

**AN INTERNATIONAL STUDY ON
THE INFLUENCE OF INTRINSIC REWARDS ON THE
INTRINSIC MOTIVATION, WORK ENGAGEMENT
AND RETENTION OF EMPLOYEES
IN NON-PROFIT ORGANISATIONS**

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In accordance with Rule G4.6.3, I hereby declare that this thesis for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in Commerce (Industrial and Organisational Psychology) is my own work and that it has not previously been submitted for assessment to another University or for another qualification.

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ABSTRACT

The primary objective of this thesis was to investigate whether intrinsic rewards play a role in the intrinsic motivation, work engagement and retention of employees working within non-profit organisations in Australia, Belgium, South Africa and the United States of America. It therefore served to form a cross-cultural comparison between employees from these four geographically dispersed yet culturally similar countries. A further aim was to determine whether demographic differences occurred across the four constructs studied. In order to achieve these objectives, a theoretical model was constructed to highlight the relationships between the constructs under study.

The study made use of both qualitative and quantitative research to achieve the above-mentioned objectives. As a result of the data obtained from 15 qualitative interviews conducted with non-profit employees in Belgium and South Africa, two measuring instruments, namely the Intrinsic Work Rewards Scale and the Intrinsic Work Motivation Scale, were developed to assess intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation respectively. These measuring instruments were qualitatively piloted on a sample of academics and non-profit employees, and were translated from English into Dutch for use on the Belgian sample. Once these instruments had been refined, they were combined with instruments to measure work engagement and intention to quit to form a composite questionnaire. This questionnaire was completed electronically by 587 non-profit employees from the four countries under study. Data analysis was conducted in the form of descriptive and inferential statistics, including frequency tables, Cronbach's alpha testing, exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, Pearson's Product Moment Correlations, chi-square tests, t-tests, analysis of variance and structural equation modelling.

The quantitative findings showed that intrinsic rewards lead to higher levels of intrinsic motivation, which in turn causes higher levels of work engagement and lower levels of intention to quit. Intrinsic rewards were also found directly to predict a reduction in employees' intentions to quit their non-profit

organisations, and work engagement directly predicted an increase in intention to quit.

From a cross-cultural perspective, practically significant inter-country differences were discovered across the intrinsic rewards of meaningful work and challenging work; across intrinsic motivation and its three dimensions (personal connection to one's work, personal desire to make a difference, and personal desire to perform); and across work engagement and its three factors (absorption, dedication and vigour). In addition to these inter-country results, age and job level differences were discovered across the four constructs under study, together with significant correlations between the four constructs.

The Intrinsic Work Rewards Scale and the Intrinsic Work Motivation Scale were successfully validated in both English and Dutch in this study, with a number of forms of validity being confirmed through factor analyses and correlations. Reliability was proven through satisfactory Cronbach's alpha values being obtained for both language versions of the instruments.

These results theoretically contribute to literature pertaining to intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation as a result of the development of two measuring instruments that were empirically validated to assess these constructs. Furthermore, the results make a valuable contribution to the field of rewards management globally. This study's findings provide evidence for causal relationships between four constructs not previously tested empirically, specifically within Australia, Belgium, South Africa and the United States of America. Consequently, this study's results hold important implications for the management of non-profit employees worldwide.

KEY WORDS:

Intrinsic rewards; intrinsic motivation; work engagement; intention to quit; non-profit organisations

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to all of the selfless individuals I am honoured to know, who work in non-profit organisations in an effort to make our world a better place in which to live. Your self-sacrifice, passion and empathy for others inspire me daily. You devote your energy to homing animals who cannot speak for themselves...you spread God's message of grace and compassion far and wide...you arrange for the transport of ill, underprivileged children...you draw the public's attention to the needs of the mentally disabled...you raise funds and organise the necessary resources to clothe the poor and educate the next generation...and so much more. You are the change we need to see on this earth, and I respect you deeply. Thank you for inspiring this research. May you continue to invest your incredible talents into making a difference in this world – one life, one day at a time.

- MR

God won't ask what your highest salary was,

He'll ask if you compromised your character to obtain it.

God won't ask how many promotions you received,

He'll ask how you promoted others.

God won't ask what your job title was,

He'll ask if you performed your job to the best of your ability.

God won't ask what you did to help yourself,

He'll ask what you did to help others.

- Anonymous

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
TITLE PAGE.....	i
DECLARATION BY CANDIDATE.....	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
DEDICATION.....	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
LIST OF TABLES.....	xx
LIST OF FIGURES	xxv

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1	<u>Introduction</u>	1
1.2	<u>Background to the research</u>	1
1.2.1	Total rewards.....	4
1.2.1.1	<i>Extrinsic versus intrinsic rewards within NPOs</i>	5
1.2.2	Intrinsic motivation, engagement and retention of NPO employees.....	8
1.2.2.1	<i>Intrinsic motivation of NPO employees</i>	8
1.2.2.2	<i>Work engagement of NPO employees</i>	10
1.2.2.3	<i>Retention within NPOs</i>	12
1.2.3	Working within Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA.....	13
1.2.3.1	<i>Australian cultural work values</i>	14
1.2.3.2	<i>Belgian cultural work values</i>	15
1.2.3.3	<i>South African cultural work values</i>	17
1.2.3.4	<i>American cultural work values</i>	19
1.2.3.5	<i>Comparison of Hofstede's cultural values together with Project GLOBE finding</i>	21
1.3	<u>Problem statements</u>	24

- 1.3.1 Problem statement 1..... 24
- 1.3.2 Problem statement 2..... 24
- 1.3.3 Problem statement 3..... 24

- 1.4 Research question..... 25

- 1.5 Central theoretical statement..... 25

- 1.6 Research objectives 25
 - 1.6.1 General research objective 25
 - 1.6.2 Specific literature objectives 25
 - 1.6.2.1 Literature objective 1..... 25
 - 1.6.2.2 Literature objective 2..... 26
 - 1.6.2.3 Literature objective 3..... 26
 - 1.6.2.4 Literature objective 4..... 26
 - 1.6.3 Specific empirical research objectives 26
 - 1.6.3.1 Empirical objective 1 26
 - 1.6.3.2 Empirical objective 2 26
 - 1.6.3.3 Empirical objective 3 27
 - 1.6.3.4 Empirical objective 4 27
 - 1.6.3.5 Empirical objective 5 27
 - 1.6.3.6 Empirical objective 6 27

- 1.7 The research process..... 27

- 1.8 Conclusion 28

**CHAPTER TWO:
INTRINSIC REWARDS AND INTRINSIC MOTIVATION**

- 2.1 Introduction..... 30

- 2.2 **The theoretical framework surrounding intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation**..... 31
 - 2.2.1 **Deci’s Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET)** 31
 - 2.2.2 **Deci and Ryan’s Self-Determination Theory (SDT)** 33
 - 2.2.3 **Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory (or, the Motivation-Hygiene Theory)**..... 34
 - 2.2.4 **Hackman and Oldham’s Job Characteristics Model (JCM)**..... 35
 - 2.2.5 **Positive Psychology and Positive Organisational Scholarship**..... 37

- 2.3 **Intrinsic rewards** 38
 - 2.3.1 **Extrinsic, non-financial rewards versus intrinsic rewards**..... 38
 - 2.3.1.1 ***Wilson’s Total Reward Strategy*** 41
 - 2.3.1.2 ***Zingheim and Schuster’s Total Reward Components*** 41
 - 2.3.1.3 ***Bussin’s Total Rewards Mix***..... 43
 - 2.3.1.4 ***WorldatWork’s Total Rewards Model*** 43
 - 2.3.1.5 ***The Towers Perrin Model of Total Reward***..... 44
 - 2.3.1.6 ***Hay Group’s Engaged Performance Framework***..... 45
 - 2.3.1.7 ***Segal/Sibson’s Rewards of Work Model***..... 46
 - 2.3.1.8 ***Milkovich, Newman and Gerhart’s Total Returns for Work*** 47
 - 2.3.1.9 ***Grobler et al.’s Total Compensation/Rewards System*** 48
 - 2.3.2 **Elaborating on intrinsic rewards** 50
 - 2.3.3 **Types of intrinsic rewards**..... 53
 - 2.3.3.1 ***Meaningful work***..... 53
 - a) ***Developing meaningful work*** 58
 - 2.3.3.2 ***Flexible work***..... 61
 - a) ***Developing flexible work***..... 65
 - 2.3.3.3 ***Challenging work***..... 67
 - a) ***Developing challenging work*** 69
 - 2.3.3.4 ***Varied work***..... 70
 - a) ***Developing varied work***..... 74
 - 2.3.3.5 ***Enjoyable work***..... 76
 - a) ***Developing enjoyable work***..... 77
 - 2.3.4 **Benefits and outcomes of intrinsic rewards**..... 78

2.3.5	Australian, Belgian, South African and American research on intrinsic rewards	81
2.3.2	The link between intrinsic rewards and motivation	85
2.4	<u>Intrinsic motivation</u>	86
2.4.1	Motivation at work	86
2.4.2	Intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation.....	88
2.4.3	Dimensions of intrinsic motivation	92
2.4.3.1	<i>Personal connection to one’s work</i>	92
	a) <i>When employees are too emotionally connected: Compassion fatigue</i>	96
2.4.3.2	<i>Personal desire to make a difference</i>	97
2.4.3.3	<i>Personal desire to perform</i>	102
	a) <i>Linking the three dimensions of intrinsic motivation to Deci’s original intrinsic motivation conceptualisation</i>	104
2.4.4	The undermining effect of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation ...	106
2.4.5	Australian, Belgian, South African and American research on intrinsic motivation.....	112
2.5	<u>Conclusion</u>	118

**CHAPTER THREE:
WORK ENGAGEMENT AND INTENTION TO QUIT**

3.1	<u>Introduction</u>	120
3.2	<u>Work engagement</u>	121
3.2.1	Dimensions of work engagement.....	124
3.2.1.1	<i>Vigour</i>	124
3.2.1.2	<i>Dedication</i>	125
3.2.1.3	<i>Absorption</i>	125
3.2.2	The Job Demands-Resources Model of Work Engagement.....	126
3.2.2.1	<i>Antecedents of work engagement</i>	128
	a) <i>Job resources</i>	129

b) Personal resources	131
3.2.2.2 Outcomes, consequences and benefits of work engagement	132
3.2.3 Australian, American, Belgian and South African research on work engagement	134
3.3 <u>Intention to quit</u>	143
3.3.1 Models of voluntary turnover	145
3.3.1.1 Antecedents of intending to quit one’s organisation	149
3.3.2 Consequences of intending to quit one’s organisation	155
3.3.3 Australian, American, Belgian and South African research on intention to quit or turnover intentions	158
3.4 <u>Conclusion</u>	167

**CHAPTER FOUR:
HYPOTHESES AND PROPOSED THEORETICAL MODEL**

4.1 <u>Introduction</u>	168
4.2 <u>Relationships between constructs, and hypotheses</u>	168
4.2.1 Intrinsic rewards and work engagement	168
4.2.2 Intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation	169
4.2.3 Intrinsic rewards and intention to quit	170
4.2.4 Work engagement and intention to quit	172
4.2.5 Intrinsic motivation and intention to quit	172
4.2.6 Intrinsic motivation and work engagement	172
4.3 <u>Proposed theoretical model</u>	173
4.4 <u>Conclusion</u>	174

**CHAPTER FIVE:
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

5.1	<u>Introduction</u>	175
5.2	<u>Research type and technique</u>	175
5.2.1	Qualitative empirical research	176
5.2.2	Quantitative empirical research	176
5.3	<u>Target population</u>	178
5.3.1	Australian NPOs	179
5.3.2	Belgian NPOs	180
5.3.3	South African NPOs	181
5.3.4	American NPOs	183
5.4	<u>Three phases of sampling, data collection and analysis</u>	184
5.4.1	Phase 1: Qualitative interviews	185
5.4.1.1	<i>Sampling technique for Phase 1</i>	185
	<i>a) Frequency distribution of the demographic variables of Phase 1 sample</i>	187
	<i>b) Demographics of the sampled NPOs in Phase 1</i>	188
5.4.1.2	<i>Data collection for Phase 1</i>	189
5.4.1.3	<i>Qualitative data analysis for Phase 1</i>	191
5.4.2	Phase 2: Qualitative pilot study	194
5.4.2.1	<i>Sampling technique for Phase 2</i>	195
5.4.2.2	<i>Data collection for Phase 2</i>	196
5.4.2.3	<i>Qualitative data analysis for Phase 2</i>	199
5.4.3	Phase 3: Quantitative final study	199
5.4.3.1	<i>Sampling technique for Phase 3</i>	199
5.4.3.2	<i>Data collection for Phase 3</i>	203
	<i>a) Intrinsic Work Rewards Scale</i>	204
	<i>b) Intrinsic Work Motivation Scale</i>	207
	<i>c) Utrecht Work Engagement Scale</i>	210

d) <i>Job Withdrawal Intention scale</i>	212
5.4.3.3 <i>Quantitative data analysis for Phase 3</i>	212
5.5 <u>Reliability and validity of the study</u>	216
5.5.1 Reliability	217
5.5.2 Validity	219
5.6 <u>Ethical considerations</u>	221
5.7 <u>Conclusion</u>	224

**CHAPTER SIX:
RESULTS**

6.1 <u>Introduction</u>	225
6.2 <u>Results of Phase 1</u>	225
6.2.1 Categories arising from Phase 1’s qualitative interviews	226
6.2.1.1 <i>Intrinsic rewards</i>	227
a) <i>Meaningful work</i>	227
b) <i>Flexible work</i>	232
c) <i>Challenging work</i>	235
d) <i>Varied work</i>	238
e) <i>Enjoyable work</i>	239
6.2.1.2 <i>Extrinsic, non-financial rewards</i>	240
6.2.1.3 <i>Intrinsic motivation</i>	242
a) <i>Personal connection to one’s work</i>	242
b) <i>Personal desire to make a difference</i>	246
c) <i>Personal desire to perform</i>	249
6.2.1.4 <i>Work engagement</i>	251
a) <i>Absorption with work</i>	251
b) <i>Dedication to work</i>	254
c) <i>Vigour at work</i>	257

- 6.2.1.5 *Intention to quit*..... 260
 - a) *Participants intending to leave their NPOs*..... 260
 - b) *Participants desiring to remain working at their NPOs*..... 264
- 6.2.1.6 *Comments on salaries earned, and satisfaction thereof*..... 265
- 6.2.2 *Linkages between constructs*..... 270

- 6.3 **Results of Phase 2**..... 273
 - 6.3.1 *English version of the pilot questionnaire*..... 273
 - 6.3.1.1 *First stage of revision*..... 273
 - 6.3.1.2 *Second stage of revision* 275
 - 6.3.1.3 *Third stage of revision* 278
 - 6.3.2 *Dutch version of the pilot questionnaire* 280

- 6.4 **Results of Phase 3**..... 281
 - 6.4.1 *Factor analysis*..... 282
 - 6.4.1.1 *Exploratory factor analysis – IWRS*..... 282
 - 6.4.1.2 *Exploratory factor analysis – IWMS* 287
 - 6.4.1.3 *Confirmatory factor analysis – IWRS, IWMS and UWES* 292
 - 6.4.2 *Descriptive statistics* 293
 - 6.4.3 *Inferential statistics* 300
 - 6.4.3.1 *Pearson’s Product Moment Correlations* 301
 - 6.4.3.2 *Chi-square testing* 304
 - 6.4.3.3 *ANOVA results: Country differences* 310
 - 6.4.3.4 *MANOVA, ANOVA and t-test results: Demographic differences* 321
 - 6.4.3.5 *Structural Equation Modelling*..... 348

- 6.5 **Hypothesis testing**..... 354
 - 6.5.1 *Hypothesis 1*..... 354
 - 6.5.2 *Hypothesis 2*..... 355
 - 6.5.3 *Hypothesis 3*..... 355
 - 6.5.4 *Hypothesis 4*..... 355
 - 6.5.5 *Hypothesis 5*..... 356
 - 6.5.6 *Hypothesis 6*..... 356

6.5.7	Hypothesis 7.....	356
6.5.8	Hypothesis 8.....	357
6.5.9	Hypothesis 9.....	357
6.5.10	Hypothesis 10.....	358
6.5.11	Hypothesis 11.....	359
6.6	<u>Conclusion</u>	360

**CHAPTER SEVEN:
DISCUSSION OF RESULTS AND
IMPLICATIONS FOR NON-PROFIT ORGANISATIONS**

7.1	<u>Introduction</u>	361
7.2	<u>Discussion of results</u>	361
7.2.1	SEM results	361
7.2.2	Correlation results	366
7.2.3	Intrinsic reward demographic differences	372
7.2.4	Intrinsic motivation demographic differences	377
7.2.5	Work engagement demographic differences	379
7.2.6	Intention to quit demographic differences	382
7.2.7	Salary satisfaction demographic differences	384
7.2.8	Validation of the IWRS and IWMS	387
7.3	<u>Implications and recommendations for NPOs</u>	389
7.3.1	Redesigning NPO jobs to be intrinsically rewarding	389
7.3.2	Ensuring high levels of intrinsic motivation amongst NPO employees	392
7.3.3	Addressing work engagement and compassion fatigue/burnout	395
7.3.4	Improving retention within NPOs	397
7.3.5	Extrinsic reward systems within NPOs	399
7.4	<u>Conclusion</u>	401

**CHAPTER EIGHT:
CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND
RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

8.1	<u>Introduction</u>	402
8.2	<u>Limitations of the study</u>	402
8.2.1	Theoretical limitations	402
8.2.2	Cross-cultural limitations	404
8.2.3	Sampling limitations	406
8.3	<u>Recommendations for future research</u>	407
8.3.1	Relating intrinsic rewards to further positive organisational constructs	407
8.3.2	The relationship between intrinsic motivation and spirituality	408
8.3.3	The role of empathy and altruistic personality in enhancing intrinsic motivation	409
8.3.4	The link between intrinsic motivation and burnout / compassion fatigue	409
8.3.5	Correlating person-organisation and person-job fit with intrinsic motivation	410
8.3.6	The link between extrinsic, non-financial rewards and intrinsic motivation, work engagement and retention	410
8.3.7	Work engagement predicting intention to quit	411
8.4	<u>Conclusion</u>	411
	Reference List	413

ANNEXURE A:	AN EXPANDED MODEL OF WORK DESIGN
ANNEXURE B:	EXAMPLES OF WORLD VISION U.S. EMPLOYEES HIGHLIGHTING THE MEANINGFUL WORK THAT THEY EXPERIENCE
ANNEXURE C:	A SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE PRIMARY VARIABLES AND PROCESS OF EMPLOYEE TURNOVER
ANNEXURE D:	PHASE 1 – ORAL INFORMATION READ TO PARTICIPANTS PRIOR TO INTERVIEW
ANNEXURE E:	PHASE 1 – CONSENT FORM FOR INTERVIEW PARTICIPATION
ANNEXURE F:	PHASE 1 – SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE
ANNEXURE G:	PHASE 1 – THEMATIC FRAMEWORK
ANNEXURE H(1):	PHASE 2 – ENGLISH PILOT E-MAIL SENT TO IOP COLLEAGUES AND SOUTH AFRICAN NPO EMPLOYEES
ANNEXURE H(2):	PHASE 2 – DUTCH PILOT E-MAIL SENT TO BRLGIAN NPO EMPLOYEES
ANNEXURE I(1):	PHASE 3 – ENGLISH E-MAIL SENT TO AUSTRALIAN, SOUTH AFRICAN AND AMERICAN NPO EMPLOYEES
ANNEXURE I(2):	PHASE 3 – DUTCH E-MAIL SENT TO BELGIAN NPO EMPLOYEES
ANNEXURE J:	PHASE 3 – CONSENT FORM FOR QUESTIONNAIRE PARTICIPATION
ANNEXURE K:	ETHICS CLEARANCE FROM NMMU
ANNEXURE L:	FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION TABLES
ANNEXURE M:	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR ANOVA FACTORS

LIST OF TABLES

Number	Description	Page
Table 2.1	Summary of studies relating to intrinsic rewards within the four countries under study	82
Table 2.2	Summary of studies pertaining to intrinsic motivation within the four countries under study	112
Table 3.1	Summary of studies pertaining to work engagement within the four countries under study	134
Table 3.2	Summary of studies pertaining to intention to quit / turnover intentions within the four countries under study	158
Table 5.1	Frequency distribution of demographic variables for Phase 1 sample	187
Table 5.2	Frequency distribution of NPO categories for Phase 1 sample	189
Table 5.3	Frequency distribution of demographic variables for Phase 3 sample	201
Table 5.4	Cronbach's alpha values for IWRS obtained by Macnab (2014)	207
Table 5.5	Cronbach's alpha values for IWRS obtained by Hooper (2014)	210
Table 5.6	Cronbach's alpha values for UWES obtained by Jacobs et al. (2014)	211
Table 5.7	Cronbach's alpha values for JWIS obtained by Cohen (1993), Schlechter (2005), Kahumuza and Schlechter (2008) and Munyaka (2012)	212
Table 5.8	Interpretation intervals for Cronbach's alpha values	217
Table 5.9	Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the factors by questionnaire group	218
Table 6.1	EFA eigenvalues and cumulative percentage variance for IWRS	283
Table 6.2	EFA Results: IWRS items (n=587; Total % Variance Explained = 64.2%)	285
Table 6.3	EFA Results: IWRS items (n=587; Total % Variance Explained = 64.2%)	287
Table 6.4	EFA eigenvalues and cumulative percentage variance for IWMS	288

Table 6.5	Initial EFA Results: IWMS items (n=587; Total % Variance Explained = 60.3%)	289
Table 6.6	Final EFA Results: IWMS items (n = 587; Total % Variance Explained = 60.9%)	290
Table 6.7	Final factor structure of the IWMS	291
Table 6.8	New Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the factors by questionnaire group	292
Table 6.9	Observed CFA Fit Statistics: IWRS, IWMS and UWES	293
Table 6.10	Descriptive statistics for IWRS by Country	295
Table 6.11	Descriptive statistics for IWMS by Country	297
Table 6.12	Descriptive statistics for UWES by Country	299
Table 6.13	Descriptive statistics for JWIS by Country	300
Table 6.14	Descriptive Statistics for Salary Satisfaction by Country	300
Table 6.15	Correlations between measuring instruments, their factors, and Salary Satisfaction (n=587)	303
Table 6.16	Contingency table: Country and Gender	304
Table 6.17	Contingency table: Country and Age	305
Table 6.18	Contingency table: Country and Education	306
Table 6.19	Contingency table: Country and Marital Status	307
Table 6.20	Contingency table: Country and Language	307
Table 6.21	Contingency table: Country and Non-Profit Category	308
Table 6.22	Contingency table: Country and Job Level	309
Table 6.23	Contingency table: Country and Job Level	310
Table 6.24	ANOVA – F1.M by Country	311
Table 6.25	Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F1.M by Country	311
Table 6.26	ANOVA – F1.F by Country	311
Table 6.27	Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F1.F by Country	311
Table 6.28	ANOVA – F1.C by Country	312
Table 6.29	Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F1.C by Country	312

Table 6.30	ANOVA – F1.V by Country	312
Table 6.31	ANOVA – F1.E by Country	313
Table 6.32	ANOVA – F1.T by Country	313
Table 6.33	ANOVA – F2.C by Country	313
Table 6.34	Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F2.C by Country	314
Table 6.35	ANOVA – F2.D by Country	314
Table 6.36	Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F2.D by Country	315
Table 6.37	ANOVA – F2.P by Country	315
Table 6.38	Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F2.P by Country	316
Table 6.39	ANOVA – F2.T by Country	316
Table 6.40	Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F2.T by Country	317
Table 6.41	ANOVA – F3.A by Country	317
Table 6.42	Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F3.A by Country	318
Table 6.43	ANOVA – F3.D by Country	318
Table 6.44	Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F3.D by Country	318
Table 6.45	ANOVA – F3.V by Country	319
Table 6.46	Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F3.V by Country	319
Table 6.47	ANOVA – F3.T by Country	320
Table 6.48	Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F3.T by Country	320
Table 6.49	ANOVA – F4 by Country	320
Table 6.50	ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Country	320
Table 6.51	Multivariate ANOVA Statistics: F1.M to F1.T	322
Table 6.52	Univariate ANOVA Results: F1.M	322
Table 6.53	Post-hoc Results: F1.M	324

Table 6.54	Univariate ANOVA Results: F1.F	325
Table 6.55	Post-hoc Results: F1.F	325
Table 6.56	Univariate ANOVA Results: F1.C	326
Table 6.57	Post-hoc Results: F1.C	326
Table 6.58	Univariate ANOVA Results: F1.V	327
Table 6.59	Post-hoc Results: F1.V	327
Table 6.60	Univariate ANOVA Results: F1.E	328
Table 6.61	Post-hoc Results: F1.E	329
Table 6.62	Univariate ANOVA Results: F1.T	330
Table 6.63	Post-hoc Results: F1.T	330
Table 6.64	Multivariate ANOVA Statistics: F2.C to F2.T	331
Table 6.65	Univariate ANOVA Results: F2.C	332
Table 6.66	Post-hoc Results: F2.C	332
Table 6.67	Univariate ANOVA Results: F2.D	333
Table 6.68	Post-hoc Results: F2.D	333
Table 6.69	Univariate ANOVA Results: F2.P	334
Table 6.70	Post-hoc Results: F2.P	335
Table 6.71	Univariate ANOVA Results: F2.T	336
Table 6.72	Post-hoc Results: F2.T	336
Table 6.73	Multivariate ANOVA Statistics: F3.A to F3.T	337
Table 6.74	Univariate ANOVA Results: F3.A	338
Table 6.75	Post-hoc Results: F3.A	338
Table 6.76	Univariate ANOVA Results: F3.D	339
Table 6.77	Post-hoc Results: F3.D	340
Table 6.78	Univariate ANOVA Results: F3.V	341
Table 6.79	Post-hoc Results: F3.V	341
Table 6.80	Univariate ANOVA Results: F3.T	342
Table 6.81	Post-hoc Results: F3.T	343
Table 6.82	Univariate ANOVA Results: F4	344
Table 6.83	Post-hoc Results: F4	344
Table 6.84	Univariate ANOVA Results: Salary Satisfaction	345
Table 6.85	Post-hoc Results: Salary Satisfaction	345

Table 6.86	t-Test: Salary Satisfaction by Gender	345
Table 6.87	t-Test: Salary Satisfaction by Education ²	346
Table 6.88	ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Age	346
Table 6.89	Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Age	346
Table 6.90	ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Marital Status ²	347
Table 6.91	Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Marital Status ²	347
Table 6.92	ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Non-profit category ²	347
Table 6.93	ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Job Level ²	348
Table 6.94	Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Job Level ²	348
Table 6.95	Observed SEM Fit Statistics	349

LIST OF FIGURES

Number	Description	Page
Figure 1.1	Australian cultural work values	15
Figure 1.2	Belgian cultural work values	17
Figure 1.3	South African cultural work values	19
Figure 1.4	American cultural work values	20
Figure 2.1	Structure of Rewards	40
Figure 2.2	The Primary Elements of a Total Reward System	41
Figure 2.3	Total Reward Components	42
Figure 2.4	Total Rewards Mix	43
Figure 2.5	Total Rewards Model	44
Figure 2.6	The Towers Perrin Model of Total Reward	45
Figure 2.7	The Engaged Performance Framework	46
Figure 2.8	Segal/Sibson's ROW Model	47
Figure 2.9	Total Returns for Work	48
Figure 2.10	The Total Compensation/Rewards System	49
Figure 2.11	Job opportunities at World Vision U.S.	58
Figure 2.12	Self Perception and Intrinsic Motivation	108
Figure 3.1	The Job Demands-Resources Model of Work Engagement	128
Figure 3.2	The Unfolding Model of Voluntary Turnover	149
Figure 4.1	Proposed theoretical model	173
Figure 5.1	A participant map of research ethics	223
Figure 6.1	Diagram of Structural Model 1 with standardised regression weightings	349
Figure 6.2	Path diagram for Model 1	350
Figure 6.3	Diagram of Structural Model 2 with standardised regression weightings	352
Figure 6.4	Path diagram for Model 2	353

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The people who work and volunteer for non-profits are the heart of the sector's contribution to our communities. Yet the scope and characteristics of this substantial workforce are largely unknown and infrequently discussed outside of academic circles.

(Peters, Fernandopulle, Masaoka, Chan & Wolfred, 2002, p. 2)

1.1 **Introduction**

The aim of this thesis is to investigate whether intrinsic rewards play a role in the intrinsic motivation, work engagement and retention of employees working within non-profit organisations (NPOs) in Australia, Belgium, South Africa (SA) and the United States of America (USA). The study intends to form a cross-cultural comparison between employees from these four countries, in order to evaluate whether cultural differences occur with regards to the effects of intrinsic rewards on NPO employees' levels of intrinsic motivation, work engagement and/or intention to quit. An additional aim is to determine whether significant demographic differences occur across these constructs. This study will thus contribute to the knowledge base of rewards, motivation, engagement and retention within four geographically dispersed countries.

The purpose of this first chapter is to provide an overview of the theoretical background to the research, the problem statements, the research objectives of the thesis as well as the central theoretical statement. A brief explanation of the research process will be provided, followed by an outline of the remaining thesis chapters.

1.2 **Background to the research**

According to the Republic of South Africa's Department of Social Development (2011), an NPO is defined in terms of Section 1 of the NPO Act "as a trust,

company or other association of persons established for a public purpose and of which its income and property are not distributable to its members or office bearers except as reasonable compensation for services rendered”. NPOs therefore include any organisation whose interest is to benefit the community and operate for non-profit purposes, such as churches, schools, youth or sport clubs, learning institutions, or dance or theatre groups, amongst others (Association for Non Profit Organisations SA, 2012).¹ They are social enterprises that aim to generate funding or provide human resources to assist various types of social causes (Surtees, Sanders, Shipton & Knight, 2014).

Ryder (2009) explains that for at least the next 25 years, there will only be one person in the pipeline to replace every two employees retiring globally; and for every “Baby Boomer” retiring, at least three young employees are required to take their place. Globally, however, only one employee can be provided. Organisations around the world are facing increasing competition, resulting in employee turnover together with skills shortages (Balta, 2014). In SA, a growing number of skilled and well educated South Africans leave to work in developed countries, which are hungry for talent (Ryder, 2009). This author states that these exiting employees often feel unappreciated, disrespected and inhibited at work, adding to their desire to leave the country to work in the developed world where they will be offered respect and opportunities for advancement. According to Cape Higher Education Consortium (2013), 27.1 per cent of Western Cape university graduates surveyed indicated that they intend to leave South Africa either permanently or temporarily in the future. Of those who indicated their intent to leave the country, 54.1 per cent stated that they would move to a country in Europe (such as Belgium, included in the present sample),

¹ Within SA, the term *Non-Profit Organisation* encompasses *Non-Profit Companies* (NPCs), *Non-Governmental Organisations* (NGOs), *Public Benefit Organisations* (PBOs) as well as *Community-Based Organisations* (CBOs) (Association for Non Profit Organisations SA, 2012; Department of Social Development, 2011). The Department of Social Development (2011) further clarifies that in some instances, NPOs are referred to as *Civil Society Organisations* (CSO). For this reason, research conducted in any of the above-mentioned types of organisations / companies will be referred to in this thesis since they are all classified as NPOs.

14.2 per cent to a country in North America (such as the USA, included in the present sample), and 10.5 per cent to a country in Oceania (such as Australia, included in the present sample). Ryder (2009) emphasises that NPOs are not protected from these developments, which demonstrates the scarcity of skills worldwide. Such pressures have caused the retention of talented employees to become an integral priority for all organisations (Balta, 2014).

Moreover, Glicken and Robinson (2013) highlight that the current economy has resulted in NPOs, as well as companies and public organisations, needing to respond quickly to decreasing funding and changing market needs in order to remain effective and profitable. These authors go on to state that this results in the need for constant reorganisation, which ultimately causes employees to operate in a continual state of changing organisational structures, processes, procedures and bosses. As goals and performance measurements shift accordingly, organisations become less committed to employees who were valued prior to these changes, which causes lower levels of morale and increased levels of dissatisfaction and burnout (Glicken & Robinson, 2013).

In addition, Glicken and Robinson (2013) explain that those working within helping professions are prone to compassion fatigue, a condition in which individuals experience a decline in their ability to care for others and feel joy. This typically occurs when high levels of energy and compassion are expended, yet little internal peace or positive feedback is received in return for such efforts. The researcher notes that employees working in NPOs may be prone to such fatigue, since their purpose is to operate to benefit the lives of others, which will be explored in greater detail in relation to motivation later in this thesis. If such compassion fatigue is experienced, NPO professionals may begin to experience what Glicken and Robinson (2013) refer to as secondary traumatic stress, due to the physical and emotional trauma that results from caring for others in need. Such individuals bear the risk of decreased levels of motivation and engagement, which could lead to them exiting the NPO sector. This sets the scene for the need for NPOs not only to retain their talent, but to motivate and engage them in today's reality of an ever-changing, stressful work environment.

NPOs can make use of total rewards in order to affect the levels of intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit experienced by their employees. An introduction on total rewards thus follows.

1.2.1 Total rewards

Total reward is essentially focused on understanding what elements of the work environment employees themselves regard as rewards for their work in addition to traditional pay and benefits - and which they find most motivating and engaging.

(Murlis, 2009, p. 1)

An organisation's most important asset is its set of talented human resources, as these assets form the core element responsible for the realisation of its competitive advantage (Analoui, 2007; Ryder, 2008). For this reason, it is vital to effectively attract, retain and motivate top talent. However, traditional models of motivation (such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs or Vroom's Expectancy Theory) were developed when work and workers were very different from how they are today (Thomas, 2009b). The researcher notes that these motivational models were also tested in a sector of the economy different from the non-profit sector focused on for this study.

Moreover, according to Thomas (2009b), many of today's employees are required to use judgement and initiative to a greater extent than in previous years, and many work in jobs that are more meaningful, with higher scope for individual discretion. WorldatWork (2007) add that the face of the world of work has changed, with more working parents, dual-income households, single parents, women, Generation X'ers and Generation Y'ers in the marketplace. As a result, job-related expectations and attitudes are changing (WorldatWork, 2007). As stated by Thomas (2009b), younger employees also have different expectations about their work, and often find their own ways to accomplish tasks.

Additionally, both employees and organisations have experienced a shift over the last decade to a globalised economy that makes increasing use of technology and services (Lucy, Kochanski & Sorensen, 2006). This has changed the nature of work as well as influenced not only the relationships between employees and their employers, but also what employees value about their work (Lucy et al., 2006).

For these reasons, in today's market, traditional remuneration and benefits packages are no longer enough to effectively attract, retain and motivate employees: a more holistic approach is required that caters to the personal, professional and financial needs of contemporary employees (Achievement Awards Group, 2008). New employees are not necessarily wanting pay increases alone; instead, organisations must now focus on more than just pay (WorldatWork, 2007).

This has led to the development of the use of "total rewards", referring to all monetary and non-monetary returns that are provided to employees in exchange for what they put into their work, such as their time, efforts, results and talents (WorldatWork, 2007). This includes everything that employees value in their employment relationship; all that they receive as a result of working for an organisation; and every investment that an organisation makes in its employees (WorldatWork, 2007). According to Armstrong and Brown (2009), "total rewards" links all aspects of rewards, including financial (or transactional / tangible) rewards such as base pay, contingent pay and employee benefits, as well as intrinsic rewards which stem from the work itself. As stated by Ryder (2009), employee performance must be driven through both extrinsic *and* intrinsic rewards, in order to assist in motivating and retaining productive human capital.

1.2.1.1 Extrinsic versus intrinsic rewards within NPOs

Extrinsic rewards can be defined as reinforcers that are not directly under an individual's control, but instead are provided by a different person as a result of an individual's behaviour (Beck, 2004). They include all forms of reward that employees receive from sources other than the job itself, including financial

compensation such as bonuses, and non-financial rewards such as designated parking spaces (Meyer & Kirsten, 2012). As such, extrinsic rewards are tangible, controlled by others in terms of size and distribution, and are external to the work itself (Davis, 2014). On the other hand, intrinsic rewards are personal, internal, psychological responses to one's work that employees get from doing work that is meaningful, and performing such work well (Tippet & Kluvers, 2007; Thomas, 2009b). Such rewards are mediated within employees (Deci, 1972) and contribute to their sense of self, through the meeting of their psychological needs (Davis, 2014). For the purposes of this thesis, the researcher notes that intrinsic rewards refer to rewards that employees gain from *the nature of their work itself*.

As stated by Armstrong and Brown (2009, p. 23), "total rewards" makes it clear that "there is more to rewarding people than throwing money at them". Indeed, Deci (1971, p. 114) has explained that:

"It appears that money – perhaps because of its connotation and use in our culture – may act as a stimulus which leads the subjects to a cognitive reevaluation of the activity from one which is motivated primarily by the expectation of financial rewards. In short, money may work to "buy off" one's intrinsic motivation for an activity".

Thus, money should not be the primary means of motivating employees, as financial rewards result in the decrease of an employees' intrinsic motivation: if extrinsic rewards succeed in motivating behaviour, they do so at the expense of intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1972). Instead, as highlighted by Walters (1975), the nature of work itself (that is, how one's work is designed) is directly responsible for work motivation. Based on the above, it is evident that intrinsic rewards play a role in employees' levels of motivation.

Within the non-profit sector, intrinsic rewards play an important role for another, more obvious reason: employees working in NPOs are paid less than those working in the private sector (Tippet & Kluvers, 2009). Adwin (2013) states that in the USA, the non-profit industry is one of three industries with the lowest actual salary-increase budgets and salary range adjustments. In agreement with this, Cohen (2010), highlighting 2008 research from the National

Compensation Study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, mentions that full-time non-profit employees in the USA are likely to be paid less than their private sector or government counterparts, particularly in higher-level and management jobs; and non-profit employees generally receive fewer bonuses and equity than private sector employees. Secretaries and administrative assistants in non-profit organisations can expect to receive on average 20 per cent *less* than those working in larger private sector organisations (Cohen, 2010). Such earnings are, however, dictated by the size of the organisation and its occupational activity. According to Ryder (2008), employees working for independent NGOs in SA earn, on average, 40.37 per cent *less* than employees in the private sector in this country; and employees working for independent South African NGOs earn, on average, 22.06 per cent *less* than those working for international NGOs.

Based on the lower salaries received by NPO employees, it can be assumed that extrinsic rewards will not be a source of motivation for them. Schepers et al. (2005), through a review of previous studies, indeed provide initial evidence indicating that intrinsic rewards, as opposed to extrinsic rewards such as money, motivate employees working in NPOs. More investigation is, however, required in order to understand what motivates NPO employees to remain working in these organisations, despite the fact that they do not necessarily have the potential to earn high salaries within NPOs (that is, they receive lower levels of extrinsic rewards compared to employees in the private sector). As noted by Cohen (2010), traditionally, the non-profit sector has attracted employees desiring a vocational mission and purpose, as opposed to only a high level of compensation. Hence, this research will investigate whether intrinsic rewards will instead motivate and engage NPO employees, and lower their intentions to leave their organisations. To the researcher's knowledge, the relationship between the aforementioned four constructs (namely, intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit) within the NPO context has not yet been investigated empirically in any previous study.

This emphasises the need to conduct this study within the NPO context. As stated by Swanepoel, Erasmus and Schenk (2008), an organisation's strategic

objectives, culture and values affect its remuneration policy, together with their ability to pay their employees. Employee motivation also cannot be studied in isolation from its organisational context, owing to the fact that it is the activities that take place within the organisation that are being studied (Tippet & Kluvers, 2009). Thus, it is necessary to investigate these constructs within the unique organisational setting that NPOs provide. Five intrinsic rewards will be investigated in this study, namely *meaningful work*; *flexible work*; *challenging work*; *varied work*; and *enjoyable work*, and these will be defined and explained in Chapter Two.

1.2.2 Intrinsic motivation, engagement and retention of NPO employees

Armstrong and Brown (2009) explain that the aim of total rewards is to maximise the collective impact that a wide range of reward types will have on employee motivation, engagement and organisational commitment. The components of a firm's total rewards strategy lead to its ability to attract, motivate and retain their employees, which furthermore lead to employee satisfaction and engagement (WorldatWork, 2007). This research will focus on the effect that intrinsic rewards have on three of these outcomes of rewards, namely motivation (specifically intrinsic motivation), work engagement, and retention (in the form of employees' intentions to quit their organisations). These constructs will now be discussed, to emphasise the importance of this study.

1.2.2.1 Intrinsic motivation of NPO employees

According to Ryan and Deci (2000, p. 69), motivation is made up of energy, persistence and direction, and is highly valued in organisations owing to the fact that it mobilises individuals to act. Specifically, intrinsic motivation refers to doing a task for the inherent satisfaction of the task itself, because individuals have an inherent tendency to explore, learn, enlarge and exercise their capabilities, and seek out novelties and challenges (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Employees would therefore be intrinsically motivated to perform work when they receive no apparent rewards apart from the task or activity itself, or the feelings resulting from the work (Deci, 1971; 1972). If an individual is intrinsically motivated, then he is performing the activity because it provides him with internal satisfaction; that is, the perceived locus of causality of his

behaviour is within himself (Deci, 1972). Thus, individuals are intrinsically motivated for tasks that hold intrinsic interest for them, or that hold the appeal of challenge, novelty or aesthetic value (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The three dimensions of intrinsic motivation to be investigated in the present study are *personal connection to one's work*; *personal desire to make a difference*; and *personal desire to perform*. These dimensions will be given a theoretical focus in Chapter Two.

Keeping highly skilled and qualified employees motivated is a major problem for NGOs (Sokkie, 2013). As mentioned by Our Community (n.d.), paid NPO employees have different drivers (motivators) to their commercial peers, owing to the fact that many individuals choose to work for NPOs because they are drawn to the idea of working to benefit society. For this reason, NPO employees are often satisfied with swapping a large salary for the satisfaction that can be derived from working for a cause. Our Community (n.d.) goes on to state that:

“While this does not mean that not-for-profit employees should be poorly paid, it is useful to note that their motivations and view of rewards may differ from those in other sectors. Of course, on the flip side, many not-for-profit employees will see their position as just another job and almost all employees will, at some time or other, feel frustrated at having to work within a sector often characterised by shortages.”

The researcher of the present study does acknowledge that certain contextual factors may influence what motivates employees to work within NPOs (for example, labour market factors); that is, intrinsic motivation may not be the only reason why employees choose to work for NPOs. What is nonetheless clear from the above is that it is important to determine whether NPO employees are intrinsically motivated to work within their organisations, in order to clarify what drives their behaviour.

The researcher has been unable to find reliable empirical studies that quantitatively measure the intrinsic motivation of NPO employees. Tippet and Kluvers (2009) did investigate extrinsic and intrinsic motivators (rewards) within the Australian NPO context; however, their research cannot be relied upon to

infer meaningful results: the researcher of the present study notes that their research used a small sample of 52 employees, and their measuring instrument comprised of only a few statements claiming to relate to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and motivation, but which do not relate directly to these constructs. Specifically, these authors measured *satisfaction* with pay, although satisfaction is a different construct altogether from motivation; moreover, their three 'intrinsic' statements related to being motivated by the achievements of others, having fun at work, and enjoying work-life balance; however, as will be elaborated on in Chapter Two, these aspects are extrinsic non-financial rewards, *not* intrinsic rewards. In addition, no information was provided on the reliability and validity of the instrument used, and the conclusions that the authors came to are questionable, such as using the terms 'satisfaction' and 'motivation' interchangeably. For these reasons, the researcher deems that their study superficially measured intrinsic rewards and motivation; further illustrating the importance of a well-executed quantitative empirical study to be conducted on intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation within the non-profit sector.

1.2.2.2 Work engagement of NPO employees

According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2003), the emergence of positive organisational psychology has resulted in positive aspects of health and well-being becoming more popular in research studies. Work engagement is one such positive aspect (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Employees have a desire to be engaged in work that helps them feel that they are positively contributing to something larger than themselves (HayGroup, n.d.). Work engagement can be described as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá & Bakker, 2002, p. 4). Thus, engaged employees feel enthusiastic and vigorous about their work, as opposed to employees who are burnt out and feel cynical and exhausted (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003).

To be engaged implies that an employee exhibits a "persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state", which is not focused on a specific event, object, behaviour or individual (Schaufeli, Salanova et al., 2002, p. 74). Being *vigorous*

entails engaged employees having high levels of energy and mental resilience on the job, willingly investing their effort in their work and persisting despite facing difficulties (Schaufeli, Salanova et al., 2002). These authors go on to explain that being *dedicated* means that engaged employees feel a sense of inspiration, significance, pride, enthusiasm and challenge in their work; and being *absorbed* suggests that they concentrate fully on their work and are deeply engrossed in it, resulting in time passing quickly. Consequently, engaged employees often have difficulty in detaching themselves from their work. These three aspects of work engagement will be examined in greater detail in Chapter Three.

The nature of an NPO employee's tasks is not trivial; in fact, it is probable that the nature of an NPO employee's work is the very reason why he or she works in this sector in the first place (Tippet & Kluvers, 2008). As mentioned by Lyons (1999), NPOs are generally formed as a result of peoples' enthusiasms or commitments, and for this reason, these organisations are strongly driven by values. The researcher therefore notes that one can be led to believe that NPO employees would by nature be engaged in their work, especially if they chose to work in their specific organisations because they feel that they are contributing to society or assisting in meeting the needs of their clients. While no research could be found that measured *paid employees'* levels of work engagement within the non-profit sector to confirm this, Vecina, Chacón, Sueiro and Barrón (2012) did investigate work engagement amongst *volunteers* who were active members of NPOs. Their results indicated that work engagement is crucial both to the satisfaction and commitment of volunteers, and that volunteer satisfaction and commitment are both key in explaining whether they intended to continue volunteering in the future. This suggests that the same could hold true for paid employees within the NPO context. Additionally, Lin (2009) found that employees who worked in organisations that were perceived to demonstrate corporate citizenship behaviours, exhibited high levels of work engagement. This suggests that employees who work for organisations that are socially responsible (as in the case of NPOs) would exhibit high levels of work engagement.

1.2.2.3 Retention within NPOs

Retaining suitable and valuable employees is a key objective of any remuneration system (Swanepoel et al., 2008). Particularly in SA, there is a shortage of basic managerial and leadership competencies as well as technical skills owing to the country's deteriorating education system that is not adequately developing verbal reasoning and problem solving skills (Ryder, 2008). For this reason, talented individuals are scarce. Yet, according to Ryder (2008), there has been a paradigm shift in organisations where individuals are mobile and display short-term commitment to their employers as opposed to being loyal to one organisation.

Kuttner (2008) mentions that high levels of turnover are the industry standard for casual, low-paid, human-service jobs, with NonProfit HR Solutions (2013) stating that the average turnover rate within American NPOs was 17 per cent in 2012. This includes eleven per cent voluntary turnover, the type of turnover focused on in the present study. A different study found that in the San Francisco Bay and Silicon Valley areas in the USA, the majority of employees exiting NPOs moved on to other NPOs, with only 20 per cent of employees leaving to join for-profit organisations (Peters et al., 2002). Unfortunately, such NPO turnover statistics could not be found for the other three countries under study. In general, however, it can be highlighted that staff turnover in Australia was 13 per cent between 2012 and 2013 (Smith, 2013). SD Worx (2008) state that Belgium experienced an overall employee turnover rate of approximately 17.46 per cent in 2007, with that statistic rising to 39 per cent for employees younger than 25 years of age. In SA in 2006, average staff turnover was 12.3 per cent (Izwe Consulting, 2009). Globally, employee turnover rates are approximately 25 per cent per annum, implying that on average, organisations replace their total workforce every four years; an expensive process seeing that estimations place the cost of employee turnover at 150 per cent of the total cost to an organisation of employing that employee (Ryder, 2008).

Consequently, Ryder (2008) states that South African NGOs must begin to focus on retaining employees if they want to guarantee their own long term sustainability and programme delivery, especially since Sokkie (2013) states

that a primary issue for human resources in the NGO environment is the retention of highly skilled and qualified employees. Philanthropy News Digest (2012) are in agreement with this, mentioning that NPOs in the USA need stronger retention programmes, since three quarters of the NPOs mentioned in their article claimed to have no formal retention strategies in place. This emphasises the need to conduct research on whether NPO employees display an intention to leave their organisations in the near future.

For the purposes of this study, retention will be measured by investigating the concept of “intention to quit”. Boshoff, Van Wyk, Hoole and Owen (2002, p. 14) define intention to quit as “the strength of an individual’s view that he/she does not want to stay with his/her current employer”, thus indicating how probable it is that he or she will leave the organisation in the near future. This is similar to the concept of voluntary turnover, indicating separation due to an employee choosing to leave his or her organisation for professional or personal reasons (Phillips & Gully, 2012).

1.2.3 Working within Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA

Since employees are operating in a world that is increasingly interconnected and complex, House (2004, p. 4) notes that there is a great need for “effective international and cross-cultural communication, collaboration, and cooperation, not only for the effective practice of management but also for the betterment of the human condition”. As economic barriers fall, countries become increasingly connected and organisations experience globalisation. Cultural barriers then also rise, which presents new challenges as well as opportunities for organisations (House, 2004). One such challenge is the ability to acknowledge as well as appreciate cultural values, practices and subtleties across different countries worldwide, and for managers to be flexible to respond effectively to the differing ideas and opinions of individuals from other cultures (House, 2004). It is for this reason that the present study focuses on four different countries, in order to draw cross-cultural comparisons.

According to Smith, Bond and Kağitçibaşı (2006, p. 77), nations are organised systems that have cultures, due to the fact that they are “political units with

distinctive ecological, historical, political, educational, legal, regulatory, social, and economic characteristics”. It is therefore imperative briefly to highlight the differing cultural values of the four countries under study, according to the research of Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010).

1.2.3.1 Australian cultural work values

The cultural values for Australia are exhibited in Figure 1.1. It is evident that Australia scores fairly low for *power distance* (36), implying that subordinates are considered relatively equal to their superiors, with decentralisation being common (Hofstede et al., 2010). Consultation and information-sharing is expected and frequent, with managers making themselves accessible to their subordinates (Hofstede et al., 2010). This suggests that Australians may experience high levels of flexible work, a type of intrinsic reward to be measured in the present study.

Australia scores 90 on the *individualism* dimension, thus being a highly individualistic culture in which employees are independent and look after themselves (Hofstede et al., 2010). Such employees are self-reliant, with an expectation that they display initiative (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.). The researcher notes that it can be expected that Australians will find intrinsic motivation to be an important concept, since Gelfand, Bhawuk, Hisae Nishii and Bechtold (2004) highlight that theories relating to intrinsic motivation (such as Deci’s 1971 and 1972 theories) were developed in individualistic cultures that place value on employees being allowed to make their own choices and exert their own control at work.

Australia is deemed to be a *masculine* society, since they score 61 for this dimension. This implies that employees strive to be the best that they can be, and exhibit their behaviours along this line; that is, the goal of work situations is for individuals to ‘win’ because “the winner takes all” (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.). Australians are thus proud of their successes and achievements. The researcher mentions that this could predict that Australians will enjoy work that is challenging (a type of intrinsic reward) to a greater extent than those from

feminine societies, and that they will be more strongly motivated by a personal desire to perform (a dimension of intrinsic motivation).

Australians are moreover neutral in terms of *uncertainty avoidance*, scoring 51. With regards to *pragmatism*, Australia scores 21 and can be said to have a normative culture. It is therefore expected that Australian employees respect tradition and focus on achieving short-term results (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.). Finally, Australians are highly *indulgent*, scoring 71 on this dimension. Hofstede et al. (2010) explain that employees should therefore possess positive, optimistic attitudes, since they generally enjoy life by realising their impulses and desires. This may suggest that Australian respondents in the present study will exhibit high levels of enjoyable work, another type of intrinsic reward.

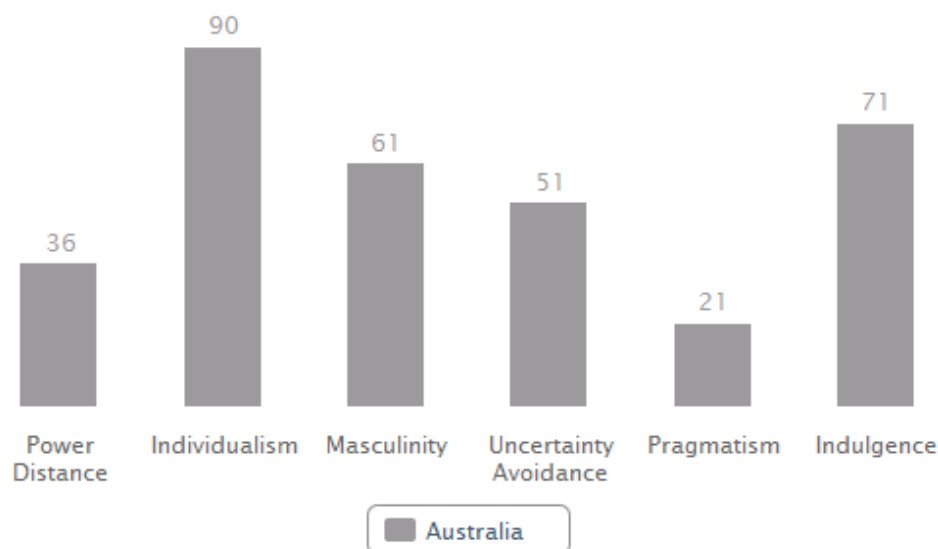


Figure 1.1: Australian cultural work values (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.)

1.2.3.2 Belgian cultural work values

Belgians exhibit a higher level of *power distance* compared to Australia, with a score of 65. Therefore, inequalities are accepted by employees in this society; and organisational hierarchies exist, with managers enjoying special privileges and often being inaccessible (Hofstede et al., 2010). Information is not distributed equally amongst members of the organisation, and such inequality is endorsed both by subordinates and managers (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.). Attitudes towards managers would be more formal than in Australia, with

managerial control being exerted. This could imply that lower levels of flexible work, a type of intrinsic reward, are provided to Belgian employees.

Belgium, like Australia, is highly *individualistic*, with a score of 75, implying that they may also be motivated intrinsically. Belgian employees focus strongly on their tasks, and favour the management of individuals at work as opposed to groups (Hofstede et al., 2010). According to The Hofstede Centre (n.d.), the Belgian culture is contradictory in the sense that it needs a hierarchy despite being highly individualistic. Such a combination of high power distance and high individualism creates a “tension” in the Belgian culture, which makes work relationships delicate but intense. The Hofstede Centre (n.d.) suggests that Belgian managers maintain personal contact with individual employees, allowing individuals to voice their opinions and thus giving the impression that each employee is important, although unequal.

Belgians are intermediate in terms of *masculinity*, scoring 54. Belgian employees therefore aim to reach compromises and achieve mutual agreements (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.). The ability to win discussions is less important to them than in the Australian work culture. For this reason, the decision-making process may be slower since individual points of view are often considered in order to ensure that consensus is achieved (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.). Belgium’s *uncertainty avoidance* score of 94 is extremely high, indicating that Belgians favour planning, structure, security, precision and formalisation in an attempt to control the future (Hofstede et al., 2010). They also need detail and context to be provided, and find a change of policies to be stressful. The present researcher notes that this may imply that Belgians will indicate a weaker intention to quit their organisations, since remaining at their current organisations would be deemed less risky compared to quitting their jobs. As noted by Sully De Luque and Javidin (2004), employees from countries high in uncertainty avoidance would seek order and structure in their lives. A high uncertainty avoidance could also therefore suggest that Belgians would find their work to be less flexible in nature, with more control being exerted over their work by their superiors.

Belgians are more *pragmatic* than Australians, with a high score of 82. Their employees therefore demonstrate thriftiness and persevere in achieving results (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.). They also perceive truth to depend on the situation, context and time. Finally, with a score of 57, Belgians are less *indulgent* than Australians. They do, however, still exhibit positive attitudes and demonstrate a willingness to enjoy life and act as they please (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.).

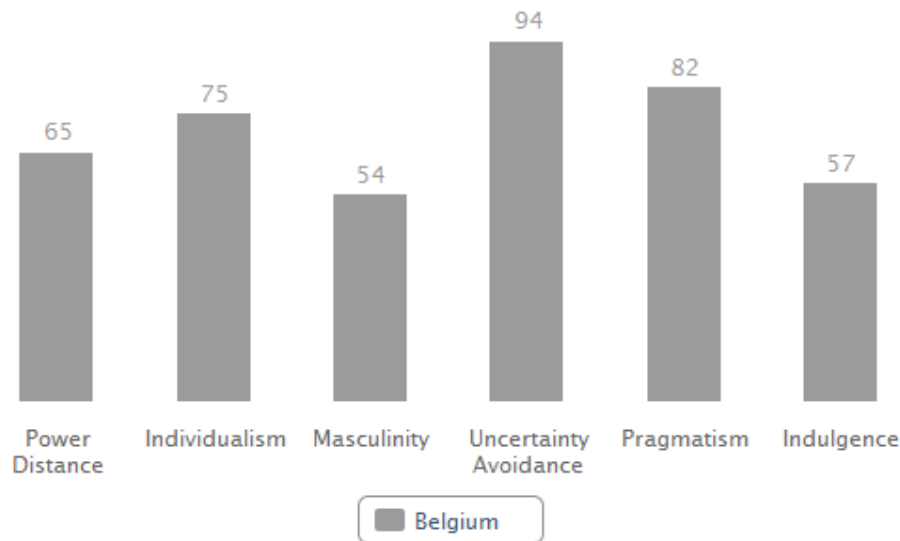


Figure 1.2: Belgian cultural work values (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.)

1.2.3.3 South African cultural work values

From the outset, it is necessary to highlight that the discussion to follow is based on research conducted by Hofstede et al. (2010) that focused only on the white population of SA. Since the majority of the South African population (80.2%) is African (black) in race (Statistics South Africa, 2014a), their scores may be different from those discussed here. However, the research of Hofstede et al. (2010) nonetheless provides a glimpse into the values of certain members of this society.

South Africans generally accept an organisational hierarchical order in which all employees have a place, implied by their score of 49 for *power distance* (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.). This score is higher than that of Australia but lower than that of Belgium. The Hofstede Centre (n.d.) notes that such hierarchical order

reflects inherent inequalities, with subordinates expecting to be told what they should be doing.

SA, like Australia and Belgium, is an *individualistic* society, scoring 65 for this dimension. This means that the white inhabitants of this country prefer a social framework that is loosely-knit, with employees being expected to look after their own interests (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.). The researcher highlights that respondents from SA in the present study may report higher levels of intrinsic motivation as a result of their individualism. Moreover, SA is a *masculine* society like the former two countries, scoring 63. South Africans thus live for their work, with competition, success, achievement and performance being emphasised in the workplace and managers being expected to be both assertive and decisive (Hofstede et al., 2010). According to the researcher of the present study, this suggests that, like Australians, South Africans may exhibit a personal desire to perform (a dimension of intrinsic motivation) and may find their work to be challenging (a type of intrinsic reward).

In a similar way to Australia but in contrast to Belgium, SA scores 49 for *uncertainty avoidance* and thus has a fairly low preference for this dimension. South Africans therefore exhibit a more relaxed attitude at work, with flexible schedules being tolerated or encouraged, and employees preferring to have no more rules than are absolutely necessary (Hofstede et al., 2010). Consequently, punctuality as well as precision are not emphasised, and hard work occurs when necessary, not for its own sake (Hofstede et al., 2010). The researcher notes that this seems to contradict South Africans living to work, owing to their emphasis on the value of masculinity at work. Such a low score on uncertainty avoidance also implies that flexibility at work may be encouraged, which contrasts with what was noted previously regarding South Africans having low levels of flexibility due to control being exerted by managers at work.

Once again similar to Australia but opposing to Belgium, SA scored a low 34 for pragmatism, implying that they are more *normative* in nature. As a result, South Africans exhibit respect for traditions and focus on gaining quick results

(The Hofstede Centre, n.d.). Like both Australia and Belgium, white South Africans are *indulgent*, with a score of 63. Employees in SA therefore enjoy having fun, are optimistic and perceive leisure time to be important (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.). Their responses to the intrinsic reward dimension of enjoyable work in the present study may be high as a result.

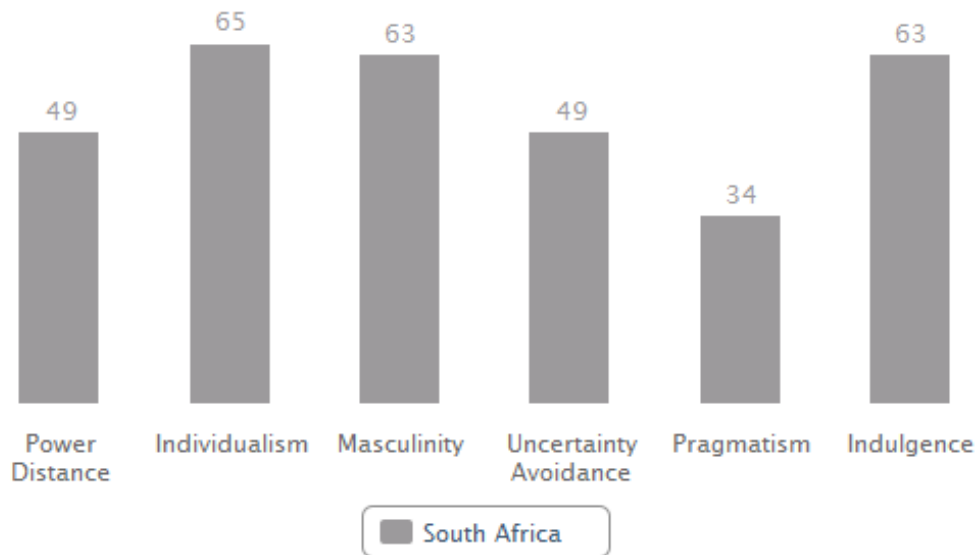


Figure 1.3: South African cultural work values (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.)

1.2.3.4 American cultural work values

Americans place a low value on *power distance* (score of 40), much like Australia and SA but dissimilar to Belgium. The Hofstede Centre (n.d.) notes that this score, taken together with the fact that the USA is highly *individualistic*, with a score of 91, illustrates that Americans emphasise equal rights; individual employees are relied on for their expertise; managers are accessible; informal yet direct and participative consultation and information-sharing is expected; and it is expected that employees be self-reliant and display initiative, thus creating an under-reliance on managers for support. Consequently, American respondents in the present study may deem their work to be flexible in nature.

Like the three countries already discussed, the USA is *masculine*, scoring 62 for this dimension. Taken with their high individualism score, it can be noted that American employees strive to be of their best, and desire to display their achievements and successes openly, as this motivates them (The Hofstede

Centre, n.d.). Targets and goal setting are thus emphasised at work. Moreover, Americans generally possess a “can-do” mentality, since they believe in always being able to improve and do things better (Hofstede et al., 2010). This author goes on to note that Americans typically live for their work in order to obtain monetary rewards and attain higher status based on their performance. Since this is the case, they may perceive their work to be challenging, and may demonstrate a strong personal desire to perform at work, which are aspects of intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation respectively.

The USA holds a similar *uncertainty avoidance* score to Australia and SA, with a low score of 46. The Hofstede Centre (n.d.) states that Americans show a moderate acceptance of new ideas, opinions and innovation. They tend to allow freedom of expression, and are less emotionally expressive than higher-scoring cultures. This relative avoidance of uncertainty may imply that Americans in the present study, unlike those from Belgium, will declare stronger intentions to quit their organisations, since they are not afraid of risk-taking.

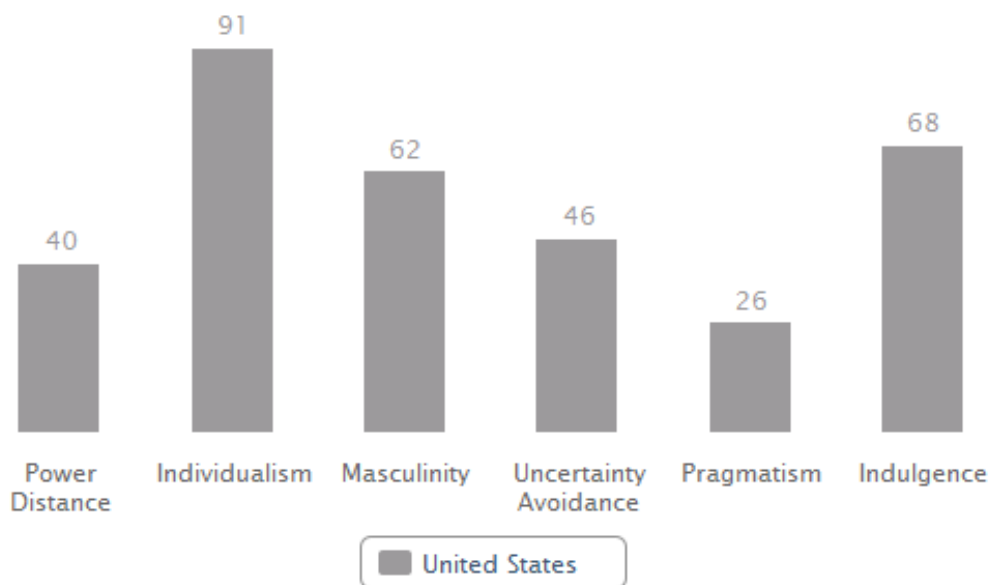


Figure 1.4: American cultural work values (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.)

This country is also similar to Australia and SA but dissimilar to Belgium in its low score of 26 for *pragmatism*, indicating that Americans tend to analyse new information to check its validity, and possess strong opinions regarding what is

“good” and “evil” (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.). American organisations measure performance on a short-term basis, which drives employees to strive for quick results. Finally, the USA is *indulgent*, like the three countries already discussed, with a score of 68. This suggests that Americans show relatively weak control in trying to control their desires and impulses, based on the way in which they were raised (The Hofstede Centre, n.d.), which may indicate that they will demonstrate high levels of enjoyable work, a type of intrinsic reward.

1.2.3.5 Comparison of Hofstede’s cultural values together with Project GLOBE findings

The above overview of national cultural values provides motivation for why these four countries were chosen for the present study: each country displays moderate to high levels of individualism and masculinity, two dimensions of national culture that may correlate to intrinsic motivation measured in the present study. As noted by Javidin (2004), countries high in Hofstede et al.’s (2010) masculinity dimension typically exhibit a greater performance or achievement orientation, which is similar to one dimension of intrinsic motivation put forth by the present researcher, namely possessing a personal desire to perform. Indeed, the researcher highlights that in addition to Hofstede et al.’s (2010) work discussed above, the Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness Research Programme (known as Project GLOBE) uncovered that employees from Anglo countries [including Australia, SA (white sample) and the USA] scored highly in the performance orientation cultural dimension, which was derived from McClelland’s (1961) research on the need for achievement (Gupta & Hanges, 2004; House & Javidin, 2004). Gupta and Hanges (2004) point out that employees from Anglo countries place a greater emphasis on achievement goals as opposed to family bonds. Furthermore, Project GLOBE found that Australian, American and both black and white South African employees practise assertiveness in the workplace, implying that individuals take control, success follows sufficient effort, and both performance and results are emphasised and rewarded. No data is available for Belgium in this regard, since this country was not included in the GLOBE study. As will be discussed in Section 2.4.3.3, an internal desire for achievement and high performance is a component of intrinsic motivation. Thus, it is foreseen that a

large portion of the present study's sample will identify with at least one dimension of intrinsic motivation.

Moreover, three out of the four countries under study are normative, as opposed to pragmatic, implying that employees in Australia and the USA as well as white South Africans exhibit a stronger short-term orientation as opposed to Belgium that displays a longer-term orientation. Employees from these same three countries have a lesser need to reduce uncertainty in their lives, with fairly moderate scores for uncertainty avoidance. The researcher notes that respondents from Australia, the USA and SA may therefore exhibit stronger intentions to leave their current organisations, since they are less likely to 'stick it out' at an organisation where they are experiencing dissatisfaction, and would be less calculating when they take risks (see Sully De Luque & Javidin, 2004). On the other hand, the Belgians in the present sample may display weaker turnover intentions, which was also suggested by their high uncertainty avoidance score. Indeed, Sully De Luque and Javidin (2004) note that in Hofstede et al.'s (2010) study, one item used to measure uncertainty avoidance asked respondents for what amount of time they would choose to remain at their current organisations. If respondents indicated that they would stay longer at their organisations, then their desire for employment stability was classified as higher, and thus their uncertainty avoidance was deemed to be higher (Sully De Luque & Javidin, 2004).

In addition, Ashkanasy, Gupta, Mayfield and Trevor-Roberts (2004) highlight that future-oriented individuals often demonstrate higher levels both of achievement motivation and intrinsic motivation, since they expect the present outcomes of their tasks to lead to future goals. For this reason, they tend to persist over longer periods of time compared to those with a short-term orientation. Interestingly, this may imply that even though no Project GLOBE data is available with regards to performance orientation for Belgians, Hofstede et al.'s (2010) findings may indirectly provide evidence for employees from this country displaying higher levels of achievement orientation and intrinsic motivation. Moreover, Project GLOBE found that black South Africans have a strong future orientation (long-term orientation) when society practices were

measured, implying that this group of employees would also demonstrate high levels of intrinsic motivation and an orientation towards performance (Ashkanasy et al., 2004).

Project GLOBE further discovered that employees from Anglo countries [including Australia, SA (white sample) and the USA] scored low on the cultural dimension of *as is* in-group collectivism practices, a dimension found to significantly negatively correlate with Hofstede et al.'s (2010) individualism dimension (Gupta & Hanges, 2004; Hanges & Dickson, 2004). This provides further evidence that respondents from these countries demonstrate individualistic tendencies. The researcher notes that the non-profit employees investigated within the four individualistic and masculine countries under study should place value on questions that highlight the opportunity to exhibit personal choice and control at work (see Gelfand et al., 2004), which also relates to flexible work, one dimension of intrinsic rewards. That said, however, Belgium's high uncertainty avoidance score could imply that these employees would experience lower levels of flexible work, owing to control being exerted over their work by management.

Finally, the researcher highlights that it could also be expected that Belgian respondents in the present study may experience lower levels of flexible work than the other three countries under study, since they display the highest level of power distance. High levels of power distance imply that control exists amongst managers as opposed to subordinates, as previously mentioned. However, Belgium is also highly individualistic, implying that Belgians favour autonomy. This makes it more difficult to predict with certainty whether Belgian employees would enjoy flexibility at work or not.

To conclude, *“while acknowledging that individuals may respond in unique ways to their own socialisation, these mainstream models of culture conclude that there is sufficient ‘collective programming’ (to use Hofstede’s oft-quoted phrase) within societies for the essential focus to be on comparison – ie a search for differences between cultures”* (French, 2010, p. 86).

1.3 Problem statements

From the above background to the research, a number of problems emerging from literature can be highlighted.

1.3.1 Problem statement 1

Limited research to date has been conducted on:

- The relevance and effectiveness of intrinsic rewards within NPOs specifically;
- Whether intrinsic rewards positively influence the intrinsic motivation and work engagement levels of NPO employees; and
- Whether work that is intrinsically rewarding will decrease NPO employees' intention to quit levels.

1.3.2 Problem statement 2

- Research on intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit is not consistent cross-culturally;
- No study within Australia, Belgium, SA or the USA has measured these four constructs together; and
- There is a lack of empirical research studies that have quantitatively measured intrinsic rewards or intrinsic motivation within Australia, Belgium, SA or the USA.

For the above-mentioned reasons, it needs to be determined how relevant these constructs are within these four countries in order to contribute to the cross-cultural organisational literature relating to these constructs.

1.3.3 Problem statement 3

No theoretical model has previously been developed that displays causal relationships between intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit, certainly within the context of the non-profit sector. As a result, no empirical research has been conducted that tests such a model statistically.

1.4 Research question

Based on these problem statements, the proposed research question for this study is, *“Do intrinsic rewards play a significant role in increasing the intrinsic motivation and work engagement levels, and reducing the intention to quit levels, of employees working within NPOs in Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA?”*

1.5 Central theoretical statement

The testable theoretical statement derived from this study’s research background is that because NPO management generally cannot focus primarily on using extrinsic rewards as a means of motivating and engaging their employees, it is necessary to statistically investigate whether work that is intrinsically rewarding would be an effective means of intrinsically motivating and engaging NPO employees in order to retain such talent within the non-profit sector.

1.6 Research objectives

The following section will discuss the objectives that have been formulated in order to address the preceding problem statements.

1.6.1 General research objective

The primary objective of this research is to explore whether intrinsic rewards lead to higher levels of intrinsic motivation and work engagement, as well as lower levels of employees’ intentions to quit, within NPOs in four geographically dispersed yet culturally similar countries. A secondary objective is to determine whether significant demographic differences occur across these four constructs.

1.6.2 Specific literature objectives

The literature objectives for this research are as follows:

1.6.2.1 Literature objective 1

To investigate the concepts of intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit, including their importance for employees working within NPOs.

1.6.2.2 Literature objective 2

To explore how intrinsic rewards may influence levels of intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit, with a specific focus on NPOs where such literature exists.

1.6.2.3 Literature objective 3

To analyse research conducted within Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA pertaining to intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit, once again highlighting research from NPOs where possible.

1.6.2.4 Literature objective 4

To develop a theoretical model of intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit, based on non-profit literature where possible, reflecting the theoretical relationships between these four constructs.

1.6.3 Specific empirical research objectives

This research will be descriptive, predictive and explanatory, yet exploratory, in nature. The main purpose of the empirical section of this research is to gather primary data across four countries on intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit, in order to contribute to cross-cultural research that has been conducted on these constructs. Further specific empirical research objectives are as follows:

1.6.3.1 Empirical objective 1

To conduct in-depth interviews with employees working for various Belgian and South African NPOs, which will provide foundational data necessary to develop English and Dutch measuring instruments to assess both intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation.

1.6.3.2 Empirical objective 2

To develop and pilot two measuring instruments that will determine NPO employees' levels of intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation.

1.6.3.3 Empirical objective 3

To administer a composite questionnaire consisting of four measuring instruments (measuring intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit) to a minimum sample of 400 NPO employees in Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA (that is, a minimum of 100 NPO employees from each country). The researcher aims to cover a wide range of NPOs (see examples of NPOs mentioned in Section 1.2), so that the sample is as representative of the population as possible.

1.6.3.4 Empirical objective 4

To confirm with some form of statistical significance that the two instruments developed to measure intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation are reliable and valid, and to modify the instruments should they not demonstrate adequate reliability and validity.

1.6.3.5 Empirical objective 5

To empirically test the theoretical model mentioned in Section 1.6.2.4, to provide a structurally validated model that will assist NPO management in designing work that is intrinsically rewarding, in order to promote intrinsic motivation and work engagement and decrease employees' levels of intention to quit.

1.6.3.6 Empirical objective 6

To determine whether significant demographic differences are present across the four constructs under study, including investigating the demographic variables of gender, age, country of work, highest level of education achieved, marital status, non-profit category of work and job level.

1.7 The research process

This section will provide an account of how the researcher plans to interact with the research domain to produce scientifically valid research. While this research aims to be descriptive, predictive and exploratory, emphasis will be placed primarily on its descriptive goal, and secondly on its predictive goal. Furthermore, a deductive and application-oriented strategy will be used. The

former refers to a theoretical concept being selected followed by the data being collected to demonstrate or reject the chosen propositions. The latter occurs when a researcher attempts to establish how research findings obtained in one country or culture are applicable to a different country or culture (Shiraev & Levy, 2004).

The research will consist of two main stages. The first stage will encompass the reviewing of literature pertaining to the topic and a qualitative analysis of all constructs. This will include a review of the theories relevant to this study, together with literature pertaining to the constructs of intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit. These constructs will as far as possible be discussed with reference to research conducted in the non-profit sector, and specifically in the countries of Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA. Hypotheses based on this review of literature will be presented.

The second stage of the research will comprise the empirical component of the thesis. The research method will be discussed in detail, focusing on three phases of data collection employed for the purposes of this study. This will be followed by an outline and discussion of the results, including the rejection or acceptance of the hypotheses presented. In light of these results, recommendations will be made for NPOs in terms of redesigning the nature of employees' work tasks in order to assist in reducing their levels of intention to quit, and increasing their levels of intrinsic motivation and work engagement. Possible limitations will be discussed, as well as areas for future research.

1.8 Conclusion

The research to follow will consist of two main stages. It is essential that the theoretical framework within which the researcher will be working is clarified and the first stage will therefore encompass the reviewing of literature pertaining to the topic, as well as a qualitative analysis of all concepts (Chapters Two and Three). Chapter Two will begin with a review of theories pertaining to intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation, followed by the researcher differentiating extrinsic, non-financial rewards from intrinsic rewards. A discussion surrounding the five types of intrinsic rewards will be presented, as

well as an explanation of the three dimensions of intrinsic motivation. The researcher will moreover briefly highlight why extrinsic, financial rewards undermine intrinsic motivation. Chapter Three will explore the constructs of work engagement and intention to quit, including the antecedents and consequences of both. Both Chapters Two and Three will include summaries of research studies pertaining to the four constructs under study, specifically within the four countries under study. Chapter Four will provide the hypotheses stemming from literature, including the relationships between the four constructs under study. It will also present to the reader the proposed theoretical model that will be empirically tested.

The second stage of the research will comprise the empirical component of the thesis. The research method will be clarified in Chapter Five, including an overview of the non-profit population under study, and a detailed discussion of the sampling, data collection and data analysis steps followed for each of the phases of empirical research for this study. Chapter Six will provide an in-depth outline of the study's findings. Thereafter, Chapter Seven will include the implications and recommendations for managers of NPOs, followed by the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research in Chapter Eight.

CHAPTER TWO

INTRINSIC REWARDS AND INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

2.1 Introduction

A reward system can be defined as any process within an organisation that not only compensates employees, but also reinforces or encourages them for behaving in a particular way (Wilson, 1995). “*Rewards and compensation*” are listed by DeCenzo, Robbins and Verhulst (2010) as one of the key areas falling under the motivation goal of human resource management (HRM), implying that employees can be motivated through the use of rewards and compensation. However, Pink (2009, p. 9), writing about the continued use of pay-for-performance and short-term incentive plans, states that too many organisations, including NPOs, still “operate from assumptions about human potential and individual performance that are outdated, unexamined, and rooted more in folklore than in science”. The purpose of this chapter is to explore this viewpoint, by specifically discussing the use of intrinsic rewards as a means to successfully stimulate the intrinsic motivation of NPO employees.

In order to do so, a discussion firstly outlines the theoretical framework pertaining to intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation. Thereafter, the difference between intrinsic rewards and extrinsic, non-financial rewards is clarified. This is assisted through the provision of various models or frameworks pertaining to total rewards. Once the conceptualisation of intrinsic rewards has been made clear, the researcher will elaborate on the various types of intrinsic rewards that will be measured in the empirical component of this study. Intrinsic motivation will thereafter be discussed in detail, including the undermining effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation. Finally, an overview of studies previously conducted in Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA in relation to intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation will be provided.

2.2 The theoretical framework surrounding intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation

It's true that theories of human nature can never predict with certainty what people will do or how they will act. But theories can indicate what might happen and give you useful guidelines for handling various situations – thus reducing the surprise, the disappointment, or the frustration.

(Bruce, 2011, p. 18)

Prior to the researcher discussing the concepts of intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation, it is necessary to provide a solid theoretical basis so that the reader is aware of the theoretical framework around which this study is centred.

2.2.1 Deci's Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET)

CET focuses on an individual's perception regarding why he or she is performing an activity (Deci, 1972). According to Nel (2014), CET also specifies social and environmental factors that either facilitate and enhance, or undermine and hinder, motivation. CET proposes that intrinsic motivation can be affected through changing one's perceived locus of causality, or through the process of positive or negative feedback (Deci, 1972). Locus of causality refers to why an individual is performing a task; that is, whether an individual attributes his or her reasons for performing a task to external factors, or to the internal satisfaction stemming from performing the task itself (Pinder, 2008). This is referred to as a control perception. Feedback, on the other hand, refers to the information that is conveyed by providing rewards as a result of performing a task, in terms of how well an individual did at the said task (Pinder, 2008).

CET argues that social-contextual events which produce a feeling of competence during an action, such as feedback, communication and rewards, can enhance intrinsic motivation for that action, provided that they are accompanied by a sense of autonomy, and that the individual performing the action experiences his or her behaviour as self-determined (Ryan & Deci, 2000). However, when money is introduced as an external form of

reinforcement for performing an activity, then an individual's perception changes so that he or she is now performing *for* the money, and the extrinsic reward becomes the reason for doing the activity. As Deci (1972, p. 223) states, "the perceived locus of causality changes from within himself to the environment; that is, he cognitively reevaluates the activity as one which he does because it provides him with external rewards." This decreases intrinsic motivation because of the change in perceived locus of causality from internal, to external (Deci, 1975). Thus, if behaviour is perceived by an individual to be controlled by an outside force such as an extrinsic reward, then his or her intrinsic motivation will decrease (Beck, 2004), since his or her feelings of competence and self-determination would have diminished (Deci, 1975).

Deci, Cascio and Krusell (1975) responded to criticisms of CET by Calder and Staw (1974) concerning methodological and interpretation issues stemming from Deci's (1971, 1972) original studies, stating that either expected or unexpected rewards may lead to decreases in intrinsic motivation, with the latter being less likely to do so. They came to the conclusion that at that stage, it could not be said conclusively that non-contingent monetary rewards, for example, decreased levels of intrinsic motivation. Over 20 years later, Deci, Koestner and Ryan (1999a) and Deci, Koestner and Ryan (1999b) responded to further CET criticisms [for example, from Eisenberger and Cameron (1996) and Eisenberger, Pierce and Cameron (1999) amongst others], providing clear evidence that intrinsic motivation is indeed undermined by expected, tangible, contingent extrinsic rewards. Through Deci et al.'s (1999a) meta-analysis of 128 studies, they found that tangible, contingent and expected rewards led to a decrease in free-choice intrinsic motivation, and therefore that reward strategies focusing primarily on extrinsic rewards run the risk of decreasing rather than promoting intrinsic motivation. Moreover, Deci et al. (1999b) noted that CET is the most viable, best supported and comprehensive theory pertaining to the effects of rewards on intrinsic motivation that has been offered to account for the complex results produced across multiple studies.

The undermining of intrinsic motivation as a result of the provision of extrinsic rewards will be discussed in Section 2.4.4 of this chapter. This theory is

fundamental to the present study, since it suggests avoiding the use of extrinsic rewards if the intent is to improve or maintain individuals' levels of intrinsic motivation. This provides justification for the present study focusing instead on *intrinsic* rewards as a means of improving levels of intrinsic motivation.

2.2.2 Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

SDT specifies three innate psychological needs (namely competence, autonomy and relatedness) that “give goals their psychological potency” and influence which regulatory processes direct an individual's goal pursuits (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 228). *Competence* refers to an individual desiring to feel like he or she is effective at a particular activity (Beck, 2004), and exploring, manipulating, thinking and communicating in an attempt to deal effectively with his or her environment (Deci, 1975). *Autonomy* is an individual's need to feel independent by initiating his or her own behaviour, and includes being the cause of one's own actions (Beck, 2004), as well as having a sense of choice and freedom to behave in certain ways without external pressure to do so (Nel, 2014). Beck (2004) defines *relatedness* as the feeling of connectedness an individual has with others, including the need to love and care for others as well as to be loved and cared for as an individual (Rothmann, 2014). These three needs nurture the innate potential within individuals that are necessary for growth (Nel, 2014). When these needs are satisfied, intrinsic motivation and mental health are enhanced (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Activities that more effectively meet these three needs also result in more pleasure for the individual performing them (Beck, 2004). As Pinder (2008) notes, intrinsically motivated tasks are engaging and enjoyable for individuals, and for this reason, such individuals perform these tasks out of voluntary choice and desire.

SDT is relevant to the present study because autonomy, one of SDT's psychological needs, will be discussed in Section 2.3.3.2 as an aspect of flexible work. Since flexible work is a type of intrinsic reward, SDT implies that at least one type of intrinsic reward leads to higher levels of intrinsic motivation. This forms part of the researcher's proposed theoretical model in Chapter Four.

2.2.3 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (or, the Motivation-Hygiene Theory)

Herzberg (1966, 1968) explains how he discovered that factors involved in producing job satisfaction are distinct and separate from those leading to job dissatisfaction. Through twelve different investigations, he found that *hygiene* factors are extrinsic to the job (being found in the job environment), and these lead to extreme dissatisfaction/unhappiness at work (Herzberg, 1966, 1968). These factors include company policies and administration; interpersonal relationships with one's supervisor, peers and subordinates; working conditions; status; supervision; salary; and security. However, growth or *motivator* factors are intrinsic to one's job, being found in one's job content, and they lead to extreme satisfaction at work. Motivating factors are thus a part of an employee's relationship to what he or she does at work, and relate to the tasks that he or she performs. These factors include the work itself; growth or professional advancement; responsibility; achievement; as well as recognition for task achievement (Herzberg, 1966, 1968). French (2010) terms these factors as *positive motivators* that are a function of one's work undertaken through one's job. In this way, factors linked with job dissatisfaction relate to one's work environment, whereas factors associated with job satisfaction relate to the content of one's job (Walters, 1975).

Each set of Herzberg's factors operates within its own dimension; that is, dissatisfaction will exist if pay or working conditions remain inadequate despite work being interesting and challenging, and a positive working environment will in isolation not result in intrinsic motivation (Paul & Robertson, 1970). Based on Herzberg's theory, while pay is of great importance owing to the fact that it helps employees to meet their needs (Swanepoel et al., 2008), pay or remuneration will not lead to intrinsic motivation. As emphasised by Pfeffer (1998), pay is important to individuals, because if they are not treated fairly, then pay becomes a symbol of unfairness and a source of discontent. For this reason, managers should focus on preventing job dissatisfaction by replenishing employees' hygiene needs, while at the same time motivating them to improve their performance by providing them with intrinsically rewarding jobs (Walters, 1975).

Herzberg's theory has been justifiably criticised, for example owing to a failure to provide proof that his motivating factors will not lead to job dissatisfaction as claimed (Pinder, 2008). It also oversimplifies the complexities of work motivation (Luthans, 2005). Yet, Pinder (2008, p. 37) concludes that "one need only believe that building jobs to provide responsibility, achievement, recognition for achievement, and advancement will make them satisfying and motivating" in order to utilise the theory for effectively designing jobs. Herzberg's theory is therefore central to the present study, which focuses primarily on one of Herzberg's identified *motivator* factors, namely the work itself, since an employee's work can be intrinsically rewarding to him or her. As noted by Pinder (2008), challenging, varied or interesting work (three of the five types of intrinsic rewards to be described later in this chapter) appeared in 26 per cent of instances or stories of positive job attitudes relayed by the samples discussed by Herzberg (1966, 1968) that led to the development of his theory. As such, this remains a theory of relevance to the present study.

2.2.4 Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model (JCM)

The JCM, developed by Hackman and Oldham (1980), is a particular approach to enriching jobs that advocates for them to be built with attributes that create conditions for high levels of work motivation, satisfaction and performance. These authors specify that five core job dimensions (namely skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and job feedback) will lead to three critical psychological states (namely the experienced *meaningfulness* of the work; experienced *responsibility* for the work's outcomes; and *knowledge* of the work's actual results being produced), which in turn will result in positive outcomes for both individuals and organisations (such as intrinsic motivation). These authors discuss that *meaningfulness* occurs when an employee feels that his or her efforts matter in some way to someone or something; that is, his or her work is not perceived as trivial. This occurs as a result of three core job characteristics, namely skill variety, task identity and task significance (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). *Responsibility* implies that an employee feels personally accountable for the job's outcomes, felt through being personally proud of good quality work since it depended on his or her efforts. Autonomy is the job characteristic leading to this critical psychological state (Hackman &

Oldham, 1980). Finally, *knowledge* means that an employee is made aware of how effective his or her efforts and performance have been, and such knowledge is provided through feedback from his or her job.

Hackman and Oldham (1980) describe the five core job characteristics in the following ways. Skill variety is the degree to which jobs encompass a variety of different activities that require job incumbents to make use of varying skills and talents. Task identity is the extent to which jobs require their incumbents to complete whole, identifiable pieces of work, thus performing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome. On the other hand, task significance is the degree to which jobs substantially impact the lives of others, whether in or outside the organisation. Autonomy occurs when jobs provide substantial amounts of freedom, discretion and independence in terms of job incumbents scheduling their own work and determining the procedures needed to carry out such work. Finally, feedback is the extent to which work activities provide job incumbents with direct, clear information about the effectiveness of their performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback lead to the above-mentioned positive psychological states if employees are satisfied with their pay and co-workers; have the needed competencies to perform effectively; and possess a strong need for growth (French, 2010). If such conditions are met, this author notes that the JCM should be universally applicable; that is, unless a particular society associates itself with different types of work, such as manual, routine labour characterised by low pay, employees worldwide should be motivated through the existence of the above five job characteristics. The JCM provides a framework from which managers can redesign jobs so that employees experience more meaningful, valuable work (Nel et al., 2011). Importantly, Hackman and Oldham (1980) highlight that the outcome of their three critical psychological states include not only high intrinsic work motivation, but also higher levels of job satisfaction, positive affect, growth satisfaction, quality of performance, employee retention, and work effectiveness (such as considerate and helpful service being given to clients). Interestingly, Humphrey, Nahrgang and Morgeson (2007) expanded the JCM and included task variety

and job complexity as motivational job characteristics in their revised model (see Annexure A for reference). They found that their revised motivational job characteristics provided for variance in subjective performance, turnover intentions, organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

Of the five core job characteristics needed to promote the critical psychological states, the first four will be discussed in this study as types of intrinsic rewards in Section 2.3.3, hence the importance of this model being presented as a foundational theory. As noted by Hackman and Oldham (1980), motivation at work has more to do with how tasks are designed and managed, than with the personal dispositions of those who perform them.

2.2.5 Positive Psychology and Positive Organisational Scholarship (POS)

According to Wissing (2014a, p. 5), positive psychology “endeavours to enhance the quality of human life by focusing on strengths and already existing resources, enriching life and promoting optimal functioning”. Such a psychological focus places emphasis on the fact that humans have potential that is able to be realised in the well-being of individuals and society (Wissing, 2014a). Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) describe the field of positive psychology by means of three different levels: namely the subjective, individual and group levels. The first level is concerned with valued experiences in the past (through well-being, satisfaction and contentment); in the present (via flow and happiness); and in the future (by means of optimism and hope) (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Individually, this field focuses on positive individual traits including courage, forgiveness, spirituality, wisdom, perseverance, interpersonal skills and love. Finally, at the group level, positive psychology concentrates on the institutions and civic virtues that propel individuals toward greater levels of altruism, tolerance, citizenship, responsibility, moderation, nurturance, civility and work ethic (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Lomas, Hefferon and Ivtzan (2014) summarise that by striving to improve life, positive psychology aims not only to improve the mind or better individuals, but to improve all facets of life, including individual functioning and social contexts. In this way, positive psychology aims to correct the focus that traditional psychology had on illness and pain (Wissing, 2014a).

An approach that draws from the positive psychology movement is positive organisational scholarship (POS), which is concerned with the study of positive outcomes, processes and attributes of organisations and their members (Cameron, Dutton & Quinn, 2003). According to these authors, one aspect to which POS pays attention is the motivation associated with positive outcomes. Such motivations include unselfishness, altruism and contributing without regarding one's self. This positive view on both psychology and organisational scholarship is the lens through which the researcher has approached the present study, which focuses on positive work-related attitudes such as intrinsic motivation and work engagement. In its focus on intrinsic motivation, attention will be given to employees' inherent desires to make a difference in the lives of others and uplift their communities through desiring to be altruistic and prosocial, resulting in positive outcomes for the organisation such as reduced turnover and improved performance. This study therefore seeks to contribute practically to the fields of positive psychology and POS.

2.3 Intrinsic rewards

It's clear that people work for more than money.

(Zingheim & Schuster, 2000a, p. 10)

In order for the reader to understand the interpretation of intrinsic rewards that this study takes, it is necessary to contrast intrinsic rewards to extrinsic, non-financial rewards so that clarity between these concepts is gained, since these types of rewards are often incorrectly perceived to be the same in nature.

2.3.1 Extrinsic, non-financial rewards versus intrinsic rewards

According to Perkins and White (2009), extrinsic rewards are tangible, transactional rewards provided to employees for undertaking work within the context of employment. They exist to meet employees' basic needs of recognition and security, through the provision of pay and benefits (Jenkins, 2014), as well as to directly recognise the contributions that individuals make in performing their organisational roles (Perkins & White, 2009). While financial extrinsic rewards comprise any means of tangibly paying employees, non-

financial extrinsic rewards on the other hand are desirable extras that assist in attracting employees to the job, but do not directly increase the financial position of employees (DeCenzo et al., 2010). These authors go on to provide examples of non-financial rewards including impressive job titles, large offices, well-located parking spaces or opportunities to dress casually at work. Other non-financial rewards include subsidised meals, reduced working hours or non-work-related training (Whitaker, 2010), as well as physical working conditions, opportunities for promotion or advancement, and the social climate (Jenkins, 2014). It is clear that non-financial rewards are extrinsic in nature due to the fact that they are external to the job and are provided from an outside source, such as management (DeCenzo et al., 2010).

In contrast, intrinsic rewards can be defined as the “psychological benefits derived from well-designed jobs that meet the employee’s needs and aspirations” (Jenkins, 2014, p. 109). They are self-administered rewards that are associated with the job itself (Meyer & Kirsten, 2012; WorldatWork, 2007). Intrinsic rewards are thus internal, personal, psychological responses to work that employees gain from doing meaningful work, and performing such work well (Tippet & Kluyvers, 2007; Thomas, 2009b). It is important to emphasise that intrinsic rewards are derived from the job that one performs (Jenkins, 2014). Hence, as stated by DeCenzo et al. (2010, p. 262), intrinsic rewards cause personal satisfaction derived from performing one’s job. Such rewards are usually self-initiated, and are mediated within an employee (Deci, 1972), as opposed to being provided by an external source such as management, as is the case with extrinsic rewards.

This important distinction between intrinsic rewards and extrinsic, non-financial rewards is illustrated in Figure 2.1, with the researcher highlighting intrinsic rewards in green, and extrinsic, non-financial rewards in red. Based on the above definitions, it is apparent that the terms “non-financial rewards” and “intrinsic rewards” cannot be used interchangeably. The researcher notes that intrinsic rewards relate to the manner in which one’s work itself is designed, whereas extrinsic, non-financial rewards are tangible rewards that are externally administered to employees by management. Job design in this sense

refers to defining what tasks will be performed in every job, and the manner in which the work will be performed in order to make every job as motivating as possible to the jobholder (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2012).

However, such a clear distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic rewards is not present in most rewards models available to date. Along this line, it is necessary to provide examples of total reward models and frameworks that illustrate the various rewards that an employee can receive from work, since DeCenzo et al's (2010) model is one of only two rewards models that incorporates intrinsic rewards through a total rewards approach. In the following sub-sections, the researcher will highlight rewards that can be classified as intrinsic in nature according to each model or framework that is presented.

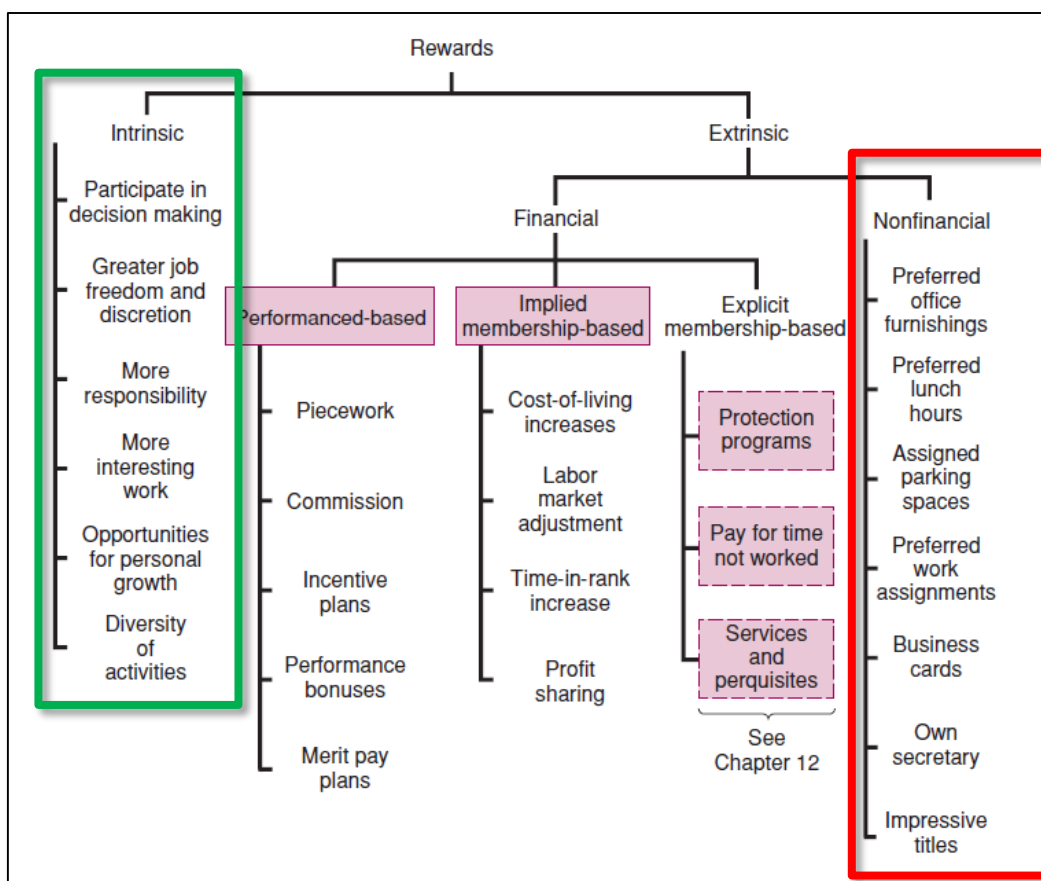


Figure 2.1: Structure of Rewards (DeCenzo et al., 2010, p. 263)

2.3.1.1 Wilson's Total Reward Strategy

According to Wilson (1995), three primary rewards make up a rewards system, namely base pay, variable pay and performance management, as shown in Figure 2.2. Base pay is defined as a secure and stable income provided to employees every pay period, while variable pay is pay that changes depending on how an individual, company or team has performed (Wilson, 1995). Performance management, on the other hand, is a systematic process of measuring, providing feedback and reinforcing that provides consequences for employees' actions, including work-related reinforcers, tangible or symbolic reinforcers, verbal or social reinforcers, and financial, spot or special recognition awards (Wilson, 1995). While performance management is an extrinsic, non-financial reward, none of these reward types can be classified as being intrinsic in nature, since none originate from the manner in which the work itself is designed.

