that employees who are intrinsically motivated are also more engaged at work.

Furthermore, the influence of intrinsic motivation may be diminished by the effects of extrinsic motivations, such as social demands, roles, and pressures, due to employees accepting to be accountable for extrinsically boring and pressured tasks; this is especially the case of highly extrinsically motivated employees (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). After conducting 128 experiments, Ryan and Deci (2000b) concluded that palpable, material rewards appear to negatively affect intrinsic motivation quite substantively. In response to this conclusion, Pink (2009) countered that the intrinsic elements of autonomy, mastery and purpose influence workforce motivation more than extrinsic monetary rewards.

Zaman, Nas, Ahmed, Raja & Marri (2013) proposed that being intrinsically motivated does not imply that employees do not seek external rewards, but rather that external rewards alone are not adequate to maintain motivation. Delaney and Royal (2017) in their normative data study found that individuals high on intrinsic and low on extrinsic motivation are most likely to experience tension and become disengaged with their work or withdraw from the organisation altogether.

3.3.2 Extrinsic motivation.

Locke and Schattke (2019) defined extrinsic motivation as a “means-end relationship” where an individual does something in order to obtain some future value. Whilst Snelgar, Shelton and Giesser (2017) asserted that extrinsic motivation comes from sources outside of the person, Rheinberg and Engeser (2018) have disagreed with this viewpoint. Instead the authors have concluded that ‘extrinsic’ relates to outside the task as it pertains to the value a chosen activity can lead to. Hence extrinsic motivation thus contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, rather than its instrumental value (Ryan & Deci, 2000b).

Extrinsic rewards are usually tangible and include incentives such as salary, benefits, bonuses and promotions (Qayyum & Sukirno, 2012). Thomas (2009) postulated that

these external rewards are likely seen to adequately compensate for the unfulfilling, boring nature of the task at hand. According to Miserandino (1996), if employees are self-determined by internalising and integrating externally motivated tasks, they have the capacity to improve their psychological well-being, work performance and work engagement. Alternatively, if extrinsic motivators are incorrectly managed and implemented, employees may shift their focus towards financial gain only (Snelgar et al., 2017). This shift in focus has been proven by Zobel (1999) to give rise to undesirable effects in employees, such as a decline in confidence or a sense of demotivation, especially if their targets are not attained. Similarly, Ryan and Connell (1989) previously concluded that if employees are motivated and inspired solely by extrinsic factors, there is typically also a decline in the interest and enjoyment they show towards their work. The conclusion arrived at by Mundhra and Jacob (2011) therefore holds true, that extrinsic motivation tends to be short-lived since it only lasts as long as the external factors are present. Moreover, extrinsic motivators place the focus on earning prizes and recognition, rather than emphasising the importance of doing the actual task at hand well (Singh, 2016).

3.3 Employee Engagement

The term “employee engagement” is often interchangeable with “work engagement”, which has been defined as “an employee’s multidomain state (i.e., cognitive, emotional, and behavioural) which is directed toward expected organisational performance-related outcomes” (Shuck & Wollard, 2010). Similarly, Shaheen and Farooqi (2014) opined that employee engagement is made of three key components: cognitive, physical and emotional. Allen (2014) added that employees may be considered as being highly engaged at work, if they exhibit higher levels of all three facets. In yet another definition offered by Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá and Bakker (2002, p. 74) employee engagement is “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption”. Recently, the definition of employee engagement has been extended to include a sense of stimulation and energy experienced by employees while carrying out their work tasks (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006), whilst Mone and London (2010, p.17) stated that “someone who feels involved, committed, passionate and empowered and demonstrates those feelings in work behaviour” are characteristic of an engaged employee.

Employee engagement has also characterised by three dimensions, namely vigour, dedication and absorption. Firstly vigour refers to the willingness to invest effort, low fatigue, high levels of energy and resilience and persistence in the face of difficulties (Bakker, 2011; Schaufeli & Bakker (2003). Secondly, Bakker (2011) and Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) defined dedication as the sense of significance an individual derives from doing their job, a feeling of pride and enthusiasm about work, feeling challenged and inspired at work. In addition, individuals with high dedication have been said to identify strongly with their work and to experience it as being meaningful, challenging and inspiring. Finally absorption referred to the feeling of being totally and happily immersed in work, often finding it difficult to detach from work (Bakker, 2011; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003). Furthermore, Bakker (2011) claimed that employees with high absorption are happily engrossed in their work and demonstrate the ability to fully concentrate on the task at hand.

Based on the definitions provided on employee engagement and the explanation of the three dimensions of the construct, it can be suggested that employee engagement should be a key influencer that motivates and facilitates individual employees to approach work tasks with more energy, dedication and captivation, which ultimately would enhance their performance-related outcomes. Furthermore the terms 'work engagement' and 'employee engagement' seem to be closely aligned with Shuck, Nimon and Zigarmi (2017) referring to employees who wholeheartedly associate with others for the service of work they are preoccupied with, displaying their thoughts and feelings, creativity, beliefs and values, and interpersonal relationships with others. Such engaged employees embrace their roles physically, cognitively and emotionally, feeling personally involved in work accomplishments (Buitendach, Bobat, Muzvidziwa & Kanengoni, 2016). Additionally, Kim (2014) found supportive evidence that suggests that a variety of organisational outcomes, such as job and financial performance, turnover intention, customer satisfaction, profit, safety, physical and mental health are influenced by work engagement. Moreover, Vilnai-Yavetz and Levina (2018) asserted that it is likely that employees will engage and be motivated by their work and offered incentives if they are provided with the resources and support required to complete their work.

3.4 Turnover Intention

Turnover intention of employees has been defined as the likelihood of an employee to leave the current job which he or she is responsible for (Ngamkroeckjoti, Ounprechavanit & Thongdee Kijboonchoo, 2012). Furthermore a distinction has been made between voluntary and involuntary turnover. Perez (2008) posited that voluntary turnovers resulted in significant cost, both in terms of direct cost, such as replacement, or in terms of indirect cost, such as the pressure on remaining staff or the loss of social capital. On the other hand, Belete (2018) referred to involuntary turnover as the decision taken by management to force an employee to leave the organisation.

Prior studies dating back as far as the late '70s into the early '90s have illustrated a consistent positive correlation between employee's intentions to resign and actual turnover behaviour. Jungin (2018) recently stated that turnover intention theory is focused on behavioural intentions to resign or remain in a job and confirmed that employee's journey through a number of phases when making this decision, with intentions adequately predicting actual turnover behaviour. Within the last 50 years, many articles have been published on voluntary turnover intention (Naidoo, 2018) with a multitude of root causes being identified, such as stress (Moore & Burke, 2002) support at work (Erturk, 2014) and job dissatisfaction (Rigotti, 2009).

George (2015) found that important organisational level turnover intention factors for professional workers are issues such as the style of management, engaging workplace experiences, access to sufficient resources, a sense of flexibility, teamwork and the opportunity for growth by means of skills development or career advancement. At job level, independence, workload decision flexibility, transparency and fairness in pay, opportunities for employees to craft their jobs and space to allow for work-life balance are important.

In a local study undertaken by Bester, Stander and Van Zyl (2015) the main findings were that employees' intention to resign from organisations can be predicted from 1) how employees perceive empowering leader behaviours (holding them responsible, autonomous decision-making and encouraging staff development), 2) their own psychological empowerment and 3) behaviours indicative of organisational citizenship, such as loyalty, deviant behaviour and participation. Of greater importance to the present study is Muteswa and Ortlepp (2011), who discovered that if certain

intrinsic motivators are absent, such as perceiving work as challenging and having the freedom to make decisions and act on them, South African managers' are more likely to have intentions of resigning.

The demographic variables of South African samples have also been scrutinised when trying to predict turnover intention and turnover rate among employees. Schlechter, Syce and Bussin (2016) concluded that younger employees (under 35 years) had higher rates of turnover than their mature peers, with their intention to resign increasing as they got older. Additionally, it was found that the highest turnover rates were experienced during employees' first four years of employment, with strong support suggesting that turnover intention and actual turnover likelihood decline with higher employee performance levels.

For the field of human resource management, turnover continues to be a pertinent and noteworthy challenge, and turnover intention theory is key in conceptualising this phenomenon (Robison 2010; Vance, Vaiman & Andersen 2009).

3.5 Relationship between Motivation and Employee Engagement

Jungin's (2018) study inadvertently hypothesises a direct relationship between motivation and job involvement that can be accepted as employee engagement, since it considers the synchronised investments made by employees with all their available energy. International studies by Rich, Lepine and Crawford (2010) build on Kahn's research, which suggests that employees who are emotionally connected to their jobs are highly motivated, highly disengaged staff members suppress their emotional energies and as such, may appear mechanical, inactive and unconnected.

International research conducted by Tang and Tang (2012) highlighted that employee engagement influenced employee participation. Highly engaged employees expressed more willingness to communicate with their leaders and organisations to improve the service quality of their organisations (Tang & Tang, 2012).

An empirical engagement study conducted by Putra, Cho and Liu (2015) within the hospitality industry reported that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are significant factors affecting workforce engagement. This study also suggested that

if the work environment could be made more comfortable, with more meaningful jobs, employees' intrinsic motivation would increase and ultimately lead to increased staff engagement (Putra et al., 2015).

Specific studies connecting intrinsic motivation to employee engagement have drawn from Herzberg's (1968) sentiment that interesting, challenging work is likely to motivate employees and increase their acceptance of responsibility and encourage personal work achievements. Along this line of thought, within the South African context, the work undertaken by Amabile and Kramer (2011) identified that when employees felt content and positive about their work-life, they tended to display more creativity and productivity, implying intrinsic motivation towards one's work and positive regard toward co-workers and the organisation broadly. These intrinsic factors have been found to resonate with employee's needs to develop, succeed, progress and find meaning in their tasks and the organisation (Amabile & Kramer, 2011; Thomas, 2002).

