

**A COMPARISON OF EXTRINSIC AND INTRINSIC
MOTIVATORS BETWEEN GERMANY AND SOUTH
AFRICA**

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In accordance with Rule G 4.6.3, I hereby declare that this dissertation submitted by me for the degree Magister Artium (Industrial and Organisational Psychology) at Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University is my independent work and has not been previously submitted by me for assessment at another university or for another qualification.

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ABSTRACT

This thesis explored different perceptions of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in an intercultural context. The main objective of this study was to investigate similarities and differences concerning extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in the workplace between the German and the South African culture by examining individuals with working experience and tertiary education. It provides background information about motivation and a historical overview of previous and current motivational theories as well as cultural influences and differences. In addition, regarding the two cultures the researcher aimed to investigate similarities and differences between other demographics such as gender, age and income. The literature review provides information about extrinsic and intrinsic motivation retrieved from previous research and puts it into an intercultural context. The researcher conducted a quantitative, exploratory study. The data was gathered using an existing research instrument, which was distributed online. The sample comprised 374 respondents. This sample was conducted by a combination of quota and snowball sampling. The obtained data is evaluated and presented in text and table form. The results revealed preferences for intrinsic motivators for the whole sample and higher motivation for the South African part of the sample. Demographic characteristics played a minor role.

KEY WORDS: extrinsic motivators, intrinsic motivators, national culture, motivation in the workplace

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CHAPTER ONE:

RESEARCH ORIENTATION

1.1 Scientific orientation of the research

This study focuses on comparing extrinsic and intrinsic motivators in an international context. In this chapter the background of and motivation for the research, the problem statement and the aims of the research are presented. In addition, the research design, research method and chapter division are given.

1.2 Background of and motivation for the study

Globalisation, technological advancement and rapid change are only some examples which have influenced and changed the working environment in today's organisations (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Consequently, it has become crucial for organisations to identify objectively what employees need and want, and to adjust their strategies accordingly. Sardar, Rehmann and Yousaf (2011) point out that employee engagement needs to be the key focus of the academic and business world to gain competitive advantages over others. In fact, human capital becomes more critical for organisations as it can be regarded as a competitive advantage (Phillips & Gully, 2012). To ensure job satisfaction it is important to know what motivates employees to perform optimally. In addition, motivation influences performance and for that reason has an impact on the productivity of a company (Halepota, 2005).

In the past an organisation concentrated on financial motivators as an incentive for employees. Nowadays a shift has taken place and non-financial rewards such as praise and recognition have become increasingly important, especially in the long term (Zani, Rahim, Junos, Samanol, Ahmad, Mercian, Saad & Ahmad, 2011). Ultimately non-financial motivators are needed, as the offer of financial incentives alone is likely to fail (Prendergast, 2008).

Nawab, Bhatti and Shafi (2011) claim that motivation is the most crucial element of an employee's performance in general. According to Iqbal, Yusaf, Munawar and Naheed (2012), the focus of motivational research should shift to dimensions such as culture and personality as substantial material is available on motivation and performance. Anyim, Chid and Badejo (2012) make the remark that it is crucial to understand that employees and companies are interdependent. The same authors claim that motivation is directly related to one's needs. According to Molander (1996), an organisation requires individuals who strive towards the achievement of a company's goals and have a strong commitment to remain with the organisation in order to operate productively. This kind of dedication and commitment can be created by motivation (Mundhra & Jacob, 2011). A rise in motivation and work commitment leads to an increase in personal and company development as well as more efficiency in the workplace (Ciorbagiu-Naon, 2010).

Academic research focuses mainly on the theoretical characteristics of motivation, but does not take into consideration the differences in the economic development levels of various countries. As it is largely recognised that employee motivation relies on specific organisation activities, both economic and social conditions in a country need to be considered (Vaitkuvienė, Balvociute & Stoskus, 2010).

Up until now management has not come up with an approach to motivation that has been universally accepted. However, more and more institutions are starting individual, variable, performance-related pay. This form tends to reward outstanding performance on an individual basis. Consequently, executives' salaries have increased dramatically in the last couple of years. For this reason, it becomes more and more imperative for employees to succeed in their jobs and show commitment to the organisations they work for (Frey & Osterloh, 2002).

In the context of the above the researcher has conducted a study to compare the importance of extrinsic and intrinsic motivators in different cultural

contexts. The study was carried out in two countries, Germany and South Africa, with different economic levels and cultural backgrounds.

1.3 Problem statement

The above leads one to conclude that the academic world suggests a shift in focus from mainly extrinsic rewards to intrinsic rewards. In the corporate world these views have been mainly ignored. The researcher has tried to build on current findings and, in addition, view them from an inter-cultural perspective. On the one hand, the world grows together and geographic borders seem to matter less than in the past, while on the other hand cultural and social differences influence people's motivation. South Africa and Germany differ in terms of social norms, culture and standard of living. The purpose of this research is to investigate preferences for motivators in an international context. This could be useful for international organisations, when designing, implementing or revising their reward system.

1.4 Definition of key variables

The researcher aims to investigate the similarities and differences between extrinsic and intrinsic motivational factors in different cultural contexts. For this proposal several definitions are provided to clarify the research content.