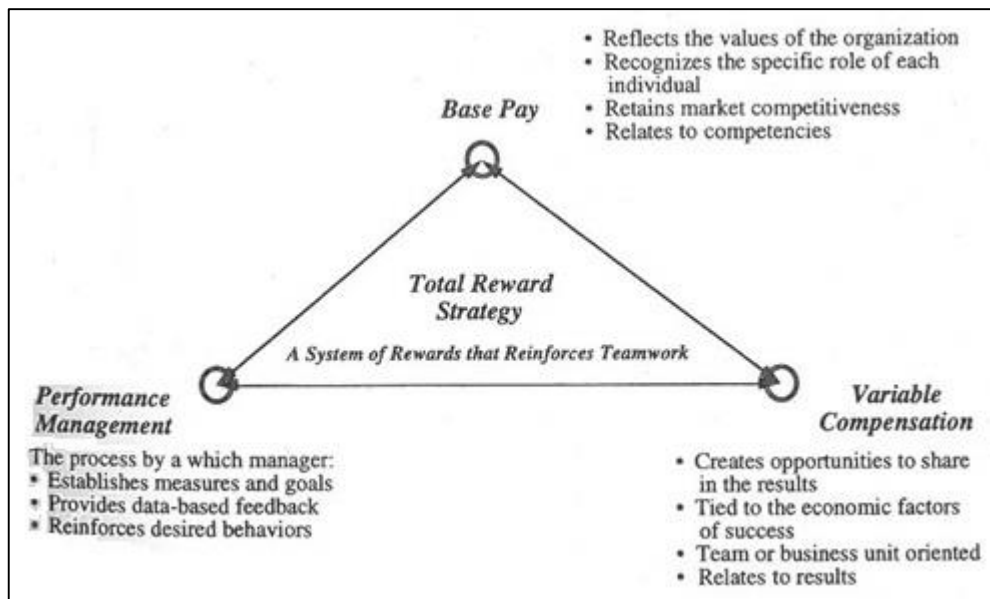


Figure 2.2: The Primary Elements of a Total Reward System
(Wilson, 1995, p. 53)

2.3.1.2 Zingheim and Schuster's Total Reward Components

Total rewards is viewed by Zingheim and Schuster (2000a) as comprising of four interrelated components. These are elaborated on in Figure 2.3. *Total Pay* and *Positive Workplace* are crucial, since employee attraction and retention are critically related to how employees are paid and how they perceive their work environment (Zingheim & Schuster, 2000a). These authors go on to explain that

organisations must moreover focus on *Individual Growth* to ensure that employees become valuable, and must provide a *Compelling Future* so that they continuously add value to their organisations.

Total Pay is comprised mainly of extrinsic, financial rewards, as well as extrinsic, non-financial rewards in the form of recognition and celebration that are externally administered by others. The researcher interprets that the work itself is the only intrinsic reward specified in Zingheim and Schuster's (2000a) model, which is a component of a *Positive Workforce*. This includes providing employees with challenging and interesting work, as well as meaningful work that employees *want* to do (Zingheim & Schuster, 2000a; 2000b). Importantly, Zingheim and Schuster (2000b) state that a *Positive Workforce* "is the stuff 'best places to work' are made of". The remaining components of a *Positive Workforce*, as well as those rewards making up a *Compelling Future*, are extrinsic, non-financial in nature. The components that make up *Individual Growth* are also extrinsic, non-financial rewards, as the development opportunities mentioned in their model do not imply growing and developing from the work itself, but rather from opportunities provided to employees by management.



Figure 2.3: Total Reward Components

(adapted from Zingheim & Schuster, 2000a, p. 13)

2.3.1.3 Bussin's Total Rewards Mix

Bussin (2002, in Moore & Bussin, 2012) adapted a remuneration model known as the Total Rewards Mix, indicated in Figure 2.4. This model is comprised of four components, namely *Pay* and *Benefits* (made up of extrinsic, financial rewards), as well as the *Work Environment* and *Learning and Development* (comprised of extrinsic, non-financial rewards). As articulated previously, since none of these rewards stem from the work itself but are rather externally administered rewards, none can be deemed intrinsic in nature.

<p>Pay</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Base salary • Variable pay • Recognition • Shares 	<p>Benefits</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Health care • Retirement • Savings • Time off • Perks
<p>Learning and Development</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Career development • Performance management • Succession planning • Training 	<p>Work Environment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisational climate • Leadership • Performance support • Work and life balance

Figure 2.4: Total Rewards Mix (Bussin, 2002, in Moore & Bussin, 2012)

2.3.1.4 WorldatWork's Total Rewards Model

WorldatWork (2007, p. 5) developed a total rewards framework that comprehensively demonstrates “the contexts, components, and contributions of total rewards as part of an integrated business strategy”. Their five total rewards elements include *Compensation*, *Benefits*, *Work-life*, *Performance and Recognition*, and *Development and Career Opportunities*, shown in Figure 2.5. These five elements can be used by an organisation to align an Employee Value Proposition that creates value for employees and results in employees who are satisfied, productive and engaged (WorldatWork, 2007). *Compensation*, including base (fixed) pay and variable pay (pay-at-risk), as well as *Benefits*, such as health care, are clearly extrinsic, financial rewards. The remaining three elements, namely *Work-life* (such as child-care programmes and flexible work schedules), *Performance and Recognition* (including paying particular attention to the accomplishments, successes and behaviours of

employees), and *Development and Career Opportunities* (for example, providing coaching, mentoring, tuition assistance and/or succession planning) are extrinsic, non-financial rewards owing to the fact that they are administered by others. The researcher notes that none of these reward components are intrinsic in nature, as they do not derive from the work that an individual is immersed in, nor do they stem from an individual responding positively to his or her work.

However, WorldatWork (2007) do elaborate in their text that total rewards mean different things to different individuals, and thus a broader view of the concept is necessary. Within their larger table listing rewards on page three of their text, they list “Work” as a category of reward, under which autonomy, challenging work and interesting work are listed, together with a number of extrinsic, non-financial rewards. These three rewards can be categorised as intrinsic in nature since they stem from the work itself. Further, on page 697 of their text, they specify a number of intrinsic rewards including varied and meaningful work, which will be investigated in the present study.



Figure 2.5: Total Rewards Model (WorldatWork, 2007, p. 6)

2.3.1.5 The Towers Perrin Model of Total Reward

In Figure 2.6, it is seen that Towers Perrin (as cited in Armstrong & Brown, 2009) list *pay* and *benefits* as two forms of transactional, tangible rewards, and are of the opinion that *learning and development* and the *work environment* are the two components of total rewards making up relational, intangible rewards.

Armstrong and Brown (2009, p. 22) clarify in their text that non-financial rewards *include* “intrinsic rewards from the work itself”. The researcher notes that this implies that non-monetary rewards encompass certain intrinsic rewards. For the purposes of this study, only certain elements of the work environment from this model can be regarded as intrinsic rewards, namely job design in the form of autonomy, meaningful work and the scope to make use of one’s skills.

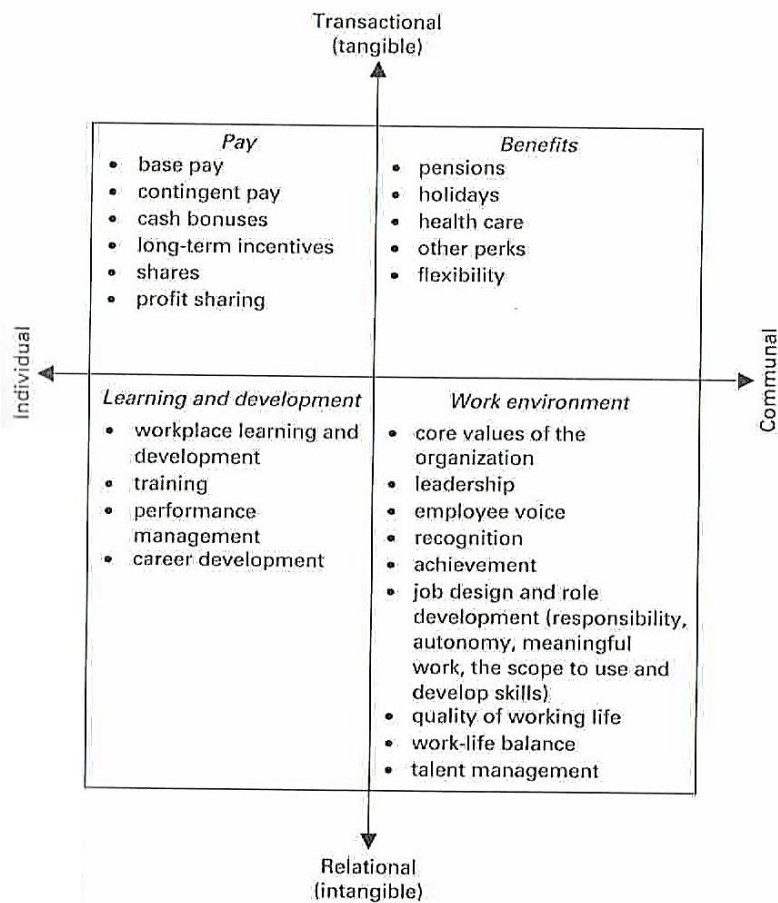


Figure 2.6: The Towers Perrin Model of Total Reward (Armstrong & Brown, 2009, p. 25)

2.3.1.6 Hay Group’s Engaged Performance Framework

Six clusters of rewards appear in the Hay Group’s Engaged Performance Framework, as seen in Figure 2.7. According to Murlis (2009), this framework defines a work style based on high commitment together with greater levels of discretionary effort and flow. Murlis (2009) states that the *Inspiration / Values* cluster has been shown to be the most important cluster to employees, followed by *Future Growth / Opportunity*. *Quality of Work* includes the intrinsic rewards

of challenging and interesting work, as well as appropriate autonomy and freedom.



Figure 2.7: The Engaged Performance Framework (Murlis, 2009, p. 2)

2.3.1.7 Segal/Sibson's Rewards of Work Model

Segal/Sibson's Rewards of Work (ROW) Model, shown in Figure 2.8, categorises rewards into five groups, namely *Affiliation*, *Work Content*, *Career*, *Benefits* and *Compensation*. Jones (2007) explains that the ROW model includes both financial and nonfinancial components of rewards. The researcher notes that *Compensation* and *Benefits* include rewards that are tangible and for which a monetary value can be attached, thus being classified as extrinsic, financial rewards. Extrinsic, non-financial rewards would include rewards related to *Affiliation* (for example, work environment and trust), and certain rewards within the category of *Career* (such as advancement and training). Rewards in this model that can be classified as intrinsic in nature would be those relating to the *Work Content*, namely variety, challenge, autonomy and meaningfulness, as well as personal growth which is mentioned under *Career*. A number of these are similar to the core job characteristics mentioned by Hackman and Oldham (1980) which contribute to positive psychological states. The researcher does disagree with the reward of feedback being mentioned under *Work Content*, since feedback is generally administered externally to an individual, and is thus an extrinsic, non-financial reward.

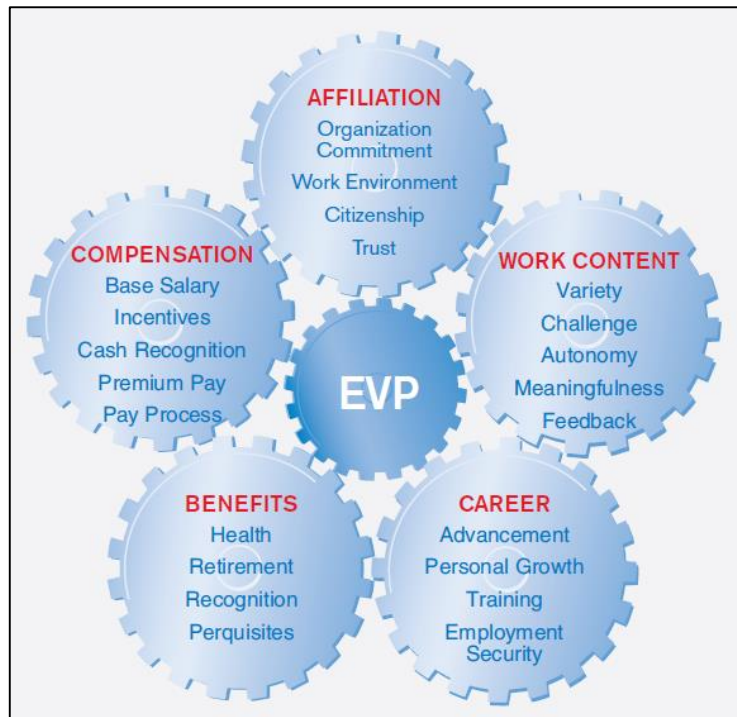


Figure 2.8: Segal/Sibson's ROW Model (Sibson Consulting, 2010)

Interestingly, Sibson Consulting (2010) reports that in their 2009 ROW study, the two elements of this model that received the highest average favourabilities were *Work Content* and *Affiliation*, with the most highly rated elements of *Work Content* being skill level and skill variety. *Compensation* and *Benefits* received the lowest favourabilities from survey respondents. All five elements of rewards within this model have an important influence on the attraction, motivation and retention of employees (Sibson Consulting, 2010), and the model assists in understanding the relationship between employees' perceptions and attitudes and certain organisational outcomes such as performance, turnover and engagement (Jones, 2007). Three of these outcomes, namely motivation, engagement and turnover/retention are being investigated in the present study. As explained by Lucy et al. (2006), organisations must shape their Employee Value Proposition (central to the ROW model) to foster employee engagement, by defining the ROW elements that provide the highest value to employees.

2.3.1.8 Milkovich, Newman and Gerhart's Total Returns for Work

According to Milkovich, Newman and Gerhart (2011), employees receive returns for their work that can be divided into *Total Compensation* and

Relational Returns, as seen in Figure 2.9. The former category, comprised of cash compensation and benefits, can be classified as transactional returns, whereas the latter category is made up of psychological returns (Milkovich et al., 2011). From the relational returns shown in the figure, the researcher observes that recognition and status, employment security as well as learning opportunities can be classified as extrinsic, non-financial rewards. The only true intrinsic reward shown is challenging work.

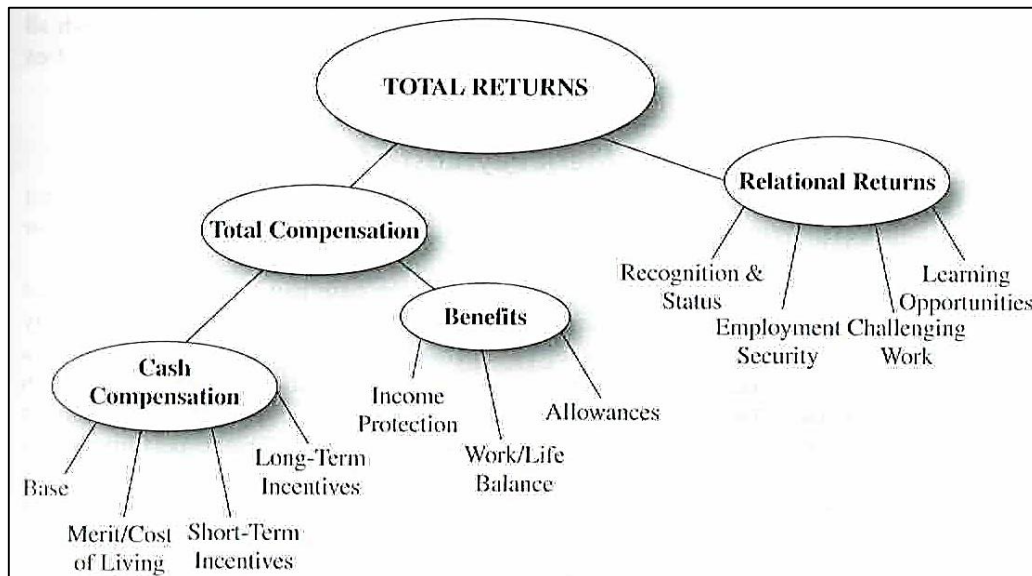


Figure 2.9: Total Returns for Work (Milkovich et al., 2011, p. 11)

2.3.1.9 Grobler et al.'s Total Compensation/Rewards System

Grobler, Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield's (2011) total rewards system includes both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, thus being only the second model reviewed in this thesis that specifically incorporates intrinsic rewards. It can be noted from Figure 2.10 that extrinsic, financial rewards are broken into either direct payments (monetary rewards) or indirect payments (benefits). Intrinsic rewards are labelled as being non-financial in nature, and include recognition, opportunities for promotion, working conditions, interesting work, as well as training opportunities. Since recognition, promotions, working conditions and training opportunities are generally externally administered by management, only interesting work truly stems from the work itself that an employee performs. It is therefore the only true intrinsic reward shown in this framework.

Compensation of employees	Extrinsic rewards (Financial)	Monetary rewards (Direct payments)	Hourly wage Salary Bonuses Commissions Pay incentives Skills-based pay/competency-based pay
		Benefits (Indirect payments)	Insurance Retirement Paid holidays Paid public holidays Food services Medical Recreation
	Intrinsic rewards (Non-financial)	Recognition Promotion opportunities Working conditions Interesting work Training opportunities	

Figure 2.10: The Total Compensation/Rewards System
(Grobler et al., 2011, p. 401)

What is evident from the above total reward overview is that the majority of authors include both financial and non-financial extrinsic rewards in their models, but only two models produced in the last 20 years specifically emphasise intrinsic rewards as part of the total rewards package, in line with Luthans (2005) stating that intrinsic rewards are not usually considered to be a form of organisational reward. There are, however, a number of *extrinsic, non-financial rewards* listed in these models, including:

- *Work environment / work conditions / organisational climate or culture*
- *Work-life balance*
- *Career advancement, enhancement or development / succession management or planning / promotion opportunities*
- *Training, learning and development opportunities*
- *Managerial or supervisory support / leadership*
- *Performance feedback / management / support*
- *Recognition / celebration*
- *Organisation's reputation / image*
- *Co-workers / sociability / teamwork / colleagues*
- *Titles / status*

Pinder (2008) refers to these as extrinsic *outcomes* of one's work, since they are mediated from outsiders such as an individual's manager or colleagues. Bussin (2011), highlighting research conducted by Towers Perrin in the USA and six countries in Europe, indicates that a number of extrinsic, non-financial rewards were cited as drivers of attraction, retention and engagement, including career advancement opportunities; company reputation as a good employer; senior management being interested in their employees; the overall work environment; collaboration with co-workers; work-life balance; and being recognised for one's work. This indicates that extrinsic, non-financial rewards are imperative to organisations because they create an environment in which employees work to the best of their abilities and are engrossed and involved in their work. Moreover, the researcher believes that such rewards do lead to intrinsic satisfaction and motivation. As noted by Pink (2009), extrinsic, non-financial rewards such as positive feedback and praise do result in intrinsic motivation. Thus while the researcher does not negate the importance of such rewards forming part of an organisation's total rewards strategy or system, they are not the focus of the present study, and will not be given further attention. The next part of this chapter focuses on discussing intrinsic rewards in detail.

2.3.2 Elaborating on intrinsic rewards

For the purposes of this study, the researcher deems "intrinsic rewards" to be those aspects of one's work that provide an inherent sense of fulfillment and satisfaction, based on the nature of the work itself. Wilson (1995) refers to intrinsic rewards as natural consequences of the work that an employee performs in and of itself, the presence of which results in greater work satisfaction. As noted by Walters (1975), the core transaction that takes place between an employee and his or her tasks will act as his or her greatest source of long-term motivation, certainly for staff who exhibit high growth needs. The researcher highlights that intrinsic rewards (that is, the work itself being designed to be rewarding in and of itself) will lead to positive intrinsic outcomes, such as feelings of accomplishment that occur immediately after an individual performs the tasks that produce them (Pinder, 2008).

It has been stated by Glicken and Robinson (2013) that an organisation's duty is to make use of employees in ways that improve their internal motivation, such as by improving the satisfaction they gain from the work itself. To tap the potential of employees and ensure their satisfaction, organisations and their managers must provide work that is intrinsically rewarding to employees, by providing tasks that are inherently interesting and challenging yet achievable, and which provide the chance for employees to grow, advance, feel responsible, and be motivated to perform above the required minimum that is expected of them (Walters, 1975). Since true motivators are intrinsic in nature, they reflect the content of a job and cannot simply be dispensed to employees by managers (Grobler et al., 2011).

Intrinsic rewards thus stem from the way in which one's work tasks are designed. Job design relates to manipulating the content, functions and relationships of jobs in order to ensure that the personal needs of employees are met, together with organisational goals being accomplished (Grobler et al., 2011). The researcher notes that designing work to be intrinsically rewarding focuses on the first aspect mentioned in this definition, namely the content of the job. The way in which a job is designed is an antecedent to how employees behave at work, since together with other work structures, measures, training and programmes, job design enables employees to know what to do at work and encourage desired actions to be performed (Wilson, 1995). As noted by Rose (2011, p. 112), "the truth remains that, if you want someone to do a good job, give them a good job to do".

The nature of one's work was found to be one of five factors that determined satisfaction with one's job, an outcome of the research project that resulted in Herzberg's (1966) Two-Factor Theory presented earlier (the other four factors being achievement, recognition, responsibility and advancement). Moreover, according to Walters (1975), the work itself as well as responsibility and advancement have given evidence of producing the longest-lasting positive attitudes in employees. The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (1999) in the USA cite the design of work tasks to be one aspect of an employee's job conditions that can lead to increased levels of job stress.

Specifically, they highlight that “routine tasks that have little inherent meaning...and provide little sense of control” as poor aspects of task design that result in stressed employees. The researcher notes that these examples link to three types of intrinsic rewards, namely *varied* work, *meaningful* work and *flexible* work. These, together with *challenging* work and *enjoyable* work, will be defined and explained in the sub-sections to be discussed shortly.

Features of jobs such as interesting and challenging work have the greatest potential to motivate employees (Paul & Robertson, 1970). More recently, Bruce (2011) specified that when employees are given the freedom to be creative, are allowed autonomy and are provided with opportunities for challenging work, then their needs for self-actualisation will be met. Selden and Sowa (2011) found in their study of 22 human service organisations that none relied on performance-based monetary rewards and incentives, but instead depended on their employees being satisfied with the intrinsic rewards provided by their work.

It is clear from Figure 2.1 provided previously that intrinsic rewards include opportunities to do work that is interesting, with activities that are varied and diverse; to enjoy opportunities to grow personally; and to participate in decision-making, take greater responsibility, and enjoy freedom and discretion in one’s job. More responsibility, opportunities for personal growth, participation in decision-making, interesting work and task completion have been cited by Swanepoel et al. (2008) as intrinsic rewards, and autonomy, challenging job opportunities and achieving personal goals are listed by Grobler et al. (2011) as intrinsic rewards. Jenkins (2014) concurs with these examples, citing challenge, autonomy and variety as aspects of one’s work that are intrinsically rewarding. Additionally, Thomas (2009b) mentions a sense of meaningfulness, choice, competence and progress to be intrinsic rewards, and autonomy, mastery and purpose are discussed by Pink (2009) to be the three elements of true internal motivation. WorldatWork (2007) highlight a number of intrinsic rewards, namely experiencing variety at work, having the opportunity to perform meaningful work, as well as seeing finished products and completing work cycles. All of these intrinsic rewards can be grouped into five core types, namely

meaningful, flexible, challenging, varied and enjoyable work. As noted by Grobler et al. (2011), the content of a job includes the extent to which a whole job is performed by one person (*meaningful work*), the autonomy enjoyed by the job holder (*flexible work*), the difficulty of the tasks performed (*challenging work*), and the variety and routineness of the tasks performed (*varied work*), which describe four of the five intrinsic rewards to be elaborated upon in the following section, the fifth being *enjoyable work*.

2.3.3 Types of intrinsic rewards

...The immediate connection between people and the work they actually perform comprises one of the most powerful contextual factors determining work motivation and behavior.

(Pinder, 2008, p. 205)

The following section will outline the manners in which work can be designed to be intrinsically rewarding. These five types of intrinsic rewards correlate with the factors of the Intrinsic Work Rewards Scale (IWRS), a measuring instrument developed by the researcher for this study. Insight into how these factors were derived, based on thematic analysis following qualitative data being gathered, will be detailed in Chapter Five of this thesis.

2.3.3.1 Meaningful work

...We know that the richest experiences in our lives aren't when we're clamoring for validation from others, but when we're listening to our own voice—doing something that matters, doing it well, and doing it in the service of a cause larger than ourselves.

(Pink, 2009, p. 145)

Performing work that is meaningful results in an individual being intrinsically rewarded by his or her job (Jenkins, 2014). Thomas (2009b) agrees, citing a sense of meaningfulness as an intrinsic reward that focuses on the purpose that an employee fulfils through his or her work, which gives him or her a sense

of worthiness and direction. This includes having the opportunity to accomplish something that holds value and that matters in the greater scheme of the organisation or world at large (Thomas, 2009b). An emphasis on work being meaningful is not a newly researched concept; in 1975, Walters noted that research that led to the formulation of Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory found that "people reported feeling exceptionally good about their jobs when they had accomplished some meaningful objective....they reported feeling good when they were doing work that they found intrinsically interesting and meaningful" (p. 38). Indeed, according to Pfeffer (1998, p. 217, *emphasis by the researcher*), "creating a fun, challenging, and empowered work environment in which individuals are able to use their abilities *to do meaningful jobs* for which they are shown appreciation is likely to be *a more certain way to enhance motivation and performance* – even though creating such an environment may be more difficult and take more time than merely turning the reward lever". Along the same line, Pink (2009) explains that a fundamental component of true motivation involves working towards a cause that is larger than oneself; that is, working towards a greater purpose. If employees believe in the work that they are accomplishing and take pride in it; as well as understand how their work contributes to their work community and adds value to the organisation, then they will be motivated to work harder (Bruce, 2011).

Work has been described as meaningless when it rarely has a significant, lasting impact on the lives of others, making employees perceive that if their job did not exist, no one would be any worse off (Grant, 2014). According to Wissing (2014b), individuals find meaning by belonging to, and serving, something that is greater than themselves. This is of particular relevance to the non-profit sector, where employees are often attracted to such organisations because they feel aligned to their mission and values, as opposed to the money that they can earn (Bussin, 2013). Forbes (2013, p. 31) summarises the mission of most NPOs as being "to serve", which attracts individuals who possess a higher propensity for caring about softer issues. Such a mission tends to be "engaging and uplifting at a universal and higher order value level", which results in NPOs holding a competitive advantage over the private sector (Forbes, 2013, p. 33).

Meaningful work is a crucial aspect in creating a positive workplace (Zingheim & Schuster, 2000a). Balta (2014), too, highlights that part of creating a positive work environment for employees is ensuring that their work makes a difference to the organisation. When employees understand the deeper purpose for which their organisation exists, and are aware of its overall goals, mission and values, then they are likely to be engaged (Bruce, 2011). Moreover, this author explains that if employees align both their own purposes and their job roles with their organisation's goals, mission and values, then they will be personally invested in their work, which will heighten their level of engagement. This is confirmed by DeCenzo et al. (2010), who note that if jobs are poorly designed, including if there is no apparent connection between the job and the organisation's goals, then employees will perform below their capabilities, even if they have the ability and willingness to perform the job itself.

Walters (1975) highlights that managers need to explore means of creating job experiences that not only serve the purpose of the organisation, but also fulfil the personal goals of their employees. This is because employees who are well-educated and trained expect work not only to provide them with the money that will put food into their mouths, but also to provide them with meaning in their lives. He goes on to emphasise that failure to do so will lead to employees feeling bitter, frustrated and angry should their jobs remain narrow and constricting, which will result in increased turnover, absenteeism and strikes, and a reduction in productivity and quality. This author further explains that employees who have a sense of ownership over aspects of their work will experience greater meaning, since ownership is linked to accomplishments, responsibility and accountability, which leads to them experiencing a satisfying sense of self-worth.

Two core job characteristics from Hackman and Oldham's (1980) JCM, which was explained in Section 2.2.4, are relevant to meaningful work. Firstly, task identity is the degree to which employees can complete a job from beginning to end, with the outcome being visible and the job requiring the employee to complete a whole and identifiable piece of work (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). This ensures that employees see the 'bigger picture' into which their work fits,

resulting in them caring more about their work (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). As noted by Greenberg and Baron (2003), when tasks are observed by employees to be important, worthwhile and valuable, then they are perceived as being meaningful.

Secondly, Hackman and Oldham (1980) explain task significance as the degree to which a job substantially impacts the physical or psychological well-being of others, whether within or outside the organisation. This is similar to what Milkovich et al. (2011) term 'work importance', explained as the degree to which one's work is valued by society. Grant (2008b) notes that task significance causes employees to experience their jobs as more meaningful since they experience a psychological link between their performance and positive outcomes for others. He goes on to explain that task significance means that the actions of employees have a frequent and long-lasting impact on the lives of others, increasing their perception that their work holds social worth. The researcher is of the opinion that this job characteristic is particularly relevant to the non-profit sector, where NPO employees' tasks have the potential to hold a greater purpose and meaning owing to the nature of the work that they perform. Bryner (2007), discussing results from the 2006 General Social Survey that provides insight into the job satisfaction and general happiness of more than 27,000 Americans, reports that individuals occupying jobs that involve assisting, serving, teaching, protecting and caring for others reported higher levels of job satisfaction, as well as overall higher happiness levels than those in other professions. This included members of the clergy, firefighters and special education teachers.

As mentioned by Baron, Byrne and Branscombe (2006), individuals often help others as a result of unselfish motives such as knowing that it is the right thing to do. The act of helping others would therefore be rewarding in itself. The empathetic-joy hypothesis, to be discussed in more detail in Section 2.4.3.2, explains that having a positive, beneficial effect on the lives of others causes one to feel good about oneself (Baron, Branscombe & Byrne, 2009). These authors highlight that individuals need to know that their actions have indeed impacted positively on the lives of those they are helping, in order for them to

feel rewarded. The researcher notes that this emphasises the importance of line-of-sight in crafting meaningful work, because if individuals do not know *how* their work makes a difference due to a lack of feedback, then they will not deem their work to hold purpose and meaning. Line-of-sight implies that employees are able to see the link between their work, the work of other employees, and the organisation's objectives (Milkovich et al., 2011). When individuals know they are making a difference in the lives of others, then they rank their jobs as highly meaningful (Grant, 2014).

Within the non-profit sector, the researcher draws attention to World Vision U.S. as an example of a registered 501(c)3 NPO operating in the USA that brands itself online as an organisation that provides meaningful work to its employees. According to World Vision U.S. (2015), they are a "Christian humanitarian organization dedicated to working with children, families, and their communities worldwide to reach their full potential by tackling the causes of poverty and injustice". As seen in Figure 2.11, this NPO clearly articulates that individuals who desire lasting rewards should apply to work at their organisation, since every World Vision employee is assured of the fact that his or her efforts and input will have "contributed to something of lasting significance".

In addition, Annexure B provides the reader with examples of statements by current World Vision U.S. employees who draw attention to the meaning that their work provides to them. What is notable is the differing jobs occupied by these employees: their work varies from human resources to media and communications, yet all specify aspects that draw them towards their work through the deeper purpose that they feel they are working towards. For example, Carol W. mentions the enjoyment she receives from using her skills to work towards a mission as opposed to working only for profitable gains; Jane R. works hard in order to better the lives of children; and Sam K. highlights the long-term impact gained from helping the community. This shows in practice that meaning is experienced when an individual is committed and connected to a cause bigger than him or herself, and adopts a life that is self-transcendent (Potgieter & Botha, 2014). When employees are given the opportunity to help others, their work becomes more worthwhile (Grant, 2014). Such meaning

provides individuals with an awareness that their lives make sense and matter (Wissing, 2014b).

JOB OPPORTUNITIES

Is World Vision U.S. a good fit for me?

You should pursue a career at World Vision if you:

				
<p>ARE A CHRISTIAN You agree wholeheartedly with our Statement of Faith or the Apostles' Creed. As the foundation for all we do, our Christian faith is a unifying factor among staff.</p> <p>Read our Statement of Faith Read Apostles' Creed</p>	<p>HAVE SERIOUS SKILLS World Vision offers a professional environment coupled with a focused, global mission. Successful candidates not only share our Christian beliefs; they have deep professional skills, too.</p> <p>See our job family categories</p>	<p>WANT TO WORK IN: Federal Way, WA (headquarters) Washington, D.C. (advocacy) Or locations in Los Angeles, Chicago, Denver, Dallas, Pittsburgh, New York, and West Virginia</p>	<p>BELIEVE IN CHILDREN We believe in protecting them and helping them flourish. World Vision transforms the lives of more than 4.2 million children in child sponsorship programs worldwide.</p> <p>Read more about our global impact</p>	<p>SEEK LASTING REWARDS Even on the most difficult of days at the office, 100 percent of World Vision employees can go home at night knowing that they contributed to something of lasting significance.</p>

Figure 2.11: Job opportunities at World Vision U.S. (World Vision U.S., 2015)

a) *Developing meaningful work*

Wilson (1995) explains that should tasks themselves not be viewed as fulfilling to employees, then organisations can create conditions that serve to correlate the work employees do with them being valued, thus linking their work with positive feelings that will result in intrinsic fulfillment. Based on this, there are a number of manners by which managers can craft work that is meaningful to employees, which will be described as follows.

Firstly, managers can follow the advice of Bruce (2011), who states that emphasis should be placed on assisting employees to identify their welfare with that of the organisation's. That is, employees should be able to align their own best interests and life legacies, with the overall objectives, strategy, vision or purpose of the organisation (Bruce, 2011). Wright (2007) agrees, suggesting that managers emphasise how the organisation's values align with those of their employees, as well as how every employee's performance contributes to

the organisation's ability to operationalise its values. This clearly communicates how their work is beneficial, and thus inspires employees to perform (Wright, 2007).

Purpose and meaning in this sense relates to the organisation's identity and direction, including its vision, mission, goals and operating model (Forbes, 2013). Employees should also be intimately aware of their organisation's mission statement so that it can drive their behaviour and decision-making; that is, employees should identify what actions they can take to directly assist in achieving the organisation's goals and objectives (Bruce, 2011). The researcher notes that if employees have bought into their organisation's compelling future, one of Zingheim and Schuster's (2000a) total reward components, then they will feel that their jobs hold an overall purpose, as they will understand how their daily work assists the organisation in realising its vision, mission and objectives. As stated by Bruce (2011), employees will view their work as meaningful when they are shown how their work adds value for the organisation and affects others in some way. Thus, employees should view their jobs or roles as meaningful both within the organisational system as well as in the form of contributing to the success of the organisation as a whole (Bussin, 2013). Bruce (2011) clarifies that when employees understand how their work contributes to the organisation's strategy, then the context is set for them to be able to think more strategically about their individual jobs. Leaders, therefore, should explicitly provide employees with the link between what they value, what they find meaningful, and their daily work, as this will powerfully motivate them (Beechler, 2013).

In order for this to be achieved, organisations need to develop their own meaningful purpose that involves more than just a profit-motive, so that it is clear how the organisation is contributing towards something of value (Thomas, 2009b). Sinek (2009) suggests that leaders inspire their employees by giving them a motivation to act that is personal, by starting with 'why' – that is, why they produce the products or services that they do. Instead of emphasising to employees 'what' the organisation does or 'how' they produce what they do in order to set them apart from competitors, Sinek (2009) highlights that

emphasising the organisation's core belief or purpose will indicate to employees why the organisation exists, which in turn will help them realise why they should care more about the organisation themselves. Employees will be assisted in feeling connected to the organisation if their values and beliefs align with the organisation's (Sinek, 2009).

Secondly, since employees will gain a sense of purpose from knowing and understanding the role that they play in the overall performance of the organisation, as opposed to just within the area, unit or process in which they work (Bussin, 2013), it is recommended that the distance between employees and the end users of their products or services be shortened, so that their impact and direct job consequences can be seen (Grant, 2014). Along this line, Walters (1975) emphasises that feedback on performance should be provided to employees (as recommended in the JCM discussed previously), in order to inform them of how their exceptional performance affects the bigger picture of the organisation. In this way, the importance of their job, and their perception of how significant their tasks are, will be emphasised (Luthans, 2005). For example, Bruce (2011) explains that Medtronic, a medical product company in the USA, invites patients, whose lives were saved as a result of their heart pacemakers, to an annual holiday party at which these patients share with Medtronic employees how their products assisted in saving their lives. This motivates employees by emphasising that their work serves a bigger purpose in alleviating pain, restoring health and extending the lives of those who use their products (Bruce, 2011). This clarifies the link between what employees do, and the outcomes of their work that often appear much further down the chain (Noe et al., 2012). This is in line with Walters (1975), who emphasises that employees should develop relationships with their clients by contacting them directly, identifying with them, and committing themselves to exceptional performance.

Landy and Conte (2010) agree with the above authors, suggesting that employees be shown the effects they have on profitability as well as how important their jobs are to their customers. This includes drawing attention to how their community might be negatively affected if their job did not exist (Landy

& Conte, 2010). The researcher notes that such advice is applicable to non-profit employees, many of whose job roles entail working directly with the impoverished by developing close relationships with them, as they strive to make meaningful connections in order to better their lives. Along this line, Grant (2007) researched how jobs impact on beneficiaries by means of the degree to which employees had opportunities to affect the lives of others, measured in terms of the magnitude, scope, frequency and focus of the impact. Apart from having opportunities to impact others, this author also investigated how frequently, and to what extent, employees had the opportunity to communicate, and make contact with, those who are affected by their work. Having direct, frequent contact with beneficiaries resulted in employees becoming emotionally charged and more engaged in their work, since they gained exposure to how their performance affected others (Grant, 2007).

2.3.3.2 Flexible work

Self-determination and having some degree of 'say' about one's work is not only ubiquitous among formal theories of work motivation and job design, autonomy on the job continues to emerge as a critical issue in the demands being made by today's highly educated and highly mobile workforce in North America, Europe, and other affluent national economies.

(Pinder, 2008, p. 236)

The researcher defines flexible work as work that is self-directed and autonomous. Employees who enjoy flexible work are allowed to participate in decision-making and experience responsibility, freedom and choice during their daily work lives. Thus, flexibility in this sense focuses not necessarily on the ability to shape one's own work hours and location (for example, management granting the option of flexible working arrangements such as job sharing, part-time work and telecommuting, as discussed by Price, 2011), but rather emphasises the nature of one's job allowing for flexibility in decision-making and controlling of one's own agenda. When a job lends itself to being organised by the person occupying it, then such a job is intrinsically designed to be

rewarding. This is supported by Jenkins (2014), who cites autonomy and self-direction in a job to be aspects of work that are intrinsically rewarding.

This idea of flexible work is encapsulated by an organisation called Lands' End, who, as noted by Armstrong and Brown (2009), stated that if it was not possible to provide employees with a choice regarding the *type* of work that they perform, then they could at least provide a choice concerning *how* they could perform the work. This is termed by Milkovich et al. (2011) as authority, control or autonomy, or the degree to which an employee is able to influence others and control his or her destiny at work. Flexible work is similar to Thomas' (2009b) intrinsic reward of having a sense of choice, since this reward focuses on individuals having the freedom to accomplish their work in the way they feel is best, using their own sense of judgement to perform tasks in a manner that is most appropriate to them.

According to Balta (2014, p. 132), autonomy can be defined as “the freedom to make decisions and operate without close supervision”. Hackman and Oldham (1980) expand on this definition by explaining autonomy as the degree to which jobs offer freedom, independence and discretion to the employees occupying them, so that the employees can schedule their own work, use their own initiative, as well as make decisions pertaining to the procedures necessary to perform in the position. Importantly, autonomy as defined in SDT (discussed in Section 2.2.2) refers to “acting with the experience of choice”, implying that individuals can be autonomous even while relying on others, since they act independently of others (Deci & Ryan, 2008, p. 7).

According to Pink (2009), autonomy can be granted over employees' tasks (that is, what they do); time (when they do it), techniques (how they do it), as well as teams (with whom they do it). Indeed, the opportunity to manage one's own time has been cited as a key to autonomy (Walters, 1975). Moreover, in order to feel autonomous, employees must be able to exert a high degree of self-control over both setting their own goals, as well as defining how to achieve these goals (Armstrong & Brown, 2009).

The concept of job enrichment is relevant to the present discussion concerning flexible work, since French (2010) specifies that job enrichment attempts to increase the level of decision-making that employees can perform in their jobs, optimise the amount of skills that they can exercise at work, and expand on employees' jobs by equipping them to complete a wide range of tasks, in order for them to achieve psychological growth through their job content. Grobler et al. (2011) highlight that job enrichment involves grouping tasks together that are sufficiently complex, and require the application of choice and discretion in order to bring varied operations together and get work done. As a result, the functions of supervisors and other employees are also changed when jobs are enriched. In this way, the depth of jobs is increased by increasing the amount of discretion and autonomous decision-making that employees can make use of when deciding on their job activities and outcomes (Nel et al., 2011).

Allowing employees to exert choice and freedom in their work lives relies on them being personally empowered to do so. Bruce (2011) notes that the motivation to work harder owing to autonomy stems from employees feeling empowered and encouraged to make decisions that concern their work, since this leads to them feeling a sense of achievement and control within their jobs. As mentioned by Nel et al. (2011), organisations are moving towards new organisational designs that are flatter and not geographically-based, which results in greater levels of dependence on personal empowerment as well as networking. Employees who are empowered will enjoy authority to perform in their own best way, together with being given the responsibility to achieve certain tasks through performing effectively and efficiently (Bruce, 2011).

Such empowerment results in employees feeling trusted and valued as partners within the organisation, which subsequently leads to energy and motivation (Bruce, 2011). Walters (1975) notes that employees perform poorly in situations where they lack responsibility for the end product or where the organisational system is organised to the point where they are not allowed to exert authority or decision-making that could affect the final outcome of their work. Reilly (2010) discusses a study conducted amongst government employees in London, which found that bureaucratic processes were cited by respondents as

the greatest inhibition to motivation, with professionals complaining of slow decision-making processes. The alternative to such poor job design is being allowed to make choices and exercise autonomy, which provides employees with a greater level of self-responsibility and control (Thomas, 2009b), cements commitment, and leads to motivation (Bruce, 2011). As highlighted by Smith et al. (2006), autonomy in one's job is intrinsic to the job itself, and acts as an intrinsic motivator. Pinder (2008) states that employees who are given responsibility for the outcomes of their positions will find their work more activating than those who share responsibility with others for their successes or failures. Autonomy also make employees feel more personally accountable for their work as a result of being free to decide both what to do and how to do it (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). Balta (2014) notes the importance of employees having the authority to make decisions regarding their work, stating that this increases their motivation to continue fulfilling their responsibilities and remain working for the organisation, which leads to higher levels of work quality and productivity. Autonomy provides greater depth to a job (Grobler et al., 2011), and is valued highly by knowledge workers (Armstrong & Brown, 2009). Decision-making and being presented with opportunities to influence one's personal work situation furthermore forms part of an employee's psychological work environment (Balta, 2014). Glicken and Robinson (2013) additionally highlight that employers need to emphasise self-direction at work, together with social engagement, in order to build a strong labour market.

As excellent example of an organisation providing flexible work in the form of a Results-Only Work Environment (ROWE) is that of Best Buy, discussed in DeCenzo et al. (2010). According to these authors, the principle of ROWE is that employees have greater control over their work. Those who choose to sign up to this way of working are allowed to decide how, when and where they work, whether that be in the office, at home or in a coffee shop (DeCenzo et al., 2010). This movement towards ROWE has resulted in better relationships being formed at work, greater organisational loyalty, and an improved focus and energy with regards to employees performing their work. Most importantly though, improving the flexibility of their employees' work has resulted in an increase in productivity at Best Buy headquarters of 41 per cent, and a

decrease in turnover of 90 per cent (DeCenzo et al., 2010). Pink (2009) writes that another organisation, Meddius, followed suit after hearing about Best Buy's success with ROWE. They experienced similar results, such as productivity rising and stress declining, after shifting the focus to employees getting their work done and reaching their set goals in whatever way suits them best, without set schedules or locations hindering them (Pink, 2009).

Interestingly, Speckbacher (2003) mentions that it might be argued that NPO managers and employees need less monitoring than employees outside the non-profit context, since they are more committed to the organisation's mission. This implies that allowing NPO employees to manage their own tasks, time, techniques and teams in an autonomous manner may be an effective strategy for managers to consider within this sector. The following sub-section provides some practical guidelines to designing such flexible work.

a) *Developing flexible work*

Autonomy can be built into the nature of work in a number of ways, such as by managers providing employees with the authority to make purchases up to a certain amount without requiring the approval of management (Bruce, 2011). Pinder (2008) suggests that multiple layers of authority in organisations be rearranged so that lower-level employees be allowed more autonomy and responsibility. Marchington and Wilkinson (2008) specify that employees can have their involvement increased in terms of daily matters, such as by taking part in quality circles, being allowed to choose their work methods, regulating the pace of their work, and scheduling their own work through self-supervision. This will satisfy their needs for autonomy, responsibility and involvement. Landy and Conte (2010) further suggest that employees could be provided with the opportunity to have a say in the way their work is scheduled, such as which of several procedures or techniques might be used to perform their job objectives.

Thomas (2009b) suggests that in order to improve the level of choice employees have with their work, authority should be delegated so that employees have the right to make their own decisions. However, this is contingent on three aspects; firstly, that such employees understand the greater

purpose of their work (that is, what they should be attempting to accomplish); secondly, that employees are granted access to all relevant information such as facts and sources that will enable them to make the correct decisions; and thirdly, that they have no fear of being punished should they make honest mistakes (Thomas, 2009b). Greenberg and Baron (2003) agree with these sentiments, stating that time and effort needs to be invested in hiring employees who desire autonomy and would be able to perform without close supervision, followed by training such employees before they are allowed to perform on their own. This training should include educating employees on the high-quality performance that is expected of them (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). Managers must thereafter trust the decisions that their employees make, by having confidence in their self-management (Thomas, 2009b).

Bruce (2011) suggests that in order to motivate employees, organisations should allow employees to share the responsibility for improving work processes, and additionally provide them with the training needed to take on such responsibility. Additionally, they should not only encourage problem solving, but support employees when they present solutions. Rothmann (2014) notes that in order to provide support for employees to be more autonomous, managers can encourage their employees to speak up when they disagree with decisions as well as encourage them to speak their mind at any time. This author further suggests that managers provide direction to employees when needed, yet also allow employees to participate in important decision-making.

Employees can be empowered by checking on the quality of their own work as opposed to an over-reliance on special inspection jobs by superiors (Pinder, 2008). Empowerment also stems from employees knowing what is expected of them as well as the organisation's values, so that they can best use their competence and creativity in a manner that delivers, as opposed to being closely supervised and directed (Forbes, 2013). Interestingly, this author highlights that by empowering NPO employees and facilitating their self-management, they will be able to adjust their efforts better in order to meet the needs of the organisation. This can only take place if they obtain clarity regarding the purpose of the organisation, in terms of its vision, mission, goals

and operating model, so that they can align their efforts with the organisational direction and identity (Forbes, 2013). In this way, the researcher observes that meaningful work combines with flexible work in order to see the goals of the organisation realised.

2.3.3.3 Challenging work

In 1980, it had already been stated that jobs that underutilise employees are as inefficient as computers that underutilise their memory (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Instead, when jobs are challenging to employees, they are intrinsically rewarding to them (Jenkins, 2014), and provide motivation (Smith et al., 2006). Challenging work can be defined as the level of difficulty offered by a job's activities and tasks (Van Dyk, 2004). The researcher outlines challenging work as work that stretches and grows an employee through opportunities to master his or her work tasks; capitalises on and improves his or her knowledge, skills and experience; and develops higher levels of competence. Challenged employees are stimulated by their work, and constantly learn while on the job. Reilly's (2010) study, previously mentioned in Section 2.3.3.2, found that the second most important feature of work was being able to do stimulating work in a *challenging* job. Within the American non-profit context, Coffman (2002) notes that challenging work is regarded as a work-related asset. Armstrong and Brown (2009) also note that challenging work is one of a number of rewards best suited for rewarding knowledge workers.

According to Deci (1975), individuals who have a need to be self-determined and feel competent will seek out situations that provide a reasonable challenge to them. If such individuals experience boredom, they will instead look for ways to use their resourcefulness and creativity; however, if they feel overchallenged or overstimulated, they will seek out different situations that provide challenges that they feel they can handle (Deci, 1975). Pinder (2008) also specifies that employees will find little achievement motivation from tasks that are classified as being too easy or difficult, since they will find little excitement in mastering an easy goal, and will most likely judge tasks that are too difficult as unattainable and not worth attempting. This relates to Pink's (2009) discussion of individuals having an inherent desire to seek out mastery, in order to get

better at things that matter to them. This involves taking on challenges that are neither too difficult nor too simple.

According to Walters (1975), an individual's need for self-actualisation is motivated by his or her need for internal, intrinsic rewards, and in order to experience such rewards, tasks need to challenge the individual's imagination and capabilities in order for him or her to realise his or her potential. This author notes that solving challenging problems results in individuals feeling exceptional about their jobs, especially when individuals are recognised for accomplishing such achievements. Thus, the opportunity for growth serves as a source of motivation. This need for growth as a motivating factor was also put forward by Alderfer (1969, in Pinder, 2008), who proposed that growth needs consist of an individual's desire to interact successfully with his or her environment through investigation, exploration and mastery.

Bruce (2011) mentions personal growth as being a key motivator of employee performance, as it is a means of connecting into individual's natural tendencies to look out for themselves. According to Balta (2014), personal growth can be defined as the expansion of one's individual capabilities. Personal and professional development, as well as being able to use one's own experience and knowledge, are referred to by Balta (2014) as important components of one's psychological work environment. Herzberg (1966) defines the characteristics of psychological growth as continuing to know more; growing knowledge in relation to other related pieces of information and viewing more relationships in what one knows; being capable of exhibiting creativity; being effective in situations that are ambiguous; developing one's own individuality especially when faced with group pressure; and attaining growth that is real in the sense that one grows within oneself, as opposed to growing by downgrading others. Such psychological growth in the form of learning is both satisfying and rewarding to employees, and significantly contributes towards greater levels of intrinsic motivation (Armstrong & Brown, 2009).

The American Management Association (2010) cites challenging work as their first step in overcoming employee burnout. They state that employees require

challenges at work in order to be motivated, as such challenges encourage employees to strive to reach and exceed goals, such as those related to sales or service levels. Challenging work allows employees to grow in many different spheres, such as emotionally, mentally, personally and professionally, since challenges bring excitement into the lives of employees which stimulates their senses and prevents boredom, stagnation and dissatisfaction (Bruce, 2011). When jobs become more demanding, it causes employees to think in different ways in order to adapt to changes that are unpredictable (Luthans, 2005). As stated by Grobler et al. (2011, p. 240), “no one can give another person the satisfaction that comes from accomplishing a particularly challenging job”.

Job enrichment, briefly mentioned in the previous section with regards to flexible work, is also relevant to challenging work, since Paul and Robertson (1970) specify that job enrichment seeks to incorporate more challenge, responsibility, opportunities for individual growth and advancement, as well as scope for personal achievement and recognition into employees' jobs, thus improving both human satisfaction and task efficiency. Enriched jobs present greater levels of responsibility and accountability to employees (Luthans, 2005). In this way, jobs are vertically loaded through job enrichment (Werner, 2004b) and thus have more depth (Grobler et al., 2011). According to Walters (1975) and Schultz (2004), Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of motivation (presented in Section 2.2.3) provides the primary conceptual basis for the concept of job enrichment, since factors meeting one's needs for psychological growth (including challenges, achievement and responsibility) become characteristic in one's job through the job enrichment process. Grobler et al. (2011) note that employees in enriched jobs are able to see their processes through from start to finish, improving levels of task identity, which DeCenzo et al. (2010) agrees with when they state that job enrichment offers employees intrinsic rewards by improving the meaningfulness of their work.

a) *Developing challenging work*

In order to motivate employees at work, managers should provide employees with work that challenges both their interests and abilities and allows them psychological growth (Walters, 1975). Employees may become bored if they

are assigned to work that is too easy for them to master (Walters, 1975). Bruce (2011) highlights that since employees are at risk of becoming bored or stagnant once they have mastered their tasks, it is critical to create opportunities for employees to learn new skills, in this way extending them beyond their comfort zones. Along this line, she states that work can be designed to be more challenging as well as interesting if employees are provided with different tasks to do on different days.

Pinder (2008, p. 80) recommends that managers structure jobs in such a way that “their chances of job performance are 50/50: not too low, but not too high”, to ensure that the level of challenge is perceived to be moderate. In order to develop competency at work, Rothmann (2014) suggests that managers set high expectations amongst employees regarding their work, and then make it clear that they do have confidence in the abilities of their employees to meet these expectations. Employees should be clear in knowing what they should be doing, and should be allowed to learn from their mistakes (Rothmann, 2014).

Schultz (2004) and Nel et al. (2011) suggest a number of practical means of enriching jobs and thus making them more challenging, including the provision of opportunities to learn on the job; the provision of opportunities for employees to be accountable within their positions; allowing employees to exert some level of control over their job tasks; ensuring that every job possesses certain unique features to set it apart from others; and letting employees set their own work goals. What employees must be aware of, according to Pink (2009), is that challenging work requires persistence; that pursuing excellence will be difficult and rough at times; that they should expect setbacks; and that challenging work will require an employee to be devoted in terms of time and dedication as they master their tasks. However, the rewards of engaging with challenging tasks are intrinsic and well worth the effort, as individuals recognise themselves progressing, improving and reaching higher plateaus (Pink, 2009).

2.3.3.4 Varied work

Varied work is defined by Van Dyk (2004) as the number of different activities and tasks that employees perform within their jobs. Varied work thus relates to

the scope of a job, not its depth (Grobler et al., 2011), with a focus on increasing job range by means of a greater number of different tasks making up a job (Nel et al., 2011). Work that holds variety has been cited by Jenkins (2014) as an intrinsic reward that is derived from one's job, and Coffman (2002) notes that the variety of one's work is regarded as a work-related asset for employees of NPOs. However, these authors are not the first to recognise the value of varied work for employees. Forty years ago in the USA, Walters (1975, p. 6) described a strike that occurred in a manufacturing organisation of over 7,900 employees. He mentioned that the strike centred around a demand by younger employees (whose average age was 24 years old) to be given an opportunity to provide their input into how their jobs should be performed, because they "resented the constant, repetitive, unskilled nature of their work".

Such constant repetition is a characteristic of an organisational principle known as division of labour, which specified that maximum work efficiency would occur when jobs were simplified and specialised to the greatest extent possible (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). This is similar in nature to the Scientific Management approach, which engineered jobs to eliminate unnecessary work and standardise the quickest and most efficient work methods (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Simplifying jobs in such a manner is also known as the mechanistic approach to job design, which is rooted in classical industrial engineering and focuses on identifying the simplest means by which to structure work in order to maximise efficiency (Noe et al., 2012). These authors go on to note that this approach involves reducing the complexity of work in order to promote human resource efficiency, so that any individual can easily and quickly be trained to perform the work, as well as be replaced relatively inexpensively.

Unfortunately, work designed around principles of Scientific Management broke down prescribed job roles into standardised tasks which were repetitive in nature and narrow in scope (French, 2010), as managers sought to identify the one-best-way to perform jobs (Noe et al., 2012). French (2010) explains that employees found work designed in this way to be boring, with the consequences being high levels of absenteeism and turnover as well as work

disruptions and poor quality results. Routine jobs involve limited sets of tasks, which also tend to be based upon well-defined rules and instructions that need to be adhered to (Siu & Jaimovich, 2015). As noted by Lomas et al. (2014), repetitive job content that provides limited control over tasks and activities presents a major barrier to two psychological drivers of engagement, namely using one's own strengths as well as aligning one's purpose with one's work. Sauter (1990, in Lomas et al., 2014) states that tasks that are narrow, fragmented and shortcycled provide little stimulation, as well as limit the expression of creativity or the use of one's skills. As a result, such unvaried tasks provide little intrinsic meaning to the employees who perform them (Sauter, 1990, in Lomas et al., 2014). Jobs that are specialised and standardised lead to boredom, monotony and psychological stagnation (Werner, 2004b). Moreover, specialisation-intensive jobs characterised by low range and low depth do not promote social interaction amongst employees (Schultz, 2004). Frustration and alienation occur as a result of employees' individual capacities being under-utilised, and the context within which they perform their jobs is generally ignored (Nel et al., 2011).

Since by their nature routine jobs require minimal discretion, they have also become prime candidates to become obsolete and instead performed by new technologies (Siu & Jaimovich, 2015). Interestingly, Siu and Jaimovich (2015) describe how, when American employees occupying both cognitive and manual routine jobs lost their jobs during the recent 2009 recession, fewer employees recovered by gaining employment again after the recession compared to previous recessions that the USA has experienced since the 1970s. Specifically, employment in routine jobs decreased by over five per cent during and after the 2009 recession. "Jobless recoveries" therefore occurred, due to the fact that routine jobs are disappearing altogether and being replaced by robotics, information technology and computing (Siu & Jaimovich, 2015). This means that organisations in the USA are beginning to cope with recessions by eliminating tasks and jobs that can be automated instead.

In contrast to routine, repetitive work, Pinder (2008) discusses that jobs characterised by multiple tasks, unpredictable requirements as well as

elements of change and novelty are more capable of generating arousal amongst employees. This author specifies that the complexity, intensity, novelty, variation and uncertainty / unpredictability of tasks are important in stimulating employees' levels of arousal, known as activation arousal theory. Siu and Jaimovich (2015) explain that non-routine tasks involve greater levels of human interaction, discretion and communication, as well as a greater variety of tasks that are not bound by a fixed set of rules. This is known as the motivational approach of job design, rooted in organisational psychology and management literature, which focuses instead on job characteristics that positively affect motivation potential and psychological meaning (Noe et al., 2012).

Glicken and Robinson (2013) advocate for the provision of varied work, by encouraging employers to offer opportunities for employees to have their work functions changed frequently. These authors explain that this would reduce boredom at work, which tends to set in quickly as a result of the fast-paced nature of today's world. They specify that "the idea that people can and will do the same job for most of their working lifetime is a complete misunderstanding of how people function," highlighting that burnout is best reduced by assignments being changed regularly (Glicken & Robinson, 2013, p. 267). Indeed, French (2010) states that routine, repetitive work may never fulfil the needs of employees to be self-actualised, with McClelland (1987) highlighting that variety acts as a natural incentive that adds interest and excitement to experiences.

In relation to the JCM discussed earlier in this chapter, the core job characteristic relevant to varied work is skill variety. This is defined by Hackman and Oldham (1980) as the degree to which a job requires the employee occupying it to perform a number of different activities, while using a variety of his or her different talents and skills to do so. This will, in turn, stimulate more of the employee's senses, which will result in higher levels of arousal and activation (Pinder, 2008). In addition, it is important to note that improving the variety of work is also a product of enriching jobs, discussed in the previous section with regards to challenging work.

a) *Developing varied work*

Back in 1975, Walters noted two negative influences on job structure that rendered them uninteresting and fairly meaningless. These influences were technological advances, which erode the challenge for workers to perform *complete* jobs that test their judgement and skill; and job fragmentation, which segments a job into meaningless parts, such as jobs on an assembly line where each employee only performs a small portion of work. Reasons for such restructurings include efficiency (employees being able to master a small portion of a total job completely); reduced training time and costs (breaking jobs into smaller components that are less complex and thus easier to teach to new employees); the control of management (stripping away employees' senses of autonomy, control and decision-making through the proliferation of rules, standards and procedures); specialisation of work (which may result in professionals not placing value on their contribution to the whole work process if they only ever work on a small part of a job); and tightening of operations (in order to decrease levels of overstaffing, inefficiency and high costs and waste) [Walters, 1975].

It is clear from the previous discussion, however, that stripping jobs into small components will not produce higher levels of employee motivation and engagement. In order to design jobs that are interesting and meaningful by emphasising variety of tasks, Pinder (2008) suggests a number of ways to increase the stimulation that an employee can experience through his or her work. These include reversing the sequence of certain tasks; informally swapping jobs with one's colleagues; designing new means of performing one's tasks; and enriching jobs by combining two jobs with similar functions into one, so that the single job provides greater levels of stimulation, meaningfulness and variety. However, this author does draw attention to the fact that individuals differ in their amount of preferred activation and arousal at work, and the manner in which they adapt to new sequences of job assignments. For example, employees desire different levels of stimulation at different points during the day, making it virtually impossible for managers to design all jobs in a manner that sufficiently arouses the attention and energy of every employee at all times of the day (Pinder, 2008). This author suggests that managers

instead pay attention to differences experienced by employees with regards to the levels of excitement and challenge they desire, and when they desire it.

A common recommendation when speaking of improving the level of task variety that employees are exposed to at work is job rotation (Nel et al., 2011). Job rotation (as the name suggests) involves rotating employees from one job to another in an attempt for employees to experience more activities and different job tasks (Schultz, 2004). This author notes that this increases both the job range and the perception of variety offered by the content of jobs. Job rotation assists in employees gaining an overall appreciation of the organisation's goals and objectives; as well as increasing their understanding of the various functions within the organisation; improving their problem-solving skills; cross-training them so they understand different jobs; and developing their own network of contacts, which may result in salary increases and opportunities for promotions (Noe et al., 2012). As already stated by Bruce (2011), allowing employees to perform different activities on different days will make their work not only more challenging, but also more interesting. That said, Pinder (2008) highlights that employees should not be moved into positions that provide a level of stimulation so high that they arouse activation levels above those preferred by the employees, as this will result in reduced performance. Moreover, managers should be aware that job rotation may result in employees possessing a short-term perspective on problems and solutions, and their motivation and satisfaction levels may be affected negatively if they do not develop a functional speciality or spend enough time within every position to experience a true challenge (Noe et al., 2012). These authors further note that job rotation may result in decreased productivity and increased workloads, such as within the department losing the employee that they have trained, since they experience the loss of a resource. Moreover, Grobler et al. (2011) specifies that job rotation seldom improves motivation, since it does not change the basic nature of jobs (that is, improve the depth of jobs).

An alternative to job rotation is job enlargement, which seeks to increase the number of tasks and activities that employees perform, which like job rotation serves to reduce boredom (Schultz, 2004), but unlike job rotation, actually

increases the scope of jobs through increasing the job cycle (Grobler et al., 2011). This is recommended by Walters (1975), who highlights that vertical loading can be used to provide employees with greater control over their work by expanding their levels of authority and responsibility for managing their own work. Job enlargement adds challenges or new responsibilities to an employee's current job, such as switching positions within a work team, being placed on a special project assignment, or researching innovative ways by which to serve existing customers or clients (Noe et al., 2012). It changes the pace of the work itself, as well as the operation of the work by reallocating responsibilities and tasks (Grobler et al., 2011).

According to Aamodt (2010), both job rotation and job enlargement challenge employees because they are required to perform a number of varying tasks. However, Schultz (2004) notes the danger that not all employees are able to cope in more complicated, complex jobs, or have attention spans long enough to complete a set of tasks that have been enlarged. It is crucial that employees demonstrate a desire to have their jobs expanded in order for job dissatisfaction, grievances and absenteeism to be avoided (Grobler et al., 2011). Moreover, organisations should be aware that increasing the tasks and duties of employees will most likely create an expectation for a resultant increase in remuneration (Nel et al., 2011).

2.3.3.5 Enjoyable work

Grobler et al. (2011) state that an important factor for employees is whether or not they are performing tasks in their job that they personally enjoy. Indeed, the researcher notes that there is no doubt that work that employees enjoy performing would be motivating to them. When employees love what they do, they perform exceptionally, as opposed to working only for a salary at the end of a month (Kohn, 1993). As mentioned by Glicken and Robinson (2013), when employees are passionate about what they are doing, as opposed to working simply for money or to stay busy, then they would be more inclined to work past retirement age; in essence, leaving their jobs would be unthinkable.

Furthermore, as already mentioned previously, employees are motivated by work that challenges not only their abilities, but their *interests* as well (Walters, 1975), which is also mentioned by Herzberg (1966) when he states that many employees simply lack interest in the work that they perform, which results in a lack of motivation to perform. This is noted by Woods and West (2010) when they highlight that interesting work tasks are intrinsically rewarding to employees. Within the non-profit context, Coffman (2002) mentions that employees in the non-profit sector often work there because they gain pleasure from following their interests or convictions. Additionally, Maw (2014) states that 'interesting work' was rated by 96 per cent of American university students and university-educated professionals as one of their top priorities for work. This author notes that managers of NPOs should ensure that even lower-level employees are given the opportunity to contribute towards work that is both interesting and important.

Balta (2014) states that the content of one's job is a crucial aspect of one's work environment, from a psychological point of view. The researcher notes that this implies that an individual may not be psychologically committed to his or her job if the content (or job tasks) themselves are not interesting and enjoyable. Additionally, individuals are inclined to be more creative when they have an intrinsic interest in the work that they are performing (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). Importantly, Ryan and Deci (2000) highlight that intrinsic motivation can only occur if individuals perform activities that are intrinsically interesting to them. Davis (2014) cites interest and enjoyment as forms of intrinsic rewards that do not cost the organisation anything, apart from costs associated with arranging the workplace in a manner that is interesting and enjoyable.

a) *Developing enjoyable work*

According to Greenberg and Baron (2003), there are four means by which managers can increase the intrinsic interest of job tasks, all relating to job design. Firstly, tasks can be made more challenging, as already previously discussed, since challenging tasks require individuals to work harder to perform them, which stimulates interest. Secondly, managers or supervisors should encourage their subordinates so that employees' efforts are reassured

(Greenberg & Baron, 2003). Thirdly, work group support should be provided so that employees can share ideas and have others on which to lean for additional required skills in order for their jobs to be completed. Finally, these authors suggest that management eliminate organisational impediments such as negative criticism of new ideas, political problems, or pressures to maintain the status quo.

Despite the validity of these suggestions, however, the researcher notes that they focus on changing or redesigning the *context* of one's work (that is, the work environment) as opposed to the content of the work itself, which is the focus of intrinsic rewards. A key aspect in ensuring that employees enjoy their jobs is instead to match individuals to their particular positions in as effective a manner as possible. This is highlighted by Luthans (2005), who notes that job satisfaction can be increased by matching individuals with jobs that fit their interests. He also suggests designing jobs in a manner that is perceived to be interesting and exciting, such as by implementing Hackman and Oldham's (1980) core job characteristics into work. What is crucial to note is that the more employees feel as though they are being controlled, the less likely they are to find enjoyment in their work, since they lose interest in it when extrinsically rewarded (Kohn, 1993). Thus, the heart of ensuring that employees experience enjoyment in their work is restructuring the work itself, not by throwing more money at them. As noted by Kohn (1993), extrinsic rewards are a poor substitute for genuine interest in one's job.

2.3.4 Benefits and outcomes of intrinsic rewards

According to Calvert and Stiles (2010), it is critical that organisations improve the strength of their employee value exchange by balancing intrinsic with extrinsic rewards. It has already been highlighted that the nature of one's tasks (that is, intrinsic rewards from the work that an employee performs) lead to motivation and satisfaction (Herzberg, 1966, 1968). The nature of the job itself refers to what a particular job entails, and this makes up part of an employee's job content environment (Van Dyk, 2004). This author states that the job content performed by an employee (that is, his or her work tasks as provided by the organisation) determines the quality and quantity of the outputs of that

employee, as well as his or her personal and psychological job satisfaction. Work that is designed to include individual control, skill variety and flexibility will result in positive outcomes including motivation, proactive performance, innovation and creativity, and quicker responses (Garg & Rastogi, 2006). Luthans (2005) highlights that the work that an employee performs can be a major source of job satisfaction, which in turn assists in decreasing turnover levels. Intrinsic rewards also predict employee retention, and result in employee's experiencing more positive feelings at work (Thomas, 2009b).

The most important outcomes of a motivational approach to designing jobs are in the form of attitudinal variables such as intrinsic motivation, job involvement and satisfaction, and behavioural variables including performance and attendance (Noe et al., 2012). Grobler et al. (2011) also state a number of benefits to the motivational approach to designing jobs, including decreased absenteeism and turnover, improved satisfaction, productivity and product quality, and a greater number of employee ideas and suggestions. The researcher notes that these outcomes would occur if jobs are designed in such a manner to be intrinsically rewarding.

Interestingly, Herzberg (1966) highlights that individuals who are motivation seekers (that is, are motivated by the nature of their work tasks) would demonstrate a higher tolerance for poor hygiene factors, such as their salaries. Therefore, a positive benefit of work that is intrinsically rewarding is that it reduces the need for extrinsic rewards as a means of motivating employees. As stated by Werner (2004b), when individuals are motivated by work that is challenging, meaningful and interesting, then external control mechanisms such as incentives, policies or supervisions are unnecessary, or certainly, can take less prominence. The researcher notes that this implies that an employee would 'put up' with a lower salary in relation to others, should his or her work be sufficiently stimulating and enjoyable to produce motivation. Herzberg (1966), stating that such employees show the capacity to enjoy the work that they perform and exhibit positive feelings towards their work, thus provides an explanation for why non-profit employees who are not satisfied with their

salaries would nonetheless remain motivated to perform to the best of their abilities at work.

Certain benefits occur from specific intrinsic rewards. For example, when individuals experience meaning in their lives and jobs, the benefits that occur include increased work enjoyment, happiness, hope, life satisfaction, positive affect and physical health, together with lower incidences of suicide intentions, psychopathology and stress (Stillman et al., 2009, in Potgieter & Botha, 2014). Potgieter and Botha (2014) further highlight that individuals should continuously search for opportunities to increase their sense of meaning in order for their levels of well-being to be maintained. According to Rothmann (2014), employees will flourish and function well when they experience purpose and meaning in their work. This author also highlights that meaning in work has been found to positively correlate with psychological well-being, life satisfaction and authentic happiness. Enjoying a sense of purpose within one's work life is also a critical component of employee engagement, and promotes the exertion of discretionary effort (Bussin, 2013). When employees feel that they are pursuing a purpose at work or are working towards something that engages them personally, then positive effects occur, including reduced stress, absenteeism, turnover, dissatisfaction, depression and cynicism, in addition to increased levels of happiness, satisfaction, commitment, effort, empowerment, fulfillment and engagement (Beechler, 2013).

Moreover, challenging work has been found to be one of the top ten drivers of attraction, retention as well as engagement in the USA and six countries in Europe, according to research conducted by Towers Perrin (Bussin, 2011). This implies that when employees perform work that challenges and grows them, they are more likely to choose to work at, and stay at, their organisations as well as be engaged with their work. In addition, with regards to flexible work, job autonomy was cited in this study as a driver of attraction amongst European respondents. Decision-making authority was cited as a driver of both engagement and retention, and the ability to influence company decisions as an engagement driver. Amongst the American respondents, decision-making authority and the ability to influence company decisions were listed as drivers

of engagement. Moreover, Potgieter and Botha (2014) state that when individuals are given the opportunity to exhibit autonomy, then they are able to cope more adaptively, in a manner that is more coherent, organised and constructive.

According to Schultz (2004), jobs with greater job variety owing to job rotation result in increased levels of job satisfaction and improved efficiency and productivity, as well as reduced number of errors resulting from fatigue, mental overload and on-the-job injuries. This same author specifies that job enlargement can contribute to increased product quality and job satisfaction, as well as decreased levels of absenteeism and turnover. Luthans (2005) mentions that varying work by means of job rotation ensures that employees learn new sets of tasks, which benefits the organisation when such employees can cover for absent colleagues, and when they are promoted because they have greater insight into how the entire operation works. In the Towers Perrin study cited by Bussin (2011) previously, variety of work was listed as a driver of attraction amongst European respondents, suggesting that employees in Europe choose to begin working at organisations if they are offered work that is non-routine in nature.

2.3.5 Australian, Belgian, South African and American research on intrinsic rewards

Owing to space constraints, it is not possible for the researcher to review all studies relating to intrinsic rewards that have been conducted in Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA. The following table therefore merely provides an overview of selected studies within the four countries under study that have measured intrinsic rewards and from which insights can be gained. The literature to follow is presented in order of country investigated, and has been placed in chronological order for each country.

Table 2.1: Summary of studies relating to intrinsic rewards within the four countries under study

Author/s & study title	Country & sample	Intrinsic reward-related finding
Huang and Van De Vliert (2003): <i>Where intrinsic job satisfaction fails to work: National moderators of intrinsic motivation</i>	Employees from one multinational company operating in 41 countries including Australia, Belgium, South Africa and the USA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The relationship between intrinsic job characteristics (i.e. intrinsic rewards) and job satisfaction is stronger in richer countries; more individualistic countries; higher social security countries; and countries with a smaller power distance culture. • <i>The researcher notes that Australia, South Africa and the USA fit the description of being highly individualistic as well as having smaller power distance scores. Australia and the USA can also be classified as rich countries, implying that employees from these countries who are highly intrinsically rewarded will have higher levels of job satisfaction.</i>
Bassous (2015): <i>What are the factors that affect worker motivation in faith-based nonprofit organizations?</i>	Paid workers employed in three faith-based international humanitarian NPOs that operate in more than 100 countries including Australia and the USA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Faith-based NPO employees excel in their performance due to internal stimulation as opposed to extrinsic rewards, such as through task enjoyment in the form of a challenging and demanding job (related to self-leadership). • 'Mission' is the most effective incentive to make use of in a faith-based NPO.
Taylor (2012): <i>Public service motivation and work preferences of the millennials in Australia</i>	The dataset from the 2005 Australian Survey of Social Attitudes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respondents higher in public service motivation were found to place a stronger emphasis on job autonomy and interesting work. • This suggests that individuals who are driven to make a positive difference through their work may have a stronger need to perform meaningful and interesting work, as well as make use of autonomy to

		perform acts that benefit their organisation and society.
Mok (1989): <i>New forms of work organization: Humanizing work in Belgium</i>	Numerous multinational organisations in Belgium	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A number of intrinsic rewards were introduced into Belgian multinational jobs in 1989 in an attempt to humanise work, such as autonomy in the form of decentralised work groups; flexibility by means of variable working hours; and varied work through job rotation and job enlargement.
De Gieter et al. (2006): <i>Identifying nurses' rewards: A qualitative categorization study in Belgium</i>	Belgian nurses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nurses value a number of psychological rewards, the most relevant to the present study being the contact they get with patients. This includes their ability to help their patients and have a relationship with them.
Van Den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, Soenens & Lens (2010): <i>Capturing autonomy, competence, and relatedness at work: Construction and initial validation of the Work-related Basic Need Satisfaction scale</i>	University students and researchers, employees at an HR service company, call centre agents, and employees with at least 3 years' working experience, all working within Belgium	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Task autonomy was most strongly correlated to satisfaction of their need for autonomy. • Satisfaction of their need for competence was largely dependent upon feelings of mastery.
De Cooman, De Gieter, Pepermans and Jegers (2011): <i>A cross-sector comparison of motivation-related concepts in for-profit and not-for-profit service organizations</i>	Knowledge workers from service organisations both in the for-profit and non-profit sectors in Belgium	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No difference was found between the for-profit and non-profit sectors with regards to decision authority and autonomy, but this task characteristic scored the lowest in both sectors. • A similar number of employees in each sector were motivated by aspects of their jobs that were fun and interesting (<i>or enjoyable, as noted by the present researcher</i>).
Akintola (2010): <i>Perceptions of rewards among volunteer caregivers of people</i>	Volunteer caregivers of people living with HIV/AIDS, working	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Volunteers derived intrinsic rewards from self-growth and personal development on the job (including emotional and psychological

<i>living with AIDS working in faith-based organizations in South Africa: A qualitative study</i>	in faith-based organisations in South Africa	development), as well as from community members expressing a need for the services that they provide.
Nujjoo & Meyer (2012): <i>The relative importance of different types of rewards for employee motivation and commitment in South Africa</i>	Employees in organisations across South Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The satisfaction that employees derived from their intrinsic job characteristics, such as how appealing (or enjoyable) their tasks are, was found to be more important for intrinsic motivation than external rewards such as monetary benefits or the support of supervisors.
Jacobs, Renard & Snelgar (2014): <i>Intrinsic rewards and work engagement in the South African retail industry</i>	Employees from a South African retail organisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intrinsic rewards are positively correlated with levels of work engagement. • Meaningfulness (intrinsic rewards) and dedication (work engagement) displayed the strongest correlation.
Macnab (2014): <i>An investigation into the relationship between intrinsic rewards and psychological capital</i>	Quantity surveyors working within South Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intrinsic rewards are positively correlated with levels of psychological capital. • The strongest correlation was found between enjoyable work (intrinsic rewards) and hope (psychological capital).
Wright (2007): <i>Public service and motivation: Does mission matter?</i>	A public sector agency operating in the USA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public sector employees will be more motivated to perform when they have tasks that are perceived to be challenging, important, achievable and clearly understood. • Employees' motivation is influenced by the intrinsic value they see in their organisation's mission, as this increases the meaning and importance they place on their work.
Jacobson (2011): <i>Creating a motivated workforce: How organizations can enhance and develop public service motivation (PSM)</i>	Employees from the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) and the U.S. Patent and Trademark Office in the USA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Challenge of work was perceived as a motivational force. • With regards to the nature of the work or job, certain respondents commented that they were motivated primarily because they enjoyed their jobs or found them

		<p>interesting, challenging, or generally pleasant professional experiences.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meaningful work was said to be important to respondents.
<p>Langfred (2013): <i>To be or not to be autonomous: Exploring why employees want more autonomy</i></p>	<p>Evening students with full-time jobs at a university in the USA</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees desired more autonomy in their jobs if they believed it would increase their job satisfaction. However, they were not necessarily as interested in autonomy if they believed it would increase their productivity, implying that job satisfaction is more important. • Employees who believed that greater autonomy would result in improved job satisfaction were more likely to express a desire for such autonomy, compared with those who believed autonomy would only result in higher productivity levels.

It is evident from the table above that limited research pertaining to intrinsic rewards is available from Australia in particular. In addition to the data shown in this table, the researcher briefly notes that it has also been found that organisations operating in countries that score highly on individualism, such as all four countries being investigated in the present study, tend to provide jobs that are designed to maximise levels of autonomy (Gelfand et al., 2004).

2.3.2 The link between intrinsic rewards and motivation

According to WorldatWork (2007, p. 12), motivation is defined as “the ability to cause employees to behave in a way that achieves the highest performance levels”. In other words, motivation comprises the drives that move individuals to act in the way that they do (Bruce, 2011). It involves looking at why employees initiate effort and behaviours at work, as well as the processes that determine the intensity of these efforts and behaviours, the direction that employees take towards goals, and how to maintain such direction over time (Woods & West, 2010). Motivation is for this reason highly valued in organisations, due to the fact that it mobilises individuals to act (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

DeCenzo et al. (2010) list motivation as one of the four main goals of HRM, and mention that it is also one of the most important, yet least understood, aspects of the HRM process. The motivation HRM function is successfully executed when HRM activities, such as job design, performance appraisals, rewards and compensation as well as employee benefits, ensure that employees are exerting themselves at their highest energy levels (DeCenzo et al., 2010). In 1975, Deci noted that intrinsically motivating activities were related to consequences that were internally rewarding to the individual. The researcher notes that it is thus clear that when rewards are correctly designed, implemented and managed, then motivation will occur as a result. That is, rewards lead to motivation. Numerous studies have already been cited that link intrinsic rewards to intrinsic motivation in particular, justifying the present study investigating these two constructs. Moreover, the link between intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation will be discussed further in Chapter Four of this thesis.

However, it is important to note that when jobs are designed in a manner to have high potential to intrinsically reward and motivate employees, this does not automatically cause job incumbents to perform well or experience job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Instead, these authors specify that intrinsically rewarding jobs merely create conditions that are likely to result in positive outcomes if the job incumbent does perform well, thus setting the stage for intrinsic motivation to occur.

2.4 Intrinsic motivation

No job, regardless of its design, can overcome an employee's lack of interest or willingness. If the employee doesn't care about the job, then no effort will be exerted, and nothing else matters – not even a boss who cracks a whip.

(Grobler et al., 2011, p. 237)

2.4.1 Motivation at work

Motivation is focused on what determines the movements or actions of individuals (Beck, 2004), or as McClelland (1987) puts it, the 'why' of behaviour,

in contrast to the 'how' or 'what' of behaviour. It can be classified as a force that energises behaviour, giving that behaviour direction and a tendency to persist even in the face of obstacles (Grobler et al., 2011). Motivation causes arousal, direction and persistence of voluntary effects that are directed towards goals (Perkins & White, 2009). These authors state that it thus concerns what causes individuals to make a choice to behave in a certain way and select between alternative actions, as well as what sustains the focus of such actions. According to Herzberg, Maunser and Snyderman (1959, in Balta, 2014), motivation affects to what extent an individual will be determined and productive, with French (2010) highlighting that motivation is a dynamic concept that is associated with an individual's drive to behave in a certain manner. In line with these explanations, Werner (2004b) mentions that motivation entails two concepts; firstly, being intentional, in terms of personal choice and persisting with one's actions; and secondly, being directional, in terms of possessing a driving force that is aimed at achieving a specific goal or objective.

Within the context of work, motivation can be defined as "a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration" (Pinder, 2008, p. 11). Beck (2004) describes job motivation more simply, as encompassing motivational variables that influence the productivity of employees. According to Meyer and Kirsten (2012), motivation is expressed as work effort, and such work effort is comprised of both desire (to initiate tasks) and commitment (to perform to the best of one's abilities).

Beck (2004) states that two primary classes of motivational variables exist, namely desire and aversion. Desire refers to "a preference for a behavior whose outcome is preferred to a neutral outcome", such as positive incentives, rewards and a need for achievement, whereas aversion is "a preference for a behavior whose outcome is less preferred than a neutral outcome", such as a fear of failure, negative incentives or stress (Beck, 2004, p. 31). The motivational variable of desire will be the focus of the present study, since the three dimensions of intrinsic motivation to be discussed to follow stem from the perspective of an individual's personal desires.

Pinder (2008) explains that work motivation is an internal, psychological process, which is a result of an individual interacting with his or her environment or context in which he or she exists. The researcher draws attention to the fact that the context of the present study is that of the non-profit environment, which as will be discussed, influences the motives of those who work in such an environment. Pinder (2008) specifies that his definition gives leeway for a variety of drivers, instincts, needs and external factors to propel human behaviour forward. In this regard, the present researcher acknowledges the existence of *extrinsic* and *intrinsic* forms of motivation, to which theoretical attention will now turn.

2.4.2 Intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation

In the work context, *extrinsic* motivation is behaviour that stems from factors that are external to employees, such as punishments, pressures and rewards (Rose, 2011; Nel, 2014). Individuals are extrinsically motivated by any factor outside of themselves, which influences their internal needs, desires and behaviours (Bruce, 2011). Such motivation is generally associated with tangible rewards such as pay (WorldatWork, 2007; Jenkins, 2014), benefits and promotions, which are distributed to employees by an external individual (Luthans, 2005). Such extrinsic motivators thus include any extrinsic financial or non-financial rewards, as referred to in Figure 2.1 previously. Importantly, extrinsic motivators are contingency based, implying that they are dependent on improved performance, or performance that is shown to be superior to others in the organisation (Luthans, 2005). That said, motivation by means of working towards a tangible reward is not the only way of encouraging employees to exert effort, and arguably not the best way, as will be explained in Section 2.4.4. As noted by Pinder (2008, p. 482), *“the old economic model that assumed that people work only for money is now terribly dated, in most of the North American context, at least. Indeed, many people prefer not to work for pay in organizations when other life interests and challenges confront them”*.

Instead of being motivated financially, some employees are motivated purely by the content and the nature of the work that they do (Woods & West, 2010). The researcher notes that such motivation is *intrinsic* in nature. Intrinsic

motivation differs from extrinsic motivation in that it refers to doing a task for the inherent satisfaction of the task or job itself (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Luthans, 2005), rather than to gain social or material rewards (Pinder, 2008). Intrinsic motivation thus involves performing tasks and activities simply due to the fact that they are enjoyable in themselves (Deci, 1975; Baron & Byrne, 1987; Beck, 2004), with such tasks holding intrinsic interest or the appeal of challenge, novelty or aesthetic value (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Such activities are ends in themselves, as opposed to being a means to an end (Deci, 1975). Employees are intrinsically motivated to work when they receive no apparent rewards apart from the task or activity itself, or the feelings resulting from the work (Deci, 1971; 1972). That is, they are motivated by the intrinsic rewards that their work or job content provide. This is confirmed by Warr, Cook and Wall (1979), who explain that intrinsic job motivation is focused on personal achievements and succeeding at tasks, as opposed to extrinsic motivation which stems from positive work environments and additional monetary rewards. Pinder (2008) emphasises this point by noting that in order to be truly intrinsically motivated by interest in a task, an individual should not feel the pressure of external rewards or punishments. In this way, individuals exert choice by controlling their own actions, as opposed to being pressurised by external factors (Pinder, 2008).

Intrinsic motivation can be viewed from a different vantage point; namely that it emanates from within an individual. That is, it involves aspects that motivate an individual from within him or herself (not the job tasks), such as his or her personal interests, fulfillments or desires (Bruce, 2011). As stated by Nel (2014), intrinsic motivation refers to individuals engaging in activities simply because they want to, and because positive feelings will result from them. Therefore if an individual is intrinsically motivated, he or she is performing the activity because it provides him or her with internal satisfaction; in other words, the perceived locus of causality of his or her behaviour is within him or herself (Deci, 1972). Thus, intrinsic motivation arises from individuals having an inherent tendency to explore, learn, enlarge and exercise their capabilities, and seek out novelties and challenges (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Along this line, intrinsic

motivation can be described as being innate, since all humans are born with an undifferentiated need to feel both self-determined and competent (Deci, 1975)².

This latter explanation of intrinsic motivation is what the researcher will focus on for the discussion to follow, as well as for the development of the Intrinsic Work Motivation Scale (IWMS) later in this thesis. The researcher notes that the first understanding of intrinsic motivation pertains to the nature and content of the work tasks, which overlaps with the definition of intrinsic rewards presented earlier in Section 2.3.2.

As noted by Bruce (2011, p. 87), self-motivation, or intrinsic motivation, is the greatest force available for the workplace, and “perhaps the only motivation worth exploring”. This author highlights that employees should be encouraged to attend to their own motivational needs by relying on themselves to stay motivated and responsible through the provision of their own authority, choice and judgement, as opposed to gaining their motivation from external sources. Wilson (1995) further explains that it is necessary for organisations to develop conditions in which employees *desire* to perform. In this regard, the researcher notes that intrinsic motivation takes a Theory Y approach to interpreting the behaviour and understanding of employees (see McGregor, 1957). A Theory Y approach to managing employees assumes that under the right circumstances, employees are fully capable of working productively and responsibly, since they have a psychological need to work, to achieve and to be responsible (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). The assumption with this approach is also that employees are interested in working, which is crucial to the researcher’s delineation of intrinsic motivation.

² Interestingly, Staw (1976, in Pinder, 2008) highlights two different forms of intrinsic motivation, namely motivation associated with doing a job (the first type presented in this section), and motivation stemming from successfully achieving in one’s job. This author does not make mention of the second type of intrinsic motivation highlighted by the researcher in this section, namely motivation emanating from personal feelings within an individual.

The theory of intrinsic motivation stems from Deci and Ryan's (2000) SDT, introduced at the start of this chapter. To briefly recap this,

“The intrinsic needs for competence and self-determination motivate an ongoing process of seeking and attempting to conquer optimal challenges. When people are free from the intrusion of drives and emotions, they seek situations that interest them and require the use of their creativity and resourcefulness. They seek challenges that are suited to their competencies, that are neither too easy nor too difficult. When they find optimal challenges, people work to conquer them, and they do so persistently.”

(Pinder, 2008, p. 82)

Pinder (2008, p. 467) further highlights that intrinsic motivation, self-determination and self-regulation are almost identical concepts in reality, since they all share the core similarity of individuals holding an innate need to control their personal behaviours, as well as affect and be efficacious in their environments; or, “be the captains of their own ships”.

Importantly, Surtees et al. (2014) note that it is reasonable to expect that employees working in NPOs would experience higher levels of intrinsic motivation in comparison with other types of organisations, owing to the qualities inherent in non-profit jobs. Along this line, Price (2011) states that individuals will remain in jobs that pay low salaries in comparison to others due to the fact that the satisfaction stemming from helping others is valued more than a high salary. Thus, the motives and ambitions of some individuals involve more than seeking a high salary, since the importance of money varies between individuals (Price, 2011). Chen (2014), in summarising literature relating to the motivation of NPO managers, agrees with these statements, indicating that such managers are more likely to be motivated by means of intrinsic motivation than extrinsic incentives, including a strong motivation stemming from serving and helping others. This will be unpacked in more detail in the dimensions of intrinsic motivation to follow.

2.4.3 Dimensions of intrinsic motivation

Share the rewards of success—but remember that the best motivation is intrinsic.

(Bruce, 2011, p. 72)

The following sub-sections classify intrinsic motivation into three dimensions, which correlate with the factors of the IWMS, a measuring instrument developed by the researcher for this study and utilised to assess intrinsic motivation at work. Insight into how these factors were derived will be detailed in Chapter Five of this thesis.

This discussion will be particularly focused on NPO employees, in order to link these dimensions to the sample under study. The researcher highlights that based on the specific dimensions to follow, intrinsic motivation in this sense can be classified as a “need” theory of motivation (see Pinder, 2008) as a result of its focus on the internal desires of employees. Pinder (2008) defines desire as an internal state that is similar to the concepts of wants, needs or motives. Importantly, the researcher highlights that the following three intrinsic motivation dimensions provide NPO employees with their reasons for wanting to work – that is, the ‘why’ of their behaviour, as mentioned in the opening discussion that defined motivation in Section 2.4.1.

2.4.3.1 *Personal connection to one’s work*

If you put people in jobs where they can meet their individual needs while doing the work that’s important to the organization, you’ll have employees who are more motivated to perform well.

(Bruce, 2011, p. 24)

Bruce (2011, p. 4) explains that employees will work harder when they “identify their own joy and welfare with those of their employer”, and when their personal purpose, values and goals align with those of the organisation where they work. This suggests that motivation stems from employees connecting in some way

to their work. Herzberg et al. (1959, in Balta, 2014) stated that the nature of one's work itself can act as a motivator, implying that when individuals connect with their work and the way in which it is designed, they will be more likely to perform and reach their work-related goals.

Glicken and Robinson (2013) explain that individuals have many motivations to work hard, one of which is because they simply love what they are doing. Such individuals cannot wait to start work when they get up in the morning, and consider it a blessing to have both the support and time to work on specific projects. Using university professors as an example, these authors add that employees with this type of motivation have a "love affair" with their work, and as a result, would "work for salaries far below what they could make in the business world" (Glicken & Robinson, 2013, p. 109). The researcher notes that this could be said for NPO employees who have a personal connection to their work; while they could earn more in the private sector, they choose to work in jobs where their work significantly benefits others. Brandi (2012) agrees, explaining that working for NPOs is based on the premise that such employees are motivated not just for a salary, bonuses and allowances, but rather for the opportunity to contribute to social change as a rewarding factor. As noted by Forbes (2013), NPOs can be driven in terms of performance if they tap into the higher-order desires of their employees, which include their employees' desires to improve the human and natural condition, and serve others.

The researcher notes that having a personal connection to one's work is grounded in an emotional association with the work that one is performing, resulting in NPO employees possessing a level of affective commitment to the beneficiaries that they strive to serve. Such affective commitment is defined by Grant (2007) as the emotional concern for, and dedication to, those individuals that are impacted by one's work. According to Beck (2004), emotions are more brief yet intense than moods, and when emotion is experienced, an individual tends to act towards a specific object through approaching or avoiding it. In this way, emotion correlates closely with motivation because it has the power to move individuals towards strong actions and behaviours (Beck, 2004). This author explains the causes and effects of emotions, beginning with *antecedent*

conditions that cause particular emotions, followed by *intervening variables* that define the emotions experienced, and finishing with *consequent conditions* that detail the effects of emotions. *Antecedent conditions* that are relevant within the non-profit context based on the researcher's knowledge include cognitive events such as memories or evaluation of events, or environmental events such as losing one's fortune or the sight of a loved one (Beck, 2004). Relevant *intervening variables* mentioned by Beck (2004) are happiness, interest and love (all positive emotions) as well as fear, anger, disgust and sadness (all negative emotions). Finally, examples of *consequent conditions* that may be experienced by non-profit employees include expressive behaviours, approach or avoidance task performance at work, or cognitive processes such as thinking (Beck, 2004). To illustrate an example of such emotional causes and effects, the researcher explains that an individual may be spurred on to work in an organisation that serves to assist the homeless (the *consequent condition*) as a result of him being retrenched at some point in his life and losing his house (the *antecedent condition*). The emotion (the *intervening variable*) that he would feel towards the homeless is empathy, as such homeless individuals may have gone through similar situations in which they suffered financially because of job loss, resulting in an inability to pay rent, and then losing their homes. A similar example would follow an individual who, as a result of raising an autistic child (the *antecedent condition*), chooses to work for a non-profit that raises awareness for autism and funds for the education of autistic children (the *consequent condition*) since she feels compassion for families affected by autism (the *intervening variable*). These examples highlight how personal situations can cause individuals to choose to work in non-profit contexts owing to the personal, emotional connections they feel towards their work.

It is the responsibility of employers to determine the motives of employees, and then assist employees to connect their own motives with the organisation's goals and activities (Bruce, 2011). This author notes that when employees' work activities satisfy their needs and both fulfil and gratify them, then they will be motivated more strongly to perform such activities. This links to what Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin and Schwartz (1997) term a 'calling' orientation to work. Both these authors as well as Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan,

Swidler and Tipton (1996, in Lomas et al., 2014) differentiate between three types of work orientations, namely a job (the focus of which is to make money as a means to an end); a career (which serves as a route towards achievement); and a calling (which serves as an intrinsically fulfilling vocation, and is noted to be the most meaningful orientation that one can have towards one's work). The last orientation to work, a calling, implies that employees work primarily for the fulfillment they gain from performing their work, as opposed to financial gains or career advancement (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). Such work is usually perceived as being socially valuable since it helps to make the world a better place; and those who perform it love their work to the point that it becomes inseparable from their lives (Wrzesniewski et al., 1997).

The researcher draws attention to two examples of NPOs in an attempt to emphasise the connection that such employees have towards their jobs. Firstly, an interview with Save the Children USA employee Dave Hartman, provided on the Save the Children USA website, details his role as Social Media Manager (Save the Children, 2015). While Dave's position is focused on him sharing information via social media platforms and working with corporate sponsors and artist ambassadors to build awareness and raise funds, he experiences motivation through witnessing the work that Save the Children performs on the frontline, which validates the office work that he performs (Save the Children, 2015). This example shows how an employee can be motivated to perform administrative work with excellence, since he is personally connected to the organisation's mission. Secondly, the Salvation Army in Australia discusses the call to work in their organisation, explaining, "There are needs all around us and is that not call enough? 'The need is the call!' ...The Founder [*William Booth*] said, 'Put your ear down to the Bible and hear him bid you, GO!' It is an encouragement to not only listen, but to look. Look at a world in need and know that God, through you, can make a difference" (The Salvation Army - Australia Southern Territory, 2014). This is an emotionally and spiritually charged message from the Salvation Army's founder to encourage individuals to listen when God speaks, and if they feel that their calling is to work in this organisation, to act on this in order to help meet the needs of the world.

a) *When employees are too emotionally connected: Compassion fatigue*

Individuals may experience a personal connection to their work in the non-profit sector as a result of experiencing compassion towards others, which implies that they understand that others are suffering and need help (Pinder, 2008). This author notes that compassion is triggered by an individual being aware of the plights of others, and that this emotion is particularly strong when he or she has experienced similar suffering, or when those in trouble are loved by the individual. As previously highlighted in Chapter One, however, compassion fatigue may be experienced by those working within helping professions, as a result of them expending high levels of energy and compassion yet receiving little internal peace or positive feedback in return (Glicken & Robinson, 2013). The researcher is aware that since many NPO employees work to assist in benefiting the lives of others through their jobs, they may be prone to such fatigue. Compassion fatigue results in such employees experiencing a decline in their ability to feel joy and care for others, resulting in secondary traumatic stress due to the physical and emotional trauma that results from caring for others in need (Glicken & Robinson, 2013). Indeed, it has been observed that regulating one's emotions in order to meet the demands of one's job or organisation does produce strain over time (Woods & West, 2010). According to the researcher, NPO employees may ironically bear the risk of *decreased* levels of motivation and engagement (which is typically conceptualised as being the antithesis of burnout), as a direct result of being too personally invested in, and connected to, their work in this sector, which could lead to them exiting the NPO sector.