Another local study reported on by Rothmann and Rothmann (2010) highlighted the importance of extrinsic motivational factors such as organisational support and growth opportunities, which were found to be the best predictors of vigour, dedication and absorption when pinning down employee engagement.

Rothmann and Welsh's (2013) research investigated the external motivators such as rewards, recognition and organisational support, which was found to contribute to employee engagement, just not as the psychological characteristics of meaningfulness and availability. Meintjes and Hofmeyr (2018) later concurred that workforce engagement in competitive sales environments were influenced by perceived corporate support. Furthermore, Rothmann and Rothmann (2010) added that the best predictor of employee engagement was the perception of employees doing meaningful work. More recently, Renard and Snelgar (2017) deduced that intrinsic rewards do not increase levels of employee engagement directly, even though they correlate positively with intrinsic motivation and work engagement. However, increased intrinsic motivation was due to intrinsic rewards, which resulted in a decrease in employees' intention to resign and increased engagement (Renard & Snelgar, 2017).

3.6 Relationship between Motivation and Turnover Intention

Jungin's (2018) international public sector studies highlighted that turnover intentions of public employees were only negatively, yet significantly correlated to intrinsic motivation, whilst there was no significant relationship with extrinsic motivation. On closer inspection of the findings, it was apparent that when local revenue officers were content with their future work opportunities as well as education and training possibilities, they tended not to leave their current organisations (Kim, 2018).

Still, within the international arena, job autonomy and intrinsic work motivation were examined by Galletta, Portoghese and Battistelli (2011) to understand how these variables influenced work commitment and mediated attrition amongst nurses in Italy. The results indicate that the nurses felt an increased sense of identity and connection to work when provided with the opportunity and independence to craft their own work activities, diminishing their intentions to resign (Galletta, et al., 2011). Employees who were intrinsically motivated also felt attached to their work, which also correlated negatively with turnover intention. Galletta et al (2011) emphasised that practically, there is a relationship between job autonomy and positive moods and outlooks at work, implying that a key organisational strategy that should be implemented to maintain low attrition rates is the sustenance of independent, motivated, and dedicated employees.

Local studies have also focused on intrinsic motivation and its influence on turnover intention. Recent research undertaken by Renard and Snelgar (2017) confirmed that intentions to resign decreased when intrinsic rewards and motivation increased. When examining intrinsic rewards in greater detail, Muteswa and Ortlepp (2011) found that when challenging work and autonomy were not present in the work environment, it influenced managers' resignation intentions. Similarly, Preenen, De Pater, Van Vianen and Keijzer (2011) demonstrated that when employees were given challenging assignments, their turnover intentions decreased. This is supported by Walters's (1975) early findings which stated that turnover is a direct result of meaningless work and the failure of employers to grow employees adequately according to their needs.

3.7 Relationship between Employee Engagement and Turnover Intention

To ensure employees are retained, their resignation intentions need to be eliminated, with employment engagement proposed as a solution (Harter et al., 2002; Shuck et al., 2011; Slatten & Mehmetoglu, 2011). Furthermore, staff with

higher turnover intentions have been argued as having lower levels of engagement (Harter et al., 2002; Shuck, Reio & Rocco, 2011). Alarcon and Edwards (2011) found that job satisfaction and turnover intentions were predicted by employee engagement.

The relationship between work engagement and turnover intentions is therefore empirically established (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004); with multiple studies finding turnover intentions to correlate negatively with engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; Park & Gursoy, 2012; Robyn & Du Preez, 2013; Shacklock, Brunetto, Teo & Farr-Wharton, 2014).

In South Africa, Bothma and Roodt (2013) identified that participant scores on the Turnover Intention Scale were significantly related to job engagement, work-role identity, burnout, helping behaviour, work alienation and task performance, confirming previous studies linking resignation intentions with actual engagement with work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006; Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2000; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2001; 2004). Other local studies on turnover intention have suggested that inadequate compensation was the strongest contributor of employees intending to resign, followed by perceived work-life imbalance, a lack of career advancement opportunities and insufficient supervisor support (Dhanpat, Modau, Lugisani, MaboJane & Phiri, 2018).

From the above, it is clear that workplace engagement is a significant predictor of employees' intentions to resign from an organisation and further links to reduced absenteeism rates and increased productivity, profitability and customer loyalty (Gallup, 2013). As such, it is apparent that workforce engagement must be addressed as a strategic priority to guarantee ceaseless business success.

3.8 Research Design

3.8.1 Research approach.

The research followed a quantitatively descriptive approach to allow for predictive analyses to be conducted. Such an approach facilitated hypothesis testing, further enabling a scientific methodology to be employed to analyse the data (Bryman, 2001). Additionally, the research can be repeated in future with almost identical results over time (Shank & Brown, 2007). A descriptive research approach was also chosen to allow for the strength of the relationships between both intrinsic and extrinsic

motivation, employee engagement and their turnover intentions to be described whilst also investigating any differences among the various demographic groups. The prediction models also adequately investigated these responses and the relationships between the variables under study (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister & Zechmeister, 2003).

Furthermore, a non-experimental, cross-sectional, survey-based design was employed to facilitate the gathering of data at a specific time interval in order to adequately investigate the hypotheses of this study (Zikmund, 2003). In addition, the responses gathered through the survey were used to infer the findings from the chosen sample onto the general population within the limits of random error (Bartlett, Kotrlik & Higgins, 2001). According to Salkind (2012), this research design is best suited to sample behaviours, cognitions and affect at a given moment in time.

3.9 Research Method

3.9.1 Research participants.

The target population's size was 665 employees and consisted of Sales Managers (new and pre-owned) in addition to Aftersales Managers (Parts, Service and Workshop), employed across the Audi and Volkswagen brands, within the Volkswagen Group South Africa. The specific sample comprised 40% of each managerial category, that is, Sales (new and pre-owned), Parts, Service and Workshop who were randomly selected from the total population of Sales and Aftersales managers. An informed consent form (Annexure A) was emailed to each participant of the intended sample together with the survey questionnaire (Annexure B) containing separate sections on the biographical information in addition to the scales used to measure motivation, employee engagement and turnover intention.

According to the competency profiling sessions conducted by SHL (2018) the main job responsibilities were identified for each of the Sales (new and pre-owned) and Aftersales (Parts, Service and Workshop) managers:

- The Sales Manager (new and pre-owned) is responsible for developing strategies, objectives and action plans to increase business and ensure that maximum profitability and sales volume targets are achieved and exceeded. Furthermore the Sales Manager (new and pre-owned) leads, manages and develops a team of sales executives.

- The Parts Manager's primary role is to profitably manage the Parts Department through effective planning, purchasing procedures, accurate inventory control, HR related issues, security, pricing, merchandising, displaying, advertising, internal and external customer services.
- The Service Manager's functionality entails managing the Service Department and the vehicle repair and vehicle service processes from front to end. This is usually achieved through driving cost, efficiencies, profitability, staffing, customer services, best workshop operating practices and time allocation controls.
- The Workshop Manager is responsible for the productivity and efficiency of the Service Department in addition to ensuring the profitability of the department.

In total, 125 completed survey questionnaires were returned to the researcher. Table 1 provides an overview of the demographic characteristics of the respondents who completed the survey; the sample over-represented males (86%) whilst under-representing females (14%), however, this is also characteristic of the automotive company being sampled and the industry more broadly. Most respondents were Volkswagen employees. The modal age range of the employees was the 30-39 years bracket. The sample consisted of 85 White (68%), 23 Indian (18%), 14 Black (11%), and 3 Coloured (2%) respondents.

Table 1**Characteristics of the survey respondents (N=125)**

| CATEGORY | FREQUENCY | % |
|-------------------------|-----------|-----|
| Gender | | |
| Male | 107 | 86 |
| Female | 18 | 14 |
| Population group | | |
| Black | 14 | 11 |
| White | 85 | 68 |
| Indian | 23 | 18 |
| Coloured | 3 | 2 |
| Age | | |
| 20 – 29 | 8 | 6 |
| 30 – 39 | 52 | 42 |
| 40 – 49 | 44 | 35 |
| ≥ 50 | 21 | 17 |
| Brand | | |
| Volkswagen | 89 | 71 |
| Audi | 36 | 29 |
| Total | 125 | 100 |

3.9.2 Measuring instruments.

The 6-item Intrinsic Work-Motivation scale, which was initially developed by Kuvaas (2006) and later revised by Kuvaas and Dysvik (2009), was used to measure participants' intrinsic motivation. Respondents were asked to rate themselves according to a 5-point rating scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree on statements such as “the tasks that I do at work are themselves representing a driving power in my job” and “the tasks that I do at work are enjoyable”. This measure was chosen as it tapped into the main aspects of the construct definition offered by Deci, Connell and Ryan (1989) and has been proven to have average internal consistency reliability (Cronbach alpha) of 0.89 (Kuvaas et al., 2017).

Dysvik, Kuvaas and Gagné's (2013) 4-item scale assessed extrinsic motivation whereby the measure explored the degree to which work motivation was dependent on tangible incentives being offered. Respondents were asked to rate themselves according to a 5-point rating scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree on statements such as “if I am supposed to put in extra effort into my job, I need extra pay” and “it is important for me to have an external incentive to strive for in order to do a good job.” The average internal consistency reliability of the extrinsic motivation measure was reported as $\alpha=.74$ (Kuvaas et al., 2017). In line with Nunnally and

Bernstein (1994), acceptable internal consistency coefficients range from $\alpha=.73$ to $\alpha=.94$.

The well-known, self-report Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9), developed as a shorter version of the UWES-17 was utilised to measure managers' vigour, absorption and dedication as an indication of their engagement. The correlated three-factor model of the UWES-9 has much theoretical support (Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli, 2005; Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006) and therefore was selected for this study.