Halepota (2005, p.15) describes motivation as, "a person's active participation in and commitment to achieving the prescribed results". Robbins and Judge (2011, p.238) define motivation "as the processes that account for an individual's intensity, direction, and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal." Greenberg and Baron (2003) share similar sentiments by defining motivation in three different parts. The first part concentrates on encouragement that deals with the ambition, or vitality driving an individual's activities. Possible examples are the importance of making a good impression on others, occupying attractive jobs and feeling fulfilled in what they do. The second part refers to the decisions people make and the focus of their behaviour. The last part deals with what individuals endure to reach their

objectives.

It is important to understand motivation in the context of organisational behaviour. Often a relationship between motivation and rewards is presumed. For this reason the researcher has provided the definition of rewards as follows: “the return to performance for a desired behavior; positive reinforcement and any pleasant event that follows a response and therefore increases the likelihood of response recurring in the future” (Free dictionary, 2013, p.1).

Extrinsic motivation is defined by the Business Dictionary I (2013, p.1) as a “drive to action that (as opposed to intrinsic motivation) springs from outside influences instead of from one's own feelings“. Intrinsic motivation is described by the same reference, Business Dictionary II (2013, p.1), as “stimulation that drives an individual to adopt or change a behavior for his or her own internal satisfaction or fulfilment. Intrinsic motivation is usually self-applied, and springs from a direct relationship between the individual and the situation”.

Cultural differences are “the variations in the way of life, beliefs, traditions and laws between different countries, religions, societies and people” (Blurtit, 2013, p.1).

1.5 Research questions

1.5.1 Research questions relating to the literature review

- What are the origins of theories of motivation and how do they affect today's research?
- What are the latest discoveries in terms of motivation?
- Do extrinsic and intrinsic motivators complement or hinder each other?
- What are the results of previous research as regards the extrinsic and intrinsic motivators and demographic variables?
- What are the differences of motivators between the cultures of South Africa and Germany?

1.5.2 Research questions relating to the empirical study

- What differences exist between extrinsic and intrinsic motivators?
- Which are more effective, extrinsic or intrinsic motivators?
- What are the differences and similarities between the German and South African cultures in the context of extrinsic and intrinsic motivators in the workplace?
- What kind of factors exist within extrinsic and intrinsic motivators?
- Do gender, age or income, race influence the way in which people choose motivators?
- What correlations exist between motivators and various demographical data?

1.6 Aims of the research

1.6.1 General aim

The general aim of the research can be formulated as follows:

This treatise aims to provide a description of information about extrinsic and intrinsic motivators in an international context, using the example of Germany and South Africa. It further aims to identify factors that contribute to the development and implementation of reward systems in organisational contexts.

1.6.2 Specific aims

The specific aims of the research are as follows:

a. Theoretical aims

- i) Provide sufficient background information of traditional motivation theories.
- ii) Introduce consolidated findings of current research on motivation.
- iii) Compare extrinsic and intrinsic motivators.
- iv) Provide a theoretical foundation for the factor analysis.
- v) Offer an overview and evaluation of the results of an intercultural study of German and South Africans cultures.

b. Empirical aims

- i) Identify differences between extrinsic and intrinsic motivators.
- ii) Investigate the German and the South African cultures in the context of extrinsic and intrinsic motivators in the workplace.
- iii) Point out the differences and similarities between the following: gender, age, managerial status, family status, income, race and industrial field in the context of motivators.
- iv) Discover correlations between motivators and demographic data.

1.7 Paradigmatic perspective of research

The research was conducted in the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology. Industrial and Organisational psychology (also known as *I/O psychology*, *work psychology*, or *personnel psychology*) is the scientific study of employees, workplaces, and organisations. Industrial and organisational psychologists contribute to an organisation's success by improving the performance and wellbeing of its people (Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006). Both the positivistic and phenomenological perspectives form the departure of this research. The positivistic approach assumes knowledge comes from observations of the physical world. An investigator makes inferences based on direct observations or derivatives of the direct observations that are of quantitative nature. Through the phenomenological approach knowledge is actively constructed and comes from examining the internal constructs of people. The investigator relies on outside observational schemes and tries to keep intact the participants' perspectives and attempts to describe the ways that people assign meaning to behaviour (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

1.8 Research design

The research design refers to the outline or plan of the strategy or procedure that will be followed in attempting to answer the research questions (Christensen, Johnson & Turner, 2011).

1.8.1 Research variables

In this research, the independent variables are employee demographics and the dependent variables are the different extrinsic and intrinsic motivators.

1.8.2 Type of research

A quantitative research method is proposed to determine what kinds of relationships exist between individuals and extrinsic and intrinsic motivators in the workplace. The research is conducted as a descriptive study.

1.8.3 Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis is German and South African individuals who have obtained a further education and are employed.

1.8.4 Purpose

As mentioned above this research attempts to explore the differences and similarities between intrinsic and extrinsic motivators in the context of the workplaces in Germany and South Africa. It tries to verify the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: A difference in motivators exists between the South African and German cultures.

Hypothesis 2: Germans are more intrinsically motivated than extrinsically motivated.