As noted by Nel et al. (2011), individuals who are over-dedicated to achieving their work-related goals are prone to burnout. Burnt-out employees are emotionally exhausted and therefore no longer feel that they are positively impacting others through their jobs (Aamodt, 2010). As noted by Grant (2014), feeling like the weight of the world is on one's shoulders when their work is *too* meaningful results in burnout. Such over-commitment to making a difference in the lives of others may result in an inability for employees to lead well-balanced lives, since they are too focused on their work and thus oftentimes cast aside family or social events (Nel et al., 2011) in order to meet work-related

commitments. These authors highlight that this is often the case with social workers and counsellors, and the researcher deems it fair to believe that many NPO employees would find themselves in a similar position. Being responsible for others places a heavy burden on individuals and can be a source of stress (Greenberg & Baron, 2003), which is in line with Luthans (2005) noting that burnout is most closely associated with those who work in helping professions. As highlighted by Landy and Conte (2010), three components of burnout experienced by individuals in the human service sector are emotional exhaustion (when individuals feel emotionally drained by their work); feelings of depersonalisation (when individuals become hardened by their jobs, leading to treating clients as objects); and feelings of low accomplishment (when individuals feel that they cannot adequately deal with problems nor understand or identify with the problems of their clients). In order to relieve themselves from burnout and maintain a more healthy personal connection to their work, NPO employees can heed the advice of Nel et al. (2011) by making personal, alone time for reflection to regain perspective on their life's direction, as well as reassess their goals to determine whether their personal well-being is worth the sacrifices they are making to meet the needs of others. Such fatigue can additionally be reduced by organising their time more effectively, developing realistic deadlines, and building quality relationships with others (Nel et al., 2011).

This discussion on compassion leads to the following dimension of intrinsic motivation, namely a personal desire to make a difference, since this, together with being connected to one's work, can be spurred on by compassion.

2.4.3.2 *Personal desire to make a difference*

According to Coffman (2002), non-profit employees feeling that they have made a difference in the lives of others is regarded as a work-related asset. As mentioned in Section 1.2.1.1, employees in NPOs often earn less than their private sector counterparts, which begs a number of questions, such as: Why would individuals choose to work for lower pay? What motivates NPO employees to choose to remain working in such economically-unviable positions? The researcher believes that an understanding of prosocial

behaviour (the study of which pertains to the realm of social psychology) can be useful in interpreting why NPO employees may have a personal desire to make a difference in the lives of others. Prosocial motivation can be defined specifically as a desire to help others (Grant, 2008a), including the degree to which individuals are energised to perform their jobs because it assists others (Noe et al., 2012). This form of motivation can be classified as a specific form of intrinsic motivation (Grant, 2008a).

Prosocial behaviour³ relates to actions taken by an individual that assists others, despite holding no immediate benefit to the helper (Baron et al., 2009). Such behaviour stems from an individual's personal initiative (Landy & Conte, 2010). As stated by Baron and Byrne (1991), prosocial behaviour can be a long-term commitment that individuals possess towards socially responsible actions. Thus, despite the fact that Bierhoff (2003, p. 286) believes that individuals acting with prosocial behaviours are "not motivated by the fulfillment of professional obligations", the researcher suggests that individuals who choose to work within an NPO may be highly prosocial, since they are motivated to work towards a greater purpose by helping others in the social psychological sense.

Reasons for non-profit employees demonstrating prosocial behaviour could be because they identify with the purpose and mission of their employer; that is, they have a desire to help others with whom they are similar in terms of values / religion / age and so forth (Baron et al., 2009). Alternatively, they may feel empathy, concern or compassion towards a particular group of people (or animals); or they wish to help those individuals who cannot help themselves (Baron et al., 2009; Bierhoff, 2003). It could moreover be suggested that NPO employees may have been exposed to the creation of prosocial norms through media that increased their desire to contribute in a prosocial manner (Baron et al., 2009), such as advertisements for NPOs or charities that called for volunteers or funding. Socialisation and social learning, which for instance

³ To note, Beck (2004) mentions that the terms prosocial behaviour, altruism and helping behaviour can be used interchangeably.

occur as a result of cultural norms, values and general ethical principles, could also play a role in developing prosocial behaviour (Bierhoff, 2003). Finally, the researcher suggests that employees who display prosocial behaviours by contributing their skills, talents and abilities within the NPO environment may have altruistic personalities. This implies that they are highly empathetic and socially responsible; have an internal locus of control; believe in a world that is just; have a noticeable sense of duty; and are not egocentric (Bierhoff, Klein & Kramp, 1991). The researcher is of the opinion that social responsibility is specifically relevant to individuals who choose to work in NPOs, since this norm suggests that individuals help others who are dependent on their help (Bierhoff, 2003). For example, individuals may feel that it is their social responsibility to play a part in feeding the needy through the distribution of food parcels, or to assist with fundraising to provide finances to fight the battle against cancer or diabetes. Kassin, Fein and Markus (2014, in Wissing & Van Eeden, 2014) confirm that desiring to help others (that is, being altruistic and pro-socially cooperative) is neurologically associated with being rewarded. Schepers et al. (2005) also found that altruism as well as a preference for working to assist others are both factors that motivate employees working in NPOs.

Benefits from helping others in such a manner include receiving praise or thanks from others and experiencing higher levels of self-esteem, whereas on the other hand, individuals may perceive costs associated with not helping, such as feeling guilty or being scorned by others (Beck, 2004). Along a similar line, Baron et al. (2009) explain that prosocial behaviour could stem from the desire to lower one's own negative emotions or feelings of distress; to boost one's sense of status or reputation by helping others, especially when done in a public manner; or alternatively, to help those related to oneself, in order to ensure the survival of the next generation. Other motives for displaying altruism include recognition, moral obligations, self-esteem enhancement as well as reciprocity (Bierhoff, 2003). In addition, empathy could play a role in motivating individuals to be altruistic. Along this line, the empathetic-joy hypothesis proposes that prosocial behaviour is "motivated by the joy aroused by helping someone in need" (Baron & Byrne, 1991, p. 390), since individuals experience pleasure through witnessing the relief gained from helping someone else

(Kassin et al., 2014, in Wissing & Van Eeden, 2014). This includes individuals feeling sympathy, compassion or concern towards others in need, thus creating an internal desire to have a positive impact on them (Baron et al., 2009). These authors highlight that responding to the needs of others in this way is rewarding in and of itself. The researcher believes that this is particularly of relevance to NPO employees, whose work is often geared towards helping animals, the environment, or people in need. All of these reasons for assisting others can be classified as incentive theories, since they suggest that individuals help others either to improve their mood (that is, make them feel happier) or to make them less unhappy, through removing their negative moods (Beck, 2004).

The researcher acknowledges that for some NPO employees, choosing to work (and remain working at) an NPO may not be out of choice or a personal desire to make a difference, but rather due to economic factors such as a lack of other job opportunities. As stated by Baron and Byrne (1991), prosocial behaviour may appear to be selfless, but this does not imply that individuals do not help others in order to obtain, for example, financial rewards and recognition. Despite this, the above argument provides theoretical evidence that certain NPO employees may *choose* to contribute meaningfully in such an environment owing to their tendency towards prosocial behaviours.

An alternative perspective by which to understand an individual's desire to make a difference in the lives of others is that of Project GLOBE's 'humane orientation' dimension of culture. This dimension is defined by the degree to which individuals exhibit altruism, generosity, love and kindness, and how fair, caring and friendly they are (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004). These authors mention that universalistic values (including tolerance and the protection of others) as well as benevolent values (including preserving relationships and providing social support to others) are attributes that correlate with a humane orientation to life. For Project GLOBE, humane orientation was measured in terms of being sensitive towards others; being concerned; being friendly; being tolerant of mistakes; and being generous. In contrast to such values is self-enhancement, which focuses instead on one's own self-interests and self-gratification (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004). This concept is similar to Meglino and Korsgaard's

(2004, p. 948) “other orientation”, defined as the “dispositional tendency to be concerned with and helpful to other persons”. The researcher of the present study notes that with regards to NPO employees, it could be argued that accepting a lower salary in order to have the opportunity to make a change in the world aligns with a humane orientation, or other orientation, towards life, as opposed to a self-enhancing view. Interestingly, Kabasakal and Bodur (2004) provide evidence that white South Africans scored in the lowest band with regards to exhibiting a humane orientation towards others. Yet, Wissing and Van Eeden (2014) state that altruism is a concept that should be familiar to South Africans who are engrained in the African culture. This is due to the fact that African cultures emphasise the concept of Ubuntu, described as a combination of social behaviours including seeking consensus, helpfulness and sharing (Werner, 2007), where an individual’s humanity is tied up with that of others (Mbigi, 2005). As noted by Kassin et al. (2014, in Wissing & Van Eeden, 2014), the values and norms associated with Ubuntu may compel individuals to do good towards others since it is the right thing to do.

Grant (2008b) found that when employees have strong prosocial values that can be fulfilled by doing meaningful work, then performing tasks that are significant will more likely lead to increased levels of performance. There are a number of ways by which employees working in NGOs can make a difference, such as through advocating and campaigning for specific causes, offering services for social problems, being the champions for environmental and humanitarian issues, and channelling international development aid to where it needs to be used (Bussin, 2013). Such employees who are personally committed to making a difference through their work may develop hardiness, which refers to the degree to which individuals are orientated towards commitment, control and challenge at work; are committed to involving themselves in change and viewing such change as a challenge, not a threat; and are determined to influence events as opposed to feeling powerless (Woods & West, 2010).

2.4.3.3 Personal desire to perform

Bruce (2011) notes that, in comparison to extrinsic motivators or incentives such as providing bonuses to employees, it is more crucial for managers to focus on factors that influence how enthusiastic employees are about their work. Such factors are found within employees, and have a greater chance of promoting positive actions (Bruce, 2011). This author states that employees should be able to make a connection between meeting their own needs and performing exceptionally; that is, linking their own interests with those of the organisation. Employees will not be truly motivated for the reasons and goals set out by their employer; but rather, their motivation will be influenced when employers uncover their employees' personal reasons for performing, such as their purposes and their causes (Bruce, 2011). Along this line, Nel et al. (2011) state that motivated employees are those who voluntarily and enthusiastically do more than what they are required to do by working hard, applying their skills where necessary, taking initiative, and putting in additional effort in order to reach their goals. Javidin (2004, p. 239) explains that such a performance orientation "reflects the extent to which a community encourages and rewards innovation, high standards, and performance improvement".

According to McClelland (1961), certain individuals have a high need for achievement at work (or put differently, a strong achievement motive), which drives them to perform. This need for achievement is a source of internal motivation to them. As noted by Herzberg et al. (1959, in Balta, 2014), a sense of achievement is an example of a motivator, and the self-recognition of achievement is the cornerstone of intrinsic motivation (Walters, 1975). Balta (2014, p. 133) states that achievement is a "self-administered reward that is derived when a person reaches a challenging goal". Achievement motivation, however, can be defined as "the striving to increase, or keep as high as possible, one's own capability in all activities in which a standard of excellence is thought to apply and where the execution of such activities can, therefore, either succeed or fail" (Heckhausen, 1967, pp. 4-5). The aim to which achievement motivation is directed, according to this author, is to achieve success and avoid failure, thus implying that this motivation is goal-directed and produced by an individual's own abilities. Those with a high achievement motive

strive for achievement if the required performance is defined in such a way that it is considered a personal accomplishment if performed well, as this provides the necessary incentive or challenge for individuals to attempt (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark & Lowell, 1953). Grobler et al. (2011) state that a need to achieve is characterised by an individual's preoccupation to focus on goals, as well as improve his or her performance and tangible results. For such individuals, the achievement itself is of greater importance than the money received for their efforts. As noted by McClelland (1961), highly achievement-motivated individuals set achievement standards for themselves as opposed to relying on extrinsic incentives, which results in them trying harder and more successfully to attain these standards. That is, they are able to define standards of excellence and pursue them in their own right (McClelland, 1961). Such high achievers find tasks intrinsically satisfying in and of themselves (Luthans, 2005).

Individuals motivated by achievement are also attracted to situations where they can potentially improve, implying that they prefer moderately difficult goals (McClelland, 1987) for which their efforts, not luck, determine successful performance. They also expect feedback on why they succeeded or failed (Pinder, 2008). While challenges do arise from the nature of the work itself, such individuals are driven within themselves to overcome such challenges and achieve, with an internal longing to perform to the best of their abilities. As noted by Pinder (2008), achievement motivation is consistent with individuals struggling against their own standards of excellence; becoming all that they are capable of becoming; mastering tasks; and overcoming challenges and obstacles.

In order to sustain a need for achievement, individuals must be self-disciplined and success-oriented, and be able to keep schedules and accept responsibility (Grobler et al., 2011). Those with a high achievement motive tend to set challenging yet attainable goals; take calculated risks; take personal responsibility for problem solving when outcomes are primarily dependent on their efforts and abilities; seek autonomy and freedom; choose expert assistance when requiring help to accomplish tasks; and prefer accurate,

regular and concrete feedback so that they can appraise the correctness of decisions and actions made (McClelland, 1961; Nel et al., 2011). According to Bruce (2011), being motivated from within oneself stems from employees setting their own goals for performance, so that their goals are more meaningful, their energies are focused, and they can measure their own progress.

From a cross-cultural perspective, Javidin (2004) notes that such job-related accomplishment is universally accepted as an imperative work-related goal, although societies may measure accomplishment itself in different ways. Moreover, Smith et al. (2006) note that interdependent individuals are less likely to perceive achievement in terms of individual recognition and gain, and are rather motivated in terms of socially-oriented achievement. The researcher draws attention to the fact that individuals from collectivistic countries would more likely be motivated through group recognition as opposed to an intrinsic desire within themselves to perform to the best of their abilities. Since the focus of this study is on four countries which all demonstrate individualistic tendencies (see Section 1.2.3), the researcher is of the opinion that the respondents within the present study will identify with questionnaire items relating to having a personal desire to perform. More importantly, the researcher highlights that having a personal desire to perform is not the same as being motivated purely by achievement, as outlined by McClelland (1961) in this section. High-performance desire in the context of intrinsic motivation focuses on one's intention to be the best one can be at work, which stems from an inner longing to do a good job and meet or exceed expectations.

a) *Linking the three dimensions of intrinsic motivation to Deci's original intrinsic motivation conceptualisation*

It is important to note that since this study's focus is on intrinsic, not extrinsic, motivation, the researcher has discussed a need to achieve from the perspective of desiring to succeed for the sake of success itself, as opposed to desiring to succeed in order to gain an externally administered reward. As noted by Deci (1975), individuals experience a need to achieve because they have specific intrinsic motives that develop from their basic needs of feeling

competent and self-determined. Individuals who are highly internally-controlled would therefore tend to be intrinsically motivated, since they believe that they can affect their environment (Deci, 1975). An individual's need to be competent and self-determined will make him or her aware of potential satisfaction that could occur, which then provides the necessary energy for him or her to decide what to do (such as set goals) and then behave in a manner that will attempt to reach these goals (Deci, 1975). This provides a conceptual linkage between Deci's original definition of intrinsic motivation with its focus on behaviours engaged in by individuals in order for them to feel both competent and self-determining, and the desires put forward by the present researcher relating to making a difference and performing to the best of one's ability.

According to the present researcher, personal desires stem from within an individual, who makes the choice whether or not to act upon such desires in order to experience the stimulation that will flow from performing in a manner that is self-determined. If individuals have such desires within them, no one has to tell them to act in a manner that will fulfil their mission at work; rather, they would seek to engage in their tasks in order to conquer their work-related challenges and have some form of an impact in their work environment (or greater community or society, in the case of NPO employees). They may also feel personally responsible to make a difference in the lives of others and thus act out such responsibility by engaging in behaviours to make a difference in whatever form their job allows. When such individuals experience overstimulation or overchallenge, such as the case of compassion fatigue discussed earlier, then they will seek to deal effectively with such a scenario, such as by reducing uncertainties or dissonance, as noted by Deci (1975). Moreover, all three of the intrinsic motivation dimensions put forward by the present researcher provide evidence for the activity to be the reward, a core component of intrinsic motivation put forward by this author. Thus, if NPO employees are personally connected to their work (and thus their work activities), and have personal desires to perform and make a difference, then their work activities will be more than simply gaining a means to an end (Deci, 1975).

2.4.4 The undermining effect of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation

It is generally accepted that pay influences employee motivation through affecting the intensity, direction and persistence of employee efforts; and together with the work and organisational design (the work environment) and the abilities of employees, it also affects employee behaviours such as performance (Milkovich et al., 2011). These authors term this influence of pay on effort and behaviour as the 'incentive effect': the degree to which pay affects motivation amongst employees. Rose (2011) defines incentives as tangible, extrinsic rewards that employees can earn by means of achieving defined, specific objectives and aims in the form of pre-determined outputs and measures. Yet, both Kohn (1993) and Perkins and White (2009) draw attention to the fact that despite a range of theoretical and empirical critical research existing that highlights the dubious motivational effects of extrinsic rewards such as pay and incentives, some of which will be discussed to follow, many organisations still base their reward philosophy on the premise that money motivates.

It has already been mentioned in Section 2.2.1 with regards to CET that the provision of money or financial rewards may buy off the intrinsic motivation of a task. According to Deci (1971, p. 114),

"It appears that money – perhaps because of its connotation and use in our culture – may act as a stimulus which leads the subjects to a cognitive reevaluation of the activity from one which is motivated primarily by the expectation of financial rewards. In short, money may work to "buy off" one's intrinsic motivation for an activity".

What extrinsic rewards *do* succeed at buying is temporary compliance; in other words, temporarily changing what employees do, which makes it seem like organisational motivational problems have been solved (Kohn, 1993). This author notes, though, that when such rewards are no longer given, employees will revert to their old behaviours. Wilson (1995) agrees, stating that extrinsic rewards tend to create a situation where employees comply only temporarily to receive the reward, and if that reward is not given or is removed, then they may feel punished as a result. Extrinsic rewards therefore do not produce lasting

changes in behaviour and employee attitudes, and usually do not create any enduring commitment to a task or activity (Kohn, 1993).

Around the same time as Deci's (1971, 1972, 1975) writings, Bem (1972, in Baron & Byrne, 1987) developed a theory of self-perception which outlined similar thoughts pertaining to intrinsic motivation and extrinsic rewards. Bem (1972, in Baron & Byrne, 1987) explained that individuals perform enjoyable, intrinsically motivating activities because of the pleasure that they yield, and not because they desire external rewards. If individuals performing such activities were suddenly paid for performing such activities, they would experience a decrease in their levels of intrinsic motivation. This is known as the overjustification effect (Bem, 1972, in Baron & Byrne, 1987). Beck (2004) explains that the overjustification effect implies that lowered feelings of pleasure in a particular activity may result after an individual perceives that his or her behaviours are being taken over and controlled by an extrinsic reward, since the individual will experience lower levels of autonomy (or self-determination according to Deci, 1975). Rose (2011, p. 109) confirms what the above authors have articulated, highlighting that incentives are extrinsic motivators provided to employees at the risk of destroying their levels of intrinsic motivation by "putting a price on it through cash". Intrinsic motivation thus typically decreases when financial rewards are emphasised above all else, as this signals to employees that money is basically all that they provide, not meaningful work or other non-financial aspects of the motivational environment (Pfeffer, 1998). This is true more for cognitive, knowledge-based tasks that require individuals to be creative or problem-solve, than for tasks that are routine and fairly mechanical in nature (Pink, 2009).

While the above evidence clearly argues that extrinsic rewards generally produce a negative effect on intrinsic motivation, it is important to note that no author states that intrinsic motivation is stripped away *entirely* by extrinsic rewards; as noted by Beck (2004), intrinsic motivation and interest in a task do not necessarily fall to zero after extrinsic rewards are provided to an individual.

The above-discussed explanation can be summarised by Figure 2.12, which demonstrates in the lower panel that intrinsic motivation is reduced when external rewards are introduced, due to the fact that one's focus turns to performing the activity in part to obtain the reward, not because he or she found the activity enjoyable in itself. The upper panel in the figure, on the other hand, shows that when extrinsic rewards are not the focus of a task, intrinsic motivation is maintained if employees enjoy the activity (Baron & Byrne, 1991). While employees may be aware that extrinsic rewards serve to recognise work that they have performed well, such rewards should not be the goal of doing the work in the first place (Bruce, 2011). That is, money should not be the primary means of motivating employees, since if extrinsic rewards succeed in motivating behaviour, they do so at the expense of intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1972).⁴

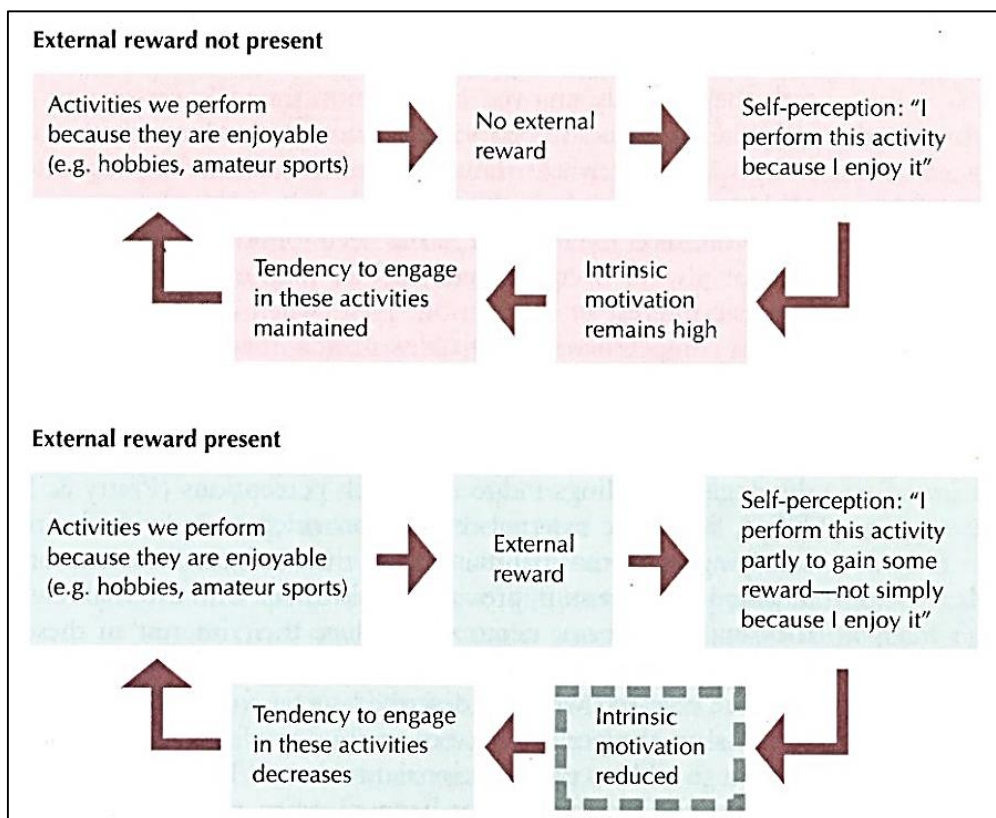


Figure 2.12: Self Perception and Intrinsic Motivation
(Baron & Byrne, 1991, p. 79)

⁴ In addition to extrinsic rewards, it is necessary to point out that negative extrinsic punishments, including threats, deadlines, pressures, imposed goals and directives, are also key factors in diminishing intrinsic motivation (Luthans, 2005).

In addition to the above arguments, it should be noted that if extrinsic rewards were the sole manner of motivating employees, then management would face the pressure of continually needing to provide increasingly higher amounts of pay and benefits in order to gain positive results from their employees (Glicken & Robinson, 2013). This is confirmed by Bruce (2011), who mentions that if employees are motivated by means of incentives, then they will typically continue to desire new and better rewards in order to keep performing at a certain level, and will be disinclined to work without the expectation of an incentive. As noted by Herzberg (1966, p. 170), hygiene factors such as one's salary may act in the same way as heroin, since "it takes more and more to produce less and less effect". Thus, if organisations do not provide increasing levels of extrinsic rewards, then employees will not put in more than minimum effort (Bruce, 2011). Moreover, should times of economic trouble arise, increasing salaries and benefits may not be available to employees anymore, in which case such a lack of salary increases may result in reduced levels of job satisfaction (Glicken & Robinson, 2013). For these reasons, while incentives do result in employees moving forward to gain the reward, they are generally not sustainable over the long term (Bruce, 2011).

Apart from the reduction of intrinsic motivation, a number of other negative consequences can stem from the provision of extrinsic rewards. Focusing primarily on extrinsic rewards may cause disaffection in the workplace, since employees may perceive that they are being made to work harder in a less happy environment, resulting in initial positive effects of pay increases or bonuses being lost fairly quickly (Whitaker, 2010). Along this line, Bruce (2011) highlights that compensation is rarely the primary means of motivating employees to work long hours, give of their best, or get out of bed early in order to do an excellent job. This author explains that motivating employees primarily through extrinsic rewards will make them feel as though they are doing their jobs simply to please the organisation, as opposed to satisfying themselves intrinsically. Moreover, both Kohn (1993) and Bruce (2011) state that creativity and risk-taking can be reduced through the provision of extrinsic rewards, since employees perform only those behaviours necessary to receive the reward, often regarding the work itself as distasteful, taking shortcuts, or manipulating

facts in order to attain a rewardable goal. Along this line, Rose (2011) says that incentives generally narrow employees' focus and concentrate their minds, resulting in tunnel vision and a decreased ability to expand possibilities. In addition, Pfeffer (1998) notes that individual incentive schemes usually erode teamwork, knowledge-sharing and trust, since they set employees against one another as they compete for performance-related rewards. Competing for rewards or recognition destroys cooperation and eventually, organisational excellence (Kohn, 1993). Organisational well-being therefore suffers as employees may place their focus on climbing the corporate ladder instead of the more important objective of promoting the organisation's overall success (Pfeffer, 1998).

Moreover, Pfeffer (1998) states that organisational incentive systems send important messages to employees about what the organisation thinks of them, so micromanaging behaviours and outcomes through complicated incentive schemes passes on the message that managers do not trust their employees, and do not believe that their employees will perform adequately unless they are rewarded for every little behaviour. In a similar manner, Kohn (1993) discusses that while the extrinsic reward itself may be appealing to employees, employees are commonly manipulated by management when such rewards are made contingent on certain behaviours being performed. When employees feel over time that they are being controlled, their feelings of being disciplined are likely to increase (Kohn, 1993). In this way, many organisational reward practices do more harm than good, yet when managers try to adapt the very incentive schemes that caused problems in the first place, even further damage is usually caused (Pfeffer, 1998).

Based on the above discussion, it is important to highlight that Deci (1975) never stated that extrinsic rewards should be eradicated altogether. What he did state is that the abundance of research relating to extrinsic rewards shows *not* that they are ineffective motivators, but rather that they result in unintended negative consequences, such as focusing the energy of individuals to be more concerned with the rewards than the task itself, thus decreasing their intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975). This author clarifies that he does not advocate that

employees not be paid at all, since paying employees is necessary to attract them to the job, retain them, and keep them satisfied. As noted by Kohn (1993), financial rewards buy individuals what they want and need. They are 'baseline' rewards according to Pink (2009). Indeed, Nel et al. (2011) mention that society accepts that employees must be rewarded for their contributions, and that the majority of such rewards are monetary in nature. Wilson (1995) specifies that the negative consequences of extrinsic rewards reflect a flaw in the way reward systems are designed; that is, the solution is not to eliminate the use of rewards altogether, but rather to explore alternative solutions as to why reward programmes may not be working effectively. Instead, as noted by Pink (2009, p. 33), employees should be paid enough "to take the issue of money off the table", so that they are not focused on the unfairness of their base pay and benefits, but are rather freed to focus their attention on their tasks. This will allow them to be intrinsically motivated. This important point will be elaborated on in Chapter Seven, when recommendations will be made pertaining to paying NPO employees a market-related base salary.

Paying employees sufficiently would then release intrinsic factors to be the primary motivators at work, such as challenging work and an environment that supports self-determination (Deci, 1975). An organisation's ultimate objective should be to "create a workplace environment that is filled with both natural work reinforcers (intrinsic) and external rewards and recognition, all directed to those behaviors necessary to achieve results that make a difference" (Wilson, 1995, p. 27). As stated by Pfeffer (1998, p. 217),

"All this is not to say that pay is unimportant to people. If individuals are not treated fairly, pay becomes a symbol of the unfairness and a source of discontent. If the job, or the organization, or both, are basically unpleasant, boring, or unchallenging, then pay may be the only source of satisfaction or motivation in the work environment. But, creating a fun, challenging, and empowered work environment in which individuals are able to use their abilities to do meaningful jobs for which they are shown appreciation is likely to be a more certain way to enhance motivation and performance—even though creating such an environment may be more difficult and take more time than merely turning the reward lever."

This author postulates that the reason why too few organisations have learned the importance of these basic principles is because adjusting extrinsic rewards is easier than rectifying basic problems in the work itself, such as too much control being exerted or too little meaning or enjoyment being provided in jobs.

2.4.5 Australian, Belgian, South African and American research on intrinsic motivation

Ryan and Deci (2000) state that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are of significance in every culture, and according to Swanepoel et al. (2008), motivation is influenced by personal values, which are acquired within cultural contexts. This is confirmed by French (2010), who specifies that both individual attitudes and values are influenced by cultural backgrounds, both of which concepts are relevant to motivation. Swanepoel et al. (2008), however, highlight that there may well be cross-cultural consistencies; but unless research is conducted to evaluate this, practical implications cannot be developed. For this reason, motivation is connected with culture, which emphasises the need for this study to conduct research across different countries in order for comparisons to be made. In addition, French (2010) notes that most traditional theories of motivation were developed and validated within the USA, such as Herzberg's (1966, 1968) and McClelland's (1961) theories that have already been discussed in this chapter. It is thus necessary to question whether motivational theories on which the theory of intrinsic motivation is based can be applied in settings outside of the USA (French, 2010). The following table provides a selection of studies pertaining to intrinsic motivation within the four countries under study.

Table 2.2: Summary of studies pertaining to intrinsic motivation within the four countries under study

Author/s & study title	Country & sample	Motivational finding
Bassous (2015): <i>What are the factors that affect worker motivation in faith-based nonprofit organizations?</i>	Paid workers employed in three faith-based international humanitarian NPOs that operate in more than 100 countries including Australia and the USA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intrinsically motivating factors included the meaningfulness of respondents' work, the quality of the services they provided, faith, spiritual or religious reasons, as well as altruistic reasons such as self-sacrifice. • Intrinsic motivation was found to be closely associated with personal faith (a calling) and personal values (a vocation). • Transformational leadership was found to increase the commitment of intrinsically motivated employees.
Ringer and Garma (2007): <i>Does the motivation to help differ between Generation X and Y?</i>	Individuals between the ages of 18-40, living in Melbourne, Australia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generation X'ers considered the intrinsic motivation of helping, specifically social and community need, to be more important compared to Generation Y'ers
<p>Taylor (2010): <i>Public service motivation, civic attitudes and actions of public, nonprofit and private sector employees</i></p> <p>Taylor (2012): <i>Public service motivation and work preferences of the millennials in Australia</i>⁵</p>	The dataset from the 2005 Australian Survey of Social Attitudes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public sector and NPO employees displayed significantly higher levels of public service motivation than private sector employees. • Public sector employees share more similarities to NPO employees than private sector employees in terms of their public service motivation and civic participation. • Respondents with a high level of public service motivation were female, more educated, and belonged to a religion.⁶

⁵ Same sample used for both articles.

⁶ Public service motivation is similar to intrinsic motivation, since it is measured using a scale that includes public interest, compassion and self-sacrifice as three of its subscales. It moreover has a prosocial orientation, much like intrinsic motivation.

<p>Stringer, Didham and Theivananthampillai (2011): <i>Motivation, pay satisfaction, and job satisfaction of front-line employees</i></p>	<p>Front-line employees from a retail organisation in Australasia</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Approximately 50% of employees rated both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as highly important. • Intrinsic motivation was positively correlated with both pay satisfaction and job satisfaction. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation was negatively correlated with job satisfaction, and not correlated with pay satisfaction. • This implies that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are not additive in leading to job satisfaction.
<p>Kluvers and Tippett (2011): <i>An exploration of stewardship theory in a not-for-profit organisation</i></p>	<p>An Australian NPO providing services for individuals with disabilities</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees were primarily concerned with their clients' welfare and the organisational mission. • Employees were attracted to work that involved helping others, and this was their primary source of motivation.
<p>Luyten and Lens (1981): <i>The effect of earlier experience and reward contingencies on intrinsic motivation</i></p>	<p>Undergraduate students at a Belgian university</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When subjects were given a pre-experience with the task without the administration of a reward, then higher ratings of intrinsic motivation occurred compared with subjects not being granted such a pre-experience.
<p>Buelens and Van Den Broeck (2007): <i>An analysis of differences in work motivation between public and private sector organizations</i></p>	<p>Private and public sector employees in Belgium</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public sector employees were found to be less extrinsically motivated than private sector employees. • This may be due to the fact that public sector employees are motivated by working for a good cause as opposed to money.
<p>Van Den Broeck et al. (2010): <i>Capturing autonomy, competence, and relatedness at work: Construction and initial</i></p>	<p>Employees at an HR service company within Belgium</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Satisfaction of the three SDT needs (autonomy, competence and relatedness) correlated positively to employees' autonomous motivation.⁷

⁷ Autonomous motivation is similar to intrinsic motivation, since it is defined in their article as employees engaging in an activity "because they consider it personally valuable or intrinsically interesting" (p. 984).

<p><i>validation of the Work-related Basic Need Satisfaction scale</i></p>		
<p>De Cooman et al. (2011): <i>A cross-sector comparison of motivation-related concepts in for-profit and not-for-profit service organizations</i></p>	<p>Knowledge workers from service organisations both in the for-profit and non-profit sectors in Belgium</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intrinsic motivation was the motivational type that scored the highest for both for-profit and non-profit employees. • NPO employees more greatly valued social service, person-organisation fit and making a positive difference in the lives of others than those working in the for-profit sector. They were more primarily interested in, and motivated by, the mission of their organisation and their own values, as attained through that mission. • They also indicated having significantly more contact with their clients when delivering their services. • For-profit employees were more externally regulated, implying that they engage in work in order to achieve an instrumental end, such as a monetary reward or approval from others.
<p>Muller and Louw (2004): <i>Learning environment, motivation and interest: Perspectives on self-determination theory</i></p>	<p>South African undergraduate students</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The majority of students were motivated intrinsically and showed high interest in their studies. • Intrinsic motivation was associated with perceived support of autonomy and competence, as well as with the quality of instruction and relevancy of the contents of their modules.
<p>Roos and Van Eeden (2008): <i>The relationship between employee motivation, job satisfaction and corporate culture</i></p>	<p>Permanent employees of a marketing research organisation in South Africa</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intrinsic motivation was found to be positively correlated to task characteristics, and negatively correlated with organisational functioning, physical working conditions and remuneration / benefits.

<p>Nujjoo & Meyer (2012): <i>The relative importance of different types of rewards for employee motivation and commitment in South Africa</i></p>	<p>Employees in organisations across South Africa</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees will be more intrinsically motivated if they are satisfied with either intrinsic non-monetary rewards or extrinsic non-monetary / monetary rewards. This relationship is stronger for intrinsic than extrinsic rewards. • Being satisfied with one's monetary rewards does not predict one's intrinsic motivation when this is considered in combination with extrinsic non-monetary rewards and intrinsic non-monetary rewards.
<p>Hooper (2014): <i>An investigation into the relationship between the perception of internal equity and intrinsic motivation in the logistics industry in South Africa</i></p>	<p>Employees within the logistics industry in South Africa</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No statistically significant relationship was established between perceptions of internal equity and intrinsic motivation, nor with regards to equity sensitivity as a moderating variable. • Extrinsic rewards were found to have a negative influence on intrinsic motivation; in particular, a personal desire to perform.
<p>Leete (2000): <i>Wage equity and employee motivation in nonprofit and for-profit organizations</i></p>	<p>For-profit and non-profit employees in the USA</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-profit employers are more likely than for-profit employers to rely on intrinsically motivated employees, due to their unique organisational needs.
<p>Wright (2007): <i>Public service and motivation: Does mission matter?</i></p>	<p>A public sector agency operating in the USA</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public sector employees who believe they are working towards an organisational mission will find their jobs more meaningful and important, and thus be more motivated to work. • This was the case even after the effect of performance-related extrinsic rewards were controlled.
<p>Grant, Berry and Carolina (2011): <i>The necessity of others is the mother of invention: Intrinsic and prosocial motivations,</i></p>	<p>Security force officers; employees and their supervisors at a water treatment plant; as well as</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perspective taking, as generated by prosocial motivation, strengthened the association between intrinsic motivation and creativity in all three samples; that is, intrinsic motivation is more likely to be associated with

<i>perspective taking, and creativity</i>	undergraduate university students in the USA	higher levels of creativity when individuals are also prosocially motivated to take the perspectives of others.
Jacobson (2011): <i>Creating a motivated workforce: How organizations can enhance and develop public service motivation (PSM)</i>	Employees from the IRS and the U.S. Patent and Trademark Office in the USA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motivational forces fell into a number of categories, including public service or service to the organisation, challenge of work, opportunity for advancement, career opportunities, and working towards a mission. • Respondents frequently said that they wanted to make a difference and/or help people, and serving the public was important to them. • Some respondents discussed the importance of seeing the contributions that they make both to the organisation and society. • Respondents showed the desire to leave a mark, and train the next generation of employees.⁸
Cho & Perry (2012): <i>Intrinsic motivation and employee attitudes: Role of managerial trustworthiness, goal directedness, and extrinsic reward expectancy</i>	Federal employees in the USA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intrinsic motivation is substantively associated with turnover intentions. • Managerial trustworthiness and goal directedness increases the leverage of intrinsic motivation on job satisfaction, whereas extrinsic rewards decreases this leverage.
Chen (2014): <i>Nonprofit managers' motivational styles: A view beyond the intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy</i>	Managers of non-profit organisations within the USA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-profit managers showed relatively equal levels of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. • Intrinsic motivation held a positive impact on work attitudes, whereas extrinsic motivation held a negative impact.
Taylor (2014): <i>Nonprofit public service motivation</i>	An NPO in the USA dedicated to	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees' motives included a desire to assist individuals in need

⁸ Public service motivation is similar to intrinsic motivation, since it is measured using a scale that includes public interest, compassion and self-sacrifice as three of its subscales.

<i>in Suburban Adult Services, Inc.</i>	assisting individuals with developmental and intellectual disabilities.	and being attracted to the organisation's mission statement. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No difference was found with regards to public service motivation between management and direct care staff members.
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It is evident from the above table that the majority of empirical research pertaining to intrinsic motivation stems from the USA. Limited solid empirical research studies could be found that sampled Australians, Belgians or South Africans, particularly within NPOs or public sector organisations. In addition to the data shown in this table, the researcher briefly notes that according to Gelfand et al. (2004), employees working within countries that score highly on individualism, such as those being investigated in the present study, tend to be motivated individually, based on their needs, capabilities and interests. This suggests that the employees in the present sample will score positively on the dimensions of intrinsic motivation being studied, as these are focused on employees finding motivation within themselves as opposed to being motivated by external sources. Additionally, it was mentioned in Section 1.2.3.5 that employees from Anglo countries [including Australia, SA (white sample) and the USA] were found through Project GLOBE to score highly with regards to performance orientation, a cultural dimension derived from McClelland's (1961) need for achievement research (Gupta & Hanges, 2004; House & Javidin, 2004). According to Javidin (2004), such societies that value performance tend to believe that individuals are in control, with individual achievements being rewarded and results being emphasised. They further believe that success follows hard work and effort. Such a focus on personal control and performance aligns with certain dimensions of intrinsic motivation. This therefore proves promising with regards to the intrinsic motivation levels of employees from Australia, SA and the USA in the present study.

2.5 **Conclusion**

This chapter began by detailing the theories that were relevant to the understanding of intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation. Thereafter, a detailed discussion on these two constructs was provided, including types of

intrinsic rewards, the dimensions of intrinsic motivation, as well as international research conducted on these constructs. These constructs have been given detailed attention due to the fact that intrinsic rewards is the independent variable of this study, and both intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation are the focus for the two measuring instruments developed for this study, as will be detailed in Chapter Five. The following chapter will focus on the remaining two constructs under study, namely work engagement and intention to quit.

CHAPTER THREE

WORK ENGAGEMENT AND INTENTION TO QUIT

The idea that you can hire people for little and work them to the point of exhaustion is repugnant and has no place in the American workplace. It is a notion that ultimately results in people leaving jobs, with no one to take their place. The attack on unions and the belief that the economy will prosper if we pay low wages are myths that result in...high levels of work unhappiness and burnout...No one looking at the data could possibly believe that the country will prosper if we mistreat workers.

(Glicken & Robinson, 2013, p. 266)

3.1 **Introduction**

Having discussed the constructs of intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation in detail in the previous chapter, the researcher now turns attention to the remaining two constructs under investigation: work engagement and intention to quit. Unlike intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation, for which consistent definitions across literature have been lacking (as discussed in the previous chapter), work engagement and intention to quit (or “turnover intention”) have relatively consistent and properly delineated explanations, since they have been widely researched worldwide. A web search by the researcher on “work engagement” yielded over 221,000 results of websites containing references to this term (Google, 2015c), with Google Scholar (2015c) producing 20,700 scholarly articles specifically. With regards to “intention to quit”, a similar web search produced 346,000 results (Google, 2015a) and 168,000 on “turnover intention” (Google, 2015b), with Google Scholar (2015a) providing 13,800 scholarly articles on “intention to quit” and 23,100 scholarly articles on “turnover intention” (Google Scholar, 2015b). These searches indicate the depth of research conducted on these two constructs, which both play an important role in organisations. Bakker (2015) highlights that the psychological connection that employees have with their work is of critical importance to today’s

information economy, since organisations can only compete effectively when they have inspired and enabled their employees to apply their capabilities fully to their work through being engaged in it. With regards to turnover intentions, high turnover rates demonstrate a poor relationship and/or conflict between management and employees, yet the monitoring of turnover is often an HR function that is neglected (Nel, 2004). This chapter provides definitions for both work engagement and intention to quit, together with a model outlining each. Thereafter, a discussion pertaining to the antecedents and consequences of each will be given, followed by a summary of research from Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA on each construct.

3.2 Work engagement

Motivating employees is a tricky feat if you as a leader suffer from disengagement.

(Bruce, 2011, p. 4)

According to Lomas et al. (2014), engagement refers to an entire spectrum of positive work-related outcomes, including absorption, satisfaction and meaning. It focuses on employees being fully involved in terms of psychological commitment to their work roles (Nel et al., 2011) as well as being motivated to achieve high levels of performance (Armstrong & Brown, 2009). According to Bruce (2011, p. 4), engaged employees “adopt awareness of the core values of the organization, and are alert to its mission and goals”. Sibson Consulting (2010) highlight, though, that an engaged employee is one who not only knows what to do (through understanding the vision of the organisation), but also *wants* to do it (through demonstrating commitment to the organisation). Personal engagement occurs when employees fully employ and express themselves cognitively, physically and emotionally in task behaviours during the performance of their roles at work, thus connecting with and harnessing themselves to their work roles (Kahn, 1990). Pinder (2008) moreover explains work engagement as encompassing positive feelings of energy as well as joy when one is working. This author specifies that work engagement is a separate, distinct concept from both job involvement and organisational commitment. A

critical element of employee engagement is how enthusiastic employees are about their work and organisation, as well as how actively involved they are in each (Woods & West, 2010). In this sense, employees would be disengaged when they withdraw and defend themselves cognitively, physically and emotionally during the performance of their work, thus becoming uncoupled and disconnected from their work roles (Kahn, 1990).

For the purposes of this study, the researcher will be focusing on *work* engagement, as opposed to *employee* engagement. According to Noe et al. (2012), *employee* engagement is influenced by the manner in which managers treat employees, as well as a number of organisational factors, including human resource practices such as recruitment, selection, work design, performance management, compensation, and training and development. *Employee* engagement therefore emphasises the relationship and mutual obligations between employee and employer. For example, Noe et al. (2012) explain that employees need to be provided with performance feedback and recognition, and opportunities to grow personally within the organisation, in order to be engaged. This differs to Schaufeli, Salanova et al.'s (2002) definition of *work* engagement, which characterises engagement from the perspective of an employee's state of mind, rather than factors relating to the organisation itself. They specify that if employees are vigorous, dedicated and absorbed in their work, and their state of mind at work is positive and fulfilling, then employees are engaged. Schaufeli, Martínez, Pinto, Salanova and Bakker (2002) further explain that *work* engagement is a persistent, prevalent affective-cognitive state, as opposed to being a momentary or specific state. Importantly, *work* engagement is not focused on a specific event, object, behaviour or individual (Schaufeli, Salanova et al., 2002), unlike the explanation of *employee* engagement above. Since the focus of this study is on whether *work* is designed in such a way as to be intrinsically rewarding, it was clear to the researcher that the type of engagement that should be studied and measured needed to be a response to such work design; hence the decision to focus on work engagement specifically. For this reason, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) has been employed in the empirical component of the present

study, which serves to avoid any possible confusion with *employee* engagement in the results provided in Chapter Six.⁹

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2008), employees who are engaged have positive attitudes and activity levels, and experience positive emotions such as joy, enthusiasm and happiness. They also create their own positive feedback through recognition, appreciation and success (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). These authors highlight that being engaged does not imply that employees would not feel tired after a day of hard work, but that their tiredness would be experienced as a pleasant state since it would be associated with positive accomplishments. Engaged employees are also not addicted to their work like workaholics would be, since they do enjoy activities outside of work and find work to be fun (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). In addition, engaged employees experience an energetic connection with their work, and perceive that they are able to handle the demands of their jobs (Schaufeli, Salanova et al., 2002). Employees who are engaged in their work mobilise or create their own job and personal resources, and transfer their engagement to others, particularly in a team-based environment (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

Rothmann and Rothmann Jr (2010) summarise that based on the delineations of engagement put forward by Kahn (1990) and Schaufeli, Salanova et al. (2002), work engagement is comprised of three components, namely a *physical* component that entails being physically involved in tasks by which both vigour and a positive affective state are demonstrated; a *cognitive* component

⁹ While the researcher has made it clear that she is aware of the theoretical distinctions between *employee* engagement and *work* engagement, and has made every attempt to refer as far as possible to *work* engagement within the literature review to follow, it should be noted that numerous authors do not differentiate as clearly between these two constructs, often using the terms interchangeably [see, for example, Stander & Rothmann (2010), who specify that their research focuses on *employee* engagement, yet go on to empirically measure *work* engagement using the UWES in their article]. Since the present researcher has attempted to draw from a diverse range of research studies in an effort to provide a thorough understanding of the construct at hand, certain references have needed to be made simply to 'engagement' when authors have not clearly differentiated to which construct they are referring.

comprised of being alert, absorbed and involved at work; and an *emotional* component in which employees are connected, dedicated and committed to their job and to others while working.

Both Schaufeli, Martínez et al. (2002) and Schaufeli, Salanova et al. (2002) proved that engagement is negatively correlated with burnout. As noted by Schaufeli, Salanova et al. (2002), research related to work engagement is focused on the positive pole of employee well-being, with burnout falling on the negative pole since it can be classified as an erosion of work engagement. Burnout is described by Price (2011) as a condition in which individuals feel worthless and pessimistic about the future, experience physical and mental fatigue, become negative about all aspects of themselves and their lives, and experience a lack of control over their lives. Decreased concentration, forgetfulness and feelings of being overwhelmed occur as a result of burnout (Aamodt, 2010), which has already been discussed in the previous chapter in relation to compassion fatigue.

3.2.1 Dimensions of work engagement

There are three dimensions of work engagement, namely vigour, dedication and absorption, which will be measured in the empirical component of this study. It is thus necessary to elaborate briefly on these dimensions from a theoretical point of view.

3.2.1.1 Vigour

According to Schaufeli, Martínez et al. (2002), employees are vigorous when they have high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, together with both an ability and a willingness to invest effort in their work. As noted by Armstrong and Brown (2009), engaged employees are excited about and interested in their jobs, and put their best efforts into their performance. They can be relied upon to go above and beyond the requirements of their jobs (Armstrong & Brown, 2009), since they are willing to go the extra mile when required (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Vigour has been found to be predicted by satisfaction with job position, lower social dysfunction, and a higher quality of working life (Jenaro, Flores, Orgaz & Cruz, 2011).

3.2.1.2 Dedication

Employees are dedicated when they have a sense of enthusiasm, pride, significance, inspiration and challenge at work (Schaufeli, Martínez et al., 2002). Dedicated employees are highly involved in their work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008); they look for, and are given, opportunities to improve organisational performance and actively work to make things better at their organisation (Armstrong & Brown, 2009). Based upon these explanations, it is evident that dedication can be described in terms of a cognitive or belief state, as well as in terms of an affective component (Schaufeli, Salanova et al., 2002). Jenaro et al. (2011) found that dedication is predicted by the same aspects as vigour already mentioned; namely satisfaction with job position, lower social dysfunction, and a higher quality of working life, and Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli (2003) discovered that dedication is predicted positively by job resources such as collegial social support and performance feedback. In addition, the latter authors highlighted in their study that dedication, together with commitment, mediated the relationship between job resources and turnover intentions.

3.2.1.3 Absorption

When employees are absorbed, they concentrate fully on their work and are happily engrossed in it (Schaufeli, Martínez et al., 2002). These authors note that this results in time passing quickly, with employees feeling like they are being carried away by their work. When individuals are engaged in tasks or situations, they experience a state of flow in which they concentrate intensely and lose their sense of self (Wissing, 2014b). Armstrong and Brown (2009) mention that engaged employees are caught up in their work, and therefore put in extra discretionary effort when working. Moreover, absorbed employees experience difficulty in detaching themselves from their work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). As highlighted by Bruce (2011, p. 6), employees who feel bonded with their organisations will volunteer to stay late at work to finish important tasks, despite this interfering with personal activities at home.

3.2.2 The Job Demands-Resources Model of Work Engagement

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model, provided in Figure 3.1, can be used as a basis of understanding the antecedents and consequences of work engagement. According to Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli (2001), the JD-R model purports that working conditions can be separated into two broad categories, namely job demands and job resources, which are differentially related to specific outcomes. Job demands refer to physical, social, psychological and/or organisational job aspects that require sustained mental, emotional or physical effort or skills at work, such as a high workload, constant overtaxing, time pressures, an unfavourable physical environment, shift work or emotionally demanding contact with clients (Demerouti et al., 2001; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). These demands are related to psychological and/or physiological costs such as exhaustion (Demerouti et al., 2001; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). They are not necessarily negative in nature, but may become job stressors when high levels of effort are required in order to meet the demands; in addition, the high costs associated with such demands usually elicit negative responses such as anxiety or depression (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). On the other hand, these authors state that job resources are physical, social, psychological and/or organisational job aspects that function to assist employees to achieve their work goals; stimulate personal growth and development; and/or reduce job demands and their associated costs. Such resources include organisational resources such as job security, career opportunities and pay / rewards; resources relating to the organisation of work such as participation in decision-making and role clarity; social / interpersonal resources such as collegial, supervisory and peer support or a team climate; task resources including task variety, skill variety, job control / autonomy, task significance and performance feedback; and personal resources such as self-efficacy, optimism, resilience and self-esteem (Demerouti et al., 2001; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). A lack of such resources in a job environment results in employees being unable to reach their goals and cope with the negative influences of job demands, resulting in disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001). This implies that burnout develops not due to working in specific occupations such as the human services sector, but rather because of a high presence of job demands and a low availability of job resources

(Demerouti et al., 2001). Both these circumstances cause a reduction in motivation and a depletion of energy, as well as job withdrawal behaviours.

The focus of the JD-R model for Demerouti et al. (2001) was on high job demands and low job resources causing burnout, which they viewed as a compilation of both exhaustion and disengagement. However, Bakker and Demerouti (2007) discuss how the JD-R model has been developed and tested in numerous studies that relate job demands and resources to work engagement as well, which has already been noted as the conceptual positive antithesis to burnout (Schaufeli, Salanova et al., 2002). Bakker and Demerouti (2007) state that the JD-R model's central assumption is that job strain develops across all types of jobs or occupations when job demands are high and job resources are limited, and that work engagement occurs when job resources are high in the face of high job demands. Bakker and Demerouti (2007) further discuss that two underlying psychological processes assist in developing job strain and motivation respectively. The first process is when poorly designed jobs or chronic job demands exhaust the mental and physical resources of employees, leading to energy depletion, exhaustion and health impairment. The second process assumes that job resources are potential motivators which lead to high work engagement, exceptional performance and low cynicism, since such resources motivate employees either intrinsically by fostering growth, development and learning, or extrinsically by being instrumental to employees achieving their work goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Additionally, these authors note that job resources buffer the impact that job demands have on job strain and burnout, as well as influencing motivation and work engagement when job demands are high. In this way, the JD-R model serves as an overarching work engagement model that can be applied to many occupational settings no matter what demands and resources are involved (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

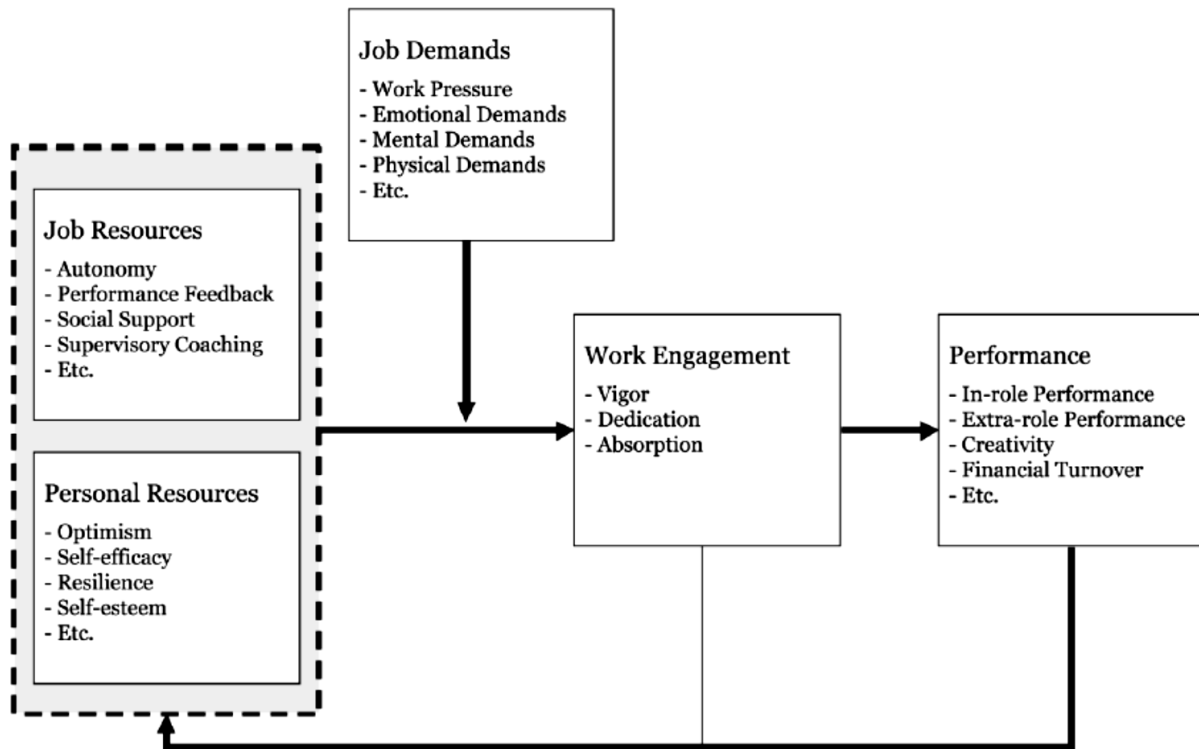


Figure 3.1: The Job Demands-Resources Model of Work Engagement
(Bakker & Demerouti, 2008, p. 218)

From Figure 3.1, it is evident that both job and personal resources lead to work engagement and these are thus the main predictors, or antecedents, of engagement. Bakker and Demerouti (2008) clarify that both forms of resources gain their salience when job demands are high, as previously highlighted. In addition to explaining the predictors of work engagement, the JD-R model provides the consequences, or positive outcomes, of work engagement, including improved in-role performance, extra-role performance, financial turnover and creativity. Both the antecedents and outcomes of work engagement will now be discussed in more detail.

3.2.2.1 Antecedents of work engagement

Work engagement is predicted exclusively by resources that are available to an employee (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The following section will discuss such predictors of work engagement according to the two types of resources mentioned in the JD-R model, namely job and personal resources.

a) **Job resources**

According to Macey, Schneider, Barbera and Young (2009, in Woods & West, 2010), there are four work-related elements that result in engagement, the first being employees having the *capacity* to engage because of motivation and autonomy at work that provide them with feedback, learning opportunities, information needed to do their job well, and energy renewal through making flexi-time and work-life balance possible. Secondly, employees should have a *motivation* to engage through feeling valued, supported and respected at work, as well as by jobs being designed in such a manner that they are intrinsically interesting and make use of employees' skills effectively. Thirdly, employees need the *freedom* to engage by being supported, treated fairly, and trusted by their managers, which will make them feel safe when innovating or taking their own initiative. Finally, employees should focus their engagement on the *goals and strategy* of their organisation so that they align their behaviours with the direction of the organisation (Macey et al., 2009, in Woods & West, 2010). These authors additionally highlight that a high level of engagement is created when employees are encouraged to talk about their work and how it affects them, together with how belonging to the organisation is important to them.

In addition to these elements, Crabb (2011, in Lomas et al., 2014) mentions three drivers of engagement, namely focusing strengths, managing emotions and aligning one's purpose, which implies that working towards a greater meaning leads to engagement. This is in line with Woods and West (2010), who note that engagement is driven by work that is meaningful and important. In order for employees to be engaged, they must be passionate and committed, and must identify with the organisation, which requires organisations to put effort into selecting the right employees and placing them in the correct types of jobs based on their skills and personal motivations (Bussin, 2011). Indeed, as noted by Armstrong and Brown (2009), knowledge workers in particular are engaged when they are given opportunities to utilise and develop their skills.

Two antecedents of work engagement mentioned by Bargagliotti (2012) are autonomy as well as organisational, managerial and collegial trust, and Lomas et al. (2014) agree, stating that providing employees with autonomy can

promote engagement. Intrinsic rewards have been highlighted as reinforcers that ensure that employees are actively engaged in their work (Thomas, 2009b), with Rothmann (2014) highlighting that a work environment that satisfies the three SDT needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness will cause employees to be more engaged in their work. Absorption, the cognitive component of employee engagement, has been shown by Rothmann and Rothmann Jr (2010) to be predicted by intrinsic job factors, such as learning opportunities and variety. Cheese and Cantrell (2005, in Cawe, 2006) have stated that a learning environment as well as opportunities to grow and develop can be classified as drivers of engagement, which is substantiated by Armstrong and Brown (2009) who note that the opportunity to grow and develop directly impacts on levels of engagement. In addition, engagement has been said to depend on a clear psychological contract existing between employees and their employers (Nel et al., 2011). According to Armstrong and Brown (2009), an enabling, supportive and inspirational work environment impacts on engagement by influencing how employees regard their roles and carry them out, thus encouraging high performance and effective discretionary behaviours. Such a work environment ensures that proper attention is given to the achievement of work-life balance; that proper work processes, equipment and facilities are provided together with a healthy and safe physical condition; that emotional demands are not overwhelming; that job security is provided; and that personal growth needs of employees are taken into account (Armstrong & Brown, 2009). These authors further note that leadership and opportunities for personal growth can hinder or promote engagement through the creation of a learning culture that grows, coaches and equips employees within the organisation.

Bussin (2011) draws attention to the fact that engagement is driven by employees feeling that they are making a difference in work that they actually care about, as well as by employees working with colleagues who share their values and mission, in an organisation that respects them as adults. This ties to engagement being driven by a codified set of organisational values, as this would clarify the behaviours and beliefs that employees should demonstrate at work (Bussin, 2013). Sibson Consulting (2010) found that employee

engagement is correlated most highly with the *Affiliation* reward element of the ROW model, including organisation support, trust in management and organisational reputation; followed by *Work Content* in terms of performance management understanding, performance management effectiveness, job responsibility, organisational justice / fairness, supervisor concern, feedback from the job, and satisfaction with one's supervisor. Career satisfaction was also an aspect linked to engagement, from the *Career* reward element. Moreover, Saks (2006) states that the antecedents of engagement are job characteristics and perceived organisational support, and Bussin (2011) perceives that work-life balance assists in obtaining a more engaged workforce, since a lack thereof would result in stress and eventually burnout.

According to a Towers Perrin study cited by Bussin (2011), engagement in Europe is driven primarily by senior management taking an interest in employees and demonstrating their values; as well as the organisation focusing on customer satisfaction; fair and consistent pay determination; the organisation's reputation as a good employer; and employees being given challenging work and decision-making authority, an opportunity to improve their skills, and a positive overall work environment. Within the USA on the other hand, engagement is driven by senior management taking an interest in employees and demonstrating their vision; the organisation focusing on customer satisfaction; the organisation's reputation as a good employer; as well as employees being given challenging work, career advancement opportunities, opportunities to collaborate with co-workers, sufficient resources to perform the job, and decision-making authority (Bussin, 2011). This suggests that differences exist in what drives work engagement cross-culturally, emphasising the need for the present study to analyse work engagement across four different countries.

b) *Personal resources*

Bakker and Demerouti (2008) define personal resources as positive self-evaluations that predict goal-setting, performance, motivation, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, career ambition and career success, amongst other desirable outcomes, since they assist employees to control and impact their own work

environment successfully. Personal resources relevant to work engagement, as mentioned by Bakker and Demerouti (2008), are optimism, self-efficacy, resilience, self-esteem and an active coping style. Optimism can be defined as seeking the best in all situations, while expecting positive outcomes to occur (Seckinger, Langerak, Mishra & Mishra, 2010). Self-efficacy is an employee's beliefs in his or her capabilities both to organise and execute whatever courses of action are required to produce given attainments (Bandura, 1997). According to Luthans (2002), resilience is the positive psychological capacity to rebound from adversity, conflict, uncertainty, failure or change. In line with self-esteem, Nel (2014) highlights that employees are more likely to be engaged when they feel proficient and competent at performing their activities. Finally, an active coping style such as proactive coping can be explained as preparing for stressful events in general, through building up resources that will assist an individual in dealing with challenging goals whenever they arise (Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002). In addition to these personal resources, Kahn (1990) notes that individuals engage with their work when they feel that it is psychologically meaningful and safe for them to do so and when they are psychologically available to perform; that is, employees must feel that their tasks are significant; that they will not experience negative consequences to their self-concept, status or career when performing; and that they possess the necessary emotional, psychological and physical resources to perform adequately, in order for them to feel engaged at work.

3.2.2.2 Outcomes, consequences and benefits of work engagement

There are numerous positive consequences to employees being engaged in their work, including improved in-role performance, extra-role performance, financial turnover and creativity (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008), which were briefly mentioned earlier. According to Rose (2011), improving engagement leads not only to improved organisational performance, but also to increased levels of individual performance. Bussin (2011) states that engagement correlates with the organisation's bottom line and with levels of performance, and that engaged employees assist in improving customer loyalty, thus growing revenue for the organisation and improving its performance culture. In a fundamental meta-analysis of 7,939 business units in 36 organisations, Harter, Schmidt and Hayes

(2002) found that engagement predicts meaningful business outcomes such as profit, productivity, customer satisfaction, employee turnover and accidents in the same way as job satisfaction. For example, business units with top quartile ratings for employee engagement in their analysis produced up to four percentage points higher for profitability, and on average \$80,000 to \$120,000 higher monthly revenue or sales (Harter et al., 2002). Importantly, Bussin (2013) states that no plausible reason exists for why engagement should not impact on performance in NPOs in the same way that it does in for-profit organisations, such as those in Harter et al.'s (2002) analysis.

Work engagement has been found to be positively correlated with improved levels of psychological empowerment, affective organisational commitment, psychological capital, intrinsic rewards and organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs), as well as being negatively correlated with turnover intentions and work alienation (Stander & Rothmann, 2010; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; Field & Buitendach, 2011; Harris, 2012; Jacobs et al., 2014; Smit, 2014). Rothmann (2014) highlights a number of other positive organisational outcomes that are predicted by work engagement, including improved job satisfaction, motivation, shareholder value and return on assets. According to Saks (2006), the consequences of job engagement include job satisfaction, organisational commitment and OCBs, and job engagement mediates the relationships occurring between engagement's antecedents and consequences. Bargagliotti (2012) found that amongst nurses, work engagement led to higher levels of personal initiative; lower hospital mortality rates; safer and more effective patient outcomes; as well as increased financial profitability.

WorldatWork (2007) highlight that engaged employees ensure that they produce quality work, notice when they make small mistakes, use their time wisely, put in discretionary effort, spend time thinking how they could perform better, and do not listen when others speak badly of management or their co-workers. Moreover, according to Woods and West (2010), engaged employees persist through difficult tasks; expand their work roles because of continual innovation and learning; proactively respond to emerging challenges and

threats; and adapt more readily to change. They are also more likely to display positive discretionary behaviour when engaged (Armstrong & Brown, 2009). Work engagement affects the mindset of employees so that they believe in their ability to have a positive impact; it also promotes greater concerns for quality, and can facilitate successful organisational change (Rothmann, 2014). Engaged employees also experience better physical health than disengaged employees (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). To summarise, as noted by Bakker and Demerouti (2008), work engagement is a significant indicator of occupational well-being, both for organisations as a whole and employees.

3.2.3 Australian, American, Belgian and South African research on work engagement

The following table provides a selection of studies pertaining to work engagement within the four countries under study.

Table 3.1: Summary of studies pertaining to work engagement within the four countries under study

Author/s & study title	Country & sample	Engagement finding
Parker and Martin (2009): <i>Coping and buoyancy in the workplace: Understanding their effects on teachers' work-related well-being and engagement</i>	Teachers in Australia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Buoyancy (<i>defined as everyday resilience</i>) was found to be a strong predictor of teacher engagement, significantly predicting enjoyment of work, participation and positive career aspirations, which they measured as the three dimensions of work engagement. • Using direct coping strategies including mastery orientation and planning predicted high levels of work-related engagement, whereas palliative coping strategies such as self-handicapping and failure avoidance predicted low engagement, via buoyancy. • Failure avoidance and mastery orientation (cognitive coping strategies) were better predictors of engagement than planning and self-

		handicapping (behavioural coping strategies), implying that the type of coping strategy teachers use when faced with challenges influences the development and maintenance of buoyancy, which in turn influences engagement.
Dollard and Bakker (2010): <i>Psychosocial safety climate as a precursor to conducive work environments, psychological health problems, and employee engagement</i>	Teachers and administrators from the Australian Education Department	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Psychosocial safety climate predicted a change in work engagement through its relationship with skill discretion, since skill discretion significantly carried the effect of psychosocial safety climate on to work engagement. • Skill discretion and decision authority were significantly and positively associated with changes in work engagement over time.
Opie et al. (2010): <i>Levels of occupational stress in the remote area nursing workforce</i>	Nurses working in remote Australian health centres	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Despite having high levels of work engagement, it was noted that nurses working in remote areas demonstrate high workforce turnover. • The authors suggest reducing job demands and increasing job resources so that long-term work engagement can be fostered, which may decrease nursing turnover in remote areas.
Poulsen, Poulsen, Khan, Poulsen and Khan (2011): <i>Work engagement in cancer workers in Queensland: The flip side of burnout</i>	Cancer care workers in Australian hospitals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A negative association was found between work engagement and burnout. • Medical staff and allied health workers had the highest work engagement levels as well as levels of vigour, dedication and absorption. • The highest levels of work engagement were found for non-shift workers; care workers with children; those who were divorced / separated / widowed; workers with

		<p>more than five years of experience; and those 45 years of age or older.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The lowest levels of work engagement were reported for shift workers; workers without children; those who were single; workers with eleven to 15 years of experience; and those in the 25 to 35 year old age group. • Work engagement levels were not affected by gender, income or hours of direct patient care.
Clark and Loxton (2012): <i>Fear, psychological acceptance, job demands and employee work engagement: An integrative moderated meditation model</i>	Employed psychology students at an Australian university	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High psychological acceptance improved work engagement, but only for highly demanding positions; in the same way, lower psychological acceptance was associated with lower levels of work engagement when jobs were considered demanding.
Ghadi, Fernando and Caputi (2013): <i>Transformational leadership and work engagement: The mediating effect of meaning in work</i>	Full-time Australian employees working under a direct supervisor from various sectors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A transformational leadership style directly influenced followers' levels of work engagement. • The direct relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement was also partially mediated by employees' perceptions of meaning in their work.
Van Den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte and Lens (2008): <i>Explaining the relationships between job characteristics, burnout, and engagement: The role of basic psychological need satisfaction</i>	Employees from various organisations in the Dutch-speaking region of Belgium	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The satisfaction of basic psychological needs partially explained the relationship between vigour and job resources. • Their findings suggest that providing employees with resourceful job characteristics will lead to them being more likely to experience feelings of psychological freedom / autonomy, interpersonal connectedness, and effectiveness / competence, which in turn explains why they feel more vigorous in their jobs.

<p>Rodríguez-Muñoz, Baillien, De Witte, Moreno-Jiménez and Pastor (2009): <i>Cross-lagged relationships between workplace bullying, job satisfaction and engagement: Two longitudinal studies</i></p>	<p>Employees from various organisations in the Dutch-speaking region of Belgium</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High exposure to workplace bullying proportionally and directly resulted in a decrease in dedication (one dimension of work engagement), and was associated with a decrease in job-related wellbeing over time.
<p>Luyckx, Duriez, Klimstra and De Witte (2010): <i>Identity statuses in young adult employees: Prospective relations with work engagement and burnout</i></p>	<p>Employed Dutch-speaking young adults from Belgium</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respondents in the “achieved” cluster (characterised by commitment) scored substantially higher on work engagement when compared to individuals classified in the “diffusion” cluster (characterised by a relative absence of commitment or systematic exploration).
<p>Vander Elst, Baillien, De Cuyper and De Witte (2010): <i>The role of organizational communication and participation in reducing job insecurity and its negative association with work-related well-being</i></p>	<p>Employees from organisations in Belgium within the service sector, industrial sector and public sector</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It was found that organisational participation (that is, the degree to which employees have influence over decision-making) moderated the negative relationship between job insecurity and work engagement. • Specifically, the negative relationship between job insecurity and work engagement was weaker when organisational participation was high, and stronger when participation levels were low or average.
<p>Leroy, Anseel, Dimitrova and Sels (2013): <i>Mindfulness, authentic functioning, and work engagement: A growth modeling approach</i></p>	<p>Belgian for-profit organisations (telecommunication, consulting and architecture firms) and NPOs (parliamentary services, public services and health insurance)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Authentic functioning was found to mediate the relationship between mindfulness and work engagement. • The relationship between these three constructs was investigated both statically (cross-sectionally) and dynamically as they changed over training. In the dynamic process, authentic functioning fully mediated the effects of mindfulness on work engagement, thus supporting changes in long-term or

		<p>eudaimonic engagement. This implied that in order to become more engaged in their work, employees needed to internalise their work-related tasks and consciously choose to engage in them for self-determined reasons. For the static relationships, mindfulness was found to enhance engagement because of short-term feelings of flow, since employees were more fully present in the activities which enhanced the quality of the experience.</p>
<p>Stander and Rothmann (2010): <i>Psychological empowerment, job insecurity and employee engagement</i></p>	<p>Employees from a South African government and a manufacturing organisation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Statistically significant relationships exist between work engagement, job insecurity and psychological empowerment (consisting of competence, meaning, impact and self-determination). • Affective job insecurity had a primary effect on work engagement, and it moderated the effect that psychological empowerment held on work engagement.
<p>Buyts and Rothmann (2010): <i>Burnout and engagement of Reformed Church ministers</i></p> <p>Rothmann and Buyts (2011): <i>Job demands and resources, psychological conditions, religious coping and work engagement of Reformed Church ministers</i>¹⁰</p>	<p>Reformed Church ministers from South Africa</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A practically significant, negative correlation was found between engagement and exhaustion, mental distance, somatic symptoms and depression. • A practically significant positive correlation occurred between engagement and both social functioning and affective commitment, as well as all job resources, including growth opportunities, job significance, autonomy, and congregational, instrumental and social support. • Work engagement was predicted by growth opportunities, social support,

¹⁰ Same sample used for both articles.

		<p>job significance, challenging emotional demands, congregational, instrumental and social support, religious coping, psychological availability and psychological meaningfulness.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Psychological meaningfulness mediated the relationship between work engagement and the intrinsic nature of the ministers' jobs, whereas psychological availability partially mediated the relationship between work engagement and social support, autonomy and religious coping. • Engagement predicted social functioning and affective commitment.
<p>Du Plooy and Roodt (2010): <i>Work engagement, burnout and related constructs as predictors of turnover intentions</i></p>	<p>Operation and specialist employees from a South African Information and Communications Technology (ICT) organisation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work engagement was significantly negatively related to turnover intention, and this relationship was partially mediated by burnout. • Employees with higher levels of work engagement obtained statistically significantly higher scores of OCBs, but statistically significantly lower scores of work alienation compared to employees low in work engagement.
<p>Rothmann, Jorgensen and Hill (2011): <i>Coping and work engagement in selected South African organisations</i></p>	<p>South African employees from three occupational groups, namely technical employees from an electricity provider, professional and enrolled nurses, and police officers</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A statistically significant relationship was discovered between work engagement and problem-focused coping, positive reinterpretation, growth, seeking social support, turning to religion, suppressing competing activities and acceptance. Work engagement was found to have a significant negative relationship with ventilating emotions. • In the technician sample, work engagement was predicted by problem-focused coping and low

		ventilation of emotions. In the nursing sample, work engagement was predicted by high problem-focused coping, low avoidance and low ventilation of emotions. In the police sample, it was predicted by four coping strategies, namely problem-focused coping, seeking social support, turning to religion and low ventilation of emotions.
Harris (2012): <i>Relationships between psychological capital, work engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour in South African automotive dealerships</i>	Employees working within the dealerships of a national South African car company	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work engagement is positively related both to OCB and psychological capital. • The UWES was reduced from a three to a two-factor structure. The two factors were named work enthusiasm and work immersion.
Jacobs et al. (2014): <i>Intrinsic rewards and work engagement in the South African retail industry</i>	Employees from a South African retail organisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work engagement is positively correlated with the provision of intrinsic rewards. • Dedication (work engagement) and meaningfulness (intrinsic rewards) held the strongest correlation.
Smit (2014): <i>The relationship between psychological capital and work engagement</i>	South African nurses working in the public and private sectors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A positive relationship was found between work engagement and psychological capital. • Private sector nurses were more engaged with their work than public sector nurses.
May, Gilson and Harter (2004): <i>The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work</i>	Employees and managers in the administrative division of an insurance company in the USA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Psychological meaningfulness and psychological safety exhibited significant, positive relationships with engagement, with meaningfulness showing the strongest relationship. • The relationships between job enrichment and work role fit with work engagement were mediated by the psychological condition of meaningfulness. • The association between adherence to co-worker norms and work

		engagement was partially mediated by psychological safety.
Rich, Lepine and Crawford (2010): <i>Job engagement: Antecedents and effects on job performance</i>	Full-time firefighters and their supervisors employed by four municipalities in the USA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work engagement was found to mediate relationships between value congruence, perceived organisational support and core self-evaluations, and two job performance dimensions, namely task performance and OCB. • Employees reported higher levels of job engagement when they had higher levels of value congruence, perceived organisational support and core self-evaluations. • Employees who reported higher levels of job engagement also received higher supervisor ratings of task performance and OCB.
Swanberg, McKechnie, Ojha and James (2011): <i>Schedule control, supervisor support and work engagement: A winning combination for workers in hourly jobs?</i>	Full-time hourly retail workers at a retail firm in the USA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived supervisor support was found to be positively correlated with work engagement, and a significant, direct relationship existed between control over work hours, schedule flexibility and work engagement. • Perceived supervisor support mediated the relationship between schedule satisfaction and work engagement. • In addition, schedule satisfaction and perceived supervisor support mediated the relationship between work engagement and schedule control. This implies that schedule control contributes to the engagement of employees through perceived schedule satisfaction and perceived supervisor support.
Culbertson, Mills and Fullagar (2012): <i>Work engagement and work-family facilitation: Making</i>	County extension agents from the USA , who work in service to their	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work engagement and work-to-family facilitation were positively related, implying that engagement has a positive effect on family life.

<p><i>homes happier through positive affective spillover</i></p>	<p>communities and in event planning</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The relationship between work engagement and positive affect at home was mediated by positive affect that immediately followed work, implying that positive affect after work rolls over into positive affect at home. • The effect of engagement in facilitating work-family relations was partially mediated by positive mood. • The relationship between work engagement and facilitation of work-family relations was moderated by work-family capitalisation (the sharing of positive work experiences at home). Thus, the more that employees talk with their partners about good happenings at work, the stronger the relationship between work engagement and work-family facilitation.
<p>Park and Gursoy (2012): <i>Generation effects on work engagement among U.S. hotel employees</i></p>	<p>Customer contact employees in the hotel industry in the USA</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work engagement was negatively correlated with turnover intentions. • Work engagement significantly differed depending on the generations of employees, with employees from older generations showing a greater level of dedication, vigour and absorption in their work. • The effects of work engagement on turnover intention were significantly moderated by generational differences. • Work engagement enhanced the job satisfaction of employees, and this is instrumental in retaining employees from the millennial generation.

It is evident from the above summary that work engagement has been investigated in numerous studies within Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA.

However, few studies conducted on work engagement in the four countries under study made use of NPO employees in their sample, with the exception of Buys and Rothmann (2010) / Rothmann and Buys (2011) (church ministers). This emphasises the need for the present study to investigate work engagement amongst NPO employees specifically in these four countries.

3.3 Intention to quit

According to WorldatWork (2007), talent shortages are a chronic condition of organisational life, and Murlis (2009) notes that good employees are not only difficult to find, but also hard to retain. Talent retention is thus the number one concern for human resource departments globally, and it is a continuous battle that organisations need to fight (Steinman, 2009). For this reason, it is an aim of human resource managers to be able not only to recruit and hire, but also to retain a sufficient number of individuals who possess the necessary talents and skills that the organisation requires in order to achieve their strategic objectives (Scully, Turner & Gregson, 2014). As noted by Armstrong and Brown (2009), one aim of a strategic reward system is to establish an organisation as an excellent place to work, in order both to attract and retain high quality employees. Retention has been defined by WorldatWork (2007, p. 12) as an organisation's ability "to keep employees who are valued contributors to organisational success for as long as it is mutually beneficial". Similarly, Balta (2014, p. 129) explains the concept as the ability to keep valuable employees by creating and maintaining a working environment that supports staff and encourages them to stay with the organisation for as long as possible, such as by formulating and implementing policies and procedures that address the individual needs of employees. What is common in both these definitions is that organisations typically make efforts to retain staff that are *of value* to the organisation. The researcher notes that such value typically links to the set of skills possessed by such employees, their levels of experience, and/or their high levels of productivity, effectiveness and contributions.

Talent retention is of particular importance in SA because of shortages of skilled employees in a number of occupations across several geographical regions in the country (Steinman, 2009). Bussin (2011) notes that the most important skills

to retain in SA are critical skills, which are essential for service delivery to be sustainable and effective so that the organisation can meet its goals and business requirements; as well as scarce skills, which are based on supply and demand in the market. Surtees et al. (2014) mention that retention is as important for NPOs as for organisations operating in other sectors, since NPOs operate with the lowest overheads possible and thus cannot afford absences or any potential wastes in terms of employee investments. Bussin (2013) agrees, noting that NPOs face pressures in the form of being forced to compete for scarce funding and resources; thus, they must be able to retain their talented employees as well as maximise their performance in order to avoid collapse.

The researcher notes that when employees leave organisations, employee turnover occurs, which is the opposite of retention. Approximately 1.4 per cent of an organisation's employees voluntarily leave on a monthly basis, which equates to 16.8 per cent of a workforce leaving annually (Aamodt, 2010). When employees choose to leave the organisation themselves (that is, when turnover is initiated by employees) even though the organisation would rather keep them because they are highly valued or are moving to work at their competition, this is known as voluntary turnover (Noe et al., 2012). This is the type of turnover focused upon within this thesis. As noted by Werner (2004a) and Noe et al. (2012), turnover is a permanent form of physical job withdrawal, the cause of which is usually some form of job dissatisfaction. If employees are dissatisfied at work and cannot change their job conditions, then leaving the position may be their only means of solving the problem (Noe et al., 2012). An indicator of turnover is whether or not employees *intend* to leave their organisations in the future. Intention to quit is defined as the strength of an employee's view that he or she does not wish to stay with his or her current employer (Boshoff et al., 2002), and the deliberate and wilful attempt by employees to leave their current organisation (Rothmann, 2014). It is the immediate precursor of turnover, and is the best predictor of turnover (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979). For the purposes of this study, the terms 'intention to quit' and 'turnover intentions' will be used interchangeably. Both terms relate to voluntary resignations on the part of the employee (Grobler et al., 2011). The researcher highlights that intending to quit an organisation is an internal response to numerous factors

related to one's personal and organisational life, and can be distinguished from actual turnover since it focuses on the psychological intent to quit, as opposed to the physical act of leaving the organisation.

Bosshoff et al. (2002) make it clear that it is necessary to determine the antecedents that lead to an individual intending to quit his or her organisation. As noted by Nel (2004), it is crucial that organisations establish the reasons behind turnover so that better planning can occur and intermittent redundancies can be avoided. Prior to this, however, the researcher will firstly present two models of voluntary turnover that will lead to an understanding of why employees intend to leave their organisations.

3.3.1 Models of voluntary turnover

Mobley et al. (1979) developed a conceptual model of the employee turnover process, provided in Annexure C, which recognises a number of turnover antecedents. The model proposes that job satisfaction (present affect), job attraction (expected future affect of present job), and attraction of attainable alternatives all jointly contribute to, and thus primarily determine, turnover. It thus gives space for employees to evaluate alternative jobs, with an intention to search for other jobs preceding the intention to actually quit the organisation. Moreover, it recognises moderating variables in the form of individual differences in perceptions, values and expectations, as well as the role that work values and interests play in the decision to quit, relative to other life values and interests, contractual constraints, and non-work-related consequences of quitting (Mobley et al., 1979).

In a similar, but more detailed, manner, Mitchell and Lee (2001) present an Unfolding Model of Voluntary Turnover that comprehensively seeks to understand voluntary turnover and retention, which is provided in Figure 3.2. This particular model describes the cognitive processes through which employees make decisions about whether to stay or leave their jobs (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). Mitchell and Lee (2001) explain that either a specific event or accumulated job dissatisfaction initiate the quitting process for employees. Employees that experience a distinguishable, attention-getting

event, which Mitchell and Lee (2001) term as a shock to their system, will pause and consider the implication or meaning of the event in relation to their job and their system of beliefs. The employees' social and cognitive contexts, as well as their set of internalised rules regarding how to interpret something that has occurred, surround the experienced shock, and such rules provide a frame of reference, or decision frame, within which employees interpret the event and come to a response (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). The results of either the event or the dissatisfaction will lead to thoughts about leaving the organisation. For example, shocking events push employees to make deliberate judgments about their jobs, such as voluntarily quitting. If leaving does become an alternative, other job alternatives may or may not be available to be considered. These possibilities together make up what Mitchell and Lee (2001) describe as decision paths, which are means by which employees may leave their positions over time, comprised of the manner in which employees interpret their work environments, identify decision options, and enact their responses.

These authors suggest four decision paths based on the above. The first three decision paths begin with employees experiencing a shock, then reacting to it through their unique personal characteristics and experiences that influence how it is interpreted (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Examples of shocks could be the organisation taking on a client that pollutes the environment, being asked to falsify financial data, or the employee finding out that she is pregnant (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Employees will search their memory for prior decisions, learned responses, circumstances or rules surrounding similar shocks, and will recollect whether previous behaviours such as staying or quitting were judged to be appropriate. The *first* decision path would be when a match occurs between the experienced decision frame and decision frames from previous situations, implying that a similar path of action can be taken in the form of quitting or staying, known as a script-driven decision. Mitchell and Lee (2001) detail that a quick response is made in this case with little deliberation or evaluation of job alternatives. The *second* decision path would be when no match occurs and there is no job alternative, implying that employees need to engage in additional mental deliberations in order to frame the shock and make a decision amidst surrounding circumstances as to whether to stay with, or leave, the organisation

without having a specific job alternative in mind. This entails reassessing their attachment or commitment to their organisation by taking their personal principles and values into account in relation to the shock, because if they judge that the shock fits with their values and is acceptable, then they will choose to stay with the organisation (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). However, if they judge that they cannot integrate their values with the shock, and nothing can be changed, then they will leave the organisation. The difference between these two decision paths is whether a response by the employee is ready or not upon the shock occurring.

The *third* decision path takes place when no match with a decision frame occurs after a shock, but there is the presence of a specific job alternative. This implies that the shock, decisions to be made, and surrounding circumstances are all framed in relation to whether to stay at the organisation versus quit for one or more job alternatives (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). This process is more complicated because if employees judge that they cannot integrate their values with the shock, then they will either change how they perceive the shock and accept the new situation, or they will experience disaffection with their job which will prompt a search for alternative jobs. If the latter occurs, then employees will begin judging their job alternatives in relation to their values or goals, to see whether they are acceptable or not. These authors explain that if no fit between their values or goals and the job alternatives occur, then the employees will stay at their current organisation. If a fit occurs, employees then directly compare the prospective new organisation with the benefits of staying with their current organisation. If the current organisation provides better expected benefits, then employees will remain, but if the alternative organisation provides greater benefits, then employees will quit. If multiple organisations offer better options to employees than their current organisation, they will assess which organisation maximises their expected returns, and will quit in order to move to that organisation, known as the profitability test (Mitchell & Lee, 2001).

Finally, the *fourth* decision path entails no shock to the system that would push employees to mentally deliberate their responses, but rather focuses on the affect of employees that is initiated. This occurs when employees are in

relatively stable jobs or work settings, but over time come to reassess their commitment to the organisation (such as by occasionally monitoring the pulse of their jobs) (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). If either the employee or the organisation has changed over time and elements of the job no longer fit with the employees' goals or values, then they will make judgements about whether the situation can change, and/or the duration of their expected job satisfaction as a result of the lack of fit with their goals or values. This decision path can also be viewed as employees bypassing their rational, cognitive analyses and instead experiencing a direct impact on their affective responses to their jobs, such as job dissatisfaction. Such dissatisfaction will lead to employees displaying lower organisational commitment, stronger intentions to quit the organisation, and a focus on searching for jobs, which result in a greater probability of employee turnover occurring (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). These authors summarise by stating that unhappy employees will leave their organisations, and that the latter two decision paths are most commonly taken by employees when leaving their organisations. Moreover, this model highlights that satisfied people can, and will, leave their organisations if a shock occurs that does not fit with their values or goals.

Based on these models, it is clear that job dissatisfaction leads to intentions to quit; as well as the occurrence of attention-grabbing events at work that cause employees to re-evaluate their employment at the organisation cognitively. The researcher notes that such psychological intentions to quit may thereafter lead to employees actually quitting their organisations, which is then known as voluntary turnover. This understanding leads to the following section describing the antecedents of intention to quit (and subsequently, the physical act of quitting one's organisation), such as what causes job dissatisfaction.

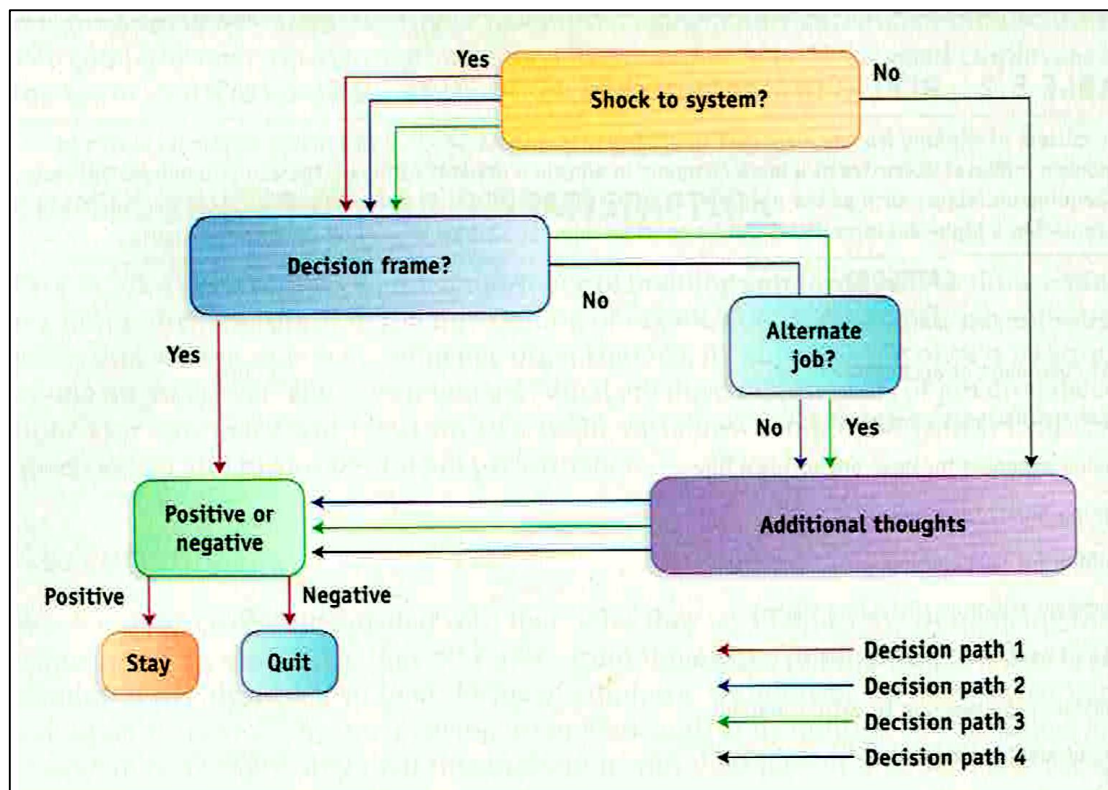


Figure 3.2: The Unfolding Model of Voluntary Turnover
 (Greenberg & Baron, 2003, p. 158)

3.3.1.1 Antecedents of intending to quit one's organisation

There can be no argument that financial rewards do assist in retaining employees. Davis (2014) mentions that rewards encourage retention, whether financial or non-financial in nature, and Milkovich et al. (2011) state that paying employees too little results in them feeling as if they have been unfairly treated, resulting in them leaving the organisation. Grobler et al. (2011) agree, citing inadequate or inequitable compensation as being a prominent cause of turnover. Indeed, a source of pay dissatisfaction that may lead to turnover is whether employees are being paid relative to the market rate or not, which is important seeing that employees view pay as an indication of status and a reflection of self-worth (Noe et al., 2012). Milkovich et al. (2011) make mention that internally-aligned pay structures serve to reduce employee turnover, implying that structuring pay in an equitable and fair manner influences whether individuals voluntarily choose to leave the organisation. They also note that voluntary turnover is highest amongst poor performers when pay packages are designed to reward individual performance, which is a positive outcome. In

addition, turnover may increase when pay is designed to place emphasis on future earnings at risk, and when pay moves from an individual- to a team- or group-based incentive scheme; but turnover may decrease when bonuses are paid out to individuals based on peer ratings or an individual's length of stay on a project (Milkovich et al., 2011). Balta (2014) explains that remuneration and benefits are fundamental in retaining effective employees who are exceptional performers and possess a unique or indispensable skill set. As stated by this author, a mismatch between an individual's salary and his or her occupation often causes employee dissatisfaction, which leads to turnover; moreover, paying employees competitively indicates that the organisation is committed to its employees, which generates employee commitment in return. Marchington and Wilkinson (2008) highlight that rewards influence retention due to the fact that higher salaries attract a greater number of job applicants, which creates greater choice when selecting top talent, and in turn may reduce turnover. Additionally, Perkins and White (2009) note that employee benefits provided in non-cash form, such as company cars or paid holidays, as well as deferred remuneration in the form of, for example, equity share-based rewards that are released financially at a future date, serve the purpose of retaining the right number of talented employees.

Within the social and community services industry in Australia, employees are typically poorly paid, and hence pay dissatisfaction results in overall job dissatisfaction as well as turnover within this sector (Treuren & Frankish, 2014b). Using a quasi-experimental design on a sample of employees from American fast-food franchises, Peterson and Luthans (2006) found that both financial and non-financial incentives significantly decreased turnover rates when administered in a contingent manner based on certain identified performance behaviours. In addition, over time, the financial incentives were shown to have a significantly greater impact than the non-financial incentives, implying that once they were invested in their new financial benefits, employees showed less of a desire to leave their organisation (Peterson & Luthans, 2006).

However, dissatisfaction with remuneration is not the only aspect affecting whether employees consider leaving their organisations. The South African

Reward Association's (2007) Salary Retention Survey (cited by Ryder, 2008) found that the four main reasons why individuals choose to leave organisations are due to guaranteed salaries not being market related; one's relationship with one's immediate boss; work-life balance; and a lack of individual career development and employee recognition. It is thus clear that remuneration is only 25 percent of an employee's 'stay' decision (Ryder, 2009). For this reason, as stated by Ryder (2008), paying the correct salary to employees is only the first step towards talent retention: if an employee does not enjoy work-life balance or have a satisfactory relationship with his or her immediate boss, then he or she will still choose to leave the organisation. Leadership styles that are not empowering, poor performance management and a lack of effective communication and grievance procedures further influence employees' intentions to quit the organisation (Steinman, 2009). Bussin (2011) agrees with the issues of management and leadership, stating that employees join organisations but leave managers.

According to Sibson Consulting's (2010) ROW study, turnover intentions were not strongly influenced by the majority of the ROW model reward elements. Three of the four aspects of work that most highly correlated to turnover intentions were part of the *Affiliation* reward element, namely organisation commitment, organisation support and trust in management; together with one aspect of the *Work Content* reward element, namely job responsibility. Other aspects of the work environment that may cause employees to leave include a lack of strategic direction, a lack of strong leadership and communication, little employee empowerment, few opportunities for growth, and poor work challenges (Steinman, 2009). Additionally, this author highlights that employees particularly in SA may leave because of affirmative action, with previously disadvantaged employees being in demand and having the option of moving from organisation to organisation owing to competition and a shortage of skills. Employees may also leave as a result of them resisting changes that are introduced into the organisation, especially if they feel insecure or have a fear or mistrust of the unknown (Steinman, 2009).

Mohlala, Goldman and Goosen (2012) add that turnover increases when organisations do not provide their employees with new technology; when management do not keep promises to employees; when organisations continuously restructure, especially when restructuring causes employee retrenchments; and when organisations do not have a retention strategy in place, since this makes it difficult for leadership to identify critical skills needing retaining. Moreover, unmet expectations and the relationship an employee has with his or her work will affect whether employee turnover occurs; in addition, employees may leave if they feel that they are stagnating in their current positions and desire better opportunities and greater challenges (Werner, 2004a). Aamodt (2010) agrees with this latter point, stating that employees often leave their jobs in order to pursue promotions and better advancement opportunities elsewhere. Janssen, De Jonge and Bakker (1999) found that amongst nurses, turnover intentions were primarily determined by unmet career expectations including the desire to earn higher salaries and take on more responsibility, and to a lesser extent were predicted by the quality of the nurses' job content. Employees may also leave in order to escape from colleagues, conflict, poor working conditions and/or stress when these become unbearable (Aamodt, 2010).

Pinder (2008) states that most turnover theory and research has focused on attitudinal factors, due to the fact that when employees feel dissatisfied, they will experience negative job attitudes, which will be followed by intentions to quit. Such intentions will be followed by actual quitting behaviour when employees perceive that alternative employment is available. Thus, intention to quit is influenced by negative attitudes for one's work. Indeed, job dissatisfaction is a primary cause of physical job withdrawal such as turnover (Noe et al., 2012), and conversely, employees may choose to remain at their organisations because of high levels of job satisfaction (Luthans, 2005). Such dissatisfaction or satisfaction may stem from pay and benefits (as already discussed); unsafe working conditions; unsupportive co-workers or supervisors; individuals having a personal disposition to be negative at work or about work; overcomplicated work tasks and roles; the availability of flexible work schedules and leave; or the degree to which work is personally meaningful

to its incumbent (Noe et al., 2012). Davis (2014) also explains that if organisations attract employees by promising autonomy, career development and adequate salaries, but then fail to deliver on such promises, then the psychological contract between employee and organisation is breached. Employees will experience dissatisfaction as a consequence, which in turn may result in an intention to quit the organisation. Mohlala et al. (2012) add that turnover increases when employees do not possess an attitude or interest in holding a specific job for life, and Aamodt (2010) states that the unmet needs and expectations of employees, as well as a lack of person-organisation fit, may cause turnover. Janssen et al. (1999) further note that turnover can be reduced by improving job security and providing employees with more opportunities for growth.