Factor analysis has revealed that the three key components strongly support the robustness of the UWES-9, allowing for deeper insights into employees' motivation to be obtained when used in conjunction with other instruments (Martin, 2017). Hence, Martin (2017) justified the use of the UWES-9 as a suitable employee engagement measure. The scale comprised 9 items (3 items per facet) which were rated on a 6-point Likert scale varying from 0 (never) to 6 (always). Sample questions to which respondents answered were: "at my work, I feel bursting with energy" and "my job inspires me". From a construct validity perspective, the UWES-9 has been shown to have statistically significant psychometric properties, with internal consistency reliabilities higher than $\alpha=.80$ across 10 countries, including samples from South Africa (Schaufeli, Bakker and Salanova, 2006).

The shortened version of the Turnover Intentions Scale developed by Roodt (2004) consists of 6 items and measures the degree to which employees are considering leaving their jobs. Respondents were asked to rate themselves according to a 5-point rating scale on statements such as "how often have you considered leaving your job?" and "how likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?" Both Jacobs (2005) and Martin (2007) found Roodt's (2004) scale to be both reliable ($\alpha=.91$ and $\alpha=.90$ respectively), in line with Nunnally and Bernstein's (1994) recommendations, as well as factually valid.

3.10 Research Procedure

The Customer Experience Centre manager, who is responsible for activities within the dealer network of the organisation where data was collected granted permission to the researcher to conduct the study. The University of South Africa also granted the researcher an ethical clearance certificate to run the research study. The survey and consent forms were distributed via e-mail to the participating managers once they had

confirmed opting into the research study. By signing the consent forms, candidates confirmed that they had read the conditions and agreed to the intent and background of the survey, were knowledgeable of their rights to anonymity and confidentiality, as well as were aware of the voluntary nature of the research. Participants were also informed that they request the results of the study.

3.11 Statistical Analyses

IBM SPSS version 25 (IBM SPSS, version 25, 2017) was used to conduct the statistical analyses for this study.

The data analysis commenced by calculating and interpreting the descriptive statistics of the sample, by determining the frequencies, means and standard deviations for each subscale of the variables under study. The individual item ratings for each subscale were ranked in descending mean score order as rated by the participants to further enhance result interpretation.

This was followed by a range of inferential analyses. First, the internal consistency reliabilities for each of the scales were calculated (Wadkar, Singh, Chakravarty & Argade, 2016). The Pearson Product-Moment correlations then determined the direction and strength of the relationships between the variables of motivation, employee engagement and turnover intention. The level of confidence was set at 95% ($p \leq 0.05$) to significantly reduce any chances of type I errors. Cohen's (1992) guidelines were referred to interpret each correlation's practical significance: $r \leq .10$ (small); $r \leq .30$ (moderate); and $r \geq .50$ (large).

A multiple linear regression was run to identify whether extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation and work engagement significantly predicted turnover intention. Finally, independent sample t-tests, ANOVA's and non-parametric correlations were performed to explore whether any relationships existed between the constructs and the demographic variables.

3.12 Results

3.12.1 Descriptive statistics.

Table 2 below indicates the mean scores obtained for intrinsic and extrinsic motivation across the sample.

Table 2**Mean scores for Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation**

| Descriptive Statistics | | | | | |
|------------------------|-----|---------|---------|------|----------------|
| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
| Intrinsic motivation | 125 | 2.33 | 5.00 | 4.22 | .59 |
| Extrinsic motivation | 125 | 1.00 | 5.25 | 2.58 | .88 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 125 | | | | |

On closer inspection of the mean scores, intrinsic motivation for this sample was higher ($M = 4.22$, $SD = 0.59$) than extrinsic motivation ($M = 2.57$, $SD = 0.88$). According to Dysvik et al (2013), a mean greater than or equal to 3.80 is considered to be meaningfully high. Hence this finding suggests that the respondents in this study are inclined to view their jobs as exciting, enjoyable, meaningful and interesting. Table 3 displays the mean scores and standard deviations obtained for each of the UWES subscales.

Table 3**Mean scores for UWES subscales**

| Descriptive Statistics | | | | | |
|------------------------|-----|---------|---------|------|----------------|
| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
| UWES Vigour | 125 | 2.33 | 6.00 | 4.90 | .88 |
| UWES Absorption | 124 | 2.33 | 6.00 | 4.89 | .87 |
| UWES Dedication | 125 | 1.67 | 6.00 | 5.34 | .78 |
| TOTAL UWES | 125 | 2.44 | 6.00 | 5.04 | .73 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 124 | | | | |

Examining the mean scores obtained on the vigour, absorption and dedication subscales of the UWES according to the guidelines provided by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), the mean for vigour is considered to be meaningfully high, as it falls within the range of ($M = 4.81 - 5.65$). Similarly, the mean scores on the absorption ($M = 4.89$) and dedication ($M = 5.34$) subscales are meaningfully high as they fall in the range of ($M = 4.71 - 5.69$) and ($M = 4.21 - 5.33$) respectively.

Overall, the results suggest that the respondents tend to respond to their work energetically, working with zest and stamina (vigour) and are typically absorbed and immersed in their work, oftentimes finding it difficult to detach (absorption). They also

tend to identify strongly with their tasks and perceive them as having meaning, by inspiring and challenging them (dedication).

The total mean score obtained across the sample on the turnover intention scale (TIS) is 12.65 as shown in Table 4 below. Based on the interpretation guidelines offered by Roodt (2004) this suggests that the respondents have a fairly strong inclination to stay with the present organisation. The finding is therefore positive in that turnover intention has previously been linked to actual turnover.

Table 4
Mean score of the sample on the Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6)

| | Descriptive Statistics | | | | |
|--------------------|------------------------|---------|---------|------|----------------|
| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
| Turnover intention | 124 | 1.00 | 5.00 | 2.11 | .84 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 124 | | | | |

3.12.2 Reliability and correlation analysis.

To assess the internal consistency reliabilities of the measuring scales, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were computed as shown in Table 5, which indicates that the coefficients are above the acceptable cut-off of 0.70, therefore suggesting that the scales are reliable and would produce consistent results over time (Nunnaly & Bernstein, 1994).

Table 5
Reliability Statistics

| Scale | Cronbach's Alpha | Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items | N of Items |
|----------------------|------------------|--|------------|
| Intrinsic Motivation | 0,81 | 0,83 | 6 |
| Extrinsic Motivation | 0,77 | 0,77 | 4 |
| UWES Total | 0,88 | 0,90 | 9 |
| Turnover Intention | 0,80 | 0,80 | 6 |

Table 6 below depicts the correlation matrix for the seven variables in the study. As suggested by Arbuckle (1997), a detailed examination of the variables was conducted in order to determine the interrelationships between the variables as well as assess

construct validity, where it was expected that the intrinsic and extrinsic scales would correlate negatively with each other.

Table 6
Correlation matrix

| | | Correlations | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------|----------------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| | | UWES Vigour | UWES Absorption | UWES Dedication | TOTAL UWES | Intrinsic motivation | Extrinsic motivation | Turnover intention |
| UWES Vigour | Pearson Correlation | 1 | 0.50** | 0.78** | 0.88** | 0.61** | -0.20* | -0.61** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | 0,00 | 0,00 | 0,00 | 0,00 | 0,02 | 0,00 |
| UWES Absorption | Pearson Correlation | 0.50** | 1 | 0.60** | 0.81** | 0.54** | -0,12 | -0.37** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0,00 | | 0,00 | 0,00 | 0,00 | 0,17 | 0,00 |
| UWES Dedication | Pearson Correlation | 0.78** | 0.61** | 1 | 0.91** | 0.58** | -0.22* | -0.53** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0,00 | 0,00 | | 0,00 | 0,00 | 0,02 | 0,00 |
| TOTAL UWES | Pearson Correlation | 0.88** | 0.81** | .91** | 1 | 0.66** | -0.21* | -0.58** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0,00 | 0,00 | 0,00 | | 0,00 | 0,02 | 0,00 |
| Intrinsic motivation | Pearson Correlation | 0.61** | 0.54** | 0.58** | 0.66** | 1 | -0,10 | -0.43** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0,00 | 0,00 | 0,00 | 0,00 | | 0,26 | 0,00 |
| Extrinsic motivation | Pearson Correlation | -0.20* | -0,12 | -0.22* | -0.21* | -0,10 | 1 | 0.36** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0,02 | 0,17 | 0,02 | 0,02 | 0,26 | | 0,00 |
| Turnover intention | Pearson Correlation | -0.61** | -0.37** | -0.53** | -0.58** | -0.43** | 0.36** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | 0,00 | 0,00 | 0,00 | 0,00 | 0,00 | 0,00 | |

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

From Table 6, six significant correlations can be identified. Considering the UWES subscales, vigour correlated positively with intrinsic motivation ($r = 0.61$, $p < 0.01$) and negatively with turnover intention ($r = -0.61$, $p < 0.01$). Absorption correlated positively with intrinsic motivation ($r = 0.54$, $p < 0.01$) whilst correlating negatively with turnover intention ($r = -0.37$, $p < 0.01$). Dedication correlated positively with intrinsic motivation ($r = 0.58$, $p < 0.01$) and negatively with turnover intention ($r = -0.53$, $p < 0.01$). With the exception of one correlation (-0.37) which had a medium effect size according to Cohen (1988), all correlations had large effect sizes. Furthermore, vigour was negatively correlated with extrinsic motivation ($r = -0.20$, $p < 0.05$) as was dedication ($r = -0.22$, $p < 0.05$). These correlations, however, had small effect sizes. Extrinsic motivation correlated positively with turnover intention ($r = 0.36$, $p < 0.01$), and had a

medium effect size. Lastly, intrinsic motivation correlated negatively with turnover intention ($r = -0.43, p < 0.01$), with a medium effect size.