Hypothesis 3: Germans are more intrinsically motivated than South Africans.

Hypothesis 4: The correlation between cultures is stronger than the correlation between genders.

Hypothesis 5: The correlation between ages is stronger than the correlation between cultures.

Hypothesis 6: The higher the income, the higher the preference for intrinsic motivation.

1.8.5 Measures to ensure the reliability of the study

With regard to the literature review, the theoretical content is based on the most current sources that are available. Regarding the empirical study, a reliable and valid questionnaire was identified to conduct this study. The sampling method that was used is representative and the analysis of the sample was done using proven statistical techniques.

1.9 Research method

This study is divided into two phases. Phase 1 is the literature review and phase 2 is the empirical study.

Phase 1: Literature review

This study is conducted to ascertain whether a theoretical relationship exists between the particular culture and preferences in motivators.

Phase 2: Empirical study

- ***Population and sample***

In this step the population is identified and the sample extracted. Probability/non-probability sampling is used.

- ***Measuring instrument***

A five-point Likert scale questionnaire (extrinsic and intrinsic motivators) by Cinar, Bektas and Aslan (2011) was used to collect the data.

The data collection instrument was a questionnaire consisting of 24 closed questions measured by Likert's scales. In addition, the researcher asked for eight different kinds of demographics, namely home country, gender, age, marital status, managerial position,

industrial field, annual income and heritage (race). The reliability coefficient of the questionnaire, calculated by "Cronbach's Alpha" and which is 0.88, met the criterion of acceptance. This is a large number which indicates a high reliability.

- ***Data collection***

The data was collected by means of an online questionnaire.

- ***Data analysis***

Various statistical tools were used in order to analyse the data in the following fields:

1. Descriptive statistics: includes the frequency tables, and the calculation of the central indices and distribution indices. In addition means, modes, correlations and coefficient alpha were analysed.

2. Inferential statistics: in testing the research questions, T-test and sign tests were used.

STATISTICA 11.0 and SPSS 9.0 were the programmes, which were utilised to analyse the data.

1.10 Procedure

The procedure of the research was performed as follows (Figure 1.1):



Figure 1.1 Procedure

1.11 Chapter division

The chapters of this study are as follows:

Chapter 1: Scientific orientation of the research

Chapter 2: Literature review

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

Chapter 4: Research results and analysis

Chapter 5: Discussion

Chapter 6: Conclusions, strengths, limitations and recommendations

1.12 Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations of this study involve the following:

1. Informed consent: the participants took part voluntarily. The developer of the research instrument has given the researcher permission to use it.
2. Risk of doing harm: the researcher avoided any actions that might cause harm to the participants.
3. Honesty and trust: the researcher was honest towards the participants and made use of the results for research purposes only.
4. Anonymity: no names were used.

At no point did the researcher come across any conflict situations.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Chapter preview

In this chapter a literature review introduces the reader to the field of motivation. First there is an overview of the most influential motivational theories and then motivation in the workplace is elaborated on. Detailed information about extrinsic and intrinsic motivation is discussed. Afterwards background information is provided about motivation in connection with the factors of the demographics (asked in the empirical research), namely gender, age and (annual) income. In addition, the contradictions found in the literature about extrinsic and intrinsic motivation are looked at. The chapter closes with an account of the research and studies done on the cultures of Germany and South Africa with a summary.

2.2 Introduction of Motivation

Originally the word 'motivation' comes from the Latin word '*movere*', which means 'to move'. Before the development of Human Resource Management roles, personnel were regarded merely as an input in manufacturing goods and providing services. The change in thought was a result of the Hawthorne Studies, which took place from 1924 to 1932 by Professor Elton Mayo, who examined productivity and working conditions (Robbins & Judge, 2011). While investigating the connection between light and productivity, the researchers found that the positive relationships affected productivity more than the environment (Khan, Riaz & Rashid, 2011). Mayo (2003) believed that staff are motivated by financial incentives and are also encouraged by the interest shown in their social requirements at work. He implemented a new mental approach, which involved more effort on the part of organisations as regards their personnel. This included respecting their opinions and appreciating their knowledge, skills and relationships (Sandhya & Kumar, 2011).

Figure 2.1 offers a conceptual model of motivation. In the beginning (A) the individual discovers his needs and attempts to satisfy those needs. The

second stage (B) refers to the individual discovering the sources to fulfil his needs. At the third stage (C) the individual focuses on completing the tasks, which will accomplish his goal. Once the individual has achieved the target (D), different needs or alternatives of those previous needs are set in motion. In this way, the individual will continue to be motivated (Halepota, 2005).



Figure 2.1 Conceptual model of motivation (Maloney, 1986 in Halepota, 2005)

Since the beginning, the motivational research concentrated on two main types of explanations for behaviour: natural desires or ambitions linked to existence and reproduction (for example, hunger, thirst, sex) and extrinsic remunerations or penalties. Both approaches propose that behaviour is driven by the necessity for aspiration to accomplish specific results (for example, a reward, or escaping punishment). Motivation accordingly invigorates and channels behaviour in order to achieve a precise goal (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000).