Within human service organisations, Selden and Sowa (2011) found that employees with higher perceptions of their organisation's performance management system were more committed to their jobs and indicated a greater desire to remain working for their organisations. These organisations also experienced lowered levels of voluntary employee turnover. This suggests that recognising the abilities of employees through effectively administered performance management systems is important for the NPO workforce, especially given the fact that extrinsic rewards are generally lower in the non-profit context (Selden & Sowa, 2011).

It is important to note that while job satisfaction does influence an employee's decision to stay at an organisation, such an intention to stay may also be due to an employee being unable to see him or herself working elsewhere or because the economic environment limits his or her choices of alternative employment (Luthans, 2005). As noted by Calvert and Stiles (2010), while employees' intentions to leave their organisations were generally lower during the period of the most recent economic recession, more employees may begin to "act on their pent-up desires to 'find greener pastures'" as the economy improves. WorldatWork (2007) agree with this, stating that when job markets improve, then frustrated or dissatisfied employees begin to look for other job opportunities. On the other hand, even when employees are satisfied with their

jobs, they may choose to leave their organisation if a different organisation offers them better opportunities (Luthans, 2005). Thus, this author notes that other variables need to be taken into account when determining the relationship between employees' intentions to quit and their job satisfaction. Indeed, as Aamodt (2010) mentions, turnover may be unrelated to dissatisfaction entirely and instead be due to reasons such as an employee's spouse being relocated, an employee becoming ill, or an employee encountering family issues that require their primary attention. Exit interviews, conducted with employees who have voluntarily decided to leave an organisation, will assist managers in determining the real reasons why employees choose to leave, be that their work environment, salary or content of their job (Grobler et al., 2011).

From the perspective of retention, factors that impact on employees choosing to stay at an organisation include how proud they are to work there, the fulfillment they gain from the position, the status associated with working for an organisation that is successful and respected, opportunities given to them for personal growth and development, the knowledge that their work makes a difference and that their opinions count, as well as the enjoyment they gain from their work (Steinman, 2009). Milkovich et al. (2011) cite research by IOMA (2002) indicating that respondents believe that a number of work-related factors are important to retain employees, including work variety, challenge and work importance. Organisations that provide a holistic, total rewards package to their employees that meets their needs, as well as assists them to balance their work with their personal lives through work-life initiatives and supportive work environments, will therefore benefit from improved employee retention (WorldatWork, 2007). This includes valuing employees as "whole people", granting them flexible work schedules, and being more receptive to their needs (WorldatWork, 2007, p. 522). Employees will stay when they are satisfied with their remuneration, employee policies, leadership style and organisational culture (Steinman, 2009). Employee retention also stems from employee's being involved with their organisations, since employees who are committed to the organisation demonstrate a strong desire to stay with it in order to continue contributing to the achievement of goals with which they identify (Van Dyk & Nel, 2004). Additionally, Preenen, De Pater, Van Vianen and Keijzer (2011)

found that challenging assignments were negatively related both to turnover intentions and job search behaviours amongst employees working in health care and welfare organisations. This relationship was found to be mediated by on-the-job learning. Over time, increasing challenging assignments led to less voluntary employee turnover (Preenen et al., 2011).

Moreover, Mitchell and Lee (2001) discuss that job embeddedness is a factor taken into account when employees choose to stay, since it has been found to correlate significantly with intention to leave and has predicted subsequent voluntary turnover. Job embeddedness implies that employees have a strong attachment to fellow employees or groups in their organisation (a strong web of relationships that would be broken if they leave); that they fit (or match in a compatible manner) with their job or community in the organisation; and that they would have to give up or sacrifice something if they left their position (such as a loss of psychological or material benefits currently available to them in the form of interesting projects, stock options, the use of the company car, or time logged towards extended leave) (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). These authors found that job embeddedness predicted voluntary turnover to a greater extent than organisational commitment, job satisfaction and job involvement. When highly embedded employees experience work-related shocks, as explained in Section 3.3.1, then they will show fewer plans to leave the organisation compared to employees who experience a shock but are less embedded in the organisation (Mitchell & Lee, 2001).

3.3.2 Consequences of intending to quit one's organisation

Organisations quite simply cannot afford to lose productive, valuable staff members. Steinman (2009) states that turnover costs are estimated to be as much as twice an employee's annual salary, while WorldatWork (2007) cite studies that estimate the total cost of losing an employee to be between 30 and 200 per cent of his or her yearly salary. Such high costs stem from expensive recruitment drives to fill vacancies (Balta, 2014); separation costs such as administrative expenses; selection and placement costs (Steinman, 2009) including employment agency fees, interview costs and relocation expenses for the new employee (Aamodt, 2010); as well as considerable training costs when

hiring a new employee (Luthans, 2005), and overtime costs for employees covering the duties of the vacant position (Aamodt, 2010). There are also risks associated with hiring inexperienced employees (Balta, 2014), including the drawback of such an employee lacking experience (Luthans, 2005) and the cost of mistakes they make before they settle into the position (Bussin, 2011). Pinder (2008, p. 280) states that organisations must also wait until these costs are offset by the value that new hires contribute once they are “up to speed”. This author further notes that valuable expertise and knowledge that employees gain on the job are taken with them when they leave, which poses a particular problem when employees have developed positive, profitable relationships with customers and clients within the organisational context. Indeed, decreased productivity may be a result of employees leaving with their customer and client knowledge and expertise, resulting in less effective service delivery (Balta, 2014).

Indirect costs of turnover include a loss of tacit knowledge, creativity and intellectual capital; damage to the image of the organisation; lost or damaged customer relationships and sales; a transfer of knowledge to the organisation’s competition and a loss of business to competitors; decreased efficiencies when productive employees leave since other employees need to do extra work (resulting in a greater workload for remaining employees which puts them under more pressure) together with no productivity stemming from the vacant position; decreased morale of employees who remain at the organisation; and management having their time absorbed with overcoming vacancies (WorldatWork, 2007; GrantThorton, 2008; Steinman, 2009; Aamodt, 2010). Steinman (2009) observes that such costs can be higher when the employee who left had been employed at the organisation for a lengthy period of time, since greater organisational memory would be lost in such a case. In addition, GrantThorton (2008) mention that turnover results in a reduction in customer service standards, delays in developing new services or products, a decrease in the quality standards of products, problems in introducing new working practices, and difficulties in assessing new markets. Mohlala et al. (2012) found that in the Information Technology division of a South African bank, employee turnover was the primary contributor to skills shortages within that division.

Bushe (2010) highlights that it becomes difficult for teams to continue to deliver top performance when they experience turnover, since unstable membership results in difficulty maintaining team spirit as well as ensuring the continuity of knowledge and skills needed for jobs to be completed. Werner (2004a) agrees, stating that the stability of work groups is affected by employee turnover. Thus, voluntary turnover eliminates an organisation's return on its investment in their employees, since turnover generally results in the loss of a productive employee (Shaw, Gupta & Delery, 2005).

Shaw et al. (2005) discovered a curvilinear pattern between voluntary turnover and workforce performance across two industrial settings. That is, while the effects of voluntary turnover on workforce performance are very strong when turnover is low, these negative effects on workforce performance weaken as voluntary turnover rates rise. They explain this by noting that, while losing employees through turnover does deprive the organisation of skills and abilities that are necessary for high workforce performance, beyond a certain point an increase in such turnover rates are not as erosive. These authors moreover found that workforce performance mediated the relationship between voluntary turnover and financial performance.

According to Balta (2014), retaining employees is imperative in ensuring that organisations survive and succeed in the long term. Employee retention assists in effective succession planning, and ensures that learning and knowledge remain deeply embedded in the organisation. A competitive advantage is developed through employee retention, by means of a loyal workforce being established that holds unique skills not possessed by rival firms (Balta, 2014). Products and services are consequently produced that cannot easily be imitated by competitors, which leads to higher levels of product sales as well as customer satisfaction (Balta, 2014). This author also highlights that this leads to improved job security, thus influencing employee satisfaction even when employees receive relatively low salaries. Despite the above arguments, labour turnover can be beneficial if organisations lose unproductive employees, and it can also ensure that new ideas and creativity are brought into the organisation with each new employee (Van Dyk & Nel, 2004).

3.3.3 Australian, American, Belgian and South African research on intention to quit or turnover intentions

The following table provides a summary of research relating to intention to quit or turnover intentions within the four countries under study.

Table 3.2: Summary of studies pertaining to intention to quit / turnover intentions within the four countries under study

Author/s & study title	Country & sample	Intention to quit finding
Trimble (2006): <i>Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention of missionaries</i>	Missionaries working within Australia, South Africa and the USA , from Worldwide Evangelization for Christ (WEC) International, an interdenominational, multi-national mission agency.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tenure in the organisation was found to be a stronger predictor of turnover intention than age. • Affective organisational commitment played a mediating role between job satisfaction and turnover intention, as opposed to job satisfaction mediating affective organisational commitment and turnover intention.
Lingard (2003): <i>The impact of individual and job characteristics on 'burnout' among civil engineers in Australia and the implications for employee turnover</i>	Civil engineers engaged in professional practice in consulting and contracting organisations in Australia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both cynicism and emotional exhaustion were strong predictors of engineers' intending to leave their jobs. This suggests that burnout prevention measures could be used to assist in reducing turnover.
Firth, Mellor, Moore and Loquet (2004): <i>How can managers reduce employee intention to quit?</i> Siong, Mellor, Moore and Firth (2006): <i>Predicting intention to quit in the call centre industry: Does the retail model fit?</i> ¹¹	Retail sales employees from the clothing sections of an Australian department store, and call centre representatives working within Australia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The impact of stressors on stress reactions, job satisfaction, organisational commitment as well as intention to quit is mediated by self-esteem and emotional support from supervisors. That is, intention to quit is influenced by job dissatisfaction, a lack of organisational commitment and feelings of stress, which are influenced by job stressors.

¹¹ Same sample used for both articles.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This implies that in order to reduce turnover, managers should monitor the workloads of employees, relationships between supervisors and their subordinates, as well as intrinsic and extrinsic sources of job satisfaction, as this will reduce stress and thus intention to quit.
Parry (2008): <i>Intention to leave the profession: Antecedents and role in nurse turnover</i>	Australian nurses who had been professionally trained at a tertiary education institution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both affective professional commitment and organisational commitment were found to be statistically significantly related to intention to change professions. • Job satisfaction and organisational commitment were negatively related to intention to change employer, whereas intention to change professions was positively related to intention to change employer.
Robinson and Beesley (2010): <i>Linkages between creativity and intention to quit: An occupational study of chefs</i>	Chefs working in community clubs (which are NPOs owned and operated by members for their collective benefit) in Australia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher scores for intention to leave their organisation or occupation were associated with higher creativity ratings. • Female chefs reported higher levels of creativity, but lower intention to quit scores for both their jobs and occupations.
Shacklock, Brunetto, Teo and Farr-Wharton (2014): <i>The role of support antecedents in nurses' intentions to quit: The case of Australia</i>	Nurses employed in urban, private sector hospitals in Australia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supervisor–nurse relationships and perceived organisational support (both support antecedents) positively led to engagement and job satisfaction. Nurses that were more satisfied with their jobs were in turn more committed to their organisations, which led to lower intentions to quit. Thus, nurse engagement, job satisfaction and workplace relationships all influence intention to quit. • Job satisfaction was also found to mediate the relationship between turnover intentions and organisational commitment, as well

		<p>as between turnover intentions and supervisor–subordinate relationships.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An inverse relationship exists between nurses’ intentions to quit and their levels of organisational commitment.
<p>Treuren and Frankish (2014a): <i>Pay dissatisfaction and intention to leave</i></p> <p>Treuren and Frankish (2014b): <i>The impact of pay understanding on pay satisfaction and retention: Salary sacrifice understanding in the not-for-profit sector</i>¹²</p>	<p>Personal care employees of an Australian NPO that provides support services in the homes of people with disabilities</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The attachment that employees experienced as a result of interacting with their clients (known as client embeddedness) reduced the adverse effects of pay dissatisfaction on employees intending to leave the organisation. • Employee understanding of their pay arrangements was found to have an indirect impact (through pay satisfaction) on employees’ intentions to leave their organisation. • This implies that organisations may reduce employees’ turnover intentions by improving their pay communication approaches, thus helping employees understand how they are paid. This communication is especially important when complicated payment systems are used, such as the salary sacrifice scheme used in this NPO.
<p>De Gieter, De Cooman, Pepermans and Jegers (2008): <i>Manage through rewards, not only through pay: Establishing the Psychological Reward Satisfaction Scale (PReSS)</i></p>	<p>Nurses and teachers from the non-profit sector in Belgium</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Both psychological rewards (i.e. the supportive, positively evaluated outcomes from professional interpersonal relationships with an employees’ supervisor, colleagues and/or clients) and satisfaction with pay level predicted turnover intentions. However, psychological rewards predicted turnover intentions to a greater extent than satisfaction with pay level.

¹² Same sample used for both articles.

<p>Kyndt, Dochy, Michielsen and Moeyaert (2009): <i>Employee retention: Organisational and personal perspectives</i></p>	<p>Employees from different private sector organisations in Belgium</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quality of work climate and employees' perceptions of the importance of learning were found to be strong predictors of employees' intentions to remain with their current employers. • Appreciation (an organisational factor) as well as self-perceived leadership skills and seniority (personal factors) had a positive influence on employee retention. The latter implies that employees with longer careers within an organisation are more strongly connected to it and therefore tend not to leave. • Level of education as well as readiness and initiative to learn were negatively related to employee retention.
<p>Derycke et al. (2010): <i>Impact of the effort-reward imbalance model on intent to leave among Belgian health care workers: A prospective study</i></p>	<p>Belgian health care workers</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Belgian health care workers within nursing homes had the highest intention to leave their organisations, as did male health care workers. • Intention to leave their organisations was significantly associated with their family situation and education levels of respondents, with single parents and specialised registered nurses exhibiting the highest intention to leave their organisations.
<p>Van Den Broeck et al. (2010): <i>Capturing autonomy, competence, and relatedness at work: Construction and initial validation of the Work-related Basic Need Satisfaction scale</i></p>	<p>Call centre agents working within Belgium</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Autonomy satisfaction was found to prevent turnover, implying that certain intrinsic rewards may predict intention to quit.
<p>De Gieter, De Cooman, Pepermans & Jegers</p>	<p>Belgian nurses</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Satisfaction with psychological rewards from the head nurse (such

<p>(2010): <i>The Psychological Reward Satisfaction Scale: Developing and psychometric testing two refined subscales for nurses</i></p>		<p>as recognition) was shown to have a statistically significant impact on nurses' turnover intentions, yet satisfaction with psychological rewards from their physicians did not influence nurses' turnover intentions.</p>
<p>De Gieter, Hofmans & Pepermans (2011): <i>Revisiting the impact of job satisfaction and organizational commitment on nurse turnover intention: An individual differences analysis</i></p>	<p>Belgian nurses from public and non-profit hospitals</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nurses with higher levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment indicated lower turnover intentions. • Nurses who were significantly younger with less job and organisational tenure displayed stronger turnover intentions.
<p>Hoole (1997): <i>Work commitment: Its dimensions and relationships with role stress and intention to quit</i></p> <p>Boshoff et al. (2002): <i>The prediction of intention to quit by means of biographic variables, work commitment, role strain and psychological climate</i>¹³</p>	<p>Employees of a financial services organisation as well as a university in South Africa</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Career commitment, affective organisational commitment and role stress (in the form of role conflict and role ambiguity) were found to be predictors of intention to quit. • Males had higher intention to quit levels than females; as did married employees compared to those who are unmarried (never married, divorced, widowed or cohabitating). • Employees with 12 years of schooling had higher intention to quit levels than those with a Masters or Doctoral degree; as did those with a post-school diploma compared to a bachelor's degree. This implies that a negative relationship exists between education level and intention to quit.
<p>Pillay (2009): <i>Work satisfaction of professional nurses in South Africa: A comparative analysis of</i></p>	<p>Professional nurses working within South Africa</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nurses who indicated that they intended to quit nursing in the future were less satisfied in all facets of work (including autonomy, career opportunities, workload and personal time) than those who

¹³ Same sample used for both articles.

<p><i>the public and private sectors</i></p>		<p>indicated that they would not be changing their employment sector.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This suggests that work dissatisfaction is a strong predictor of intention to quit.
<p>Du Plooy and Roodt (2010): <i>Work engagement, burnout and related constructs as predictors of turnover intentions</i></p>	<p>Operation and specialist employees from a South African ICT organisation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work engagement and burnout of employees were significantly negatively related to turnover intention, and OCBs and work alienation were significantly positively related to turnover intention.
<p>Muteswa and Ortlepp (2011): <i>Contributing factors to potential turnover in a sample of South African management-level employees</i></p>	<p>Managerial-level employees working in South African-based organisations</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A number of aspects of internal organisational functioning significantly influences the potential turnover of managers, including management / leadership style (such as exclusion from decision-making), career path strategies (including training and development), team dynamics (including lack of fair treatment), and rewards (both intrinsic and extrinsic).
<p>Munyaka (2012): <i>The relationship between authentic leadership, psychological capital, psychological climate, team commitment and the intention to quit in a South African manufacturing organisation</i></p>	<p>Junior to senior managers at the South African branch of a global tyre manufacturing organisation.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Significant negative relationships were found between intention to quit and authentic leadership behaviours, follower psychological capital, team commitment and psychological climate.
<p>Bothma and Roodt (2013): <i>The validation of the turnover intention scale</i></p>	<p>Employees below middle management in a South African ICT organisation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Turnover intention was found to relate to work engagement, work-based identity, burnout, helping behaviour, work alienation and task performance.
<p>Robyn and Du Preez (2013): <i>Intention to quit amongst Generation Y</i></p>	<p>Generation Y academics in higher education</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work engagement, remuneration and rewards, recognition, job satisfaction and transformational leadership were found to be

<p><i>academics in higher education</i></p>	<p>institutions in South Africa</p>	<p>significantly correlated with intention to quit.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In particular, work engagement and job satisfaction were the strongest predictors of intention to quit.
<p>Van Der Vaart, Linde, De Beer and Cockeran (2015): <i>Employee well-being, intention to leave and perceived employability: A psychological contract approach</i></p>	<p>Employees from various industries in South Africa</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negative, practically significant correlations existed between employees' intentions to leave their organisations and employer obligations, state of the psychological contract and employee well-being. • Employees' intentions to leave their organisations were significantly predicted by perceived employability.
<p>Peters et al. (2002): <i>Help wanted: Turnover and vacancy in nonprofits</i></p>	<p>Executive directors of NPOs in the USA</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The major reason that employees were leaving NPOs was because of money, such as dissatisfaction with salaries, and the high cost of living in that particular region of the USA, including more expensive housing, childcare and/or food and entertainment. • Employees also reported that they were leaving owing to receiving excellent job offers from other organisations, since such offers could result in professional development and/or increased salaries. • Personal reasons for employees leaving, which were beyond the control of the NPOs, included returning to study or moving to a different part of the USA. • Other reasons for voluntarily resigning included high levels of burnout; conflict with co-workers or supervisors; changing professions or fields; retiring; or employees outgrowing their positions.

<p>Hayden and Madsen (2008): <i>The influence of value perspectives on prior plans, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions in nonprofit agencies</i></p>	<p>Employees working in NPOs in the USA</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • NPO employees whose value perspectives lay individually as opposed to having collectivist or humanistic value orientations, showed no significant relationships with willingness to stay or intended length of stay at their current organisations. Thus, prospects of leaving their current employers were more seriously considered by those employees with individual value perspectives. • The most significant demographic correlations were found between employees' intentions to stay with their current organisation and their age, length of time with their NPO, and income. This implies that increasing the salaries of employees will directly impact their intentions to stay employed with their current organisations.
<p>Post, DiTomaso, Farris and Cordero (2009): <i>Work-family conflict and turnover intentions among scientists and engineers working in R&D</i></p>	<p>Scientists and engineers in dual-earner families and with dependent care responsibilities, who were employed in the research and development laboratories of private, USA-based multi-billion dollar organisations</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family-interference with work indirectly increased intentions to change their organisations through work dissatisfaction, but not their intentions to change from the research and development field. • No relationship was found between work interference with family and turnover intentions. • Supervisor support was correlated with lower intentions to leave their organisations, whereas work dissatisfaction was correlated with higher turnover intentions.
<p>Knight, Broome, Edwards and Flynn (2011): <i>Supervisory turnover in outpatient substance abuse treatment</i></p>	<p>Staff (including counsellors and clinical / programme directors) from outpatient, drug-free treatment</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supervisory turnover increased when satisfaction was low following the departure of a previous supervisor. • Programmes affiliated with a parent organisation as well as those programmes that provided more

	programmes in the USA	counselling hours to clients had higher turnover rates.
Rothrauff, Abraham, Bride and Roman (2011): <i>Occupational turnover intentions among substance abuse counselors</i>	Substance abuse counsellors working in private programmes in the USA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Very few counsellors indicated their intent to leave the substance abuse treatment field. • Occupational turnover intention was negatively predicted by age, certification, positive perceptions of procedural and distributive justice, and hospital-based status. • Organisational turnover intention was found to partially mediate the link between organisational commitment and occupational turnover intention. • Their findings included that organisational commitment, showing appreciation for counsellors' work and valuing counsellors from diverse backgrounds should decrease turnover.
Wells and Peachey (2011): <i>Turnover intentions: Do leadership behaviors and satisfaction with the leader matter?</i>	National Collegiate Athletic Association Division I softball and volleyball assistant coaches in the USA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A direct negative relationship was found between leadership behaviours (including transformational and transactional leadership) and voluntary organisational turnover intentions. • Satisfaction with their leader mediated the negative relationship between leadership behaviours (both transformational and transactional leadership) and voluntary turnover intentions.
Han and Jekel (2011): <i>The mediating role of job satisfaction between leader-member exchange and turnover intentions</i>	Nurses of a non-profit healthcare provider in the USA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lower turnover intentions were correlated with higher leader-member exchange as well as higher job satisfaction. • Job satisfaction was found to mediate the link between leader-member exchange and turnover intentions.

<p>Jang et al. (2015): <i>Determinants of job satisfaction and turnover intent in home health workers: The role of job demands and resources</i></p>	<p>Home health care workers in the USA</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Turnover intent was found to be inversely related to job satisfaction, high levels of self-confidence in job performance, and recognition by one’s supervisor and organisation. • Turnover intent was increased by workers having an experience of a physical injury or with racial or ethnic discrimination. • Having a shorter career in home health, working fewer weekly hours, and being affiliated with for-profit agencies increased turnover intentions.
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It is evident from the above summary of intention to quit research that a number of studies have been conducted that use NPOs in their samples, such as Peters et al. (2002) (*executive NPO directors*), Trimble (2006) (*missionaries*), Hayden and Madsen (2008) (*NPO employees*), Robinson and Beesley (2010) (*NPO chefs*), Han and Jekel (2011) (*NPO nurses*) as well as Treuren and Frankish (2014a; 2014b) (*personal care employees from NPOs*). However, none of these studies originate from Belgium or SA, indicating a lack of intention to quit research from these countries. While the nursing population has been researched abundantly from the perspective of turnover intentions, a gap still exists for the present study that provides a cross-cultural, non-profit perspective on turnover intentions, particularly in relation to intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation.

3.4 **Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed work engagement and intention to quit in detail, including the antecedents and outcomes of both, as well as relevant international research related to these constructs. The focus of this thesis will now turn to the hypotheses of the present empirical study, which will highlight the relationships between the four constructs that have been given theoretical attention until this point.

CHAPTER FOUR

HYPOTHESES AND PROPOSED THEORETICAL MODEL

4.1 **Introduction**

The previous two chapters discussed the necessary research relating to intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit, which laid a solid foundation for the empirical component of this thesis. Prior to discussing the research methodology undertaken for this study, it is first essential that the researcher highlight the relationships between the four constructs under study, in order to develop hypotheses. Together, these hypotheses form the theoretical model that will be empirically tested by means of structural equation modelling (SEM) in Chapter Six.

4.2 **Relationships between constructs, and hypotheses**

A discussion is now provided to highlight the relationships between the four constructs to be measured in this study, leading to the formulation of this study's hypotheses.

4.2.1 **Intrinsic rewards and work engagement**

Thomas (2009b) mentions that intrinsic rewards are the reinforcements that keep employees actively engaged in their work. Indeed, Jacobs et al. (2014) found that within the South African context, intrinsic rewards such as a sense of meaningfulness and choice indeed correlated positively with work engagement. Bruce (2011) highlights that engaged employees are aware of their organisation's core values and deeper purpose, implying that meaning at work influences how engaged employees are, which is confirmed by Woods and West (2010), who note that engagement is driven by work that is meaningful and important. This is in line with Crabb (2011, in Lomas et al., 2014), who mentions that aligning one's purpose with the organisation's purpose is a driver of engagement, as well as with Schaufeli and Bakker (2003), who state that dedication to one's work (a dimension of work engagement)

occurs as a result of finding one's work to be meaningful and challenging (components of intrinsic rewards). Importantly, within the South African NPO context, Buys and Rothmann (2010) found that ministers were more engaged when they experienced a sense of job significance and task variety in their work, as well as when given opportunities to learn and grow, which the present researcher notes are all intrinsic rewards. Additionally, engagement is said to be promoted by providing employees with autonomy to shape their own job content (Lomas et al., 2014). Indeed, Nel et al. (2011) note that employees cannot be engaged if they operate in a work environment that offers little autonomy or personal responsibility. Moreover, Rothmann (2014) highlights that a work environment that satisfies the three SDT needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness (the first two relating to the intrinsic rewards of flexible and challenging work) will result in employees being more engaged in their work and thus demonstrating a lower intention to quit their organisations. Armstrong and Brown (2009) also note that the opportunity to grow and develop directly impacts on levels of engagement. According to Rothmann and Rothmann Jr (2010), engagement is strongly related to a number of job resources, including growth opportunities such as variety, learning opportunities and autonomy. Absorption, the cognitive component of employee engagement, was shown by these authors to be predicted by intrinsic job factors, such as learning opportunities, independence and variety.

Owing to the fact that many of the predictors of work engagement mentioned above are intrinsic rewards (such as flexible work, meaningful work and varied work), the following is proposed:

Hypothesis 1 (H₁): Work engagement is predicted by intrinsic rewards

4.2.2 Intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation

Motivation is a key objective of any reward system, and the types of rewards that can be given to increase motivation include intrinsic rewards (Grobler et al., 2011). According to Pinder (2008), intrinsic rewards are required in order to satisfy individuals' levels of intrinsic motivation, and Nujjoo and Meyer (2012) found that intrinsic motivation is predicted by being satisfied with one's intrinsic

non-monetary rewards. Armstrong and Brown (2009) highlight that intrinsic motivation depends on the manner in which work or jobs are designed, which results in intrinsic rewards, as the researcher established theoretically in Chapter Two. Along a similar line, Janssen et al. (1999) discovered that intrinsic work motivation is determined primarily by work content variables, including elements of one's job that make the work itself worthwhile and challenging such as autonomy, opportunities to learn and skill variety. In addition, Tippet and Kluyers (2009) found that intrinsic rewards (such as the achievements of employees' clients, which the researcher notes promote meaningful work) were found to be the most important employee motivators within NPOs in Australia specifically. Indeed, as noted by Potgieter and Botha (2014), meaning (that is, the intrinsic reward of meaningful work) is experienced best when an individual is connected and committed to a cause greater than him or herself (that is, when individuals have a personal connection to their work, a dimension of being intrinsically motivated). Furthermore, Pinder (2008) states that a core part of being intrinsically motivated is the feeling of being challenged and given opportunities to master situations, in this study defined as challenging work. Along this line, McClelland (1985, in French, 2010) indicated that individuals who demonstrate a strong need for achievement (a component of intrinsic motivation in the form of having a personal desire to perform) exhibit a preference for challenging work, and Herzberg (1966) discussed that opportunities for growth lead to motivation at work.

For the reason that a number of intrinsic rewards, such as meaningful work, challenging work, flexible work and varied work, can improve an employee's intrinsic motivation, it can be proposed that:

Hypothesis 2 (H₂): Intrinsic motivation is predicted by intrinsic rewards

4.2.3 Intrinsic rewards and intention to quit

According to both Swanepoel et al. (2008) and Balta (2014), using an array of both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards will assist an organisation to holistically focus on retention, and Grobler et al. (2011) mention that when an employee favourably reacts to the work that he or she needs to perform, then less turnover

occurs as a result. Greenberg and Baron (2003) highlight that giving employees interesting work to do, and then providing them with responsibility and control over the work, will effectively motivate them to remain with the organisation and be committed to it. These authors also note that employees will remain at their organisation when their interests are aligned with those of the organisation, which the researcher notes will assist in making the work more meaningful. The Institute of Management and Administration (2002, in Milkovich et al., 2011) found that besides money, five non-financial rewards serve to assist in the retention of employees during periods of difficult economic climates. These are work variety and challenge; developmental opportunities; social rewards; status and recognition; and work importance. The researcher notes that work variety, challenge and work importance are all types of intrinsic rewards. In addition, Mobley et al. (1979) cite research that found that the perceived intrinsic value of work as well as intrinsic satisfaction are significantly and negatively related to turnover. Along the same line, Walters (1975) states that turnover results from work lacking meaning, which the researcher notes is an intrinsic reward. This author also mentions that if the growth needs of employees are not fulfilled, then employees will not give of their best, will be absent from work, and will quit when they can. While the latter two citations are admittedly out-dated, they do emphasise the need for current research that will confirm the link between intrinsic rewards and intention to quit. Addressing this gap, Muteswa and Ortlepp (2011) found that intrinsic rewards, including a lack of challenging work as well as freedom to act on the job, influenced South African managers' intentions to leave their organisations. Moreover, Preenen et al. (2011) discovered that the provision of challenging assignments led to a decrease in turnover intentions amongst health care and welfare employees.

Owing to the fact that intrinsic rewards such as challenging work, varied work, flexible work and enjoyable work lead to lower levels of intention to quit, it can be said that:

Hypothesis 3 (H₃): Intention to quit is predicted by intrinsic rewards

4.2.4 Work engagement and intention to quit

Bussin (2011) mentions that employee engagement promotes the retention of employees, because a critical driver of an employee's intention to quit is his or her level of organisational commitment. Engagement is thus of vital importance for organisations wishing to retain top talent (Bussin, 2011; Nel et al., 2011). This is confirmed by Du Plooy and Roodt (2010), Bothma and Roodt (2013) and Robyn and Du Preez (2013), who empirically found that work engagement was significantly negatively related to turnover intentions; that is, employees who were engaged in their work had lower levels of turnover intentions or intentions to quit. Moreover, Shacklock et al. (2014) discovered that intention to quit was influenced by nurses' levels of engagement, and Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found that work engagement directly related to turnover intentions, as well as mediated the relationship between job resources and turnover intentions. Based on this knowledge, the researcher proposes that:

Hypothesis 4 (H₄): Intention to quit is predicted by work engagement

4.2.5 Intrinsic motivation and intention to quit

Balta (2014) states that motivation is one strategy that organisations can use to retain its valuable employees, and French (2010) highlights that employee motivation has a practical correlation not only with performance and satisfaction levels, but turnover levels too, regardless of the cultural context in which the organisation is situated. Indeed, intrinsic motivation has been found to be significantly and negatively related to turnover (Mobley et al., 1979), with Cho and Perry (2012) ascertaining that intrinsic motivation is substantively associated with turnover intentions. For these reasons, it is proposed that:

Hypothesis 5 (H₅): Intention to quit is predicted by intrinsic motivation

4.2.6 Intrinsic motivation and work engagement

Nel et al. (2011) state that engagement is a contemporary concept in motivation, since it taps into the motivation of employees in order for them to put in extra effort and try harder. This is similar to the notion put forward by Armstrong and Brown (2009), who mention that engagement takes place when employees are motivated to achieve high levels of performance; they moreover

provide a model indicating that intrinsic motivation in particular leads to engagement. Bussin (2011) states that engagement leads to greater employee motivation, and engagement has been mentioned by WorldatWork (2007) as one of three defined levels of intensity with regards to motivation, indicating how much an employee will actually do in order to improve the organisation's results. According to Woods and West (2010), however, engagement is derived from intrinsic motivation to work, resulting in work feeling meaningful and important to employees, implying that this relationship runs both ways.

While research linking engagement with motivation is lacking, specifically with regards to work engagement and intrinsic motivation, it can nonetheless be suggested that:

Hypothesis 6 (H₆): Work engagement is predicted by intrinsic motivation

4.3 Proposed theoretical model

The theoretical model in Figure 4.1 will be tested empirically in this study. It shows the relationships between intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit, stemming from the theory and hypotheses discussed in the preceding section.

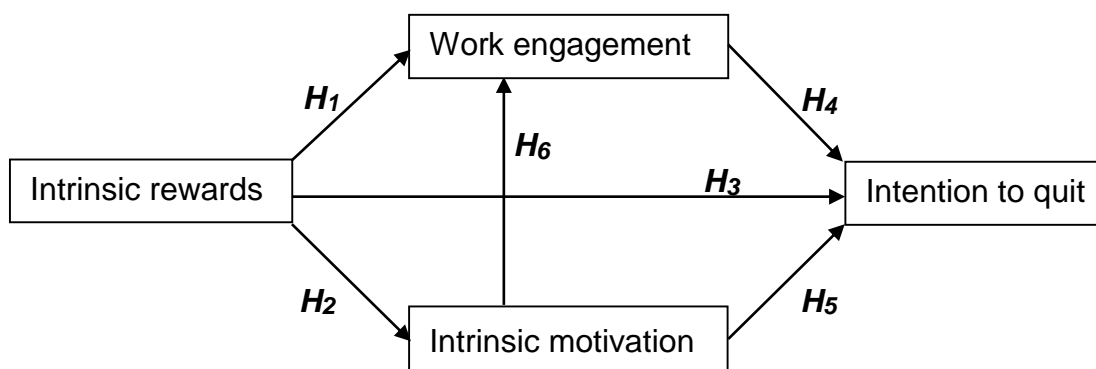


Figure 4.1: Proposed theoretical model

The hypotheses for this study indicated in the model above are summarised as follows:

- **Hypothesis 1:** Work engagement is predicted by intrinsic rewards
- **Hypothesis 2:** Intrinsic motivation is predicted by intrinsic rewards

- **Hypothesis 3**: Intention to quit is predicted by intrinsic rewards
- **Hypothesis 4**: Intention to quit is predicted by work engagement
- **Hypothesis 5**: Intention to quit is predicted by intrinsic motivation
- **Hypothesis 6**: Work engagement is predicted by intrinsic motivation

Further hypotheses for this study include:

- **Hypothesis 7**: Differences occur between intrinsic rewards and demographic variables, including country of work, gender, age, highest level of education achieved, marital status, non-profit category of work and job level.
- **Hypothesis 8**: Differences occur between intrinsic motivation and the demographic variables mentioned in Hypothesis 7.
- **Hypothesis 9**: Differences occur between work engagement and the demographic variables mentioned in Hypothesis 7.
- **Hypothesis 10**: Differences occur between intention to quit and the demographic variables mentioned in Hypothesis 7.
- **Hypothesis 11**: Differences occur between level of salary satisfaction and the demographic variables mentioned in Hypothesis 7.

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter outlined the hypotheses for this study, and designed a theoretical model that will be empirically tested. However, it should be noted that other variables will also be investigated apart from the hypotheses listed above, such as the impact of salary satisfaction on the four constructs under study, as well as whether relationships occur between the various subscales across the four measuring instruments.

The following chapter of this thesis will focus on the research methodology employed for the empirical component of this thesis.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

The primary aim of this study is to investigate whether intrinsic rewards play a role in the intrinsic motivation, work engagement and retention of employees working within NPOs in Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA. Empirical research was required in order to achieve this, and the methodology for conducting this empirical research is the focus of this chapter. The study was conducted during a two year period, namely June 2013 until July 2015. Data collection occurred over one-and-a-half years, namely November 2013 until April 2015.

This chapter will discuss the research type and technique for the three phases of empirical research, followed by an explanation of the target population, sampling method, data collection (including the measuring instruments used), data analysis, reliability and validity, and ethical considerations.

5.2 Research type and technique

The first stage of the research entailed a qualitative literature study being conducted before the empirical objectives could be addressed. Primary literature sources formed the theoretical basis for the research, as presented in Chapters Two and Three. Hypotheses based on this literature review were formulated and provided in Chapter Four.

The second stage of the research, the empirical study, was non-experimental in nature since no treatment or unique conditions were assigned to participants (Landy & Conte, 2010), and no planned interventions or random assignment of participants to groups took place (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005). This empirical research was primarily *descriptive / contextual* in nature, and secondarily *exploratory, explanatory* and *predictive*. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected, as explained in the following sub-sections.

5.2.1 Qualitative empirical research

Qualitative interviews were firstly conducted in **Phase 1**, in order to gain in-depth data that would assist in the development of two measuring instruments to assess intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation respectively, as well as to provide insight into the results of the subsequent quantitative research. The function of this qualitative research was both *descriptive / contextual* and *explanatory* in nature. This is due to the fact that it aimed to identify and describe phenomena that exists in the NPO work environment as experienced by the sample in their own terms, thus allowing the researcher to attain interpretations regarding, for example, the intrinsic rewards provided to participants (*descriptive / contextual*); as well as because it explored the influences surrounding the occurrence of social phenomena, such as what underpins participants' attitudes towards potentially leaving the employ of the NPO sector (*explanatory*; Ritchie & Ormston, 2014).

Once these qualitative interviews were conducted and the data analysed, the researcher developed two new measuring instruments pertaining to the constructs of intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation, which formed **Phase 2** of the empirical study. As explained by Smith et al. (2006), in order to ascertain differences cross-culturally, tests must be developed that validly detect such differences. In order to assess these measuring instruments prior to distribution on a large NPO sample, the researcher gained qualitative, critical feedback on the content and structure of the measuring instruments from both academic and non-profit employees. This process of developing two new measuring instruments was *exploratory* in nature.

5.2.2 Quantitative empirical research

Once these measuring instruments were refined and finalised, they were combined with two pre-existing instruments measuring work engagement and intention to quit to form a final, structured composite questionnaire. Quantitative data was collected through this questionnaire being distributed electronically to NPO respondents for **Phase 3**, the final phase of the study. The aim of this final phase was to gather cross-cultural data to validate the newly developed measuring instruments and empirically test the theoretical model proposed in

Chapter Four. This phase was therefore both *predictive* and *exploratory* in nature. The hypotheses presented in Chapter Four have been statistically tested based only on the results of Phase 3 of this study.¹⁴

According to Ritchie and Ormston (2014), it is common for both qualitative and quantitative research methods to be used in applied social research, when a study not only requires the measurement of data but also a greater understanding of the nature of a particular issue. This justifies the use of a mixed method approach for the present study, due to the fact that levels of intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit needed to be measured statistically in order to empirically test the proposed theoretical model (*quantitative* research); yet as importantly, it was necessary to gather in-depth information pertaining to participants' experiences of these constructs (*qualitative* research), prior to the formulation and finalisation of the composite questionnaire to collect the quantitative data.

In this study, qualitative research preceded quantitative research, which as explained by Ritchie and Ormston (2014, p. 42) allowed the researcher to generate “the ‘real life’ language in which subsequent survey questions should be framed”, owing to the underdeveloped and complex subject matter at hand. In this way, terminology and concepts could be defined prior to the development of the questionnaire items; and ideas pertaining to the relationships between the constructs under study could be generated, thus assisting in the formulation of hypotheses (Ritchie & Ormston, 2014).

Finally, it is necessary to highlight that this research took an etic approach to the collection of cross-cultural data. This is explained by French (2010, p. 91) in the following manner:

¹⁴ For the purposes of this thesis, “participants” will refer to those individuals who took part in the qualitative interviews (Phase 1) and who provided feedback on the newly-developed measuring instruments (Phase 2), whereas “respondents” will refer to individuals who completed the composite questionnaire in Phase 3.

“The etic theoretical stance necessitates the use of a methodological approach in which the primary aim is to identify matched samples in different societies, achieved through holding certain variables constant – eg type of organisation or employee. The sample data is then compared with that obtained from similar populations in other countries in order to locate significant differences which could be culturally based.”

For the purpose of this study, four different countries were focused on, and the variable held constant was the sector in which respondents worked – namely, the non-profit sector.

The target population from which participants and respondents were gathered for this study will now be presented.

5.3 Target population

A study’s target population can be defined in terms of elements, extent and sampling units. Firstly, the elements of this study were *current, paid, full-time or part-time employees* of NPOs. The researcher aimed to obtain respondents who had *diverse characteristics* in terms of representing different genders, ages, educational qualifications, job levels, languages, marital statuses and positions within their respective organisations. The extent of the study was Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA. The sampling units (where the elements of the study were found) were numerous NPOs in Belgium and SA for the first and second phases of sampling, and all four countries for the last phase of sampling.

According to Surtees et al. (2014), the non-profit sector includes charities and voluntary organisations whose purpose is either to provide services free of charge or to raise money for numerous social causes. The non-profit sector is commonly known as civil society, or the third/voluntary/independent sector (Statistics South Africa, 2014b). Ten NPO categories exist, namely *Welfare and Humanitarian; Health Care; Land and Housing; Education and Development; Religion, Belief and Philosophy; Cultural Activities; Conservation and Environment; Animal Welfare; Research and Consumer Rights; and Sports* (Department of Social Development, 2009).

5.3.1 Australian NPOs

Lyons (1999) explains that in Australia, organisations are divided into three sectors, namely government, business and the non-profit sector. NPOs often perform a public service but are not part of government, and they are not established for the purpose of making a profit for their owners (Lyons, 1999). Instead, they result from groups of people committing to provide a service either for themselves or others in order to practise a religion, represent the interests of others, or lobby on behalf of them (Lyons, 1999). Our Community (n.d.) (an Australian social enterprise that provides advice and tools for the country's NPOs) explain that these organisations have a primarily social mission and view "being good" as an end in itself, not as a means to an end; compared to many for-profit organisations who ensure that doing good is good for their business. Australian NPOs are generally member-owned by individuals who are enthusiastic and committed as a result of the NPO's vision, and for this reason, they are driven strongly by values (Lyons, 1999). Every Australian NPO has a set of rules or a constitution giving it life beyond the group that began it (Our Community, n.d.); moreover, they are private and thus are not directly subject to government or ministerial regulation or control (Lyons, 1999). Over 600,000 NPOs operate within Australia, with one in every 15 Australians working for either a charity or an NPO (Pro Bono Australia, 2013). Lyons (2009), however, estimates this figure at 700,000 Australian NPOs in operation, with approximately 41,000 of them being economically significant in 2006/2007.

A certain amount of volunteer labour is used by Australian NPOs to operate effectively, whether or not they employ individuals to provide and manage their services (Our Community, n.d.). While the majority of Australian NPOs are small and rely entirely on volunteers to perform their work, larger NPOs do employ individuals and are usually incorporated, meaning that they have legal identities independent of their members (Lyons, 1999). According to Lyons (1999; 2009), 38,000 NPOs employ 890,000 individuals (8.6% of Australians), with many of these employees hired on a part-time basis and paid low wages.

While there is a misconception that NPOs do not make money, Our Community (n.d.) explains that most NPOs do earn revenue, as they need to pay their

employees, print newsletters, pay electricity and phone bills, and rent their offices, amongst other costs. For example, according to Hrywna (2013), 71 per cent of NPO expenditure in Australian NPOs is spent on labour costs. In order to derive their income, Australian NPOs rely on government funding; donations; sponsorships; membership fees; business ventures; returns on investments; money from fundraising events; or the selling of goods or services (Lyons, 1999). In 2006/2007, Australian NPOs brought in an income of \$76 billion, and contributed \$34 billion to Australia's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Lyons, 2009). Hrywna (2013) notes that the GDP contribution of NPOs in Australia is eleven per cent, which outpaces the growth of the overall economy at 7.5 per cent. It is therefore clear that while making money is not the objective of NPOs, they do nonetheless generate profits; however, instead of distributing surplus money to their members as for-profit organisations might do, they invest any profits back into themselves to better their facilities or provide additional services (Our Community, n.d.; Lyons, 1999).

5.3.2 Belgian NPOs

NPOs in Belgium are known as “association sans but lucrative” (ASBL) or “vereniging zonder winstoogmerk” (VZW) (BusinessBelgium, 2010), or in English, associations without profit purposes (Mertens et al., 1999). An ASBL / VZW must consist of at least three individuals / partners and does not require a minimum amount of capital, unlike commercial companies in Belgium (BusinessBelgium, 2010). Belgian NPOs must pursue a non-profit objective and cannot distribute any profits they make to their members, although they are allowed to charge membership fees and organise activities in return for payments, provided these are compatible with their purpose (BusinessBelgium, 2010). Hrywna (2013) notes that 68 per cent of Belgian NPO funding comes from the government, whereas only four per cent of their revenue is from philanthropy. This is in line with Mertens et al. (1999), who state that NPOs in Belgium rely on government sources for the majority of their funding, with a lesser reliance on private donations, private sales or services, and/or membership fees.

Two-thirds of Belgian's non-profit associations operate in three primary fields, namely culture and recreation, education and research, and social services (Mertens et al., 1999). According to Hrywna (2013), 11.5 per cent of Belgium's total paid workforce works in the non-profit sector. As of 1995, approximately 18,000 non-profit associations in Belgium employed 470,000 paid staff, with the total monetary resources raised by all NPOs amounting to more than \$25 billion in Belgium, or 9.5 per cent of their GDP (Mertens et al., 1999). Volunteers comprise approximately one-third of the sector's workforce, whose working hours equate to 100,000 full-time jobs (Mertens et al., 1999). Of the Belgian NPOs paying employees, the majority operate in the fields of culture and recreation, education and research, health, social services, the environment, development and housing, and civic and advocacy, suggesting that these fields demand a higher level of professional competence (Mertens et al., 1999).

5.3.3 South African NPOs

SA's non-profit sector stems from the country's inequalities and inability to meet the demands for goods by an ethnically diverse society, partly brought about from previous years of racial oppression and segregation and a welfare system that benefited only a small minority of the population (Stuart, 2013). An NPO is defined in terms of Section 1 of the South African NPO Act as "a trust, company or other association of persons established for a public purpose and of which its income and property are not distributable to its members or office bearers except as reasonable compensation for services rendered" (Department of Social Development, 2011). They include any organisation whose interest is to assist the community and operate for non-profit purposes, such as churches, schools, youth or sport clubs, learning institutions, or dance or theatre groups, amongst others (Association for Non Profit Organisations SA, 2012). NPOs bring together a collection of individuals for a common purpose who agree to formalise programmes and conduct activities in order to fulfil this purpose, and make profits available for benefiting this purpose (Department of Social Development, 2001). NPOs in SA are thus organisations formed "for the purpose of serving a public or mutual benefit other than the pursuit or accumulation of profits for owners or investors" (Bussin, 2013, p. 9). According

to Stuart (2013), approximately 100,000 NPOs are registered in SA, with a further 50,000 unregistered NPOs.

The majority of South African NPOs gain their income primarily from local donations (30.9%), as well as from government subsidies (28.9%), membership subscriptions (24.6%), sales income (6.8%) and service income (8.8%) (Statistics South Africa, 2014b). As noted by Bussin (2013), NPOs are generally reliant on donor funding, especially when they have no means of raising their own income or are built and run without a sustainable business model. While NPOs are seldom owned by one individual or group, they are still accountable to their funders, donors, members, consumers, communities and governments (Bussin, 2013). Any money that NPOs earn is retained by them, and is used for their own operations, expenses and programmes (Bussin, 2013). Such expenses include compensating employees (86.6%), maintenance and repairs (4.4%), transportation (3.0%) and utilities (2.2%) (Statistics South Africa, 2014b).

The South African non-profit sector can be divided into two primary types of organisations, namely service driven NPOs (providing social services to underprivileged communities) as well as human rights, advocacy and monitoring organisations (that perform the role of social watchdog) [Stuart, 2013]. As mentioned in Chapter One, within SA the term “Non-Profit Organisation” encompasses NPCs (known as Section 21 Companies); NGOs; CSOs; CBOs such as crèches, youth clubs or private schools; *Faith-Based Organisations* (FBOs) including churches, ministries and religious bodies; trusts; as well as foundations, charities or any other not-for-profit voluntary associations (Department of Social Development, 2001; Department of Social Development, 2011; Association for Non Profit Organisations SA, 2012). Additionally, PBOs are NPOs that The Christian Network (2012) describes as any South African organisation operating with the sole objective of providing public benefit activities in a non-profit manner, including Section 21 Companies, trusts or associations of persons. The public benefit activities that such NPOs might perform include culture and the arts; animal protection; economic, social and community development; land and housing; business and professional

associations; education; research; health care; sports; religion and belief; conservation and the environment; welfare and humanitarian; research and consumer rights; employment and training; and legal services (Department of Social Development, 2005; The Christian Network, 2012).

5.3.4 American NPOs

According to USA Corporate Services Inc. (2013), NPOs in the USA are formed to accomplish goals that exclude making money to be distributed to their members. Their purpose is therefore to conduct business that benefits the general public, without shareholders or a profit motive (HG Legal Resources, 2015). For this reason, any revenue acquired by NPOs in the USA must stay within corporate accounts in order to pay salaries or expenses (HG Legal Resources, 2015). This author notes that NPOs are given tax exemptions if they operate solely for charitable, scientific, religious, public safety, educational or literary purposes. For this reason, American NPOs are known as exempt organisations by the IRS, and can include limited liability companies; charities; NGOs; *Private Voluntary Organisations* (PVOs); non-stock corporations; CSOs; trusts formed for educational, religious, charitable or civic purposes; unincorporated associations; mutual benefit associations; political parties, trade associations; or voluntary associations (Hall, 2006; USA Corporate Services Inc., 2013; HG Legal Resources, 2015). Examples of NPOs in the USA include soup kitchens, business leagues, churches, museums, symphonies, political associations and sports leagues (HG Legal Resources, 2015). Public charities in the USA are in the majority (two-thirds of all American NPOs are charities), and they include those operating in arts and culture; humanities; education; health care; international and foreign affairs; religion; and human services (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014). The National Center for Charitable Statistics (2015) states that there are over 1.5 million tax-exempt organisations in the USA, including over one million public charities. However, the figure from Urban Institute (2012) is higher, with an estimated 2.3 million NPOs operating in the USA. These authors state that one NPO exists for every 175 Americans.

According to McKeever and Pettijohn (2014), in 2012 the non-profit sector contributed approximately \$887 billion to the American economy. Hrywna

(2013) notes that the GDP contribution of NPOs in the USA is 5.5 per cent compared to the growth of the overall economy of 4.4 per cent. Public charities alone reported over \$1.65 trillion in total revenues in 2012, with this income coming primarily from programme services such as government fees and contracts, as well as from products / goods sold, gifts, government grants, rental incomes, special events, and contributions such as bequests (The National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2015). In 2012, these charities also reported approximately \$3 trillion in total assets.

Of the USA's total paid workforce, 10.2 per cent works in the non-profit sector, with 7.7 per cent being paid and 2.5 per cent working as volunteers (Hrywna, 2013). Urban Institute (2012) claims that during the 2008 recession, employment in the non-profit sector increased, despite the overall number of employees in the USA economy declining during this period. While 71 per cent of NPO expenditure in American NPOs is spent on labour costs (Hrywna, 2013), labour from volunteers in 2010 was valued at \$283.84 billion, with over 62.8 million Americans volunteering in 2010. In 2013, more than a quarter of Americans volunteered in some form, contributing approximately 8.1 billion hours worth of work (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014).

It is evident that similarities exist from the above overview of NPOs across the four countries under study, with the most important being that all four countries have a strong, legislated non-profit sector that employs a healthy percentage of each country's workforce. This confirms that this was an appropriate sector for the present researcher to study within the context of Industrial and Organisational Psychology (IOP).

5.4 Three phases of sampling, data collection and analysis

As mentioned in Section 5.2, this empirical study was comprised of three phases of research. The researcher has chosen to discuss the specifics of each phase separately in the following subsections, for the purposes of clear differentiation between each.

5.4.1 Phase 1: Qualitative interviews

Phase 1 of this empirical study aimed to verify whether the constructs of intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit were relevant and understood by NPO employees, through the use of qualitative, in-depth interviews. These interviews aimed not only to provide foundational data needed to develop two measuring instruments to assess intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation, but also to provide insight into aspects influencing NPO employees' levels of work engagement and retention, which would assist in the interpretation and understanding of Phase 3's results. Research participants for Phase 1 were drawn from various NPOs within Belgium and SA.¹⁵ The researcher obtained data from 15 NPO employees in SA and ten NPO employees in Belgium; thus, 25 participants in total. This phase of the research can best be described as phenomenological in nature; that is, it aimed both to understand as well as interpret how participants give meaning to aspects of their working lives (Fouché, 2002).

5.4.1.1 Sampling technique for Phase 1

Non-probability sampling in the form of purposive and convenience sampling was used. Non-probability sampling does not ensure that all elements of a population have a chance of being selected to be a part of the sample, but was used for the purposes of convenience and economy (Welman et al., 2005). Purposive sampling entailed the researcher relying on her ingenuity, experience and/or previous research results in order to obtain units of analysis in such a manner that the sample obtained was as representative of the

¹⁵ This phase of the empirical study focused only on NPO employees working in these two countries, due to the fact that the researcher lives in SA (making personal interviews in this country possible), and also has a contact in Belgium who offered to assist with conducting the interviews on her behalf in this country. NPO employees from Australia and the USA were not interviewed because the researcher did not have personal contacts in these countries who would have been able to conduct the interviews on her behalf. While such a practicality hindered the researcher from collecting data from all four countries in Phase 1 of this study, it should be noted that Phase 3 did not experience the same limitations: as will be explained in Section 5.4.3 to come, data was collected electronically in Phase 3, which made it possible for the researcher to collect responses from Australians and Americans without the need to visit these countries herself.

population as possible (Welman et al., 2005). Specifically, the basis of the purposive sample was self-selection, with samples of cases presenting themselves to be studied (Horn, 2009) by means of voluntarily choosing to be interviewed by the researcher or her contact in Belgium (an academic specialising in non-profit management and who is well versed in qualitative research, who agreed to assist with data collection for the first phase of the study). Furthermore, the sample was convenient because in most cases, the researcher or her Belgian contact interviewed their personal contacts working within NPOs in SA or Belgium.

The researcher began by e-mailing her personal NPO contacts in SA to invite them to be interviewed by her. She additionally posted a Facebook request inviting any South African NPO employees to contact her if they were interested in being interviewed for this purpose. By these two means, the researcher finalised a list of employees from 15 diverse NPOs. Once this list was finalised, the researcher's contact in Belgium attempted as far as possible to "match" the sample in his country in terms of NPO categories represented, so that responses could be compared. Unfortunately only ten Belgian employees from nine NPOs were willing to sacrifice their time to be interviewed; thus, the researcher did not obtain an even distribution of NPO categories across the two cross-cultural samples. However, as stated by Coyne (1997), the size of a qualitative sample is large enough when it is evident that a certain theoretical saturation level has been reached. Therefore, a sample size of 25 NPO employees was deemed acceptable on the basis of the data obtained from the interviews. Moreover, since the process of interviewing is labourious, fewer participants are usually sampled compared to collecting quantitative data (Woods & West, 2010).¹⁶

¹⁶ This provides a certain degree of support for data only being collected in Phase 1 from two of the four countries focused on in Phase 3 of this study: that is, since the researcher obtained a theoretical saturation level in terms of the responses obtained from participants across Belgium and SA, it is possible that Australian and American NPO employees would have brought up similar responses to those obtained from NPO employees in the other two countries studied. That said, the researcher acknowledges that readers may deem this to be a limitation of the study, and hence this is included as a limitation in Chapter Eight of this thesis.

The following section details how the sample for Phase 1 of this study was distributed.

a) **Frequency distribution of the demographic variables of Phase 1 sample**

Table 5.1 provides the frequency distribution of five demographic variables measured in Phase 1 of this study, with a total sample size of 25 participants.

Table 5.1: Frequency distribution of demographic variables for Phase 1 sample

Demographic variable	Frequency	Percentage
Country		
Belgium	15	60%
SA	10	40%
Gender		
Male	8	32%
Female	17	68%
Education		
Matric / Grade 12	5	20%
Diploma / Higher education	3	12%
Bachelor degree	3	12%
Honours / BTech / Postgraduate diploma	5	20%
Masters' degree	7	28%
Doctorate	2	8%
Total number of years of working experience		
>1 to 10 years' experience	9	36%
11 to 20 years' experience	7	28%
21 to 30 years' experience	2	8%
31 to 40 years' experience	7	28%
Working experience specifically within the non-profit sector		
>1 to 5 years' experience	17	68%
6 to 10 years' experience	3	12%
11 to 17 years' experience	5	20%
Total	25	100%

It is evident that the sample for Phase 1 comprised of only one third males (32%), despite the desire to obtain an equal representation of genders. Twenty per cent of participants had completed Matric, with the same number having completed Honours, BTech or postgraduate diploma studies. The greatest

percentage of participants (28%) held Masters degrees. Participants' total number of years of working experience ranged from less than one year through to 40 years of experience. In terms of working experience specifically within the non-profit sector, participants ranged from less than one year to 17 years of experience.

A diverse range of positions were occupied by the participants sampled (not shown in Table 5.1). These included a fundraising events manager, senior conservation officer, clinical advisor, residential programme manager, pastoral care convener, administrative assistant, trauma counsellor, festival director, orchestra manager, social worker and deputy national director. The researcher notes that 20 of the participants' positions were administrative in nature; whereas five were strategic or managerial in nature.

b) Demographics of the sampled NPOs in Phase 1

There were 24 NPOs included in the first phase of sampling. The size of these organisations ranged from three to 500 employees. All of the NPOs from Belgium were classified as non-profit associations. Those from SA varied in terms of their NPO status, with Section 21 Non-Profit Companies, trusts, PBOs, NGOs and FBOs all being represented.

Each NPO was classified into one of ten NPO categories for comparative purposes, based on the categories mentioned in Section 5.3. Seven out of these ten NPO categories were represented by the NPOs under study in Phase 1, illustrated in Table 5.2. It is clear that half of the NPOs provide *welfare and humanitarian* assistance. Such assistance ranges from providing support to children with disabilities and their parents; holistic care for orphaned and displaced children; transporting sick children to get to their life-saving treatment; providing services to the elderly; caring for destitute adults; providing psycho-social support to cancer patients and their families; fulfilling the dreams of children with life-threatening diseases; advocating for the rights of children; and working with the poor to develop their talents and strengths. Four organisations (17%) operate in the *cultural* sphere, by means of theatre / socio-artistic groups; introducing children to the arts (such as drama, dance, crafts and music) by

means of an annual arts festival; and a music investment project that teaches music to children in disadvantaged areas. Three organisations (13%) provide *health care* services, in the form of medical terminal, holistic care to cancer patients; a permanent residency for psychiatric patients; and the provision of mentoring and technical assistance to the public health sector. The remaining organisations vary in their purpose, with core missions ranging from training the unemployed in artisanal trades; vaccinating livestock and looking after the health of animals; community-based environmental conservation and human capacity development; and making Jesus known to communities through the provision of church services.

Table 5.2: Frequency distribution of NPO categories for Phase 1 sample

Demographic variable	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Non-profit category in which respondents work</i>		
Animal Welfare	2	8%
Conservation and Environment	1	4%
Cultural Activities	4	17%
Education and Development	1	4%
Health Care	3	13%
Land and Housing	0	0%
Religion, Belief and Philosophy	1	4%
Research and Consumer Rights	0	0%
Sports	0	0%
Welfare and Humanitarian	12	50%
<i>Total</i>	<i>24</i>	<i>100%</i>

5.4.1.2 Data collection for Phase 1

Long interviews are recommended by Fouché (2002) as an appropriate means of collecting data when using the phenomenological approach to qualitative research that focuses on interpretive enquiry, since they are naturalistic in nature. Moreover, this author states that multiple individuals should be identified who have experienced the particular phenomena under study; in this case, non-profit employees who are paid to work and thus could comment on the extent to which they experience intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and an intention to quit.

For this reason, in-depth interviews were conducted with 25 Belgian and South African employees from 24 NPOs (since two employees were interviewed at one of the Belgian NPOs). The purpose of these interviews was to gain insight into the intrinsic rewards that employees gain from working in NPOs, as well as information concerning whether they currently feel engaged and intrinsically motivated in their jobs and whether they would consider leaving the employ of their organisations to work in government or the private sector. The use of in-depth interviews was therefore appropriate, due to the fact that thorough personal accounts of data were gathered; personal contexts were investigated; issues were explored in detail; and complex processes such as motivations had to be understood (Lewis & McNaughton Nicholls, 2014).

Prior to the start of each interview, information pertaining to the nature of the study was read to each participant by the interviewer (see Annexure D). This included information highlighting the confidentiality of the data collection and the rights of the participants. Thereafter, an interview consent form was willingly signed by every participant (provided as Annexure E). Once consent had been gained, a pre-determined list of questions was asked to all participants, to ensure standardisation and comparability of answers. This interview guide is included as Annexure F. The questions asked were developed based on literature relating to all four constructs under study, as discussed in the preceding literature chapters. However, it is important to note that the interviews were semi-structured in nature. In such interviews, researchers have a collection of pre-determined questions comprising an interview schedule; however, interviews are merely guided by such schedules as opposed to being dictated by them (Greeff, 2002). This allowed the researcher and her Belgian contact with opportunities to probe further where clarity was needed and ask participants for further information when required. As discussed by Greeff (2002, p. 302), semi-structured interviews give both the researcher as well as participants more flexibility, as the researcher is able to “follow up particular interesting avenues that emerge in the interview”, and participants are able to provide detailed pictures of their beliefs, perceptions or accounts pertaining to the topic.

The interviews ranged between 00:21:00 minutes and 01:44:00 hours in length depending on the depth of answers provided by the participants, as well as the amount of probing on the part of the interviewer. The researcher bore in mind the techniques and tips for effective interviews as well as communication techniques discussed by Greeff (2002, pp. 293-295) when interviewing participants. The interviews were recorded by means of Dictaphones so that they could be accurately transcribed (and in the case of the Belgian interviews, translated from Dutch to English). This ensured that everything said by participants could be noted and subsequently analysed so that the correct meanings and subtleties of participants' responses would be interpreted (Marchington & Wilkinson, 2008). This transcription was crucial in the data analysis process, to be explained to follow.

5.4.1.3 Qualitative data analysis for Phase 1

The process of thematic analysis was utilised to analyse the qualitative interviews. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis is a method to identify, analyse and report patterns of meaning (known as *themes*) that occur across a qualitative data set, in order to organise and describe it in "rich" detail. This method of analysis is foundational for qualitative analysis, and is more manageable than other qualitative approaches such as discourse analysis due to it not requiring a level of "detailed theoretical and technological knowledge" of such approaches (Braun & Clarke, 2006, pp. 79, 81). For this reason, it is appropriate for researchers who are early in their qualitative research careers, such as the researcher of the present study.

For the purposes of this study, thematic analysis served the purpose of reporting the "experience, meaning and the reality of participants", implying that it was used as an "essentialist or realist" method (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 81). Moreover, a substantive approach was chosen, as the focus was on capturing and construing meanings from the data, in this way being concerned with what was said within the text (Spencer, Ritchie, Ormston, O'Connor & Barnard, 2014). This is in line with the phenomenological qualitative strategy chosen for this phase, since Fouché (2002) states that such a strategy requires data to be systematically identified, followed by themes, meanings and general

descriptions of experiences being analysed within a specific context, such as the non-profit context of this study.

Additionally, the researcher notes that she focused on a theoretical (deductive) means of identifying data patterns, owing to being driven by specific theories pertaining to the research area, resulting in coding that related to specific research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The overall research question for this study (namely, “*do intrinsic rewards play a significant role in increasing the intrinsic motivation and work engagement levels, and reducing the intention to quit levels, of employees working within NPOs in Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA?*”) that drove the collection of data also drove the data analysis process. Each construct (namely, intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit) was investigated separately, after which the researcher attempted to draw links between the constructs in order to provide initial answers to the research question.

There are certain main steps that comprise the process of thematic analysis, as discussed in detail by Spencer, Ritchie, O’Connor, Morrell and Ormston (2014). The first step involved the researcher *familiarising* herself with the data. This process of familiarisation ensured that the labels to be developed in subsequent stages would be both grounded in and supported by the data (Spencer, Ritchie, Ormston, et al., 2014). The familiarisation stage began with the transcription of the verbal interview data that was collected (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The researcher organised an English-speaking student assistant to transcribe the verbal data from the South African interviews, and a retired Dutch-speaking lecturer from Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) to transcribe and translate the Belgian interviews from Dutch into English. The latter was necessary because of the researcher not speaking or understanding Dutch. A total of 588 pages of data was produced as a result of this verbatim transcription process.

Familiarisation thereafter included the researcher reading through a selected number of transcripts in order to record initial ideas and be immersed in the content. It was not possible or necessary to read all transcripts in this

familiarisation stage, as the number of interviews conducted resulted in a large number of pages requiring analysis. As noted by Spencer, Ritchie, O'Connor, et al. (2014), time constraints and the size of the study do not always permit a researcher to include the entire data set in the familiarisation process; and because the researcher was actively involved in the majority of the interviews conducted, she already held insight into the diversity of characteristics covered within the data.

In the second step of thematic analysis, the researcher *constructed an initial thematic framework* that served as a group of headings under which the experiences and views of participants could be organised (Spencer, Ritchie, Ormston, et al., 2014). This framework is included as Annexure G. According to Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 82), a theme “captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of *patterned* response or meaning within the data set.” The researcher developed descriptive themes and subthemes based on the questions that had been posed to participants in the semi-structured interview guide. This served as an overall structure for the data.

This thematic framework led into the third step of thematic analysis, which involved *indexing and sorting* the data in order to provide labels to sections of data that were judged by the researcher to be “about the same thing” (Spencer, Ritchie, Ormston, et al., 2014, p. 282). Owing to the researcher’s interviews being semi-structured in nature, the majority of the qualitative data was found to be relatively well-ordered, “forming neat thematic ‘piles’”, as predicted by Spencer, Ritchie, Ormston, et al. (2014, p. 282). In order to *index* the data, the researcher read each sentence and paragraph in detail, then made a decision concerning what subtheme from the thematic framework best matched that sentence or paragraph (Spencer, Ritchie, O'Connor, et al., 2014). This was written in the margin on the hard copy of the transcript, due to the fact that the qualitative data analysis was performed manually, not electronically. The researcher then summarised each participant’s data according to these subthemes, including quotations and direct summaries, in tabular format in Microsoft Word. This formed the *sorting* component of this thematic analytical

step, to enable the researcher to view responses pertaining to similar themes or content as a whole (Spencer, Ritchie, O'Connor, et al., 2014). This was useful especially for the questions relating to intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation, because it was found that participants made reference to various interlinking subthemes. At this stage, the researcher *generated initial codes* from the data, which served to identify content that appeared interesting and which could serve as “the basis of repeated patterns (themes) across the data set” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 89). As stated by these authors, codes differ from themes, which are usually broader and more interpretative in nature. The researcher found that certain individual extracts of data could indeed be fitted into numerous codes, as predicted by Braun and Clarke (2006), with some highly-relevant sections being coded numerous times, and other sections remaining uncoded.

The fourth step of thematic analysis entailed *reviewing the coherence of the data extracts* that had been produced, in order to amend labels and reapply them to the data (Spencer, Ritchie, Ormston, et al., 2014). This allowed the researcher to question the best way by which to organise the data. Thereafter, the researcher proceeded to the *abstraction and interpretation* phase of thematic analysis, in order to categorise and classify the data (Spencer, Ritchie, Ormston, et al., 2014). These authors explain that this begins with *describing* the data, by *developing categories* made up of analytic concepts, according to each theme. This involved the researcher reviewing all data extracts and summaries to determine the range of views or experiences that were referred to by participants for each theme. Following this, *linkages* could be *mapped* in order to conclude how differing aspects of the data were connected and associated (Spencer, Ritchie, Ormston, et al., 2014). This was particularly useful to gain provisional empirical confirmation of the linkages presented in the proposed theoretical model from Chapter Four.

5.4.2 Phase 2: Qualitative pilot study

Once the qualitative data from the interviews were analysed, the researcher was able to develop two measuring instruments to measure the intrinsic rewards received, as well as the intrinsic motivation experienced, by NPO

employees. This second phase of empirical research involved the development of these two measuring instruments, followed by gaining feedback on these instruments from academics and NPO employees.

The overarching themes discovered in Phase 1 (which will be described in Chapter Six) became the factors for each measuring instrument. The ***Intrinsic Work Rewards Scale (IWRS)*** is therefore comprised of five factors, namely:

1. *Meaningful Work*
2. *Flexible Work*
3. *Challenging Work*
4. *Varied Work*
5. *Enjoyable Work*

The ***Intrinsic Work Motivation Scale (IWMS)*** is comprised of three factors, namely:

1. *Personal Connection to One's Work*
2. *Personal Desire to Make a Difference*
3. *Personal Desire to Perform*

These two measuring instruments, together with ten demographic items, made up the pilot questionnaire that was tested in this phase. Items were developed that the researcher felt best measured the above-mentioned factors. In order to ensure that the measuring instruments had both a theoretical and empirical basis, these items were informed both by literature as well as data collected from the interviews. The following sub-sections detail the manner in which the pilot questionnaire was tested.

5.4.2.1 Sampling technique for Phase 2

The researcher once again relied on non-probability sampling in the form of purposive and convenience sampling for this phase of the study. The participants proofed the measuring instruments with the aim of the study in mind (Horn, 2009); as the focus of the questionnaire was on intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation. The basis of the purposive sample was self-selection, with the participants voluntarily choosing to assist in proofing the questionnaire.

Moreover, the sample was convenient because the researcher and her Belgian contact specifically asked their personal contacts to participate, whom they believed were best equipped to analyse the content and structure of the developed questionnaire critically, and provide honest feedback that would assist the researcher in improving the questionnaire prior to final distribution.

To pilot the English version of the questionnaire, the sample comprised of seven IOP / human resource academics as well as three NPO employees. The Dutch version was piloted on three NPO employees as well as six Dutch-speaking individuals from various industries. The process of collecting data from these participants will now be described.

5.4.2.2 Data collection for Phase 2

As mentioned, data was collected qualitatively in order to refine the initial questionnaire based on feedback from a small sample of respondents. A number of stages of questionnaire revision were followed:

- The researcher began by showing the developed English version of the questionnaire to her supervisor as well as her statistician. Based on their verbal feedback, minor changes were made to the structure of the items.
- The researcher's statistician recommended that before sending the questionnaire to NPO employees, academics first be consulted to provide feedback pertaining to the content validity of the questions. For this reason, ten academics from the School of Industrial Psychology and Human Resources at NMMU in Port Elizabeth, SA were contacted to request that they proof the questionnaire. A copy of the e-mail sent to them is included as Annexure H(1). This e-mail included an attachment with the questionnaire in Microsoft Word format, which allowed the participants to comment, track changes and highlight information needing changing. Owing to other deadlines and commitments, only four of these academics were initially able to take the time to review the questionnaire. An excellent standard of feedback was, however, received, resulting in the measuring instruments being edited accordingly.

- The English version was then distributed electronically to a sample of six NPO employees working within SA. Only three South African NPO employees responded with feedback. Minor changes were made based on their comments.
- This revised questionnaire was then re-sent to three academics that had not had time to provide feedback when initially e-mailed. All three academics responded with constructive feedback resulting in further questionnaire refinement, which produced the final English version of the pilot questionnaire.
- This refined, English version of the pilot questionnaire was e-mailed to the researcher's translator, who translated the items into Dutch, for the purpose of collecting data quantitatively in Belgium in Phase 3. As noted by Smith et al. (2006), researchers collecting data cross-culturally must ensure that their measures be understood comparably in every country under study. Owing to the primary language spoken in Belgium being Dutch, the researcher deemed it necessary to translate the two developed measuring instruments accurately into this language¹⁷.
- The Dutch version of the pilot questionnaire was distributed by means of the researcher's Belgian contact to ten NPO employees working within Belgium. A copy of the e-mail sent to these Belgian NPO employees is included as Annexure H(2). Unfortunately, only three Belgian NPO employees replied, despite a reminder e-mail being sent.
- In order to gain more feedback on the Dutch version of the questionnaire, the researcher posted a Facebook request asking for Dutch speaking individuals to contact her if they were interested in proof-reading the questionnaire for grammatical errors. As a result of this post, the researcher was able to forward the questionnaire to five Dutch-speaking individuals from various industries.

¹⁷ The researcher made the decision only to translate her questionnaire into Dutch for distribution in Belgium, as opposed to both Dutch and French, which are the two primary languages spoken in Belgium. Hofstede et al. (2010) found that both French and Dutch Belgians shared essentially the same characteristics since they obtained fairly similar scores for four of his cultural dimensions; that is, he discovered no regional differences between these language groups. This provides evidence for the researcher's questionnaire only being tested on one group of Belgian speakers.

- These eight Dutch-speakers were provided both with the English and Dutch versions of the questionnaire, in order to ascertain how well the Dutch items captured the meaning portrayed in each English item. All eight Dutch-speakers made grammatical suggestions for improving the questionnaire in order for Belgians to better comprehend the meaning of the items, resulting in a revised Dutch version. This ensured that the Dutch questionnaire was comprised of items with equivalent English meanings (see Smith et al., 2006).
- Finally, in order to follow the process of back translation, the researcher sent the revised version of the Dutch questionnaire to one final Dutch speaker, living in the Netherlands, who had not previously viewed the questionnaire in either language. According to Smith et al. (2006) back translation entails a translation being made from the initial language in which a test was originally developed (in this case, English), into the language spoken in a different society (in this case, Dutch) by a bilingual speaker. A second bilingual speaker is then asked “to translate the items back into the original language, without having seen the original version” (Smith et al., 2006, p. 18). Finally, the original version and the retranslated version are compared, in order to pick up on problematic translations. This final Dutch-speaking participant translated the questionnaire from Dutch into English as requested. As a result of this back-translation process, the researcher was able to make final minor changes to the Dutch version of the questionnaire.
- In addition to the above, one of the Dutch speakers who assisted in providing feedback on the pilot questionnaire also translated the Job Withdrawal Intention Scale (JWIS) that would serve to measure Intention to Quit, as well as the e-mail that would be sent to the Belgian NPO employees, from English into Dutch. There was no need to translate the UWES, since this instrument has already been translated from English into Dutch (see Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003).

Despite initial difficulties in gaining feedback on the English and Dutch pilot versions of the questionnaire, the researcher’s statistician confirmed that the pilot questionnaire methodology followed “meets the requirements for obtaining the desired end product, i.e. a questionnaire with sound validity with the probable potential to obtain reliable scores” (Venter, 2014, personal

communication). He noted that it is not crucial to obtain a particular number of individuals to provide qualitative feedback pertaining to the validity of a measuring instrument during a piloting process. Thus, the number of responses received was adequate for the purposes of this study.

5.4.2.3 Qualitative data analysis for Phase 2

The qualitative feedback received from participants was processed by the researcher, and changes were made to the English and Dutch versions of the questionnaire as a result. This feedback indicated to the researcher which items did not adequately assess the constructs being measured, thus signifying their need for removal, or which items required grammatical changes both in the English and Dutch versions of the questionnaire.

5.4.3 Phase 3: Quantitative final study

The third and final phase of the empirical study involved administering the final versions of the English and Dutch questionnaire (comprised of the IWRS and IWMS as well as demographic items), together with the UWES and JWIS to measure work engagement and intention to quit respectively, to form the composite questionnaire used to collect quantitative data. This phase of data collection was conducted in association with the Centre for Positive Organisations at the Stephen M. Ross School of Business, University of Michigan, USA. Chris White, the managing director of the Centre for Positive Organisations in the USA, provided written consent via e-mail for the researcher to mention the partnership between this Centre and NMMU's Unit for Positive Organisations, since the completion of this study falls under the latter Unit.

5.4.3.1 Sampling technique for Phase 3

Non-probability sampling in the form of convenience and purposive sampling was once again used for this phase of the research, together with snowball sampling. Snowball sampling occurs when a few individuals from the population who have been approached to partake in the study identify and inform other individuals from the same population for inclusion in the sample, until the sample size has been saturated (Welman et al., 2005). NPO employees that

the researcher had already been in contact with during Phase 1 of this research were once again contacted to take part in Phase 3, and the researcher requested that they pass on the e-mail sent to them to their NPO colleagues or other individuals they knew who were employed in the non-profit sectors of the four countries under study. In addition, the researcher searched for NPO employees and their e-mail addresses via Google using the Internet, and thereafter e-mailed them to request their participation in the research.

A sample of 587 NPO employees working within the four countries under study, namely Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA, was collected. Within Australia, 1303 employees from 46 NPOs were e-mailed, and 150 responses were received, generating a response rate of 11.5 per cent. Within Belgium, 929 employees were contacted across 44 different NPOs, and 101 responses were gained, indicating a response rate of 10.9 per cent. Within SA, 847 employees from 109 NPOs were contacted, and 192 responses were obtained, indicating a response rate of 22.7 per cent. Finally, 2177 employees from 72 NPOs were contacted within the USA, and 144 responses were gained, indicating a response rate of 6.6 per cent. In total, 5256 NPO employees were e-mailed across all four countries. Taking the final sample of 587 into account, it can be determined that the average response rate was 11.2 per cent. This indicates that the researcher dealt with a large number of non-responses from individuals whom she e-mailed from each country. While some individuals let the researcher know that they did not have the time to complete the questionnaire or that they were volunteers as opposed to paid NPO employees, the majority of individuals simply did not take any action on the researcher's e-mail. This will be indicated in Chapter Eight as a limitation to the study.

Table 5.3 illustrates the frequency distribution of the various demographic variables measured for Phase 3 of this study. The researcher draws attention to the fact that the sample size for *Education* is 584 as opposed to 587, due to the fact that three respondents indicated 'Other' for this demographic item. It is also worth noting that the category of 'Fundraising' was added to the non-profit categories, owing to six respondents indicating in the 'Other' option that this was the field in which they worked. Finally, a number of respondents listed

African languages such as Xhosa and Zulu in their responses to the 'Other' option for *Language*, which is why this language group was created.

Table 5.3: Frequency distribution of demographic variables for Phase 3 sample

Demographic variable	Frequency	Percentage
Country (n=587)		
Australia	150	26%
Belgium	101	17%
SA	192	33%
USA	144	24%
Gender (n=587)		
Male	166	28%
Female	421	72%
Age (n=587)		
18-27 years old	70	12%
28-37 years old	155	26%
38-47 years old	140	24%
48-57 years old	125	21%
58+ years old	97	17%
Language (n=587)		
English	445	76%
Dutch	89	15%
French	9	2%
Afrikaans	24	4%
African	20	3%
Education (n=584)		
Less than Matric / Grade 12 / Final year of school	13	2%
Completed Matric / Grade 12 / Final year of school	36	6%
Certificate / Diploma	68	12%
Bachelor degree	189	32%
BTech / Postgraduate diploma	27	5%
Honours' degree	40	7%
Masters' degree	184	32%
Doctoral degree	27	5%
Marital status (n=587)		
Married	342	58%
Living with partner	68	12%

Divorced / Separated	57	10%
Widow / Widower	9	2%
Never married	111	19%
<i>Non-profit category in which respondents work (n=587)</i>		
Animal Welfare	6	1%
Conservation and Environment	26	4%
Cultural Activities	4	1%
Education and Development	118	20%
Health Care	123	21%
Land and Housing	8	1%
Religion, Belief and Philosophy	28	5%
Research and Consumer Rights	5	1%
Sports	4	1%
Welfare and Humanitarian	238	41%
Fundraising	6	1%
Other	21	4%
<i>Job level (n=587)</i>		
Managerial / Supervisory	318	54%
Professional	178	30%
Administrative / Clerical / Office work	62	11%
Operational / Technical	19	3%
Other	10	2%
<i>Total</i>	<i>587</i>	<i>100%</i>

It is apparent from the above table that the majority of the sample was female (72%), spoke English as a primary language (76%), was married (58%), worked as managers or supervisors (54%), and worked either in the NPO fields of Education and Development (20%), Health Care (21%) or Welfare and Humanitarian (41%). Half of the sample (49%) possessed some form of postgraduate diploma or degree. A relatively equal distribution was gathered across the four countries under study, as well as the five age categories.

There was a diverse range of positions occupied by the respondents, who were asked to list their job title in response to an open-ended question in the demographic section of the questionnaire (not shown in Table 5.3). The positions of respondents included, amongst others: secretaries, executive and departmental directors, general specialist managers, presidents and chief executive officers, coordinators, programme officers, and social workers.

5.4.3.2 Data collection for Phase 3

In the third phase of this empirical study, data was collected by means of administering the final composite questionnaire to employees working within NPOs in Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA. An electronic questionnaire method was utilised due to the fact that data needed to be gathered in four geographically dispersed countries, making the questionnaire accessible to respondents situated outside of the researcher's home town. Electronic distribution of questionnaires was therefore the most convenient and cost effective manner of collecting data. The questionnaire was designed using the NMMU Web Survey tool, which allows NMMU staff to design and analyse questionnaires online. The e-mails that were sent stated the purpose of the research and served as the cover letter for the questionnaire. An example of the e-mail distributed is included as Annexure I. Annexure I(1) provides the English version of the e-mail sent to Australian, South African and American NPO employees, and Annexure I(2) provides the Dutch version of the e-mail sent to Belgian NPO employees. Annexure J provides the consent form that was attached to each e-mail. Respondents were invited to click on a Web link provided both in the e-mail and the consent form, which took respondents directly to the researcher's questionnaire. The NMMU Web Survey tool generated the questionnaire link so that respondents could complete the questionnaire online. This tool, apart from aiding in the questionnaire design, also captured the responses of those completing the questionnaire in an electronic database, which was exported to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet upon the questionnaire being closed.

Of the 587 respondents in the total sample, only 89 Belgians completed the Dutch version of the questionnaire. The English version was completed by 498 respondents, with all Australians, South Africans and Americans completing this version, together with 12 Belgians who asked to complete the English instead of the Dutch version.

A number of measuring instruments made up the structured composite questionnaire that was distributed to the final sample in order to meet the empirical objectives of this study. These included the following:

a) ***Intrinsic Work Rewards Scale***

Before discussing the IWRS, it is necessary briefly to discuss why the researcher needed to develop her own intrinsic rewards measuring instrument. Two measuring instruments currently exist that measure intrinsic rewards, namely the Work Engagement Profile (WEP; see Thomas, 2009a) and to a lesser extent, the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS; see Hackman & Oldham, 1980), since the latter deals with job design. The WEP measures four intrinsic rewards that are said to provide positive boosts of energy directly from one's work, which then motivate and engage employees to keep performing their best (Thomas & Tymon Jr, 2010). These intrinsic rewards are a sense of meaningfulness, a sense of choice, a sense of competence, and a sense of progress. Overall scores from the WEP indicate to what extent employees gain energy and satisfaction from their work (Thomas & Tymon Jr, 2010). The present researcher notes, however, that while a sense of choice is similar to *Flexible Work*, and a sense of meaningfulness is similar to *Meaningful Work*, this instrument does not measure the extent to which employees' work is challenging, varied or enjoyable as a whole, which are factors that emerged from Phase 1 of the present empirical study (to be discussed in Chapter Six) as relevant to the NPO context in which her sample works. Moreover, a sense of competence stems from feedback provided to employees from management and/or mentors, and a sense of progress comes from developing collaborative relationships, having access to customers, and celebrating milestones at work (Thomas & Tymon Jr, 2010). These work aspects are not classified by the researcher as being intrinsic in nature, as was discussed in Chapter Two, which rendered this instrument not applicable for use in the present study.

With regards to the JDS, Hackman and Oldham (1980) state that this instrument should be used as one part of a multiple-method organisational diagnosis, as a means of diagnosing existing jobs with regards to their design. The instrument measures the five elements of the JCM elaborated on in Chapter Two, namely skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). The present researcher notes that while skill variety encompasses one part of *Varied Work*, task identity and significance are similar in definition to *Meaningful Work*, and autonomy is one

aspect of *Flexible Work*, this instrument does not explicitly measure the extent to which one's job is challenging or enjoyable. In addition, job feedback measured by the JDS was discussed in Chapter Two to be an extrinsic, non-financial reward. The JDS also measures two variables not covered in the JCM, namely feedback received on one's performance from supervisors and co-workers, as well as the extent to which a job requires employees to work closely with other individuals (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), both factors that are clearly extrinsic, non-financial in nature. For these reasons, the JDS is not an appropriate instrument with which to measure intrinsic rewards. Since it was established that no appropriate instrument currently exists that measures the intrinsic rewards deemed relevant to the NPO context, based on theory as well as the qualitative data obtained from Phase 1 of this empirical study, the researcher developed the IWRS to overcome this gap.

The five factors of the IWRS are *Meaningful Work*, *Flexible Work*, *Challenging Work*, *Varied Work*, and *Enjoyable Work*, which together make up a 32-item instrument. *Meaningful Work* is measured by eight items that determine the extent to which employees find their work to make a positive impact in the lives of others or in society at large. *Meaningful Work* is measured by items 1, 6, 9, 12, 14, 19, 22 and 30 in the IWRS, including one negatively phrased item. An example of an item for this factor is "*I can see the bigger picture into which my work fits*". *Flexible Work* is measured by means of six items that evaluate to what extent an employee's work is designed in a manner that allows him or her to make decisions and control his or her own agenda and schedule at work. The items evaluating this factor are items 2, 7, 13, 17, 23 and 29, including two negatively phrased items, with an example being "*My job provides me with opportunities to make my own decisions*". *Challenging Work* uses six items to assess whether employees view their work as providing opportunities for personal growth and stimulation. Items 3, 10, 15, 21, 27 and 28 assess this factor, including one negatively phrased item. "*I frequently have the opportunity to learn new things when I am at work*" is an example of one of the items for this factor. *Varied Work* examines the extent to which work is diverse and comprised of assorted activities, using six items including "*I have a variety of tasks to focus on within my job*". Items 5, 8, 18, 20, 25 and 31 in the IWRS

examine this factor, including two negatively phrased items. Finally, *Enjoyable Work* uses six items to measure how personally satisfying and pleasurable an employee's work is, including items 4, 11, 16, 24, 26 and 32 with one negatively phrased item. An example item is, "*I love the nature of my job tasks*".

Each of the four measuring instruments in this study made use of a Likert scale for responses, which is a summated attitude scale consisting of a number of statements regarding attitudinal objects to which respondents can agree or disagree (Welman et al., 2005). According to the researcher's statistician, a 5-point Likert scale is the best choice both from a statistical and respondent perspective, due to the fact that "a shorter scale is too crude for accurate measurement, whilst a longer scale makes it more difficult to choose the appropriate response value" (Venter, 2014). For this reason, the researcher used a 5-point Likert scale both for the IWRS as well as the IWMS, ranging from '1' (Strongly Disagree) to '5' (Strongly Agree).

Macnab (2014) made use of the IWRS as part of her treatise research in fulfillment of her Honours degree in IOP at NMMU. The present researcher was her supervisor, and supported her use of the IWRS since it tested this newly-developed instrument on a non-NPO sample, thus providing support for its reliability. Macnab (2014) used a sample of South African quantity surveyors for her study and obtained an overall Cronbach's alpha value of 0.87 for the IWRS, which improved to 0.91 after the removal of four negatively phrased items from the subscales of *Flexible Work* (items 7 and 29) and *Varied Work* (items 18 and 31). This provides provisional support for this instrument's reliability. This overall Cronbach's alpha value, together with the alpha values for each factor, are shown in Table 5.4. The abbreviations for each IWRS factor as will be used in the discussion of results for the present study are included in brackets in the first column.

Table 5.4: Cronbach's alpha values for IWRS obtained by Macnab (2014)

Factor	Cronbach's alpha values (<i>after removal of items mentioned above</i>)
Meaningful Work (F1.M)	0.77
Flexible Work (F1.F)	0.79
Challenging Work (F1.C)	0.80
Varied Work (F1.V)	0.77
Enjoyable Work (F1.E)	0.71
Total IWRS (F1.T)	0.91

b) Intrinsic Work Motivation Scale

Before discussing the IWMS, it is necessary for the researcher briefly to explain why she needed to develop her own intrinsic motivation measuring instrument. Pinder (2008, p. 38) notes that the existence of motivating forces must be inferred from effort being observed, or by asking individuals "what is going on inside them". The researcher notes that this can be done through experiments and questionnaires, respectively. Numerous studies have investigated intrinsic motivation by means of experiments as opposed to quantitative questionnaires (see for example, Deci, 1971; 1972). However, it was difficult for the researcher to locate an appropriate questionnaire with which to measure intrinsic motivation quantitatively. The instruments that are available to measure intrinsic motivation are Warr et al.'s (1979) intrinsic job motivation scale; Wright's (2001) work motivation measure (cited in Wright & Rohrbaugh, 2001); the Work Preference Inventory (WPI; see Amabile, Hill, Hennessey & Tighe, 1994); and the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI; see Self Determination Theory, n.d.). With regards to Warr et al.'s (1979) intrinsic job motivation scale, these authors define intrinsic job motivation as the extent to which employees want to work in their jobs in order to obtain intrinsic satisfaction. The items of this scale focus more on aspects relating to personal satisfaction, self-esteem, happiness and pride than intrinsic motivation. This scale was thus not applicable for the present study. A second alternative was Wright's (2001) work motivation measure, which was cited in Wright and Rohrbaugh (2001) and has been tested in the South African context by Nujjoo and Meyer (2012). However, the items included in this measure are related more to work engagement than intrinsic motivation, since they focus on aspects relating to two dimensions of

work engagement, namely dedication (such as putting in extra effort at work), as well as absorption (such as being involved in one's job and time not dragging at work). For this reason, it was decided not to use this instrument for the present study.

More relevant to intrinsic motivation is the WPI, which directly evaluates individual differences with regards both to intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations (Amabile et al., 1994). A working adult version is available. These authors state that this instrument measures the major elements of intrinsic motivation, including self-determination, competence, task involvement, curiosity, enjoyment and interest. While the present researcher notes that certain items relate to employees having a personal desire to achieve goals at work, this inventory lacks items assessing whether employees are personally connected to their work or have a personal desire to make a difference through their work, which are aspects of intrinsic motivation that emerged from Phase 1 of the present empirical study (to be discussed in Chapter Six) to be relevant to the researcher's NPO sample. Moreover, the majority of WPI items seem to measure intrinsic rewards rather than intrinsic motivation, in the sense that they assess the desire of employees to perform work that is challenging, enjoyable and varied, as opposed to measuring what motivates employees from within themselves to perform their work. For these reasons, the researcher did not deem this instrument to be applicable for use on the present sample.

Finally, the IMI is an instrument that was designed to assess participants' subjective experiences after having completed activities in laboratory experiments (Self Determination Theory, n.d.). It has various subscales, including interest / enjoyment, perceived competence, effort / importance, pressure / tension, value / usefulness, perceived choice and relatedness (Self Determination Theory, n.d.). This inventory has been adapted for use in a number of settings, including sport (see, for example, McAuley, Duncan & Tammem, 1989) and education (see, for example, Leng, Zah, Baki & Mahmud, 2010). Markland and Hardy (1997, p. 21), however, discuss the development of the IMI but come to the conclusion that its origins "are somewhat shrouded in mystery", since early studies by Ryan (for example, Ryan, 1982; Plant &

Ryan, 1985) that are commonly cited as being the first to utilise the IMI do not actually make any mention of the inventory. This made it difficult for the present researcher to trace the history of this instrument, apart from knowing that it stems from CET (Deci, 1972, discussed in Chapter Two). Markland and Hardy (1997) further highlight that there is weak evidence for the validity and reliability of the IMI, given its contentious theoretical grounding. Moreover, only the interest / enjoyment subscale of the IMI actually measures intrinsic motivation, with the other subscales being either predictors of intrinsic motivation or separate variables altogether, according to Self Determination Theory (n.d.). Finally, the researcher highlights that the IMI items focus on individuals' responses to specific tasks or activities, as opposed to an internal desire possessed to do one's work. The IMI was therefore also rejected for use in the present study.

For these reasons, the researcher developed her own measuring instrument to assess intrinsic motivation, termed the IWMS, based on theory as well as information obtained in Phase 1 of this study, so that the items measuring intrinsic motivation would be particularly relevant to NPO employees.

The IWMS is comprised of 21 items and three subscales, namely *Personal Connection to One's Work*, *Personal Desire to Make a Difference*, and *Personal Desire to Perform*. *Personal Connection to One's Work* is measured by means of nine items that evaluate to what extent an employee is emotionally connected to, and passionate about, his or her work. The items evaluating this factor are items 1, 4, 5, 8, 11, 15, 16, 19 and 20, including two negatively phrased items, with an example being "*My personal passion is aligned with my job's core purpose*". *Personal Desire to Make a Difference* examines whether employees long to uplift the lives of others through their work and work for the good of others, using six items including "*I feel a sense of responsibility to make a difference through my work*". Items 2, 7, 9, 12, 13 and 18 in the IWMS examine this factor, including two negatively phrased items. Finally, *Personal Desire to Perform* is measured by six items that assess the extent to which employees are driven internally to achieve at work and perform to the best of their abilities. This factor is measured by items 3, 6, 10, 14, 17 and 21, including one

negatively phrased item. An example of an item is “*I am driven from within myself to perform well*”.

After gaining permission from the present researcher, Hooper (2014) made use of the IWMS in her treatise research in fulfillment of her Honours degree in IOP at NMMU. Using a sample of employees from the South African logistics industry, Hooper (2014) obtained an overall Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.82 for the IWMS after the removal of two negatively phrased items from the subscales of *Personal Connection to One’s Work* (item 16) and *Personal Desire to Make a Difference* (item 7). Her overall alpha value, together with the alpha values for each factor, are shown in Table 5.5. The abbreviations for each IWMS factor as will be used in the discussion of results for the present study are included in brackets in the first column.

Table 5.5: Cronbach’s alpha values for IWRS obtained by Hooper (2014)

Factor	Cronbach’s alpha values (<i>after removal of items mentioned above</i>)
Personal Connection to One’s Work (F2.C)	0.77
Personal Desire to Make a Difference (F2.D)	0.64
Personal Desire to Perform (F2.P)	0.77
Total IWMS (F2.T)	0.82

c) Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

The UWES, a self-report questionnaire, was used to measure work engagement (Schaufeli, Salanova et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The UWES is based on Schaufeli, Salanova et al.’s (2002) definition of work engagement (discussed in Section 3.2) and is comprised of three factors, namely *Absorption*, *Dedication* and *Vigour*. *Absorption* is characterised by employees being happily engrossed and immersed in their work, thus finding it difficult to detach from their work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). This is measured by six items, with an example being “*Time flies when I’m working*”. Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) explain that *Dedication* refers to employees feeling proud and enthusiastic about their jobs as well as challenged and inspired by their

work. One of the five items measuring this factor is, *“I am enthusiastic about my job”*. Finally, *Vigour* describes employees who are willing to invest effort at work and persist despite difficulties, owing to their high levels of energy and resilience (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Six items measure this factor, such as *“At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well”*.

The researcher made use of the Dutch version of the UWES for the purposes of this study (see Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). A 7-point Likert scale is used to measure responses, ranging from ‘0’ (Never; if respondents have never experienced that feeling at work) to ‘6’ (Always; if respondents experience that feeling every day).

The UWES has been tested in all four countries under study, as was summarised in Table 3.1 in Chapter Three. To highlight the studies of Du Plooy and Roodt (2010), Stander and Rothmann (2010), Rothmann and Rothmann Jr (2010) and Harris (2012), the Cronbach’s alpha values obtained for the UWES from these studies were 0.952, 0.94, 0.65 and 0.919 respectively. In addition, a more recent study by Jacobs et al. (2014) tested the UWES amongst South African retail employees, and obtained an overall Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.82 for the instrument, with no items needing to be removed in order to increase reliability. This value as well as the alpha values for the UWES factors from this study are indicated in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6: Cronbach’s alpha values for UWES obtained by Jacobs et al. (2014)

Factor	Cronbach’s alpha values
Absorption (F3.A)	0.77
Dedication (F3.D)	0.82
Vigour (F3.V)	0.73
Total UWES (F3.T)	0.82

With regards to validity, Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) state that the UWES has factorial validity due to the fact that confirmatory factor analyses have indicated that the three-factor structure is superior to a one-factor model. These authors highlight that the three factors have also been shown to correlate with one

another, which the researcher notes supports the instrument's construct validity.

d) Job Withdrawal Intention Scale

Cohen's (1993) three-item JWIS was used to measure intention to quit, the items of which were developed based on Mobley et al.'s (1979) understanding of the construct. An example of an item is, "I think a lot about leaving the organisation". This instrument does not have subscales and is thus analysed as one factor. Respondents indicated their responses to the items using a five-point Likert scale ranging from '1' (Strongly Disagree) to '5' (Strongly Agree). The Cronbach's alpha values for four studies that have previously made use of this instrument are provided in Table 5.7. It is apparent that the average Cronbach's alpha value for this instrument from these four studies is 0.89. The JWIS will be abbreviated to 'F4' when results for the present study are referred to.