Therefore, it does appear that all UWES subscales showed significantly positive correlations with intrinsic motivation, where these correlations all had large effect sizes. Two of the engagement scales showed significant negative correlations with extrinsic motivation, although practically, these correlations were small. The engagement scales also showed significantly negative correlations with turnover intention. Intrinsic motivation correlated negatively with turnover intention, while extrinsic motivation correlated positively with turnover intention, both with medium effect sizes.

As could be expected from the pattern of correlations above, the total UWES score showed a positive correlation with intrinsic motivation ($r = 0.66, p < 0.01$) and a negative correlation with turnover intention ($r = -0.58, p < 0.01$). All the above correlations were in the theoretically expected directions.

3.12.3 Regression analysis.

To determine whether intrinsic and extrinsic motivation predicted work engagement and turnover intention, a multiple regression model was used using. Turnover Intention was treated as the dependent variable whilst intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and work engagement were entered into the model as independent variables. The assumptions of homoscedasticity, linearity and normality of residuals were tested and met. Table 7 below provides the model summary of the regression analysis.

Table 7
Regression Analysis – Model Summary

| Model Summary | | | | |
|---------------|------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
| 1 | .67 ^a | 0,44 | 0,42 | 0,64 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Extrinsic motivation, Intrinsic motivation, UWES Absorption, UWES Vigour, UWES Dedication

b. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

The r^2 value ($r^2 = 0.44$) indicates how much of the total variation exists in the dependent variable (turnover intention) which can be explained by the independent variables. According to Ellis and Steyn (2003), 44% is practically important.

Table 8

ANOVA Summary Table for the Predictors as independent variables and Turnover Intention as dependent variable

| ANOVA | | | | | | |
|-------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------------------|
| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
| 1 | Regression | 38,52 | 5 | 7,70 | 18,79 | .000 ^b |
| | Residual | 48,37 | 118 | 0,41 | | |
| | Total | 86,89 | 123 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

b. Predictors: (Constant), Extrinsic motivation, Intrinsic motivation, UWES Absorption, UWES Vigour, UWES Dedication

Table 8 depicts the analysis of variance (ANOVA) summary which reports on how well the regression equation fits the data, that is, how well the dependent variable is predicted by the regression equation. The results suggest that the overall regression model was significant ($F(5,118) 18.794$, $p < 0.01$), and hence the model adequately predicts turnover intention.

Table 9

Coefficients as per Independent Variable

| Coefficients | | | | | | |
|--------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|-------|------|
| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 4,58 | 0,53 | | 8,70 | 0,00 |
| | UWES Vigour | -0,43 | 0,11 | -0,46 | -3,92 | 0,00 |
| | UWES Absorption | -0,04 | 0,09 | -0,04 | -0,41 | 0,68 |
| | UWES Dedication | -0,06 | 0,13 | -0,05 | -0,43 | 0,67 |
| | Intrinsic motivation | -0,12 | 0,13 | -0,08 | -0,89 | 0,37 |
| | Extrinsic motivation | 0,23 | 0,07 | 0,24 | 3,45 | 0,00 |

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover intention

The coefficients depicted in Table 9 establishes which of the independent variables contribute significantly to turnover intention. When inspecting the coefficient values, only two predictors were significant at the 5% level, namely vigour from the UWES ($\beta = -0.46$, $p < 0.05$) and extrinsic motivation ($\beta = 0.24$, $p < 0.05$). The signs associated with the Beta coefficients suggest that an increase in vigour is associated with a decrease

in turnover intention, while an increase in extrinsic motivation is associated with an increase in turnover Intention.

This finding confirms that vigour and extrinsic motivation are both significant predictors of turnover intention, but that vigour predicts turnover intention more strongly than extrinsic motivation. The implication of this finding is consistent with the conclusion drawn by Mundhra and Jacob (2011), who suggest that extrinsic motivation that is determined by external factors cannot be maintained over longer periods of time. Practically, this means that external factors can only motivate employees for so long before they seek out more lucrative extrinsic rewards, hence driving turnover intentions. In addition, the higher employees' energy levels, mental resistance and efforts are while working, the lower their turnover intentions will be (Demerouti, Bakker, Janssen & Schaufeli, 2001).

3.12.4 Relationships between demographic variables and scale scores.

3.12.4.1 Brand.

An independent samples t-test was computed to investigate whether employees from the two different brands rated themselves significantly differently on the various scales. Table 10 shows the means and standard deviations across each scale for the Audi and Volkswagen brand. The results of the independent samples t-tests in Table 11 identified no significant differences between the two brands ($p > 0.05$).

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics per Brand

| Descriptives | | | | | |
|----------------------|------|----|------|----------------|-----------------|
| Brand | | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| UWES Vigour | Audi | 36 | 4,78 | 0,82 | 0,14 |
| | VW | 89 | 4,95 | 0,91 | 0,10 |
| UWES Absorption | Audi | 36 | 4,77 | 0,84 | 0,14 |
| | VW | 88 | 4,93 | 0,88 | 0,09 |
| UWES Dedication | Audi | 36 | 5,24 | 0,70 | 0,12 |
| | VW | 89 | 5,39 | 0,81 | 0,09 |
| TOTAL UWES | Audi | 36 | 4,93 | 0,61 | 0,10 |
| | VW | 89 | 5,09 | 0,77 | 0,08 |
| Intrinsic motivation | Audi | 36 | 4,19 | 0,60 | 0,10 |
| | VW | 89 | 4,24 | 0,59 | 0,06 |
| Extrinsic motivation | Audi | 36 | 2,43 | 0,77 | 0,13 |
| | VW | 89 | 2,64 | 0,92 | 0,10 |
| Turnover intention | Audi | 36 | 2,17 | 0,79 | 0,13 |
| | VW | 88 | 2,09 | 0,86 | 0,09 |

Table 11

Independent Samples t-test between brands

| | | Independent Samples Test | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|-------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|-------|---|--|
| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | Lower | Upper | |
| UWES Vigour | Equal variances assumed | 0,06 | 0,81 | -0,96 | 123 | 0,34 | -0,17 | 0,17 | -0,51 | 0,18 | |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1,00 | 71,36 | 0,32 | -0,17 | 0,17 | -0,50 | 0,17 | |
| UWES Absorption | Equal variances assumed | 0,00 | 0,10 | -0,96 | 122 | 0,34 | -0,17 | 0,17 | -0,50 | 0,17 | |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -0,99 | 68,22 | 0,33 | -0,17 | 0,17 | -0,50 | 0,17 | |
| UWES Dedication | Equal variances assumed | 0,31 | 0,58 | -0,94 | 123 | 0,35 | -0,15 | 0,15 | -0,45 | 0,16 | |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1,00 | 74,15 | 0,32 | -0,15 | 0,15 | -0,43 | 0,14 | |
| TOTAL UWES | Equal variances assumed | 2,19 | 0,14 | -1,11 | 123 | 0,27 | -0,16 | 0,15 | -0,44 | 0,13 | |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1,22 | 81,20 | 0,23 | -0,16 | 0,13 | -0,42 | 0,10 | |
| Intrinsic motivation | Equal variances assumed | 0,32 | 0,57 | -0,35 | 123 | 0,72 | -0,04 | 0,12 | -0,27 | 0,19 | |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -0,35 | 64,71 | 0,73 | -0,04 | 0,12 | -0,28 | 0,19 | |
| Extrinsic motivation | Equal variances assumed | 1,75 | 0,19 | -1,19 | 123 | 0,24 | -0,21 | 0,17 | -0,55 | 0,14 | |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1,29 | 76,87 | 0,20 | -0,21 | 0,16 | -0,53 | 0,11 | |
| Turnover intention | Equal variances assumed | 0,79 | 0,38 | 0,49 | 122 | 0,63 | 0,08 | 0,17 | -0,25 | 0,41 | |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 0,51 | 71,15 | 0,61 | 0,08 | 0,16 | -0,24 | 0,40 | |

3.12.4.2 Position.

Descriptive statistics are displayed in Table 12 across the various positions. In order to determine whether there any significant differences existed between the positions, a one-way ANOVA was computed. Results are reported in Table 13 and show no significant differences ($p > 0.05$).