It is essential to bear in mind that no two human beings are motivated in the same way. However, this concern can be revealed to a certain extent (Ciorbagiu-Naon, 2010; Gom, 2009). Motivation is an arrangement of

procedures that defines the choices, which are based on an individual's actions (Ibironke, Adedokun & Hungbo, 2011). In addition, the motivation of people cannot be viewed as stable. It can differ in terms of maturity, education, experience, ambitions, origin of the individual, grading and retention with the employer (Ciorbagiu-Naon, 2010; Zani et al., 2011). According to Wiley (1997), the strongest motivator is something that individuals acknowledge, but lack (Mundhra & Jacob, 2011). Saleem, Mahmood and Mahmood (2010) view motivation as a driving force that makes people strive according to the best of their ability.

Several definitions of motivation share the following: firstly, motivation is inborn in every individual and only needs to be triggered or stimulated. Secondly, motivation is temporary as someone motivated at one time can become demotivated at another time. Consequently, the motivation of employees must be stimulated, nurtured and developed. Thirdly, the principle of individual motivation in companies is to unite employees' behaviour with that of the organisation. This should guide the employees' thoughts and actions towards the successful accomplishment of the goals of the organisation (Mawoli & Babandako, 2011). However Kerr (1975) claimed already in 1975 that organisations could regularly fall into the trap of rewarding one thing while anticipating something different (Barsky, 2008).

While indirect external factors such as socio-economic shortcomings are easier to discover and to understand, the internal factors such as motivation are much more challenging to describe. Gorman (2010) claims that because the more sophisticated needs are closely connected to culture, any disengagement from culture can obstruct their accomplishment.

2.3 Influence of motivation

Motivation is an element that considerably affects productivity. Nowadays, motivation is an often-discussed subject, which is not always correctly comprehended and is frequently inadequately applied. An awareness and appreciation of motivation theories can assist in generating a motivational

environment, and use of these concepts might be helpful in accomplishing higher productivity (Halepota, 2005).

According to Robbins and Judge (2011), *intensity*, *direction* and *persistence* can be viewed as the three key elements of motivation. In their opinion all these indicators have to be taken into consideration when motivation is explored. The perception of motivation is fairly abstract; various approaches generate diverse outcomes at different stages. No particular approach is able to create and ensure acceptable results all the time (Halepota, 2005). Pink (2009) claims that *authority*, *mastery* and *purpose* are three elements which enable a workforce to be motivated.

2.3.1 Motivational theories – historical background

The early theories of motivation built the foundation for research in motivation. They are Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Theory X and Y, the Two-Factor Theory by Herzberg and McClelland's Theory of Needs (Robbins & Judge, 2011). The earlier theories are classified as content theories, which pinpoint causes or needs connected with motivation. These theories limit the description of motivation to a specific number of factors and only explain how to motivate people under these circumstances (Francesco & Gold, 2005). Despite current research, which has produced new insights into motivation, the early theories are still used in practice by many managers and so form an important base (Udechukwu, 2009). For this reason the author found it imperative to provide an overview of the most important and most influential motivational theories.

2.3.1.1 Content theories

Content theories include Maslow's Theory of Needs, Theory X and Y by McGregor, the Two-factor Theory by Herzberg and McClelland's Theory of Needs.

a) Maslow's Theory of Needs

According to Maslow (1970) an individual's needs are the key motivator that

drives a human being. The same author states that the need can be categorised according the following five levels: physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualisation needs. He developed the hierarchy of needs (see Figure 2.2).