Table 5.7: Cronbach's alpha values for JWIS obtained by Cohen (1993), Schlechter (2005), Kahumuza and Schlechter (2008) and Munyaka (2012)

Study using JWIS (F4)	Cronbach's alpha values
Cohen (1993)	0.86
Schlechter (2005)	0.91
Kahumuza and Schlechter (2008)	0.90
Munyaka (2012)	0.89
Average alpha value	0.89

5.4.3.3 Quantitative data analysis for Phase 3

The data analysis for Phase 3 of this study was performed with the assistance of a statistician from the Unit for Statistical Consultation at NMMU. Data processing and analysis was performed by means of descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. A statistical programme designed by the researcher's statistician using Visual Basic for Applications (VBA) in Microsoft Excel, together with the statistical packages Statistica version 12.0, SPSS version 22 and Amos version 22, were utilised for this purpose.

Descriptive statistics assist behavioural and social scientists in summarising and describing a collection of numbers from a research study in order to make them more understandable (Aron, Aron & Coups, 2008). The descriptive statistics for this investigation are presented in the form of frequency distribution tables as well as measures of central tendency and dispersion (through mean values and standard deviations), in order to display trends observed in the data.

Inferential statistics, on the other hand, are the methods used by behavioural and social scientists to move from the results of a research study to conclusions and inferences regarding applied procedures or theories, particularly through the use of probabilities (Aron et al., 2008). The first inferential statistical analysis applied in this study was item analysis, which examined each item in the four measuring instruments to determine whether they served the purposes for which they were developed (Foxcroft, 2008). Item analysis evaluates the characteristics of each item, which guides item selection and decides how best to organise the measure's items (Foxcroft, 2008). The coefficient alpha, or Cronbach's alpha, was calculated in this regard. Cronbach's alpha is a form of internal consistency reliability that assesses whether all items in an instrument consistently refer to the dimension that it is supposed to be measuring (Woods & West, 2010). This statistic calculates the "average of all possible split-half coefficients resulting from different ways of splitting the scale items" and thus assesses "the reliability of a summated scale where several items are summed to form a total score" (Malhotra, 2010, p. 319).

The researcher made use of factor analysis to determine the underlying structure of the responses to three of the measuring instruments used for this study. According to Smith et al. (2006, p. 276), factor analysis indicates to what extent items in a measuring instrument receive similar responses, and as such can "be grouped together as 'factors' tapping the same underlying construct". Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted with the aim of extracting higher order factors from the IWRS and IWMS that were developed. According to Malhotra (2010), EFAs do not require any specifications of correlations amongst a set of variables, since the underlying structure is revealed by the data itself. The EFAs made use of a principal component extraction method.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was thereafter conducted to confirm the factors in the IWRS, IWMS as well as the UWES. As noted by Malhotra (2010), EFA results are useful since they lead to proposed measurement models that can be tested by means of CFAs. Factor analysis was not conducted for the JWIS, as this scale has three items and no subscales, thus having no factors to extract.

Pearson's Product Moment Correlations were calculated to investigate the relationships between the four constructs under study, the factors comprising each measuring instrument, and respondents' levels of salary satisfaction. The purpose of these correlations was to summarise the strength of association between two metric variables, by indicating the degree to which the variation in one variable is related to the variation in another variable (Malhotra, 2010).

The chi-square statistic was utilised to determine statistical differences between the four countries under study and a number of demographic variables, including gender, age, language, education, marital status, non-profit category and job level, as well as differences across countries for the degree to which respondents were satisfied with their salaries. This statistic tests the statistical significance of observed associations in cross-tabulations in order to determine whether systematic associations exist between two variables (Malhotra, 2010). The 0.05 level of significance was used to determine whether the differences observed were due to chance or could be considered as statistically significant (Aamodt, 2010). Cramer's *V* was calculated when statistically significant differences were found, in order to evaluate whether practical significance existed. Such practical significance determined the effect size, which provides strength for the results found (Aamodt, 2010).

To examine the differences between genders, age groups, countries, education levels, marital statuses, non-profit categories as well as job levels with regard to mean factor scores for the IWRS, IWMS and UWES and their factors, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used. A multivariate statistical test involves more than one criterion or outcome variable (Aron et al., 2008). Thus, MANOVA techniques make use of two or more metric dependent

variables to determine differences between groups (Malhotra, 2010). In addition, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to assess the statistical significance of differences among the above-mentioned demographic variables for the IWRS, IWMS and UWES and their factors; the JWIS; as well as respondents' levels of salary satisfaction. ANOVA is a statistical technique that examines differences among means for two or more populations (Malhotra, 2010). Venter (2015) notes that one-way ANOVAs are conducted per construct dimension in order to test whether significant differences occur between demographic variables regardless of the effect of other independent variables. Post-hoc Scheffé's tests were conducted to determine the statistical significance of differences that were discovered. This was followed by Cohen's *d* statistic being calculated where statistically significant differences were found, in order to determine practical significance, or the size of the effect of the differences found (Aamodt, 2010).

SEM was finally conducted to assess the relationships among the set of variables used in the theoretical model proposed in Chapter Four. SEM is a multivariate technique combining aspects of multiple regression and factor analysis to estimate a series of interrelated dependence relationships simultaneously (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). In other words, SEM tests the complex set of relationships between a number of different variables, which will allow the researcher to comprehend her theory diagrammatically and assess whether her data fits with her proposed theory (Woods & West, 2010).

In analysing the results of this study across four different countries, it is necessary to highlight the assumption that the employees working within each country will interpret their environment in a manner consistent with the cultural dimensions discussed in Section 1.2.3, thus acknowledging that an interplay exists between the cultures of different countries and the employees that have been socialised within them. This is known as cultural orientation (Smith et al., 2006). However, as noted by these authors, nations can only be viewed as cultures if evidence exists of their members interpreting events in similar ways. This study will attempt to shed light on the homogeneity of the countries under study by interpreting the results across each country and determining to what

extent consensus exists with regards to intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit. Nonetheless, the results of this study will still be discussed as 'citizen means'; that is, averages across the individuals of a country, representing the psychological level of analysis (Smith et al., 2006).

5.5 Reliability and validity of the study

A number of measures were taken to improve the study's reliability and validity. Firstly, the reliability and validity of the literature study was improved by choosing models from the literature study that support its objectives, and giving conceptual descriptions of the concepts that are relevant to this research. Literature was collected through a standardised and systematic procedure, and the original works of the various theorists in question were reviewed. Secondly, the reliability and validity of the empirical study were improved in a number of ways. Data from a representative sample was obtained that was adequate to support practical significance, given the primarily descriptive nature of the study. Valid and reliable interpretation of results will take place in Chapter Six, by making use of statistical analysis supported by standardised techniques.

In addition, two instruments were used that have already been employed by previous researchers to measure work engagement and intention to quit (the UWES and JWIS, respectively). They have therefore already undergone previous research proving their reliability and validity. However, Smith et al. (2006) note that researchers must collect evidence that instruments maintain reliability and validity in every new cultural context in which they are used. Thus, the researcher calculated Cronbach's alpha values for these two instruments, to determine the internal consistency of these instruments across the four countries under study. Importantly, the researcher also needed to prove the reliability and validity of her two newly developed scales, the IWRS and IWMS. In particular, the researcher needed to establish whether the Dutch versions of these scales maintained reliability and validity despite being translated into another language. As noted by Smith et al. (2006, p. 19), "once a satisfactory translation of items to be included in a questionnaire has been accomplished, it is next necessary to determine whether responses to the separate items

defining a scale correlate together in the same way as they did in the original language”. The reliability and validity of these four instruments will now be addressed.

5.5.1 Reliability

In order to evaluate how accurate the scores from an instrument are, the amount of error in the measurement needs to be estimated and quantified (Woods & West, 2010). This is the purpose of reliability testing. Reliability refers to how consistent or dependable a measure is in assessing a certain characteristic (Phillips & Gully, 2012). Measures that are reliable will show a consistent pattern of responses to “items that measure the same quality” (Smith et al., 2006, p. 19). That is, responses to separate items comprising an instrument should consistently correlate with one another in order to demonstrate inter-item consistency (Smith et al., 2006). Cronbach’s alpha was calculated for this study as a measure of internal consistency reliability, as mentioned in the previous section. Table 5.8 provides the appropriate intervals for interpreting Cronbach’s alpha values according to Venter (2015, personal communication).

Table 5.8: Interpretation intervals for Cronbach’s alpha values

Alpha interval	Interpretation
< 0.50	Unacceptable
0.50 - 0.59	Poor
0.60 - 0.69	Acceptable
0.70 - 0.79	Good
0.80 +	Excellent

Table 5.9 displays the Cronbach’s alpha values for the present study’s four measuring instruments and their factors. It is important to highlight that the Cronbach’s alpha values for the English (Questionnaire: 1, n=498) and Dutch (Questionnaire: 2, n=89) versions of each measuring instrument were calculated separately, and alpha values were also calculated for the entire sample through analysing the English and Dutch samples as one data set (n=587).

Table 5.9: Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the factors by questionnaire group

Factor	Initial alphas			Items Omitted	Final alphas		
	Entire (n = 587)	Qnaire: 1 (n = 498)	Qnaire: 2 (n = 89)		Entire (n = 587)	Qnaire: 1 (n = 498)	Qnaire: 2 (n = 89)
F1.M	0.66	0.67	0.66	12	0.82	0.82	0.80
F1.F	0.22	0.22	0.06	7, 29	0.75	0.75	0.70
F1.C	0.51	0.49	0.62	27	0.81	0.80	0.85
F1.V	0.21	0.24	-0.14	18, 31	0.80	0.81	0.75
F1.E	0.66	0.67	0.57	24	0.91	0.91	0.91
F1.T	0.83	0.83	0.81	-	0.87	0.88	0.87
F2.C	0.53	0.53	0.41	5, 16	0.86	0.86	0.83
F2.D	0.17	0.20	-0.16	7, 12, 13	0.70	0.70	0.65
F2.P	0.47	0.47	0.36	14	0.71	0.70	0.70
F2.T	0.79	0.79	0.74	-	0.85	0.84	0.88
F3.A	0.82	0.82	0.80	-	0.82	0.82	0.80
F3.D	0.88	0.88	0.90	-	0.88	0.88	0.90
F3.V	0.84	0.84	0.81	-	0.84	0.84	0.81
F3.T	0.91	0.91	0.91	-	0.91	0.91	0.91
F4	0.91	0.91	0.93	-	0.91	0.91	0.93

It is apparent from this table that items needed to be removed from both the IWRS and IWMS in order for the Cronbach's alpha values to improve. With regards to the IWRS, the overall Cronbach's alpha values for the entire sample as well as the English and Dutch versions of the instrument improved by removing items 7, 12, 18, 24, 27, 29 and 31, which resulted in a 25-item instrument. Interestingly, these items were all the negatively phrased items included in this instrument. Thus, despite IOP academics emphasising the need for negatively phrased items in the instrument's development phase (as will be described in Section 6.3.1.1 of the next chapter), these items brought down the internal consistency of this instrument. The final Cronbach's alpha values for the English and Dutch versions of the IWRS as well as the sample as a whole were above 0.80, which are excellent values according to Table 5.8. Comparing the alpha values of the English version of the IWRS with Macnab's (2014) values provided in Table 5.4, it is apparent that the present study obtained higher Cronbach's alpha values for *Meaningful Work*, *Varied Work*, *Enjoyable Work* and *Total IWRS*. The present study obtained a lower Cronbach's alpha

value for *Flexible Work*, but matched Macnab's (2014) alpha value for *Challenging Work*.

With regards to the IWMS, a similar situation occurred, whereby removing items 5, 7, 12, 13, 14 and 16 improved the Cronbach's alpha values for the entire sample as well as the English and Dutch versions of the instrument, resulting in a 15-item instrument. This eradicated all negatively phrased items from this instrument, as well as one positively phrased item. The final overall Cronbach's alpha for the English and Dutch versions of the instrument were both above 0.80, which can be described as excellent according to Table 5.8. Comparing the alpha values of the English version of the IWMS with Hooper's (2014) values provided in Table 5.5, it is evident that the present study obtained higher Cronbach's alpha values for *Personal connection to one's work*, *Personal desire to make a difference* and *Total IWMS*. The present study obtained a lower Cronbach's alpha value for *Personal desire to perform*.

Regarding the UWES and the JWIS, there was no need to remove items in order to improve their reliability. This is to be expected, since these are established instruments that have been used in numerous studies globally since their development. The present study obtained overall Cronbach's alpha values that were above 0.80 for the entire sample as well as the English and Dutch versions of the UWES, which are excellent values. The same can be said for the JWIS. Analysing the English version of the factors of the UWES from the present study in comparison to the alpha values obtained by Jacobs et al. (2014) in Table 5.6, it is apparent that the present study obtained higher Cronbach's alpha values for all three factors (*Absorption*, *Dedication* and *Vigour*) as well as the *Total UWES*. With regards to the JWIS, the alpha value for the English version of this instrument matched with that of Schlechter (2005), and was higher than the values obtained by Cohen (1993), Kahumuza and Schlechter (2008), and Munyaka (2012), as provided in Table 5.7.

5.5.2 Validity

The validity of a measure indicates how well it assesses a particular construct in terms of measuring the attributes that it was designed to measure, as well as

the degree to which specific predictions or conclusions can be made based on the observed scores from a measure (Smith et al., 2006; Phillips & Gully, 2012). According to Smith et al. (2006), the correct replication of research studies is imperative in order to confirm the validity of such studies. For this reason, the researcher collected data only from paid non-profit employees in the four countries under study, and made use of the same introductory e-mail and consent form for every respondent, to ensure that data collection across each nation under study was replicated, thus improving validity. This also adhered to Smith et al.'s (2006) guideline that sampled populations across cultures should be comparable.

Further forms of validity that are relevant to this study are content, construct and criterion validity. Content validity is also known as face validity, and evaluates how well the content of a scale represents the measurement task (Malhotra, 2010). Content validity was achieved by the researcher developing the IWRS and IWMS based on literature as well as qualitative data collected from NPO employees in Phase 1, implying that a link exists between the items in these instruments and theory. Moreover, a number of IOP / human resource academics as well as NPO employees from Belgium and SA deemed the IWRS and IWMS to have satisfactory content validity, since the items in the instruments related to intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation.

Construct validity assesses whether instruments measure the constructs that they are supposed to measure (Woods & West, 2010). This was determined through the use of EFA and CFA, since factor analysis investigates the dimensional structure of instruments, as well as by means of Pearson's Product Moment Correlations, which correlated the scores of each instrument with one another to see how they relate as relevant indicators of one another (Woods & West, 2010). The results of these statistical tests will be provided in Chapter Six. Finally, criterion validity proves that an instrument predicts important criteria (Woods & West, 2010). This will be assessed in Chapter Six as well, through the use of SEM, since this statistical test provides evidence for whether the IWRS predicts levels of intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit, and whether the IWMS predicts levels of intrinsic rewards, work

engagement and intention to quit. The specific form of criterion validity that has been tested is concurrent validity, since the variables being tested were measured at the same time as one another (Woods & West, 2010).

5.6 **Ethical considerations**

...Ethics should, without doubt, be at the heart of research from the early design stages right through to reporting and beyond. It is at essence about how we treat study participants well.

(Webster, Lewis & Brown, 2014, p. 78)

The above cited authors state that there is broad consensus concerning what ethical research involves. Primarily, ethical research should:

- Be worthwhile;
- Not make unreasonable demands on those participating;
- Be voluntary, with participants not being coerced or pressurised to take part;
- Involve informed consent;
- Avoid any adverse consequences resulting from participation;
- Make risks known to participants; and
- Respect anonymity and confidentiality (Webster et al., 2014).

To ensure that the research was conducted within such an ethical framework, the following points were taken into consideration (see Welman et al., 2005; Webster et al., 2014):

- The literature review conducted was fully acknowledged and referenced, being written with full awareness of the severity and consequences of plagiarism;
- Participation in the research was entirely voluntary, and no individuals were forced or coerced to take part;
- Research participants / respondents were informed about the research topic and its aims, as well as the fact that all information would only be used for research purposes and that data would remain confidential and anonymous;

- They were moreover informed that they could withdraw their participation in the research at any stage, by stopping the interview (Phase 1) or exiting the questionnaire (Phase 3);
- Informed consent was gained from all participants / respondents, whether by means of signing an informed consent document (Phase 1) or consenting to partake in Phase 3 by clicking on the questionnaire link as explained in the e-mail sent to respondents inviting them to participate;
- Their anonymity and privacy was maintained throughout the research process. The data obtained were treated in a strictly confidential manner and were only used for the purposes of the research. Neither the interviews nor the questionnaire required participants / respondents to provide their names, and no individuals will be referred to by name in the chapters to follow;
- The interviews in Phase 1 were not unnecessarily lengthy or intrusive;
- No questions asked in either Phases 1 or 3 of the study were sensitive or offensive in nature, nor did they cause harm to participants / respondents or abuse their goodwill;
- Data obtained will remain confidential, having only been viewed by the researcher, her statistician, her supervisor, and her Belgian contact (in the case of Phase 1's Belgian interview data only);
- Results will not be falsified or misleadingly reported in Chapter Six;
- Respondents who requested feedback on the study will be provided with all results relating to them to ensure transparency.

In addition to the above, Figure 5.2 tabulates key issues pertaining to conducting interviews within an ethical framework, which specifically relates to the qualitative phase of this study in which in-depth interviews were conducted. The researcher ensured that such ethical standards were adhered to before, during and after the interviews took place, as recommended by Graham, Grewal and Lewis (2007).

Before the interview	During the interview	After the interview
Unpressurised decision-making about taking part	Being able to exercise the right not to answer a question or to say more than they want to	Right to privacy and anonymity respected in storage, access and reporting of the research
Research is independent and legitimate	An unpressurised pace, time to think	Unbiased and accurate research and reporting
Knowing why they were selected to be approached	Feeling comfortable and at ease, valued and respected, not intimidated or judged	Opportunity for feedback on findings and use
Clear and worthwhile objective, purpose and intended use	Opportunity for self-expression and for own views to be recorded	Use is actually made of the research for wider social benefit
Knowing what to expect and being able to prepare especially in terms of the coverage and questioning style	Questions are relevant, not repetitive, clear	
Openness, honesty, and not allowing misunderstandings or false assumptions to persist	Left without negative feelings about participation	

Figure 5.2: A participant map of research ethics
(Graham et al., 2007, p. 18)

Finally, it must be noted that the researcher applied for Ethics Clearance through NMMU in order to gain permission to conduct this study, taking into account the above ethical considerations. Ethics approval was granted in August 2013, with this study's Ethics Clearance number being H13-BES-IOP-026. Annexure K provides the consent form notification.

5.7 Conclusion

This chapter attempted to describe all aspects of the research methodology that was employed in this study, including the research type and technique; the sampling method, data collection and analysis methods for each phase of the empirical study; reliability and validity aspects; as well as ethical considerations. The following chapter will discuss the results obtained from the research.

CHAPTER SIX

RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the results of the empirical research conducted for this thesis. Firstly, a discussion of the qualitative interviews (Phase 1) will be provided, followed by a presentation of the pilot study results (Phase 2) and thereafter the findings of the final quantitative study (Phase 3). For the latter phase, an explanation of both the descriptive and inferential statistics will be given. Lastly, the outcomes of the hypotheses that were tested will be presented.

6.2 Results of Phase 1

The following section describes the findings from the qualitative interviews conducted in Phase 1 of this study, revolving around the results of the thematic data analysis process. As noted in the previous chapter, after familiarising herself with the qualitative data, the researcher began by compiling a thematic framework concerning patterns of responses. Sections C to F in Annexure G delineate the four constructs under study that were focused on in the qualitative interviews, namely intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit. The sub-themes under these constructs arose from the questions that were asked in the interviews. This thematic framework allowed the researcher to index and sort the data, from which various patterns emerged in the form of codes applied to the data. Once all extracts of qualitative data had been coded, the researcher was able to organise these codes by classifying them into six categories, namely intrinsic rewards; extrinsic, non-financial rewards; intrinsic motivation; work engagement; intention to quit; and salary satisfaction.

The codes falling within two of these categories (namely intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation) were then interpreted and re-labeled, to form sub-

categories. These sub-categories became the factors of the IWRS and IWMS, as introduced in Chapter Five. This served the primary purpose of the qualitative interviews (see Section 5.2 explaining why Phase 1 of this study was conducted), namely to gain in-depth data that would assist in developing two measuring instruments to assess intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation. Sections E and F of the interview guide were included merely to provide insight into the results of the quantitative research conducted in Phase 3 of this study.

Through the process of coding, it became apparent that participants' responses for sections C and D overlapped; since in discussing what motivated them at work, many participants inadvertently referred to how they felt rewarded by their work, and vice versa. This made the process of data coding tedious in nature, as the researcher had to bear in mind the definitions of intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation in order to differentiate participants' responses clearly into the categories of intrinsic rewards versus intrinsic motivation.

The codes that were applied to the data and which relate to each of the six categories mentioned above, as well as relevant quotes that provide the reader with more insight into each category, will be discussed in Section 6.2.1 to follow. Where quotes are provided, anonymity will be maintained by referring to the participants according to their interview slot and country; for example, the first participant interviewed in SA is described as Participant A_(SA), whereas the fourth participant interviewed in Belgium ('BE') would be described as Participant D_(BE). The linkages that have been mapped between five of the categories relevant to Phase 3 of this study are provided in Section 6.2.2.

6.2.1 Categories arising from Phase 1's qualitative interviews

The six categories that arose from the qualitative interview data, namely intrinsic rewards; extrinsic, non-financial rewards; intrinsic motivation; work engagement; intention to quit; and salary satisfaction will now be discussed in turn.

6.2.1.1 *Intrinsic rewards*

For the purposes of this discussion, the researcher will elaborate on the various codes that emerged from the data under a number of sub-categories. With regards to intrinsic rewards, the sub-categories that were found to best group the codes were *meaningful work*, *flexible work*, *challenging work*, *varied work*, and *enjoyable work*.

a) *Meaningful work*

The researcher classified ten codes that emerged from the intrinsic rewards data under the sub-category of 'meaningful work'. These codes were (1) *empowering others*; (2) *giving hope to others*; (3) *playing a vital role at work*; (4) *seeing the difference that one's work makes*; (5) *feel-good factor*; (6) *tasks being fulfilling*; (7) *social upliftment*; (8) *sharing knowledge*; (9) *working towards a common, vital purpose*; and (10) *working towards the greater good*.

Data related to *empowering others* was mentioned by four South African participants as an aspect of work that rewards them, and by two South Africans and one Belgian as an element of their work that motivates them. For example, Participant G_(SA), who works within the health care field, mentioned that she gains internal satisfaction from empowering others with her expertise within her capacity as clinical advisor. Participant L_(SA) gains satisfaction from empowering others through leading a divorce care group in her church role as pastoral care convenor, and Participant B_(BE) finds meaning in her role of coordinating the training of volunteers, by coaching adults and witnessing them learn new things.

Giving hope to others was mentioned five times by South Africans as a rewarding factor that motivated them at work. Participant K_(SA), who operates in the welfare and humanitarian sector, noted that her personal work goals are to make a change and give hope to destitute children and adults, such as by providing them with an education. Participant M_(SA), who works as a trauma counsellor, described how she experiences her job as meaningful owing to her work holding a purpose in the lives of her psychiatric patients, since she feels that she directly influences their lives by making them happier through the activities, workshops and counselling that she provides.

Nine South African participants and one Belgian felt that they *play a vital role* within their workplaces, and thus experience their work as meaningful. This meaning stems from participants seeing the end results of their work, which makes them feel intrinsically rewarded. For example, Participant C_(SA), who is in charge of fundraising for an NPO that provides holistic, terminal medical care to cancer patients, feels that the end result of her work is rewarding because:

“...when I hear that somebody’s had a good death; when people say to me [gasps] thank heavens [organisation C] stepped in and relieved his pain, and empowered me to look after him at the end of his life’ – that is the greatest reward. ...My greatest satisfaction...comes from our nurses and from case studies, and thinking, ‘Gee, I contributed to that’. My part, my little part in this organisation – and remember I’m not in the front line, I’m not a nurse or psychologist – but I’ve helped raise the funds to get that nurse to that man in Motherwell who was dying a terribly painful death and we could alleviate his suffering. That is the ultimate payoff for me.”

Even though this participant does not directly provide the care to cancer patients, she knows that her work raises the funds that directly finances the work of the nurses who alleviate the suffering of patients. Participant G_(SA) acknowledged that her work serves a bigger purpose through the direct impact it has, such as on the 100,000 South Africans who have been placed on anti-retroviral drugs in less than one year as a result of her input. She mentions that:

“...I do get a lot of satisfaction from my work and knowing that...I’ve done a good job that has an impact on lots of other people beyond me.”

In addition, Participant J_(SA) recognised the rewarding importance of her work as she coordinates projects for the elderly, by clarifying that:

“...not that I want people to be needy, but at least people need me out there and I can be of better service, and it is rewarding, yes. Just to be of service to someone...ja, it’s very much rewarding.”

The code most frequently applied to the qualitative data relating to intrinsic rewards was that of *seeing the difference that one’s work makes*, which was mentioned by all 15 South Africans as well as eight of the Belgian participants. Participant F_(SA), a residential programme manager for a children’s home,

highlighted that he feels rewarded by seeing the children excelling and growing, because in those moments all his hard work is worth it. Along a similar line, Participant K_(SA), speaking about the rewards she gains from caring for 30 children that have been taken away from difficult circumstances, noted that:

“...you could give them an education, you could give them opportunities in life. I think that’s a big reward and I think one day when you’re old...it’s just to look back and say, ‘But what did I do with my time on earth? What purpose did I have on earth?’ And I think that for me it is important that I could touch lives...even if it’s just in one person’s life – but you can make a difference.”

An orchestra manager operating in the cultural NPO sector [Participant N_(SA)] drew attention to the fact that she is able to see the bigger picture into which her work fits, since there is a clear line of sight between her work and the end results. This is an aspect of her work that she finds motivating:

“I think because it’s very easy to see results. You know, if I was just a cog in a wheel and I didn’t see a big picture, then I wouldn’t be motivated...”

Participant A_(BE) agreed with this line of sight. As an artistic project coordinator, he is motivated by seeing the effect that arts and culture has on individuals and what it means to them, since the individuals he oversees demonstrate desires to develop their talents. Participant G_(BE) further added that actively working with people allows him to see the tangible results of his work, such as the positive effect his work has on others. Moreover, Participant D_(SA), who is the public relations officer for an NPO that organises and funds transportation for sick children so that they receive life-saving treatment, stated that:

“...when [I] wake up in the morning, I actually want to come to work, because you’re making a huge difference in someone else’s life. So I think that was a motivator for me – just knowing – you don’t know what today holds but you know you’re going to do something...”

The above code is strongly related to another, namely the *feel-good factor* that arises from work that is meaningful, which was mentioned by 12 South African and three Belgian participants as being a rewarding element of their work. For example, Participant B_(SA) explained how she is made to feel good through her work when she sees how she is changing the lives of children with disabilities,

as she practically journeys both with them and their parents. Participant O_(SA) mentioned that she experiences a feel-good factor when she knows that she made a difference in someone's life, because it feeds her soul and results in her not burning out quickly. Participant A_(SA) appropriately elaborated on the feelings that arise from doing good by discussing that:

"I can't even elaborate on what it's like when you see a learner come in – no job, no skills, nothing – and they're just so happy to have the opportunity to learn something and go away with a skill – like that is – you can't even describe the satisfaction that gives you. It's really amazing."

The incredible potential that is held by non-profit work to be meaningful to those who perform it is summed up by the following quote from Participant L_(SA):

"...the reward definitely is not financial. Not at all. The reward comes from the hug from a child inside Sunday school; the tears from someone who's come through divorce care; the look of gratitude on someone's face when you visited them at hospital; praying with someone who's in need...as that advert – is it Mastercard – says, it's priceless...there's nothing like sitting with someone who you've walked a long road with through divorce care that can say to you "for the first time in seven years, I've been able to speak to the father of my children because of this course". You can't put a price on that."

Thirteen South African and five Belgian participants made reference to their *tasks being fulfilling*. Participant D_(SA) described how every work day is fulfilling for her due to the fact that she is helping at least one person each day through connecting with parents of terminally ill children and transporting their children to receive treatment. Receiving a telephone call saying that a child's operation was successful and seeing the smile on a child or parent's face when they come home provides her with joy and fulfillment. She poignantly highlighted that:

"...some of the babies, they spend about six to eight months in Cape Town on chemo – so they grow their teeth there, they start walking in hospital, so when we hear they're coming home, it's excitement for us and it's fulfilling, and it's just knowing they've made it – that's rewarding enough."

Participant O_(SA) experiences fulfillment through her work by organising an annual arts festival that empowers children through meeting their needs for creativity and art. When the festival runs smoothly, such as when workshops and productions are enjoyed, team members operate together happily, fundraising goals are reached, and the children display excitement, then she experiences personal fulfillment. She moreover explained how she feels a level of personal fulfillment by:

“...the level of happy noise in those ten days. I get huge kicks from hearing children laughing and being enthusiastic and excited. There’s definitely lots of fulfillment with what we do. ...The need that they have at the moment, for the children particularly that we sponsor, is that arts and culture is so low on the curriculum...so at the moment I’m feeding their creative and artistic soul and that’s incredibly rewarding...because I’m a fairly arty and creative person myself so I know how important it is to be able to create something.”

Participant K_(SA) described how she built up her welfare and humanitarian NPO from nothing, and thus found fulfillment from being physically involved, providing input, and guiding the organisation from the start; whereas Participant A_(BE) stated that making a contribution to society and the community serves to fulfil him. In addition, Participant F_(BE) explained that within his role of providing therapeutic support and counselling to sexual offenders, he finds fulfillment both by influencing the lives of sexual offence victims as well as perpetrators of such crimes:

“I find my work meaningful for...people who are victims...of sexual offences, and secondly meaningful for the people who have committed the offences themselves, by giving attention to their needs and making it possible for them to help themselves and help one another not to go back to doing these things. Helping people improve their own lives and enabling them to help others improve their lives; that is probably the most meaningful factor.”

Social upliftment was mentioned by four South African participants and one Belgian as being rewarding to them, and by a further two South Africans and one Belgian as motivating aspects of their work. For example, Participant J_(SA)

aims to restore the dignity of the elderly through her work by making the elderly feel both loved and appreciated. Participant I_(SA), an administrative assistant for an NPO that cares for orphaned and displaced children, recognises that the contributions of all employees are necessary for the organisation to uplift the community, stating that:

“...I think that everything that we do from the admin side to the social work side, to actually being in townships and looking after the children...everything our organisation does is for the betterment and the upliftment and the enrichment of our children...those that we are reaching out to who, you know, are in need...I see how everything is so interconnected and how everything helps the organisation come together and how it all makes sense...”

Sharing knowledge was discussed by three South African participants and one Belgian as a rewarding and motivating element at work, such as by Participant H_(SA), who stated that teaching children and seeing their excitement is rewarding to him within his role of senior conservation officer. *Working towards a common, vital purpose* was mentioned by one South African participant [D_(SA)] as a motivator at work, due to the fact that her work team collectively aims to achieve a common purpose, with nothing being more important to them than ensuring that children with life-threatening illnesses are provided with the transport that they need to receive their healthcare. Finally, *working towards the greater good* was highlighted by one South African participant [A_(SA)] as a rewarding factor at work, since being short-staffed at work has resulted in her going over and above her job description to achieve the purposes of the organisation.

b) Flexible work

Only one code emerged from the data that the researcher classified under the sub-category of ‘flexible work’, namely (1) *autonomy*. All 15 South African participants as well as eight Belgians agreed that they find this to be a rewarding aspect of their work. Additionally, four South Africans and four Belgians highlighted that autonomy in the workplace motivates them to work.

Autonomy in this context refers to the ability to organise one's own agenda, as well as make one's own decisions at work. Participant A_(BE) mentioned that he experiences autonomy in terms of how and when he organises his own work (that is, autonomy over technique and time), highlighting that:

“...to a large extent you determine the way in which the work is organised... there are things that have to happen and have to be realised within the work process and within my responsibility, but the way in which this happens and often also the timing and so on, that you can determine for yourself. You have that freedom here.”

He went on to explain that within his social-artistic NPO, employees are granted high levels of autonomy in comparison to other organisations; since they do not work directly for authority; their work is not dictated by laws; employees determine which projects they are going to do; and they make their own decisions. He sums this up by saying:

“I would no longer be able to work under a boss who sets imposed tasks for me to do. I would not be able to function. I can't bear that...To me, that is not motivating.”

Participant B_(BE) stated that she has control over her work not only in terms of technique and time, but also over the tasks that she performs:

“...I do have control over my own agenda, and in the same way I also have a feeling of being in full control of the subject matter with regards to my work. Of course, if I'm told to shift my focus to another target group now and again, I have to do that, but exactly when and how I do that – well, I certainly have a say in that.”

She noted that her superiors trust her, and have confidence in her decisions. Along a similar line, Participant L_(SA) is given free reign at work, with no one questioning her actions or recommending different ways of working. She describes this level of trust as follows:

“I enjoy not being second guessed. I enjoy being – someone saying, ‘you know what is best in this situation or what will work.’”

Unfortunately Participant J_(SA) has a different experience at work, saying that she withdraws owing to a lack of autonomy when her bosses undermine her

abilities and take over her work. She believes that this shows that management underestimate her abilities and do not trust her. She highlighted that:

“The employer expects the employee to be productive but due to the attitudes of people and shunting people around, you are not going to get the people’s...cooperation in reaching the goal...If you appoint someone, why are you appointing that person? Because you have faith that that person will be able to produce but now if you’re forever going to intrude and intervene and you’re not going to...get that person’s full attention or commitment in being productive, in reaching that goal...”

Participant F_(BE) explained that in his position as a social worker, he feels rewarded and motivated by being given the freedom to determine the content of his work and being allowed to do his job properly. He is allowed to influence his own work, being given a choice in terms of what to discuss in counselling sessions, as well as when he schedules his appointments and consulting hours. According to Participant C_(SA), she is given carte blanche to run fundraising events however she chooses, as long as she meets high standards. She is allowed to work autonomously since her employer does not micromanage her; importantly, she noted that this is rewarding to her since it indicates that her boss trusts her and has confidence in her. In a similar manner, Participant F_(SA) highlighted that he enjoys workplace autonomy in terms of decision-making since he dislikes micromanagement, and feels rewarded when management displays confidence in him, allowing him to develop his own objectives, outputs, timeframes and tasks:

“...I do have a lot of autonomy in terms of decisions, so if I feel that the programmes need to be radically changed, it can be ready to be changed today. I do not have to go and seek authority from someone else.”

Participant E_(SA) is told what projects he needs to work on but then is given the flexibility to decide on the time frame and resources to complete them, which he finds motivating since he does not have to check constantly with his manager for approval. He would find such micromanagement to be frustrating. Speaking about her boss, Participant G_(SA) noted that:

“He’s not a micromanager so long as I deliver the goods, he doesn’t mind how I do it. He knows I will do it ethically and I’ll do it well, and he gives me a lot of autonomy...there’s nothing that drives me more crazy than somebody micromanaging me and telling me how to do stuff. If you ask me to do something, I’ll do it and I’ll deliver it and it’ll be great, and if you want it done the way that you want it done...then they should rather do it themselves...if I need help, I’ll ask.”

Along the same line, Participant H_(SA) stated that:

“I like a lot of autonomy to get on. Tell me this is what you need done and then we will get on and do it...don’t tell me what to do all the time; don’t be checking over my shoulder all the time. I hate that, I can’t bear that.”

According to Participant G_(BE), autonomy is motivating since it allows him to perform tasks at opportune moments, which allows him to focus on priorities and organise his work as national deputy director of his NPO. Participant J_(BE) finds autonomy to be rewarding since she feels trusted both by her team and coordinator. However, certain participants, such as Participant C_(BE), mentioned that they would prefer more guidance and direction at work. As noted by Participant I_(BE), he is trusted to use his own initiative at work and make the right decisions, but his performance is never reviewed and he is not given guidance on what to do or feedback on how to improve. He would thus prefer that structures, policies or procedures be put in place which he could follow.

c) Challenging work

Four codes were classified by the researcher under the sub-category of ‘challenging work’. These codes were (1) *opportunity to develop skills*; (2) *using one’s personal skills*; (3) *opportunity to gain experience*; and (4) *tasks being challenging*.

Opportunity to develop skills was mentioned by eight South African participants and ten Belgians as being rewarding to them, and by two South Africans and four Belgians as being motivating aspects of their work. According to Participant B_(SA), working at an NPO that empowers disabled children has developed her both personally and professionally, as she has developed patience, formalised

her writing skills, and learnt how best to represent her firm, take initiative and work independently. Participant F_(SA) reported that through his position, he has improved in his ability to make decisions and take on responsibility; has learnt to delegate and empower others; and has grown in professionalism and maturity. As he has become more familiar with his NPO's procedures, he feels like he is becoming more of an expert in his work. Working in an NGO has caused Participant G_(BE) to self-develop; he feels that he has grown in competence over the years, and is motivated by opportunities to learn and master new skills at work. Additionally, Participant K_(SA) discussed how prior to founding her own humanitarian NPO, she had no knowledge of street children, but has been rewarded as she has grown and developed through the years. She has developed confidence in managing her own centre, constantly improving as she gained experience, attended workshops, read books and met new people. Participant F_(BE) highlighted that he has become more proficient at his job, stating that:

“...my skills keep developing. I must say, in comparison with the beginning, I feel that I've taken a huge step forward. At first it is much more discovery, and then eventually one gets to a point where you feel, okay, I can hold my own in a team and in the way we work in the sector.”

According to Participant O_(SA), she has experienced a sense of personal and professional growth through developing her interpersonal and networking skills, and has developed her fundraising skills through the attendance of workshops. In her role as trauma counsellor, Participant M_(SA) said that her counselling skills have improved, such as knowing how to handle herself ethically, especially when conducting group therapy sessions. She is also constantly learning interesting and exciting things every month, such as the mental disorders of her patients. Her work has matured her, and she feels rewarded by this growth.

Opportunities to *use their personal skills* was mentioned four times by South Africans and twice by Belgian participants as a rewarding factor at work, but six times by South African participants and five times by Belgians as a motivating element of work. For example, Participant B_(SA) makes use of her journalism degree in her work as a public relations officer; Participant I_(SA) puts his postgraduate diploma in accounting sciences to use as an administrative

assistant, and Participant M_(SA) utilises her Honours qualification in psychology in her role of trauma counsellor. Participant F_(BE) puts his skills and competence gained in the private sector to use in his NGO, which he said needed professional staff in order to operate effectively. Additionally, Participant N_(SA) highlighted how her skills are used effectively to organise orchestral concerts:

“...you get to a concert and you see a result and normally it’s a very good result and you feel ‘okay, I’ve worked hard and I achieved – you know, something’s happened’, and there’re enough people who tell you...‘this wouldn’t be happening if it wasn’t for you, you know’...I know I put in extra....I work consistently”.

Six participants from SA and four from Belgium made reference to being rewarded through *opportunities to gain experience* at work. For example, Participant J_(SA) was motivated to join his NPO in order to gain experience and build his knowledge base, and Participant N_(SA) has found that gaining greater levels of experience at work is rewarding to her, and has made her more confident in her abilities. Since Participant I_(BE) had no experience in her field prior to beginning work, she feels that she is improving weekly, particularly with regards to problem-solving as well as feeling competent, comfortable and confident at work. She finds this growth and development to be rewarding.

Fourteen South African participants made reference to content that was coded as their *tasks being challenging*, compared to five Belgians. Four South Africans and three Belgians found challenging tasks to be motivating to them. Participant B_(SA) referred to the fact that when she began working in her NPO, the challenges were overwhelming because the lives of children depended on her accuracy. However, such challenges helped her to grow, and her tasks have become easier with time and become second nature to her. Participant H_(SA) mentioned that the NGO sector is challenging because skills, technology and direction are radically changing, and his competence thus needed to evolve accordingly. He stated that:

“...you can never turn around and say you’re a master. You’re just getting better at what you’re doing but the field is changing at such a rate that you can never say that you’re a master at it.”

Participant G_(SA) noted that she has gained fulfillment from her challenging health care role, and Participant F_(SA) said that while his job is challenging and he struggles at times, he gains enjoyment from it. According to Participant I_(BE):

“I keep on learning a great deal, because things are not always that simple in this job. Every day is – to use a cliché – a challenge...”

Participant J_(SA) highlighted that in her case, working with the elderly is a challenge because they can be moody at times and they each have a different personality, meaning that her input is not constant. Importantly, Participant L_(SA) drew attention to the challenges of working in a people-profession:

“It’s very different to working in any other place. The challenges are huge because you’re dealing with people all the time. People come before projects.”

Participant K_(SA) summarised the challenging environment of NPOs by stating that:

“...You’ve got to put in a lot. You can’t sit back and think things will fall in your lap. It is hard work, it is planning but it’s good to look back and say, ‘boy, look, look what happened the past ten years here with this organisation’.”

d) Varied work

Much like flexible work, the sub-category of ‘varied work’ was comprised of only one code that emerged from the data, namely (1) *tasks being varied*. This code was applied when participants spoke about feeling rewarded by a lack of routine at work, and being given an assortment of tasks to perform. Thirteen South African participants and five Belgians mentioned being rewarded by this aspect of work, with six South Africans specifying that diverse work motivates them.

Participant E_(SA) reported being stimulated by the variety of work that he does, and Participant H_(SA) highlighted that he was motivated to begin working at an environmental NPO because he was attracted to the variety and diversity of tasks to which he would be exposed. According to Participant C_(SA), she finds personal satisfaction from the many components that comprise organising events, since this allows her to be creative; moreover, Participant D_(SA) stated that performing tasks that are not monotonous means that she is always

learning something new at work. Participant F_(SA) explained that he would get bored with routine work and standardised days, and instead finds fulfillment in having a variety of tasks to do and different challenges to overcome. Along the same line, Participant G_(SA) noted that she is fulfilled by being innovative and applying her mind to different tasks and new challenges on a daily basis, and Participant M_(SA) mentioned that her job is exciting owing to constant stimulation and task involvement. Participant J_(BE), who is a children's caregiver, explained that working with children involves much variety, since the groups of children change constantly, and she derives fulfillment from such work. Finally, as stated by Participant A_(BE):

“One never feels that things are grinding to a halt here or that everything revolves around routine. It's full of surprises – one never knows what to expect.”

e) Enjoyable work

Responses from interview participants were sub-categorised into the intrinsic reward of 'enjoyable work' when they were coded as either (1) *tasks being interesting*; and (2) *enjoying or loving one's work or job content*.

Tasks being interesting was mentioned by seven South African participants and four Belgians as being rewarding work-wise. Participant C_(SA) highlighted that she enjoys the fact that her job is not static, and that her work is kept interesting since she constantly needs to look at new ways to grow. Aspects of her work that Participant B_(SA) finds interesting include learning about how to organise events, speaking on the radio and gaining connections with others, while Participant I_(SA) mentioned that he finds his tasks interesting, and enjoys both the flexibility of his job and the freedom he has not to always be in the office performing administrative work.

Four South African participants as well as two Belgians commented that performing *work that they enjoy or love* is rewarding to them; five participants from SA and four from Belgium also noted that this motivates them at work. Participant M_(SA) explained that she loves what she does, and as a result, she performs to the best of her ability and “gives it her all” at work. She stated that

her job tasks make her happy, joyous and satisfied, and that she often laughs and dances with the residents at the psychiatric residency where she works. When she is able to assist the residents successfully, she gains a sense of satisfaction; and finds the outings that she arranges for them to be exciting in nature. Participant H_(BE) reported that he works for the sake of the work itself, since he enjoys what he does and derives pleasure from his tasks. His tasks are thus a sufficient reward for him at work. Along the same line, Participant F_(SA) noted that:

“I wouldn’t say that I get satisfaction in every task I perform...[but] the rest of my work I really do [enjoy]. I love working...I love so much.”

He also mentioned that he enjoys the work ethic that his position within the welfare and humanitarian field requires, and highlighted that he particularly loves planning and strategising; working with children; leading a team; and always having different people to interact with. Participant G_(SA) described how she enjoys most of what she does at work, and her enjoyable tasks motivate her to do even more at work, such as working long hours. As a result, she is satisfied by completing her tasks and doing a good job. Positively, Participant L_(SA) discussed how she enjoys being stretched in areas where she was not previously comfortable, and is aware of how important her tasks are in order not to disappoint members of the church where she works. She is able to find fulfillment even in mundane tasks, and noted how:

“...for the first time in my life I feel like a round peg in a round hole...”

It is clear from the above discussion of intrinsic rewards that respondents are rewarded by numerous aspects of their work that they perform on a daily basis. The comments throughout the above sub-sections draw attention to the fact that rewards need not necessarily stem from external sources, such as pay or benefits, but rather that NPO employees can find stimulation, delight and joy from the manner in which their work, or job content, is designed to be meaningful, flexible, challenging, varied and enjoyable to them.

6.2.1.2 Extrinsic, non-financial rewards

A number of extrinsic, non-financial rewards also emerged as themes from the data. While not the focus of this study, for interests’ sake the researcher

deemed it beneficial to highlight these briefly. *Appreciation*, or recognition, was the most valued extrinsic, non-financial reward that emerged, being mentioned eight times by South African participants and four times by Belgians. Participant G_(SA) described such appreciation as follows:

“For me, the way I feel rewarded is when people acknowledge what I’ve done...it’s not actually necessarily about getting a fat salary or anything, it’s more about people saying ‘okay, you know, you’ve done a good job – well done – thank you’ or when you do something you get a reputation and people will say ‘well, go and ask her – she’s got good ideas’...it’s more of a social reward system that I prefer.”

Additionally, Participant J_(SA) noted that in the non-profit sector:

“You don’t earn a lot of money but you want your employer to appreciate you. In times of need, they must be there for you.”

Participant G_(BE) described appreciation as follows:

“If one gets the message, for instance, from feedback by the management board or so that they are happy with the results you have achieved and with the way in which you go about realising things, that is another form of reward; not in terms of remuneration, but simply in terms of appreciation.”

Along a similar line, eight South African participants and six Belgians also highlighted that receiving *positive feedback* rewarded them at work, whether that positive feedback was received from children whose lives they had impacted; clients that they had coached; learners who they had trained; or managers who let them know that they have excelled. Two participants from SA and one from Belgium highlighted that they are rewarded by working for an *employer that cares* for them, such as working in an environment where employees are there for one another; additionally, two Belgians specifically referred to the *work environment* as a reward in itself. Two South Africans made reference to being rewarded by *teamwork* in their NPOs; and one South African participant referred to *social support* as rewarding, noting that he [Participant E_(SA)] and his work colleagues get along like a family by helping one another out, since they are bonded as a group. *Interacting with others* was highlighted as a reward by four South African participants and three Belgians; such as

Participant A_(BE) who stated that making friends and social contacts, and getting to know a variety of people, is one means of rewarding him at work. Two South Africans and one Belgian also made mention of *mentoring* as a form of reward.

6.2.1.3 Intrinsic motivation

Focusing on the category of intrinsic motivation, the sub-categories found to best group the codes of data were *personal connection to one's work*, *personal desire to make a difference*, and *personal desire to perform*. These will now be elaborated on in connection with the interview data obtained.

a) Personal connection to one's work

The researcher classified seven codes that emerged from the data pertaining to intrinsic motivation under the sub-category of 'personal connection to one's work'. These codes were (1) *believing in the cause*; (2) *emotional connection to one's work*; (3) *personal experiences*; (4) *personal passion aligned with the organisational purpose*; (5) *personal values and standards aligning*; (6) *Christian faith and values*; and (7) *career as a calling*.

Four South African participants and two Belgians mentioned that *believing in the cause* for which their organisation stood was a motivating factor to them. One participant from SA found this to be a rewarding element at work as well. Participant B_(SA) mentioned that she is motivated to work at her peak because she believes in the cause towards which she is working; and Participant A_(SA) highlighted that she believes in the mission statement of the training centre where she works, since she has a deep passion for education. Participant E_(BE) stated that she is passionate about her work within the cultural field because she believes in it, and thus performs her work wholeheartedly. According to Participant C_(SA), she was motivated to begin working at her NPO by appreciating the terminal, holistic medical work that they perform:

"...and I remember at the time thinking, that's the kind of work I'd love to do, because imagine if I could assist people somehow at this incredibly painful and sensitive and delicate time in their lives."

Along a similar line, seven participants from SA and one from Belgium highlighted that they have an *emotional connection* to the work that they perform, which motivates them. For example, Participant B_(SA) explained that being in touch with children with disabilities tugged at her heart, and it was out of a desire to assist them that she realised that she needs to work intensely. Participant D_(SA) discussed how she feels a connection with her job, since she connects with the parents of children with life-threatening illnesses by feeling their anxiety within her, knowing that she needs to arrange the transport for these children to receive treatment in order to save their lives. She experiences joy when these children return home with smiles on their faces after receiving treatment. Moreover, she reported that:

“...When I found out about this job, it just – there was just a connection with me, because in a way I wouldn’t be giving back out of my own pocket, but it’s like giving back – just helping or being there for someone else more or less in the same situation...”

Participant M_(SA) mentioned how she has become attached to the psychiatric patients that she counsels, and that they bring joy to her life; and Participant N_(SA) noted that she tears up when she watches children from disadvantaged, impoverished areas playing musical instruments in performances, knowing that she organised for them to be taught such skills. Participant G_(BE) said that he feels an emotional connection when he is actively working with people rather than on policies or programmes.

For some participants, such an emotional connection stems directly from their own *personal experiences*, which was highlighted by ten South African participants and three Belgians as a factor leading to them being motivated within their NPOs. Participant C_(SA), who fundraises for an NPO providing terminal, holistic medical care to cancer patients, described how such care was not available when her own mother was passing away from cancer years before she joined the NPO. She has thus been motivated to put her marketing skills into use at this organisation, knowing that her talents can assist in the provision of care to others suffering from cancer. Participant D_(SA)’s personal experience also arose years before she joined her current NPO as an employee, since her NPO organised and funded the transport that her son needed to Cape Town in

order to receive lifegiving treatment that saved his life. She has therefore been motivated to provide the same assistance to other parents in similar situations. In another case, Participant I_(SA) discovered through volunteering in the township that he had an interest in, and passion for, reaching out to the underprivileged, which led him to join his current welfare and humanitarian NPO working in the same disadvantaged areas. Along a similar line, Participant K_(SA) observed the mass of poverty in SA and began performing voluntary community work such as working in a soup kitchen, in an effort to meet the needs of the disadvantaged. This evolved into her current work that focuses on providing care to destitute children and adults. Participant J_(BE) also mentioned how her parents worked in the social sector, which taught her from childhood to work with people and have a heart for children.

Participants' *personal passions aligning with the purposes of their NPOs* was a motivating element for eight South African participants and two Belgians. Four participants from SA also mentioned that this rewarded them at work. Participant F_(SA) noted that both his and his organisation's main focus is youth development, which is why he was motivated to begin working there; in a similar manner, the passion of Participant F_(SA) for the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) led to her wanting to offer her medical expertise and support to the HIV NPO for which she now works. Participant C_(SA) discussed that her work is completely purpose-driven, and that she identifies with the heart of her organisation. Participant I_(SA), commenting on his passion for the work that his organisation performs, stated that:

"I think what motivated me was just knowing that...I had a real heart for it and I wanted to go back into it full-time...it was a passion"

Participant L_(SA) mentioned that after being retrenched from her job in the private sector, she wanted to follow her dreams and fulfill her longings by working in a position where she could affect the lives of people. This motivated her to begin working within her local church. She now only wants to do this job into the future and would not return to work in the corporate sector, since she believes that a fit exists between her purpose in life, what she believes, and the organisation for which she works. Participant E_(BE), discussing why she was motivated to join

her NPO owing to her personal passions fitting with the organisation, stated that:

“...right from the start I thought, ‘this is it’. I knew straightaway that I really, really wanted to do this. So that was it. I got involved...”

Nine participants from SA and six from Belgium made mention of being motivated by their *personal values and standards* aligning with that of their organisations. According to Participant H_(SA), he was motivated to begin working at his NPO owing to his personal ethos and principles aligning with those of the organisation, since he would be involved in running uplifting, positive projects in the environmental field. Participant G_(SA) reported that:

“...I’ve felt very happy here and fitted in really well and realise that if I look at what their values are, they pretty much live up with what my values are, and so my goals do tend to be aligned”

Moreover, Participant G_(BE) importantly highlighted the following with regards to the values of NPO employees:

“I think that is the case with many people who work within the [non-profit] sector, that a personal value system is a motivating factor in their work within the sector. Judging from the applicants for jobs within our organisation, I have the impression that people feel that the quest for values, for responsibility in themselves will be strengthened when they come to work here [non-profit sector], more so than in the commercial sector...I have noticed that many people seem to think or feel that their personal value system will come to the fore, develop and grow stronger when they work in an organisation like ours.”

In particular, such values and standards were mentioned by three participants in SA and one in Belgium with a specific reference to the *Christian faith*. For example, Participant L_(SA) described how, since her work within the church is exhausting and challenging, she relies on God for strength:

“...but at the end of the day, we rely totally on God. Nothing gets done in our own strength, and when you drop down exhausted into bed at night, you do feel as if you’ve – ja – you’ve made a difference. You’re doing what God wants you to be doing.”

She acknowledged that without God, their church team would not be doing things correctly, nor doing exactly what He has called them to do. Moreover, Participant F_(SA) explained how God placed him in his current position:

“...He [God] really again revealed to me that these children here need support – that they are His children and that they have been hurt...that they just need that nurturance that I had when I was a child...a lot of these children don’t have that, and it’s my job to provide them with that support. Maybe not individually, each child, but make sure that the support is there for them, that the staff are here and are committed to their care...so yes, I do think I have a purpose.”

Only one South African participant mentioned how his *career is a calling*, which motivates him to work to the best of his ability. Participant F_(SA) described his calling into social work as follows:

“I think since I’ve been very young, I’ve always known that I wanted to help people. It [social work] was a calling, and I think that – I did – I’ve never been motivated by money, or power, or influence or anything like that – that’s never been my drive. It’s always been my drive – is to make sure – I need to know that I’m making a difference in the world. I want to know that when I leave here one day, that it’s going to be slightly better, no matter how small that might be, and...I think a non-profit was just a clear indication for me. And I feel like I’ve been placed here...I think I know that deep down inside me – that that’s just something that I know...there’s no way I can explain – I just know inside when I come here that this is home; this is where I need to be.”

b) Personal desire to make a difference

Four codes were classified out of the data as relating to intrinsic motivation under the sub-category of ‘personal desire to make a difference’. These included (1) *a desire to assist*; (2) *a desire to meet needs*; (3) *a sense of responsibility*; and (4) *seeing growth in others*.

Five participants from SA and four from Belgium indicated that they were motivated by an internal *desire to assist* others. Participant F_(SA) noted that he

was motivated to join his NPO as he wanted to help people, with Participant G_(SA) stating that she desired to help and positively affect as many people as possible through empowering them. Participant H_(BE) mentioned that the bigger purpose of his work is to bring about development where it is needed the most. Participant E_(SA), who works as a project manager and warden within an animal welfare NPO, noted that:

“I’ve always been the type of person that if somebody needs help, I’ll help them.”

Along the same line, Participant M_(SA) explains this as follows:

“You just help the people and I feel that’s my nature, to really help them...”

Participant K_(SA) stated that her motivation for studying social work was in order to help people, as well as be given opportunities to train, mentor and guide young people to become more professional. Similarly, Participant F_(BE) discussed that he desired to work as a social worker because he wanted to help people better their lives and help them find a way forward, and was motivated by being empowered to render assistance to others.

In a similar manner, having a personal *desire to meet the needs of others* was mentioned by three South Africans as being motivating to them, whereas one Belgian stated that this element was rewarding to him at work. One South African and one Belgian also provided responses indicating that they are rewarded by such desires. According to Participant C_(SA), her desire is purely to meet the needs of the terminally ill as best she can. Participant D_(SA)’s desire is to meet the needs of those parents of children with life-threatening illnesses who they transport to receive treatment. She stated that such needs could be the word of encouragement that a mother needs to hear, or whoever is accompanying his or her ill child and standing at the airport feeling lost and alone. For Participant K_(SA), she was aware of the needs of the disadvantaged and felt compelled to begin her NPO in order to help them. Participant L_(SA) took the initiative to begin support groups at the church where she works in an effort to meet the needs of community members, such as introducing a divorce care programme.

Three South African participants and one Belgian made reference to being motivated by having a *sense of responsibility* towards helping others. Three South Africans also made reference to such a sense of responsibility being rewarding to them at work. Participant F_(SA) explained that he has a sense of responsibility towards the children who live at the child and youth care centre where he works as a residential programme manager, since they need him to perform at his peak. Participant M_(SA) has a sense of responsibility towards her psychiatric patients, who seek out her advice and guidance as a result of trusting her and having a relationship with her. She finds this demanding, however, since she has a direct influence over their lives. Participant D_(SA) described her sense of responsibility towards children as follows:

“The main priority is to save a child’s life basically. So you’ll leave everything else, and you’ll make sure that that child and parent gets to where they need to be.”

Importantly, Participant G_(BE) reported how he is driven internally by responsibility:

“But there are also people – and I think I belong to that group – that find the drive within themselves, in a sense of responsibility. I think that is a very important factor, being able and willing to take responsibility. But also the internal drive to do things well, to achieve results – that is also part of one’s character – that is more of an internal motivation.”

Finally, four South African participants responded that they are rewarded by *seeing growth in others*, such as Participant F_(SA) who gets emotional when he sees growth in the children that are looked after through his NPO, or when he notices that his staff are performing at their potential and progressing, since this makes his hard work worthwhile. Participant O_(SA) experiences an internal reward when she feeds the creative and artistic souls of children who attend the arts festival that she organises, since she teaches them sustainable skills and exposes them to activities that they would not see had they not participated in the festival.

c) *Personal desire to perform*

Responses from interview participants were classified into the intrinsic motivation sub-category of 'personal desire to perform' when they were coded as: (1) *going over and above at work*; (2) *the personal nature of participants*; (3) *meeting personal goals*; and (4) *a sense of accomplishment / success*.

Six South African participants mentioned being motivated by *going over and above at work*, and three highlighted that performing at this level rewarded them as well. For example, Participant A_(SA) highlighted that she performs additional tasks over and above what her job description states that she should do, owing to her training organisation being short-staffed. She stated that she is happy to do so though, since she gains more experience while at the same time contributing towards the greater good of the organisation. Along the same line, Participant J_(SA) noted that going the extra mile at work has actually assisted her by developing more of her skills. Participant I_(SA) discussed that he never puts in a half-hearted attempt at work even though he works for a small NPO, since he would rather perform even mundane administrative tasks to the best of his ability in order to try and save the organisation money. According to Participant M_(SA), she performs her job to the best of her ability and thus gives it her all, going over and above for the sake of her psychiatric patients. This includes stepping up when she is needed to ensure that they get better, which makes it difficult to switch off after hours when she cares too much and becomes too worried about them.

The researcher noted that a desire to perform arose from the *personal nature* of a number of participants, with eleven participants from SA and three from Belgium providing responses indicating that their personal nature is a motivator in itself. For example, Participant B_(SA) stated that she is a naturally hard worker and is thus intrinsically motivated to perform at her peak; Participant G_(BE) is driven from within himself to do things well and achieve results; and Participant F_(SA) is a perfectionist with high standards and strong ethics, and therefore puts in extra time when needed. Participant G_(SA) described that she has a desire to deliver a high standard of service and care to HIV patients, which motivated her to begin working at her NPO. She performs at her peak because she is

ambitious and will always do a job properly; moreover, she has wanted to prove that she could perform exceptionally owing to the competition she faced to be appointed into the position, and from her desires to be promoted for her efforts. Participant J_(SA)'s responses also alluded to perfectionism as a trait, since she reported that she always tries her best to do things perfectly, and that she gains satisfaction from reaching targets and performing at the highest level possible.

Meeting personal goals was highlighted by two South African participants and one Belgian as an element that is rewarding to them and thus leads to motivation. For example, Participant O_(SA) described how she is rewarded internally when she achieves at work, such as obtaining funding for her arts festival, securing workshops of a high standard, or seeing the joy and pleasure on the faces of children attending the festival.

The researcher discovered that six South African and three Belgian participants made mention of the fact that feeling *a sense of accomplishment or success* at work was motivating to them. Moreover, ten South Africans and six Belgians highlighted that such a sense of accomplishment was rewarding to them. For example, Participant H_(SA) specified that he gains satisfaction from meeting deadlines; remaining within his budget; delivering products that convince funders to provide funds for the following year; teaching children and seeing their excitement; and sidestepping community problems. Participant G_(SA) highlighted that she has felt satisfied with her growth and mastery of skills, such as being able to contribute in meetings and understand organisational systems. She stated that as she has become more accomplished at work, her job has become easier and she keeps getting better as she now knows how to do things well. Participant K_(SA) gained her sense of accomplishment from looking back and seeing what positive changes have taken place under her management, such as being able to see tangibly where she has assisted children by removing them from difficult circumstances and giving them an education and opportunities in life. Participant G_(SA) noted that when he can tangibly see that projects he has initiated are working, and that results that he was hoping for are being produced, then he feels rewarded at work.

6.2.1.4 Work engagement

Questions regarding work engagement were asked in order to enlighten the researcher with regards to participants' feelings of *absorption*, *dedication* and *vigour* at work, which are the three factors of work engagement measured empirically in this study using the UWES. These results will now be discussed.

a) *Absorption with work*

Fourteen participants from SA and nine from Belgium agreed to being absorbed in their work. Five codes emerged from the data as related to this 'absorption' sub-category of work engagement. These codes were: (1) *being engrossed and involved at work*; (2) *being focused on one's work*; (3) *working after hours / long hours*; (4) *going beyond the call of duty*; and (5) *having a level of busy-ness at work*.

Eight South African participants and seven from Belgium made reference to *being engrossed and involved with their work*. Participant C_(SA) mentioned that she pours her heart into her work, and strives never to let her NPO down. Participant A_(SA) highlighted that it is her personal trait not to perform half-heartedly, and she thus puts her all into her work regardless of the job task itself. On the other hand, Participant E_(SA) specifically noted that the nature of his work tasks serve to absorb him. Participant B_(SA) finds herself absorbed when she is learning on the job, and when she conducts research for her work. She noted that when she began working at her NPO:

"I was just so gung-ho and had so many ideas...I was so into it."

Participant G_(SA) mentioned being so engrossed in her work that she does not hear when people walk into her office, and as a result she prefers not to be distracted at work. Participant M_(SA) stated that when she is working with her psychiatric residents, she forgets all other things. Since her NPO does not have sufficient funding to employ more staff, she runs with many projects, noting that as a result she is very involved at work, which makes her job exciting. In a similar manner, Participant F_(BE) described that too much has been asked of him at work owing to organisational changes, making his work more intense and causing him to be too involved and absorbed. Participant I_(BE) reported that she has taken on too much extra work, which results in her working very hard, and

Participant B_(BE) stated that she thinks of work even when she goes for walks, since being absorbed keeps her occupied creatively. In addition, Participant J_(BE) mentioned that:

“...even when I’m not at work, it still occupies my mind, the work and so on, everything that happens there.”

According to Participant A_(BE), the nature of his job in the theatre is such that it swallows him and results in him working when others are relaxing; and Participant E_(BE) said that she could easily be locked away for a week with her work. Along the same line, Participant H_(BE) highlighted that:

“I actually get tied up in my work far too often, a couple of times a week...And I usually do, simply because my work is motivating.”

Being focused on one’s work was discussed within the context of absorption by eight participants from SA and one from Belgium. For example, Participant F_(SA) mentioned that his job is intense due to the orphaned or displaced children at his NPO needing support and thus being demanding; moreover, since he works within the lifespan of the children, he needs to be fully committed and focused on them. Similarly, Participant K_(SA) described that her work takes all of her attention and energy due to the phone constantly ringing and her office door continuously being knocked. Participant N_(SA) noted that she is absorbed when she is involved in exciting projects, and when she witnesses the results of her work. Participant G_(SA) explained her absorption as follows:

“...I’m just focused and completely engaged...when I start a task, I focus on it...when I’m engrossed in something, when I’m enjoying it, then I do get really engaged. In HIV there’s so much research that goes on. It’s always changing and you have to keep challenging yourself to keep up, so it’s the one thing that’s actually – nothing else has managed to keep me engaged for the amount of time that HIV has, so the more I’ve worked with it, the more passionate I’ve become about it.”

According to Participant E_(SA), his focus stems from he and his team always doing what needs to be done at work as quickly as possible, no matter the project, job or task requiring their attention. Participant C_(BE) discussed how she needs to offer support to children with life-threatening illnesses when they go abroad on trips that she has prepared and organised:

“I also think that we are highly involved when one of our wish kids is travelling out of the country. Then we put in extra work and worry about something going wrong...so we actually do a lot of extra work because we know that – we want to be available...”

Participant I_(SA) said that he focuses on his tasks because he works towards deadlines; moreover, since he never knows what the next day will hold, he is always aware that he needs to get as much done each day as possible. Participant L_(SA) explained that she is so focused on her work that she forgets to take lunch breaks, drink tea or even go home at the end of a day. As a result, she questions whether she has enough balance between her work and home lives, but noted that it is difficult to set parameters when she works in the same church in which she worships, since her secretarial / pastoral job mixes with her ministries of running children’s church, divorce care and the single’s group:

“If I visit someone, is it because it’s my job to visit them or is it because I would do it anyway? So the lines between your ministry and your job become very, very blurred. So very often people say you work too long hours so I say “yes, that’s not my job. That’s my ministry.” So yes - - those blend in. My friends are the congregation - - the congregation are my friends so there’s another blurred line. When you work in a situation like this, you can’t actually say “look, this stops here and that starts there.” It doesn’t work that way.”

Four participants from SA and five from Belgium made reference to *working after hours* or *working long hours* as a means of showing their level of absorption. Participant K_(SA) described how she receives phonecalls at all hours of the day and initially worked seven days a week when she established her NPO. Both Participant C_(SA) and Participant E_(SA) highlighted that they do not take tea or lunch breaks, with the latter also saying that he does paperwork at home if need be. Participant E_(BE) noted that she takes her materials home with her and can easily work long hours, and Participant A_(BE) mentioned that he works erratic, irregular hours and cannot leave his job behind him when he goes home. According to Participant D_(BE), she is involved in her work during the weekends or when she goes to bed at night. Participant H_(BE) moreover described that as a director, he hardly has a work-life balance since he

struggles to switch off from his work and concentrate on the rest of his life outside of work, since his work is always looming in the background.

Finally, one South African participant (B_{SA}) mentioned *going beyond the call of duty*, especially in her first few months of working when things were still new to her. Additionally, one South African participant (D_{SA}) and one Belgian participant (J_{BE}) highlighted that they experience *a level of busy-ness at work* which serves to absorb and occupy them at all times.

b) Dedication to work

All 15 participants from SA and ten from Belgium acknowledged being dedicated to their work. This work engagement sub-category was found to comprise of four codes, namely (1) *being fully committed and loyal to work*; (2) *going over and above at work*; (3) *having a sense of pride and respect for work*; and (4) *working with intensity*.

Being fully committed and loyal to work was highlighted by seven participants from SA and four from Belgium. For example, Participant F_(SA) stated that he is very loyal to his NPO and puts in extra time when needed, and Participant F_(SA) mentioned that he attempts to go beyond what is required of him, since he sees his work as more than just an 8am to 5pm job. Participant C_(SA) explained that she is fully committed to her work because she feels valued by the organisation, and because hard work has been required of her in order to raise funds for her NPO:

“It’s been a tough year and I’ve had to work hard...because this organisation is battling, I do have to work that much harder – because what I’m working for is that the guy in a shack in Motherwell who we don’t easily get access to is going to [get] the same care as somebody like your or my grandmother.”

Participant O_(SA) noted that she demonstrates dedication by continuing to write new proposals for funding even when previous ones are rejected, as well as through her desire to create an incredible children’s arts festival that improves every year. Moreover, she stated that she does not watch the clock in terms of overtime, but rather works until the job is done. Participant B_(SA) stated that:

“...I love going to meetings... I love getting things done...when you have ideas you want to go with it, like run with it...”

Participant D_(SA) said that she shows commitment by working in the evenings if she finds that she does not have enough time to finish her work during the day, even though this interrupts her family time. She is willing to put in these hours because she knows her work is bettering the lives of others. Participant G_(SA) highlighted that she is dedicated because work is an important part of her life:

“I am dedicated to my work. I don't know how not to be dedicated to work...work is a very important part of my life. If I'm not happy at work, I tend to often be unhappy generally. Work is a big component so...being dedicated to my work is often what helps me to engage with it better and to enjoy it better and to do it better. When I start losing dedication to what I'm doing, then it's probably time to be looking for a change.”

According to Participant A_(BE), he is totally involved in his work at all times and does not let problems slide when things go wrong, since he is accountable to those with whom he works. Participant F_(BE) stated that he works hard during his working day, and Participant H_(BE) mentioned that he is dedicated due to the fact that he would be woken up in the middle of night without hesitation if a serious problem occurred at work. Participant E_(BE) highlighted that her work keeps her occupied every day, and that since her work holds an important place in her life, she ensures that work-related arrangements are organised correctly and that e-mails are answered within two days.

Six South African participants and one Belgian stated that they *go over and above at work*. Participant A_(SA) stated that she works for the greater good of her NPO by working overtime, even though putting in extra hours is not part of her job description or core tasks. Along the same lines, Participant J_(BE) stays at work longer than she needs to after hours, and Participant J_(SA) reported that she goes the extra mile by working overtime without extra pay, and also shows her dedication by helping her colleagues whenever needed. Furthermore, according to Participant K_(SA):

“It can be very exhausting because once you enter the office, until you close the door – many times late evenings, you've got to go back home, do your admin. You have very little time for friends or for family if you

really want to make a success of this. You will have to give your best. You will have to put in a lot of time...If you don't put in – invest time and energy and love and interest – you will not get an organisation that will, you know, grow...”

Participant L_(SA) mentioned that she is engrossed in her work, is passionate about her job and loves it enough to be at work seven days a week. Participant M_(SA) noted that she goes over and above at work not only by completing her tasks on time and making sure that everything gets done, but by organising fun activities for residents, communicating with their families, being on call after hours, and working later than 5pm when needed. She puts in extra time because:

“...I kind of feel sorry for the residents...they come from nothing and what you try to do is you're trying to help them and give it everything you can to help them so I believe that I have – I've really given. Sometimes my boss just says 'calm down'. I'm going to do too much. I feel that's sometimes also me. I like to take on everything because then I know I can do it...”

Participant N_(SA) described that she often works seven days a week or longer without a day off, and that since she works from home, she experiences a blur in working hour boundaries because she works late at night when there are no phonecalls or distractions. That said, she does not receive extra pay for this overtime work, but would not expect extra payment because she is aware that her NPO does not have an abundance of funding. She noted that:

“...I know I put in extra. You know, over and above...I work consistently. By tomorrow I will have worked nineteen consecutive days without a day off...I just sort of think, 'well, what's the point because there's stuff to be done. I've got to do this...”

This participant went on to explain that she puts in this extra time because she is passionate about her work, and she is not sure who else would be willing to put in these hours once she eventually leaves the organisation.

Having a sense of pride and respect for work was mentioned by one participant from SA and one from Belgium. Participant G_(BE) said that he is dedicated to his NPO owing to the sense of responsibility, pride and respect he holds for the

organisation. Participant K_(SA) noted that she gives of her best because this is a role that she wanted to fill. Her dedication is exhibited in the passion she holds for her work, and the manner in which she upholds standards.

Two South African participants stated that they demonstrate dedication by *working with intensity*. For example, Participant H_(SA) works eleven to twelve hours per day as well as weekend work, which results in sacrifices to his personal life; yet, he does not receive overtime pay or bonus time. For this reason, he relies on self-motivation as opposed to being dedicated purely to receive a reward. Moreover, Participant E_(SA) works to the best of his ability and will continue to do so until he is asked to leave:

“...I’m not just here in a “just for a job” type of thing – you know, just a pass time – it’s not me. I’m here to do what I’m here to do and I’ll do it to the best of my ability, until somebody says to me, ‘listen, just get out of here, we don’t need you’.”

c) Vigour at work

Twelve South African and all ten Belgian participants stated that they are energised by their work. The data showed that being vigourous at work stemmed from six work-related aspects, namely (1) *being busy at work*; (2) *completing tasks / things going right at work / successes* (3) *high levels of excitement at work*; (4) *working on new projects*; (5) *work-related challenges and variety*; and (6) *working with a variety of people*.

Five South African participants stated that they demonstrate their vigour through *being busy at work*. Participant D_(SA) claimed that she has no time to sit and think because she is doing things at all times, but that despite this, she is always in high spirits because she is so focused on making a difference in the lives of children. Participant M_(SA) stated that she is energised through being constantly busy and having one thing to do after another, and Participant I_(SA) highlighted that he is most energised when he is contributing at work and is busy with tasks to complete, because he feels drained when days are quieter. Participant E_(SA) noted that he has much to do at work and always wants to

keeps on going, while Participant F_(SA) mentioned that he gains energy from developing diverse programmes and running up and down with things to do.

Four South African participants reported that they gain energy from *completing their tasks, or through things going right at work* and achieving *successes at work*. Participant A_(SA) discussed how she works at her optimum energy level when things happen the way that she wants them to at work, such as when her NPO secures large training projects; when she sees corporate social investment initiatives working; and when she places advertisements on time. On the other hand, she experiences work to be emotionally draining when she puts her all in yet does not see results. Participant O_(SA) described how she does a “dance of joy” down her passage at work when things go right, and that such successes make her want to do more. According to Participant H_(SA), he is energised through small successes and satisfactions, such as teaching something environmental to children and seeing their eyes light up; having a good mentoring session with staff; being awarded a tender; or starting a new phase of a project. Such successes keep him going even though his work is physically exhausting and stressful owing to the long hours that he works. Participant L_(SA) reported that she is always aware that there are far reaching consequences to her making mistakes at work, which serves to motivate and energise her. She is moreover energised by seeing changes in the lives of others and hearing that she has made a priceless impact, such as through hearing that her divorce care classes have made a difference in someone’s life. Participant B_(BE) described the source of her energy as follows:

“When I’ve done a training session or done a function assessment session and I can see that it has been of value to the people, then I do feel energised. In the same way, when I’ve done a consultation with someone at a sick-bed and he or she finds it worth their while, well then I derive energy from that as well...I have the feeling that I can do something, and that that means something to other people. In the second place, the idea that you yourself are capable of doing something that is useful for other people.”

Participant G_(BE) noted that he is energised by the realisation of results, and Participant J_(BE) said that when work days have been pleasant and all is going

well with the children she cares for, then she is energised and feels like continuing with her work. According to Participant F_(BE), he is energised by exerting himself at work, since he is aware that the work that he does changes lives and holds great meaning. This encourages him to put much energy into his work, since he gains energy out of it as a result. In addition, Participant D_(BE) highlighted how she is stimulated and inspired by work-related achievements, such as when she hears feedback about her work on the radio.

One participant from SA [N_(SA)] mentioned that she enjoys *high levels of excitement at work*, since she is excited about what she does and finds that her work does not exhaust her. Two participants from Belgium stated that they are energised by *working on new projects*, with Participant H_(BE) highlighting how he is energised at work when he starts up a new cycle each day. Participant E_(BE) noted that every time she is involved with something new or sets up a new project, she gets new ideas and becomes excited about her work all over again.

Work-related challenges and variety was discussed as an energy force for four South African participants and one Belgian. Participant B_(SA) said that she is energised by future goals, such as when she attends meetings and becomes aware of everything she has accomplished versus what still needs to be done. Participant C_(SA) mentioned that she gains energy from the nature of her work, such as through organising events that entail many varied tasks to take her focus. An example is organising an annual ladies' champagne breakfast for her NPO, which involves finding a guest speaker, arranging flowers, organising gifts on a small budget, and performing administrative work. Participant G_(SA) reported that she is re-energised when she begins new tasks or takes on different issues and challenges that she is interested in, since these allow her to apply her mind on what to do within the scope of what she is allowed to do, thereby overcoming problems and implementing solutions. Participant I_(BE) discussed how she derives energy from work-related ventures that have taken off quickly and are working well, as well as from performing graphic design work that serves the purpose of making her organisation's public image seem more professional. She is therefore energised by the feeling of making a difference at work.

One South African participant and two Belgians made reference to *working with a variety of people* as a source of energy. Participant F_(SA) mentioned that he finds it exciting to work with children and supervise his staff. Participant G_(BE) described how he is energised and enriched by collaborating with others and by being part of an NPO that operates globally, since this has given him the opportunity to pursue international contacts. Participant A_(BE) noted that he remains fresh and alert in mind and spirit by working together with individuals of all ages and backgrounds. In particular, he feels that he draws energy from all of the different stories, beliefs and problems that they share together:

“But then we all have those moments when we get together with people here, doing photography or writing or making music. Those are the moments all this is about...That is our primary function. That’s really something to look forward to.”

6.2.1.5 Intention to quit

Interview data related to intention to quit will be discussed under two sub-headings, in order to separate responses from participants who desire to leave their organisations versus those who desire to remain working at their NPOs.

a) Participants intending to leave their NPOs

Seven South African participants and five Belgians said that they would consider leaving their NPOs in the future; thus, approximately 50 per cent of participants may be intending to quit their organisations. A number of reasons were provided for participants stating that they wished to resign. These were grouped into twelve codes, namely (1) *personal growth*; (2) *new experiences*; (3) *rewards / money*; (4) *funding*; (5) *NPO environment*; (6) *under-appreciation*; (7) *lack of opportunities*; (8) *colleagues*; (9) *administration*; (10) *lack of vision*; (11) *teamwork*; and (12) *workload / pressure*.

Personal growth was mentioned by three South African participants and one Belgian. Participant A_(SA) stated that she feels that the organisation will outgrow her at some point, and that they will need a fresh perspective within her position. Participant B_(SA) noted that she needs to keep on learning and moving forward, whereas Participant I_(SA) said that he feels that his season at the NPO is drawing

to an end because he is growing personally, beyond the organisation. Participant H_(BE) specified how he believes that any employee's productivity naturally wanes after four years and thus a move to another position is necessary in order to avoid negative productivity.

This is related to another code that arose from the data, namely participants desiring *new experiences*. This was discussed by three South Africans and one Belgian. Participant H_(BE) explained how employees must add value to their organisations and vice versa in order for work pleasure to be retained, and that this occurs when employees move to new positions every five years. The benefit for employees is that they would embark on new challenges, and the benefit for organisations is that they gain fresh employees into positions which stimulates a healthy way of thinking. Participant A_(SA) noted that she wants to experience working in a corporate organisation, since her energy has been drained working within the non-profit sector. Along a similar line, Participant I_(SA) desires to pursue his postgraduate studies and move back into the business field. Participant B_(SA) described how she desires to travel and work for a global welfare and humanitarian NPO in the future, and that her current job is a small step in this direction. Her hope is to experience new challenges and not become stagnant by staying in one organisation for too long.

Rewards or money was mentioned by three South African participants and two Belgians as influencing their intentions to leave their NPOs. Poignantly, Participant B_(SA) described how she wants to be independent and move out of the residence she shares with her parents, but is unable to do so on her current salary. As a result, she has had to supplement her income through giving French lessons. Participant J_(SA) said that she has gone without a salary for a month, and they have the possibility of not receiving a bonus as well. She thus desires to move to a different sector where pay would be more stable, and moreover desires to receive annual increases as well as benefits such as a provident fund, pension fund and medical aid, which she does not receive while working at her current NPO. Pay is the only factor pushing Participant M_(SA) to desire to leave her organisation, since she is currently not earning enough to sustain the lifestyle she desires. To supplement her income, she has taken on

an extra part-time lecturing position in the evenings. Participant B_(BE) noted that money might be a factor influencing her intentions to quit her NPO, since there is a large difference between her current salary and what she earned previously at a different organisation. At the latter, she received not only a salary, but also benefits such as a cellphone, laptop and bank card. Participant F_(BE) briefly made mention of the fact that he is not rewarded for his hard work under pressure, which he does not appreciate.

Linked to this is *funding*, which was highlighted by two South African participants. Participant J_(SA), after mentioning that she has not received a salary for a month, explained how she needs stability and security but that her current job is in jeopardy due to the NPO not receiving their subsidy from the government. She stated that:

“...things in the NGO sector is now getting worse. There was a period where we didn’t get a subsidy for two to three months. See, so now you ask yourself the question, “Where are we heading to? What is happening? What is government doing? – so you can’t be in that comfort zone that you have a job...”

Since the NPO cannot operate without funding, she noted that she will only remain working there if the board of directors commits to fundraising and obtaining donors, so that her salary, increases and bonuses would be secured. Along a similar line, Participant N_(SA) mentioned that she might have no option to leave her NPO if they do not obtain funding in the future from the National Lottery in SA.

The *NPO environment* was highlighted by two participants from SA, with Participant I_(SA) describing his frustrations with this environment since it lacks transparency. Due to the fact that he is trained in accounting science, he is aware that their environment is not well regulated, there is no culture of control, and there is a disconnect between the board and the day-to-day runnings of the NPO. He noted that he desires to work somewhere that is more structured. Participant O_(SA) reported that she feels like leaving her job when she experiences numerous funding proposals being rejected, which is

disheartening and demotivating. Such failed fundraising efforts would not be experienced should she be working in a different sector.

One South African participant [J_(SA)] made mention of desiring to leave because she feels *under-appreciated*; whereas a Belgian participant [C_(BE)] noted that she desired to quit her job soon after she began it because she was not given any important *opportunities* at work owing to the presence of another colleague. Another Belgian participant [J_(BE)] highlighted her *colleagues* as a reason for intending to quit the organisation, since she does not have much contact with her coordinator and her colleagues were not easy to get along with, which put a dampener on the work atmosphere and made work less pleasant.

Finally, a different Belgian [Participant F_(BE)] was the only participant to mention the reasons of *administration*; *lack of vision*; *teamwork*; and *workload / pressure* regarding why he has desired to leave his NPO in the past. With regards to administration, he noted that for the sake of efficiency and effectiveness, there is often more concern for the completion of forms than for the content of one's caregiving and counselling, which can be demotivating. Changes in structures and content at his NPO caused problems, and organisational growth placed employees under considerable stress and pressure, with increased workloads for which there was seemingly no solution. The organisation lacked care and a vision, with operations not running smoothly. Internal collaboration between team members was difficult, and changes took place within teams.

Regarding where participants would choose to work if they did leave the NPO sector, four South Africans and two Belgians specified that they would choose to work in the corporate sector, while two South African participants mentioned that they would work for the government instead of the non-profit sector. Three participants from SA and four from Belgium highlighted how they would choose to remain working in the non-profit sector, however. One South African participant and two Belgians commented that they would simply desire to work in a position that fulfilled them, meant something to them, and upheld strong missions, purposes, values and standards; as opposed to a job that focused solely on selling products or services.

b) Participants desiring to remain working at their NPOs

On the other hand, numerous reasons were also provided for participants desiring to remain working within their NPOs. The eleven codes that emerged in this regard included (1) *being happy / enjoys work / loves job*; (2) *where one is meant to be*; (3) *called by God*; (4) *working towards a purpose*; (5) *work is not yet finished*; (6) *room for growth*; (7) *autonomy*; (8) *fulfillment from projects*; (9) *a caring environment*; (10) *lack of desire to be self-employed*; and (11) *being close to retirement*.

Being happy, or enjoying or loving one's job or work was mentioned by three South African and four Belgian participants as a reason why they do not wish to quit their organisations. Participant D_(SA) said that she would not leave because she enjoys and loves her job, and experiences happiness from within as a result of her work. Participant A_(BE) highlighted that he finds energy and beauty within his work and workplace daily, whereas Participant E_(BE) noted that she still derives a great deal of pleasure from her work.

One South African [Participant F_(SA)] commented that he will not look to move jobs because his current position is *where he is meant to be*. Along this line, three participants from SA discussed that they have been *called by God* to work in their NPOs and thus would not leave. In particular, Participant F_(SA) described how God had placed him at his NPO for a reason, and he thus has faith that it is where he should be working. If ever he entertains the idea of leaving, his relationship with God reminds him of why he is there.

Two South African participants highlighted that they are *working towards a purpose* at their NPOs and thus would not leave yet; such as Participant K_(SA) who discussed how she has a purpose on earth to help those in need, which is why she started the organisation and has a heart for it. This same participant was the only one to state that her *work* at the NPO is *not yet finished*, and therefore she would never walk out halfway or run away from the problems her NPO faces, as this will not solve them. She explained that when she starts something, she must end it and remain motivated throughout, especially since her work is directly influencing the lives of others.

Additionally, being given *room for growth*, or the potential for such growth, encouraged three South African participants to stay at their organisations. For example, Participant H_(SA) mentioned that he sees himself growing in the long term within the organisation he works for, provided that opportunities for development and change continue to present themselves. Participant M_(SA) highlighted that she has the opportunity to be promoted into a management position in the future, so this potential for growth makes her deem it not worthwhile to leave.

Participant H_(SA) stated that he does not intend to leave his NPO owing to the *autonomy* afforded to him in his daily work, as well as because he is *fulfilled by the projects* he runs, which creates a sense of direction and energy in his life. He was the only participant to mention these reasons. Moreover, only one South African [Participant C_(SA)] noted that a *caring environment* encourages her to remain working for her NPO. One of the reasons that Participant E_(SA) brought up for choosing to stay at his organisation is because he *does not wish to be self-employed*, which would be his alternative upon resigning. Another participant who thought about what he would do upon resignation is Participant G_(BE), who said that if he were younger he would look for new challenges elsewhere, but because he is *close to retiring*, he will rather remain at his current organisation.

6.2.1.6 Comments on salaries earned, and satisfaction thereof

It was apparent that a number of the NPO participants interviewed do not earn high salaries. Yet, their comments emphasised the fact that for the most part, the participants under study are intrinsically motivated and are also intrinsically rewarded by their work, which to a certain extent offsets their low salaries received. For example, Participant F_(SA) stated that he does not earn a lot of money, but that chasing money would not bring him satisfaction anyway. He discussed how:

“Look, everyone thinks they should be paid more. That’s just a reality in life, but I didn’t do this for the payment. I’ve always said that as long as...I can live comfortably – and I must say I’m earning a comfortable salary.

I'm not earning the best salary but I'm earning a comfortable salary, and I can make my ends meet, and that's all that I'm really looking for."

Participant M_(SA) reported that she does not earn a lot, but that this is a sacrifice that she is willing to make because she would rather earn a smaller salary and be happy in her job than earn a large salary and be unhappy. Participant L_(SA) stated that her rewards at work are definitely not financial, since she earns less now than when she worked in the corporate sector. However, she highlighted how she was not after a large salary when she accepted her current position.

According to Participant H_(SA), in his environmental and conservation NPO:

"...The pay is low – relatively low – and you can get higher pay outside the organisation...if it's pay that motivates you and needing somebody else chasing your tail motivating you, you just don't succeed in NGOs...we don't have time for passengers"

He went on to highlight that he does not get bonus time or overtime pay anymore, so he needs to be self-motivated as opposed to being motivated by a reward. However, he did state that if his salary continued to grow with inflation then he would be fine, and that his NPO is gradually working all employees' salaries up to a median level.

One participant who made it clear that she lacks intrinsic motivation is Participant J_(SA), who specified that she has received no salary increase in three years; has gone without a salary for a month; is not paid for working overtime; and may not receive a bonus at the end of the year. She does not feel rewarded financially since she does not earn a lot of money at her NPO, with no benefits being provided to her such as a provident fund, pension fund or medical aid. She finds this salary situation to be demotivating. When asked to comment on her level of dedication to her job, she poignantly noted that:

"Doing this for the pay I get is dedication [laughs]. You've been without a salary for a month. You didn't get paid – still coming to work – well, that is also part of dedication and loyalty and commitment – being without a salary for a month but you still get up in the morning, you come to work, you go to your people..."

This indicates that Participant J_(SA) is engaged in her work, despite not feeling motivated owing to her financial situation.

A number of other participants also highlighted opinions concerning the low salaries that they receive. Participant E_(SA) mentioned that his organisation does not have a lot of money to pay him a “great” salary since it is an NPO, and he is aware that he must accept that. However, he commented that he is able to live on his current salary, and that he would be making furniture in his own time to earn extra money. Participant G_(SA) noted that she would not mind being paid more, since her salary is not necessarily competitive with what she would earn working as a doctor in the public sector. Along a similar line, Participant B_(BE) stated that there is a large difference between his current NPO salary and his previous salary and benefits which he earned while working in coaching and human resources in the business sector, since he no longer receives a cellphone, laptop, car or bank card. Participant L_(SA) drew attention to the fact that her salary is still “alright” from a church perspective, but that she receives no medical aid or pension contributions. Participant C_(SA) has the same experience, noting that NPO employees sacrifice because they don’t earn a lot of money nor receive medical aid or pension fund contributions. According to Participant N_(SA), she does not get paid extra when working on weekends, but she does not expect such extra payment or even time off since she realises that her NPO only has a certain amount of funding available. Only two participants, both Belgian, made mention of their salaries in a positive light: Participant G_(BE) said that he is satisfied with his salary, and Participant H_(BE) stated that employees at his NPO earn reasonable salaries.

Despite the above-mentioned comments on salary, five South African participants and two Belgians specifically explained that they were not motivated to join their NPOs for salary-related reasons, and seven participants from SA specifically highlighted that their primary rewards at work were not monetary-related. Participant C_(SA) described how she yearned to do more than work purely for money in industry, due to the fact that:

“...It is about working for far more than money...the ultimate satisfaction I get is not a monetary one, so how can I give up what I’m actually working for, for the sake of money?...The corporate world is a hard world – I moved in it. It’s cut throat and it’s – those are all the things that I just can’t bear. We are all about empowerment ...so no, I’m not going to give it up

for double the money, because the money's not that important to me [laughs]."

Participant E_(SA) agrees, mentioning that money is not a motivating factor for him to go to work, since his motivation goes beyond that. Participant D_(SA) noted that she did not expect her rewards at work to be monetary in nature, and Participant G_(SA) emphasised that for her, being rewarded at work was not about receiving a large salary. She discussed how:

"You know, not everything is about money. I don't need to be incredibly wealthy...as long as I don't have to actually every night worry about money. If I've got enough just to live comfortably and if everything gets paid every month, that's fine, that's enough."

Along the same lines, Participant G_(BE) mentioned that money is not a primary work-related concern for him, and Participant O_(SA) highlighted that:

"I've never been driven by salary and pay. Look, obviously to earn a lot of money must be fantastic, but I think job satisfaction is far more rewarding than the cheque you get at the end of the month."

According to Participant F_(SA), he is not driven by money, power or influence, and is not motivated to work for the money. Participant H_(SA) noted that his motivation to begin working at an NPO was not based on earning a large paycheck, but rather that his loyalty to his NPO stemmed from opportunities given to him and the philosophical and ethical space in which he works, which is more important to him than money. Participant K_(SA) summarised how she does not work for financial rewards as follows:

"I'm not doing this to be rewarded financially. I mean, there was five years that I did not get one cent for doing this work. My husband came in here in faith, no salary so we are different from stepping in an organisation and saying "well, I'm coming to do the social work post here." - - but I think because we developed this organisation and we've got a heart for it, it's not about being rewarded with physical things. I think it's your outlook in life that you do it mainly for your Heavenly Father. You've got a purpose on this Earth. You do it to help someone in need, but if you expect any rewards back, it's not for you - - this work then. You won't be happy."

Participant N_(SA) mentioned that pay has never been a reason for her considering moving to work in a different sector; and in a similar manner, Participant L_(SA) said that she would not leave her NPO if someone else offered her more money, since she is not motivated by that. Participants C_(BE) and D_(BE) agreed, stating that money would not be a motivator for them to leave their NPOs, and Participant J_(BE) reported that salary has never really played a role for him, so it would not be a motivating factor for her to leave her NPO. In line with this, Participant D_(SA) highlighted that she would not leave her NPO just for more money, but that the new job would need to mean something to her as well. Participant M_(SA) highlighted how she has considered leaving her job to earn more money elsewhere, but that she has not yet left because she loves her job. Thus, pay is an aspect influencing her desire to leave her NPO. According to Participant A_(BE), he can manage on what he earns at his NPO, and he would not leave the non-profit sector to work in the commercial sector even if he was offered a salary three times as much as his current one. Moreover, Participant F_(BE) described that:

“I enjoy getting paid for my job as well, but for the money – no, I wouldn’t do it for the money, much rather for my life. Fact is...I might consider taking a job purely for the money so as to be able to do other things in my life, but I would much rather have a job where I feel intrinsically rewarded [laughs], that I enjoy doing, and then being able to do that which I want to do most is sufficient reward for me.”

However, this is not to say that NPO employees live in an idealistic world where money is of no importance whatsoever. As noted by Participant A_(BE), a salary is important for an NPO employee to be able to live, and Participant B_(SA) highlighted that money is a factor influencing her intention to leave because she cannot move out of her parent’s house and be independent while earning her current income, which she needs to supplement through the provision of French lessons. It has already been mentioned that Participant E_(SA) will be making furniture to supplement his NPO income, and Participant M_(SA) highlighted that she has taken on an extra part-time position lecturing in the evenings, so that she has more disposable income. The above overview of NPO participants concerns regarding their salaries indicates that linkages do exist between

salary satisfaction and the four constructs under study. This leads to the following sub-section, which elaborates on the relationships alluded to through the qualitative data collected.

6.2.2 Linkages between constructs

Based on the qualitative data discussed above, a number of linkages between categories can be identified, some of which provide initial empirical support for the theoretical model proposed by the researcher in Chapter Four which at this point is merely theoretically sound. These connections are as follows:

- Experiencing a feel-good factor was highlighted as affecting the meaning of participants' work, an aspect that also links to being intrinsically motivated by having an emotional connection to what one does at work. This suggests that experiencing the intrinsic reward of *Meaningful Work* may positively relate to the intrinsic motivation dimension of *Personal Connection to One's Work*.
- Empowering others; giving hope to others; playing a vital role at work; seeing the difference that one's work makes; social upliftment; sharing knowledge; and working towards the greater good were all discussed as aspects influencing how meaningful participants perceived their work to be. Yet, these aspects also relate to being intrinsically motivated to make a difference in the lives of others, taking into account that the codes for this were desiring to assist; desiring to meet needs; a sense of responsibility; and seeing growth in others. This could imply that experiencing the intrinsic reward of *Meaningful Work* may positively correlate with the intrinsic motivation dimension of *Personal Desire to Make a Difference*.
- Meeting personal goals and a sense of accomplishment or success were reported as aspects influencing participants being intrinsically motivated by a personal desire to perform. These codes also link to participants feeling challenged by their work, suggesting that the intrinsic reward of *Challenging Work* may correlate positively with the intrinsic motivation dimension of *Personal Desire to Perform*.
- Since all five intrinsic rewards categories were also discussed by participants in relation to their levels of motivation, it can be proposed that *Intrinsic Rewards*

in general as well as each of its factors will correlate positively with levels of *Intrinsic Motivation*.

- Being engrossed in, and involved with, one's work as well as being focused on one's work were noted to be factors influencing absorption, a dimension of work engagement; however, these elements also imply that one experiences a personal desire to perform to the best of one's abilities. This suggests that the intrinsic motivation dimension of *Personal Desire to Perform* will correlate positively with the work engagement factor of *Absorption*.
- It was mentioned by participants that being engrossed in their work (an element of absorption) as well as being fully committed and loyal to their work (an element of dedication) meant that they were enjoying their work, which points toward the fact that experiencing a higher level of the intrinsic reward of *Enjoyable Work* will lead to higher levels of the work engagement dimensions of *Absorption* and *Dedication*¹⁸.
- Working on new projects and work-related challenges were both specified as leading to participants enjoying more vigour at work, suggesting that higher levels of the intrinsic reward of *Challenging Work* leads to higher levels of the work engagement dimension of *Vigour*¹⁹.
- Work-related variety as well as working with a variety of people were both mentioned as factors that caused participants to enjoy more energy at work, which proposes that higher levels of the intrinsic reward of *Varied Work* may lead to higher levels of the work engagement dimension of *Vigour*²⁰.
- Making a difference in the lives of others was noted to energise participants, through completing tasks and experiencing successes at work. This implies that being intrinsically motivated by a *Personal Desire to Make a Difference* will lead to higher levels of the work engagement dimension of *Vigour*²¹.
- Opportunities for personal growth and desiring new experiences were both highlighted as dimensions influencing intending to quit one's organisation,

¹⁸ Relates to Hypothesis 1

¹⁹ Relates to Hypothesis 1

²⁰ Relates to Hypothesis 1

²¹ Relates to Hypothesis 6

which suggests that experiencing a low level of the intrinsic reward of *Challenging Work* may lead to higher levels of *Intention to Quit*²².

- Being happy with one's work, as well as enjoying and loving what one does, were referred to as factors influencing retention, suggesting that experiencing a high level of *Enjoyable Work* may result in lower levels of *Intention to Quit*²³.
- Working towards a purpose and being fulfilled by projects were discussed as factors that lead to participants not desiring to leave their organisations, which makes it apparent that having a high level of the intrinsic reward of *Meaningful Work* leads to lower levels of *Intention to Quit*²⁴.
- Autonomy was mentioned as a factor influencing intention to remain with one's organisation, implying that having high levels of the intrinsic reward of *Flexible Work* may cause lower levels of *Intention to Quit*²⁵.
- Due to the fact that working where one is supposed to be working and being called to a job were discussed in relation to retention, it is likely that high levels of the intrinsic motivation dimension of *Personal Connection to One's Work* will lead to lower levels of *Intention to Quit*²⁶.
- Since rewards and money were brought up as aspects influencing whether participants choose to leave their NPOs, it is probable that low levels of *salary satisfaction* will correlate with higher levels of *Intention to Quit*.
- It was mentioned by participants that not being rewarded in a financially sufficient manner leads to demotivation, implying that low levels of *salary satisfaction* will correlate with lower levels of *Intrinsic Motivation*.