Table 12
Descriptives per position

| | | Descriptives | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|-------|--------------|------|----------------|------------|----------------------------------|-------------|---------|---------|
| | | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | | Minimum | Maximum |
| | | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | | |
| UWES Vigour | PM | 19 | 4.82 | 1.12 | 0.26 | 4.29 | 5.36 | 2.33 | 6.00 |
| | PSM | 22 | 4.94 | 0.79 | 0.17 | 4.59 | 5.29 | 3.00 | 6.00 |
| | SeM | 22 | 4.86 | 0.75 | 0.16 | 4.53 | 5.19 | 3.33 | 6.00 |
| | SM | 44 | 4.93 | 0.86 | 0.13 | 4.67 | 5.19 | 2.33 | 6.00 |
| | Total | 107 | 4.90 | 0.87 | 0.08 | 4.73 | 5.07 | 2.33 | 6.00 |
| UWES Absorption | PM | 19 | 4.95 | 1.01 | 0.23 | 4.46 | 5.43 | 2.33 | 6.00 |
| | PSM | 22 | 4.89 | 0.89 | 0.19 | 4.50 | 5.29 | 2.67 | 6.00 |
| | SeM | 22 | 5.05 | 0.72 | 0.15 | 4.73 | 5.37 | 3.67 | 6.00 |
| | SM | 44 | 4.74 | 0.89 | 0.13 | 4.47 | 5.01 | 3.00 | 6.00 |
| | Total | 107 | 4.87 | 0.88 | 0.08 | 4.71 | 5.04 | 2.33 | 6.00 |
| UWES Dedication | PM | 19 | 5.25 | 1.16 | 0.27 | 4.68 | 5.81 | 1.67 | 6.00 |
| | PSM | 22 | 5.41 | 0.83 | 0.18 | 5.04 | 5.78 | 2.67 | 6.00 |
| | SeM | 22 | 5.39 | 0.64 | 0.14 | 5.11 | 5.68 | 4.00 | 6.00 |
| | SM | 44 | 5.37 | 0.61 | 0.09 | 5.19 | 5.56 | 3.67 | 6.00 |
| | Total | 107 | 5.36 | 0.77 | 0.07 | 5.21 | 5.51 | 1.67 | 6.00 |
| TOTAL UWES | PM | 19 | 5.01 | 1.00 | 0.23 | 4.52 | 5.49 | 2.44 | 6.00 |
| | PSM | 22 | 5.08 | 0.73 | 0.16 | 4.76 | 5.41 | 2.78 | 6.00 |
| | SeM | 22 | 5.10 | 0.54 | 0.12 | 4.86 | 5.34 | 3.89 | 5.89 |
| | SM | 44 | 5.01 | 0.67 | 0.10 | 4.81 | 5.22 | 3.22 | 6.00 |
| | Total | 107 | 5.04 | 0.72 | 0.07 | 4.91 | 5.18 | 2.44 | 6.00 |
| Intrinsic motivation | PM | 19 | 4.29 | 0.64 | 0.15 | 3.98 | 4.60 | 2.83 | 5.00 |
| | PSM | 22 | 4.23 | 0.56 | 0.12 | 3.98 | 4.47 | 2.33 | 4.83 |
| | SeM | 22 | 4.11 | 0.60 | 0.13 | 3.84 | 4.37 | 2.83 | 5.00 |
| | SM | 44 | 4.24 | 0.60 | 0.09 | 4.06 | 4.42 | 2.67 | 5.00 |
| | Total | 107 | 4.22 | 0.59 | 0.06 | 4.10 | 4.33 | 2.33 | 5.00 |
| Extrinsic motivation | PM | 19 | 2.68 | 0.95 | 0.22 | 2.23 | 3.14 | 1.25 | 5.25 |
| | PSM | 22 | 2.84 | 0.79 | 0.17 | 2.49 | 3.19 | 1.25 | 4.25 |
| | SeM | 22 | 2.47 | 0.84 | 0.18 | 2.09 | 2.84 | 1.00 | 4.00 |
| | SM | 44 | 2.56 | 0.97 | 0.15 | 2.27 | 2.86 | 1.00 | 4.75 |
| | Total | 107 | 2.62 | 0.90 | 0.09 | 2.45 | 2.79 | 1.00 | 5.25 |
| Turnover intention | PM | 19 | 2.23 | 1.07 | 0.25 | 1.71 | 2.75 | 1.00 | 5.00 |
| | PSM | 22 | 2.02 | 0.60 | 0.13 | 1.76 | 2.29 | 1.00 | 3.00 |
| | SeM | 22 | 2.18 | 0.79 | 0.17 | 1.83 | 2.53 | 1.00 | 3.83 |
| | SM | 44 | 2.25 | 0.91 | 0.14 | 1.97 | 2.52 | 1.00 | 4.83 |
| | Total | 107 | 2.18 | 0.86 | 0.08 | 2.02 | 2.35 | 1.00 | 5.00 |

Table 13**One-way ANOVA for differences between positions**

| | | ANOVA | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|------|------|
| | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
| UWES Vigour | Between Groups | 0.21 | 3 | 0.07 | 0.09 | 0.97 |
| | Within Groups | 79.61 | 103 | 0.77 | | |
| | Total | 79.82 | 106 | | | |
| UWES Absorption | Between Groups | 1.58 | 3 | 0.53 | 0.68 | 0.57 |
| | Within Groups | 79.86 | 103 | 0.78 | | |
| | Total | 81.44 | 106 | | | |
| UWES Dedication | Between Groups | 0.33 | 3 | 0.11 | 0.18 | 0.91 |
| | Within Groups | 63.25 | 103 | 0.61 | | |
| | Total | 63.58 | 106 | | | |
| TOTAL UWES | Between Groups | 0.18 | 3 | 0.06 | 0.11 | 0.95 |
| | Within Groups | 54.75 | 103 | 0.53 | | |
| | Total | 54.93 | 106 | | | |
| Intrinsic motivation | Between Groups | 0.39 | 3 | 0.13 | 0.37 | 0.78 |
| | Within Groups | 36.85 | 103 | 0.36 | | |
| | Total | 37.25 | 106 | | | |
| Extrinsic motivation | Between Groups | 1.82 | 3 | 0.61 | 0.74 | 0.53 |
| | Within Groups | 84.35 | 103 | 0.82 | | |
| | Total | 86.17 | 106 | | | |
| Turnover intention | Between Groups | 0.78 | 3 | 0.26 | 0.35 | 0.79 |
| | Within Groups | 76.88 | 103 | 0.75 | | |
| | Total | 77.66 | 106 | | | |

3.12.4.3 Gender.

Descriptive statistics displayed in Table 14 were calculated across each scale, both for females and males. An independent samples t-test was then used to determine whether gender differences existed. Table 15 identifies a few scales for which there are significant gender differences. The first is the absorption subscale of the UWES $t(122) = 2.21, p = 0.03$. Inspection of the mean scores shows that females ($M = 5.30$) had a significantly higher score than males ($M = 4.81$). Males and females also differed significantly on the total UWES score $t(123) = 1.84, p = 0.07$, where again, females ($M = 5.33$) scored significantly higher than males ($M = 4.99$). Lastly, the gender groups also differed significantly on the intrinsic motivation scale; $t(123) = 2.63, p = 0.01$. Once again, females ($M = 4.55$) had a higher score than males ($M = 4.16$).

Table 14**Descriptive Statistics per Gender**

| Gender | Group Statistics | | | |
|----------------------|------------------|------|----------------|-----------------|
| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| UWES Vigour | F 18 | 5,09 | 0,88 | 0,21 |
| | M 107 | 4,86 | 0,89 | 0,09 |
| UWES Absorption | F 18 | 5,30 | 0,69 | 0,16 |
| | M 106 | 4,82 | 0,88 | 0,085 |
| UWES Dedication | F 18 | 5,61 | 0,71 | 0,17 |
| | M 107 | 5,30 | 0,78 | 0,08 |
| TOTAL UWES | F 18 | 5,33 | 0,72 | 0,17 |
| | M 107 | 4,99 | 0,72 | 0,07 |
| Intrinsic motivation | F 18 | 4,56 | 0,60 | 0,14 |
| | M 107 | 4,17 | 0,57 | 0,06 |
| Extrinsic motivation | F 18 | 2,28 | 0,99 | 0,23 |
| | M 107 | 2,63 | 0,85 | 0,08 |
| Turnover intention | F 18 | 1,94 | 0,84 | 0,20 |
| | M 106 | 2,14 | 0,84 | 0,08 |

Table 15

Independent Samples t-test for gender

| | | Independent Samples Test | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|-------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|-------|---|--|
| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2 tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | Lower | Upper | |
| UWES Vigour | Equal variances assumed | 0,06 | 0,80 | 1,01 | 123 | 0,31 | 0,23 | 0,23 | -0,22 | 0,67 | |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 1,02 | 23,22 | 0,32 | 0,23 | 0,22 | -0,23 | 0,69 | |
| UWES Absorption | Equal variances assumed | 2,15 | 0,15 | 2,21 | 122 | 0,03 | 0,48 | 0,22 | 0,05 | 0,91 | |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 2,60 | 27,09 | 0,02 | 0,48 | 0,18 | 0,10 | 0,86 | |
| UWES Dedication | Equal variances assumed | 0,55 | 0,46 | 1,58 | 123 | 0,12 | 0,31 | 0,20 | -0,08 | 0,70 | |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 1,70 | 24,61 | 0,10 | 0,31 | 0,18 | -0,07 | 0,69 | |
| TOTAL UWES | Equal variances assumed | 0,06 | 0,81 | 1,84 | 123 | 0,07 | 0,34 | 0,18 | -0,02 | 0,70 | |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 1,84 | 23,08 | 0,08 | 0,34 | 0,18 | -0,04 | 0,72 | |
| Intrinsic motivation | Equal variances assumed | 0,19 | 0,67 | 2,63 | 123 | 0,01 | 0,39 | 0,15 | 0,10 | 0,68 | |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 2,53 | 22,47 | 0,02 | 0,39 | 0,15 | 0,07 | 0,70 | |
| Extrinsic motivation | Equal variances assumed | 2,43 | 0,12 | -1,57 | 123 | 0,12 | -0,35 | 0,22 | -0,79 | 0,09 | |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -1,41 | 21,46 | 0,17 | -0,35 | 0,25 | -0,87 | 0,16 | |
| Turnover intention | Equal variances assumed | 0,04 | 0,85 | -0,95 | 122 | 0,35 | -0,20 | 0,21 | -0,63 | 0,22 | |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -0,95 | 23,09 | 0,36 | -0,20 | 0,22 | -0,65 | 0,24 | |

3.12.4.4 Ethnic group.

Descriptive statistics are displayed in Table 16 across the Black, White and Indian ethnic groups. A one-way ANOVA was then calculated to determine whether any significant differences existed between the ethnic groups. Table 17 indicates a

marginally significant difference between ethnic groups on the UWES vigour subscale where $F(2,121) = 3.58$, $p = 0.03$. The post-hoc results displayed in Table 18 indicate that a marginally significant difference exists between Black and White respondents on the vigour subscale of the UWES ($p < 0.05$). On closer inspection of the difference between Black and White respondents, the results show that the mean score of the Black respondents ($M = 5.48$) is slightly higher than that of the White respondents ($M = 4.83$).