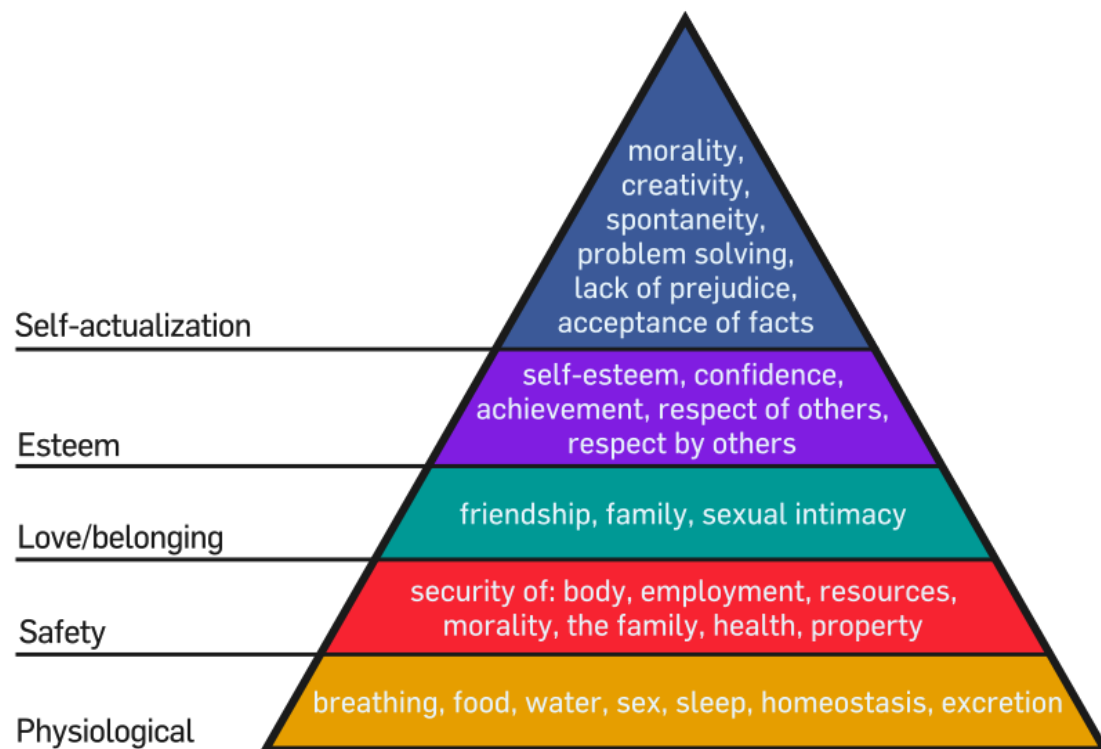


Figure 2.2 Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1970)

The fundamental assumption is that human needs do not need to be satisfied at the same time, but one step after another. An individual simply has a desire to satisfy the needs of a specific level if the level beneath it is already fulfilled. Otherwise the person will be occupied fulfilling the lower level needs (De Brouwer, 2009).

As long as all needs are unfulfilled, individuals are controlled by the physiological needs; this means that all other needs are forced into the background. "Humans live by bread alone only when there is no bread; but, when there is plenty of bread around, then other and higher needs emerge." (Datta, 2008, p.23). Consequently, satisfied needs cannot be regarded as motivators. According to Maslow, once the lower needs are fulfilled, high-

order needs become the motivating force for behaviour (Udechukwu, 2009).

The physiological level involves needs of the body such as consumption of food and liquids, sleeping, breathing, sex, a constant body temperature, and other related factors. In case one of those needs is not satisfied, this need will instantaneously receive the maximum urgency, as the accomplishment of these needs is undeniably essential for existence. The total satisfaction will increase if only a small amount is expended on the lower needs, as the highest fulfilled need level determines the satisfaction level of the individual (De Brouwer, 2009).

Safety needs entail any risk that individuals or their closest family members face. If there is a chance that they will not be satisfied all the time, the fulfilment gets a huge amount of the individual's attention and is more imperative than any other (higher) needs (Udechukwu, 2009). The third level concerns love needs, which involves the need to love and to be loved. A human being focuses on this as soon as physiological and safety needs are accomplished. This necessity is the fundamental driver for the caring of family and children (De Brouwer, 2009).

Esteem needs build the fourth level. These involve the desire for achievement, the confidence to face the world, independence, freedom, the desire for reputation and prestige, recognition, attention, and importance (De Brouwer, 2009). Only after all previous needs have been fulfilled, is the individual interested in thinking about self-actualisation. Self-actualisation is described by Maslow as what an individual is "born to do". Restlessness is a sign of lacking this need. While the signs for the lack of love, hunger or self-esteem are more obvious, it is not always evident what the right need for self-actualisation is (Jelencic, 2011).

Even though Maslow had a tremendous impact on the study of motivation, culturally, economically, physiologically, psychologically and politically, human needs are not adequately represented in Maslow's hierarchical order. One example is hunger. The urge to satisfy hunger is always there irrespective of which level a human being has reached. In contrast, Maslow maintained that

after a need is encountered, it stops being a motivator. In addition, a lot of people might view safety as the primary fundamental need instead of physiological needs (Ifedili & Ifedili, 2012).

b) Theory X and Y (McGregor)

Douglas McGregor formulated the Theory X and Theory Y. He divides personnel into two types. Individuals that associate themselves with the X theory are irresponsible. They try to avoid work as much as possible, because they lack ambition and avoid accountability. For this reason, the X employee has to be pressurised, manipulated with punishments, constantly monitored and disciplined in order to be motivated to go the extra mile in a working environment, which has to accomplish business goals. Employees, who belong in this category, choose to be directed. They attempt to avoid their obligations at every possible occasion, which results in high stress levels in the work place (Sandhya & Kumar, 2011).

According to Theory X, executives should presume that workers are lazy, lack aspiration, prioritise their own needs higher than those of the organisation, neglect changes, and are there to be manipulated. Furthermore, it is the responsibility of the manager to punish them for their mistakes and reward them for their extra efforts (Halepotra, 2005). In summary, Theory X refers to an "authoritarian" management style, where the normal employee does not enjoy working. The mere warning of a penalty makes the individual perform (Sandhya & Kumar, 2011).