To summarise, the above linkages suggest that positive correlations should exist between intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation; intrinsic motivation and work engagement; and between salary satisfaction and intrinsic motivation. A negative correlation should exist between intention to quit and salary

²² Relates to Hypothesis 3

²³ Relates to Hypothesis 3

²⁴ Relates to Hypothesis 3

²⁵ Relates to Hypothesis 3

²⁶ Relates to Hypothesis 5

satisfaction. In addition, provisional empirical support is provided for the following hypotheses (see footnotes):

- **Hypothesis 1**: Work engagement is predicted by intrinsic rewards
- **Hypothesis 3**: Intention to quit is predicted by intrinsic rewards
- **Hypothesis 5**: Intention to quit is predicted by intrinsic motivation
- **Hypothesis 6**: Work engagement is predicted by intrinsic motivation

6.3 Results of Phase 2

Following the interviews being conducted in Phase 1 of this study, two measuring instruments were developed to measure intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation. These instruments were piloted in Phase 2 of this study as a combined composite questionnaire, the results of which will now be discussed. The qualitative feedback obtained from participants in this phase will be discussed according to the language of the questionnaire used; that is, the results pertaining to the English pilot questionnaire will be discussed first, followed by feedback on the Dutch pilot questionnaire.

6.3.1 English version of the pilot questionnaire

The following sub-sections detail the nature of the qualitative feedback received from the pilot study participants.

6.3.1.1 First stage of revision

Four IOP / human resource academics were the first to proof the initial pilot questionnaire, once it had been approved by the researcher's supervisor and her statistician. These academics will be referred to as Participants A to D. Participant D highlighted that all the items were phrased positively, which might result in respondents answering similarly to all statements, such as "strongly agree" or "strongly disagree" for every item. The present researcher notes that the tendency for respondents to answer "agree" as opposed to "disagree" for the majority of items in a questionnaire is known as acquiescent response bias (Smith et al., 2006). To avoid such bias, Participant D suggested that some items be negatively phrased (that is, inversely-related) in order to change the pattern of responses. Along the same line, Participant A suggested that

approximately 50 per cent of items in a questionnaire should be negatively formulated (that is, scored in the opposite direction), in order to avoid an undesirable response set. The researcher felt that such a large percentage of negatively phrased items was not necessary, but did edit two items under every factor heading to be negatively phrased. This alternation thus followed Smith et al.'s (2006) guideline to improve studies by balancing items requiring positive and negative responses, thus decreasing the possibility of acquiescent response bias occurring.

Participants A, B and C noted that certain items referred to one's "work" or "job", whereas others focused on one's "organisation". It was highlighted by these participants that a respondent could love, or have a personal connection to, his or her job or work tasks, yet not enjoy the organisation for which he or she works (or vice versa). For this reason, the researcher changed the wording of items referring to "organisation" to reflect respondents' feelings towards their "job" or "work" instead. This was also done in order to fit with the definitions of intrinsic motivation and intrinsic rewards, which are focused on the motivating potential of one's work, not one's organisation. As a result, items relating to one's personal values or passion aligning with the mission or value of one's organisation were also removed, as they were deemed not to be relevant to the constructs under study.

Participants B, C and D all remarked that the education level of the respondents would affect their comprehension of the items. In the case of their literacy levels not being high, the researcher deemed it safer to reword some items to ensure that they would be better understood by respondents. All four participants made numerous other comments and suggestions relating to the wording and structure of items, resulting in certain questionnaire items being rephrased. Participants A to D also noted similarities across certain items, resulting in the researcher merging a number of items. Items that were not as relevant as others were removed in some cases. Three additional demographic categories were added, based on the feedback received from participants.

As per the researcher's request, Participants A to C also highlighted between three to five items per factor that they felt were most relevant to each particular factor being measured. This assisted the researcher in knowing which items best measured each factor, helping in refining the number of items. As a result of the above feedback, the IWRS decreased from 44 to 38 items, and the IWMS decreased from 27 to 23 items. As noted by Participant D, the pilot questionnaire was lengthy with some repetition, which made the process of shortening the questionnaire not too difficult.

Finally, Participant D noted that all items needed to link to the factors relating to the hypotheses being tested in the proposed theoretical model. The researcher was able to guarantee that the factors, and constructs to which the factors related, were indeed being tested in the proposed model.

6.3.1.2 Second stage of revision

The revised, shortened questionnaire was then reviewed by three NPO employees from SA, who will be referred to as Participants E to G. Positive feedback was received from these participants, with Participant E stating that the results of the study could be very significant. This is due to the fact that the questionnaire "helps us understand what motivates people to do better in their jobs", which he listed as being very helpful. Participant E went on to congratulate the researcher for honing in on issues such as "the underpinning voluntary and commitment relationships that really further the field". In a similar positive manner, Participant G confirmed the relevancy and usefulness of the questionnaire, highlighting that:

"The questions are all very relevant to my work. I have worked for [Organisation G] for 22 years – the main reason for staying being that if I had to work, it was surely not going to be to make somebody else wealthy but to provide some good for human kind. I do think that your questionnaire covers my motivation and satisfaction with my reward very well."

In terms of constructive feedback, Participant G felt that two negative items per factor was too much, due to the fact that they often duplicated what was stated

by the positive items. This was interesting to note, since Participant A had suggested that 50 per cent of items should be negatively phrased, and the researcher had decided against altering the direction of so many of the items. Despite this comment from Participant G, both Participants F and G included negatively phrased items in their choice of items that they felt best measured each factor. These chosen items assisting in refining the questionnaire.

Regarding the factor of *Flexible work* in the IWRS, Participant F commented as follows:

“My comment here is that, particularly with the implementation of the new Children’s Act and the monitoring from the Department of Social Development, we have a very strict framework from which we have to work and standards to maintain – decisions have to go through the correct process; the working hours necessary can come up to 12 hours in a day; court and statutory reports must be completed to strict time scales; crisis management can occur at any time. I just struggle with the notion of ‘flexible’ as being a way of measuring rewards.”

Despite this comment, the researcher decided against removing the intrinsic reward factor of *Flexible Work*. This decision was based on the number of times that autonomy at work was mentioned by participants in Phase 1 as being rewarding to them [see Section 6.2.1.1(b)]. That is, this participant’s comment does not negate the fact that flexible work is perceived to be an important intrinsic reward not only by the researcher and her supervisor, but by theory as well as NPO employees themselves in Phase 1. The researcher notes that including an intrinsic reward dimension on *Flexible Work* does not mean that every respondent will identify with this factor, but rather that individuals such as Participant F would simply score lower on this factor.

Both Participants F and G highlighted between four and five items per factor that they felt were most relevant to each particular factor being measured. Participant E, however, only vaguely suggested that the number of items be shortened to a maximum of four per factor, instead of providing feedback on which items be kept in the questionnaire, as requested. He noted that “the longer questionnaire format is in danger of perpetuating the ideological pre-

disposition of the questionnaire designer”, emphasising that the “best data comes from simply three topical and pertinent questions”. While the researcher acknowledges the disadvantages of lengthy questionnaires, she highlights that EFA will be conducted in Phase 3 of this study, which will serve to statistically refine the number of items per factor based on factor loadings and eigenvalues. While the qualitative data collected in this second phase of data analysis is valuable in order to take note of glaring errors in item construction and remove obviously unnecessary items, she still deemed it necessary to include more than four items per factor, with the knowledge that the questionnaire would be refined further during Phase 3 of data analysis. Moreover, pilot participants consistently highlighted different items as being most relevant to the factors being measured, justifying the researcher’s decision not to reduce the number of items in the pilot questionnaire too drastically.

Participant E suggested the use of focus group discussions pertaining to the questionnaire topics, in order to deepen the research. He suggested this due to the fact that results from questionnaires are usually superficial, and the NGO community is asked to complete as many as five lengthy questionnaires per week, which takes much of their time. The researcher was able to reassure Participant E that in-depth interviews with NPO employees had already been conducted in Phase 1, which had provided her with invaluable in-depth data to shed light on the constructs being investigated. This would ensure that the conclusions stemming from her research will be deeper than the superficial data often obtained from Likert-scale questionnaires.

According to Participant G, the questionnaire could be completed in ten minutes, whereas Participant F stated that the ideal time would be 15 minutes. Based on the above feedback, the researcher felt satisfied with the majority of items in the IWMS and IWRS. She did remove two further items from the IWMS, but made the decision not to remove any other items that she felt might be problematic, instead choosing to gain the feedback of three more academics before making final changes to these measuring instruments.

6.3.1.3 Third stage of revision

The questionnaire was reviewed by a further three IOP / HR academics who had not had time to proof it during the first stage of revision. These academics will be referred to as Participants H to J. Participant J in particular felt that certain items captured the heart of non-profit employee motivation very well, such as the item “my work feeds my soul” (*Enjoyable work, IWRS*). Interestingly, this participant asked the researcher whether she had come across any literature linking the desire to work in an NPO with one’s spirituality or religion. The researcher was able to inform her that participants in Phase 1 had spoken about their religious beliefs tying directly to them being personally connected to their work in the non-profit sector [see Section 6.2.1.3(a)]. The researcher did, however, make the decision to leave out such items pertaining to spirituality from the IWMS, as she felt that spiritual items might make respondents who are not religiously-inclined feel uncomfortable, or might result in them refraining from completing the questionnaire owing to a differing belief system. Participant J stated that she agreed with this decision. In addition, the researcher is of the opinion that the link between spirituality and intrinsic motivation is a study on its own, and as such, this has been added as a recommendation for future research in Chapter Eight.

Participants H and J made numerous suggestions relating to the phrasing and meaning of items in the questionnaire. Both these participants suggested that the word “desire” in the IWMS be changed to the word “need”; however, the researcher notes that the use of “desire” specifically ties in with the understanding of intrinsic motivation presented in theory as well as participants’ responses discussed in Phase 1 of this study. The word “need” implies necessity (something that is required by an individual), whereas the term “desire” implies wanting, wishing, longing or hoping for something (Merriam-Webster, 2014). The researcher believes that the latter best portrays the feelings that non-profit employees may hold towards their work, for example as exhibited through the item “I have an internal desire to perform to the best of my ability” (*Personal desire to perform, IWMS*).

Within the factor of *Personal desire to make a difference* (IWMS), Participant I suggested including an item that pertained to respondents desiring to mentor others. Interestingly, mentoring was raised by two South African participants and one Belgian in Phase 1 in relation to how they gain fulfillment from their work (see Section 6.2.1.2). However, the researcher decided against including mentoring items in the IWMS, due to the fact that mentoring is an extrinsic, non-financial reward and is therefore a concept more applicable to the measurement of rewards. Furthermore, the researcher made an effort to make questions as broad as possible in the IWMS, so that they would be relevant to as wide an array of employees as possible. Any items on mentoring would be too specific, since they would not be applicable to individuals occupying all job levels within an organisation (for example, individuals who are lower in their organisational hierarchies such as secretaries who are not directly mentoring others).

Participants I and J queried whether the item, “I find my work to be demanding” (*Challenging work, IWRS*) was positive or negative in nature. They noted that such a question could imply that one’s work is draining and not enjoyable, as opposed to the positive connotation of challenging work. For this reason, and owing to sufficient other items measuring this factor, this item was deleted.

Participant J recommended that some negative items be rephrased into positive statements; however, the researcher draws attention to her previous explanation on including negatively phrased items, in an effort to minimise the chances of acquiescent response bias.

Participant H made suggestions regarding the demographic section of the questionnaire, such as changing the order of the *Primary language spoken* options, and querying the relevancy of the terms used for *Highest level of education achieved*. Participant I suggested altering the wording for certain demographic variables, such as replacing the term “single” with “never married” within *Marital status*, and measuring respondents’ satisfaction with their salaries on a five-point Likert-scale as opposed to a “yes/no” form of measurement. These suggestions were taken into account by the researcher in refining the questionnaire. The researcher also removed items that were unnecessarily

repetitive in order to shorten the questionnaire and keep it to-the-point as a result of the recommendations of Participants H to J. The revised versions of the IMWS and IWRS, to be used in Phase 3 of this study, comprised of 21 and 32 items respectively.

6.3.2 Dutch version of the pilot questionnaire

The Dutch version of the questionnaire was proofed by three NPO employees in Belgium, hereafter referred to as Participants K to M. Participant K deemed some of the sentences to be structured poorly, suggesting that they be rewritten in more fluent Dutch. She also noted that some answers might be too diverse as a result of the structure of the items. Unfortunately, she provided no constructive feedback on which items to rewrite, and thus offered insufficient information to substantiate the researcher making specific changes.

Participant L suggested that an option be added within the *Marital status* demographic that would be relevant to respondents living with their parents. The researcher notes that the option “single” has been replaced with “never married”, which better refers to individuals who are still living with their parents. In terms of the item asking respondents about their salary satisfaction, Participant L suggested that instead of measuring the response by means of “yes/no”, respondents be provided with a “neutral”, “not satisfied / not dissatisfied” or “sometimes” option, because “the option to answer something ‘in between’ would be welcome” in order not to oversimplify responses. Due to the fact that this was noted by a participant reviewing the English pilot questionnaire as well, the researcher made the decision to measure this question on a five-point Likert scale instead. Participant L also highlighted five items that she deemed to be most relevant per factor, to assist the researcher in refining the number of items.

Participant M stated that owing to a busy period at work, he was unable to provide specific feedback on the questionnaire in its entirety. However, he made a general comment to be aware of translations that may be misleading. For example, he claimed to interpret the term “desire” to imply ‘love and sexuality’; thus *‘Personal desire to perform’* sounded strange to him. He

recommended that the phrase '*Personal ambition to perform*' be used instead. However, the researcher has already verified why the term "desire" has been used for items relating to intrinsic motivation, thus this was not changed.

In order to gain more feedback on the quality of the Dutch translation, five Dutch-speaking individuals also proofed the questionnaire, so that the researcher could receive more valuable feedback. These individuals are referred to as Participants N to R. Participant N stated that she was satisfied with the questionnaire, referring to it as simple and easy to understand. She also mentioned that it reads well. Along the same line, Participant O confirmed that the questionnaire "seemed absolutely fine", and Participant P mentioned that the translation quality was high. According to Participant P, the researcher "could have submitted it 'as is' and expected Belgian or Dutch parties to understand the direction of (the) questions". Similarly, Participant Q noted that all of the questions sounded authentic to her. Participant R said that it was difficult to find accurate translations for every item, since there would be minor differences between Dutch and Flemish speakers. All participants made minor corrections in the Dutch version of the questionnaire pertaining to language usage and grammar, which the researcher took into account when finalising the questionnaire. As stated by Participant P, this was "in the interest of making the questionnaire easier to read and understand and to prevent ambiguity or uncertainty".

As already highlighted in Chapter Five, once corrections had been made to the Dutch questionnaire based on the above feedback received, the revised version was sent to one final Dutch speaker (Participant S) who had not previously viewed it in either English or Dutch, in order to complete the process of back translation. Participant S translated the questionnaire from Dutch into English as requested, which equipped the researcher to make final minor changes to the Dutch version of the questionnaire as necessary.

6.4 Results of Phase 3

The results from the quantitative phase of this study will now be presented.

6.4.1 Factor analysis

The following sub-headings detail the results of the EFA for the IWRS and IWMS, followed by the CFA for the IWRS, IWMS and UWES.

6.4.1.1 Exploratory factor analysis – IWRS

EFA was conducted with the aim of identifying the underlying dimensions, or factors, that explain the correlations existing among the sets of variables in the IWRS and IWMS. The revised 25-item version of the IWRS and 15-item IWMS were used for this analysis (that is, the IWRS and IWMS versions that excluded the items removed after reliability testing, as discussed in Section 5.5.1 of the previous chapter). Table 6.1 indicates the results of the EFA for the IWRS, with eigenvalues being calculated to determine the number of distinct second-order factors. Eigenvalues represent the amount of variance explained by each factor (Malhotra, 2010).

According to Malhotra (2010), there are as many significant or reliable factors as there are eigenvalues greater than 1.0. That is, only eigenvalues that are at least equal to 1.0 should be retained. It is therefore evident from Table 6.1 that five eigenvalues are greater than the 1.0 cut off, which indicates that five distinct factors, or 'principal components', are significant and should be retained. In addition to this statistical evidence supporting a five-factor IWRS structure, the researcher notes that this structure is supported in terms of theory (as was explained in Chapter Two) as well as preliminary qualitative data presented earlier in this chapter.

Table 6.1: EFA eigenvalues and cumulative percentage variance for IWRS

Value	Eigenvalue	% Total Variance	Cumulative Eigenvalue	Cumulative % Tot. Var.
1	10.39	41.57	10.39	41.57
2	1.76	7.06	12.16	48.62
3	1.65	6.59	13.80	55.22
4	1.22	4.88	15.02	60.10
5	1.04	4.15	16.06	64.25
6	0.89	3.55	16.95	67.80
7	0.72	2.88	17.67	70.68
8	0.68	2.72	18.35	73.40
9	0.65	2.60	19.00	76.00
10	0.57	2.30	19.58	78.30
11	0.54	2.18	20.12	80.48
12	0.52	2.10	20.64	82.58
13	0.47	1.88	21.11	84.45
14	0.45	1.80	21.56	86.26
15	0.43	1.73	22.00	87.99
16	0.42	1.67	22.42	89.66
17	0.39	1.56	22.81	91.22
18	0.35	1.41	23.16	92.64
19	0.35	1.38	23.50	94.02
20	0.32	1.28	23.82	95.29
21	0.29	1.14	24.11	96.44
22	0.28	1.12	24.39	97.56
23	0.23	0.92	24.62	98.48
24	0.22	0.89	24.84	99.37
25	0.16	0.63	25.00	100.00

Table 6.2 provides the factor loadings for a five-factor IWRS structure. Malhotra (2010) recommends that the extracted factors should account for a minimum of 60 percent of the variance, indicating that the 64.25 per cent variance explained for this structure is acceptable. A factor loading of 0.30 or better is significant for samples greater than $n=350$ (Hair et al., 2010). Significant factor loadings are bolded and highlighted in red in the table. It is apparent that seven items loaded significantly on Factor 1. These included the five original *Enjoyable Work* items, as well as one item each from *Challenging Work* (Q1-3) and *Meaningful Work* (Q1-1). Five items loaded the highest on Factor 2, including all four *Varied Work* items and one *Challenging Work* (Q1-21) item. Six items loaded most highly onto Factor 3, all from the original *Meaningful Work* factor.

Four items loaded most highly onto Factor 4, all of which were *Flexible Work* items. Finally, three items loaded the highest onto Factor 5, all of which were *Challenging Work* items.

The researcher's statistician (Venter, 2015) notes that a common guideline by which to detect cross-loadings is by observing whether gaps between the two largest loadings are less than 0.20. However, based on his experience, this leads to too many items being discarded with a resultant loss of content validity. For this reason, he advises that a cross-loading rather be identified if the two largest loadings are in the same decile; for example, if both loadings are between 0.30 and 0.39, or between 0.40 to 0.49 and so forth. Using this criteria, it can be identified that two IWRS items (Q1-22 and Q1-15) cross-load across three factors, as highlighted in red and yellow in Table 6.2. Venter (2015) goes on to explain that when cross-loadings occur, the onus is on the researcher to decide whether or not to drop the cross-loaded items. Since Q1-22 and Q1-15 both cross-load on factors that align with theory (see Chapter Two; that is, they measure what they are supposed to measure), there was no need to drop these items.²⁷

²⁷ For verification purposes, the researcher's statistician conducted an EFA excluding these cross-loaded items. However, this led to more items with cross-loadings, indicating the start of a cycle that would have resulted in many items being deleted, which would have undermined the content validity of the IWRS (Venter, 2015). This table is not provided here owing to space constraints.

Table 6.2: EFA Results: IWRS items (n=587; Total % Variance Explained = 64.25%)

Factor	Sig. Cross Loading	Non-Sig. Loading	Min. Loading deemed significant: ,300					
			Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
1	-	-	Q1-4 My work personally satisfies me.	.830	.244	.104	.148	.066
1	-	-	Q1-1 My work fulfils me.	.813	.188	.141	.097	.056
1	-	-	Q1-11 It is a delight to perform my work.	.788	.068	.267	.124	.101
1	-	-	Q1-16 My work is enjoyable.	.770	.165	.145	.266	.101
1	-	-	Q1-32 I love the nature of my job tasks.	.757	.106	.202	.176	.070
1	-	-	Q1-3 I find my work stimulating.	.751	.398	.039	.132	.096
1	-	-	Q1-26 My work feeds my soul.	.700	.132	.356	.123	.063
2	-	-	Q1-8 My work is comprised of diverse responsibilities.	.117	.796	.133	.074	.021
2	-	-	Q1-5 I have a variety of tasks to focus on within my job.	.285	.744	.038	.068	.007
2	-	-	Q1-20 I am exposed to an assortment of activities within my work.	.206	.729	.256	.180	.038
2	-	-	Q1-25 My job presents me with an array of projects on which I can work.	.298	.600	.094	.272	.130
2	-	-	Q1-21 My work presents me with daily challenges.	.217	.598	.314	.063	.182
3	-	-	Q1-19 My work has positive consequences for society.	.196	.185	.785	.084	.066
3	-	-	Q1-9 The work that I do has the potential to make the world a better place.	.102	.173	.748	.057	.214

3	-	-	Q1-30 My work is important in fulfilling the organisation's greater purpose.	.334	.069	.564	.054	.165
3	-	-	Q1-6 I can see the difference that my work makes in the lives of others.	.481	.124	.562	.002	-.290
3	-	-	Q1-14 I can see the bigger picture into which my work fits.	.279	.237	.489	.346	.161
3	Yes	-	Q1-22 I can see the end results of the work I do.	.435	.151	.467	.153	-.384
4	-	-	Q1-13 The nature of my work provides flexibility in terms of working hours.	.065	.027	.059	.791	.188
4	-	-	Q1-23 My job provides me with control over my own agenda.	.341	.207	.088	.701	-.126
4	-	-	Q1-17 I am able to organise my own work.	.374	.239	.131	.592	-.125
4	-	-	Q1-2 My job provides me with opportunities to make my own decisions.	.493	.317	.035	.503	.127
5	-	-	Q1-10 My skills have developed as I have worked in this position.	.413	.147	.280	.074	.564
5	-	-	Q1-28 Challenges at work help me to grow.	.492	.208	.249	.078	.508
5	Yes	-	Q1-15 I frequently have the opportunity to learn new things when I am at work.	.406	.431	.218	.207	.445
-			Expl.Var	6.204	3.366	2.969	2.234	1.289
-			% of Total	.248	.135	.119	.089	.052

Table 6.3 provides the final structure of the IWRS based on these results. It is evident that *Meaningful Work* now has six items; *Flexible Work* has four items; *Challenging Work* has three items; *Varied Work* has five items; and *Enjoyable Work* has seven items. The final version of the IWRS is available from the researcher upon request.

Table 6.3: Final factor structure of the IWRS

Item	Original	New	Factor
Q1_04	F1.E	F1.E	Enjoyable Work
Q1_01	F1.M	F1.E	
Q1_11	F1.E	F1.E	
Q1_16	F1.E	F1.E	
Q1_32	F1.E	F1.E	
Q1_03	F1.C	F1.E	
Q1_26	F1.E	F1.E	
Q1_08	F1.V	F1.V	Varied Work
Q1_05	F1.V	F1.V	
Q1_20	F1.V	F1.V	
Q1_25	F1.V	F1.V	
Q1_21	F1.C	F1.V	
Q1_19	F1.M	F1.M	Meaningful Work
Q1_09	F1.M	F1.M	
Q1_30	F1.M	F1.M	
Q1_06	F1.M	F1.M	
Q1_14	F1.M	F1.M	
Q1_22	F1.M	F1.M	
Q1_13	F1.F	F1.F	Flexible Work
Q1_23	F1.F	F1.F	
Q1_17	F1.F	F1.F	
Q1_02	F1.F	F1.F	
Q1_10	F1.C	F1.C	Challenging Work
Q1_28	F1.C	F1.C	
Q1_15	F1.C	F1.C	

6.4.1.2 Exploratory factor analysis – IWMS

Tables 6.4 indicates the results of the EFA for the IWMS. It is evident that there are three distinct factors in the IWMS, since three eigenvalues are greater than the 1.0 cut off. This three-factor structure aligns both with theory from Chapter Two and preliminary qualitative data evidence presented earlier in this chapter.

Table 6.4: EFA eigenvalues and cumulative percentage variance for IWMS

Value	Eigenvalue	% Total Variance	Cumulative Eigenvalue	Cumulative % Tot.Var.
1	6.60	43.99	6.60	43.99
2	1.39	9.26	7.99	53.24
3	1.06	7.06	9.05	60.31
4	0.90	5.98	9.94	66.29
5	0.76	5.05	10.70	71.34
6	0.61	4.03	11.31	75.37
7	0.57	3.79	11.87	79.16
8	0.49	3.28	12.37	82.45
9	0.48	3.21	12.85	85.66
10	0.45	2.98	13.30	88.64
11	0.42	2.81	13.72	91.45
12	0.36	2.38	14.08	93.84
13	0.33	2.20	14.40	96.03
14	0.32	2.10	14.72	98.13
15	0.28	1.87	15.00	100.00

Table 6.5 provides the factor loadings for the three-factor IWMS structure. The 60.31 per cent total variance explained for this structure is once again acceptable, according to Malhotra (2010). Significant factor loadings are bolded and highlighted in red in the table. It is evident that seven items load significantly on Factor 1. These include six *Personal Connection to One's Work* items, as well as one item from *Personal Desire to Make a Difference* (Q2-18). Three items loaded only on Factor 2, all of which were *Personal Desire to Perform* items. Five items loaded most highly onto Factor 3, including two *Personal Desire to Make a Difference* items (Q2-2 and Q2-9), two *Personal Desire to Perform* items (Q2-17 and Q2-3), and one *Personal Connection to One's Work* item (Q2-8). Based on Venter's (2015) previously-mentioned advice concerning cross-loadings, it was evident that one IWMS item (Q2-18) cross-loaded across three factors, as highlighted in red and yellow in Table 6.5. The decision was made to drop item Q2-18, since a second EFA conducted without this item (shown in Table 6.6) produced an acceptable factor structure with no further cross-loaded items. The total percentage of variance explained in this new EFA is 60.9 per cent. Dropping item Q2-18 resulted in Factor 1 being comprised only of items from the original *Personal Connection to One's Work* factor.

Table 6.5: Initial EFA Results: IWMS items (n=587; Total % Variance Explained = 60.31%)

Factor	Sig. Cross Loading	Non-Sig. Loading	Min. Loading deemed significant: ,300			
			Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1	-	-	Q2-20 My personal passion is aligned with my job's core purpose.	.808	.119	.255
1	-	-	Q2-4 I feel an emotional connection to my work.	.796	.165	.151
1	-	-	Q2-11 I am passionate about my work.	.694	.384	.204
1	-	-	Q2-15 I believe in my job's purpose.	.673	.360	.111
1	-	-	Q2-1 Following my present career path realises my lifelong dream.	.645	-.077	.467
1	-	-	Q2-19 I desire to achieve the goals for which my job exists.	.511	.433	.379
1	Yes	-	Q2-18 I feel a sense of responsibility to make a difference through my work.	.463	.389	.451
2	-	-	Q2-10 I am driven from within myself to perform well.	.129	.762	.210
2	-	-	Q2-21 I have an internal desire to perform to the best of my ability.	.250	.756	.169
2	-	-	Q2-6 I go over and above what is expected of me at work.	.140	.674	.007
3	-	-	Q2-2 I yearn to uplift the lives of others through my work.	.208	.152	.739
3	-	-	Q2-17 I have a longing to achieve great things at work.	.213	.316	.669
3	-	-	Q2-8 I believe that my career is a calling.	.352	.028	.646
3	-	-	Q2-9 I want to use my expertise for the good of those around me.	.151	.359	.621
3	-	-	Q2-3 I have personal goals that I desire to achieve through my work.	.411	.066	.571
-			Expl.Var	3.616	2.527	2.903
-			% of Total	.241	.168	.194

Table 6.6: Final EFA Results: IWMS items (n = 587; Total % Variance Explained = 60.9%)

Factor	Sig. Cross Loading	Non-Sig. Loading	Min. Loading deemed significant: .300			
			Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1	-	-	Q2-20 My personal passion is aligned with my job's core purpose.	.809	.115	.259
1	-	-	Q2-4 I feel an emotional connection to my work.	.795	.159	.156
1	-	-	Q2-11 I am passionate about my work.	.697	.388	.214
1	-	-	Q2-15 I believe in my job's purpose.	.681	.352	.105
1	-	-	Q2-1 Following my present career path realises my lifelong dream.	.637	-.067	.487
1	-	-	Q2-19 I desire to achieve the goals for which my job exists.	.518	.417	.357
2	-	-	Q2-10 I am driven from within myself to perform well.	.134	.769	.208
2	-	-	Q2-21 I have an internal desire to perform to the best of my ability.	.259	.754	.159
2	-	-	Q2-6 I go over and above what is expected of me at work.	.139	.689	.024
3	-	-	Q2-2 I yearn to uplift the lives of others through my work.	.207	.162	.742
3	-	-	Q2-8 I believe that my career is a calling.	.343	.040	.659
3	-	-	Q2-17 I have a longing to achieve great things at work.	.213	.316	.659
3	-	-	Q2-9 I want to use my expertise for the good of those around me.	.153	.366	.617
3	-	-	Q2-3 I have personal goals that I desire to achieve through my work.	.407	.076	.581
-			Expl.Var	3.408	2.393	2.720
-			% of Total	.243	.171	.194

Table 6.7 provides the final structure of the new 14-item IWMS based on these results. It is evident that *Personal Connection to One's Work* now has six items; *Personal Desire to Make a Difference* has five items; and *Personal Desire to Perform* has three items. The final version of the IWMS is available from the researcher upon request.

Table 6.7: Final factor structure of the IWMS

Item	Original	New	Factor
Q2_20	F2_C	F2_C	Personal Connection to One's Work
Q2_04	F2_C	F2_C	
Q2_11	F2_C	F2_C	
Q2_15	F2_C	F2_C	
Q2_01	F2_C	F2_C	
Q2_19	F2_C	F2_C	
Q2_10	F2_P	F2_P	Per- sonal Desire to Per- form
Q2_21	F2_P	F2_P	
Q2_06	F2_P	F2_P	
Q2_02	F2_D	F2_D	Personal Desire to Make a Difference
Q2_08	F2_C	F2_D	
Q2_17	F2_P	F2_D	
Q2_09	F2_D	F2_D	
Q2_03	F2_P	F2_D	

As a result of these new factor structures, the Cronbach's alpha values for the final IWRS and IWMS were re-calculated, as depicted in Table 6.8. Compared to the initial alpha values obtained prior to both the first round of reliability testing and the EFA testing (shown in the columns in the left of the table), it is evident that the final alpha values increased for all subscales of the IWRS and IWMS as well as for these instruments as a whole. The only two exceptions shown in the table are for the IWMS in total for the entire sample and the English version of this instrument, with the alpha values dropping by only 0.01 and 0.03 respectively. Both the English and Dutch versions of the IWRS in total (Qnaire: 1 and Qnaire: 2 respectively) obtained Cronbach's alpha values of above 0.80. According to the interpretation intervals for Cronbach's alpha values from Table 5.8 in Chapter Five, it is evident that the reliability of the IWRS is excellent. The Dutch version of the IWMS also proved to have highly acceptable reliability ($\alpha = 0.81$), with the English version of this instrument obtaining only a slightly lower

value ($\alpha = 0.76$). Thus, despite a number of these alpha values being marginally less than those shown in Table 5.9 in Chapter Five, they are nonetheless still classified as 'good' and 'excellent' values according to Table 5.8.

Table 6.8: New Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the factors by questionnaire group

Factor	Initial alphas			Final alphas after EFA		
	Entire (n = 587)	Qnaire: 1 (n = 498)	Qnaire: 2 (n = 89)	Entire (n = 587)	Qnaire: 1 (n = 498)	Qnaire: 2 (n = 89)
F1.M	0.66	0.67	0.66	0.80	0.80	0.78
F1.F	0.22	0.22	0.06	0.75	0.75	0.70
F1.C	0.51	0.49	0.62	0.75	0.75	0.79
F1.V	0.21	0.24	-0.14	0.82	0.83	0.79
F1.E	0.66	0.67	0.57	0.93	0.93	0.93
F1.T	0.83	0.83	0.81	0.86	0.86	0.87
F2.C	0.53	0.53	0.41	0.86	0.86	0.83
F2.D	0.17	0.20	-0.16	0.77	0.76	0.76
F2.P	0.47	0.47	0.36	0.70	0.69	0.61
F2.T	0.79	0.79	0.74	0.78	0.76	0.81

6.4.1.3 Confirmatory factor analysis – IWRS, IWMS and UWES

Table 6.9 provides the observed CFA fit statistics for the IWRS, IWMS and the UWES. It is evident that all three instruments obtained p-values less than the required 0.05 level for the Chi-square test, and the values obtained by the instruments for the Joreskog adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) were less than the suggested 0.95 value, implying unacceptable fits. However, for the Bentler-Bonnet normed fit index (NFI), the UWES obtained a value above the recommended 0.92 level, and for the Bentler comparative fit index (CFI), all three instruments obtained values above the recommended 0.92 level, implying acceptable fits. Finally, for the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the values were below the suggested 0.08 target, indicating satisfactory fits. Based on the indicators observed for the IWRS, IWMS and UWES, it can be deduced that overall, the proposed models have acceptable fits. These results therefore confirm the satisfactory results found through the EFAs, and provide evidence for the IWRS, IWMS and UWES displaying

satisfactory construct validity within the present study's international non-profit sample.

Table 6.9: Observed CFA Fit Statistics: IWRS, IWMS and UWES

			IWRS	IWMS	UWES
Sample size	n		587	587	587
No. of items	m		25	14	17
Sample size	n	250 < n < 1000			
No. of items Category	m. Cat.	12 < m < 30			
Absolute/predictive fit	Abbr.	Target	Observed	Observed	Observed
Chi-square (Maximum likelihood)	χ^2		827.44	313.57	478.11
	df		256	71	105
	p	≥ .050	< .0005	< .0005	< .0005
	χ^2/df	≤ 3	3.23	4.42	4.55
Comparative Fit Indices					
Bentler-Bonnet normed fit index	NFI	≥ .92	.90	.91	.92
Bentler comparative fit index	CFI	≥ .92	.93	.93	.94
Other					
Joreskog adjusted GFI	AGFI	≥ .95	.87	.90	.87
Root mean square error of approximation	95%Lo		.057	.068	.071
	RMSEA	≤ .08	.062	.076	.078
	95%Hi		.066	.085	.085
Note: Red indicates acceptable fit for Single Models (yellow cells)					

The following sections will report the descriptive and inferential statistics for Phase 3 of this study, making use of the final versions of the IWRS (25-items; revised factor structure) and IWMS (14-items; revised factor structure) in all analyses.

6.4.2 Descriptive statistics

This section details the descriptive statistics for the data obtained in this study. Tables 6.10 to 6.14 illustrate the mean, standard deviation and confidence intervals per factor of each measuring instrument as well as for salary satisfaction, both for the total sample as well as across each country. Annexure

L provides the frequency distribution tables for the four instruments as well as their factors, for the total sample and each country.

Table 6.10, which provides descriptive data for the IWRS, indicates that the highest mean score for the total sample was obtained for *Varied Work* (M=4.26), followed by *Meaningful Work* (M=4.22). The lowest means were for *Flexible Work* (M=3.93) and *Enjoyable Work* (M=4.00), implying that non-profit employees find their work to be non-routine and significant, but to a lesser extent, interesting and autonomous. Looking at the responses from specific countries, it is clear that South Africans experience the most meaningful work (M=4.40), challenging work (M=4.30) and enjoyable work (M=4.08), as well as the highest level of intrinsic rewards in total (M=4.19). Belgians enjoy the most flexible work (M=4.11) but the least meaningful (M=3.99), challenging (M=3.99) and varied work (M=4.19). Americans enjoy work that is the most varied (M=4.29) but the least flexible (M=3.87) and enjoyable (M=3.91). Overall, Australian, Belgian and American non-profit employees find their work to be equally intrinsically rewarding (M=4.06, 4.07 and 4.08 respectively). All means for the IWRS can be classified as 'positive' or 'very positive' according to Table L.1 in Annexure L (which was provided by the researcher's statistician), with the lowest mean being 3.87.

The standard deviation for *Enjoyable Work* for the total sample was highest at 0.76, and Americans had the highest standard deviation (0.83) out of all countries for all IWRS factors for *Enjoyable Work*, indicating that responses were the most dispersed around the mean for this aspect of work. The standard deviations for the total sample for *Meaningful Work* as well as the IWRS in total were lowest at 0.57 and 0.55 respectively, which demonstrates that responses were more clustered around the mean. Belgians showed the smallest standard deviation for intrinsic rewards in total (0.46), *Meaningful Work* (0.48) and *Varied Work* (0.49). This implies that Belgian respondents did not vary as much in their experience of intrinsic rewards at work. The values shown for "95% CI" (Confidence Intervals; low and high) indicate the chances that 95% of the overall population mean score for each factor will fall in the intervals shown in the table. Thus, there is a 95 per cent chance that the overall population mean

score for *Meaningful Work* falls in the interval of 4.18 to 4.27 for the total sample. This interval drops to 3.87 to 3.99 for *Flexible Work*. The lowest interval estimate is 3.75 for American's perceptions of their work being flexible, and the highest is 4.48 for South African's perceptions of their work being meaningful.

Table 6.10: Descriptive statistics for IWRS by Country

	All	Australia	Belgium	SA	USA
n	587	150	101	192	144
Meaningful Work (F1.M)					
Mean	4.22	4.18	3.99	4.40	4.20
SD	0.57	0.53	0.48	0.58	0.61
95% CI low	4.18	4.09	3.89	4.32	4.10
95% CI high	4.27	4.26	4.08	4.48	4.30
Flexible Work (F1.F)					
Mean	3.93	3.94	4.11	3.89	3.87
SD	0.73	0.69	0.59	0.81	0.74
95% CI low	3.87	3.82	4.00	3.77	3.75
95% CI high	3.99	4.05	4.23	4.01	3.99
Challenging Work (F1.C)					
Mean	4.13	4.02	3.99	4.30	4.12
SD	0.74	0.77	0.65	0.68	0.79
95% CI low	4.07	3.90	3.86	4.20	3.99
95% CI high	4.19	4.14	4.11	4.39	4.25
Varied Work (F1.V)					
Mean	4.26	4.25	4.19	4.27	4.29
SD	0.61	0.58	0.49	0.68	0.59
95% CI low	4.21	4.16	4.10	4.17	4.19
95% CI high	4.31	4.34	4.29	4.37	4.39
Enjoyable Work (F1.E)					
Mean	4.00	3.93	4.05	4.08	3.91
SD	0.76	0.73	0.61	0.78	0.83
95% CI low	3.93	3.81	3.93	3.97	3.78
95% CI high	4.06	4.05	4.17	4.19	4.05
Total IWRS (F1.T)					
Mean	4.11	4.06	4.07	4.19	4.08
SD	0.55	0.51	0.46	0.57	0.60
95% CI low	4.06	3.98	3.97	4.11	3.98
95% CI high	4.15	4.14	4.16	4.27	4.18

Table 6.11 provides descriptive data for the IWMS, and shows that the highest mean score for the total sample was obtained for *Personal Desire to Perform* (M=4.49), with the lowest mean obtained for *Personal Desire to Make a Difference* (M=4.06). This suggests that non-profit employees are personally motivated to perform at their peak, but to a lesser extent are motivated to make an impact through their work. Looking at the responses from specific countries, it can be summarised that South Africans are more personally connected to their work (M=4.28), and also possess the highest personal desire to perform (M=4.67) and make a difference through their work (M=4.33). Not surprisingly, they also obtained the highest score for intrinsic motivation overall (M=4.42). Belgians are the least intrinsically motivated in total (M=3.97), and also obtained the lowest means for all three factors of the IWMS. All means for the IWMS can be classified as 'positive' or 'very positive' according to Table L.1 in Annexure L, since the lowest mean is 3.79.

The standard deviation for *Personal Connection to One's Work* for the total sample was highest at 0.67, and Americans had the highest standard deviation out of all countries for all IWMS factors for this factor (S.D.=0.75), suggesting that responses were the most dispersed around the mean for this dimension of intrinsic motivation. The standard deviations for the total sample for *Personal Desire to Perform* as well as the IWMS in total were lowest at 0.54 and 0.52 respectively, indicating where responses were more strongly clustered around the mean. South Africans showed the smallest standard deviation for *Personal Desire to Perform* (0.44), implying that these non-profit employees do not vary greatly in their desires to perform to their best abilities at work. There is a 95 per cent chance that the population mean score for intrinsic motivation overall falls in the interval of 4.17 to 4.25 for the total sample, with this dropping to 3.87 to 4.06 for the Belgian respondents. The lowest interval estimate is 3.68 for how Belgians personally desire to make a difference through their work, and the highest is 4.73 for South Africans having a personal desire to perform at their work.

Table 6.11: Descriptive statistics for IWMS by Country

	All	Australia	Belgium	SA	USA
n	587	150	101	192	144
Personal Connection to One's Work (F2.C)					
Mean	4.08	4.00	3.89	4.28	4.02
SD	0.67	0.62	0.57	0.66	0.75
95% CI low	4.02	3.90	3.78	4.19	3.90
95% CI high	4.13	4.10	4.00	4.37	4.14
Personal Desire to Make a Difference (F2.D)					
Mean	4.06	3.89	3.79	4.33	4.07
SD	0.65	0.61	0.56	0.58	0.70
95% CI low	4.01	3.79	3.68	4.24	3.95
95% CI high	4.11	3.99	3.90	4.41	4.18
Personal Desire to Perform (F2.P)					
Mean	4.49	4.45	4.22	4.67	4.50
SD	0.54	0.56	0.57	0.44	0.52
95% CI low	4.45	4.36	4.11	4.60	4.42
95% CI high	4.54	4.54	4.33	4.73	4.59
Total IWMS (F2.T)					
Mean	4.21	4.11	3.97	4.42	4.20
SD	0.52	0.47	0.49	0.46	0.56
95% CI low	4.17	4.04	3.87	4.36	4.11
95% CI high	4.25	4.19	4.06	4.49	4.29

Table 6.12 indicates the descriptive data for Work Engagement, from which it can be seen that the highest mean for the total sample was for *Dedication* (M=4.52), with the lowest mean score for *Absorption* (M=4.14), implying that non-profit employees are highly dedicated to their work, but to a lesser extent are absorbed in their work. The mean for the UWES in total for the entire sample was 4.31 out of a maximum of six (bearing in mind that while the UWES is scored on a 7-point Likert scale, the first Likert scale response option was scored as "0" when respondents indicated in the researcher's questionnaire that they never felt that way at work). Responses from the specific countries show that South Africans are the most absorbed in (M=4.53) and dedicated to their work (M=4.85), and are the most vigorous at work (M=4.57). They are moreover the most engaged with their work overall (M=4.65). Belgians are the least engaged in their work in total (M=3.98), and obtained the lowest means

for the three factors of the UWES. All means for the UWES can be classified as 'positive' or 'very positive' according to Table L.1 in Annexure L, with the lowest mean being 3.72.

The standard deviation for all three UWES factors and the total UWES are relatively high, all being above 0.80, suggesting that all work engagement responses were generally dispersed around the mean. Americans had the highest standard deviation out of the four countries for *Dedication* (S.D.=1.03). The smallest standard deviation was for Australians' responses to the total UWES (S.D.=0.72), implying that these employees do not vary greatly in how engaged they are with their work. There is a 95 per cent chance that the population mean score for the UWES in total falls in the interval of 4.24 to 4.38 for the total sample, with this dropping to 3.81 to 4.15 for the Belgian respondents. At 3.53, the lowest interval estimate is for how absorbed Belgians are in their work, and the highest at 4.97 is for how dedicated South Africans are to their work.

The above results are supported by Tables L.2 to L.6 in Annexure L, from which it is clear that the scores for all factors of the IWRS, IWMS and UWES fall in the 'positive' and 'very positive' categories, across all four countries, which suggests that respondents are intrinsically rewarded, intrinsically motivated, and engaged in their work.

Table 6.12: Descriptive statistics for UWES by Country

	All	Australia	Belgium	SA	USA
n	587	150	101	192	144
Absorption (F3.A)					
Mean	4.14	4.08	3.72	4.53	3.98
SD	0.93	0.75	0.97	0.87	0.94
95% CI low	4.07	3.96	3.53	4.41	3.82
95% CI high	4.22	4.20	3.91	4.66	4.13
Dedication (F3.D)					
Mean	4.52	4.44	4.27	4.85	4.32
SD	0.94	0.83	0.95	0.87	1.03
95% CI low	4.44	4.31	4.08	4.73	4.15
95% CI high	4.59	4.57	4.46	4.97	4.49
Vigour (F3.V)					
Mean	4.27	4.21	3.96	4.57	4.16
SD	0.86	0.81	0.87	0.82	0.83
95% CI low	4.20	4.08	3.79	4.45	4.02
95% CI high	4.34	4.34	4.13	4.68	4.29
Total UWES (F3.T)					
Mean	4.31	4.25	3.98	4.65	4.15
SD	0.84	0.72	0.85	0.80	0.86
95% CI low	4.24	4.13	3.81	4.54	4.01
95% CI high	4.38	4.36	4.15	4.76	4.29

With regards to the scores for intention to quit shown in Table 6.13, it is apparent that mean scores falling between 2.00 and 2.50 were obtained for the total sample as well as each of the four countries under study, suggesting that respondents do not have high intentions to leave their organisations. All means for the JWIS are 'negative' according to Table L.1 in Annexure L, with the lowest mean being 2.12 and the highest being 2.36. However, the standard deviations for these scores were above 1.00 for every country, indicating that responses for this construct were highly dispersed around the mean. In addition, there is a 95 per cent chance that the overall population mean score for intention to quit falls in the interval of 2.15 to 2.35 for the total sample. This is supported by Tables L.2 to L.6 in Annexure L, which display that the majority of respondents provided scores that can be classified as 'very negative' and 'negative', indicating that they do not wish to leave their organisations.

Table 6.13: Descriptive statistics for JWIS by Country

	All	Australia	Belgium	SA	USA
n	587	150	101	192	144
Total JWIS (F4)					
Mean	2.25	2.12	2.12	2.33	2.36
SD	1.26	1.18	1.12	1.33	1.30
95% CI low	2.15	1.93	1.90	2.14	2.15
95% CI high	2.35	2.31	2.34	2.52	2.58

In addition, the descriptive statistics in Table 6.14 suggest that Belgians are the most satisfied with their salaries ($M=3.25$), with South Africans indicating that they are the least satisfied with their salaries ($M=2.89$). The means for salary satisfaction are 'neutral' according to Table L.1 in Annexure L, with the lowest mean being 2.89 and the highest being 3.25. The standard deviations for the four countries were again above 1.00, indicating that levels of salary satisfaction were strongly dispersed around the mean. There is moreover a 95 per cent chance that the overall population mean score for salary satisfaction falls in the interval of 2.96 to 3.17 for the total sample, with this increasing to 3.04 to 3.46 for the Belgian respondents.

Table 6.14: Descriptive Statistics for Salary Satisfaction by Country

	All	Australia	Belgium	SA	USA
n	587	150	101	192	144
Salary satisfaction					
Mean	3.07	3.13	3.25	2.89	3.12
SD	1.28	1.18	1.05	1.36	1.38
95% CI low	2.96	2.94	3.04	2.70	2.89
95% CI high	3.17	3.32	3.46	3.08	3.34

6.4.3 Inferential statistics

It is critical to conduct inferential analyses, as they assist researchers in making conclusions regarding the application of procedures and theories (Aron et al., 2008). The inferential statistics calculated for this study's data, with the exception of the EFA and CFA results that have already been presented, will now be discussed.

6.4.3.1 Pearson's Product Moment Correlations

Table 6.15 displays the Pearson's Product Moment Correlations between each factor of the four measuring instruments, as well as correlations between level of salary satisfaction and each factor. According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2009), correlations are statistically significant at the 0.05 level for $n=587$ if the correlation coefficient ($|r|$) is greater than or equal to .081 (shown by values in red in the table), and practically significant if $|r|$ is greater than or equal to .300 (shown by means of bolded red values).

It is evident from this table that all factors of the IWRS (F1) as well as the IWRS in total are positively correlated with all factors of the IWMS (F2) and UWES (F3), as well as these instruments in total. The majority of these correlations are practically significant in nature, with only *Flexible Work* holding a statistically significant relationship with two factors of the UWES and the UWES in total. This implies that when non-profit employees experience their work as meaningful, flexible, challenging, varied and enjoyable, they will be more personally connected to their work and will demonstrate a stronger desire to perform highly and make a difference through their work. They will also be dedicated to and absorbed in their work to a greater extent; and will be more vigorous at work. Moreover, it implies that providing intrinsic rewards to employees at work will raise their levels of intrinsic motivation and work engagement.

The IMWS and UWES in total, as well as their respective factors, are also positively correlated with one another in a practically significant manner. This implies that when non-profit employees are personally connected to their work and desire to perform and make a difference through their work, then they will also show more vigour at work and will be more dedicated to, and absorbed in, their work. Thus, improving employees' levels of intrinsic motivation may assist in cultivating how engaged they are in their work, and vice versa.

Furthermore, all factors of the IWRS and UWES, as well as the IWRS and UWES in total, hold practically significant, negative relationships with the JWIS (F4). The JWIS is also negatively correlated with the IWMS and its factors;

however, with the exception of *Personal Connection to One's Work*, these relationships are statistically, not practically, significant. This provides evidence of the fact that non-profit employees' intentions to leave their organisations can be decreased by providing them with higher levels of intrinsic rewards, and that ensuring that employees are intrinsically motivated and engaged with their work will also decrease their intentions to quit.

Importantly, all factors of the IWRS, IWMS and UWES, and all four instruments in total, correlate in a positive and practically significant manner to one another. For example, the factors of the IWRS correlate positively with one another, implying that employees who experience their work as meaningful will also perceive their work to be flexible, challenging, varied and enjoyable. The same can be said of the factors of the IWMS and UWES. The above-discussed results provide evidence for the construct validity of the IWRS, IWMS, UWES and JWIS, since relevant relationships exist within the instruments as well as between the instruments.

In addition, level of salary satisfaction is shown in Table 6.15 to be positively and statistically significantly correlated with all factors of the IWRS as well as the IWRS in total. It is also positively and statistically significantly correlated with *Personal Connection to One's Work* and *Personal Desire to Make a Difference*, two factors of the IWMS, and the IWMS in total, as well as to *Dedication* and *Vigour* and the UWES in total. Finally, salary satisfaction is negatively related to the JWIS, and this correlation is practically significant. These results indicate that when employees are satisfied with their salaries, they will be more likely to perceive their work as meaningful, flexible, challenging, varied and enjoyable. Moreover, providing salaries with which non-profit employees are satisfied will improve their levels of intrinsic motivation and work engagement, and will reduce the likeliness of employees intending to leave their organisations. Employees who are satisfied with their salaries are more likely to be emotionally connected to their work and experience a personal desire to impact others through their work, and will demonstrate higher levels of vigour and dedication at work.

Table 6.15: Correlations between measuring instruments, their factors, and Salary Satisfaction (n=587)

	Sal. Sat.															
F1.M	.103	F1.M														
F1.F	.261	.438	F1.F													
F1.C	.192	.567	.473	F1.C												
F1.V	.207	.524	.498	.593	F1.V											
F1.E	.250	.647	.585	.670	.557	F1.E										
F1.T	.258	.774	.758	.830	.777	.871	F1.T									
F2.C	.186	.691	.404	.603	.517	.764	.740	F2.C								
F2.D	.105	.493	.150	.441	.359	.460	.468	.695	F2.D							
F2.P	-.046	.437	.154	.339	.405	.332	.405	.482	.435	F2.P						
F2.T	.109	.655	.290	.561	.513	.637	.655	.889	.868	.735	F2.T					
F3.A	.063	.523	.303	.470	.464	.583	.580	.627	.493	.531	.660	F3.A				
F3.D	.172	.660	.423	.595	.500	.773	.736	.795	.562	.480	.744	.769	F3.D			
F3.V	.132	.552	.388	.497	.460	.672	.640	.653	.466	.518	.656	.772	.808	F3.V		
F3.T	.133	.627	.401	.564	.514	.732	.706	.750	.550	.551	.744	.917	.931	.926	F3.T	
F4	-.348	-.309	-.415	-.405	-.322	-.575	-.515	-.419	-.154	-.092	-.277	-.312	-.462	-.401	-.424	

|r| >= .081 (statistically significant)

|r| >= .300 (practically significant)

6.4.3.2 Chi-square testing

Tables 6.16 to 6.23 provide the results of chi-square testing for each demographic variable, across the four countries under study. According to Woods and West (2010), a p-value of less than 0.05 indicates that there is a less than five per cent probability that the result occurred owing to chance, meaning that the researcher can be fairly confident in her finding.

It is apparent that no statistically significant differences occur between gender and the countries under study, since the p-value in Table 6.16 is above 0.05. The researcher highlights that there is a relatively equal distribution of each gender across the four countries under study (females comprise approximately 70% of each country's sample; males comprise approximately 30% of each country's sample).

Table 6.16: Contingency table: Country and Gender

Gender	Country									
	Australia		Belgium		SA		USA		Total	
Male	47	31%	30	30%	49	26%	40	28%	166	28%
Female	103	69%	71	70%	143	74%	104	72%	421	72%
Total	150	100%	101	100%	192	100%	144	100%	587	100%
Chi ² (d.f. = 3, n = 587) = 1.53; p = .676										

Table 6.17 indicates that a statistically significant difference exists between age and the countries under study, since the p-value is below the significance level of 0.05. Cramer's V testing revealed that a small practically significant difference exists between these two demographic variables (V=0.11). The researcher draws attention to the fact that Australia produced the smallest percentage of respondents in the 18 to 27 year age group (7%), whereas Belgium produced the highest percentage of respondents in the 28 to 37 year age group (39%) yet the smallest percentage of respondents in the 38 to 47 year age group (18%). Furthermore, for each country, the least number of respondents fell in the 18 to 27 and 58 and above age groups.

Table 6.17: Contingency table: Country and Age

Age	Country									
	Australia		Belgium		SA		USA		Total	
18-27	11	7%	15	15%	23	12%	21	15%	70	12%
28-37	41	27%	39	39%	42	22%	33	23%	155	26%
38-47	39	26%	18	18%	44	23%	39	27%	140	24%
48-57	38	25%	17	17%	47	24%	23	16%	125	21%
58+	21	14%	12	12%	36	19%	28	19%	97	17%
Total	150	100%	101	100%	192	100%	144	100%	587	100%
Chi ² (d.f. = 12, n = 587) = 22.81; p = .029 ; V = 0.11 Small										

It is evident from Table 6.18 that a statistically significant difference exists between education and the countries under study, with the p-value being below 0.05²⁸. Cramer's V testing revealed that a large practically significant difference exists between these two demographic variables (V=0.36). The researcher highlights that 61 per cent of Belgian respondents and 40 per cent of Americans hold a Masters degree, compared to 23 and 16 per cent of Australians and South Africans respectively. Only 38 per cent of Belgian respondents possess a level of education below a Masters, compared to 82 per cent of South African respondents that are educated below the level of a Masters' degree. The minimum level of education possessed by non-profit respondents in the USA was a certificate or diploma; yet 16 per cent of South African respondents possess less than this level of education.

²⁸ It is necessary to note that three respondents indicated 'Other' for the demographic item of *Education*, which resulted in the sample size of this analysis being 584 as opposed to 587 respondents, owing to these three missing responses.

Table 6.18: Contingency table: Country and Education

Education	Country									
	Australia		Belgium		SA		USA		Total	
Less than Matric / Gr 12 / final year	8	5%	0	0%	5	3%	0	0%	13	2%
Completed Matric / Gr 12 / final year	8	5%	3	3%	25	13%	0	0%	36	6%
Certificate / Diploma	22	15%	0	0%	43	23%	3	2%	68	12%
Bachelor degree	49	33%	31	31%	42	22%	67	47%	189	32%
BTech / Post-grad diploma	15	10%	4	4%	8	4%	0	0%	27	5%
Honours	7	5%	0	0%	33	17%	0	0%	40	7%
Masters	35	23%	61	61%	31	16%	57	40%	184	32%
Doctorate	6	4%	1	1%	3	2%	17	12%	27	5%
Total	150	100%	100	100%	190	100%	144	100%	584	100%
Chi ² (d.f. = 21, n = 584) = 231.98; p < .0005 ; V = 0.36 Large										

Table 6.19 shows that a statistically significant difference exists between marital status and the countries under study, with the p-value being below the significance level of 0.05. Cramer's V testing revealed that a small practically significant difference exists (V=0.12). In particular, the majority of the sample is married; few respondents have been widowed; and a relatively equal percentage of respondents across the study have divorced or been separated from their partners. Belgium produced the largest number of respondents that were living with their partners (24%) with no widows or widowers (0%), and SA produced the highest number of respondents that have never been married (21%).

Table 6.19: Contingency table: Country and Marital Status

Marital Status	Country									
	Australia		Belgium		SA		USA		Total	
Married	90	60%	48	48%	115	60%	89	62%	342	58%
Living w/ partner	17	11%	24	24%	16	8%	11	8%	68	12%
Divorced / separated	15	10%	11	11%	17	9%	14	10%	57	10%
Widow / widower	2	1%	0	0%	3	2%	4	3%	9	2%
Never married	26	17%	18	18%	41	21%	26	18%	111	19%
Total	150	100%	101	100%	192	100%	144	100%	587	100%
Chi ² (d.f. = 12, n = 587) = 23.37; p = .025 ; V = 0.12 Small										

Table 6.20 provides the results for language group across country. According to the researcher's statistician, significant language differences between countries could not be tested, since the small totals across some of the language groups eliminated the possibility of using the Chi-square test for the observed frequencies (Venter, 2015). However, it can still be observed that 100 per cent of Australian respondents speak English, which is also the most common language group in SA and the USA. The Belgian respondents speak Dutch as their primary language (88%).

Table 6.20: Contingency table: Country and Language

Language	Country									
	Australia		Belgium		SA		USA		Total	
English	150	100%	2	2%	150	78%	143	99%	445	76%
Dutch	0	0%	89	88%	0	0%	0	0%	89	15%
French	0	0%	9	9%	0	0%	0	0%	9	2%
Afrikaans	0	0%	1	1%	23	12%	0	0%	24	4%
African	0	0%	0	0%	19	10%	1	1%	20	3%
Total	150	100%	101	100%	192	100%	144	100%	587	100%

The researcher's statistician further highlighted that differences between countries according to non-profit category could not be tested, since the small

totals across some of the non-profit groups eliminated the possibility of using the Chi-square test for the observed frequencies, as was the case with language group (Venter, 2015). It can nonetheless be noticed in Table 6.21 that the majority of respondents in Australia, Belgium and the USA work within the Welfare and Humanitarian field, while the distribution of South African respondents fell primarily across the Education and Development, Health Care, and Welfare and Humanitarian fields.

Table 6.21: Contingency table: Country and Non-Profit Category

Non-profit category	Country									
	Australia		Belgium		South Africa		USA		Total	
Animal Welfare	0	0%	1	1%	5	3%	0	0%	6	1%
Conservation & Environment	10	7%	1	1%	10	5%	5	3%	26	4%
Cultural Activities	2	1%	2	2%	0	0%	0	0%	4	1%
Education & Development	17	11%	9	9%	58	30%	34	24%	118	20%
Health Care	36	24%	17	17%	47	24%	23	16%	123	21%
Land & Housing	2	1%	2	2%	3	2%	1	1%	8	1%
Religion, Belief & Philosophy	9	6%	0	0%	10	5%	9	6%	28	5%
Research & Consumer Rights	0	0%	1	1%	1	1%	3	2%	5	1%
Sports	0	0%	1	1%	0	0%	3	2%	4	1%
Welfare & Humanitarian	64	43%	64	63%	53	28%	57	40%	238	41%
Fundraising	0	0%	0	0%	3	2%	3	2%	6	1%
Other	10	7%	3	3%	2	1%	6	4%	21	4%
Total	150	100%	101	100%	192	100%	144	100%	587	100%

Statistically significant differences occur between job level and the four countries under study, evidenced from the p-value in Table 6.22 being below the 0.05 significance level. Cramer's *V* testing revealed a small practically significant difference between these two demographic variables ($V=0.12$). The researcher highlights that the majority of Belgian respondents occupied professional positions (48%) followed by managerial or supervisory positions

(39%), while in the other three countries under study, the majority of respondents occupied primarily managerial or supervisory positions followed by professional positions. Few respondents across the four countries occupy positions that are operational or technical in nature.

Table 6.22: Contingency table: Country and Job Level

Job Level	Country									
	Australia		Belgium		SA		USA		Total	
Managerial / Supervisory	81	54%	39	39%	116	60%	82	57%	318	54%
Professional	45	30%	48	48%	44	23%	41	28%	178	30%
Administrative / Clerical / Office work	17	11%	8	8%	23	12%	14	10%	62	11%
Operational / Technical	5	3%	5	5%	4	2%	5	3%	19	3%
Other	2	1%	1	1%	5	3%	2	1%	10	2%
Total	150	100%	101	100%	192	100%	144	100%	587	100%
Chi ² (d.f. = 12, n = 587) = 23.96; p = .021 ; V = 0.12 Small										

Finally, Table 6.23 indicates that statistically significant differences occur for salary satisfaction between the four countries under study, as shown by the p-value that is below the 0.05 significance level. Cramer's *V* testing revealed a small practically significant difference ($V=0.14$). Only four per cent of Belgian respondents strongly disagree that they are satisfied with their salaries (the lowest percentage for this category), with 37 per cent of these respondents agreeing that they are satisfied with their salaries (the largest percentage for this category). The USA produced the largest number of respondents who strongly agree to being satisfied with their salaries (20%), while SA produced the largest number of respondents who are strongly dissatisfied with their salaries (23%).

Table 6.23: Contingency table: Country and Salary Satisfaction

Salary Satisfaction	Country									
	Australia		Belgium		SA		USA		Total	
Strongly disagree	19	13%	4	4%	45	23%	26	18%	94	16%
Disagree	23	15%	24	24%	30	16%	21	15%	98	17%
Neutral	44	29%	26	26%	41	21%	36	25%	147	25%
Agree	48	32%	37	37%	53	28%	32	22%	170	29%
Strongly agree	16	11%	10	10%	23	12%	29	20%	78	13%
Total	150	100%	101	100%	192	100%	144	100%	587	100%
Chi ² (d.f. = 12, n = 587) = 34.96; p < .0005 ; V = 0.14 Small										

6.4.3.3 ANOVA results: Country differences

The following tables detail the ANOVA results focusing on whether inter-country differences occurred for each factor of the IWRS (F1), IWMS (F2) and UWES (F3), as well as for these instruments and the JWIS (F4) in total.

Table 6.24 indicates that statistically significant differences are apparent between the four countries under study for the IWRS factor of *Meaningful Work*, since the p-value is less than the significance level of 0.05. Scheffé's tests were conducted where ANOVA identified significant differences, as shown in Table 6.25. It is evident that statistically significant differences occurred between Australian and South African; Belgian and South African; Belgian and American; and South African and American respondents for *Meaningful Work*, with these p-values being below 0.05. Cohen's *d* values indicated small practically significant differences between Australian and South African, Belgian and American, and South African and American respondents ($.20 < |d| < .50$), with the difference between Belgian and South African respondents showing medium practical significance ($.50 < |d| < .80$). The mean value for South African respondents was larger each time for *Meaningful Work*, and the mean for Americans was larger than that of Belgians.

Table 6.24: ANOVA – F1.M by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	11.989	3	3.996	12.823	<.0005
Within Groups	181.702	583	0.312		
Total	193.691	586			

Table 6.25: Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F1.M by Country

Country 1	Country 2	Diff. M ₁ -M ₂	Scheffé p	Cohen's d
Australia	Belgium	0.19	.075	n/a
Australia	SA	-0.22	.004	0.40 Small
Australia	USA	-0.02	.994	n/a
Belgium	SA	-0.41	<.0005	0.75 Medium
Belgium	USA	-0.21	.042	0.37 Small
SA	USA	0.20	.013	0.34 Small

It is evident from Table 6.26 that statistically significant differences occurred between the four countries for the IWRS factor of *Flexible Work*, with the p-value being less than 0.05. Scheffé's tests in Table 6.27 indicated, however, that no statistically significant inter-country differences occurred, since all p-values are above the significance level of 0.05. Cohen's *d* values were therefore not calculated, since practical significance cannot exist in the absence of statistical significance.

Table 6.26: ANOVA – F1.F by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	4.188	3	1.396	2.620	.050
Within Groups	310.567	583	0.533		
Total	314.754	586			

Table 6.27: Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F1.F by Country

Country 1	Country 2	Diff. M ₁ -M ₂	Scheffé p	Cohen's d
Australia	Belgium	-0.18	.318	n/a
Australia	SA	0.05	.954	n/a
Australia	USA	0.07	.892	n/a
Belgium	SA	0.22	.107	n/a
Belgium	USA	0.24	.087	n/a
SA	USA	0.02	.995	n/a

Table 6.28 shows that since the p-value is less than 0.05, statistically significant differences occurred between the four countries for the IWRS factor of *Challenging Work*. Scheffé's tests shown in Table 6.29 provide evidence that a statistically significant difference occurred between Australian and South African as well as Belgian and South African respondents for *Challenging Work*, since these p-values are below 0.05. The mean values for South African respondents were larger for both comparisons. Cohen's *d* indicated that a small practically significant difference is apparent for both ($.20 < |d| < .50$).

Table 6.28: ANOVA – F1.C by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	9.135	3	3.045	5.770	.001
Within Groups	307.667	583	0.528		
Total	316.802	586			

Table 6.29: Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F1.C by Country

Country 1	Country 2	Diff. M ₁ -M ₂	Scheffé p	Cohen's d
Australia	Belgium	0.03	.989	n/a
Australia	SA	-0.28	.007	0.38 Small
Australia	USA	-0.10	.705	n/a
Belgium	SA	-0.31	.008	0.46 Small
Belgium	USA	-0.13	.571	n/a
SA	USA	0.17	.191	n/a

Since the p-values for Tables 6.30 to 6.32 were above the significance level of 0.05, it can be deduced that no differences occurred between the four countries for the IWRS in total, nor for the IWRS factors of *Varied Work* and *Enjoyable Work*. For this reason, Scheffé's testing was not conducted.

Table 6.30: ANOVA – F1.V by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	0.628	3	0.209	0.570	.635
Within Groups	214.072	583	0.367		
Total	214.700	586			

Table 6.31: ANOVA – F1.E by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	3.289	3	1.096	1.925	.124
Within Groups	332.044	583	0.570		
Total	335.333	586			

Table 6.:32 ANOVA – F1.T by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	1.823	3	0.608	2.034	.108
Within Groups	174.112	583	0.299		
Total	175.935	586			

Table 6.33 indicates that statistically significant differences exist between the four countries under study for the IWMS factor of *Personal Connection to One's Work*, since the p-value is less than the significance level of 0.05. Scheffé's tests, shown in Table 6.34, display that statistically significant differences occurred between Australian and South African; Belgian and South African; and South African and American respondents for this factor, with these p-values being below 0.05. Cohen's *d* proved that a small practically significant difference exists between Australian and South African as well as South African and American respondents ($.20 < |d| < .50$), with the difference between Belgian and South African respondents being medium in strength ($.50 < |d| < .80$). In each case, the mean value for South African respondents was larger for *Personal Connection to One's Work*.

Table 6.33: ANOVA – F2.C by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	12.851	3	4.284	9.896	<.0005
Within Groups	252.372	583	0.433		
Total	265.223	586			

Table 6.34: Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F2.C by Country

Country 1	Country 2	Diff. M ₁ -M ₂	Scheffé p	Cohen's d
Australia	Belgium	0.11	.629	n/a
Australia	SA	-0.28	.002	0.44 <i>Small</i>
Australia	USA	-0.02	.997	n/a
Belgium	SA	-0.39	<.0005	0.62 <i>Medium</i>
Belgium	USA	-0.13	.516	n/a
SA	USA	0.26	.005	0.38 <i>Small</i>

Statistically significant differences are apparent between the four countries for the IWMS factor of *Personal Desire to Make a Difference*, with the p-value being less than 0.05, as shown in Table 6.35. Table 6.36 provides evidence that statistically significant differences occurred specifically between Australian and South African; Belgian and South African; Belgian and American; and South African and American non-profit respondents for *Personal Desire to Make a Difference*, with these p-values being below 0.05. Cohen's *d* indicates that a small practically significant difference exists between Belgian and American as well as South African and American respondents ($.20 < |d| < .50$); a medium practically significant difference exists between Australian and South African respondents ($.50 < |d| < .80$); and a large practically significant difference exists between Belgian and South African respondents ($d > .80$). The mean value for South African respondents was larger than those for Australians, Belgians and Americans for this factor, and the mean for Americans was larger than that of the Belgians.

Table 6.35: ANOVA – F2.D by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	25.189	3	8.396	22.202	<.0005
Within Groups	220.476	583	0.378		
Total	245.665	586			

Table 6.36: Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F2.D by Country

Country 1	Country 2	Diff. M ₁ -M ₂	Scheffé p	Cohen's d
Australia	Belgium	0.10	.661	n/a
Australia	SA	-0.44	<.0005	0.74 <i>Medium</i>
Australia	USA	-0.18	.112	n/a
Belgium	SA	-0.54	<.0005	0.93 <i>Large</i>
Belgium	USA	-0.28	.008	0.43 <i>Small</i>
SA	USA	0.26	.002	0.41 <i>Small</i>

Since the p-value is less than the significance level of 0.05 in Table 6.37, it can be said that statistically significant differences occurred between the four countries for the IWMS factor of *Personal Desire to Perform*. Scheffé's tests shown in Table 6.38 prove that statistically significant differences were apparent between Australian and Belgian; Australian and South African; Belgian and South African; Belgian and American; and South African and American respondents for this factor, with these p-values being below 0.05. Cohen's *d* indicates that a small practically significant difference exists between Australian and Belgian, Australian and South African, as well as South African and American respondents ($.20 < |d| < .50$), with the difference between Belgian and American respondents being medium in strength ($.50 < |d| < .80$) and the difference between Belgian and South African respondents being large in strength ($d > .80$). The mean value for South African respondents was larger than those for the other three countries for *Personal Desire to Perform*; and the means for Australians and Americans were larger than that of the Belgians.

Table 6.37: ANOVA – F2.P by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	13.749	3	4.583	17.290	<.0005
Within Groups	154.535	583	0.265		
Total	168.285	586			

Table 6.38: Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F2.P by Country

Country 1	Country 2	Diff. M ₁ -M ₂	Scheffé p	Cohen's d
Australia	Belgium	0.23	.007	0.41 <i>Small</i>
Australia	SA	-0.22	.002	0.44 <i>Small</i>
Australia	USA	-0.06	.835	n/a
Belgium	SA	-0.45	<.0005	0.92 <i>Large</i>
Belgium	USA	-0.29	<.0005	0.53 <i>Medium</i>
SA	USA	0.16	.044	0.34 <i>Small</i>

Statistically significant differences exist between the four countries for the IWMS in total, with the p-value being less than 0.05 in Table 6.39. In Table 6.40, it is shown that Scheffé's tests indicate statistically significant differences occurring between Australian and South African; Belgian and South African; Belgian and American; and South African and American respondents for intrinsic motivation as a whole, with these p-values being below 0.05. Cohen's *d* indicates that a small practically significant difference exists between Belgian and American as well as South African and American respondents ($.20 < |d| < .50$), while a medium difference occurs between Australian and South African respondents ($.50 < |d| < .80$) and a large difference between Belgian and South African respondents ($d > .80$). The mean value for South African respondents was larger than those for each of the other three countries for the IWMS in total, and the mean for Americans was larger than that of the Belgians.

Table 6.39: ANOVA – F2.T by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	16.249	3	5.416	22.405	<.0005
Within Groups	140.938	583	0.242		
Total	157.187	586			

Table 6.40: Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F2.T by Country

Country 1	Country 2	Diff. M ₁ -M ₂	Scheffé p	Cohen's d
Australia	Belgium	0.15	.144	n/a
Australia	SA	-0.31	<.0005	0.67 <i>Medium</i>
Australia	USA	-0.08	.553	n/a
Belgium	SA	-0.46	<.0005	0.97 <i>Large</i>
Belgium	USA	-0.23	.005	0.44 <i>Small</i>
SA	USA	0.23	.001	0.45 <i>Small</i>

Table 6.41 displays that statistically significant differences exist between the four countries under study for the UWES factor of *Absorption*, since the p-value is less than the significance level of 0.05. Table 6.42 provides evidence that statistically significant differences occurred specifically between Australian and Belgian; Australian and South African; Belgian and South African; and South African and American non-profit respondents for *Absorption*, with these p-values being below 0.05. Cohen's *d* shows that a small practically significant difference exists between Australian and Belgian respondents ($.20 < |d| < .50$); a medium practically significant difference between Australian and South African as well as South African and American respondents ($.50 < |d| < .80$); and finally, a large practically significant difference between Belgian and South African respondents ($d > .80$). The mean value for South African respondents was larger than that of Australians, Belgians and Americans for *Absorption*, and the mean for Australians was larger than that of the Belgians.

Table 6.41: ANOVA – F3.A by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	51.978	3	17.326	22.456	<.0005
Within Groups	449.824	583	0.772		
Total	501.803	586			

Table 6.42: Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F3.A by Country

Country 1	Country 2	Diff. M ₁ -M ₂	Scheffé p	Cohen's d
Australia	Belgium	0.37	.015	0.44 <i>Small</i>
Australia	SA	-0.45	<.0005	0.55 <i>Medium</i>
Australia	USA	0.11	.782	n/a
Belgium	SA	-0.82	<.0005	0.90 <i>Large</i>
Belgium	USA	-0.26	.157	n/a
SA	USA	0.56	<.0005	0.61 <i>Medium</i>

It is evident from Table 6.43 that statistically significant differences are apparent between the four countries for the UWES factor of *Dedication*, with the p-value being less than 0.05. Scheffé's tests in Table 6.44 display that statistically significant differences occurred between Australian and South African; Belgian and South African; and South African and American respondents for this factor, with these p-values being below 0.05. Cohen's *d* indicates that a small practically significant difference exists between Australian and South African respondents ($.20 < |d| < .50$), whereas the difference between Belgian and South African as well as South African and American respondents is medium in strength ($.50 < |d| < .80$). In each case, the mean value for South African respondents was larger for *Dedication*.

Table 6.43: ANOVA – F3.D by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	33.535	3	11.178	13.309	<.0005
Within Groups	489.681	583	0.840		
Total	523.216	586			

Table 6.44: Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F3.D by Country

Country 1	Country 2	Diff. M ₁ -M ₂	Scheffé p	Cohen's d
Australia	Belgium	0.17	.567	n/a
Australia	SA	-0.41	.001	0.48 <i>Small</i>
Australia	USA	0.12	.750	n/a
Belgium	SA	-0.58	<.0005	0.64 <i>Medium</i>
Belgium	USA	-0.05	.981	n/a
SA	USA	0.53	<.0005	0.56 <i>Medium</i>

Statistically significant differences are apparent between the four countries for the UWES factor of *Vigour*, due the p-value being less than 0.05 in Table 6.45. Table 6.46 provides the results of Scheffé’s tests indicating that statistically significant differences exist between Australian and South African; Belgian and South African; and South African and American respondents for *Vigour*, with p-values below the significance level of 0.05. Cohen’s *d* shows that a small practically significant difference exists between Australian and South African respondents ($.20 < |d| < .50$), while the differences between Belgian and South African as well as South African and American respondents are both medium in strength ($.50 < |d| < .80$). In each case, the mean value for South African respondents was larger for this factor.

Table 6.45: ANOVA – F3.V by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	29.085	3	9.695	14.038	<.0005
Within Groups	402.624	583	0.691		
Total	431.710	586			

Table 6.46: Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F3.V by Country

Country 1	Country 2	Diff. M ₁ -M ₂	Scheffé p	Cohen's d
Australia	Belgium	0.25	.130	n/a
Australia	SA	-0.35	.002	0.43 Small
Australia	USA	0.06	.948	n/a
Belgium	SA	-0.61	<.0005	0.73 Medium
Belgium	USA	-0.20	.347	n/a
SA	USA	0.41	<.0005	0.50 Medium

Table 6.47 shows that statistically significant differences occurred between the four countries for the UWES in total, since the p-value is less than 0.05. It is clear from Table 6.48 that statistically significant differences once again exist between Australian and South African; Belgian and South African; and South African and American respondents for work engagement in total, due to the p-values being below 0.05. Cohen’s *d* indicates that the practically significant differences between Australian and South African as well as South African and American respondents are medium in strength ($.50 < |d| < .80$), and the

differences between Belgian and South African respondents are large in strength ($d > .80$). The mean value for South African respondents was larger than each of the other three countries under study for the UWES in total.

Table 6.47: ANOVA – F3.T by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	37.184	3	12.395	19.141	<.0005
Within Groups	377.518	583	0.648		
Total	414.702	586			

Table 6.48: Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA – F3.T by Country

Country 1	Country 2	Diff. M ₁ -M ₂	Scheffé p	Cohen's d
Australia	Belgium	0.26	.092	n/a
Australia	SA	-0.40	<.0005	0.53 Medium
Australia	USA	0.09	.800	n/a
Belgium	SA	-0.67	<.0005	0.82 Large
Belgium	USA	-0.17	.454	n/a
SA	USA	0.50	<.0005	0.60 Medium

Finally, it is apparent that the p-values in Tables 6.49 to 6.50 are above the significance level of 0.05. This implies that no differences occurred between the four countries under study for the JWIS or for salary satisfaction. For this reason, Scheffé's testing was not conducted.

Table 6.49: ANOVA – F4 by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	7.128	3	2.376	1.512	.210
Within Groups	915.949	583	1.571		
Total	923.076	586			

Table 6.50: ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Country

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	10.173	3	3.391	2.096	.100
Within Groups	943.101	583	1.618		
Total	953.274	586			

6.4.3.4 MANOVA, ANOVA and t-test results: Demographic differences

This section details the analyses to determine whether demographic differences exist across the four constructs under study as well as for respondents' levels of salary satisfaction. The six demographic variables that were assessed were *gender*, *age*, *country*, *highest level of education achieved*, *marital status*, *non-profit category*, and *job level*. Annexure M provides the descriptive statistics for the MANOVA, ANOVA and t-test results in this section. These descriptive statistics are necessary since not all demographic categories were included in the analyses, due to certain categories not being adequately represented within the sample. Within the demographic variable of *education*, the first three categories (*Less than Matric / Grade 12 / final year of school*; *Completed Matric / Grade 12 / final year of school*; *Certificate / Diploma*) were excluded from the MANOVA analysis since zero observations occurred for these categories in certain countries (see Table 6.18). The analyses across *education* are therefore only between *Bachelor degree* and *Postgraduate Qualification* (comprised of *BTech / Postgraduate Diploma, Honours, Masters' degree* and *Doctoral degree*). For *marital status*, the category of *Widow / widower* was excluded from analysis, and for *job level* the categories of *Operational / Technical* and *Other* were excluded, due to the low observations for these categories (see Tables 6.19 and 6.22). For *non-profit category*, only the categories of *Education and Development*, *Health Care*, and *Welfare and Humanitarian* were compared, for the same reasons as stated above (see Table 6.21). Therefore, since only complete cases can be used in a multivariate analysis, the total sample size for these results is 362, as opposed to 587. The four demographic groups with smaller sample sizes are indicated with a '2' in the tables to follow, such as '*Education2*'.

Table 6.51 provides the MANOVA results for the IWRS. It is apparent that statistically significant differences occur across *country* and *job level* for the IWRS profiles, since these p-values are below the significance level of 0.05.

Table 6.51: Multivariate ANOVA Statistics: F1.M to F1.T

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	2022.40	5; 341	<.0005
Gender	0.53	5; 341	.751
Age	1.34	20; 1132	.142
Country	3.92	15; 942	<.0005
Education2	1.22	5; 341	.301
Marital Status2	1.42	15; 942	.130
Non-profit category2	1.49	10; 682	.141
Job Level2	4.42	10; 682	<.0005

Table 6.52 highlights that for the IWRS factor of *Meaningful Work*, univariate ANOVA indicates that statistically significant differences occur across *age*, *country*, *non-profit category* and *job level*, with these p-values being below 0.05. According to Venter (2015), MANOVAs test for significant differences *between profiles*, such as the demographic profiles in Table 6.51 above for the IWRS; whereas ANOVAs test for significant differences between demographic groups for a *single variable*, such as only *Meaningful Work* shown in Table 6.52 below. As such, it is common for significant single variable differences to be observed for demographic variables despite their profiles not differing significantly, since significant differences for one variable do not necessarily imply significant profile differences (Venter, 2015). This explains why different demographic categories are shown as being statistically significant in the ANOVA results below compared to the initial MANOVA results shown above.

Table 6.52: Univariate ANOVA Results: F1.M

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	6927.743	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	0.672	1; 361	.413
Age	2.547	4; 361	.039
Country	3.742	3; 361	.011
Education2	0.676	1; 361	.411
Marital Status2	1.258	3; 361	.289
Non-profit category2	5.055	2; 361	.007
Job Level2	7.574	2; 361	.001

Post-hoc Scheffé's tests were conducted where ANOVA identified significant differences. Owing to space constraints, only those demographic categories showing significant results in the ANOVA tables will be displayed in the post-hoc tables. Table 6.53 indicates that statistically significant differences occurred between the ages of 18 to 27 and 38 to 47; 18 to 27 and 48 to 57; as well as 18 to 27 and 58 and above for *Meaningful Work*, with these p-values being below 0.05. Cohen's *d* shows a medium practically significant difference between these categories ($.50 < |d| < .80$). The mean values for the older respondents were larger than those of younger respondents for *Meaningful Work*. With regards to *country*, statistically significant differences were found between Australian and South African as well as Belgian and South African respondents, which according to Cohen's *d* held small and medium practical significance respectively [$(.20 < |d| < .50)$; $(.50 < |d| < .80)$]. According to the mean values, South Africans find their work to be more meaningful than Australian or Belgian respondents. Across *job level*, statistically significant differences are apparent between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents, as well as between Managerial / Supervisory and Administrative / Clerical / Office workers. These differences are medium ($.50 < |d| < .80$) and large ($d > .80$) in strength, respectively, with the Managerial / Supervisory respondents displaying higher mean values in both cases.

No statistically significant differences were found for *non-profit category* through post-hoc testing. Venter (2015) notes that it is common for non-significant post-hoc results to be observed despite significant ANOVA results existing, such as the case with *non-profit category*. This is due to the fact that ANOVA assesses whether there is at least one significant difference between the demographic differences, whereas the Scheffé test determines where such differences exist. The differences may be such that the more conservative Scheffé test fails to indicate significant results (Venter, 2015).

Table 6.53: Post-hoc Results: F1.M

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	4.19	-	<.0005	7.66
Age	18-27 years old	28-37 years old	3.91	4.15	.146	n/a
	18-27 years old	38-47 years old	3.91	4.27	.004	0.63
	18-27 years old	48-57 years old	3.91	4.25	.017	0.57
	18-27 years old	58+ years old	3.91	4.29	.010	0.68
	28-37 years old	38-47 years old	4.15	4.27	.601	n/a
	28-37 years old	48-57 years old	4.15	4.25	.813	n/a
	28-37 years old	58+ years old	4.15	4.29	.631	n/a
	38-47 years old	48-57 years old	4.27	4.25	.999	n/a
	38-47 years old	58+ years old	4.27	4.29	1.000	n/a
	48-57 years old	58+ years old	4.25	4.29	.996	n/a
Country	Australia	Belgium	4.14	4.04	.692	n/a
	Australia	SA	4.14	4.36	.048	0.40
	Australia	USA	4.14	4.20	.876	n/a
	Belgium	SA	4.04	4.36	.001	0.61
	Belgium	USA	4.04	4.20	.227	n/a
	SA	USA	4.36	4.20	.218	n/a
Non-profit category2	Education and Development	Health Care	4.19	4.08	.304	n/a
	Education and Development	Welfare & Humanitarian	4.19	4.24	.816	n/a
	Health Care	Welfare & Humanitarian	4.08	4.24	.063	n/a
Job Level2	Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	4.32	4.05	<.0005	0.50
	Managerial / Supervisory	Administrative / Clerical /Office work	4.32	3.92	.001	0.80
	Professional	Administrative / Clerical /Office work	4.05	3.92	.486	n/a

It is evident from Table 6.54 that statistically significant differences exist for *Flexible Work* across *country* and *job level* ($p < 0.05$). Scheffé's tests in Table 6.55, however, indicate no statistically significant differences for *country*. Across *job level*, statistically significant differences occurred once again between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents, and between Managerial / Supervisory and Administrative / Clerical / Office workers. These practically significant differences were small ($.20 < |d| < .50$) and large ($d > .80$)

in strength, respectively, with the Managerial / Supervisory respondents reporting higher levels of *Flexible Work*.

Table 6.54: Univariate ANOVA Results: F1.F

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	3358.432	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	0.044	1; 361	.834
Age	1.19	4; 361	.315
Country	3.309	3; 361	.020
Education2	0.241	1; 361	.624
Marital Status2	0.281	3; 361	.839
Non-profit category2	2.534	2; 361	.081
Job Level2	9.614	2; 361	<.0005

Table 6.55: Post-hoc Results: F1.F

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	3.95	-	<.0005	5.63
Country	Australia	Belgium	3.90	4.12	.213	n/a
	Australia	South Africa	3.90	3.93	.994	n/a
	Australia	USA	3.90	3.88	.997	n/a
	Belgium	South Africa	4.12	3.93	.317	n/a
	Belgium	USA	4.12	3.88	.115	n/a
	South Africa	USA	3.93	3.88	.965	n/a
Job Level2	Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	4.07	3.85	.016	0.41
	Managerial / Supervisory	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.07	3.54	.001	1.07
	Professional	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	3.85	3.54	.097	0.55

For *Challenging Work*, Table 6.56 displays that statistically significant differences are in existence across *non-profit category* and *job level*, with the p-values for these categories being less than 0.05. However, the results of the Scheffé's tests in Table 6.57 show no statistically significant differences for *non-profit category* ($p > 0.05$). Across *job level*, there were statistically significant differences between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents; Professional and Administrative / Clerical/Office workers; and Managerial /

Supervisory and Administrative / Clerical / Office workers. The first two practically significant differences are medium in strength ($.50 < |d| < .80$), and the latter difference is large in strength ($d > .80$). Managerial / Supervisory respondents had higher mean values than the remaining two job levels, while Professional non-profit respondents had a higher mean than Administrative / Clerical / Office workers.

Table 6.56: Univariate ANOVA Results: F1.C

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	4629.663	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	0.053	1; 361	.817
Age	0.357	4; 361	.839
Country	1.219	3; 361	.303
Education2	0.701	1; 361	.403
Marital Status2	1.765	3; 361	.154
Non-profit category2	3.567	2; 361	.029
Job Level2	14.576	2; 361	<.0005

Table 6.57: Post-hoc Results: F1.C

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	4.12	-	<.0005	6.49
Non-profit category2	Education and Development	Health Care	4.18	3.99	.109	n/a
	Education and Development	Welfare and Humanitarian	4.18	4.14	.875	n/a
	Health Care	Welfare and Humanitarian	3.99	4.14	.167	n/a
Job Level2	Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	4.27	3.99	<.0005	0.53
	Managerial / Supervisory	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.27	3.65	<.0005	1.23
	Professional	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	3.99	3.65	.037	0.59

Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are apparent from Table 6.58 across *marital status* and *job level*. Table 6.59 goes on to indicate that Scheffé's tests found no statistically significant differences for *marital status*.

Across *job level*, however, statistically significant differences were evident between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents, and between Managerial / Supervisory and Administrative / Clerical / Office workers. These practically significant differences were medium ($.50 < |d| < .80$) and large ($d > .80$) in strength respectively, and the Managerial / Supervisory respondents reported higher levels of *Varied Work* in each case.

Table 6.58: Univariate ANOVA Results: F1.V

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	6924.75	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	0.115	1; 361	.734
Age	1.848	4; 361	.119
Country	0.605	3; 361	.612
Education2	1.758	1; 361	.186
Marital Status2	3.462	3; 361	.017
Non-profit category2	2.842	2; 361	.060
Job Level2	16.661	2; 361	<.0005

Table 6.59: Post-hoc Results: F1.V

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	4.34	-	<.0005	7.68
Marital Status2	Married	Living with partner	4.32	4.30	.995	n/a
	Married	Divorced / separated	4.32	4.58	.073	n/a
	Married	Never married	4.32	4.29	.971	n/a
	Living with partner	Divorced / separated	4.30	4.58	.142	n/a
	Living with partner	Never married	4.30	4.29	1.000	n/a
	Divorced / separated	Never married	4.58	4.29	.066	n/a
Job Level2	Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	4.49	4.20	<.0005	0.54
	Managerial / Supervisory	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.49	3.93	<.0005	1.11
	Professional	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.20	3.93	.065	n/a

With regards to *Enjoyable Work*, Table 6.60 indicates that statistically significant differences occurred across *non-profit category* and *job level*, with the p-values for these categories being less than the significance level of 0.05. Scheffé's testing in Table 6.61 display a statistically significant difference between Health Care and Welfare and Humanitarian non-profit respondents for *non-profit category* ($p < 0.05$), with this showing a small practically significant difference ($.20 < |d| < .50$). Respondents working in the Welfare and Humanitarian field experienced more *enjoyable work* than those in the Health Care field, according to the mean values. Across *job level*, a statistically significant difference was found between Managerial / Supervisory and Administrative / Clerical / Office workers, and this practically significant difference was large in strength ($d > .80$). Managerial / Supervisory respondents *enjoy* their work to a greater extent than Administrative / Clerical / Office workers ($M_1 > M_2$).

Table 6.60: Univariate ANOVA Results: F1.E

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	2741.977	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	0.073	1; 361	.786
Age	0.873	4; 361	.480
Country	2.597	3; 361	.052
Education2	0.065	1; 361	.799
Marital Status2	0.668	3; 361	.572
Non-profit category2	3.3	2; 361	.038
Job Level2	4.464	2; 361	.012

Table 6.61: Post-hoc Results: F1.E

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	3.86	-	<.0005	5.13
Non-profit category2	Education and Development	Health Care	3.83	3.71	.541	n/a
	Education and Development	Welfare and Humanitarian	3.83	3.95	.433	n/a
	Health Care	Welfare and Humanitarian	3.71	3.95	.046	0.46
Job Level2	Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	3.96	3.77	.064	n/a
	Managerial / Supervisory	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	3.96	3.55	.026	0.84
	Professional	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	3.77	3.55	.365	n/a

Table 6.62 shows that for the IWRS in total, statistically significant differences are apparent across *non-profit category* and *job level* owing to the p-values being below 0.05. Table 6.63 indicates no statistically significant differences across *non-profit category*, however. A statistically significant difference was evident between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents as well as between Managerial / Supervisory and Administrative / Clerical / Office workers across *job level*. The former held a practically significant difference that was small in strength ($.20 < |d| < .50$), whereas the latter difference was large in strength ($d > .80$). Managerial / Supervisory respondents held higher means than the remaining two job levels.

Table 6.62: Univariate ANOVA Results: F1.T

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	6831.664	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	0	1; 361	.988
Age	1.305	4; 361	.268
Country	1.221	3; 361	.302
Education2	0.011	1; 361	.916
Marital Status2	1.335	3; 361	.263
Non-profit category2	4.707	2; 361	.010
Job Level2	14.591	2; 361	<.0005

Table 6.63: Post-hoc Results: F1.T

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	4.09	-	<.0005	7.78
Non-profit category2	Education and Development	Health Care	4.11	3.98	.226	n/a
	Education and Development	Welfare and Humanitarian	4.11	4.14	.905	n/a
	Health Care	Welfare and Humanitarian	3.98	4.14	.060	n/a
Job Level2	Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	4.22	3.97	<.0005	0.47
	Managerial / Supervisory	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.22	3.72	<.0005	1.01
	Professional	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	3.97	3.72	.060	n/a

Table 6.64 displays the MANOVA results for the IWMS profiles, from which it can be seen that statistically significant differences occur across *country* and *job level*, since these p-values are below 0.05.

Table 6.64: Multivariate ANOVA Statistics: F2.C to F2.T

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	3123.66	3; 343	<.0005
Gender	0.87	3; 343	.459
Age	0.88	12; 908	.567
Country	3.82	9; 835	<.0005
Education2	0.37	3; 343	.776
Marital Status2	0.92	9; 835	.511
Non-profit category2	1.97	6; 686	.068
Job Level2	5.20	6; 686	<.0005

With regards to the univariate ANOVA results for the UWES, Table 6.65 indicates that for the UWES factor *Personal Connection to One's Work*, statistically significant differences exist across *country*, *non-profit category* and *job level* since the p-values are less than the significance level of 0.05. Table 6.66 displays that across *country*, statistically significant differences exist between South African and American, Australian and South African, as well as Belgian and South African respondents ($p < 0.05$). Cohen's *d* found practically significant differences of a small ($.20 < |d| < .50$), medium ($.50 < |d| < .80$) and large ($d > .80$) strength respectively for these differences. In each case, the larger means for South Africans indicated that they are more *personally connected* to their work. No statistically significant differences were found through Scheffé's testing across *non-profit category*. With regards to *job level*, statistically significant differences were evident between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents, as well as between Managerial / Supervisory and Administrative / Clerical / Office workers, with both holding medium practically significant differences ($.50 < |d| < .80$). Managerial / Supervisory respondents held higher means than the remaining two job levels.

Table 6.65: Univariate ANOVA Results: F2.C

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	4210.915	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	0.062	1; 361	.803
Age	0.357	4; 361	.839
Country	7.039	3; 361	<.0005
Education2	0.69	1; 361	.407
Marital Status2	2.098	3; 361	.100
Non-profit category2	3.743	2; 361	.025
Job Level2	11.044	2; 361	<.0005

Table 6.66: Post-hoc Results: F2.C

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	3.95	-	<.0005	6.02
Country	Australia	Belgium	3.85	3.76	.777	n/a
	Australia	South Africa	3.85	4.24	.001	0.64
	Australia	USA	3.85	3.93	.881	n/a
	Belgium	South Africa	3.76	4.24	<.0005	0.83
	Belgium	USA	3.76	3.93	.304	n/a
	South Africa	USA	4.24	3.93	.007	0.45
Non-profit category2	Education and Development	Health Care	3.97	3.82	.282	n/a
	Education and Development	Welfare and Humanitarian	3.97	4.00	.943	n/a
	Health Care	Welfare and Humanitarian	3.82	4.00	.104	n/a
Job Level2	Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	4.11	3.76	<.0005	0.56
	Managerial / Supervisory	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.11	3.69	.005	0.68
	Professional	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	3.76	3.69	.886	0.10

Table 6.67 displays that statistically significant differences exist across *country* and *job level* ($p < 0.05$) for *Personal Desire to Make a Difference*. Scheffé's tests in Table 6.68 highlight that across *country*, statistically significant differences exist between Australian and South African, Belgian and American, as well as Belgian and South African respondents. The first two differences

were found to have a small practical significance ($.20 < |d| < .50$), whereas the latter holds a medium practical significance ($.50 < |d| < .80$). South Africans demonstrated larger means for this factor than Australians or Belgians, and Americans had a higher mean value than Belgians. Across *job level*, it was found that statistically significant differences exist between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents, and that this practical significance is small in strength ($.20 < |d| < .50$). The mean value for Managerial / Supervisory respondents indicates that they have a stronger *personal desire to make a difference* through their work compared to Professional respondents.

Table 6.67: Univariate ANOVA Results: F2.D

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	6979.804	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	0.36	1; 361	.549
Age	0.286	4; 361	.887
Country	8.142	3; 361	<.0005
Education2	0.423	1; 361	.516
Marital Status2	1.457	3; 361	.226
Non-profit category2	0.331	2; 361	.718
Job Level2	4.952	2; 361	.008

Table 6.68: Post-hoc Results: F2.D

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	4.33	-	<.0005	7.75
Country	Australia	Belgium	4.26	4.10	.247	n/a
	Australia	South Africa	4.26	4.55	.006	0.47
	Australia	USA	4.26	4.38	.557	n/a
	Belgium	South Africa	4.10	4.55	<.0005	0.78
	Belgium	USA	4.10	4.38	.006	0.42
Job Level2	South Africa	USA	4.55	4.38	.168	n/a
	Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	4.42	4.19	.001	0.36
	Managerial / Supervisory	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.42	4.33	.749	n/a
	Professional	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.19	4.33	.470	n/a

With regards to *Personal Desire to Perform*, Table 6.69 indicates that statistically significant differences occurred across *country* and *job level*, with the p-values for these categories being less than 0.05. Table 6.70 displays statistically significant differences between Australian and South African, Belgian and American, South African and American, as well as Belgian and South African respondents across *country* ($p < 0.05$). The first three differences are small in strength ($.20 < |d| < .50$), while the latter is medium in strength ($.50 < |d| < .80$). Respondents from SA experience a stronger desire to perform than those from the other three countries, as was the case with Americans compared to Belgians, according to the mean values. Across *job level*, a statistically significant difference was found between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents, and this practically significant difference was small in strength ($.20 < |d| < .50$). Managerial / Supervisory respondents *personally desire to perform* to a greater extent than Professionals ($M_1 > M_2$).