Table 16
Descriptive Statistics per Ethnic Group

| | | Descriptives | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|--------|--------------|------|----------------|------------|----------------------------------|-------------|---------|---------|
| | | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | | Minimum | Maximum |
| | | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | | |
| UWES Vigour | Black | 14 | 5,48 | 0,47 | 0,12 | 5,20 | 5,75 | 4,67 | 6,00 |
| | Indian | 23 | 4,84 | 0,93 | 0,19 | 4,44 | 5,24 | 3,33 | 6,00 |
| | White | 85 | 4,83 | 0,87 | 0,09 | 4,64 | 5,02 | 2,33 | 6,00 |
| | Total | 122 | 4,91 | 0,87 | 0,08 | 4,75 | 5,06 | 2,33 | 6,00 |
| UWES Absorption | Black | 14 | 4,93 | 0,96 | 0,26 | 4,37 | 5,48 | 3,00 | 6,00 |
| | Indian | 23 | 4,82 | 0,97 | 0,20 | 4,40 | 5,24 | 2,33 | 6,00 |
| | White | 84 | 4,90 | 0,82 | 0,09 | 4,72 | 5,08 | 2,67 | 6,00 |
| | Total | 121 | 4,89 | 0,86 | 0,08 | 4,73 | 5,04 | 2,33 | 6,00 |
| UWES Dedication | Black | 14 | 5,76 | 0,44 | 0,12 | 5,51 | 6,02 | 4,67 | 6,00 |
| | Indian | 23 | 5,35 | 1,01 | 0,21 | 4,91 | 5,78 | 1,67 | 6,00 |
| | White | 85 | 5,29 | 0,73 | 0,08 | 5,13 | 5,44 | 2,67 | 6,00 |
| | Total | 122 | 5,35 | 0,77 | 0,07 | 5,21 | 5,49 | 1,67 | 6,00 |
| TOTAL UWES | Black | 14 | 5,39 | 0,44 | 0,12 | 5,13 | 5,64 | 4,78 | 6,00 |
| | Indian | 23 | 5,00 | 0,87 | 0,18 | 4,62 | 5,38 | 2,44 | 6,00 |
| | White | 85 | 5,01 | 0,70 | 0,08 | 4,86 | 5,16 | 2,78 | 6,00 |
| | Total | 122 | 5,05 | 0,72 | 0,06 | 4,92 | 5,18 | 2,44 | 6,00 |
| Intrinsic motivation | Black | 14 | 4,49 | 0,44 | 0,12 | 4,23 | 4,74 | 3,67 | 5,00 |
| | Indian | 23 | 4,35 | 0,56 | 0,12 | 4,11 | 4,59 | 2,83 | 5,00 |
| | White | 85 | 4,14 | 0,62 | 0,07 | 4,01 | 4,27 | 2,33 | 5,00 |
| | Total | 122 | 4,22 | 0,60 | 0,05 | 4,11 | 4,33 | 2,33 | 5,00 |
| Extrinsic motivation | Black | 14 | 2,86 | 0,92 | 0,25 | 2,33 | 3,39 | 1,25 | 4,00 |
| | Indian | 23 | 2,73 | 1,06 | 0,22 | 2,27 | 3,18 | 1,00 | 5,25 |
| | White | 85 | 2,50 | 0,83 | 0,09 | 2,32 | 2,68 | 1,00 | 4,75 |
| | Total | 122 | 2,58 | 0,89 | 0,08 | 2,43 | 2,74 | 1,00 | 5,25 |
| Turnover intention | Black | 14 | 2,11 | 0,71 | 0,19 | 1,69 | 2,52 | 1,33 | 3,83 |
| | Indian | 23 | 2,25 | 1,20 | 0,25 | 1,74 | 2,77 | 1,00 | 5,00 |
| | White | 84 | 2,09 | 0,75 | 0,08 | 1,93 | 2,25 | 1,00 | 3,67 |
| | Total | 121 | 2,12 | 0,84 | 0,08 | 1,97 | 2,27 | 1,00 | 5,00 |

Table 17**ANOVA Summary of Differences between Groups**

| ANOVA | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|------|------|
| | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
| UWES Vigour | Between Groups | 5,15 | 2 | 2,57 | 3,58 | 0,03 |
| | Within Groups | 85,57 | 119 | 0,72 | | |
| | Total | 90,72 | 121 | | | |
| UWES Absorption | Between Groups | 0,15 | 2 | 0,07 | 0,10 | 0,91 |
| | Within Groups | 88,82 | 118 | 0,75 | | |
| | Total | 88,97 | 120 | | | |
| UWES Dedication | Between Groups | 2,72 | 2 | 1,36 | 2,33 | 0,10 |
| | Within Groups | 69,35 | 119 | 0,58 | | |
| | Total | 72,07 | 121 | | | |
| TOTAL UWES | Between Groups | 1,83 | 2 | 0,91 | 1,81 | 0,17 |
| | Within Groups | 60,12 | 119 | 0,51 | | |
| | Total | 61,9 | 121 | | | |
| Intrinsic motivation | Between Groups | 1,91 | 2 | 0,96 | 2,75 | 0,07 |
| | Within Groups | 41,33 | 119 | 0,35 | | |
| | Total | 43,24 | 121 | | | |
| Extrinsic motivation | Between Groups | 2,12 | 2 | 1,06 | 1,36 | 0,26 |
| | Within Groups | 93,08 | 119 | 0,78 | | |
| | Total | 95,20 | 121 | | | |
| Turnover intention | Between Groups | 0,49 | 2 | 0,25 | 0,34 | 0,71 |
| | Within Groups | 85,16 | 118 | 0,72 | | |
| | Total | 85,65 | 120 | | | |

Table 18**Post-hoc results on the vigour subscale of the UWES across the different Ethnic Groups**

| | | Multiple Comparisons | | | | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|--------------------|--------|-----------------------|------------|------|-------------|-------------------------|-------|
| Dependent Variable | | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | Lower Bound | Upper Bound | |
| UWES Vigour | Black | Indian | 0.64 | 0.29 | 0.09 | -0.08 | 1.35 |
| | | White | .65 | 0.24 | 0.03 | 0.04 | 1.25 |
| | Indian | Black | -0.64 | 0.29 | 0.09 | -1.35 | 0.08 |
| | | White | 0.01 | 0.20 | 0.10 | -0.48 | 0.51 |
| | White | Black | -.65 | 0.24 | 0.03 | -1.25 | -0.04 |
| | | Indian | -0.01 | 0.19 | 0.10 | -0.51 | 0.48 |

3.13 Discussion

The purpose of this study was aimed at determining the nature of the relationships between motivation, employee engagement and turnover intention. The findings provided above indicate that the intrinsic motivation of respondents is significantly higher than their extrinsic motivation, which is consistent with previous research that

indicated that South Africans are more intrinsically motivated, and this remains true for managers employed within the automotive industry in South Africa (Nujjoo & Meyer, 2012; Snelgar et al., 2017).

Considering variable relationships, a positive correlation was found between extrinsic motivation and turnover intention whilst a negative correlation existed between intrinsic motivation and turnover intention, thus supporting Hypothesis 1 where correlations between motivation and turnover intention were anticipated.

This positive relationship between extrinsic motivation and turnover intention means that as respondents' extrinsic motivation increases, so too do their turnover intentions. This is supported by Kuvaas et al (2017) who postulated that extrinsic motivation may also be related to psychological distress and lower well-being levels, which could, in turn, reduce productivity and engagement with one's work. Consequently, this negative state could act as a catalyst for increased turnover intentions (Kuvaas et al., 2016). Similarly, Vansteenkiste et al (2007) identified that increased extrinsic motivation tends to result in significant increases in turnover intentions, which align with negative associations of job and life dissatisfaction. A further negative connotation was highlighted by Fernet and Austin (2014) who concluded that extrinsically motivated employees experience less control over their behaviour, making them even more prone to burnout. These present findings are however inconsistent with the research undertaken by Jungin (2018), where extrinsic motivation did not appear to significantly influence turnover intention.

The negative correlation between intrinsic motivation and turnover intention suggests that as employees become more intrinsically motivated, their turnover intention decreases. This result is consistent with recent research undertaken by Miller (2018) where the focus was on military veterans in the federal workforce with respect to employee engagement and turnover intentions. Gagné et al (2010) and Kuvaas et al (2017) also postulated that an increase in intrinsic motivation relates to positive affect, emotions and attitudes, whilst simultaneously protecting employees against stressors and negative emotions. Furthermore, the current findings support Jungin (2018), where managers tend to perceive their work as enjoyable, meaningful and exciting could lead to lower levels of stress or emotional exhaustion, thereby

decreasing turnover intention. Additionally, according to Kuvaas et al (2017), the positive mood states related to intrinsic motivation may energise employees to focus on and engage with the tasks they perform. Moreover, for those employees who are intrinsically motivated, they may also be less responsive towards external motivators such as financial incentives, which can only motivate employees temporarily (Singh, 2016).

In terms of the other correlations, all UWES subscales (vigour, dedication and absorption) provided significantly negative correlations with turnover intention, thereby lending support for Hypothesis 2. The findings highlight that, as employee engagement levels increase, their turnover intentions simultaneously decrease. Consistent with the results of Bhuvanaiah and Raya (2015), engaged employees are inclined to contribute towards a healthy organisation as employees are generally more satisfied, committed, innovative, and higher performers with optimal physical and mental health. Hence turnover intentions and actual turnover may be lowered in a healthy, functional organisation where employees are engaged.