In contrast to Theory X, employees in Theory Y believe it is natural to make material and intellectual contributions at work. This means they happily volunteer for various tasks and responsibilities and are motivated by the accompanying rewards. The Y individual does not have to be forced by diverse methods to achieve, as this kind of individual is motivated by actual work. Critics view McGregor's theory as being simplistic, because external and internal factors might often have a decided effect on his work performance (Lefter, Manolescu, Marinas & Puia, 2009). In addition, management is responsible for determining human resources, tools, and

technologies, to accomplish business objectives in Theory Y. In the case of Theory Y, it is assumed that employees are by nature motivated and considerate. Only unfair management decisions can make individuals behave in the manner described in Theory X (Halepotra, 2005). Theory Y falls into the group of participative management style. Personnel in this group aim to accomplish organisational objectives by themselves. They have the internal drive to look for further tasks and to show a self-motivated approach (Sandhya & Kumar, 2011).

c) Two-Factor Theory by Herzberg

Herzberg differentiates between motivational factors and hygiene factors. Hygiene (or extrinsic) factors are elements that help to eliminate job dissatisfaction, or when achieved, present the opportunity for real motivation. They are mostly regarded as being 'external' to the actual work. Motivators (intrinsic elements) elevate job satisfaction, and are usually connected to the work itself, but are not basic hygiene elements. Herzberg argues that only intrinsic factors (for example, challenge of work, personal growth, and importance of contribution) are able to generate high levels of motivation. Extrinsic factors (for example, working conditions, compensation, and company image) do not actually motivate employees according to Herzberg (Worthley, MacNab, Brislin, Ito & Rose, 2009).

Herzberg offers two factors that bring motivation and demotivation in a working environment. He regards motivation as the job enrichment factor, and demotivation as the hygiene factor. Accomplishment, acknowledgement, responsibility, liberty, and improvement are considered as job enrichment factors. Working conditions, policies, administrative efficiency, style of supervision, and relationship between employees are categorised as hygiene factors, which, according to Herzberg, are demotivators (Halepotra, 2005).

Motivators include facets of work itself and like work content, elevation, success, responsibility, and recognition. Hygiene factors replicate the background in which the job itself was executed, incorporating working environment, social relationships, organisational politics and remuneration,

and management (Udechukwu, 2009). Herzberg identified 16 factors and categorised them into ten hygiene factors six motivators (growth, advancement, responsibility, the work itself, recognition and achievement). Note that the motivators do not include pay and benefits – these are hygiene factors. To motivate, a total rewards approach must be taken (World at Work, 2007).

Employees are often frustrated by the context of their work, by the company policy, the management, the surveillance system, the salary, and the working conditions. Herzberg maintains that motivation and the increase of work performance can be achieved only by motivational factors, which straightforwardly can be achieved by the content of the executed work. The circumstantial factors signify only the conditions necessary for the execution of work processes (Lefter et al., 2009). Hygiene factors are usually founded on the aspects of work, which do provide not any satisfaction but assist in avoiding dissatisfaction that could eventuate in their non-existence. These elements can be defined extrinsic to the employee and are for example working conditions, quality supervision, job security, compensation et cetera. Herzberg claimed that lower level factors merely induce dissatisfaction, whereas higher level needs can be viewed as the real motivators (Khan et al., 2011).

Good work conditions (such as possibility of promotion, salary, quality and activity of the managers, et cetera) generally have the possibility to encourage work motivation (Pouchová, 2011). Nevertheless, certain factors have a strong impact on the discouragement of employees. Sandhya and Kumar (2011) claim that hygiene factors are the most significant motivators as they are mainly connected with the concrete work itself. However there are other factors, for example, how motivating the job is and the wide amount of opportunities it offers for additional responsibility, recognition and promotion. Hygiene factors can be defined as elements which 'surround the job' instead of the job itself. Employees often start to work for an employer only when it has provided a fair salary and safety measures in working conditions. However these aspects do not increase the productivity of the individual as

soon as he works at the organisation on a regular basis (Sandhya & Kumar, 2011). This theory was often criticized, particularly because it does not provide any evaluation of the relationship between satisfaction and performance. In addition, some critics claim that Herzberg drew logical conclusions, which are unjustified because they are not based on an acceptable number of interviewees (Lefter et al., 2009).

d) McClelland's Theory of Needs

David McClelland established Mc Clelland's theory of needs. The theory emphasises on three needs, outlined as presented next: *Need for achievement* is the ambition to excel, to achieve objectives in relation to a set of standards and to strive to succeed. *Need for power* is the need to be able to have control over actions from others and to able to influence their behaviour. *Need for affiliation* is the aspiration for pleasant and familiar personal connections (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Successful individuals achieve their goal in the best way when they identify a chance of success as 50 per cent. Comparing the early concepts of motivation, Mc Clelland's theory has achieved the most support from research, and it can offer more useful conclusions than the others (Robbins, Judge, Odendaal & Roodt, 2009).

2.3.1.2 Process theories

Process theories such as Reinforcement Theory, Goal Setting Theory, Expectancy Theory and Equity Theory pay more attention to the activity than to the content (Francesco & Gold, 2005). Process theories help one to understand how behaviour is started, guided, sustained, and stopped (Jalilvand & Ebrahimabadi, 2011). While content theories focus on the particular aspects that motivate the individual in terms of various necessities and ambitions, process theories concentrate on the processes involving those psychological energies that have an influence on motivation (Lefter et al., 2009). Consequently, process theories are more applicable than content theories in describing motivational constructs in intercultural environments (Francesco & Gold, 2005).