Table 6.69: Univariate ANOVA Results: F2.P

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	7984.928	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	1.964	1; 361	.162
Age	1.2	4; 361	.311
Country	8.115	3; 361	<.0005
Education2	1.048	1; 361	.307
Marital Status2	2.064	3; 361	.105
Non-profit category2	3.003	2; 361	.051
Job Level2	10.246	2; 361	<.0005

Table 6.70: Post-hoc Results: F2.P

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	4.30	-	<.0005	8.12
Country	Australia	Belgium	4.25	4.09	.221	n/a
	Australia	South Africa	4.25	4.53	.003	0.46
	Australia	USA	4.25	4.31	.864	n/a
	Belgium	South Africa	4.09	4.53	<.0005	0.75
	Belgium	USA	4.09	4.31	.027	0.33
Job Level2	South Africa	USA	4.53	4.31	.027	0.31
	Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	4.42	4.13	<.0005	0.46
	Managerial / Supervisory	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.42	4.25	.223	n/a
	Professional	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.13	4.25	.554	n/a

Table 6.71 draws attention to statistically significant differences across *country* and *job level* for the IWMS in total ($p < 0.05$). Table 6.72 indicates that statistically significant differences are apparent between Australian and South African, Belgian and South African, Belgian and American as well as South African and American respondents across *country*. The first two differences are medium in strength ($.50 < |d| < .80$) while the latter two are small in strength ($.20 < |d| < .50$). South African respondents have higher means for the IWMS in total compared to those from the other three countries, while Americans have a higher mean value than Belgians. Across *job level*, a statistically significant difference was again discovered between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents, which was small in strength ($.20 < |d| < .50$). The mean values indicate that Managerial / Supervisory respondents are more strongly *intrinsically motivated* than Professionals.

Table 6.71: Univariate ANOVA Results: F2.T

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	8115.751	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	0.667	1; 361	.415
Age	0.425	4; 361	.791
Country	9.964	3; 361	<.0005
Education2	0.911	1; 361	.341
Marital Status2	2.43	3; 361	.065
Non-profit category2	2.653	2; 361	.072
Job Level2	10.885	2; 361	<.0005

Table 6.72: Post-hoc Results: F2.T

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	4.19	-	<.0005	8.14
Country	Australia	Belgium	4.12	3.98	.289	n/a
	Australia	South Africa	4.12	4.44	<.0005	0.52
	Australia	USA	4.12	4.21	.703	n/a
	Belgium	South Africa	3.98	4.44	<.0005	0.78
	Belgium	USA	3.98	4.21	.017	0.34
	South Africa	USA	4.44	4.21	.009	0.34
Job Level2	Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	4.32	4.03	<.0005	0.46
	Managerial / Supervisory	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.32	4.09	.074	n/a
	Professional	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.03	4.09	.822	n/a

The MANOVA results for the UWES profiles are shown in Table 6.73. It is apparent that statistically significant differences exist across *age*, *country* and *job level*, with these p-values being below 0.05.

Table 6.73: Multivariate ANOVA Statistics: F3.A to F3.T

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	1038.58	3; 343	<.0005
Gender	2.38	3; 343	.069
Age	1.81	12; 908	.043
Country	3.54	9; 835	<.0005
Education2	1.22	3; 343	.301
Marital Status2	0.62	9; 835	.781
Non-profit category2	1.35	6; 686	.232
Job Level2	5.40	6; 686	<.0005

With regards to *Absorption*, Table 6.74 shows that statistically significant differences occur across *age*, *country*, *non-profit category* and *job level*, with these p-values being below the significance level of 0.05. Scheffé's tests in Table 6.75 go on to display statistically significant differences between the *age* groups of 18 to 27 and 38 to 47; 18 to 27 and 48 to 57; and 28 to 37 and 48 to 57 years of age. Cohen's *d* shows that all three differences have practical significance that is medium in strength ($.50 < |d| < .80$). In each case, the older group of respondents displayed a higher mean value. Regarding *country*, statistically significant differences occur between Australian and Belgian, Australian and South African, Belgian and South African as well as South African and American respondents. The first practically significant difference is small in strength ($.20 < |d| < .50$), while the difference between Belgian and South African respondents is large in strength ($d > .80$). The remaining two differences are medium in strength ($.50 < |d| < .80$). South African respondents have higher levels of *absorption* to those from the other three countries, and Australians have a higher mean value than Belgians. No statistically significant differences were apparent through Scheffé's tests for *non-profit category*. Across *job level*, statistically significant differences were evident between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents as well as Managerial / Supervisory and Administrative / Clerical / Office workers, with both differences showing a medium practical significance ($.50 < |d| < .80$). The mean values show that Managerial / Supervisory respondents are more *absorbed* in their work than the other two job levels.

Table 6.74: Univariate ANOVA Results: F3.A

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	2308.647	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	2.866	1; 361	.091
Age	2.637	4; 361	.034
Country	9.674	3; 361	<.0005
Education2	0.826	1; 361	.364
Marital Status2	0.536	3; 361	.658
Non-profit category2	3.066	2; 361	.048
Job Level2	12.225	2; 361	<.0005

Table 6.75: Post-hoc Results: F3.A

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	4.00	-	<.0005	4.36
Age	18-27 years old	28-37 years old	3.63	3.80	.878	n/a
	18-27 years old	38-47 years old	3.63	4.14	.022	0.53
	18-27 years old	48-57 years old	3.63	4.27	.003	0.75
	18-27 years old	58+ years old	3.63	4.11	.088	n/a
	28-37 years old	38-47 years old	3.80	4.14	.084	n/a
	28-37 years old	48-57 years old	3.80	4.27	.011	0.57
	28-37 years old	58+ years old	3.80	4.11	.297	n/a
	38-47 years old	48-57 years old	4.14	4.27	.908	n/a
	38-47 years old	58+ years old	4.14	4.11	1.000	n/a
	48-57 years old	58+ years old	4.27	4.11	.897	n/a
Country	Australia	Belgium	4.01	3.65	.044	0.43
	Australia	South Africa	4.01	4.44	.009	0.53
	Australia	USA	4.01	3.89	.789	n/a
	Belgium	South Africa	3.65	4.44	<.0005	0.91
	Belgium	USA	3.65	3.89	.280	n/a
	South Africa	USA	4.44	3.89	<.0005	0.62
Non-profit category2	Education and Development	Health Care	4.04	3.88	.447	n/a
	Education and Development	Welfare and Humanitarian	4.04	4.04	.999	n/a
	Health Care	Welfare and Humanitarian	3.88	4.04	.339	n/a
Job Level2	Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	4.25	3.69	<.0005	0.64
	Managerial / Supervisory	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.25	3.74	.014	0.59
	Professional	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	3.69	3.74	.966	n/a

ANOVA results for *Dedication* revealed in Table 6.76 that statistically significant differences occur across *country* and *job level* ($p < 0.05$). Table 6.77 shows that statistically significant differences exist between Australian and South African, Belgian and South African as well as South African and American respondents across *country*. All of these differences indicate medium practical significance ($.50 < |d| < .80$). South African respondents are more *dedicated* to their work, according to the mean values. Across *job level*, statistically significant differences were again seen between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents as well as between Managerial / Supervisory and Administrative / Clerical / Office workers, with the first difference being medium in strength ($.50 < |d| < .80$) and the latter being large in strength ($d > .80$). The mean values for Managerial / Supervisory respondents are greater than those of the other two job levels.

Table 6.76: Univariate ANOVA Results: F3.D

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	2624.922	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	0.048	1; 361	.827
Age	1.382	4; 361	.240
Country	5.905	3; 361	.001
Education2	0.088	1; 361	.767
Marital Status2	0.444	3; 361	.722
Non-profit category2	2.613	2; 361	.075
Job Level2	9.226	2; 361	<.0005

Table 6.77: Post-hoc Results: F3.D

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	4.44	-	<.0005	4.82
Country	Australia	Belgium	4.41	4.23	.606	n/a
	Australia	South Africa	4.41	4.82	.019	0.52
	Australia	USA	4.41	4.32	.925	n/a
	Belgium	South Africa	4.23	4.82	<.0005	0.68
	Belgium	USA	4.23	4.32	.911	n/a
	South Africa	USA	4.82	4.32	.001	0.56
Job Level2	Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	4.67	4.21	<.0005	0.53
	Managerial / Supervisory	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.67	3.98	.001	0.80
	Professional	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.21	3.98	.467	n/a

Table 6.78 indicates that statistically significant differences are apparent across *age*, *country*, *non-profit category* and *job level* for *Vigour*. Table 6.79 proves the occurrence of statistically significant differences between the *age* groups of 18 to 27 and 38 to 47; 18 to 27 and 48 to 57; 18 to 27 and 58 and above; and 28 to 37 and 38 to 47 years of age. Cohen's *d* indicates that the first three differences have medium practical significance ($.50 < |d| < .80$), while the latter difference is small ($.20 < |d| < .50$). In each case, the older group of respondents reported being more vigorous at work. Regarding *country*, statistically significant differences exist between Australian and South African, Belgian and South African, and South African and American respondents. The difference between Belgian and South African respondents is medium in strength ($.50 < |d| < .80$), while the remaining two differences are small ($.20 < |d| < .50$). In each case, South African respondents reported higher levels of *vigour*. No statistically significant differences were discovered through Scheffé's testing for *non-profit category*. Regarding *job level*, statistically significant differences were found both between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents as well as Managerial / Supervisory and Administrative / Clerical / Office workers, with both differences showing a medium practical significance ($.50 < |d| < .80$). The mean values were higher for Managerial / Supervisory respondents.

Table 6.78: Univariate ANOVA Results: F3.V

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	2829.383	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	0.026	1; 361	.872
Age	3.259	4; 361	.012
Country	4.689	3; 361	.003
Education2	0.152	1; 361	.697
Marital Status2	1.286	3; 361	.279
Non-profit category2	3.407	2; 361	.034
Job Level2	12.354	2; 361	<.0005

Table 6.79: Post-hoc Results: F3.V

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	4.19	-	<.0005	4.86
Age	18-27 years old	28-37 years old	3.72	4.02	.339	n/a
	18-27 years old	38-47 years old	3.72	4.38	<.0005	0.70
	18-27 years old	48-57 years old	3.72	4.37	.001	0.77
	18-27 years old	58+ years old	3.72	4.33	.006	0.63
	28-37 years old	38-47 years old	4.02	4.38	.038	0.40
	28-37 years old	48-57 years old	4.02	4.37	.086	n/a
	28-37 years old	58+ years old	4.02	4.33	.271	n/a
	38-47 years old	48-57 years old	4.38	4.37	1.000	n/a
	38-47 years old	58+ years old	4.38	4.33	.997	n/a
	48-57 years old	58+ years old	4.37	4.33	.999	n/a
Country	Australia	Belgium	4.14	3.93	.386	n/a
	Australia	South Africa	4.14	4.52	.018	0.47
	Australia	USA	4.14	4.15	1.000	n/a
	Belgium	South Africa	3.93	4.52	<.0005	0.68
	Belgium	USA	3.93	4.15	.294	n/a
South Africa	USA	4.52	4.15	.016	0.41	
Non-profit category2	Education and Development	Health Care	4.20	4.05	.408	n/a
	Education and Development	Welfare and Humanitarian	4.20	4.25	.916	n/a
	Health Care	Welfare and Humanitarian	4.05	4.25	.160	n/a
Job Level2	Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	4.44	3.89	<.0005	0.62
	Managerial / Supervisory	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.44	3.81	.001	0.73
	Professional	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	3.89	3.81	.877	n/a

According to Table 6.80 for the UWES in total, statistically significant differences exist across *age*, *country*, *non-profit category* and *job level*. Table 6.81 shows that statistically significant differences are apparent between the *age* groups of 18 to 27 and 38 to 47; 18 to 27 and 48 to 57; 18 to 27 and 58 and above; and 28 to 37 and 48 to 57 years of age. The first three differences are medium in strength with regards to practical significance ($.50 < |d| < .80$), while the latter difference is small in strength ($.20 < |d| < .50$). In each case, the older group of respondents reported higher levels of work engagement than the younger respondents. With regards to *country* differences, statistically significant differences exist between Australian and South African, Belgian and South African, and South African and American respondents. The differences between all three are medium in strength ($.50 < |d| < .80$), with South African respondents reporting higher levels of work engagement compared to the other three countries. No statistically significant differences were apparent for *non-profit category*. Across *job level*, statistically significant differences were found between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents as well as Managerial / Supervisory and Administrative / Clerical / Office workers, with both differences being medium in strength ($.50 < |d| < .80$). Managerial / Supervisory respondents reported higher levels of work engagement compared to the other two job levels.

Table 6.80: Univariate ANOVA Results: F3.T

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	3093.752	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	0.42	1; 361	.518
Age	2.606	4; 361	.036
Country	7.819	3; 361	<.0005
Education2	0.007	1; 361	.933
Marital Status2	0.793	3; 361	.498
Non-profit category2	3.575	2; 361	.029
Job Level2	13.145	2; 361	<.0005

Table 6.81: Post-hoc Results: F3.T

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	4.21	-	<.0005	5.05
Age	18-27 years old	28-37 years old	3.81	4.05	.535	n/a
	18-27 years old	38-47 years old	3.81	4.35	.003	0.57
	18-27 years old	48-57 years old	3.81	4.44	.001	0.74
	18-27 years old	58+ years old	3.81	4.33	.019	0.55
	28-37 years old	38-47 years old	4.05	4.35	.107	n/a
	28-37 years old	48-57 years old	4.05	4.44	.031	0.47
	28-37 years old	58+ years old	4.05	4.33	.298	n/a
	38-47 years old	48-57 years old	4.35	4.44	.967	n/a
	38-47 years old	58+ years old	4.35	4.33	1.000	n/a
	48-57 years old	58+ years old	4.44	4.33	.969	n/a
Country	Australia	Belgium	4.19	3.93	.196	n/a
	Australia	South Africa	4.19	4.59	.006	0.51
	Australia	USA	4.19	4.12	.948	n/a
	Belgium	South Africa	3.93	4.59	<.0005	0.76
	Belgium	USA	3.93	4.12	.427	n/a
	South Africa	USA	4.59	4.12	<.0005	0.53
Non-profit category2	Education and Development	Health Care	4.22	4.09	.465	n/a
	Education and Development	Welfare and Humanitarian	4.22	4.26	.920	n/a
	Health Care	Welfare and Humanitarian	4.09	4.26	.202	n/a
Job Level2	Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	4.45	3.93	<.0005	0.59
	Managerial / Supervisory	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	4.45	3.84	.001	0.71
	Professional	Administrative / Clerical / Office work	3.93	3.84	.858	n/a

MANOVA could not be calculated for the JWIS, since only one variable exists in this instrument. Regarding ANOVA results for the JWIS, Table 6.82 indicates that statistically significant differences occurred across *age* and *country* for *intention to quit*. Table 6.83 indicates that statistically significant differences are apparent between the *age* groups of 18 to 27 and 58 and above, and that this difference holds a medium practical significance ($.50 < |d| < .80$). Younger

respondents reported higher levels of intention to quit than the older respondents, according to the mean values. No statistically significant differences were apparent for *country*.

Table 6.82: Univariate ANOVA Results: F4

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	414.5207	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	0.4647	1; 361	.496
Age	2.9121	4; 361	.022
Country	2.877	3; 361	.036
Education2	0.0614	1; 361	.804
Marital Status2	1.9232	3; 361	.126
Non-profit category2	0.5171	2; 361	.597
Job Level2	0.8057	2; 361	.448

Table 6.83: Post-hoc Results: F4

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	2.29	-	<.0005	1.86
Age	18-27 years old	28-37 years old	2.73	2.35	.548	n/a
	18-27 years old	38-47 years old	2.73	2.26	.325	n/a
	18-27 years old	48-57 years old	2.73	2.19	.235	n/a
	18-27 years old	58+ years old	2.73	1.97	.050	0.56
	28-37 years old	38-47 years old	2.35	2.26	.992	n/a
	28-37 years old	48-57 years old	2.35	2.19	.945	n/a
	28-37 years old	58+ years old	2.35	1.97	.506	n/a
	38-47 years old	48-57 years old	2.26	2.19	.997	n/a
	38-47 years old	58+ years old	2.26	1.97	.750	n/a
48-57 years old	58+ years old	2.19	1.97	.921	n/a	
Country	Australia	Belgium	2.16	2.09	.984	n/a
	Australia	South Africa	2.16	2.51	.316	n/a
	Australia	USA	2.16	2.38	.672	n/a
	Belgium	South Africa	2.09	2.51	.160	n/a
	Belgium	USA	2.09	2.38	.437	n/a
	South Africa	USA	2.51	2.38	.920	n/a

Tables 6.84 to 6.94 display demographic differences according to respondents' levels of salary satisfaction. Table 6.84 indicates that statistically significant differences exist across *gender* and *education* for *salary satisfaction*. In Table 6.85, these statistically significant differences are confirmed by means of

Scheffé's testing ($p < 0.05$), with the mean values suggesting that male respondents reported higher levels of *salary satisfaction* than females, and that non-profit respondents with a postgraduate degree reported higher levels of *salary satisfaction* than those holding only a Bachelor's degree. These results each held a small practical significance ($.20 < |d| < .50$).

Table 6.84: Univariate ANOVA Results: Salary Satisfaction

Effect	F-value	D.F.	p
Intercept	715.1373	1; 361	<.0005
Gender	4.9272	1; 361	.027
Age	1.8762	4; 361	.114
Country	1.1785	3; 361	.318
Education2	4.7845	1; 361	.029
Marital Status2	1.3316	3; 361	.264
Non-profit category2	1.5595	2; 361	.212
Job Level2	0.2754	2; 361	.759

Table 6.85: Post-hoc Results: Salary Satisfaction

Effect	Level 1	Level 2	M ₁	M ₂	p	Cohen's d
Intercept	-	-	3.14	-	<.0005	2.54
Gender	Male	Female	3.46	3.01	.027	0.36
Education2	Bachelor degree	Postgraduate	2.91	3.28	.029	0.30

According to the t-test results shown in Table 6.86, a statistically and practically significant difference of small strength ($p < 0.05$; $.20 < |d| < .50$) occurred across genders for salary satisfaction, with male respondents reporting greater *satisfaction with their salaries* than female respondents. This confirms the ANOVA results in Table 6.85 above.

Table 6.86: t-Test: Salary Satisfaction by Gender

Variable	Gender	n	Mean	S.D	Diff.	t	d.f.	p(d.f.=585)	Cohen's d
Salary Sat.	Male	166	3.39	1.25	0.44	3.83	585	<.0005	0.35
	Female	421	2.94	1.26					Small

With regards to education level, Table 6.87 reports that a statistically and practically significant difference of small strength ($p < 0.05$; $.20 < |d| < .50$)

occurred across education levels for salary satisfaction, with respondents possessing a postgraduate qualification being more *satisfied with their salaries* than respondents who possessed only a Bachelors' degree. This confirms the ANOVA results in Table 6.85.

Table 6.87: t-Test: Salary Satisfaction by Education2

Variable	Education2	n	Mean	S.D	Diff.	t	d.f.	p(d.f.=465)	Cohen's d
Salary Sat.	Bachelor degree	189	2.98	1.28	-0.29	-2.47	465	.014	0.23
	Postgraduate	278	3.27	1.20					

Table 6.88 points to a statistically significant difference across the demographic category of *age* ($p < 0.05$). It is apparent from the Scheffé's test results in Table 6.89 that statistically significant differences occur across the *age* groups of 18 to 27 and 58 and above, as well as 48 to 57 and 58 and above years of age. Both differences are medium in strength ($.50 < |d| < .80$), with older respondents reporting higher levels of *salary satisfaction* ($M_2 > M_1$).

Table 6.88: ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Age

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	31.780	4	7.945	5.018	.001
Within Groups	921.495	582	1.583		
Total	953.274	586			

Table 6.89: Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Age

Age 1	Age 2	Diff. M_1-M_2	Scheffé p	Cohen's d
18-27	28-37	-0.32	.542	n/a
18-27	38-47	-0.29	.662	n/a
18-27	48-57	-0.09	.993	n/a
18-27	58+	-0.75	.006	0.59 Medium
28-37	38-47	0.03	1.000	n/a
28-37	48-57	0.23	.692	n/a
28-37	58+	-0.44	.130	n/a
38-47	48-57	0.19	.817	n/a
38-47	58+	-0.47	.095	n/a
48-57	58+	-0.66	.005	0.51 Medium

According to Table 6.90, a statistically significant difference exists across the demographic category of *marital status*, with the p-value being below the significance level of 0.05. Scheffé’s testing, shown in Table 6.91, indicates that a statistically significant difference is present across the groups of Married and Never Married, with the mean values indicating that Married respondents reported higher levels of *salary satisfaction* than respondents who have never been married. This difference is small in strength ($.20 < |d| < .50$).

Table 6.90: ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Marital Status2

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	21.795	3	7.265	4.477	.004
Within Groups	931.479	574	1.623		
Total	953.274	577			

Table 6.91: Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Marital Status2

Marital Status2 1	Marital Status2 2	Diff. M ₁ -M ₂	Scheffé p	Cohen's d
Married	Living w partner	0.23	.621	n/a
Married	Divorced/separated	0.38	.221	n/a
Married	Never married	0.46	.013	0.36 Small
Living w/ partner	Divorced/separated	0.16	.924	n/a
Living w/ partner	Never married	0.23	.700	n/a
Divorced/separated	Never married	0.08	.987	n/a

It is apparent from Table 6.92 that no statistically significant difference occurs across *non-profit category* for *salary satisfaction*, since the p-value is above the significance level of 0.05.

Table 6.92: ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Non-profit category2

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	0.960	2	0.480	0.240	.787
Within Groups	952.314	476	2.001		
Total	953.274	478			

According to Table 6.93, a statistically significant difference exists across the demographic category of *job level* ($p < 0.05$). Table 6.94 displays that a

statistically significant difference occurs between Managerial / Supervisory respondents and Administrative / Clerical / Office workers, with this difference holding a small practical significance ($.20 < |d| < .50$). Managerial / Supervisory respondents have a higher mean value than Administrative / Clerical / Office workers, suggesting that they are more *satisfied with their salaries*.

Table 6.93: ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Job Level2

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Between Groups	16.791	2	8.395	4.975	.007
Within Groups	936.483	555	1.687		
Total	953.274	557			

Table 6.94: Descriptive and Inferential statistics for ANOVA: Salary Satisfaction by Job Level2

Job Level2 1	Job Level2 2	Diff. M ₁ -M ₂	Scheffé p	Cohen's d
Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	0.16	.424	n/a
Managerial / Supervisory	Administrative / Clerical /Office work	0.56	.009	0.44 Small
Professional	Administrative / Clerical /Office work	0.40	.114	n/a

6.4.3.5 Structural Equation Modelling

SEM was utilised in order to empirically test the proposed theoretical model provided in Chapter Four of this thesis. The first model that was tested by means of SEM, together with its standardised regression weightings, is shown in Figure 6.1. Statistical significance for $n=587$ is shown by values greater than or equal to 0.081, and practical significance is shown by values greater than or equal to 0.300 (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2009). The path diagram for Model 1 is shown in Figure 6.2. This indicates the complete set of relationships among the constructs, with dependence relationships portrayed by means of straight arrows (Malhotra, 2010). The observed SEM fit statistics are provided in Table 6.95. According to Landy and Conte (2010), an independent variable describes the treatment or antecedent condition, whereas a dependent variable is the subsequent behaviour of the research participant. In Figure 6.1, intrinsic

rewards is the independent variable, while the remaining three variables are the dependent variables.

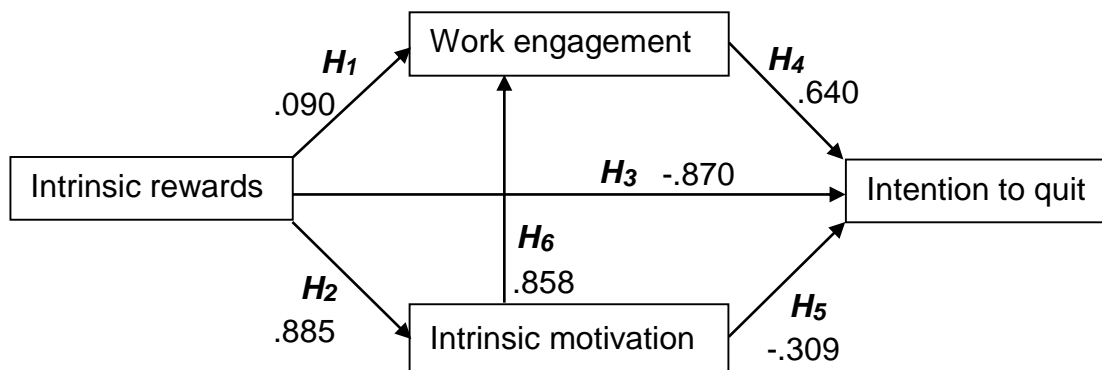


Figure 6.1: Diagram of Structural Model 1 with standardised regression weightings

Table 6.95: Observed SEM Fit Statistics

Indices for Single Models				
Sample size: n = 587; No. of items: m = 59			Model 1 (with H ₁)	Model 2 (without H ₁)
Absolute/predictive fit	Abbr.	Target	Observed	Observed
Chi-square (Maximum likelihood)	χ^2		5536.92	4541.61
	df		1637	1614
	p	≥ .050	< .0005	< .0005
	χ^2/df	≤ 3	3.38	2.81
Comparative Fit Indices				
Bentler-Bonnet normed fit index	NFI	≥ .90	.77	.81
Bentler comparative fit index	CFI	≥ .90	.82	.87
Other				
Joreskog adjusted GFI	AGFI	≥ .95	.69	.74
Root mean square error of approximation	95%Lo		.062	.054
	RMSEA	≤ .08	.064	.056
	95%Hi		.066	.058
Note: Red indicates acceptable fit for Single Models (yellow cells)				
Indices for Comparison of Multiple Models				
Absolute/predictive fit				
Akaike information criterion	AIC	< better	5802.917	4853.611
Browne-Cudeck criterion	BCC	< better	5833.259	4889.201

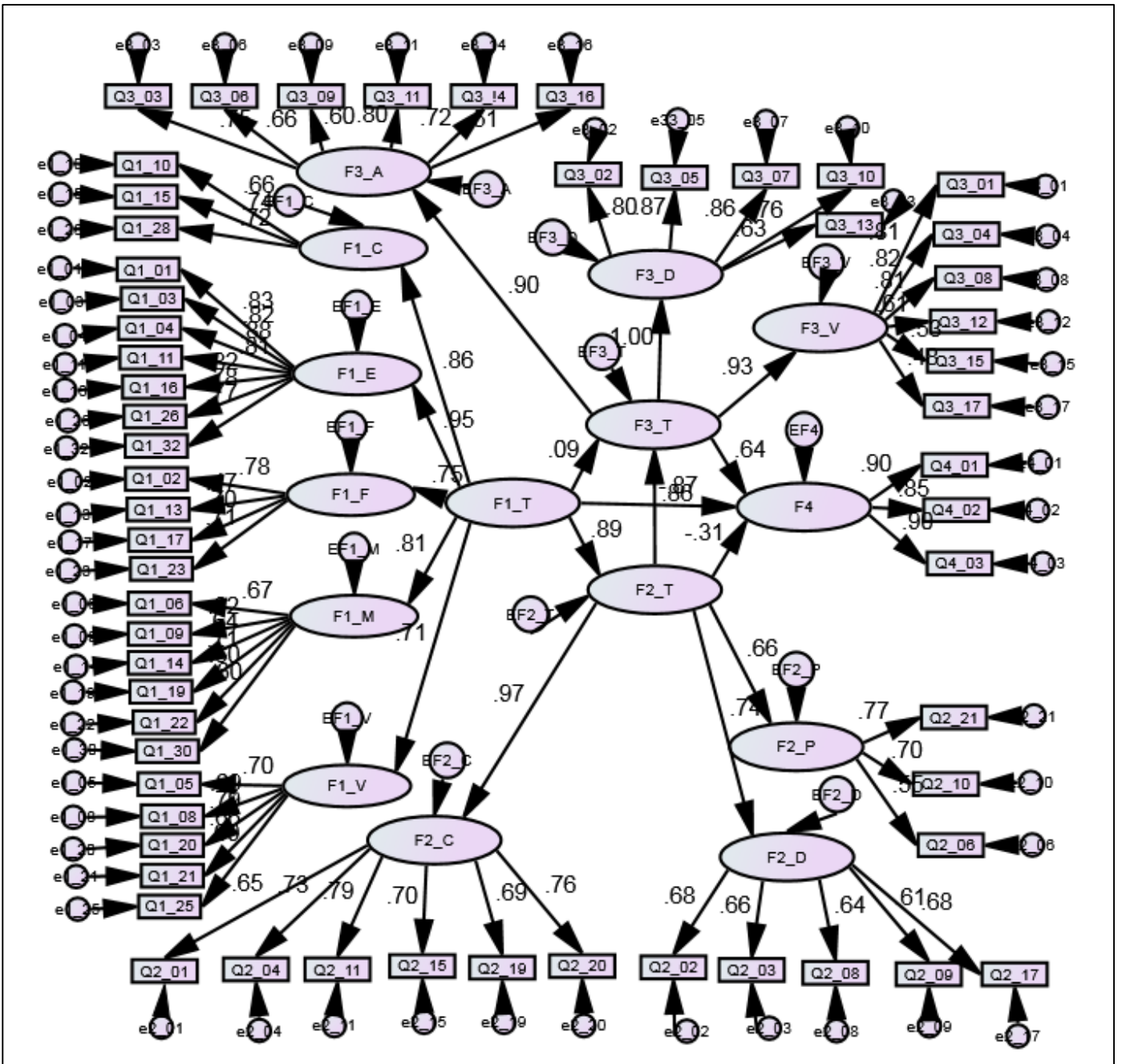


Figure 6.2: Path diagram for Model 1

With regards to Figures 6.1 and 6.2, it can be deduced that the standardised regression weightings for Hypotheses 2 to 6 are above 0.300, indicating that they are practically significant. The regression weighting for Hypothesis 1 is statistically significant, since it is above 0.081. However, based on the results shown in Table 6.95, it is evident that the Chi-square statistic for Model 1 is above the suggested target of 3, with the p-value being less than the recommended target of 0.05. For the Bentler-Bonnet NFI and Bentler CFI,

values less than the recommended 0.90 level were obtained. The results of the Joreskog AGFI were less than the required 0.95. These results all indicate an unacceptable fit. For the RMSEA, the values were less than the suggested 0.08, indicating satisfactory fit; however, based on these results overall, it can be deduced that Model 1 has an unacceptable fit.

This model was revised in order to improve its fit, but revision resulted in the standardised regression weighting for Hypothesis 1 dropping to -0.014, which is below the statistical significance level of 0.081. Revising the model thus resulted in a loss of statistical significance for Hypothesis 1. The results of this intermediate revision are not included in this thesis because according to Venter (2015), the general guideline for reporting the results of an iterative process is to report the statistics only for one's initial model and final model.

For this reason, this relationship was omitted from the following revised model (Model 2). Model 2 was therefore developed as a result of the unacceptable fit of Model 1, by means of removing the non-significant Hypothesis 1 relationship and by adding covariances according to modification indices reported by AMOS. The standardised regression weightings for Model 2, the revised model, are shown in Figure 6.3 and the observed SEM fit statistics are indicated in Table 6.95. The path diagram for Model 2 in Figure 6.4 displays the complete set of relationships among the constructs, with dependence relationships portrayed by means of straight arrows and correlational relationships portrayed by means of curved arrows (Malhotra, 2010).

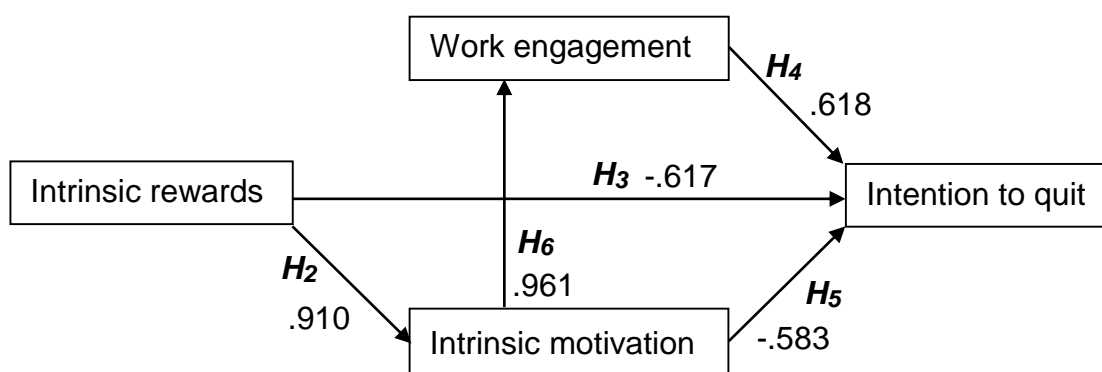


Figure 6.3: Diagram of Structural Model 2 with standardised regression weightings

It is apparent from Figures 6.3 and 6.4 that the standardised regression weightings for Hypotheses 2 to 6 are above 0.300, indicating that they are practically significant. The correlations for Hypotheses 3 and 5 are negative in nature, implying that an increase in intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation will lead to a decrease in intention to quit. Table 6.95 shows that the Chi-square statistic for Model 2 is less than the suggested target of 3, indicating acceptable fit. With regards to the Bentler-Bonnet NFI and Bentler CFI, values less than the recommended 0.90 level were obtained, and the results of the Joreskog AGFI were also less than the required 0.95, indicating unacceptable fit. However, the RMSEA values were less than the suggested 0.08, demonstrating acceptable fit. Comparing Model 2 to Model 1 using the indices for comparison of multiple models in Table 6.95, it can be deduced that Model 2 has a more satisfactory fit, since the Akaike information criterion (AIC) and Browne-Cudeck criterion (BCC) are lower in Model 2.

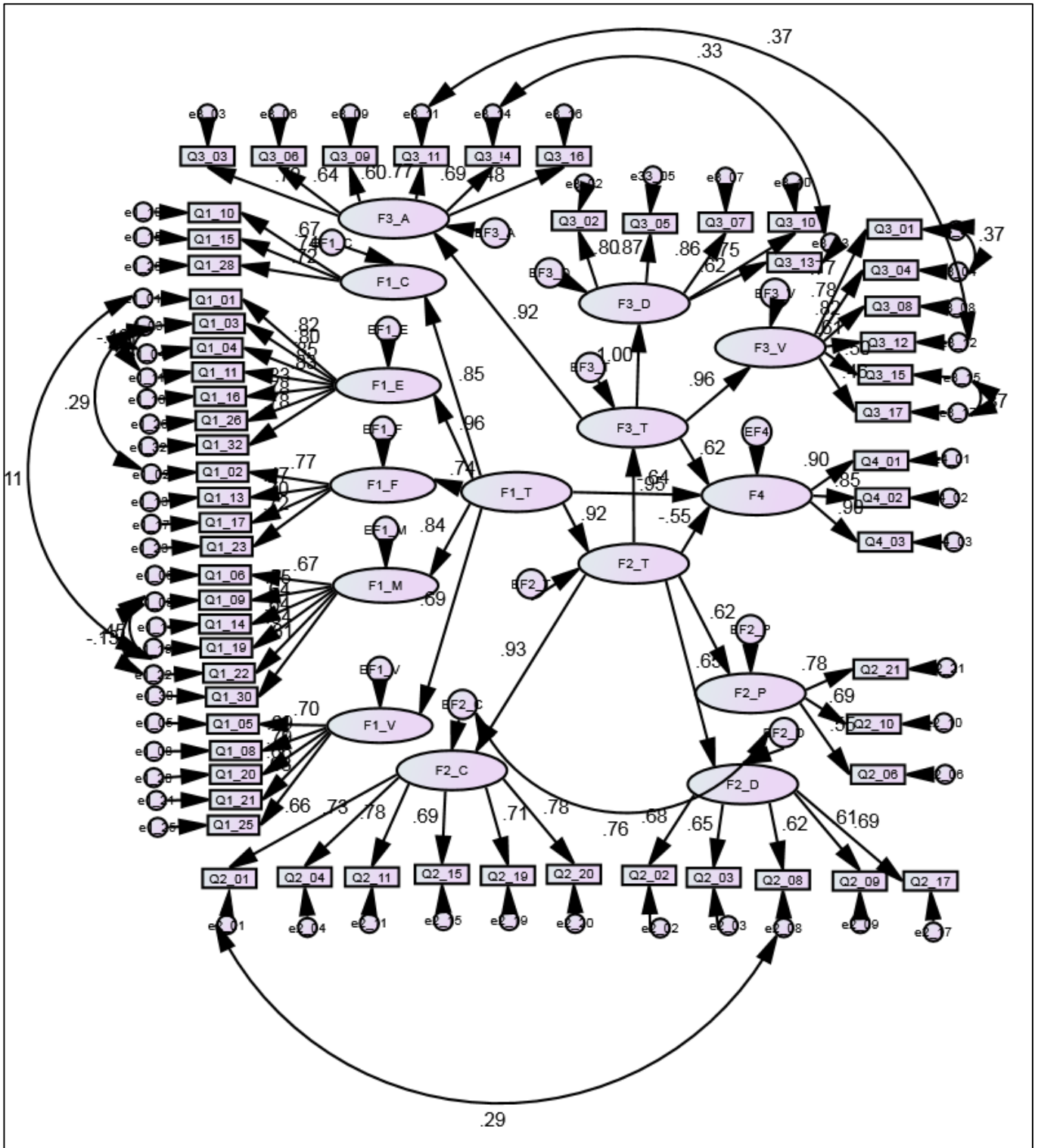


Figure 6.4: Path diagram for Model 2

The proposed theoretical model in Chapter Four implied that work engagement and intrinsic motivation would serve as mediators between intrinsic rewards and intention to quit. A mediator is a factor that accounts for, or explains, the relationship between variables (Woods & West, 2010). According to Baron and

Kenny (1986), three conditions must be met for mediation to be established. Firstly, variations in levels of the independent variable (intrinsic rewards) should significantly account for variations in the presumed mediator(s) (work engagement and intrinsic motivation), known as Path A. Secondly, variations in the mediator(s) (work engagement and intrinsic motivation) should significantly account for variations in the dependent variable (intention to quit), known as Path B. Thirdly, previously significant relations between the independent and dependent variable(s) should no longer be significant when Paths A and B are controlled. This implies that a significant relationship between the independent and dependent variable(s) will be reduced (that is, partially mediated) or will no longer be significant (that is, fully mediated) when the mediator is controlled for (Saks, 2006). Since Hypothesis 1 was removed in Model 2, work engagement cannot be established as a mediator between intrinsic rewards and intention to quit. However, the researcher's statistician (Venter, 2015) confirmed that intrinsic motivation was found in Model 2 to partially mediate the relationship between intrinsic rewards and intention to quit, since Paths A (Hypothesis 2) and B (Hypothesis 5) are practically significant in each case. Additionally, intrinsic motivation was found to partially mediate the relationship between intrinsic rewards and work engagement, since Paths A (Hypothesis 2) and B (Hypothesis 6) are also practically significant.

6.5 Hypothesis testing

Each hypothesis will now be tested, taking the above findings into account.

6.5.1 Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 stated that work engagement is predicted by intrinsic rewards. Figures 6.1 and 6.2 show that the relationship between intrinsic rewards and work engagement is statistically significant, since the standardised regression weighting ($r=0.090$) is above the critical value of 0.081. However, this relationship was omitted from Model 2 as a result of the standardised regression weighting dropping to -0.014 in the revised model. Hypothesis 1 is therefore rejected since the final model excludes this relationship.

6.5.2 Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 stated that intrinsic motivation is predicted by intrinsic rewards. Figures 6.3 and 6.4 indicate that the relationship between intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation is practically significant, since the standardised regression weighting ($r=0.910$) is above the critical value of 0.300. The researcher's statistician (Venter, 2015) confirmed that causality is proven by significant standardised regression weightings, since regression weightings are accepted as indicators of causal relationships. However, he highlighted that SEM correlations on their own are not sufficient as evidence of causality, since they must be accompanied by a strong theoretical argument explaining why variable A (in this case, intrinsic rewards) causes variable B (in this case, intrinsic motivation). The researcher notes that she discussed in Chapter Four, upon presenting the hypotheses for this study, why a theoretical case exists for each proposed causal relationship between the variables under study. Therefore, taking the results both of the SEM testing together with the theory presented in Chapter Four, Hypothesis 2 is accepted.

6.5.3 Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 stated that intention to quit is predicted by intrinsic rewards. Figures 6.3 and 6.4 display that the relationship between intrinsic rewards and intention to quit is practically significant, since the standardised regression weighting ($r=-0.617$) is above the critical value of 0.300. The researcher highlights that this relationship is negative in nature. Based on this result as well as theory presented in Chapter Four, Hypothesis 3 is accepted.

6.5.4 Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 stated that intention to quit is predicted by work engagement. Figures 6.3 and 6.4 show that the relationship between work engagement and intention to quit is practically significant, owing to the standardised regression weighting ($r=0.618$) being above the critical value of 0.300. This relationship is positive in nature. Based on the practically significant SEM results, this hypothesis is accepted.

6.5.5 Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 stated that intention to quit is predicted by intrinsic motivation. Figures 6.3 and 6.4 demonstrate that the relationship between intrinsic motivation and intention to quit is practically significant, because the standardised regression weighting ($r=-0.583$) is above the critical value of 0.300. The researcher draws attention to the fact that this relationship is negative in nature. Based on this regression weighting as well as theory presented in Chapter Four, Hypothesis 5 is accepted.

6.5.6 Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 stated that work engagement is predicted by intrinsic motivation. Figures 6.3 and 6.4 indicate that the relationship between intrinsic motivation and work engagement is practically significant, owing to the standardised regression weighting ($r=0.961$) being above the critical value of 0.300. This hypothesis is therefore accepted based on the SEM results as well as theory presented in Chapter Four.

6.5.7 Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7 stated that differences occur between intrinsic rewards and demographic variables, including *country of work, gender, age, highest level of education achieved, marital status, non-profit category of work* and *job level*. According to Table 6.32, however, no statistically significant difference occurs between the four *countries* under study for intrinsic rewards in total. Table 6.62 suggests that no statistically significant differences exist for intrinsic rewards in total across the demographic variables of *gender, age, country, education* and *marital status* (confirming the findings from Table 6.32 in relation to country differences), but that statistically significant differences do exist across *non-profit category* and *job level*. Table 6.63 clarifies that practically significant differences are evident between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents as well as between Managerial / Supervisory and Administrative / Clerical / Office workers across *job level* for intrinsic rewards in total, with Managerial / Supervisory respondents exhibiting higher levels of intrinsic rewards than the remaining two job levels. Hypothesis 7 is thus only partially accepted, with evidence both in support of, and in conflict with, this hypothesis.

6.5.8 Hypothesis 8

Hypothesis 8 stated that differences occur between intrinsic motivation and the demographic variables mentioned in Hypothesis 7. According to Table 6.39, statistically significant differences exist between the four countries under study for intrinsic motivation in total. Table 6.40 goes on to show that practically significant differences are apparent between Australian and South African; Belgian and South African; Belgian and American; and South African and American respondents for intrinsic motivation in total, with South African respondents exhibiting higher levels of intrinsic motivation than each of the other three countries, and American respondents exhibiting higher levels of intrinsic motivation than Belgian respondents. Table 6.71 implies that no statistically significant differences exist for intrinsic motivation in total across the demographic variables of *gender, age, education, marital status* and *non-profit category*, but that statistically significant differences do occur across *country* and *job level*. Table 6.72 makes it clear that practically significant differences are apparent between Australian and South African, Belgian and South African, Belgian and American as well as South African and American respondents across *country*, with South African respondents exhibiting higher levels of intrinsic motivation than each of the other three countries, and American respondents exhibiting higher levels of intrinsic motivation than Belgian respondents. This confirms the findings from Table 6.40. Moreover, practically significant differences exist between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents across *job level* for intrinsic motivation in total, with Managerial / Supervisory respondents exhibiting higher levels of intrinsic motivation than Professional respondents. As a result, Hypothesis 8 is also partially accepted, with evidence both in support of, and in conflict with, this hypothesis.

6.5.9 Hypothesis 9

Hypothesis 9 stated that differences occur between work engagement and the demographic variables mentioned in Hypothesis 7. According to Table 6.47, statistically significant differences occur between the four countries under study for work engagement in total. Table 6.48 goes on to show that practically significant differences are evident between Australian and South African; Belgian and South African; and South African and American respondents for

work engagement in total, with South African respondents exhibiting higher levels of work engagement than each of the other three countries. Table 6.80 implies that no statistically significant differences are evident for work engagement in total across the demographic variables of *gender*, *education* and *marital status*, but that statistically significant differences do occur across *age*, *country*, *non-profit category* and *job level*. Table 6.81 shows that practically significant differences are apparent between the age groups of 18 to 27 and 38 to 47; 18 to 27 and 48 to 57; 18 to 27 and 58 and above; and 28 to 37 and 48 to 57 years of age, with the older groups of respondents reporting higher levels of work engagement than the younger respondents. In addition, practically significant differences exist between Australian and South African, Belgian and South African, and South African and American respondents across *country*, with South African respondents exhibiting higher levels of work engagement than each of the other three countries. This confirms the findings from Table 6.48. Moreover, practically significant differences exist between Managerial / Supervisory and Professional respondents as well as between Managerial / Supervisory and Administrative / Clerical / Office workers across *job level* for work engagement in total, with Managerial / Supervisory respondents reporting higher levels of work engagement than respondents occupying the other two job levels. Hypothesis 9 is therefore partially accepted, with evidence both in support of, and in conflict with, this hypothesis.

6.5.10 Hypothesis 10

Hypothesis 10 stated that differences occur between intention to quit and the demographic variables mentioned in Hypothesis 7. According to Table 6.49, no statistically significant difference occurs between the four countries under study for intention to quit. Table 6.82 shows no statistically significant differences being evident for intention to quit across the demographic variables of *gender*, *education*, *marital status*, *non-profit category* and *job level*, but that statistically significant differences do occur across *age* and *country* (contradicting the findings from Table 6.49 in relation to country differences). Table 6.83 displays that practically significant differences are only apparent between the age groups of 18 to 27 and 58 and above years of age, with the younger respondents reporting higher levels of intention to quit than the older

respondents. Hypothesis 10 is for this reason only partially accepted, with evidence both in support of, and in conflict with, this hypothesis.

6.5.11 Hypothesis 11

Hypothesis 11 stated that differences occur between level of salary satisfaction and the demographic variables mentioned in Hypothesis 7. According to Table 6.50, no statistically significant difference exists across the four countries under study for salary satisfaction. Table 6.84 displays that no statistically significant differences occur for salary satisfaction across the demographic variables of *age*, *country*, *marital status*, *non-profit category* and *job level* (confirming the findings from Table 6.50 in relation to country differences), but that statistically significant differences do occur across *gender* and *education*. Both Tables 6.85 and 6.86 show that a practically significant difference is evident between male and female respondents, with male respondents being more satisfied with their salaries than female respondents. Additionally, a practically significant difference is apparent between respondents with a Bachelor's degree and those with a postgraduate degree both in Tables 6.85 and 6.87, with the latter being more satisfied with their salaries. Table 6.88 indicates that statistically significant differences occur across the demographic variable of *age* for salary satisfaction, contradicting the finding from Table 6.84. Table 6.89 goes on to show that practically significant differences are evident between respondents from the age groups of 18 to 27 and 58 and above, as well as between respondents from the age groups of 48 to 57 and 58 and above years of age, with older respondents reporting higher levels of salary satisfaction than younger respondents. Table 6.90 indicates that statistically significant differences occur across the demographic variable of *marital status* for salary satisfaction, contradicting the finding from Table 6.84. Table 6.91 displays that practically significant differences are evident between Married and Never Married respondents, with Married respondents being more satisfied with their salaries than respondents who have never been married. The results of Table 6.92 confirm the results of Table 6.84, showing that no statistically significant difference occurs for salary satisfaction across the demographic variables of *non-profit category*. Finally, in Table 6.93 it is evident that a statistically significant difference is apparent across the demographic category of *job level*,

contradicting the finding from Table 6.84. Table 6.94 shows that practically significant differences exist between Managerial / Supervisory respondents and Administrative / Clerical / Office workers, with Managerial / Supervisory respondents being more satisfied with their salaries than Administrative / Clerical / Office workers. Hypothesis 11 is thus partially accepted, with evidence both in support of, and in conflict with, this hypothesis.

6.6 **Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed the results both from the qualitative (Phases 1 and 2) and quantitative (Phase 3) components of this empirical investigation. To summarise the results of the hypothesis testing, it has been shown that Hypotheses 2 through to 6 can be accepted, whereas Hypothesis 1 is rejected. Hypotheses 7 through to 11 are partially accepted. The research question for this study was, *“Do intrinsic rewards play a significant role in increasing the intrinsic motivation and work engagement levels, and reducing the intention to quit levels, of employees working within NPOs in Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA?”* Based on the results provided in this chapter, it can be deduced that intrinsic rewards, while holding a positive and practically significant relationship with intrinsic motivation and work engagement in terms of Pearson’s Product Moment Correlations, do not play a direct role in increasing work engagement levels according to the SEM results. They do, however, cause an increase in intrinsic motivation for the non-profit sample under study, which then leads to an increase in work engagement and a reduction in intention to quit (partial mediation). Intrinsic rewards also directly cause a reduction in non profit employees’ intentions to quit their organisations. Moreover, while a negative, practically significant relationship was found to exist between work engagement and intention to quit by means of Pearson’s Product Moment Correlations, the SEM results instead found that a *positive* causal relationship exists between these variables, implying that increases in work engagement levels will cause non-profit employees to experience higher levels of intention to quit.

The following chapter will discuss the results of this study in more detail, followed by a presentation of the implications of the research for non-profit employees in the countries under study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR NON-PROFIT ORGANISATIONS

7.1 **Introduction**

The preceding chapters have outlined the relevant theory, methodology and results related to this investigation. This chapter will provide a discussion of the empirical results of the study, with a core focus on the findings of Phase 3 due to the fact that these are related to the researcher's hypotheses. Following this, implications gained from these results as well as recommendations for the NPOs under study will be provided.

7.2 **Discussion of results**

This study's results will be unpacked in more detail in the following subsections, beginning with the SEM results being discussed in relation to the first six hypotheses. Thereafter, a discussion pertaining to the correlations obtained in this study will be provided, followed by an elaboration on the demographic differences for each construct relating to hypotheses seven to eleven. Finally, a summary of the validation of the IWRS and IWMS will be delivered.

7.2.1 **SEM results**

Hypothesis 1 was rejected as a result of the final SEM findings from Phase 3 of this study, indicating that experiencing intrinsic rewards will not lead to work engagement. This is despite evidence from Phase 1 indicating that enjoyable work causes higher levels of absorption and dedication, and that both challenging work and varied work lead to improved levels of vigour. This finding is also in contrast with the results of empirical studies that found that intrinsic rewards lead to higher levels of work engagement, such as Buys and Rothmann (2010), who discovered that work engagement amongst ministers was predicted by job significance, a component of the IWRS factor of meaningful

work, and by growth opportunities, a part of the IWRS factor of challenging work. Rothmann and Rothmann Jr (2010) also found work engagement to be strongly related to a number of job resources, including growth opportunities such as variety, learning opportunities and autonomy. From a theoretical perspective, Thomas (2009b) stated that intrinsic rewards are the reinforcements that keep employees actively engaged in their work; Nel et al. (2011) noted that employees cannot engage in their work if they operate in an environment that offers little autonomy or personal responsibility; Armstrong and Brown (2009) highlighted that the opportunity to grow and develop directly impacts on levels of engagement; and Woods and West (2010) mentioned that engagement is driven by work that is meaningful and important. In an attempt to shed light on why the present study's results might not confirm results from previous studies, Smith et al. (2006) note that results from previous studies are not necessarily replicable even within the same country of study, due to the fact that there are numerous ways by which samples with different compositions may vary from study to study. It should, however, be considered that in the first model tested by SEM (see Figures 6.1 and 6.2), a significant and direct relationship between intrinsic rewards and work engagement was in fact found, but upon the overall model being revised to improve its fit, this relationship lost its statistical significance. As a result, it was omitted from the final model. Moreover, intrinsic motivation was discovered to partially mediate the relationship between intrinsic rewards and work engagement, implying that an indirect relationship between these two constructs does exist. Thus, the researcher suggests that further research be conducted in order to confirm whether intrinsic rewards do predict higher levels of work engagement within the non-profit sector.

The present study provided evidence for respondents experiencing a higher level of intrinsic motivation as a result of receiving intrinsic rewards at work (Hypothesis 2). Similar results have been empirically tested by De Cooman et al. (2011), who found that employees were motivated by fun and interesting work; that is, work that is enjoyable in nature; by Nujjoo and Meyer (2012), who

revealed that intrinsic motivation is predicted by satisfaction with one's intrinsic non-monetary rewards; and by Janssen et al. (1999), who discovered that intrinsic work motivation is determined by work content variables, including elements of one's job that make the work itself worthwhile and challenging such as autonomy, opportunities to learn and skill variety. Additionally, it has been discussed by Pinder (2008) that intrinsic rewards satisfy individuals' levels of intrinsic motivation, and that intrinsic motivation is stimulated by opportunities to master situations, such as through performing challenging work. Moreover, French (2010, p. 214) predicted that "enriched work will come to be seen as a motivator in developing societies in the future if and when they move into post-industrial mode with an associated critical mass of knowledge workers and associated jobs". This suggests that the non-profit sample under study experiences higher levels of intrinsic motivation as a direct result of their work being enriched; that is, work that is designed to be meaningful, challenging and enjoyable to them, as well as being both flexible and varied in nature.

The results of Phase 1 found that employees' intentions to quit would decrease if non-profit employees experienced their work to be meaningful, flexible, challenging and enjoyable (Hypothesis 3). This was confirmed through Phase 3's SEM results, which proved a causal, negative link between intrinsic rewards and intention to quit. This result has also been proved empirically in previous studies, with Muteswa and Ortlepp (2011) finding that intrinsic rewards such as a lack of challenging work and freedom to act on the job influenced managers' intentions to quit their organisations, and Preenen et al. (2011) revealing that providing challenging assignments led to diminished turnover intentions. Theoretically, this finding is confirmed by Greenberg and Baron (2003), who discussed that providing employees with interesting work as well as responsibility and control over their work will cause them to remain with their organisations, and by Grobler et al. (2011), who mentioned that when employees favourably react to their work (that is, when they find it intrinsically rewarding), then less turnover occurs as a result.

The researcher deems the most unusual SEM result to be that of Hypothesis 4, since work engagement was found to cause an *increase* in respondents' levels of intention to quit, as opposed to decreasing their intentions to leave their organisations. A similar unusual finding was reported in Opie et al. (2010), who discovered that nurses working in Australia experienced high levels of work engagement yet demonstrated high levels of turnover. These authors did not investigate this in terms of a causal relationship though. The present researcher suggests that this finding may occur because of employees feeling vigorous and energetic, since such employees may desire to put their energies to use in a different environment in an attempt to make a difference elsewhere. That is, their experienced feelings of absorption, dedication and energy might be the very feelings that encourage them to make a move in an alternate direction and put their energies to use in a new challenging environment in a different organisation. However, it seems more probable that since work engagement stems from specific job-related resources such as participation in decision-making, task variety, task significance, performance feedback and supervisory support (see the antecedents of work engagement discussed in Section 3.2.2.1), it is more likely that engagement in one's work is a direct result of the working environment that one experiences in his or her organisation, which should discourage him or her from wanting to leave such an engaging environment. This was indeed discovered by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), Du Plooy and Roodt (2010) and Robyn and Du Preez (2013), who all found that work engagement significantly and *negatively* predicted turnover intentions, indicating that employees who are engaged in their work experienced reduced intentions to quit. For this reason, further research is required to uncover the reasons behind non-profit employees in the four countries under study demonstrating an intention to leave their organisations as a result of being engaged with their work.

It was found in Phase 1 that being personally connected to one's work would cause lower levels of intention to quit (Hypothesis 5). This was confirmed in the SEM results, with intrinsic motivation leading to a decrease in respondents'

intentions to quit their organisations (that is, a negative causal link exists between these constructs). This is supported theoretically by Balta (2014), who noted that motivation can be used by organisations to retain their employees. The researcher draws attention to the fact that intrinsic motivation is understood in the present study as employees engaging in activities because they want to, since such activities will lead to positive feelings and internal satisfaction (see Deci, 1972; Nel, 2014). As a result, the present researcher highlights that it is reasonable to expect that NPO employees who are personally connected to their work and who demonstrate a personal desire to perform and make a positive impact through their work would not show a preference for leaving their NPOs in search of better opportunities in a new organisation, whether in the non-profit, private or public sector. Leaving an organisation in which they are already personally making a contribution would be risky, since there would be no guarantee that they would experience a similar strong connection to the work that they would perform in a new, different organisation. This might especially be the case if such employees feel that they are called to work within the non-profit sector or their specific NPO, since it was mentioned in Phase 1 that NPO employees might feel personally called, oftentimes assumed to be by God, to work in their current NPO. If that is the case, it is possible that such employees would be hesitant to go against the call of God by moving to a different organisation. This provides an initial understanding for the linkage between intrinsic motivation and intention to quit.

The intrinsic motivation dimension of personally desiring to make a difference was found in Phase 1 to lead to increased vigour at work (Hypothesis 6). This hypothesis was confirmed in Phase 3 of this study by means of SEM, with intrinsic motivation predicting an increase in respondents' levels of work engagement. Theoretically, a number of authors have put forward this notion, such as Armstrong and Brown (2009), who discussed that engagement occurs when employees are intrinsically motivated to perform, and Woods and West (2010), who noted that engagement is derived from intrinsic motivation to work. The present researcher notes that this result makes practical sense, because

when NPO employees feel like they are making a meaningful difference through the work that they perform and when they experience an emotional and oftentimes deeply personal connection to the work that they do, then they will likely be led to be dedicated to and engrossed in such work, finding themselves focusing wholeheartedly on performing to the best of their abilities. Moreover, they are likely to gain pleasure from working, which causes a positive cycle of emotions whereby their desire to perform leads to them feeling vitalised by the very work that they are putting energy into.

7.2.2 Correlation results

All five intrinsic rewards factors were found in Phase 3 to correlate positively with intrinsic motivation and its dimensions, in most cases in a practically significant manner. This was predicted by the results of Phase 1, in which participants made continuous references in their interviews to work-related factors that intrinsically motivated them. These correlation results importantly confirm certain aspects of the theories presented at the beginning of Chapter Two. Firstly, CET (Deci, 1972) suggests that events producing feelings of competence can enhance intrinsic motivation if accompanied by a sense of autonomy and self-determination, and SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000) proposes that when one's psychological need for autonomy is satisfied, then intrinsic motivation is enhanced. The researcher notes that this implies that performing work that is flexible in nature should lead to increased levels of intrinsic motivation. This was confirmed in the correlation results from Phase 3, with flexible work holding a positive, statistically significant relationship with intrinsic motivation. In addition, Herzberg's (1966, 1968) Two-Factor Theory suggests that intrinsic rewards such as challenging, varied and interesting work can improve motivation, and the JCM (Hackman & Oldham, 1980) proposes that a number of intrinsic rewards, including task identity and significance (meaningful work) and autonomy (flexible work) will result in higher levels of intrinsic work motivation and lower levels of intention to quit. Meaningful, flexible, challenging, varied and enjoyable work were indeed found to significantly and positively

related to intrinsic motivation in the present study, therefore confirming the validity of these theories.

The fact that meaningful work in Phase 3 was found to hold a positive and practically significant relationship with the intrinsic motivation dimensions of personal connection to one's work and personal desire to make a difference confirmed the results of Phase 1, in which participants referred to being motivated by empowering others; giving hope to others; playing a vital role at work; seeing the difference that their work makes; uplifting others; sharing their knowledge; working towards the greater good; desiring to assist others and meet their needs; and seeing growth in others. Participants also mentioned that they were rewarded by meaningful work that made them "feel good" inside, which ensured that they were emotionally connected to their work. Indeed, Potgieter and Botha (2014) stated that meaning in one's work is experienced best when an individual is connected and committed to a cause greater than him or herself (that is, when individuals have a personal connection to their work), justifying that being personally connected to one's work will enhance the meaning that an individual gains from it.

Challenging work was discovered in Phase 3 to correlate positively in a practically significant manner to the intrinsic motivation dimension of personal desire to perform, which was confirmed in Phase 1 through participants noting that they are motivated by meeting their personal goals and experiencing a sense of accomplishment or success at work. The researcher notes that it is sensible that when employees are tested by their work tasks, their desires to perform and overcome such challenges will be heightened, and they will desire to put effort into rising above such obstacles.

Despite the fact that a causal relationship between intrinsic rewards and work engagement was not found by means of SEM testing, a positive non-causal correlation was nonetheless discovered between these two constructs, which confirms the findings of Jacobs et al. (2014) who discovered that a positive and

practically significant relationship existed between these constructs. Moreover, two of the subscales used to measure intrinsic rewards in their study, namely *meaningfulness* and *choice*, are similar in nature to the researcher's intrinsic rewards subscales of *meaningful work* and *flexible work*. *Meaningfulness* as well as *meaningful work*, and both *choice* and *flexible work*, were found in Jacobs et al.'s (2014) study and the present study to hold a positive and practically significant relationship with all three dimensions of work engagement. In particular, dedication and meaningfulness held the strongest correlation in Jacobs et al.'s (2014) study, and out of the three work engagement factors measured in the present study, dedication held the strongest correlation with meaningful work as well. This indicates that both studies, one using a global non-profit sample and the other using a South African retail sample, support the notion that increasing levels of meaning and flexibility in one's work will enhance how absorbed, dedicated and vigorous one is at work. In addition to these findings, similar results have been revealed by other authors. For example, May et al. (2004) discovered a positive, significant relationship between engagement and psychological meaningfulness, and Dollard and Bakker (2010) found that decision-making authority (similar to the IWRS factor of flexible work) was positively associated with changes in work engagement when measured over time. Moreover, Van Den Broeck et al. (2008) discovered that satisfying the basic psychological needs of employees (including their experience of psychological freedom and autonomy) partially explained the relationship between job resources and vigour, a dimension of work engagement. This suggests that flexible work has a role to play in improving levels of vigour, which the present study confirmed by finding a positive, practically significant correlation between flexible work and vigour. In addition, Buys and Rothmann (2010) reported a positive, practically significant relationship between work engagement and job significance (a component of meaningful work), growth opportunities (a part of challenging work) and autonomy (an element of flexible work), further confirming the results of the present study.

All intrinsic motivation factors were found in Phase 3 to hold a positive, practically significant relationship with all work engagement factors. This was partly predicted in the results of Phase 1, when participants indicated that they held a personal desire to perform by means of being engrossed in, involved with, and focused on their work. As the researcher discussed in the aforementioned SEM discussion, it makes sense that when employees experience a personal and emotional connection to their work, and desire to contribute in a meaningful and impactful way through their work, that they will be more likely to experience a stronger level of dedication to, and absorption in, their work. They can also be expected to gain energy from their work and exert such vigour in their daily work lives, which might serve to further connect them to their work and motivate them to continue performing to the best of their abilities.

This study's results provide evidence for levels of intention to quit being reduced when intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and salary satisfaction levels rise. In support of these findings, the researcher highlights the following empirical and theoretical findings from previous authors:

- Van Den Broeck et al. (2010) discovered that being satisfied with levels of autonomy at work (part of the intrinsic rewards factor of flexible work) leads to decreases in intentions to quit, and Muteswa and Orllepp (2011) found that both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards influenced turnover intentions. Coffman (2002) mentions meaningful, flexible, varied and enjoyable work as assets that are of value to non-profit employees and assist in retaining them. The present researcher highlights that when an employee enjoys the work that he or she performs, and experiences a reward from such work being challenging, meaningful, flexible and varied, then it is sensible that he or she would be less likely to demonstrate a desire to exit his or her job in search of opportunities elsewhere.
- With regards to intrinsic motivation, Cho and Perry (2012) found that such motivation is correlated with lower turnover intentions, and Mobley et al. (1979) revealed intrinsic motivation to be significantly and negatively related to

turnover. Theoretically, French (2010) highlighted that motivation is correlated to turnover levels regardless of the cultural context in which an organisation is situated. The researcher is of the opinion that when an employee experiences an emotional bond with his or her work and desires to contribute in a meaningful way by performing such work, then he or she will be less likely to psychologically detach in preparation of exiting his or her organisation.

- Du Plooy and Roodt (2010), Park and Gursoy (2012), Robyn and Du Preez (2013), Bothma and Roodt (2013) as well as Shacklock et al. (2014) all confirm the present study's finding that work engagement is negatively related to turnover intentions, with Du Plooy and Roodt (2010) noting that this relationship is partially mediated by burnout, and Park and Gursoy (2012) noting that this relationship is significantly moderated by generational differences. Since work engagement entails employees focusing wholeheartedly on their tasks in an intense and concentrated manner, this assumes that they would be enjoying their work and would be psychologically attached to their daily activities, implying that they would not strongly desire to leave their positions or their organisations.
- The fact that higher levels of salary satisfaction correlate with lower levels of intention to quit was predicted by the results of Phase 1 in the present study, with a number of participants making mention of rewards or money as factors influencing whether they intended to remain with their organisations. In empirical support of this finding, De Gieter et al. (2008) found that being satisfied with pay predicted turnover intentions; Peters et al. (2002) discovered that dissatisfaction with salaries resulted in the turnover of NPO employees; and Hayden and Madsen (2008) revealed that income correlated significantly with employees' intentions to stay at their organisations, implying that increasing salaries will directly impact on their desires to resign. In addition, Treuren and Frankish (2014b) revealed that when employees understand their pay arrangements, they become more satisfied with their pay, which then impacts on their intentions to leave their organisations. Treuren and Frankish (2014a) moreover discovered that when employees are dissatisfied with their pay, their intentions to quit can be decreased if they experience an attachment

that comes from interacting with their clients. These studies confirm that the actual amount paid to employees is not necessarily of importance in predicting retention (bearing in mind that the actual pay provided to NPO respondents was not investigated in the present study). Rather, what has been shown to affect whether employees plan to leave their organisations is whether they are *satisfied* with the amount paid to them. Such satisfaction is subjective: the amount or type of pay that satisfies one employee might not satisfy another. The researcher notes that it is therefore of critical importance for NPOs to strive to enhance employees' levels of salary satisfaction in an attempt to retain them.

Phase 3 of this study additionally provided evidence that respondents' levels of salary satisfaction hold a positive, statistically significant relationship with intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation and work engagement. This suggests that non-profit employees who are content with their level of pay will experience their work to be more meaningful, flexible, challenging, varied and enjoyable. They will moreover be personally connected with their work, and will be more dedicated to, and engrossed in, their work. The fact that salary satisfaction enhances employees' perceptions of their work being intrinsically rewarding and engaging could be because when employees approve of their salaries, they are more likely to put effort into their work and be focused entirely on it (engagement) as well as enjoy their work and perceive it to be more meaningful and challenging (intrinsic rewards). The researcher highlights that the results of Phase 1 support salary satisfaction correlating with higher levels of intrinsic motivation; for example, one participant drew attention to the fact that she was demotivated as a result of being inadequately compensated. This finding has been confirmed through similar results by Stringer et al. (2011), who revealed that intrinsic motivation correlates positively with pay satisfaction, and by Nujjoo and Meyer (2012), who found that intrinsic motivation increased when employees reported being satisfied with their extrinsic monetary rewards. Such intrinsic motivation / salary satisfaction results are of particular interest to the present researcher, since 'salary' can be classified as an extrinsic, financial reward. Such rewards are discussed in CET (Deci, 1972) to decrease rather

than increase levels of intrinsic motivation. Along a similar line, Herzberg's (1966, 1968) Two-Factor Theory also predicts that salary (a hygiene factor) will not cause increases in motivation. Therefore, support for these theories is interestingly not provided by this study's salary satisfaction results, which clearly indicate that being satisfied with one's salary enhances employees' levels of intrinsic motivation.

The researcher notes that the salary satisfaction correlations found in this study might also be interpreted in the reverse manner: that is, when NPO employees experience their work to be engaging, intrinsically rewarding and intrinsically motivating, then they are more likely to experience higher levels of salary satisfaction. The researcher proposes that this might be the case due to one's work intrinsically compensating for the level of one's salary. That is, employees might be more likely to report that they approve of their salaries when they particularly enjoy their work or are motivated and engaged by it. Further research is required in this regard, however, since more insight is needed to elaborate on such a finding.

7.2.3 Intrinsic reward demographic differences

Hypothesis 7 was partially accepted in this study, since statistically significant differences were found to exist across the demographic variables of *non-profit category* and *job level* for intrinsic rewards. No statistically significant differences were found across *gender*, *age*, *country*, *education* and *marital status*. In particular, practically significant differences were evident across *job level* for intrinsic rewards, with managerial and supervisory respondents experiencing higher levels of intrinsic rewards than both professional respondents and administrative, clerical and office workers. This result is confirmed by Hofstede et al. (2010), who highlighted that individuals in occupations that demand higher levels of education (such as managers and supervisors) tend to be motivated more strongly by intrinsic elements of their work, while individuals occupying lower-status or lower-education occupations seem to find extrinsic aspects of their work more motivating. While this study

did not investigate extrinsic rewards and thus cannot provide evidence for administrative, clerical and office workers being motivated more strongly by extrinsic rewards, it is nonetheless valuable to observe that non-profit employees occupying higher-status positions find their work to be more intrinsically rewarding than those occupying lower-status positions, possibly because the nature of their work is more stimulating as a result of greater levels of responsibility, challenge and non-routine tasks. Higher-status work may also be more flexible in nature owing to greater levels of decision-making authority.

While the present study found no differences for intrinsic rewards or its factors across the demographic category of *education*, Macnab (2014) did find that level of education held statistically significant differences with the IWRS in total and all its factors, thus not supporting the findings of the present study. With regards to gender, the results of Konrad and Langton (1991, in Pinder, 2008) do not support the lack of gender differences found in the present study for intrinsic rewards, since they discovered that women deem a number of work-related outcomes to be more important than men, including intrinsic job aspects such as the intrinsic rewards researched in the present study.

Certain demographic differences across the five factors of the IWRS were discovered. With regards to *country* differences for intrinsic rewards factors, this study found that South African respondents experienced significantly higher levels of meaningful work than Australian, Belgian or American respondents, and more challenging work compared to Australian and Belgian respondents. Americans deemed their work to be more meaningful than Belgian respondents. The researcher is of the opinion that SA respondents might experience their work to be more meaningful owing to the nature of their work within this developing country, perhaps because of the strides that need to be made in SA with regards to poverty alleviation, child welfare, health care and education. The growth and progress that need to be made to elevate SA to the standard of developed countries such as Australia and the USA might cause

respondents from this country to perceive their work to hold greater potential for them to significantly influence communities and society at large.

Interestingly, it was predicted in Chapter One that Australian and American respondents might experience higher levels of flexible work owing to their low *power distance* scores; higher levels of challenging work because of their *masculinity* scores; and higher levels of enjoyable work as a result of their high *indulgence* scores. On the other hand, Belgian respondents were predicted to experience lower levels of flexible work because they scored highly on both *power distance* and *uncertainty avoidance*. South African respondents were predicted to demonstrate high scores of challenging work (as a result of their high *masculinity* score) and enjoyable work (owing to their high *indulgence* score). However, based on the results noted above, Hofstede et al.'s (2010) scores were only useful in predicting the higher level of challenging work experienced by South African respondents. This implies that no significant country differences exist for the intrinsic rewards factor of flexible work, which taken together with the positive and very positive scores obtained for this factor across the four countries under study, suggests that non-profit employees in Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA are similarly empowered to make their own decisions at work and organise their own schedules. The fact that no significant differences were found for enjoyable work is in agreement with Luthans (2005), who noted that an employee's desire for interesting work is universal in motivating him or her no matter in what country he or she works.

Regarding *age*, older respondents in the present study found their work to be more meaningful than younger respondents. While the ANOVA results of Jacobs et al. (2014) also reported statistically significant age differences across the intrinsic rewards subscale of *meaningfulness*, their post-hoc testing was unable to detect specific pairwise differences, thus being unable to provide specific support for the present study's findings. This finding goes against Macnab's (2014) results, since she discovered no statistically significant differences across *age* for the IWRS factor of meaningful work. This author did,

however, find that younger respondents in her quantity surveyor sample deemed their work to be more challenging and enjoyable, and reported that they experienced significantly higher levels of intrinsic rewards overall, which was not confirmed in the present study. The present researcher suggests that older respondents finding their work more meaningful may be owing to their philosophical outlook on life changing as they age, since individuals may begin to perceive that they hold a greater scope for making the world a better place as they age and find it more important to leave a mark on the world before they retire. A different explanation for this finding could be that older employees might have more seniority and/or tenure at work, thus experiencing greater scope to see the end results of their work and the bigger picture into which their work fits. Interestingly, Pinder (2008) notes that most individuals like and dislike the same aspects of work regardless of their age or generational identity, such as preferring self-determination and autonomy in their work, detesting micro-management, and insisting on jobs that are meaningful. This provides support for the lack of age differences across flexible work in the present study, but does not provide support for the fact that age groups experienced differing levels of meaningful work.

Concerning *non-profit category*, employees working in the Welfare and Humanitarian field responded that they experience work that is more enjoyable than those in the Health Care field. It is difficult to predict why this might be the case, since participants in Phase 1 who worked within the health care field made mention of their passion and love for this sector, thus not suggesting that their work does not feed their soul and personally satisfy them. More research is required in order to establish the reasons for welfare and humanitarian NPO employees finding their work to be more interesting and stimulating than those from a differing NPO field.

Across *job level*, managerial and supervisory respondents reported experiencing higher levels of meaningful, flexible, challenging and varied work than professional respondents as well as administrative, clerical and office

workers, and more enjoyable work compared to administrative, clerical and office workers. Professional respondents reported experiencing more challenging work than administrative, clerical and office workers. This suggests that non-profit employees who occupy higher-level positions are expected to perform tasks that stimulate them mentally; are non-routine in nature; are diverse; fulfil their passions; provide opportunities for decision-making and autonomy; and contribute towards their organisation's greater purpose. Since employees in managerial and supervisory positions are in a position of authority over subordinates, and since they are more likely to influence strategic decisions and have their voices heard at a higher level in the organisation, they might feel as though their work makes more of a positive difference in the lives of others (that is, explaining why they perceive their work to be more meaningful). The results of Jacobs et al. (2014) do not support these results, since their study found that no occupational group differences existed across their intrinsic reward subscales of *meaningfulness* (meaningful work) and *choice* (flexible work).

No significant gender differences were discovered across any of the intrinsic rewards factors. With regards to meaningful work in terms of gender, Nilsson (2015) proposed that when the content of engineering work is perceived to be meaningful to society at large (that is, when projects strive to achieve societal good and have an explicit social mission and context), then women are drawn to them despite engineering being a male-dominated field. This suggests that the key to increasing the number of female engineers may revolve around what they perceive the goals of their projects to be (Nilsson, 2015). To correlate this to the present study, it is striking to observe that 70 per cent of the respondents who partook in Phase 3 were female, and this was consistent across the four countries studied. This suggests that, like Nilsson's (2015) observations in the engineering sector, females are drawn to jobs that are perceived to be meaningful and full of purpose, which jobs in the non-profit sector tend to be. Along the same line, Milkovich et al. (2011) state that men are much less likely than women to work in the non-profit sector, since this sector generally pays

less than the for-profit sector. Despite this, no gender differences were observed across the intrinsic reward factor of meaningful work, suggesting that once working in the non-profit sector, both male and female employees deem their work to have positive consequences for society, and perceive that they are making a difference in some way in the lives of others.

7.2.4 Intrinsic motivation demographic differences

Hypothesis 8 was partially accepted in this study, with statistically significant differences occurring across the demographic variables of *country* and *job level* for intrinsic motivation. No significant differences were found across *gender*, *age*, *education*, *non-profit category* and *marital status*. Notably, practically significant differences were evident across the demographic category of *country*, with South African respondents being more intrinsically motivated than the other three countries, and Americans being more intrinsically motivated than Belgian respondents. This suggests that non-profit respondents from SA are motivated more strongly from within themselves; that is, they exhibit a stronger personal desire to work, compared to respondents from the other three countries under study. In Chapter One, the researcher drew attention to the fact that Australian, Belgian, South African and American respondents might score strongly on intrinsic motivation since they all have high *individualism* scores. The fact that South African and American respondents obtained higher mean values for intrinsic motivation might imply that they are more individualistic than respondents from Australia and Belgium, although more research would be required to conclude as such. As discussed by Steers and Sanchez-Runde (2002, in French 2010), sources of motivation are affected by national culture in terms of individuals' personal needs, beliefs and values; societal norms such as achievements and work ethics; and environmental factors including education, legal systems and levels of prosperity. These aspects might have influenced the inter-country motivation differences observed in the present study.

South African respondents were specifically found to be more personally connected to their work and held both a stronger personal desire to make a difference and a stronger personal desire to perform, compared to respondents from the other three countries under study. American respondents indicated that they have a stronger personal desire to make a difference and a personal desire to perform compared to respondents from Belgium. Australian respondents demonstrated a stronger personal desire to perform compared to respondents from Belgium. The high *masculinity* scores for Australia, SA and the USA according to Hofstede et al. (2010) were suggested in Chapter One to influence respondents from these countries to be more motivated by a personal desire to perform. This was confirmed by the results of the present study, with Australian, South African and American respondents reporting stronger personal desires to perform than Belgian respondents. To a certain extent, this goes against Luthans (2005) who noted that a need for achievement is pervasive in motivating employees across all countries. Yet, on the other hand, this same author highlighted that North Americans attempt to get as much done in as short a time frame as possible; respond to goals that assist them in improving their performance levels; and believe that ensuring their own success is the best manner of helping others. Luthans (2005) went on to discuss that North Americans exhibit a high need for achievement because their culture willingly accepts moderate degrees of risk, and has a strong concern for performance. However, the results of the present study suggest that non-profit employees from Australia and SA and not just the USA exhibit similar cultural traits in terms of personally desiring to perform at work.

Practically significant differences were found across the demographic variable of *job level* for intrinsic motivation, with managerial and supervisory respondents experiencing higher levels of intrinsic motivation than professional respondents. The researcher suggests that non-profit employees occupying managerial and supervisory jobs will be more likely to demonstrate higher levels of discretion, decision-making, problem-solving, responsibility and authority, as well as make use of their multi-layered and specialised skill-sets that are based

on the accumulation of knowledge gained over the course of many years of experience. This could imply that higher-level employees feel a deeper connection to their work and desire to meet the goals for which their jobs exist, since they desire to put their skills to use in the best way possible as a result of knowing that their input makes a difference at work. Additionally, with specific reference to the three dimensions of intrinsic motivation, the present study found that managerial and supervisory respondents reported being more personally connected to their work than both professional respondents and administrative, clerical and office workers. They also possess a stronger personal desire to make a difference and a personal desire to perform compared to professional respondents. This finding is not supported by the results of Hooper (2014), who indicated that no statistically significant differences existed across *job level* for the IWMS factors of personal connection to one's work and personal desire to perform.

Hooper (2014) did, however, discover statistically significant *education* differences for the IWMS factor of personal desire to perform, which was not found in the present study. In line with the present study, however, her research did not support differences across the demographic variable of *age* for the IWMS factors of personal connection with one's work and personal desire to perform. In addition, the fact that no *gender* differences were present across intrinsic motivation in the present study goes against the findings of Konrad and Langton (1991, in Pinder, 2008), who observed that women find a number of work-related outcomes as more important than men, including helping others (that is, having a personal desire to make a difference) and achievement (that is, possessing a personal desire to perform).

7.2.5 Work engagement demographic differences

Hypothesis 9 was partially accepted in this study, owing to statistically significant differences existing across the demographic variables of *country*, *age*, *non-profit category* and *job level* for work engagement. No statistically significant differences were found across *gender*, *education* and *marital status*.

Specifically, practically significant differences were evident across the demographic variable of *country*, with South African respondents being more engaged in their work than the other three countries. They were also found to be more absorbed in and dedicated to their work specifically, as well as more vigorous at work, than respondents from Australia, Belgium and the USA. Furthermore, Australian respondents were discovered to be more absorbed in their work than respondents from Belgium. The researcher could not determine whether any of Hofstede et al.'s (2010) findings correlated with work engagement, making it difficult to predict the underlying reasons behind South African non-profit employees displaying higher levels of work engagement compared to employees from three developed countries. In a South African study, Harris (2012) did find that her automotive dealership sample displayed high levels of resilience, indicating that employees exhibited the ability to rebound from adversity, uncertainty, failure, conflict or change (Luthans, 2002), which is also an aspect of being vigorous at work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Harris (2012) further revealed that resilience predicted variance in work engagement, implying that resilience contributes to employees being more absorbed in and captivated by their work. Thus, the researcher proposes that there may be underlying causes for South Africans exhibiting higher levels of work engagement, which requires further investigation in future studies. Such causes may be due to the fact that SA has a deeper level of suffering and poverty compared to the other three countries studied, which affects the values held by individuals working in this country, such as the need to offer assistance to others when needed. When employed by an NPO, South African employees may therefore be more likely to be engaged in their work.

Practically significant differences occurred across *age* for work engagement, with older respondents being more engaged in their work than their younger counterparts. The results of both Poulsen et al. (2011) and Smit (2014) confirm this finding, with both these authors discovering that older respondents experienced higher levels of work engagement compared to younger respondents. Additionally, Sibson Consulting (2010) found in their 2009 ROW

study that millennials were the least engaged compared to other age groups, with employees nearing retirement being the most highly engaged at work. These results indicate that as employees age, they demonstrate a greater willingness to invest more effort into their work; become less fatigued by their work; feel more enthusiastic and proud to be associated with the work that they are performing; display more stamina when working; feel more inspired by their work; and have greater difficulties detaching themselves from their work (see Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The present researcher notes that this may be owing to different generations having different values, such as older individuals perhaps demonstrating a stronger work ethic compared to younger individuals. Older respondents in the present study also specifically reported being more absorbed in, and vigorous through, their work than younger respondents. This is supported by the findings of Smit (2014), who found that older respondents were more absorbed in their work than younger respondents, and both Jacobs et al. (2014) and Park and Gursoy (2012), who discovered that older respondents in their samples displayed significantly higher levels of both absorption and vigour at work. Both Jacobs et al. (2014) and Park and Gursoy (2012), however, also revealed a significant difference between dedication and age, which was not noted in the present study.

Practically significant differences were established across *job level* for work engagement in the present study, with respondents in managerial and supervisory positions demonstrating higher levels of work engagement than those in professional or administrative, clerical or office work positions. For *job level* across the three dimensions of work engagement, it was moreover discovered that managerial and supervisory respondents are more absorbed in, and dedicated to, their work than respondents in professional or administrative, clerical or office positions, and are also more vigorous at work. This suggests that as NPO employees move up the ranks of their organisational hierarchies, they begin to display more prominent levels of resilience; derive more significance from their jobs; are more proud to be associated with their positions; immerse themselves in their work; find that time flies when they are

working; and also feel more energised by their work (see Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Such feelings are understandable, seeing that such employees would have greater levels of responsibility and authority at work, implying that their workloads are more heavily weighted. This might result in them working longer hours, as well as being more committed to putting their all in while working.

The present study confirmed the results of Jacobs et al. (2014) in terms of *gender* differences across the three work engagement dimensions, with neither their study nor the present study finding evidence for differences in absorption, dedication or vigour occurring across gender groups. Poulsen et al. (2011) also supported the present study by finding a lack of significant differences across both *gender* and *education* for work engagement. However, Poulsen et al. (2011) did discover *marital status* differences for work engagement with single respondents scoring lowest on work engagement, which is a finding not supported by the present study.

7.2.6 Intention to quit demographic differences

Hypothesis 10 was partially accepted in this study, with statistically significant differences occurring across the demographic variables of *age* and *country* for intention to quit. However, no statistically significant differences were found for *gender*, *education*, *marital status*, *non-profit category* and *job level*. In partial support of these results, Munyaka (2012) discovered no *education*, *marital status* or *gender* differences across intention to quit in her South African study. However, a number of authors received results that contradict those of the present study. For example, Derycke et al. (2010) found no differences across the demographic variable of *age*, but did discover statistically significant turnover intention differences across *gender* and *education*, with male respondents and those with higher levels of education showing the greatest turnover intentions. These results do not support those of the present study. In addition, Cho and Perry's (2012) findings also do not support those of the present study, since they discovered that significant differences occur across *job level* for turnover intentions, with employees at the level of supervisor being

more likely to leave their organisation. Moreover, Boshoff et al. (2002) found statistically significant differences across *gender*, *education level* as well as *marital status* for intention to quit, with male respondents, married respondents and those with lower levels of education demonstrating higher intentions to quit their organisations. Such findings are not supported by the present study. It is therefore apparent that there is no consensus across previous and present studies with regards to demographic variables influencing employees' intentions to quit their organisations.

The only practically significant intention to quit difference occurring for the present study was across *age*, with 18 to 27 year old respondents reporting stronger intentions to quit their NPOs compared to respondents over the age of 58. Similar results were presented by Rothrauff et al. (2011), who found that occupational turnover intentions were negatively predicted by age, with older employees indicating lower intentions to leave their organisations; by De Gieter et al. (2011), who discovered that stronger turnover intentions were experienced by younger employees; by Park and Gursoy (2012), who indicated that younger employees held significantly higher levels of turnover intentions compared to older generations; by Munyaka (2012), who found that age was significantly negatively related to intention to quit; and by Sibson Consulting (2010), who found that millennials were the age group most likely to leave their organisations. There is therefore strong support for levels of intention to quit decreasing as employees mature, perhaps because as employees age, they have less mental and/or physical energy to spend on actively searching for better opportunities elsewhere, and might also be content with the pay and benefits that they receive at their current NPOs, thus desiring to stay there until retirement. This finding could also be attributed to younger employees possessing a will to switch careers often in order to gain more experience, skills, knowledge and expertise from different organisations and alternating projects.

With regards to *country* differences, Belgium is a country high in *uncertainty avoidance* according to Hofstede et al.'s (2010) dimensions of national culture,

and for this reason, it has been proposed that Belgian employees would express intentions to remain with their organisations for long-term careers (Chang, Chi & Miao, 2007). This was also mentioned in Chapter One of the present study, with the researcher drawing attention to the fact that Belgian respondents might indicate weaker intentions to quit their NPOs, since remaining at their current organisations would be deemed less risky compared to quitting their jobs. Conversely, American respondents (and to a lesser extent, those from Australia and SA) were predicted to declare stronger intentions to quit their organisations, as a result of their lower *uncertainty avoidance* scores. These predictions were not supported in the present study, however, since although ANOVA testing discovered statistically significant differences across *country*, post-hoc testing was not strong enough to detect significant inter-country differences.

Based on the discussion provided in Sections 7.2.3 to 7.2.6 above, it is apparent that this study has provided evidence for a non-profit working culture to exist, since NPO respondents have been shown to exhibit similar attitudes and values regardless of the countries in which they work (see French, 2010). Few differences were uncovered with regards to *gender, age, education, marital status* or *non-profit category* across the constructs of intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit, and additionally, limited differences were found with regards to specific *countries* for the constructs of intrinsic rewards and intention to quit in particular. These results imply that across the four countries under study, non-profit employees experienced work that is similarly flexible, varied and enjoyable. Moreover, regardless of gender, age, education level, marital status or non-profit category, respondents experienced similar levels of intrinsic motivation, in the sense of desiring to perform and make a difference, and being personally connected to their work.

7.2.7 Salary satisfaction demographic differences

Testing for salary satisfaction differences was not an original aim of this thesis. However, since a number of participants in Phase 1 made mention of salary

satisfaction within their interviews, and since a Likert-scale item was included in the demographic section of Phase 3's questionnaire relating to respondents' satisfaction with their salaries, the researcher decided to include these results within this thesis, despite them being of secondary importance to the original thesis aims.

This study found that practically significant differences exist across the demographic variables of *age*, *gender*, *education*, *marital status* and *job level* for salary satisfaction. In particular, respondents over the age of 58 reported higher levels of salary satisfaction than younger respondents; male respondents were more satisfied with their salaries than females; non-profit respondents with a postgraduate degree experienced higher levels of salary satisfaction than those holding only a Bachelor's degree; married respondents were more satisfied with their salaries than respondents who have never been married; and managerial and supervisory respondents reported higher levels of salary satisfaction than administrative, clerical and office workers. Shelton and Renard (2015) also discovered practically significant *age*, *education* and *marital status* differences in their reward satisfaction study amongst South African nurses, but these were not in relation to base salary in particular. Older respondents and those who were married or living together were found in their study to be more satisfied with their levels of *work-life integration* compared to younger, single respondents. Additionally, their results revealed that respondents with a postgraduate qualification were more satisfied with their rewards of *benefits*, *quality work environment*, and *performance and career management*, compared to those respondents with a diploma or degree. Shelton and Renard's (2015) study did not find differences with regards to respondents' *base salaries* across the same demographic variables in the present study, nor were differences across job level discovered, thus not confirming the present study's results.

However, Shelton and Renard's (2015) suggested explanation for respondents with postgraduate qualifications being more satisfied with their rewards than

those with undergraduate qualifications does nonetheless hold true for the present study: since non-profit employees who have studied further can be expected to gain new knowledge more easily as well as implement it correctly, and since it is probable that they would think more analytically and be better able to apply their skills, they will more than likely be paid higher salaries as a result, which will then most likely cause higher levels of satisfaction. A similar argument is proposed by the present researcher to account for managerial and supervisory respondents being more satisfied with their salaries than lower-level employees: since higher-level positions usually demand greater levels of responsibility and authority, more intense decision-making, a deeper and scarcer skill-set, longer working hours, more experience, as well as greater job demands, it is probable that employees occupying such positions would receive higher levels of pay, implying that they would be more satisfied with their salaries as a result. In line with this, Bussin (2011) notes some of the determinants of executive pay to be executive-specific factors such as age, experience, career path and tenure, as well as position-specific factors including level of decision-making, level in the organisation, and consequences of errors made. Since age, experience and tenure all affect pay, it is understandable that the present study also found that older respondents are more satisfied with their salaries, because they are more likely to earn higher as a result of possessing greater work experience than younger employees, and possibly a longer tenure at their NPOs compared to younger colleagues.

With regards to *gender*, the fact that males are significantly more satisfied with their salaries is not surprising, taking the gender pay gap into account. According to the Workplace Gender Equality Agency (2015), which is part of the Australian Government, the gender pay gap refers to the difference between what women and men earn on average in terms of weekly, full-time equivalent earnings. Using the Australian Bureau of Statistics' data for average weekly full-time earnings, they discovered that the gender pay gap in Australia is 18.8 per cent in 2015, having hovered between 15 to 19 per cent for the past two decades. The European Union (2014) states that the gender pay gap is ten

per cent in Belgium, and in the USA, full-time and part-time working women earn between 77 to 84 per cent of what men earn (Patten, 2015). In SA, the gender pay gap is between 28.0 to 33.5 per cent, making it one of the highest in the world (Grant, 2015). Topping (2015) highlights that it will take 70 years for the income of female workers worldwide to be on a par with men's income, if the gender pay gap continues to decrease at its present rate. While legislation is in place to protect against pay gaps and strive towards remuneration equity, such as the draft Code of Good Practice on Equal Pay for Work of Equal Value which was promulgated in September 2014 in SA and forms part of the Employment Equity Act, it is clear that much effort still needs to be implemented both by governments and organisations to reduce this gap in an effort to see both men and women satisfied with the equity of their salaries. The researcher notes that this is moreover applicable bearing in mind that this study uncovered that married respondents were more satisfied with their salaries than those who have never been married. This is because this may suggest that discrimination exists not only in terms of paying unequal salaries to different genders, but potentially paying biased salaries to married employees who have a partner to care for, and possibly children to look after financially as well.

It was interesting to discover that no differences in salary satisfaction occurred across the *countries* under study, since this suggests that non-profit employees from a developing country such as SA are satisfied with their salaries, despite possibly receiving comparatively lower salaries than employees from developed countries such as Australia or the USA. Since actual salaries received was not measured in the present study, it is not possible to conclude which country pays their NPO employees the highest salaries; however, insight into salary satisfaction is nonetheless beneficial in making deductions about how employees respond to the amounts that they are paid.

7.2.8 Validation of the IWRS and IWMS

An important result emanating from this study pertained to the development and validation of the IWRS and IWMS, since suitable instruments to measure

intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation were not found by the researcher. McClelland (1987) highlights a number of criteria by which to determine whether instruments effectively measure motivation, namely reliability (that is, whether the instrument provides the same value for an individual when tested repeatedly) as well as validity-utility (that is, whether the instrument demonstrates the necessary theoretical properties underlying a particular motive, together with being useful in predicting behaviour under a number of conditions). Using this criteria, it can be deduced that the present study demonstrated the reliability of both the English and Dutch language versions of the IWRS and IWMS, since both instruments obtained acceptable Cronbach's alpha values once items were removed after initial reliability testing and EFAs. With regards to validity and utility, the instruments can be deemed to possess content, construct as well as criterion validity. Firstly, the content measured by the instruments aligns with theory presented in Chapter Two as well as qualitative data obtained from Phase 1, implying the relevancy of the subject matter to the NPO population under study (content validity). Moreover, satisfactory content validity was confirmed through the latent variables of the IWRS and IWMS being measured as accurately as possible, which was achieved through acceptable results found in the EFAs. Secondly, the instruments measure what they are supposed to measure, since they obtained acceptable fits by means of both EFA and CFA (construct validity). In addition, construct validity was further proved as a result of statistically and practically significant results obtained from the Pearson's Product Moment Correlations, which showed that the scores for each instrument and their factors related with other relevant indicators (namely work engagement, intention to quit and salary satisfaction) as predicted. Thirdly, the SEM results provided evidence that the IWRS and IWMS adequately predict intrinsic motivation and intrinsic rewards respectively, and the instruments also predict work engagement (IWMS) and intention to quit (both IWRS and IWMS). This provides support for the criterion validity of the instruments, specifically concurrent validity that focuses on measuring variables at the same time as one another. The final version of the IWRS is comprised of 25 items and five factors, while the final IWMS is made

up of 14 items and three factors. Both of these instruments will be utilised by the researcher in future research studies.

7.3 Implications and recommendations for NPOs

This study has investigated a crucial sector often neglected in academic research, namely the non-profit sector. As noted by Perkins and White (2009), NPOs face employee reward management issues that in many instances are more pressing than those experienced by for-profit organisations. This is due to the fact that NPOs also experience the universal issue of attracting and retaining scarce, talented individuals, despite individuals often joining NPOs for different reasons from those joining for-profit organisations (Perkins & White, 2009). This is aggravated by the reality that in order to work for an NPO, employees are oftentimes deployed into challenging environments that demand highly skilled capabilities (Perkins & White, 2009), which might detract individuals from applying to work there. The following subsections will highlight recommendations that can serve to improve the intrinsic rewards provided to employees, and ensure that high levels of intrinsic motivation and work engagement (and low levels of intention to quit) are sustained within the NPOs under study despite the pressing issues facing this sector.

7.3.1 Redesigning NPO jobs to be intrinsically rewarding

Managing the characteristics and features of jobs lies at the heart of job design (Woods & West, 2010). Job design determines not only the content of one's work and how it should be performed, but also the depth of responsibility that a job requires (Schultz, 2004). An important component of this thesis related fundamentally to this aspect, in the sense of ensuring that non-profit jobs are designed in a manner that they are intrinsically rewarding to employees. As noted by Werner (2004b), if the work itself that one performs is not a source of pride for an employee, then that employee will never be motivated. The present study indeed found that intrinsically rewarding work will lead to NPO employees experiencing higher levels of intrinsic motivation.

Meyer and Kirsten (2012) claim that intrinsic rewards cannot be provided to employees by management since they stem from employees relating in individual, personal ways to their working environments. However, the researcher disagrees with their sentiments, since attention has already been drawn in Chapter Two to the numerous manners by which the five intrinsic rewards focused on in this study can be developed within jobs. As noted by Nel et al. (2011), all jobs can be redesigned in some manner such as by tasks being designed to be more challenging and complex, and feedback being given to employees about their work. While it is true that employees respond in different manners to the nature of their work, managers can nonetheless put effort into designing jobs in a way that is viewed as attractive and appealing to their employees.