Further support was obtained for Hypothesis 3 where all UWES subscales showed significantly positive correlations with intrinsic motivation; these correlations all had large effect sizes. These findings imply that an increase in overall work engagement, as demonstrated through an employee's vigour, dedication and absorption results in increased intrinsic motivation. Based on the definitions of vigour, dedication and absorption, it is plausible to conclude that these constructs lend themselves to positive outcomes. Hence, the present findings are in line with previous studies where it has been demonstrated that intrinsic motivation relates to positive affect, emotions and attitudes (Kuvaas et al., 2017). In addition, Delaney and Royal (2017) stated that intrinsic motivation positively impacts overall engagement levels where 70% of employees felt personally motivated to go beyond what was required of them. Lastly, in terms of correlations between employee engagement and motivation, vigour and dedication were found to correlate negatively with extrinsic motivation, albeit the correlation had a small effect size. The result indicates that an increase in vigour or dedication results in a consequent decrease in extrinsic motivation. An increase in vigour may present as employees having more energy, zest and stamina when working whilst increases in dedication may be characterised as employees identifying

strongly with their work, feeling a sense of pride and being enthusiastic (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Concerning identifying the predictors of turnover intention, the present study's results confirm that both vigour and extrinsic motivation predict turnover intention, hence eliciting support for Hypothesis 4. The results for vigour illustrates that respondents in the study who possess higher energy and resilience levels may be inclined to demonstrate more willingness to invest additional effort into their work, thereby limiting fatigue and intentions to quit in the face of difficulties (Bell & Barkhuizen, 2011). It is noteworthy that vigour is a stronger predictor of turnover intention than extrinsic motivation. Considering that extrinsic motivation is, however, a predictor of turnover intention, research undertaken by Robbins and Judge (2014) explained that extrinsic motivation in the form of extrinsic rewards was sometimes seen as a means of coercion and control. Consequently, employees lost interest in the task and were more stressed by their work. Against this backdrop, it is plausible that similar perceptions among respondents in the current study serve as the catalyst for turnover intentions. The implication of this result to the current research context, is hence that any strategy aimed at reversing turnover should be directed at reducing or revisiting the type of extrinsic rewards offered to employees and increasing their vigour (energy, resilience and effort).

When identifying significant differences between concept variables and the various demographic groups, support has been garnered for Hypothesis 5. By making use of independent sample t-tests and ANOVA's, it emerged that no significant differences existed between the brands, managerial positions, age and the scales used in the present study for ($p < 0.05$). However, gender differences were identified on the absorption subscale of the UWES, the total UWES score and intrinsic motivation; female respondents demonstrated higher absorption, engagement and intrinsic motivation levels in comparison to males. Therefore the results imply that females are more happily engrossed with tasks, feeling immersed by what they are tasked with and have difficulties detaching from their work as it carries them away (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). This speaks to their levels of absorption and as such, they appear to forget about non-work related issues and time is perceived to pass faster. This is, however, contrary to previous studies that concluded that no differences existed

between gender and employee engagement (Camgoz, Ekmekci, Karapinar & Guler, 2016; Cenkci & Özçelik, 2015; Lee & Eissenstat, 2018).

Furthermore, the current results are aligned with prior studies conducted by Snelgar et al (2017) and Stettes and Zimmerman (2013) where it has been proven that females are more intrinsically motivated than males. One possible reason for females displaying significantly higher intrinsic motivation levels is perhaps that they are typically more in tune with their emotions and are therefore more rewarded by them (Snelgar et al., 2017).

On close inspection of the differences between ethnic groups, the only difference was found on the vigour subscale of the UWES. Post-hoc tests showed that Black employees responded significantly higher than their White counterparts. This supports Volpone, Avery and McKay's (2012) study, however, the researchers noted the indirect effects of appraisal reactions on employee engagement as being significantly stronger for Black males compared to their White colleagues. These findings do however contrast the findings obtained by Bell and Barkhuizen (2011) where Whites reported higher vigour, dedication and absorption levels than Coloureds and higher absorption levels than Blacks. However, these effects were small.

3.14 Limitations and Recommendations

3.14.1 Limitations.

Firstly, the researcher suspects that there was a fair amount of social desirability, impression management, and random responding that prevailed since self-report measures were exclusively used for data collection.

The second limitation arises from the fact that a sample size of 270 was expected however only 125 respondents volunteered to participate in the study. Hence, although the sample size was heterogeneous in terms of gender, age, ethnicity and managerial position, generalising the findings to be applicable to the broader automotive retail sector in the country should be done with caution.

Thirdly, although this study examined the relationships between motivation (extrinsic and intrinsic), employee engagement and turnover intention, according to the self-determination theory, the study failed to measure amotivation. Howard, Gagnéa, Morin and Van den Broeck (2016, p.75) conceptualise amotivation as "the absence of any

desire to exert any effort". Therefore, a more detailed application of the self-determination theory should also describe the effects of amotivation in the automotive retail sector. Furthermore, the antecedents of the three motivations (extrinsic, intrinsic and amotivation) should be considered to clarify the effects of motivation and employee engagement on turnover intention.

Finally, the current research did not assess for any moderators or mediators in the relationships between the variables under scrutiny. Further research should, therefore, consider investigating what role the culture of dealerships and managerial styles have on the motivation, engagement and turnover intentions of managers.

3.14.2 Recommendations

Although extrinsic and intrinsic motivation may seem like direct opposites, the two categories can be used in conjunction to develop engaged workplaces. Understanding what motivators work best in different situations could, therefore, be the key to motivating managers in the automotive sector at individual, team and organisational levels. This might mean considering separate intrinsic motivators for males and females in order to enhance their levels of task immersion and overall engagement.

Accounting for the current study's results which indicated that Black managers are inclined to demonstrate higher vigour (energy, resilience and effort) levels, retention strategies should harness their potential by offering them suitable career development opportunities to assume more senior roles in the future. Furthermore, as it stands, there does appear to be a shortage of Black Dealer Principals. High performers should be identified and encouraged to participate in leadership programmes that are aimed at grooming future Dealer Principals.

When examining this study's results together with the current context and culture of the automotive retail group under study, it appears that intrinsic motivation has been neglected with management systems having typically concentrated on extrinsic financial remuneration systems. Snelgar et al (2017) recently identified this trend amongst South Africans in general. Additionally, psychologists and sociologists have warned that external motivators, such as incentive schemes and rewards, ultimately impair performance since intrinsic motivation is undermined (Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 1999). Esteemed economists such as Benabou and Tirole (2003) further explained

that when incentive schemes are chosen as extrinsic motivators, it has the tendency to impair employees' perception of their tasks and abilities in the long run.

According to the self-determination theory, when employees' needs for autonomy, relatedness and competence are satisfied, this should increase their intrinsic motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Practically, in order for dealerships to increase their employees' intrinsic motivation, it is imperative that managers are invited (by senior leaders in charge of dealer development at brand level) to engage in strategic discussions. In particular, managers should be allowed to participate in decision-making processes, have their viewpoints considered and understood, be provided with choices within structures and both positive feedback for taking initiative and non-judgemental feedback when they express concerns or encounter problems (Stone, Deci & Ryan, 2009). Additionally, in line with Stone et al (2009) findings, dealerships should be mindful of coming across as coercive or controlling by employing close monitoring tactics or contingent tangible incentives or comparing employees to each other to make them destructively competitive. The focus should instead be on offering competitive pay within group structures so that employees are not tempted to consider alternatives, thereby decreasing turnover intention and consequently turnover rates.

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Chapter Four

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this dissertation was to determine the nature of the relationships between managers' motivation, employee engagement and turnover intention at dealerships within the automotive retail industry. Furthermore, the research aimed to establish whether motivation (intrinsic or extrinsic) or employee engagement more strongly predicted turnover intentions and to establish whether any significant differences existed between the different demographic groups.

4.2 Conclusion

4.2.1 Theoretical conclusions.

The literature aimed to conceptualise each of the constructs, namely motivation, employee engagement and turnover intention in addition to providing a comprehensive literature review of previous research conducted both locally and internationally. The intent of the research study was to therefore theoretically report on any relationships established in the literature between the various constructs. The research also set out to identify if any differences existed between the demographic groups surveyed.

4.2.2 Empirical conclusions.

The specific empirical aims of the study were first, to investigate the operational relationships between motivation, employee engagement and turnover intention. The results have shown that, compared to their extrinsic motivation, the intrinsic motivation of respondents is statistically significantly higher. Additionally, the mean turnover intention score across the sample indicates that the respondents want to remain with the present organisation.

Secondly, the research study attempted to identify whether motivation and employee engagement better predicted turnover intention. The regression analysis confirmed that both vigour and extrinsic motivation predict turnover intention, however vigour proved to be a stronger predictor. The results clearly illustrate that those managers who possess high energy and resilience levels are more willing to invest effort and are less likely to feel fatigued or intend on quitting when faced with difficulties (vigour), and may, in turn, display low levels of turnover intention. Furthermore, employees who are extrinsically motivated likely display higher levels of turnover intention.

Thirdly, the study used a correlation matrix to reveal that each of the subscales of the UWES correlated positively with intrinsic motivation and negatively with turnover intention, and hence the total UWES correlated positively with intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, extrinsic motivation negatively correlated with vigour and dedication but correlated positively with turnover intention. Moreover, intrinsic motivation correlated negatively with turnover intention.

Finally, the research considered demographics such as brand, gender, age, ethnicity and the various managerial roles to examine differences in respondent motivation and employee engagement. No significant differences were identified between the brands, managerial positions or age. Gender-based differences were however identified when t-tests for equal variances were assumed. Marginal significant differences were noted between males and females on their responses to the absorption subscale of the UWES and the intrinsic motivation scale, where females have demonstrated higher levels of absorption and intrinsic motivation than their male counterparts. The only difference between ethnic groups was found on the vigour subscale of the UWES, where Black respondents showed a significantly higher score than their White counterparts.

The findings of this research study have shed some pertinent insights on how to survive in tough economic climates and keep employees engaged. The results imply that intrinsic motivation and rewards, the key to employee engagement, should be harnessed as it has been proven to have a greater influence on the workforce than extrinsic monetary rewards (Pink, 2009). Since extrinsic motivation is linked to engagement, organisations can achieve greater returns on investments by focusing on extrinsic motivators, other than financial means. Strategies should include provision for meaningful career development opportunities, public recognition of employee efforts, and assisting employees recognise that they are part of a winning team through strong value propositions (Delaney & Royal, 2017). When extrinsic and intrinsic motivators are carefully aligned, the result likely encompasses higher levels of engagement and inspirational performances (Delaney & Royal, 2017).