Content theories are built on the assumption that motivation starts with the desire to do something and to create expectations (Lefter et al., 2009). According to the same authors, process or cognitive theories are more beneficial to leaders than the content theories. The reason why is that they offer more convincing attitudes.

a) Reinforcement Theory

Reinforcement Theory follows a behaviouristic methodology, which states that reinforcement encourages behaviour. This theory disregards the internal condition of a person and focuses only on what occurs when the individual engages in an activity. It claims that specific forms of behaviour increase in frequency when they generate positive results. He maintained that individuals would be keen to follow a particular pattern of behaviour if they are given encouraging support for this; in addition rewards are very successful if they are closely given after the desired behaviour. While reinforcers, such as salaries, might motivate people, it is obvious that the procedure is much more complex than a reaction to an incentive (Robbins & Judge, 2011).

b) Goal-setting Theory

The Goal-setting Theory is a contrast to the reinforcement theory. The Goal-setting Theory was established by Latham and Locke in 1979. It states that the levels of motivation and performance are increased when an employee is given particular goals (Locke & Latham, 1990). According to the theory, this works even when the goals are difficult to achieve. What is important is that they are accepted and a performance feedback in connection with the objectives is offered (Robbins & Judge, 2011). The human resources specialists play a significant part in determining organisational objectives. However, employees should be part of the process of goal setting as well so that they can approve of and accept the goals. Human resources personnel should assist them in understanding the significance of organisational targets related to their work. In addition, feedback is important as it helps to support the employees' motivation, particularly when aiming for even higher objectives (Lefter et al., 2009).

Rewards can be part of the achievement of a goal. In this case motivation is increased so that the objective can be attained at whatever expense. Barsky (2008) constantly found that individuals, whose rewards were connected to the production of results, were more likely to be involved in deceitful behaviour than persons who were not offered reward targets. Another explanation is that employees view rewards for the achievement of targets as a sign that performance and goal attainment in particular, is acknowledged mainly by superiors. Lastly, rewards have been associated with increased dedication to goals (Lefter et al., 2009). Focused commitment to the main targets allows different thought to surface (for example acting ethically), as specified by the goal shielding theory (Barsky, 2008).

Goal-setting Theory states that goals need to be set reasonably and fairly in order to encourage favourable views and behaviour from employees in the organisation. Accordingly, employees start to show more determination and to realise that interconnected actions must be completed for the purpose of goal accomplishment. It is important that individuals perceive the goals as fair because, if not they can be the reason for demotivation (Zainuddin & Isa, 2011).

c) Expectancy Theory

Expectancy Theory by Victor Vroom in 1964 claims that the determination of individuals accelerates when rewards are proposed (Zani et al., 2011). The theory states that the motivation of an employee relies on the individual's awareness of the ability required to complete a specific work. In addition, remuneration related to the completion of the job, and the importance that the individual places on the reward are further criteria for this theory (Halepotra, 2005). Factors affecting the perception of an employee's expectancy involve self-efficacy, goal difficulty, and perceived control (Jalilvand & Ebrahimabadi, 2011). A key element of the Expectancy Theory is that perception will be stronger if the reward is more valued (Qayyum & Sukirno, 2012). The individual is tempted to engage more in work because this additional effort is associated with the receipt of the reward (Halepotra, 2005).

Individuals arrive at an organisation with their existing principles and expectations. When these are satisfied, they make an effort to accomplish organisational goals, which should result in long-term retention with the company (Khan et al., 2011). Alternatively, if the actual state differs from the desired condition significantly, this can influence the motivation negatively. Consequences might be high levels of staff turnover or efforts by employees to discover different options to meet their expectations (Qayyum & Sukirno, 2012). Rewards can be perceived as both encouraging and destructive. The more positive the given reward is perceived, the more readily motivation is shown and vice versa (Khan et al., 2011).

Expectancy Theory entails three main components: (1) expectancy – the confidence of the individual that effort will result in performance, (2) instrumentality – the belief of an employee that performance will lead to the achievement of certain outcomes, and (3) valence – evaluation by the individual to establish how attractive the outcomes are. Jointly these three aspects calculate an individual's level of motivation. Although expectancy theory has been supported over the years, the researcher would like to mention two major criticisms. Firstly, researchers argue whether to apply an additive or multiplicative model. Secondly, there has been a discussion about the use of “within-subject” versus “between-subjects” methodologies (Radosevich, Levine, Sumner, Knight, Arendt & Johnson, 2009).

d) Equity Theory

The Equity Theory deals with people's perceptions of the way they are treated in comparison with others. Essentially, the theory claims that people are more motivated when they are equally treated and less motivated when there is no equity between personnel. This theory describes one aspect of the motivational process, and is essential on an ethical and a moral level (Lefter et al., 2009).

e) Self-determination Theory

Self-determination Theory presumes that humans have inner tendencies to be intrinsically motivated, to integrate their social and physical worlds, to incorporate external regulations into self-regulations, and, in this way participate in a larger social whole. This is not the only theory, which is based on this assumption. However, peculiar to Self-Determination Theory is the suggestion that these advanced integrative or representing tendencies operate in combination with essential psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Self-determination Theory differentiates between two categories of motivation: self-determined and non-self-determined motivations. While the most common form of self-determined motivation is intrinsic motivation, the least is external regulation as a part of extrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation occurs when behaviour depends directly on the connection between specific behaviour and the desired consequence (approval, reward, punishment, etc.) (Ashkanasy, Härtel & Zerbe, 2012).