In order for jobs to be designed effectively, a thorough understanding of each job must firstly exist through the process of job analysis, together with an understanding of each job's place in the larger flow of the work unit (Noe et al., 2012). This will assist in determining the optimal manner by which a job should be performed (Aamodt, 2010). For example, a starting point for job redesign is for employees to work in groups whereby tasks are shared, with all employees in a group performing a variety of different tasks (Aamodt, 2010). This author notes that such groups can also be self-directed by means of allowing them to discuss improvements for their work and make recommendations to management. While this relates to the setting in which work takes place, it is important to note that the content of employees' work is also of critical importance with regards to job design (Pinder, 2008). In this regard, Woods and West (2010) highlight an important point when they explain that not all intrinsic rewards or critical job characteristics should be changed at once, since such an approach may be overwhelming and thus dissuade managers from beginning such an intervention. Due to the fact that rewarding job characteristics are likely to be additive, these authors suggest that managers start with subsets of job characteristics, such as beginning with introducing greater levels of autonomy into employees' jobs by means of giving them increased freedom to decide how

best to organise their work. This can be tied with effective goal setting so that employees know what they are working towards, which will in turn foster a sense of responsibility, one of the critical job-related psychological states referred to in the JCM (Woods & West, 2010). Work can also be enriched by managers providing opportunities for employees to achieve as well as gain responsibility; as well as offering advancement opportunities so that employees can display positive attitudes at work and be motivated (Pinder, 2008).

Grootings (1989) highlights a number of concerns related to intrinsic rewards which warrant brief attention. Firstly, increasing the autonomy of employees (that is, making work more flexible) can decrease the status or power of managers at lower or middle levels. Such managers may only agree to surrender parts of their control to lower level employees if they benefit in some way, or if they are offered acceptable alternatives (Grootings, 1989). Secondly, the researcher notes that work that is redesigned to be more varied may require multiskilling in order for employees to possess the necessary competencies to take on new roles and perform differing duties. In this regard, Grootings (1989) notes that re-training will cost the organisation, which may make the exercise of job redesign expensive. Finally, this author notes that enriched jobs may result in increased levels of intensity and stress when employees are required to cover more content in their positions, but salary increases do not necessarily follow such job enrichment. In addition, Walters (1975) notes that it is not always possible for every job to be enriched, for example, owing to operational restrictions preventing individuals from developing natural units of work, or when limited opportunities exist for meaningful client relationships to be formed. With regards to controlling the process of job redesign, while line managers in reality may have limited control over redesigning the jobs of their subordinates since HR will most likely control the process (Woods & West, 2010), they nonetheless need to buy in to the process to ensure the success of job design (Armstrong & Brown, 2009). This can be done through education within the context of a leadership development programme revolving around the importance of job design and good work (Armstrong & Brown, 2009).

The researcher notes that intrinsic rewards should be used as a base form of reward that is offered to every employee at the start of his or her employment and continued for the duration of his or her tenure, unlike performance-related extrinsic rewards which are provided as a result of positive performance, thus acting as positive reinforcers. Since the present study found that intrinsic rewards lead to higher levels of intrinsic motivation, such rewards should be perceived as the starting point of employee motivation. They should not be contingent on positive performance, but rather should be built into the culture of an organisation in order to promote above-average work conditions for every employee through effectively designed work. In this sense, the researcher notes that intrinsic rewards should reward employees simply for being a part of their organisation. They are a means of indicating to employees that they are valued and cared for, not because of their levels of effort or performance, but simply because they have made themselves available to work at their organisation and have offered their talents for the good of the firm and society. Instead of reinforcing positive performance, intrinsic rewards reinforce the fact that employees are appreciated, respected and esteemed for who they are and what they bring to the fore to assist the organisation in achieving its mission and objectives. The researcher is of the opinion that when jobs are designed to be intrinsically rewarding, this sets the scene for a cycle of positivity; a series of progressive consequences that start with employees enjoying the characteristics of their work, which thereafter (according to the results of the present study) will result in higher levels of intrinsic motivation and lower intentions to leave their organisation. Thus, the researcher believes that the 'baseline rewards' provided to employees that are referred to by Pink (2009) should not comprise only of salary, contract payments and a handful of benefits, but should include the provision of intrinsic rewards as well.

7.3.2 Ensuring high levels of intrinsic motivation amongst NPO employees

French (2010) notes that motivation is not easy to secure from one's employees, and should never be taken for granted. For this reason, this author states that managers should be conscious of how best to motivate their

employees, as this will ensure the integration of employees' efforts with the aim of achieving the goals and objectives of the organisation itself. The challenge for NPOs specifically is to create conditions that encourage employees to collaborate and innovate not because they have to, but because they want to (Wilson, 1995). Along this line, Bruce (2011) suggests a number of important aspects for employers to consider should they wish to improve their employees' levels of intrinsic motivation. Firstly, employees should be empowered to make decisions regarding their work, and should be provided with the tools and support they need to perform their jobs. This includes increasing their levels of control by allowing them to make decisions; giving them ownership over the production or quality checking of a product to improve independence; or being asked to provide input, feedback or suggestions to help overcome organisational concerns (Aamodt, 2010). The latter relates to the provision of flexible work, which was shown in the present study to correlate with levels of intrinsic motivation. Moreover, environments should be created where employees can self-discover (Bruce, 2011). Such environments can be created by providing employees with positive feedback in order to improve their levels of self-confidence; creating opportunities for them to grow; enhancing communication tools; providing physical environments that stimulate the generation of new ideas; providing personal attention to employees; treating them with fairness and respect; and celebrating their successes and milestones (Bruce, 2011).

It furthermore needs to be ensured that employees understand the deeper purpose for which their organisation exists, including the organisation's mission, values and goals (Bruce, 2011). This will assist employees to appreciate how their work adds value and contributes to the organisation. As highlighted in the present study, meaningful work relates to levels of intrinsic motivation. Nel et al. (2011) highlights that managers should assist employees to find their identity at work so that they will direct their efforts towards the attainment of organisational goals as a result of their own personal motivation. That is, the work context (and work itself) should be congruent to employees developing

their own self-identities or value systems, in order for them to be motivated and fully involved in their work (Nel et al., 2011).

Moreover, due to the fact that NPOs are primarily characterised by aiming to produce goods and provide services that generate social benefits, they should hire individuals who find inspiration in partaking in socially desirable activities (Lanfranchi, Narcy & Larguem, 2010). Thus, in order to improve motivation levels, individuals should be hired who will be personally invested in their work; who will find their personal interests and desires fulfilled through their work; and who are motivated by the work itself, as opposed to those only interested in the money being offered to them (Greenberg & Baron, 2003; Bruce, 2011; Glicken & Robinson, 2013). In addition, Grant (2007) mentions that in order for organisations to fulfil their mission of making a prosocial difference, employees should be selected who are shown to have an orientation towards their career as a calling, who demonstrate altruistic values, and who show benevolent dispositions.

Since the present study has revealed that an individual's personal desires determine his or her intrinsic motivation, this implies that a match should exist between an NPO's prosocial values and their employees' levels of intrinsic motivation, in order to ensure that employees will be personally connected to their jobs and personally desire to make a difference at work. Indeed, Hackman and Oldham (1980, p. 71) wrote that when employees "are well-matched with their jobs, it is rarely necessary to force, coerce, bribe, or trick them into working hard and trying to perform the job well". When time is taken to ensure that a match occurs between the requirements of a job and an employee's skills, abilities and motives to perform it, satisfactory performance results (Grobler et al., 2011), and resignations are prevented (Peters et al., 2002). The researcher therefore recommends that NPOs aim to achieve a person-job fit between an employee's skills, interests and abilities and a job's demands, as well as a person-organisation fit between an employee's values and those held by other employees in the NPO (Landy & Conte, 2010). This can be done by matching

an individual's personality to the job or organisation through more thorough screening methods that focus both on the job as well as the organisational culture (Bruce, 2011). The researcher suggests that future research focus on specific types of assessment methods that will best determine job candidates' levels of intrinsic motivation, in order to assess whether an adequate fit exists between their personal goals and values, and the goals and values of the NPOs to which they are applying. Examples of assessment methods that the researcher proposes could be valuable to assess prosocial orientations include psychometric testing and situational selection interviews.

NPOs should furthermore focus on developing positive employer value propositions in an attempt to recruit fresh, promising graduates in order to begin to compete with the private sector (Brandi, 2012). This author highlights that NPOs should focus their recruitment efforts on what private sector organisations cannot offer: the opportunity to contribute towards social change, by which they can become employers of choice. As stated by Maw (2014), NPOs are now competing with for-profit, mission-driven organisations for talent, and they thus need to focus on enhancing their employer brand so that prospective employees are aware of what NPOs have to offer them. Examples of such a brand can include a focus on the interesting work opportunities offered by NPOs (Maw, 2014).

7.3.3 Addressing work engagement and compassion fatigue / burnout

The present study has found that improving levels of intrinsic rewards will cause an increase in intrinsic motivation, which then leads to an improvement in work engagement (that is, intrinsic motivation partially mediates the relationship between intrinsic rewards and work engagement). Therefore, by NPOs focusing on enriching and redesigning jobs to be intrinsically rewarding, they should find that their employees' levels of intrinsic motivation increase, which will cause their levels of work engagement to be enhanced. This is in line with Rothmann and Rothmann Jr (2010), who suggest providing employees with growth opportunities in their jobs in the form of learning opportunities and autonomy

(that is, flexible work and challenging work, both intrinsic rewards) in order to improve their levels of work engagement, since these aspects satisfy employees' needs for competence and autonomy according to SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

While NPO employees in the present study were found to be engaged in their work, the researcher has already drawn attention in Chapters Two and Three to the concept that the antithesis of work engagement is burnout, which is linked to compassion fatigue. That is, it is possible that some NPO employees may experience emotional strain as a result of being too personally vested in their work, and may face the burden or pressure of feeling as though their failings at work will negatively influence the lives of others directly. The researcher notes that this may occur if NPO employees are deeply personally committed to making a difference in the world around them, eventually experiencing emotional exhaustion as a result. In such cases, employee assistance programmes (EAPs) could be introduced by NPOs to deal with such fatigue. EAPs recognise that employees wear out both physically and emotionally, and they thus focus on the mental health needs of employees in order to address burnout (Glicken & Robinson, 2013). Such programmes provide emotional support as a strategy in dealing with emotional pain (Woods & West, 2010), which may be experienced by NPO employees. EAP's provide employees with assistance for various problems, by means of services that include confidential counselling on issues such as personal or work-related concerns (for example, substance abuse, career planning, work demands and interpersonal skills), as well as stress management and relaxation workshops (Greenberg & Baron, 2003; Luthans, 2005; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2008). They are usually provided within the organisation, and for this reason, confidentiality and top management support are imperative (Woods & West, 2010). E-therapy, also known as cybertherapy, could also be utilised by NPOs, with this involving employees communicating with trained counsellors over e-mail in order to receive assistance for psychological problems (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). EAPs lead to employees functioning more effectively since they are worried

less about work-related or personal problems (Marchington & Wilkinson, 2008). Additionally, employers benefit through a decrease in turnover, and the bottom line of organisations improves as the positive emotional state and mental health of employees is affected (Glicken & Robinson, 2013).

In addition to organisational interventions such as EAPs, individual employees can attempt to reduce compassion fatigue through stress management. Stress techniques that can be utilised to overcome compassion fatigue include exercise to get one's mind off work; relaxation such as meditation or reading books; behavioural self-control to regulate situations, such as by taking an extra break when needing to remain calm after a stressful interaction; and networking in order to benefit from social support gained through forming close associations with trusted and empathetic colleagues, who are able to build up one's confidence (Luthans, 2005).

7.3.4 Improving retention within NPOs

Phase 3 of the present study discovered that providing work that is intrinsically rewarding, and ensuring that NPO employees are intrinsically motivated, will lead to lower intention to quit levels. NPO managers would thus be wise to take the researcher's previous recommendations into account, which focus on improving levels of intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation. In addition, employee retention can be achieved through a good working relationship between line managers and the HR department, so that line managers learn the necessary people skills needed to manage their subordinates (Steinman, 2009). Aamodt (2010) agrees with this, stating that better communication between management and employees might prevent employees from ultimately deciding to leave the organisation. In addition, this author notes that attitude surveys should be administered and exit interviews conducted in order to determine why employees desire to leave their organisations. The researcher notes that such attitude surveys might discover that employees are not satisfied with the content of their work (intrinsic rewards), or they are dissatisfied with their salaries or other extrinsic rewards as found in Phase 1 of the present

study. Aspects that were mentioned by Phase 1 participants that NPO management can take note of in order to improve retention include providing employees with room for growth, development and autonomy; providing a caring environment with positive, driven leaders that employees can respect; and putting effort into ensuring that employees are gaining fulfillment from their work tasks.

Steinman (2009) moreover suggests a number of means by which to reduce voluntary turnover, such as promoting a sense of work-life balance; providing work that is challenging; recognising, valuing and genuinely appreciating employees for their contributions; having one-on-one meetings and feedback session with employees in which they are encouraged to voice their needs and suggestions; assisting employees in developing the skills necessary to be empowered to fulfil their long-term career aspirations; designing personal career development plans for employees; providing sufficient resources for employees to perform their jobs; providing opportunities both for individual and team work; and building an employment brand that results in employees taking pride in working there. Realistic job previews should also be delivered during recruitment so as to diminish unmet job expectations, and managers should strive to achieve a good person-organisation fit when selecting employees so that their needs are met (Aamodt, 2010). Providing a good work environment and opportunities to advance and grow will also assist in employee retention (Aamodt, 2010), together with a focus on improving aspects of organisational culture such as how conflict is dealt with, multicultural awareness and support, the quality of employees' work spaces, the availability of technology, and expectations with regards to employee time commitment (Peters et al., 2002).

According to WorldatWork (2007, p. 357), "when money talks, nobody walks". NPOs should therefore educate their employees about how market-related their remuneration is; moreover, if salaries are not externally competitive, then adjustments should be made to improve their competitiveness (Steinman, 2009). Along this line, Peters et al. (2002) recommend that NPO managers

focus on salary competitiveness with other NPOs as well as with similar jobs in for-profit organisations and the government, in an effort to improve retention. As noted by Grobler et al. (2011), the best path for managers to take is to depend on a balance of both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. This leads to the researcher's final recommendations, which pertain to the salaries provided to NPO employees.

7.3.5 Extrinsic reward systems within NPOs

It is acknowledged by the researcher that this thesis does not negate the importance of extrinsic rewards. It has already been noted in Chapter One that non-profit employees typically earn below-market salaries, and according to the neutral mean values for salary satisfaction across all countries found in the present study, it is evident that NPO respondents are not satisfied with their salaries. Female respondents were found to be less satisfied with their salaries than males, as were respondents occupying lower job levels and with a lower education level. While an in-depth discussion pertaining to extrinsic rewards, both financial and non-financial in nature, goes beyond the scope of this study, it is worth noting that too many non-profit employees worldwide accept below-market levels of compensation because the intangible benefits of doing good, working towards a mission and purpose, and/or doing God's work in their mind offsets this (Speckbacher, 2003; Cohen, 2010). Cohen (2010) makes a fundamental point when he highlights that "mission and purpose cannot offset low wages, minimal bonuses, and negligible other forms of nonwage pay" despite such motivations and missions being laudable. Brandi (2012) agrees, stating that "the 'save and score' mentality of hiring for less or skimping on working conditions just because people want to work to make a difference is archaic and perhaps more relevant in organisations operating in the 80s".

Poor pay practices within NPOs will eventually detract significantly from performance, as they will result in dissatisfaction according to Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (Forbes, 2013), which was discussed in Chapter Two. If employees are not paid adequate and equitable basic rewards, then their focus

will remain on how unfair their circumstances are, resulting in high anxiety and little intrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009). This was confirmed in the present study, with salary satisfaction levels correlating positively with respondents' levels of intrinsic motivation. Moreover, according to Walters (1975), money acts not only as a medium of exchange, but as a symbol of employees being valued as individuals. The researcher notes that paying NPO employees below-market salaries may result in them perceiving that their skills and experience are not appreciated, causing them to put in less effort at work. Kuttner (2008) thus suggests that national policies be developed that endeavour to turn all human-service jobs into careers as opposed to casual labour, through paying living wages with good benefits and providing adequate training, advancement prospects and professional status. Moreover, Cohen (2010) emphasises that a major campaign priority for the non-profit sector should be to achieve wage parity with the private sector, in order to prevent a sector characterised by low wages, long hours and burnout. Fair, market-related salaries should be offered to NPO employees (Brandi, 2012), with base pay rates being established in accordance with an objective and governed grading or competence-based system of evaluation (Forbes, 2013). This will remove a source of demotivation at work and will ensure that NPO employees are treated more fairly (Woods & West, 2010).

Apart from achieving wage parity, NPOs should focus on benefits as a means of retaining their talented workforces. For example, benefits that are provided by a number of American NPOs include company-paid life insurance and medical insurance, generous vacation times, employee of the month awards, the maintenance of a positive, relaxed and open work environment, as well as advancement, relocation and training opportunities (Coffman, 2002). However, Whitaker (2010) does emphasise that the motivational element of such extrinsic, non-financial rewards will be lost if they are used to justify below-market salaries, since employees will quickly notice that they are compensating for poor pay levels. This further justifies the researcher recommending that market-related pay be provided to NPO employees worldwide.

In order to ensure that non-profit employees receive satisfactory salaries, it is essential that internal and external equity be achieved. To achieve internal equity (that is, the perceived fairness of a pay system within an organisation), jobs need to be graded and thereafter placed on a pay scale (Bussin, 2011). This occurs by means of job evaluation, referring to the systematic, objective assessment of the content of a job by comparing jobs to one another within an organisation, followed by ranking jobs according to a pre-determined set of job characteristics and market-related remuneration (Bussin, 2011). In order to ensure external equity is achieved (that is, the perceived equity of pay in relation to what other organisations are paying for similar types of work), organisations should utilise salary surveys to determine the salaries paid by other organisations that are situated within an organisation's labour market (Bussin, 2011). In addition, it is imperative that employees understand how they are paid in order to influence their levels of salary satisfaction, since Treuren and Frankish (2014b) discovered that employees' turnover intentions can be decreased by improving their pay communication approaches, especially when complicated payment systems are in use. Job titles should moreover reflect the roles and responsibilities of employees to prevent situations where inflated job titles make their incumbents feel that they are underpaid (Steinman, 2009).

7.4 Conclusion

This chapter began by discussing the results of this research study, in order to provide the reader with a clear picture of the findings of the study. The discussion focused on SEM results, correlations, demographic differences across constructs, as well as the validation of the two measuring instruments developed by the researcher. The chapter finished by providing implications and recommendations for the NPOs under study. To conclude this thesis, the following chapter will deal with limitations of the study as well as recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

8.1 **Introduction**

The preceding chapters have outlined the relevant literature, methodology, results and empirical discussion related to this study. The final chapter of this thesis will conclude the investigation by discussing the study's limitations as well as possible areas for future research in the field of intrinsic rewards, intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit.

8.2 **Limitations of the study**

This study's limitations will be discussed in relation to its theoretical, cross-cultural and sampling limitations.

8.2.1 **Theoretical limitations**

Literature conducted on intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation in the four countries under study was not as easily found as cross-cultural literature on work engagement and intention to quit or turnover intentions, due to the fact that the latter two constructs have been more widely researched in the four countries under study. Moreover, as a result of the findings of Phase 1 of this study, the researcher developed her own definitions of intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation, including the factors comprising them, in an attempt to best measure these two constructs within the non-profit environment under study. Consequently, this limited the availability of meaningful, appropriate literature that the researcher could use to elaborate on these definitions, and also limited the number of previous empirical studies that could be used with which to make comparisons with the present empirical findings.

Recognition, or feedback obtained on one's work, was not included as a type of intrinsic reward for the purposes of this study. This was due to the fact that the researcher classified recognition and feedback as extrinsic, non-financial rewards, since they are generally administered by external sources such as one's manager or peers, thus not being truly intrinsic in nature. However, the researcher acknowledges that Hackman and Oldham's (1980) JCM does include job feedback as a core job characteristic leading to critical psychological states and positive outcomes. Job feedback in the JCM is defined as "the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job provides the individual with direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance" (Hackman & Oldham, 1980, p. 80). The researcher is therefore aware that certain readers may deem this to be a flaw in the present study, since they may argue that recognition and feedback can indeed stem from the work that one performs if they are built into the work itself. That is, recognition and feedback may be the very manner by which employees realise that their work is meaningful, since this is how they might obtain insight into how their work has made an impact or has been of value to others.

The researcher furthermore acknowledges that intrinsic rewards are not the sole way by which employees can be motivated, engaged and retained. As stated by Whitaker (2010), employees should be managed holistically in order for them to be productive, loyal and motivated. This author acknowledges the use of intrinsic rewards for these purposes when she mentions that employees' work should be both appropriate and satisfying to them. She goes on to state that a combination of extrinsic financial and non-financial rewards need to be managed holistically, such as fostering a positive workforce culture and recognising the hard work of employees. Zingheim and Schuster (2000b) agree with this, explaining that one component of total pay should not be emphasised over another, but rather, all extrinsic financial and non-financial components should be balanced in order to produce a better workforce deal. The present researcher additionally highlights that the concept of "total rewards" should be broadened to include not only extrinsic financial and non-financial rewards, as

has largely been the case to date (see discussion in Section 2.3.1 of this thesis), but also incorporate the provision of intrinsic rewards to all employees.

8.2.2 Cross-cultural limitations

The researcher experienced difficulty in collecting cross-cultural data for this study. English is her primary language, and is an official language in three of the countries chosen for this study, namely Australia, SA and the USA. However, Dutch is the predominant language spoken in Belgium. For this reason, the interview data collected from Belgian participants in Phase 1 needed to be translated from Dutch into English to enable interpretation by the researcher, and every item in Phase 3's composite questionnaire needed to be translated from English into Dutch to enable understanding by Belgian respondents. This delayed the collection and analysis of data within the empirical stage of this thesis, and resulted in increased financial costs being incurred.

Additionally, collecting qualitative data in Belgium for Phase 1 of the empirical study involved the researcher relying on an assistant (her Belgian contact) to conduct the interviews timeously on her behalf. Close contact had to be maintained with this assistant, as his own work pressures meant that he could not give his full attention to the researcher's study. The researcher also gained a smaller number of responses from Belgium for Phase 1 of data collection owing to difficulties in gaining interested participants, with only ten participants from Belgium being interviewed as opposed to 15 participants as was desired. Furthermore, some data from the Belgian interviews in Phase 1 was lost, as the researcher's assistant informed her that the Skype or phone lines that he used had at times experienced poor connectivity issues, together with there being background noise picked up when the Belgian interviews were conducted face-to-face with participants. As a result, the researcher's translator in SA had difficulty transcribing parts of the text, resulting in broken sentences. Certain meaning could have been lost as a result.

As mentioned in Chapter Five, a further sampling limitation of this study stems from only Belgian and South African NPO employees being included in Phase 1 of this study, as opposed to NPO employees being included who represented all four countries investigated in Phase 3. It can therefore be suggested that future studies involve in-depth, personal interviews being conducted with NPO employees in Australia and the USA, to bridge the gap that currently exists as a result of these countries not being included in the qualitative phase of the present study.

A limitation relating to the cross-cultural comparisons made in the present study is the issue of homogeneity. If comparisons across cultures are to be taken seriously, then it is assumed that the culture in each country is homogenous. Along this line, homogeneity implies that little diversity exists in a given country (Usunier & Lee, 2009). However, within SA for example, cultural variations and diversity do exist, suggesting little homogeneity. SA has many subcultures, implying groups that have varying ethnic backgrounds, religions or languages that are different from the majority of the population (Francesco & Gold, 2005). While the point of view was taken in this study that individuals originating from a specific country will portray the overall values of that society, in reality it is not probable that SA or any of the other countries under study are truly culturally homogenous. For this reason, the researcher acknowledges that there are numerous other factors that could influence the behaviour, attitudes and values of respondents originating from each country under study. In addition, Javidin (2004, p. 235) notes that caution needs to be taken when generalising results to a societal level, since "societal cultures are too complex to be measured in their entirety in any single study". This author's justifications for such a claim ring true for the present study in that a random sample was not obtained; a number of subcultures exist in cultures which may have resulted in differences in responses; and only one study with one sample was obtained, making generalisability difficult.

8.2.3 Sampling limitations

The questionnaire used in Phase 3 of this study was electronic in nature, meaning that no face-to-face contact was made with the sample residing in Australia, Belgium and the USA due to the fact that the researcher lived outside of these countries. Despite this, 5256 NPO employees were individually e-mailed to request their participation in the study, which proved to be time-consuming and laborious since every e-mail address was individually accessed by the researcher by means of NPO websites. As a result, data collection for Phase 3 of this study took the researcher seven months to complete.

Follow-up e-mails were sent to all respondents to encourage them to complete the electronic questionnaire in order to improve the response rate, particularly in Belgium and the USA. Despite these follow-up e-mails, a response rate of 11.2 per cent was achieved. One possible reason for this poor response rate is due to the fact that a number of the NPO employees e-mailed proved to be volunteers as opposed to paid employees. This meant that such individuals were not eligible to complete the questionnaire since they did not meet the control category of being *paid* NPO employees. The empirical sample in Phase 3 was moreover not balanced in terms of the four countries under study, which hindered the researcher's ability to make reliable comparisons. Specifically, the sample size for Belgium was small, particularly in relation to that of SA, thus limiting extrapolation to the wider Belgian population.

The researcher acknowledges that additional demographic variables should have been included in the questionnaire. For example, certain respondents from Phase 3 of this study voluntarily e-mailed the researcher feedback on her questionnaire, despite not being requested to do so. One respondent commented that a demographic item measuring "the number of years with one's current employer" should have been added, as this would have correlated with some questionnaire items. Another respondent highlighted that while she is extremely satisfied with her current job, she has held non-profit positions previously where she experienced less job satisfaction. For this reason, she

recommended that a distinction be made between satisfaction with one's current NPO job and satisfaction in general with non-profit work, including the addition of follow-up items pertaining to general levels of satisfaction throughout one's non-profit career as opposed to one's current NPO job. In addition, the researcher highlights that it would have proved interesting to determine the racial distribution of the sample, particularly for SA, since the African (black) population comprises the majority of SA's population, yet Hofstede et al.'s (2010) research focused purely on Caucasians (whites). Unfortunately, this demographic variable was not included in the questionnaire for Phase 3.

8.3 Recommendations for future research

Smith et al. (2006, p. 26) suggest that evidence for the universality of constructs can only be found from a number of parallel studies being conducted within different countries, as opposed to "direct cross-national comparisons of mean scores" on a construct. Therefore, in order to better explore the cross-cultural meanings of intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation in particular through the use of the newly-validated IWRS and IWMS, it is necessary to determine the correlations of such constructs within different cultural contexts (Smith et al., 2006). These authors explain that this forms a nomological net of correlations between a newly developed measuring instrument, and existing measures of varying constructs, which helps in determining the validity of new measuring instruments. By developing such sets of meanings, social scientists will be able to make better sense of how constructs can be used, thus helping to build up theories around each construct. For this reason, the researcher will now provide a number of recommendations for future research, primarily centering around the constructs of intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation.

8.3.1 Relating intrinsic rewards to further positive organisational constructs

The present study discovered that non-profit employees who deem their work to be intrinsically rewarding will experience higher levels of intrinsic motivation and lower intentions to quit their organisations. The researcher suggests that empirical research relating to intrinsic rewards, using the newly validated IWRS,

can be broadened by determining the relationship between intrinsic rewards and other positive organisational constructs, such as OCBs, psychological capital (PsyCap) and positive emotions. OCB has been defined by Organ (1988, in Organ, 1997) as individual discretionary behaviours at work that are not explicitly recognised by formal reward systems, yet result in the organisation functioning effectively. It would be interesting to determine whether non-profit employees exhibit the five dimensions of OCB, namely altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship, to a greater extent when rewarded intrinsically by their work. Additionally, since Macnab (2014) discovered that intrinsic rewards correlate positively with PsyCap levels amongst quantity surveyors, it would be valuable to research whether a causal relationship between these constructs exists, specifically within the non-profit sector. Finally, Pinder (2008) highlights a number of positive emotions that can be demonstrated in workplaces, including optimism, happiness, self-determination, pride (from the positive perspective of personal worth and workmanship), love, gratitude and compassion. The researcher believes that it would be useful to investigate whether the demonstration of such emotions can be increased through providing employees with work that is intrinsically rewarding. In addition, further research is required to determine whether the provision of intrinsic rewards leads directly to work engagement, since this was not proved in the present study.

8.3.2 The relationship between intrinsic motivation and spirituality

A number of participants in Phase 1 of the present study made reference to religious factors when discussing what motivated them to begin working in NPOs, even if working in such organisations meant that they would receive a reduced salary compared to working in the private sector. The call by God to work in organisations in which they could make a tangible community difference was deemed to be their most important motivating factor, since such spiritually connected individuals perceive that their purpose in life is destined by God (see Ephesians 1:11-12). The present researcher therefore wishes to investigate in future studies whether spirituality is related to levels of intrinsic motivation,

particularly within the NPO sector. This could also involve investigating levels of spiritual intelligence.

8.3.3 The role of empathy and altruistic personality in enhancing intrinsic motivation

According to Baron et al. (2009, p. 322), empathy can be defined as “being able to take the perspective of other people, feeling sympathy toward them, and wanting to help solve their problems or reduce their distress”. Empathy plays a role in prosocial behaviour, as was discussed in Section 2.4.3.2 of this thesis, and having an altruistic personality also predisposes individuals to behave in manners that are proactive. The researcher therefore proposes that in future studies, the empathy levels and altruistic personalities of NPO employees be correlated with their levels of intrinsic motivation. This will provide valuable insight into whether intrinsic motivation stems from within individuals based on predisposed traits, or whether this is an aspect that is influenced by one’s experiences through life.

8.3.4 The link between intrinsic motivation and burnout / compassion fatigue

Within Section 2.4.3.1(a) of this thesis, the researcher discussed compassion fatigue in the context of NPO employees being too personally vested in their work. Compassion fatigue was also highlighted in the context of job burnout in Sections 3.2 and 7.3.3. The reader should therefore be aware of the dangers that NPO employees face by being too emotionally connected to their work, since burnout may occur when such employees experience chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors at work, thereby becoming exhausted, cynical and ineffectual (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). The researcher believes that it will be beneficial to study the relationship between burnout and intrinsic motivation in order to determine whether a correlation exists between these two states. Moreover, it will be useful for a measuring instrument to be developed that specifically focuses on compassion fatigue, since the researcher does acknowledge that this construct is theoretically different to job burnout.

8.3.5 Correlating person-organisation and person-job fit with intrinsic motivation

Section 7.3.2 of this thesis highlighted that intrinsic motivation may be enhanced when individuals are correctly matched with their organisations and jobs, in terms of their personal desires to make a difference linking with the values of their organisations and requirements of their jobs. The researcher recommends that this be empirically tested in future studies, by determining whether employees who obtained a fit with their organisations and jobs will demonstrate higher levels of intrinsic motivation. This relationship could also be viewed from the perspective that when employees are personally connected to their work, and thus intrinsically motivated, they may demonstrate higher levels of person-organisation and person-job fits. The researcher is unaware of empirical research that has yet been conducted to assess such a relationship.

8.3.6 The link between extrinsic, non-financial rewards and intrinsic motivation, work engagement and retention

The results from Phase 1 of this study found that interview participants made mention of a number of extrinsic, non-financial rewards as motivating factors. However, no comprehensive measuring instrument currently exists that measures all the forms of extrinsic, non-financial rewards mentioned in Section 2.3.1 of this thesis. The present researcher desires to develop and validate such an instrument in future studies, and thereafter determine whether a relationship exists between these rewards and employees' levels of intrinsic motivation, work engagement and retention. To the researcher's knowledge, no such investigation has been conducted to date, implying that a research gap exists in this regard. In particular, it would be interesting to investigate such constructs within the for-profit sector as opposed to only the non-profit sector, since it can be proposed that for-profit employees have different motivators from those working in NPOs.

8.3.7 Work engagement predicting intention to quit

The present study discovered that work engagement caused an increase in NPO employees' levels of intention to quit, which went against the findings of previous authors such as Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), Du Plooy and Roodt (2010) and Robyn and Du Preez (2013). The present researcher drew attention in Section 7.2.1 to the fact that since work engagement arises from job-related resources such as autonomy, task significance, task variety, performance feedback and supervisory or peer support, being engaged in one's work should occur as a direct result of working in one's particular organisation. Therefore, job-related resources should actually discourage employees from desiring to leave their organisations, since work engagement is dependent on working in their current organisations. Owing to the fact that this was not confirmed in the present study, the researcher recommends that further research be conducted in order to uncover the reasons behind NPO employees demonstrating an intention to leave their organisations as a result of being engaged with their work.

8.4 Conclusion

This thesis aimed to investigate whether intrinsic rewards play a role in the intrinsic motivation, work engagement and retention of employees working within NPOs in Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA, in order to form a cross-cultural comparison between employees from these four geographically dispersed yet culturally similar countries. It moreover aimed to determine whether demographic differences occurred across these constructs. In order to achieve these objectives, a theoretical model was empirically tested to highlight the relationships between these constructs, after the development and successful validation of two measuring instruments to assess intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation.

This research provided evidence for intrinsic rewards leading to higher levels of intrinsic motivation, which in turn causes higher levels of work engagement and lower levels of intention to quit. In addition, intrinsic rewards were found to

directly predict a reduction in employees' intentions to quit their NPOs, and work engagement directly predicted an increase in employees intending to quit their organisations. As a result of these findings, the answer to the research question of this thesis is that intrinsic rewards *do* play a direct, significant role in increasing intrinsic motivation levels and reducing levels of intention to quit; however they *do not* play a direct, significant role in increasing the work engagement levels of employees working within NPOs in Australia, Belgium, SA and the USA. Rather, the relationship between intrinsic rewards and work engagement is partially mediated by intrinsic motivation.

From a cross-cultural perspective, practically significant inter-country differences were discovered across the intrinsic rewards of meaningful work and challenging work; across intrinsic motivation and its three dimensions (personal connection to one's work, personal desire to make a difference, and personal desire to perform); and across work engagement and its three factors (absorption, dedication and vigour). Thus, although these countries are culturally similar in certain aspects according to the results of Hofstede et al. (2010), NPO employees working within these countries do not share similar experiences in terms of how meaningful and challenging their work is, nor do they share similar levels of intrinsic motivation and work engagement. In addition to these inter-country results, the researcher in general discovered age and job level differences across the four constructs under study, as well as significant correlations between the four constructs.

It is clear from these results that this thesis makes a valuable contribution to the field of rewards management globally, and theoretically contributes to literature pertaining to intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation in particular as a result of the development of two measuring instruments that were empirically validated to assess these constructs. The study's findings provide evidence for causal relationships between four constructs not previously tested empirically. Consequently, the results of this study have been shown to hold important implications for the management of NPO employees worldwide.

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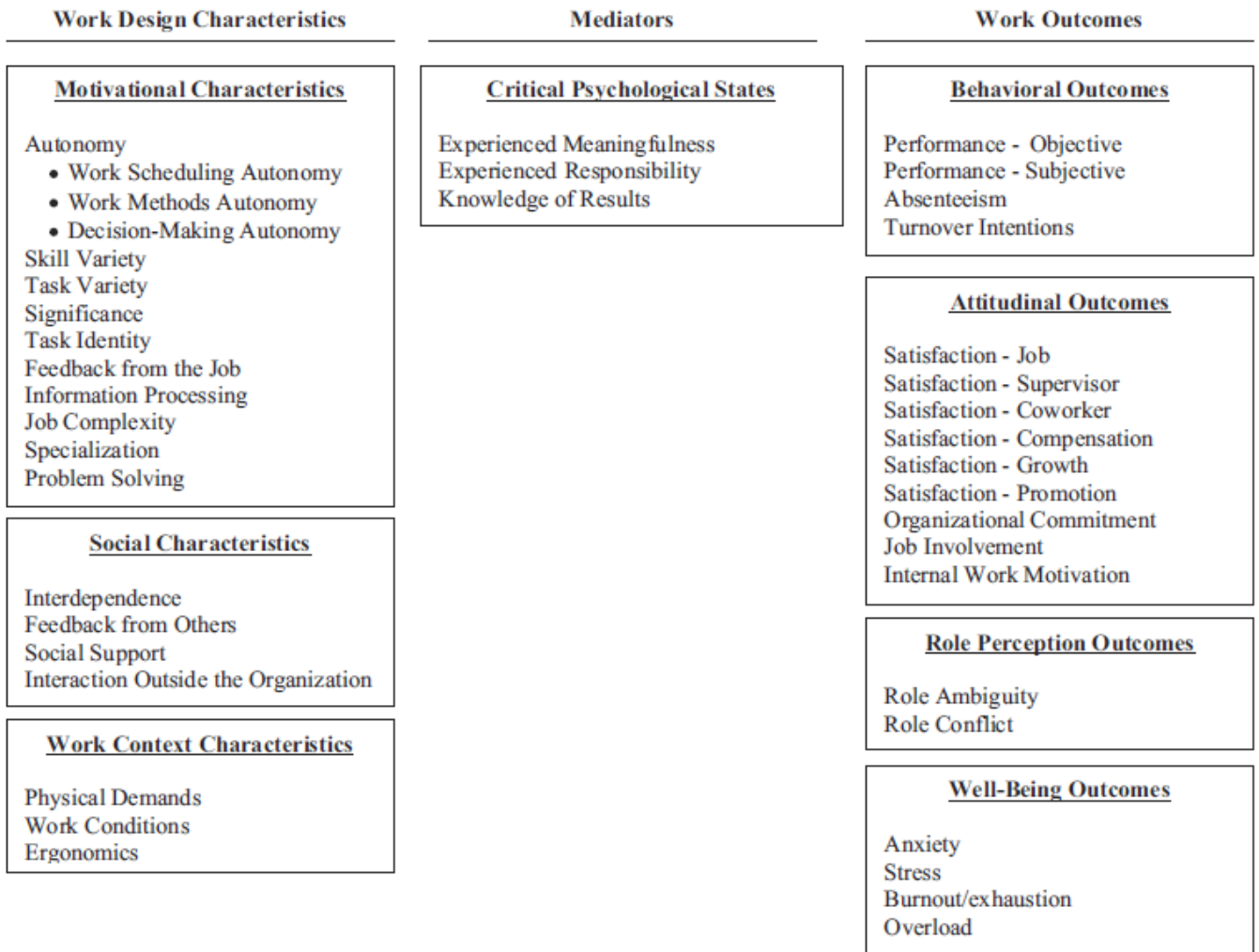
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**ANNEXURE A:
AN EXPANDED MODEL OF WORK DESIGN**







(Humphrey et al., 2007, p. 1334)

ANNEXURE B: EXAMPLES OF WORLD VISION U.S. EMPLOYEES HIGHLIGHTING THE MEANINGFUL WORK THAT THEY EXPERIENCE



Building a better world for children


SEARCH 

MY BASKET (0) SIGN IN    BLOG

OUR IMPACT ▾ SPONSOR A CHILD ▾ WAYS TO GIVE ▾ GET INVOLVED ▾ ABOUT US ▾ MY WORLD VISION ▾

[Home](#) > [About Us](#) > [Job Opportunities](#) > [Working For World Vision](#)

[Who We Are](#) **Working For World Vision** [Internships](#) [Job Opportunities](#)




Amy P.
Media Relations
Team member since 2002

“When I stop and ask myself what I want to be doing, the answer is always that I want to be right where I am. I believe in what World Vision is doing, and I want to contribute to it. I don’t know where else I’d go to do what I do now and still get so much meaning out of it.”

“Everyone on my team is at the top of their game, and it’s really fun to work with a team like that. It’s great to work with people you know are going to bring their A-game and push you to bring your A-game too.”

“Because I’m growing spiritually alongside my teammates, I think that we’re better connected to the work that World Vision is doing and our own roles in support of that.”




Dale S.
Church Relations
Team member since 2006

“When I interviewed at World Vision, I was pleased to find that there were people here like me—professionals who came from the for-profit world—actively utilizing their education and expertise to help kids.”

“World Vision is a very intellectually challenging environment, and that allows me to leverage my skills while also honing and growing them.”

“I can’t imagine a working environment outside of World Vision that would resonate so strongly with who I am and my Christian beliefs, while still exuding such professionalism.”



Carol W.
Gifts in Kind
Team member since 2007

“I came to World Vision after realizing how wonderful it would be to take all my skills and use them, not just to earn money or make a profit, but to contribute to a mission.”

“The most interesting aspect of my job is the end-to-end supply chain. It’s very exciting to see something through from beginning to end—from procuring goods from corporations, to distributing them in the field, to reporting back to our donors.”

“I work with a very diverse group of people, made up of World Vision employees from around 40 different countries. It’s really interesting to work with a team with such a broad range of backgrounds.”



Jane R.
Communications
Team member since 1993

“In my work, I see suffering through photos, videos, and stories. It can be hard to absorb, but I think God uses the pain as a motivator. It makes me want to work harder in my own small way to make life better for children.”

“I feel so fortunate to have a supportive group of work colleagues that I can pray with—even as we draw from diverse denominational backgrounds.”

“Since I came to World Vision, I’ve learned a ton about long-form journalism, magazine architecture and design, and educational publishing. And I’m still learning! Digital publishing and social media are changing the landscape of what I do in exciting ways.”



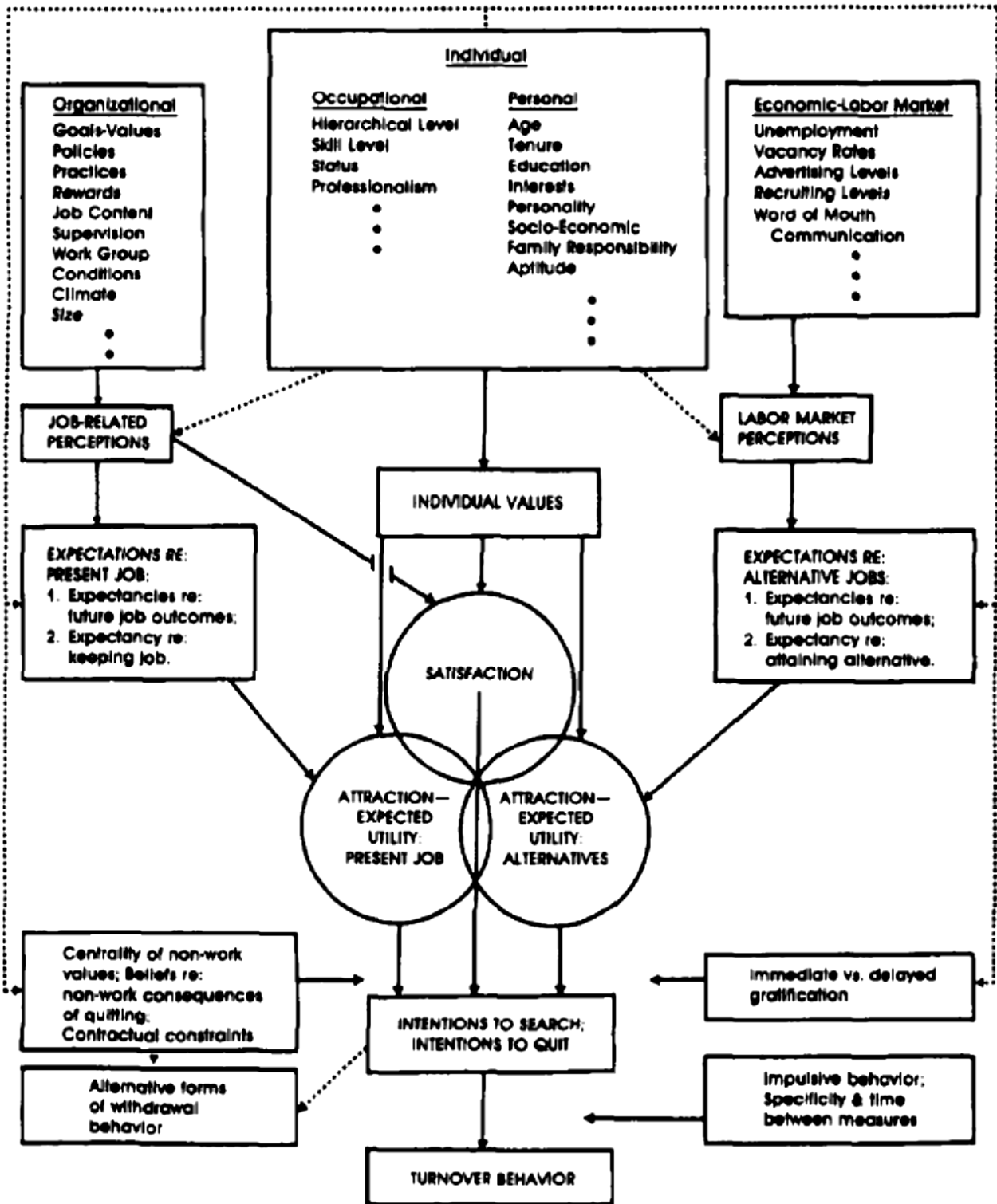
Sam K.
Human Resources
Team member since 2010

“World Vision creates opportunities for people to grow. All you need is the desire. World Vision is really good at shepherding that desire and asking what you need to get where you want to go professionally.”

“One thing I love about sponsorship is that it doesn’t just help one child—it helps the whole community, and it has a long-term impact.”

“Coming to World Vision, I was aware that there is hunger in the world and that there are children dying in infancy, but it’s different when you hear about it every day. It’s a reminder of my role as a Christian, and it’s really changed who I am.”

**ANNEXURE C:
A SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE PRIMARY VARIABLES AND
PROCESS OF EMPLOYEE TURNOVER**



(Mobley et al., 1979, p. 517)

ANNEXURE D:
PHASE 1 – ORAL INFORMATION READ TO PARTICIPANTS
PRIOR TO INTERVIEW

Thank you for taking the time to attend this interview. The aim of this interview is to gain insight into the intrinsic rewards that you gain from working in your particular non-profit organisation. Intrinsic rewards are personal, internal, psychological responses to your work, which you get from doing work that is meaningful.

This interview also aims to gather information concerning whether you would consider leaving the employ of your organisation in the future, and whether you currently feel engaged and intrinsically motivated in your job. Intrinsic motivation refers to doing a task for the inherent satisfaction of the task itself. This means that the task or activity you do is rewarding in itself, and you are thus performing an activity because it provides you with internal satisfaction.

The data obtained from this interview will be used to develop a questionnaire to measure intrinsic rewards, as well as provide insight into the results from the quantitative component of this study.

Please note that participation in this interview is completely voluntary and you may withdraw your participation at any stage. All data obtained will be treated in a strictly confidential manner and will only be used for the purposes of the research. Your name will not be referred to at any stage of the research and will not be disclosed in any research report.

Please note that this interview will be recorded for the purpose of data analysis, which will occur after all interviews have been conducted. Should the recording of the interview make you feel uncomfortable, you are under no obligation to continue with the interview, and may leave at any stage.

Kindly read and sign the Interview Consent Form prior to the start of the interview.

If you have any questions concerning the interview or the research in general, please bring it to the interviewer's attention.

ANNEXURE E:

PHASE 1 – CONSENT FORM FOR INTERVIEW PARTICIPATION

This consent form outlines my rights as a participant in this interview, which pertains to a study of employees working within non-profit organisations. It will be conducted by Michelle Renard as part of her doctoral research in the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology at Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University in Port Elizabeth, South Africa.

The interview will explore my experiences concerning:

- my motivation for working within a non-profit organisation;
- the intrinsic rewards that I gain from my work;
- how engaged I am at work; and
- intentions I may have to leave the employ of my organisation in the future.

I understand that:

1. Taking part in this study is entirely voluntary.
 2. It is my right to decline to answer any question that I am asked.
 3. I am free to end the interview and withdraw from the study at any time, without giving any reason.
 4. The interview will be recorded by means of a Dictaphone for analysis after the completion of the interview.
 5. The answers I provide will be used for the purposes of the research and will be anonymously referred to in Michelle Renard's thesis.
 6. Michelle Renard will pursue publication of the findings resulting from this interview. The information I disclose in this interview may be anonymously referred to in such a publication.
 7. Neither my name nor the name of my organisation will be disclosed in the thesis nor any publications arising from this interview.
- I HAVE READ THIS CONSENT FORM.
- I HAVE HAD A CHANCE TO ASK QUESTIONS CONCERNING ANY AREAS THAT I DID NOT UNDERSTAND.

(Signature of Interviewee)

(Date)

(Printed name of Interviewee)

(Signature of Interviewer)

ANNEXURE F:
PHASE 1 – SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE

- 1) Date of interview:
- 2) Location of interview:

A. PERSONAL DEMOGRAPHICS:

- 1) Gender:
- 2) Highest qualification:
- 3) Total number of years' working experience:
- 4) Number of years working in your current organisation:

B. ORGANISATIONAL DEMOGRAPHICS:

- 1) Name of organisation.
- 2) Size of organisation (paid staff/volunteers/managers/coordinators/etc.).
- 3) Primary functions of the organisation.
- 4) Mission and purpose of the organisation.
- 5) Non-profit status (e.g. Section 21 Company; PBO; NGO; etc.).
- 6) State your position at the organisation?
- 7) Briefly outline your responsibilities?

C. INTRINSIC MOTIVATION:

- 1) What motivated you to begin working in a non-profit organisation?
- 2) Think back to the last six months of working in your organisation. Have you generally been motivated to perform to your highest potential each day?
- 3) If so, what has motivated you to perform at your peak?
- 4) Please elaborate on whether you experience internal satisfaction from the tasks that you perform?
- 5) Please explain whether you enjoy the achievement of your own personal goals at work?
- 6) Explain whether you comply with standards at work for their own sake? (e.g. ethics, fairness, integrity etc.)

D. INTRINSIC REWARDS:

- 1) Explain how you feel 'rewarded' at work.
- 2) Do you experience a sense of development / mastery / growth as you progress in your day-to-day work? (this refers to whether you have been able to improve / get better at your ability to perform your work daily). Elaborate?
- 3) Is this rewarding / motivating to you in your particular job?
- 4) Do you feel that your work has a purpose? (this refers to whether what you do serves something meaningful beyond yourself). If so, explain how your work has a greater meaning and importance?
- 5) Do you feel competent to handle your work activities well? (e.g. you meet your personal standards; you produce high quality work). Elaborate?
- 6) Do you enjoy a level of autonomy (also referred to as freedom / choice / personal control) in the way you work and schedule your activities?
- 7) If yes, is this rewarding / motivating to you in your particular work job? Elaborate?
- 8) Describe whether you experience fulfillment from your tasks and duties? (task significance; variety; interesting or challenging work; etc.)

E. WORK ENGAGEMENT:

- 1) Does your work absorb you? (that is, do you concentrate fully on your work and are deeply engrossed in it). Please explain?
- 2) Are you dedicated to your work? If so, how?
- 3) Does your work energise you? Kindly explain.

F. INTENTION TO QUIT:

- 1) Have you ever considered leaving your organisation? Why or why not? (*ask about pay if not mentioned*)
- 2) If you were to leave the employ of the non-profit sector, what industry / sector / organisation would you prefer to work in? Please explain your answer.

ANNEXURE G:
PHASE 1 – THEMATIC FRAMEWORK

A. Personal demographics

- A1. Gender
- A2. Highest qualification
- A3. Total # years' working experience
- A4. # years' working in current organisation

B. Organisational demographics

- B1. Name of organisation
- B2. Size of organisation
- B3. Primary functions of organisation
- B4. Mission and purpose of organisation
- B5. Non-profit status
- B6. Position at organisation
- B7. Responsibilities at work

C. Intrinsic motivation

- C1. Motivation to begin work at NPO
- C2. Level of motivation over previous six months
- C3. Reasons for being motivated to work at peak
- C4. Internal satisfaction from tasks
- C5. Achievement of own personal goals
- C6. Complying with standards at work

D. Intrinsic rewards

- D1. How rewarded at work
- D2. Development / mastery / growth / progress at work
- D3. Whether development is rewarding / motivating
- D4. Purpose / meaning / importance of work
- D5. Competence to handle work activities
- D6. Autonomy / freedom / choice / control of work schedule
- D7. Whether autonomy is rewarding
- D8. Fulfillment from task significance / variety / challenge

E. Work engagement

- E1. Absorption with work
- E2. Dedication to work
- E3. Energised by work

F. Intention to quit

- F1. Consideration of leaving organisation
- F2. Preferred industry / sector / organisation to work in

ANNEXURE H(1):
PHASE 2 – ENGLISH PILOT E-MAIL SENT TO IOP COLLEAGUES AND
SOUTH AFRICAN NPO EMPLOYEES

Dear (name of IOP colleague / NPO employee),

I would greatly appreciate taking 10 minutes of your time to assist me with my PhD in Commerce (Industrial & Organisational Psychology), which focuses on the motivation and rewarding of non-profit employees.

I am in the process of my second stage of data collection, which involves testing two questionnaires that I have developed: The *Intrinsic Work Motivation Scale*, and the *Intrinsic Work Rewards Scale*. I require qualitative feedback on the content covered by the questionnaires, to ensure that they are relevant to non-profit employees.

I would appreciate if you could examine the questionnaires in the attached document, and then **critically analyse each item**. Please provide me with the following feedback (by making comments/changes in the document where applicable):

1. Do all questions relate to the headings and sub-headings under which they are listed? – please be critical
2. Are all questions understandable, worded correctly, and relevant to the work of NPO employees? Are there any spelling mistakes, typos or grammatical errors?
3. Can you think of any other demographic questions that I should add?
4. **For every sub-heading (factor) that has more than five questions, please highlight FIVE questions that you feel BEST MEASURE that particular factor.**
5. How long would you be willing to spend completing such a PhD questionnaire? (this will be useful for the final stage of my data collection)

I understand that the questionnaires are currently lengthy, but with your invaluable help, they will be refined and shortened. I would greatly appreciate you sending me your feedback by Thursday, 26th June 2014.

Please note, for information purposes:

1. Once the questionnaires are finalised based on this pilot study feedback, they will be converted into electronic format so that respondents can complete them online by means of a Web-based survey tool.
2. For each question, respondents will indicate their response on a 5-point scale (ranging from 1, strongly disagree to 5, strongly agree).
3. Some of the questions have (-) next to them. This implies that they are **negatively phrased** (i.e. responses will be reversed). This prevents respondents from indicating "strongly disagree" or "strongly agree" for every question (known as response bias).
4. All responses will remain completely confidential.

If you have any questions concerning how the questionnaires were developed, I am happy to provide you with this.

Kind regards, Michelle Renard

ANNEXURE H(2):

PHASE 2 – DUTCH PILOT E-MAIL SENT TO BELGIAN NPO EMPLOYEES

Geachte Heer/Mevrouw

Ik zou het zeer op prijs stellen als u 10 minuten van uw kostbare tijd zou kunnen afstaan om mij te assisteren in mijn PhD-onderzoek, dat gericht is op de factoren die voor werknemers in organisaties zonder winstoogmerk motiverend zijn in hun werk.

Ik heb daarvoor twee questionnaires ontwikkeld die ik graag zou willen testen: *De Schaal van Intrinsieke Werkmotivering* en *De Schaal van Intrinsieke Werkbeloning*. Uw ingelichte terugkoppeling ten aanzien van de inhoud die door de vragen gedekt wordt, zou voor mij zeer waardevol zijn.

Ik zou het echt bijzonder waarderen als u de questionnaires in de bijgaande attachment zou kunnen bestuderen en ieder item **kritisch zou kunnen analyseren**. Ik zou u dus willen vragen de volgende aspecten te beoordelen door commentaar en/of wijzigingen aan te brengen waar u dat nodig acht:

1. Zijn alle vragen toepasselijk onder de opschriften en subcategorieën waaronder ze momenteel geplaatst zijn? Wees alstublieft flink kritisch.
2. Zijn alle vragen duidelijk verstaanbaar en relevant voor uw werk? Verander alstublieft wat u nodig acht.
3. **Geef alstublieft bij iedere subcatgorie (factor) met meer dan vijf vragen aan welkeVIJF vragen volgens u de bewuste factor HET BESTE Zouden kunnen METEN.**

Ik ben me er bewust van dat de huidige questionnaire nogal lijk is, maar de bedoeling is om het met uw waardevolle hulp te verfijnen en in te korten. Ik zou zeer dankbaar zijn als ik uw terugkoppeling voor of op vrijdag 27 Junie zou kunnen ontvangen.

Ter informatie nog even het volgende:

1. Nadat de questionnaires met inachtneming van uw terugkoppeling gefinaliseerd zijn, worden ze in elektronisch formaat omgeschakeld zodat ze door de respondenten online kunnen worden voltooid.
2. Bij iedere vraag zullen de respondenten hun antwoorden op een 5-puntschaal (tussen 1 *Totaal niet eens* tot 5 *Volledig mee eens*) aangeven.
3. Sommige vragen hebben een (-) ernaast. Dit duidt aan dat de vraag *negatief geformuleerd* is (m.a.w. de antwoorden zijn omgekeerd). Dit wordt gedaan om te voorkomen dat respondenten alle vragen met “volledig mee eens” of “totaal niet mee eens” beantwoorden (de zg. responsbias).
4. Alle responsen zullen te alle tijden geheel confidentieel blijven.

Indien u enige vragen heeft over hoe de questionnaires opgesteld zijn, zal ik die graag beantwoorden.

Met vriendelijke groeten, Michelle Renard

**ANNEXURE I(1):
PHASE 3 – ENGLISH E-MAIL SENT TO AUSTRALIAN, SOUTH AFRICAN
AND AMERICAN NPO EMPLOYEES**

Dear non-profit employee,

I am conducting an international study that will identify whether paid non-profit employees are rewarded intrinsically by the nature of their work, and how these intrinsic rewards influence their levels of intrinsic motivation, work engagement and intention to quit. This research is being conducted in partnership with the Centre for Positive Organisations at the Ross School of Business, University of Michigan, USA.

I would like to invite you to take part in this research. In order to participate, you will complete an electronic questionnaire that will not take longer than 15 minutes of your time.

Before completing the questionnaire, please read the consent form attached for more information. If you consent to participating, kindly click on the following link in order to begin:

<http://forms.nmmu.ac.za/websurvey/q.asp?sid=1315&k=xbipffosad>

The questionnaire will be available online until the 7th of April 2015; however, I encourage you to complete it at your earliest convenience.

Should you have any queries, please contact me or my supervisor.

Thank you in advance for your valuable participation.

Kind regards,
Michelle Renard

**ANNEXURE I(2):
PHASE 3 – DUTCH E-MAIL SENT TO BELGIAN
NPO EMPLOYEES**

Beste,

Ik ben een internationale studie aan het uitvoeren die zal bepalen of betaalde non profit werknemers intrinsiek worden beloond door de aard van hun werk en hoe deze intrinsieke beloningen hun niveau van intrinsieke motivatie, bevoegenheid en intentie om ontslag te nemen beïnvloeden. Dit onderzoek wordt uitgevoerd in samenwerking met het Centrum voor Positieve Organisaties bij de Ross School of Business, Universiteit van Michigan, VSA.

Ik wil u graag uitnodigen om deel te nemen aan dit onderzoek. Voor deelname zal u een elektronische vragenlijst voltooien die niet langer dan 15 minuten zal duren.

Voordat u de vragenlijst invult, kunt u het Engels toestemmingsformulier lezen voor meer informatie. Als u toestemming geeft tot deelname, klik dan alsjeblieft op de volgende schakel om te beginnen:

<http://forms.nmmu.ac.za/websurvey/q.asp?sid=1402&k=ppxbeebkti>

De vragenlijst zal online beschikbaar zijn tot **7 april 2015**. Mocht u vragen hebben, neem dan contact op met mij of mijn begeleider.

Bij voorbaat dank voor uw waardevolle deelname.

Met vriendelijke groet,
Michelle Renard

ANNEXURE J:

PHASE 3 – CONSENT FORM FOR QUESTIONNAIRE PARTICIPATION

• PO Box 77000 • Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
• Port Elizabeth • 6031 • South Africa • www.nmmu.ac.za



Industrial and Organisational Psychology Department
Business and Economic Sciences Faculty
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU)
Tel. +27 (0)41 504 4675
michelle.renard@nmmu.ac.za

Consent form for participation

An international study on the influence of intrinsic rewards on the retention, work engagement and intrinsic motivation of paid employees in non-profit organisations

You are invited to participate in an international PhD study that will identify whether the nature of your paid work in the non-profit sector is meaningful, challenging, enjoyable, flexible and varied, thus determining the level of intrinsic rewards that you receive from your work. This will be correlated with your levels of intrinsic motivation and work engagement, as well as your intention to leave your organisation.

This study is being conducted cross-culturally, with data being collected in Australia, Belgium, South Africa and the United States of America (USA). This research is being conducted under NMMU's Unit for Positive Organisations, in partnership with the Centre for Positive Organisations at the Ross School of Business, University of Michigan, USA.

Your participation will involve completing an electronic questionnaire that should take you approximately 15 minutes. Participation is completely voluntary, and you may choose to withdraw your participation at any time. All your responses will be treated in a strictly confidential manner and will only be used for the purposes of the research. No personal information will be requested apart from a number of demographic questions, which are required purely for statistical purposes. Your name or email address will not be linked to the questionnaire. This study has been approved by NMMU's Ethics Committee (ethics clearance number H13-BES-IOP-026).

Should you consent to participating, kindly click on the following link to begin the questionnaire:

<http://forms.nmmu.ac.za/websurvey/q.asp?sid=1315&k=xbipffosad>

Should you have any queries or desire feedback when the final research report is compiled, please contact the researcher or her supervisor using the details below.

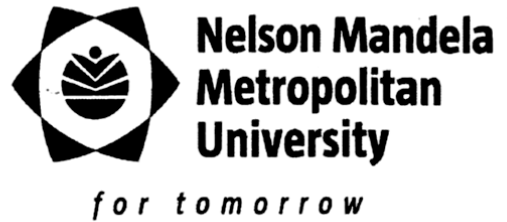
Thank you in advance for your valuable participation.

Kind regards,

Michelle Renard
PhD student
Lecturer: Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
michelle.renard@nmmu.ac.za

Prof Rob Snelgar
PhD supervisor
Head of Department: Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
robin.snelgar@nmmu.ac.za

ANNEXURE K:
ETHICS CLEARANCE FROM NMMU



Ref: H13-BES-IOP-026[Approved]

**Chairperson: Faculty RTI Committee
Faculty of Business and Economics Sciences
Tel. +27 (0)41 504 2906**

15 August 2013

Prof R Snelgar
NMMU
Industrial and Organisational Psychology
Main Building
South Campus

Dear Prof Snelgar

PROJECT PROPOSAL: An international study on the influence of intrinsic rewards on the retention, work engagement and intrinsic motivation of employees in non-profit organisation (PhD: Industrial and Organisational Psychology)

PRP: Prof R Snelgar
PI: Ms M Renard

Your above-entitled application for ethics approval served at Fac RTI.

We take pleasure in informing you that the application was approved by the Committee.

The ethics clearance reference number is **H13-BES-IOP-026**, and is valid for three years. Please inform the Fac RTI Committee, via the faculty representative, if any changes (particularly in the methodology) occur during this time.

Yours sincerely

**Dr C Rootman
Faculty of Business and Economic Sciences**

**ANNEXURE L:
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION TABLES**

Table L.1: Frequency distribution intervals

	F1, F2, F4	F3
Very Negative	1.0 – 1.7	0.0 – 1.1
Negative	1.8 – 2.5	1.2 – 2.3
Neutral	2.6 – 3.4	2.4 – 3.6
Positive	3.5 – 4.2	3.7 – 4.8
Very Positive	4.3 – 5.0	4.9 – 6.0

Table L.2: Frequency Distributions: Factor Scores – Total Sample (n=587)

	Very Negative		Negative		Neutral		Positive		Very Positive	
F1.M	1	0%	4	1%	49	8%	235	40%	298	51%
F1.F	12	2%	23	4%	75	13%	216	37%	261	44%
F1.C	4	1%	18	3%	79	13%	182	31%	304	52%
F1.V	2	0%	4	1%	56	10%	143	24%	382	65%
F1.E	4	1%	33	6%	64	11%	253	43%	233	40%
F1.T	0	0%	9	2%	46	8%	254	43%	278	47%
F2.C	3	1%	16	3%	65	11%	245	42%	258	44%
F2.D	0	0%	12	2%	88	15%	209	36%	278	47%
F2.P	0	0%	3	1%	27	5%	123	21%	434	74%
F2.T	0	0%	1	0%	42	7%	226	39%	318	54%
F3.A	1	0%	26	4%	121	21%	288	49%	151	26%
F3.D	1	0%	12	2%	75	13%	215	37%	284	48%
F3.V	2	0%	12	2%	109	19%	280	48%	184	31%
F3.T	1	0%	10	2%	100	17%	308	52%	168	29%
F4	282	48%	109	19%	85	14%	46	8%	65	11%

Table L.3: Frequency Distributions: Factor Scores – Australia (n=150)

	Very Negative		Negative		Neutral		Positive		Very Positive	
F1.M	0	0%	1	1%	12	8%	67	45%	70	47%
F1.F	1	1%	6	4%	21	14%	56	37%	66	44%
F1.C	3	2%	4	3%	24	16%	41	27%	78	52%
F1.V	1	1%	1	1%	11	7%	40	27%	97	65%
F1.E	1	1%	9	6%	20	13%	66	44%	54	36%
F1.T	0	0%	1	1%	16	11%	68	45%	65	43%
F2.C	1	1%	3	2%	20	13%	67	45%	59	39%
F2.D	0	0%	3	2%	31	21%	65	43%	51	34%
F2.P	0	0%	2	1%	6	4%	31	21%	111	74%
F2.T	0	0%	0	0%	10	7%	71	47%	69	46%
F3.A	0	0%	4	3%	27	18%	93	62%	26	17%
F3.D	1	1%	1	1%	20	13%	64	43%	64	43%
F3.V	1	1%	1	1%	32	21%	74	49%	42	28%
F3.T	1	1%	0	0%	25	17%	94	63%	30	20%
F4	80	53%	27	18%	19	13%	13	9%	11	7%

Table L.4: Frequency Distributions: Factor Scores – Belgium (n=101)

	Very Negative		Negative		Neutral		Positive		Very Positive	
F1.M	0	0%	1	1%	10	10%	60	59%	32	30%
F1.F	0	0%	2	2%	10	10%	40	40%	49	49%
F1.C	0	0%	5	5%	11	11%	53	52%	32	32%
F1.V	0	0%	0	0%	8	8%	31	31%	62	61%
F1.E	0	0%	4	4%	7	7%	55	54%	35	35%
F1.T	0	0%	1	1%	6	6%	58	57%	36	36%
F2.C	0	0%	3	3%	11	11%	63	62%	24	24%
F2.D	0	0%	1	1%	30	30%	46	46%	24	24%
F2.P	0	0%	1	1%	10	10%	38	38%	52	51%
F2.T	0	0%	0	0%	11	11%	61	60%	29	29%
F3.A	0	0%	10	10%	30	30%	47	47%	14	14%
F3.D	0	0%	4	4%	14	14%	45	45%	38	38%
F3.V	0	0%	6	6%	23	23%	55	54%	17	17%
F3.T	0	0%	5	5%	23	23%	62	61%	11	11%
F4	51	50%	20	20%	14	14%	10	10%	6	6%

Table L.5: Frequency Distributions: Factor Scores – SA (n=192)

	Very Negative		Negative		Neutral		Positive		Very Positive	
F1.M	1	1%	1	1%	10	5%	55	29%	125	65%
F1.F	8	4%	8	4%	24	13%	65	34%	87	45%
F1.C	0	0%	6	3%	17	9%	53	28%	116	60%
F1.V	1	1%	3	2%	22	11%	38	20%	128	67%
F1.E	2	1%	7	4%	21	11%	70	36%	92	48%
F1.T	0	0%	4	2%	10	5%	65	34%	113	59%
F2.C	1	1%	4	2%	12	6%	60	31%	115	60%
F2.D	0	0%	1	1%	12	6%	50	26%	129	67%
F2.P	0	0%	0	0%	4	2%	25	13%	163	85%
F2.T	0	0%	0	0%	6	3%	44	23%	142	74%
F3.A	1	1%	1	1%	26	14%	85	44%	79	41%
F3.D	0	0%	1	1%	14	7%	56	29%	121	63%
F3.V	0	0%	2	1%	22	11%	81	42%	87	45%
F3.T	0	0%	1	1%	19	10%	83	43%	89	46%
F4	89	46%	31	16%	31	16%	13	7%	28	15%

Table L.6: Frequency Distributions: Factor Scores – USA (n=144)

	Very Negative		Negative		Neutral		Positive		Very Positive	
F1.M	0	0%	1	1%	17	12%	53	37%	73	51%
F1.F	3	2%	7	5%	20	14%	55	38%	59	41%
F1.C	1	1%	3	2%	27	19%	35	24%	78	54%
F1.V	0	0%	0	0%	15	10%	34	24%	95	66%
F1.E	1	1%	13	9%	16	11%	62	43%	52	36%
F1.T	0	0%	3	2%	14	10%	63	44%	64	44%
F2.C	1	1%	6	4%	22	15%	55	38%	60	42%
F2.D	0	0%	7	5%	15	10%	48	33%	74	51%
F2.P	0	0%	0	0%	7	5%	29	20%	108	75%
F2.T	0	0%	1	1%	15	10%	50	35%	78	54%
F3.A	0	0%	11	8%	38	26%	63	44%	32	22%
F3.D	0	0%	6	4%	27	19%	50	35%	61	42%
F3.V	1	1%	3	2%	32	22%	70	49%	38	26%
F3.T	0	0%	4	3%	33	23%	69	48%	38	26%
F4	62	43%	31	22%	21	15%	10	7%	20	14%

**ANNEXURE M:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR ANOVA FACTORS**

Table M.1.: Descriptive Statistics: F1.M by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	4.19	0.55	0.03	4.13	4.24
Gender	Male	101	28%	4.30	0.53	0.05	4.20	4.41
	Female	261	72%	4.14	0.55	0.03	4.08	4.21
Age	18-27	47	13%	3.91	0.65	0.10	3.72	4.10
	28-37	98	27%	4.15	0.51	0.05	4.05	4.25
	38-47	96	27%	4.27	0.53	0.05	4.16	4.38
	48-57	69	19%	4.25	0.56	0.07	4.11	4.38
	58+	52	14%	4.29	0.45	0.06	4.16	4.41
Country	Australia	85	23%	4.14	0.50	0.05	4.03	4.25
	Belgium	84	23%	4.04	0.42	0.05	3.95	4.13
	SA	91	25%	4.36	0.59	0.06	4.23	4.48
	USA	102	28%	4.20	0.60	0.06	4.08	4.32
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	4.19	0.53	0.04	4.10	4.28
	Postgraduate	221	61%	4.19	0.56	0.04	4.11	4.26
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	4.20	0.58	0.04	4.12	4.28
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	4.10	0.45	0.07	3.96	4.23
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	4.32	0.40	0.07	4.18	4.45
	Never married	77	21%	4.14	0.57	0.07	4.01	4.27
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	4.19	0.60	0.06	4.07	4.32
	Health Care	84	23%	4.08	0.51	0.06	3.97	4.19
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	4.24	0.53	0.04	4.16	4.31
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	4.32	0.49	0.03	4.25	4.38
	Professional	135	37%	4.05	0.58	0.05	3.95	4.15
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	3.92	0.53	0.10	3.70	4.13

Table M.2: Descriptive Statistics: F1.F by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	3.95	0.70	0.04	3.88	4.02
Gender	Male	101	28%	4.03	0.62	0.06	3.91	4.15
	Female	261	72%	3.92	0.73	0.05	3.83	4.01
Age	18-27	47	13%	3.71	0.87	0.13	3.45	3.96
	28-37	98	27%	4.01	0.52	0.05	3.91	4.12
	38-47	96	27%	3.91	0.85	0.09	3.74	4.09
	48-57	69	19%	3.98	0.60	0.07	3.84	4.13
	58+	52	14%	4.09	0.62	0.09	3.92	4.26
Country	Australia	85	23%	3.90	0.72	0.08	3.75	4.05
	Belgium	84	23%	4.12	0.55	0.06	4.00	4.24
	SA	91	25%	3.93	0.76	0.08	3.77	4.09
	USA	102	28%	3.88	0.74	0.07	3.73	4.02
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	3.93	0.69	0.06	3.81	4.04
	Postgraduate	221	61%	3.97	0.71	0.05	3.88	4.06
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	3.99	0.71	0.05	3.89	4.09
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	3.93	0.67	0.10	3.73	4.14
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	4.00	0.62	0.10	3.79	4.21
	Never married	77	21%	3.84	0.74	0.08	3.67	4.01
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	3.94	0.68	0.07	3.80	4.08
	Health Care	84	23%	3.85	0.78	0.09	3.68	4.02
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	4.01	0.67	0.05	3.91	4.11
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	4.07	0.62	0.04	3.99	4.16
	Professional	135	37%	3.85	0.80	0.07	3.72	3.99
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	3.54	0.54	0.11	3.32	3.76

Table M.3: Descriptive Statistics: F1.C by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	4.12	0.64	0.03	4.05	4.18
Gender	Male	101	28%	4.21	0.62	0.06	4.09	4.33
	Female	261	72%	4.08	0.64	0.04	4.01	4.16
Age	18-27	47	13%	3.99	0.74	0.11	3.77	4.21
	28-37	98	27%	4.10	0.62	0.06	3.98	4.23
	38-47	96	27%	4.14	0.70	0.07	4.00	4.28
	48-57	69	19%	4.14	0.54	0.06	4.01	4.27
	58+	52	14%	4.20	0.54	0.07	4.05	4.35
Country	Australia	85	23%	4.05	0.62	0.07	3.91	4.18
	Belgium	84	23%	4.03	0.49	0.05	3.92	4.13
	SA	91	25%	4.28	0.59	0.06	4.16	4.41
	USA	102	28%	4.11	0.76	0.07	3.96	4.26
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	4.06	0.67	0.06	3.95	4.17
	Postgraduate	221	61%	4.16	0.61	0.04	4.08	4.24
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	4.11	0.66	0.05	4.02	4.20
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	4.02	0.58	0.09	3.85	4.20
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	4.19	0.58	0.10	3.99	4.38
	Never married	77	21%	4.16	0.62	0.07	4.02	4.30
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	4.18	0.59	0.06	4.06	4.30
	Health Care	84	23%	3.99	0.71	0.08	3.84	4.15
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	4.14	0.62	0.05	4.05	4.23
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	4.27	0.58	0.04	4.19	4.35
	Professional	135	37%	3.99	0.65	0.06	3.88	4.10
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	3.65	0.58	0.11	3.42	3.89

Table M.4: Descriptive Statistics: F1.V by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	4.34	0.57	0.03	4.28	4.40
Gender	Male	101	28%	4.41	0.51	0.05	4.31	4.51
	Female	261	72%	4.31	0.58	0.04	4.24	4.38
Age	18-27	47	13%	4.13	0.62	0.09	3.94	4.31
	28-37	98	27%	4.29	0.58	0.06	4.17	4.41
	38-47	96	27%	4.35	0.55	0.06	4.24	4.47
	48-57	69	19%	4.38	0.51	0.06	4.26	4.51
	58+	52	14%	4.53	0.50	0.07	4.39	4.67
Country	Australia	85	23%	4.25	0.56	0.06	4.13	4.37
	Belgium	84	23%	4.31	0.43	0.05	4.21	4.40
	SA	91	25%	4.42	0.66	0.07	4.28	4.56
	USA	102	28%	4.37	0.56	0.06	4.26	4.48
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	4.26	0.66	0.06	4.15	4.37
	Postgraduate	221	61%	4.39	0.49	0.03	4.32	4.45
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	4.32	0.59	0.04	4.24	4.41
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	4.30	0.48	0.07	4.16	4.44
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	4.58	0.40	0.07	4.44	4.71
	Never married	77	21%	4.29	0.58	0.07	4.16	4.42
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	4.39	0.61	0.06	4.27	4.51
	Health Care	84	23%	4.27	0.60	0.07	4.14	4.40
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	4.34	0.53	0.04	4.27	4.42
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	4.49	0.49	0.03	4.42	4.55
	Professional	135	37%	4.20	0.61	0.05	4.09	4.30
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	3.93	0.50	0.10	3.73	4.13

Table M.5: Descriptive Statistics: F1.E by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	3.86	0.75	0.04	3.78	3.94
Gender	Male	101	28%	3.92	0.72	0.07	3.78	4.07
	Female	261	72%	3.84	0.77	0.05	3.74	3.93
Age	18-27	47	13%	3.62	0.84	0.12	3.37	3.86
	28-37	98	27%	3.84	0.70	0.07	3.70	3.99
	38-47	96	27%	3.92	0.83	0.08	3.75	4.09
	48-57	69	19%	3.98	0.64	0.08	3.82	4.13
	58+	52	14%	3.85	0.73	0.10	3.65	4.06
Country	Australia	85	23%	3.73	0.74	0.08	3.57	3.89
	Belgium	84	23%	3.97	0.56	0.06	3.85	4.09
	SA	91	25%	3.97	0.77	0.08	3.81	4.13
	USA	102	28%	3.78	0.86	0.09	3.61	3.95
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	3.84	0.78	0.07	3.71	3.97
	Postgraduate	221	61%	3.88	0.74	0.05	3.78	3.97
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	3.88	0.76	0.05	3.78	3.99
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	3.72	0.69	0.10	3.51	3.93
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	3.97	0.73	0.12	3.73	4.22
	Never married	77	21%	3.84	0.78	0.09	3.66	4.02
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	3.83	0.75	0.08	3.68	3.98
	Health Care	84	23%	3.71	0.84	0.09	3.53	3.89
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	3.95	0.70	0.05	3.85	4.05
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	3.96	0.74	0.05	3.86	4.07
	Professional	135	37%	3.77	0.77	0.07	3.64	3.90
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	3.55	0.65	0.13	3.28	3.81

Table M.6: Descriptive Statistics: F1.T by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	4.09	0.53	0.03	4.04	4.15
Gender	Male	101	28%	4.18	0.49	0.05	4.08	4.27
	Female	261	72%	4.06	0.54	0.03	3.99	4.12
Age	18-27	47	13%	3.87	0.62	0.09	3.69	4.05
	28-37	98	27%	4.08	0.46	0.05	3.99	4.17
	38-47	96	27%	4.12	0.60	0.06	4.00	4.24
	48-57	69	19%	4.15	0.46	0.05	4.04	4.26
	58+	52	14%	4.19	0.46	0.06	4.07	4.32
Country	Australia	85	23%	4.01	0.52	0.06	3.90	4.13
	Belgium	84	23%	4.09	0.39	0.04	4.01	4.18
	SA	91	25%	4.19	0.55	0.06	4.08	4.31
	USA	102	28%	4.07	0.60	0.06	3.95	4.19
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	4.05	0.54	0.05	3.96	4.15
	Postgraduate	221	61%	4.12	0.52	0.03	4.05	4.18
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	4.10	0.55	0.04	4.03	4.18
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	4.01	0.48	0.07	3.87	4.16
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	4.21	0.42	0.07	4.07	4.35
	Never married	77	21%	4.05	0.52	0.06	3.94	4.17
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	4.11	0.52	0.05	4.00	4.21
	Health Care	84	23%	3.98	0.58	0.06	3.85	4.11
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	4.14	0.50	0.04	4.06	4.21
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	4.22	0.48	0.03	4.15	4.29
	Professional	135	37%	3.97	0.55	0.05	3.88	4.07
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	3.72	0.42	0.08	3.55	3.89

Table M.7: Descriptive Statistics: F2.C by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	3.95	0.66	0.03	3.88	4.02
Gender	Male	101	28%	4.02	0.64	0.06	3.90	4.15
	Female	261	72%	3.92	0.66	0.04	3.84	4.00
Age	18-27	47	13%	3.82	0.70	0.10	3.61	4.02
	28-37	98	27%	3.90	0.62	0.06	3.77	4.02
	38-47	96	27%	4.00	0.74	0.08	3.85	4.14
	48-57	69	19%	4.02	0.61	0.07	3.88	4.17
	58+	52	14%	3.98	0.58	0.08	3.82	4.14
Country	Australia	85	23%	3.85	0.58	0.06	3.73	3.98
	Belgium	84	23%	3.76	0.54	0.06	3.64	3.87
	SA	91	25%	4.24	0.62	0.07	4.11	4.37
	USA	102	28%	3.93	0.75	0.07	3.78	4.07
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	3.91	0.67	0.06	3.79	4.02
	Postgraduate	221	61%	3.98	0.65	0.04	3.89	4.06
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	3.94	0.66	0.05	3.85	4.03
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	3.79	0.66	0.10	3.59	3.99
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	3.98	0.62	0.10	3.77	4.18
	Never married	77	21%	4.05	0.67	0.08	3.90	4.20
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	3.97	0.68	0.07	3.83	4.11
	Health Care	84	23%	3.82	0.72	0.08	3.67	3.98
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	4.00	0.61	0.05	3.91	4.08
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	4.11	0.61	0.04	4.03	4.19
	Professional	135	37%	3.76	0.66	0.06	3.64	3.87
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	3.69	0.65	0.13	3.43	3.95

Table M.8: Descriptive Statistics: F2.D by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	4.33	0.56	0.03	4.27	4.39
Gender	Male	101	28%	4.32	0.58	0.06	4.21	4.43
	Female	261	72%	4.33	0.55	0.03	4.26	4.40
Age	18-27	47	13%	4.33	0.64	0.09	4.14	4.51
	28-37	98	27%	4.30	0.54	0.05	4.19	4.41
	38-47	96	27%	4.40	0.54	0.06	4.29	4.51
	48-57	69	19%	4.30	0.56	0.07	4.17	4.43
	58+	52	14%	4.29	0.56	0.08	4.13	4.44
Country	Australia	85	23%	4.26	0.51	0.06	4.15	4.37
	Belgium	84	23%	4.10	0.48	0.05	3.99	4.20
	SA	91	25%	4.55	0.51	0.05	4.44	4.66
	USA	102	28%	4.38	0.62	0.06	4.25	4.50
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	4.32	0.58	0.05	4.22	4.41
	Postgraduate	221	61%	4.33	0.55	0.04	4.26	4.41
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	4.30	0.59	0.04	4.22	4.39
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	4.22	0.56	0.08	4.05	4.39
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	4.35	0.47	0.08	4.19	4.51
	Never married	77	21%	4.44	0.50	0.06	4.33	4.56
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	4.38	0.57	0.06	4.26	4.49
	Health Care	84	23%	4.30	0.57	0.06	4.18	4.43
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	4.31	0.55	0.04	4.23	4.39
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	4.42	0.51	0.04	4.35	4.49
	Professional	135	37%	4.19	0.61	0.05	4.09	4.30
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	4.33	0.52	0.10	4.12	4.55

Table M.9: Descriptive Statistics: F2.P by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	4.30	0.53	0.03	4.25	4.36
Gender	Male	101	28%	4.30	0.56	0.06	4.19	4.41
	Female	261	72%	4.30	0.52	0.03	4.24	4.37
Age	18-27	47	13%	4.14	0.67	0.10	3.94	4.34
	28-37	98	27%	4.29	0.54	0.05	4.18	4.40
	38-47	96	27%	4.37	0.53	0.05	4.26	4.47
	48-57	69	19%	4.32	0.48	0.06	4.20	4.43
	58+	52	14%	4.33	0.41	0.06	4.22	4.44
Country	Australia	85	23%	4.25	0.50	0.05	4.14	4.36
	Belgium	84	23%	4.09	0.52	0.06	3.98	4.21
	SA	91	25%	4.53	0.42	0.04	4.44	4.62
	USA	102	28%	4.31	0.57	0.06	4.20	4.43
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	4.26	0.59	0.05	4.17	4.36
	Postgraduate	221	61%	4.33	0.49	0.03	4.26	4.39
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	4.29	0.53	0.04	4.21	4.36
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	4.20	0.57	0.09	4.03	4.37
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	4.37	0.45	0.08	4.22	4.53
	Never married	77	21%	4.37	0.54	0.06	4.25	4.49
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	4.36	0.47	0.05	4.26	4.45
	Health Care	84	23%	4.22	0.56	0.06	4.09	4.34
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	4.31	0.54	0.04	4.23	4.39
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	4.42	0.45	0.03	4.36	4.49
	Professional	135	37%	4.13	0.61	0.05	4.03	4.24
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	4.25	0.47	0.09	4.06	4.43

Table M.10: Descriptive Statistics: F2.T by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	4.19	0.51	0.03	4.14	4.25
Gender	Male	101	28%	4.21	0.53	0.05	4.11	4.32
	Female	261	72%	4.19	0.51	0.03	4.12	4.25
Age	18-27	47	13%	4.09	0.59	0.09	3.92	4.27
	28-37	98	27%	4.16	0.50	0.05	4.06	4.26
	38-47	96	27%	4.25	0.55	0.06	4.14	4.37
	48-57	69	19%	4.21	0.49	0.06	4.10	4.33
	58+	52	14%	4.20	0.43	0.06	4.08	4.32
Country	Australia	85	23%	4.12	0.45	0.05	4.03	4.22
	Belgium	84	23%	3.98	0.47	0.05	3.88	4.08
	SA	91	25%	4.44	0.45	0.05	4.35	4.53
	USA	102	28%	4.21	0.57	0.06	4.09	4.32
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	4.16	0.55	0.05	4.07	4.25
	Postgraduate	221	61%	4.21	0.49	0.03	4.15	4.28
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	4.18	0.52	0.04	4.10	4.25
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	4.07	0.53	0.08	3.91	4.23
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	4.23	0.46	0.08	4.08	4.39
	Never married	77	21%	4.29	0.49	0.06	4.17	4.40
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	4.23	0.50	0.05	4.13	4.34
	Health Care	84	23%	4.11	0.55	0.06	3.99	4.23
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	4.21	0.50	0.04	4.13	4.28
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	4.32	0.45	0.03	4.25	4.38
	Professional	135	37%	4.03	0.56	0.05	3.93	4.12
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	4.09	0.47	0.09	3.90	4.28

Table M.11: Descriptive Statistics: F3.A by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	4.00	0.92	0.05	3.91	4.10
Gender	Male	101	28%	4.05	0.92	0.09	3.87	4.23
	Female	261	72%	3.98	0.92	0.06	3.87	4.09
Age	18-27	47	13%	3.63	0.97	0.14	3.35	3.92
	28-37	98	27%	3.80	0.89	0.09	3.62	3.97
	38-47	96	27%	4.14	0.93	0.09	3.95	4.33
	48-57	69	19%	4.27	0.75	0.09	4.09	4.45
	58+	52	14%	4.11	0.93	0.13	3.85	4.37
Country	Australia	85	23%	4.01	0.79	0.09	3.84	4.18
	Belgium	84	23%	3.65	0.93	0.10	3.45	3.85
	SA	91	25%	4.44	0.82	0.09	4.27	4.61
	USA	102	28%	3.89	0.95	0.09	3.70	4.07
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	3.93	0.93	0.08	3.78	4.09
	Postgraduate	221	61%	4.04	0.91	0.06	3.92	4.16
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	4.04	0.94	0.07	3.91	4.17
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	3.74	0.96	0.14	3.45	4.02
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	4.16	0.89	0.15	3.86	4.46
	Never married	77	21%	3.98	0.82	0.09	3.79	4.16
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	4.04	0.84	0.09	3.87	4.21
	Health Care	84	23%	3.88	0.94	0.10	3.67	4.08
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	4.04	0.95	0.07	3.90	4.18
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	4.25	0.85	0.06	4.13	4.36
	Professional	135	37%	3.69	0.91	0.08	3.53	3.85
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	3.74	0.93	0.18	3.36	4.11

Table M.12: Descriptive Statistics: F3.D by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	4.44	0.92	0.05	4.35	4.54
Gender	Male	101	28%	4.58	1.01	0.10	4.38	4.78
	Female	261	72%	4.39	0.88	0.05	4.29	4.50
Age	18-27	47	13%	4.07	1.04	0.15	3.77	4.38
	28-37	98	27%	4.33	0.88	0.09	4.15	4.50
	38-47	96	27%	4.52	0.96	0.10	4.33	4.72
	48-57	69	19%	4.67	0.81	0.10	4.47	4.86
	58+	52	14%	4.57	0.86	0.12	4.33	4.80
Country	Australia	85	23%	4.41	0.82	0.09	4.23	4.58
	Belgium	84	23%	4.23	0.92	0.10	4.03	4.43
	SA	91	25%	4.82	0.81	0.09	4.65	4.99
	USA	102	28%	4.32	1.00	0.10	4.12	4.52
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	4.43	0.92	0.08	4.28	4.58
	Postgraduate	221	61%	4.45	0.92	0.06	4.33	4.58
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	4.49	0.93	0.07	4.36	4.62
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	4.22	0.93	0.14	3.94	4.50
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	4.59	0.95	0.16	4.27	4.91
	Never married	77	21%	4.40	0.87	0.10	4.20	4.59
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	4.43	0.81	0.08	4.27	4.60
	Health Care	84	23%	4.33	0.98	0.11	4.12	4.54
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	4.50	0.95	0.07	4.37	4.64
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	4.67	0.87	0.06	4.54	4.79
	Professional	135	37%	4.21	0.90	0.08	4.05	4.36
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	3.98	0.95	0.19	3.59	4.36

Table M.13: Descriptive Statistics: F3.V by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	4.19	0.86	0.05	4.10	4.28
Gender	Male	101	28%	4.37	0.84	0.08	4.20	4.54
	Female	261	72%	4.12	0.86	0.05	4.01	4.22
Age	18-27	47	13%	3.72	0.86	0.13	3.47	3.98
	28-37	98	27%	4.02	0.85	0.09	3.85	4.19
	38-47	96	27%	4.38	0.90	0.09	4.20	4.57
	48-57	69	19%	4.37	0.78	0.09	4.19	4.56
	58+	52	14%	4.33	0.70	0.10	4.13	4.52
Country	Australia	85	23%	4.14	0.87	0.09	3.95	4.33
	Belgium	84	23%	3.93	0.88	0.10	3.74	4.12
	SA	91	25%	4.52	0.80	0.08	4.35	4.68
	USA	102	28%	4.15	0.82	0.08	3.99	4.31
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	4.18	0.86	0.07	4.03	4.32
	Postgraduate	221	61%	4.20	0.87	0.06	4.08	4.31
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	4.26	0.89	0.06	4.14	4.38
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	3.84	0.91	0.14	3.57	4.11
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	4.28	0.79	0.13	4.02	4.55
	Never married	77	21%	4.16	0.74	0.08	3.99	4.33
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	4.20	0.77	0.08	4.05	4.36
	Health Care	84	23%	4.05	0.95	0.10	3.84	4.25
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	4.25	0.86	0.06	4.12	4.37
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	4.44	0.81	0.06	4.32	4.55
	Professional	135	37%	3.89	0.84	0.07	3.75	4.04
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	3.81	0.74	0.15	3.51	4.11

Table M.14: Descriptive Statistics: F3.T by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	4.21	0.83	0.04	4.13	4.30
Gender	Male	101	28%	4.33	0.87	0.09	4.16	4.51
	Female	261	72%	4.17	0.82	0.05	4.07	4.26
Age	18-27	47	13%	3.81	0.88	0.13	3.55	4.07
	28-37	98	27%	4.05	0.80	0.08	3.89	4.21
	38-47	96	27%	4.35	0.87	0.09	4.17	4.52
	48-57	69	19%	4.44	0.71	0.09	4.27	4.61
	58+	52	14%	4.33	0.78	0.11	4.12	4.55
Country	Australia	85	23%	4.19	0.76	0.08	4.02	4.35
	Belgium	84	23%	3.93	0.84	0.09	3.75	4.12
	SA	91	25%	4.59	0.75	0.08	4.44	4.75
	USA	102	28%	4.12	0.85	0.08	3.95	4.29
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	4.18	0.83	0.07	4.04	4.32
	Postgraduate	221	61%	4.23	0.84	0.06	4.12	4.34
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	4.26	0.86	0.06	4.14	4.38
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	3.93	0.88	0.13	3.67	4.20
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	4.34	0.82	0.14	4.07	4.62
	Never married	77	21%	4.18	0.73	0.08	4.01	4.34
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	4.22	0.73	0.07	4.08	4.37
	Health Care	84	23%	4.09	0.90	0.10	3.89	4.28
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	4.26	0.85	0.06	4.14	4.39
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	4.45	0.78	0.06	4.34	4.56
	Professional	135	37%	3.93	0.82	0.07	3.79	4.07
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	3.84	0.74	0.14	3.54	4.14

Table M.15: Descriptive Statistics: F4 by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	2.29	1.23	0.06	2.17	2.42
Gender	Male	101	28%	2.23	1.27	0.13	1.98	2.48
	Female	261	72%	2.32	1.22	0.08	2.17	2.47
Age	18-27	47	13%	2.73	1.44	0.21	2.31	3.15
	28-37	98	27%	2.35	1.14	0.12	2.12	2.58
	38-47	96	27%	2.26	1.18	0.12	2.02	2.50
	48-57	69	19%	2.19	1.19	0.14	1.90	2.47
	58+	52	14%	1.97	1.27	0.18	1.62	2.33
Country	Australia	85	23%	2.16	1.19	0.13	1.90	2.42
	Belgium	84	23%	2.09	1.06	0.12	1.86	2.32
	SA	91	25%	2.51	1.33	0.14	2.23	2.78
	USA	102	28%	2.38	1.28	0.13	2.13	2.63
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	2.38	1.32	0.11	2.16	2.60
	Postgraduate	221	61%	2.24	1.17	0.08	2.08	2.40
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	2.20	1.24	0.09	2.03	2.38
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	2.23	1.02	0.15	1.92	2.54
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	2.62	1.30	0.22	2.18	3.06
	Never married	77	21%	2.41	1.27	0.14	2.12	2.70
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	2.29	1.25	0.13	2.04	2.55
	Health Care	84	23%	2.34	1.24	0.14	2.07	2.61
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	2.27	1.22	0.09	2.09	2.45
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	2.21	1.17	0.08	2.05	2.37
	Professional	135	37%	2.41	1.30	0.11	2.19	2.64
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	2.31	1.33	0.26	1.77	2.85

Table M.16: Descriptive statistics: Salary Satisfaction by Age

Group	All	18-27 years	28-37 years	38-47 years	48-57 years	58+ years
n	587	70	155	140	125	97
Mean	3.07	2.77	3.09	3.06	2.86	3.53
SD	1.28	1.31	1.13	1.31	1.32	1.25
95% CI low	2.96	2.46	2.91	2.84	2.63	3.27
95% CI high	3.17	3.08	3.27	3.28	3.10	3.78

Table M.17: Descriptive statistics: Salary Satisfaction by Marital Status

Group	All	Married	Living with partner	Divorced / separated	Never married
n	578	342	68	57	111
Mean	3.07	3.23	3.00	2.84	2.77
SD	1.27	1.28	1.21	1.24	1.23
95% CI low	2.97	3.09	2.71	2.51	2.53
95% CI high	3.18	3.36	3.29	3.17	3.00

Table M.18: Descriptive statistics: Salary Satisfaction by Non-Profit Category

Group	All	Education & Development	Health Care	Welfare & Humanitarian
n	479	118	123	238
Mean	3.03	3.09	2.97	3.02
SD	1.27	1.27	1.26	1.27
95% CI low	2.91	2.86	2.74	2.86
95% CI high	3.14	3.33	3.19	3.18

Table M.19: Descriptive statistics: Salary Satisfaction by Job Level

Group	All	Managerial / Supervisory	Professional	Administrative / Clerical / Office work
n	558	318	178	62
Mean	3.09	3.20	3.04	2.65
SD	1.26	1.26	1.21	1.37
95% CI low	2.99	3.07	2.87	2.30
95% CI high	3.20	3.34	3.22	2.99

Table M.20: Descriptive Statistics: Salary Satisfaction by ANOVA Factors

Factor	Level	n	Perc.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Std.Error	-95%C.I.	+95%C.I.
Total		362	100%	3.14	1.23	0.06	3.01	3.26
Gender	Male	101	28%	3.46	1.20	0.12	3.22	3.69
	Female	261	72%	3.01	1.23	0.08	2.86	3.16
Age	18-27	47	13%	2.89	1.31	0.19	2.51	3.28
	28-37	98	27%	3.14	1.09	0.11	2.92	3.36
	38-47	96	27%	3.15	1.27	0.13	2.89	3.40
	48-57	69	19%	2.93	1.20	0.14	2.64	3.22
	58+	52	14%	3.60	1.29	0.18	3.24	3.95
Country	Australia	85	23%	3.12	1.11	0.12	2.88	3.36
	Belgium	84	23%	3.27	1.03	0.11	3.05	3.50
	SA	91	25%	3.03	1.32	0.14	2.76	3.31
	USA	102	28%	3.13	1.40	0.14	2.85	3.40
Education2	Bachelor degree	141	39%	2.91	1.27	0.11	2.70	3.13
	Postgraduate	221	61%	3.28	1.19	0.08	3.12	3.43
Marital Status2	Married	204	56%	3.27	1.27	0.09	3.09	3.45
	Living w/ partner	45	12%	2.98	1.18	0.18	2.62	3.33
	Divorced/ separated	36	10%	2.92	1.11	0.18	2.54	3.29
	Never married	77	21%	2.97	1.19	0.14	2.70	3.24
Non-profit category2	Education & Development	96	27%	3.27	1.20	0.12	3.03	3.51
	Health Care	84	23%	3.06	1.23	0.13	2.79	3.33
	Welfare & Humanitarian	182	50%	3.10	1.25	0.09	2.92	3.28
Job Level2	Managerial/ Supervisory	201	56%	3.21	1.27	0.09	3.04	3.39
	Professional	135	37%	3.05	1.17	0.10	2.85	3.25
	Administrative/ Clerical/Office work	26	7%	2.96	1.25	0.24	2.46	3.47