Another solution to countering high turnover rates may lie in decreasing extrinsic motivators and enhancing means to achieve intrinsic motivation of employees so that they are driven to work hard at their jobs due to sheer enjoyment and interest.

Consequently, the adoption of such a strategy may lead employees to feel less fatigued, less emotionally exhausted and increase their desire to participate in the organisation, as characterised by vigour in engagement literature (Jungin, 2018).

4.3 Limitations

Firstly, the researcher suspects that since only self-report measure data was used as a reference, there was likely a degree of social desirability, impression management, and random responding that prevailed, which could affect the overall validity of the results. However, this limitation holds true for many studies similar in nature, since it would be difficult to determine latent constructs such as motivation and intention without self-report assessments.

The second limitation arises from the fact that although 270 candidates were approached to participate in the study, only 125 of them volunteered to respond to the survey. Hence, although the sample was differentiated in terms of gender, age, ethnicity and managerial position demographics, generalising the results to apply to the national automotive retail sector should be done with caution.

Thirdly, although the study examined the relationships between motivation (extrinsic and intrinsic), employee engagement and turnover intention, the study did not measure amotivation, “the absence of any desire to exert any effort” (Howard, Gagnéa, Morin & Van den Broeck, 2016, p.75), in accordance to the self-determination theory. Therefore, it can be suggested that future studies conducted from the self-determination theory framework in the automotive retail sector include the effects of amotivation. Furthermore, the antecedents of the three motivations (extrinsic, intrinsic and amotivation) should be considered to clarify the effects of motivation and employee engagement on turnover intention.

Finally, the current research did not assess for any moderators or mediators in the relationships between the variables under scrutiny. Further research should, therefore, consider investigating what roles the dealership culture and managerial style have on the motivation, engagement and turnover intentions of managers.

4.4 Recommendations

Although extrinsic and intrinsic motivation may sound like polar opposites, the two concepts both have value in creating efficient workplaces. Understanding which motivators work best in specific situations is key to motivating automotive sector managers at the individual, team and organisational levels. This would mean considering different intrinsic motivators for males and females in order to enhance their levels of task immersion and overall engagement. Furthermore, given that Black managers are inclined to demonstrate higher vigour (energy, resilience and effort) levels, retention strategies should harness their potential by offering them suitable career development opportunities to assume senior roles in the future. Moreover, as it stands, there does appear to be a shortage of Black Dealer Principals, which is more reason as to why high performers should be identified and encouraged to participate in leadership programmes (aimed at grooming future Dealer Principals).

When examining the current context and culture of the automotive group under study, it appears that intrinsic motivation has been neglected while management concentrated on extrinsic financial remuneration systems, in line with the trend of South African businesses more generally (Snelgar et al, 2017). Psychologists and sociologists have warned against the overuse of external motivation in the form of incentive schemes and rewards, in that over longer periods, it tends to impair performance since intrinsic motivation is undermined and undervalued (Deci et al., 1999). Furthermore, economists have also explained that in the long term, when incentive schemes are chosen as extrinsic motivators, it has the tendency to impair employees' perception of their tasks and abilities (Benabou & Tirole, 2003).

The self-determination theory postulates that the employees' need for autonomy, relatedness and competence should be satisfied in order to increase their intrinsic motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Practically, for dealerships to increase their employees' intrinsic motivation, it is imperative that senior leaders in charge of dealer development at brand level invite managers to engage in strategic discussions. If managers feel heard and valued in decision-making processes, have their viewpoints considered and understood, are offered choices within structures and provided with both positive feedback when they take initiative and non-judgemental feedback when they express concerns or encounter problems, this will likely enhance their internal

motivation (Stone, Deci & Ryan, 2009). As Stone et al (2009) suggested, dealerships should be mindful of using coercive controls such as close monitoring, contingent tangible incentives or continuously comparing employees to each other. The focus should instead be on offering competitive pay within group structures so that employees are not tempted to consider alternatives thereby increasing turnover intention and consequently driving turnover rates.

Finally, human resource practitioners and senior managers should consider these results when strategising ways to improve how they motivate, coach and train their employees. Future research could focus on the culture of the automotive industry to establish how it influences the variables that have been subject to this study, in addition to examining any moderating variables on the relationships between motivation, engagement and turnover intention.

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ANNEXURE A

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY

I, _____ (participant name), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet.

I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty (if applicable).

I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report or journal publications but that my participation will be kept confidential unless otherwise specified.

I agree to responding on the questionnaire which will be sent to me via email.

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Participant Name & Surname..... (please print)

Participant Signature.....Date.....

Researcher's Name & Surname.....(please print)

Researcher's signature.....Date.....

ANNEXURE B

| RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE: | | | | |
|---|-----------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| <p>Instructions: Please ensure that you have completed all sections of the questionnaire. This applies to both the biographical information and Section A to Section D. For Section A to Section D, kindly read through carefully and select the most appropriate option true for you.</p> | | | | |
| NAME: | SURNAME: | | | |
| AGE: | ETHNICITY: | | | |
| POSITION: | | | | |
| DEALERSHIP: | | | | |
| SECTION A: INTRINSIC MOTIVATION | | | | |
| Please rate each of the following statements from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) | | | | |
| 1. The tasks that I do at work are themselves representing a driving power in my job | | | | |
| 1 <i>Strongly disagree</i> | 2 <i>disagree</i> | 3 <i>unsure</i> | 4 <i>agree</i> | 5 <i>strongly agree</i> |
| 2. The tasks that I do at work are enjoyable | | | | |
| 1 <i>Strongly disagree</i> | 2 <i>disagree</i> | 3 <i>unsure</i> | 4 <i>agree</i> | 5 <i>strongly agree</i> |
| 3. My job is meaningful | | | | |
| 1 <i>Strongly disagree</i> | 2 <i>disagree</i> | 3 <i>unsure</i> | 4 <i>agree</i> | 5 <i>strongly agree</i> |
| 4. My job is very exciting | | | | |
| 1 <i>Strongly disagree</i> | 2 <i>disagree</i> | 3 <i>unsure</i> | 4 <i>agree</i> | 5 <i>strongly agree</i> |
| 5. My job is so interesting that it is a motivation in itself | | | | |
| 1 <i>Strongly disagree</i> | 2 <i>disagree</i> | 3 <i>unsure</i> | 4 <i>agree</i> | 5 <i>strongly agree</i> |
| 6. Sometimes I become so inspired by my job that I almost forget everything else around me | | | | |
| 1 <i>Strongly disagree</i> | 2 <i>disagree</i> | 3 <i>unsure</i> | 4 <i>agree</i> | 5 <i>strongly agree</i> |
| SECTION B: EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION | | | | |
| Please rate each of the following statements from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 7. If I am supposed to put in extra effort into my job, I need extra pay | | | | | | |
| 1 <i>Strongly disagree</i> | 2 <i>disagree</i> | 3 <i>unsure</i> | 4 <i>agree</i> | 5 <i>strongly agree</i> | | |
| 8. It is important for me to have an external incentive to strive for in order to do a good job | | | | | | |
| 1 <i>Strongly disagree</i> | 2 <i>disagree</i> | 3 <i>unsure</i> | 4 <i>agree</i> | 5 <i>strongly agree</i> | | |
| 9. External incentives such as bonuses and provisions are essential for how well I do my job. | | | | | | |
| 1 <i>Strongly disagree</i> | 2 <i>disagree</i> | 3 <i>unsure</i> | 4 <i>agree</i> | 5 <i>strongly agree</i> | | |
| 10. If I had been offered better pay, I would have done a better job | | | | | | |
| 1 <i>Strongly disagree</i> | 2 <i>disagree</i> | 3 <i>unsure</i> | 4 <i>agree</i> | 5 <i>strongly agree</i> | | |
| SECTION C: WORK ENGAGEMENT | | | | | | |
| The following 9 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, cross the '0' (zero) in the space after the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by crossing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way. | | | | | | |
| 0 Never | Almost Never 1 A few times a year or less | Rarely 2 Once a month or less | Sometimes 3 A few times a month | Often 4 Once a week | Very Often 5 A few times a week | Always 6 Everyday |
| 11. At my work, I feel bursting with energy (VI1) | | | | | | |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 12. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous (VI2)* | | | | | | |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 13. I am enthusiastic about my job (DE2)* | | | | | | |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 14. My job inspires me (DE3)* | | | | | | |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 15. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work (VI3)* | | | | | | |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 16. I feel happy when I am working intensely (AB3)* | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|--|------------------------|---------------------------|----------|----------|----------|------------------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 17. I am proud on the work that I do (DE4)* | | | | | | |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 18. I am immersed in my work (AB4)* | | | | | | |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 19. I get carried away when I'm working (AB5)* | | | | | | |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| SECTION D: TURNOVER INTENTION | | | | | | |
| The following section aims to ascertain the extent to which you intend to stay at the organisation. Please read each question and indicate your response using the scale provided for each question: | | | | | | |
| DURING THE PAST 9 MONTHS..... | | | | | | |
| 20. How often have you considered leaving your job? | Never | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5 | | | | Always |
| 21. How satisfying is your job in fulfilling your personal needs? | Very satisfying | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5 | | | | Totally dissatisfying |
| 22. How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals? | Never | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5 | | | | Always |
| 23. How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs? | Never | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5 | | | | Always |
| 24. How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you? | Highly unlikely | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5 | | | | Highly likely |
| 25. How often do you look forward to another day at work? | Always | 1-----2-----3-----4-----5 | | | | Never |
| <i>Thank you for your time in completing the questionnaire.</i> | | | | | | |