Individuals are principally interested in developing themselves and accomplishing goals. They would completely commit to or actively participate actively in unexciting assignments as long as their importance and sense are comprehended. Carrot and stick tactics to raise motivation result in an increased focus on the tangible rewards of work instead of a focus on the importance and the meaning of the work itself. Methods of this kind might generate growth in temporary productivity by controlling the behaviour of the employees. However, this kind of motivation is of poor quality and is limited. In addition, the focus on tangible rewards can demoralise the inherent curiosity in work (Stone, Deci & Ryan, 2009).

Self-determination Theory is an organised and self-directed approach to motivation. This approach defines the extent to which the exterior regulation has been internalised. Internalisation involves assimilating a behavioural guideline and the understanding what motivates it. Complete internalisation

results in autonomous motivation (Mundhra & Jacob, 2011).

The theory suggests that individuals have three natural psychological desires (Figure 2.3) (Mundhra & Jacob, 2011). They are:

- Need for competence: This affects succeeding at optimally challenging tasks and accomplishing expected results.
- Need for autonomy: This involves experiencing decision-making and being able to initiate individual actions.
- Need for relatedness: This deals with creating an awareness of shared respect for and trust with other individuals. These actions are important for progressive psychological development, truthfulness and wellbeing. Fulfilment of these needs will improve intrinsic motivation (Mundhra & Jacob, 2011).

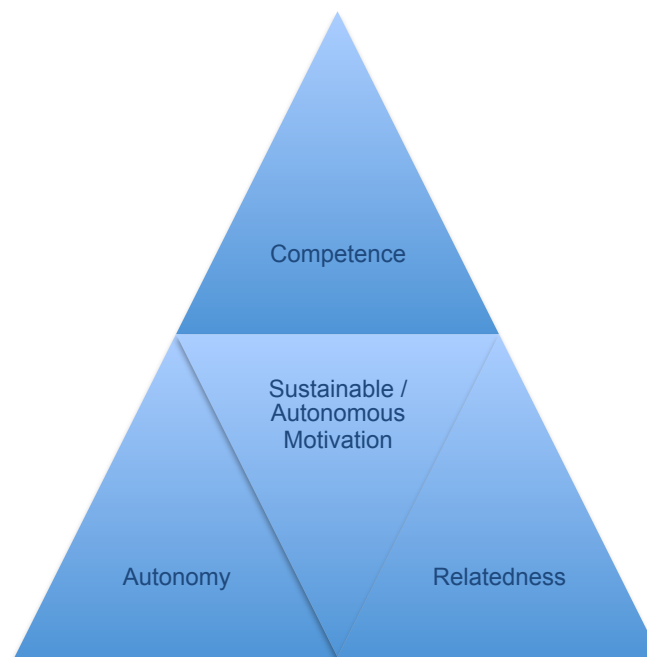


Figure 2.3 Needs of Self-determination Theory (Stone et al., 2009)

Rewards are very often offered for the purpose of making people do what does not happen naturally: for example, working long hours, neglecting

interests and relationships or behaving in a manner meaningless to a person. Situations of this nature should be a cause for concern. However, it turns out that the power of rewards generates an even more serious and longer-lasting problem: by using arbitrary reward contingencies, intrinsic motivation could be destabilised, and the inherent tendencies which form the structural basis for the self-regulation of actions, could be forced to act against their nature. Contingent rewards, which undermine self-regulatory tendencies, lead individuals to ignore their basic needs, and disturb attentiveness and choice, all to the disadvantage of healthy development (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

However as appealing as it sounds, Self-determination Theory has some critics as well: Bandura (1977) claims that intrinsic motivation is a subtle theory and it is not possible to exclude extrinsic influences completely. Furthermore, he questions the methodology. Locke and Latham (1990) share similar sentiments by pointing out that Deci fails to measure the mediating variables, the Self-determination Theory shows no distinction between liking a task for the task itself or liking the feeling of competence, and lastly does not apply to the working environment, where extrinsic motivators exist (Latham, 2007).

The researcher agrees with the fact that intrinsic motivation is an elusive concept, but in the researcher's opinion the need for certain aspects of self-determination such as autonomy, purpose and mastery is real, as the nature of work has generally changed. Successful organisations such as Google, Apple and Zappos prove that these factors work in connection with the present requirements of employees.

f) Cognitive Evaluation Theory

The earlier theories presented so far are well established but, even though they explain motivation comprehensively cannot not be proven reliable or valid (Robbins et al., 2009). Cognitive Evaluation Theory recommends that extrinsic rewards, such as financial remuneration for work diligence (which used to be intrinsically rewarding because of the pleasure associated with the topic of the work itself) cause a decrease in overall motivation. This theory

claims that in the case of extrinsic rewards as remunerations for excellent accomplishments, the intrinsic rewards, resulting from employees' love of work, are diminished. In other words, when extrinsic rewards are given to someone for performing an interesting task, it causes intrinsic interest in the task itself to decline (Robbins et al., 2009).

Deci and Ryan (1980) developed Cognitive Evaluation Theory. Cognitive Evaluation Theory was later integrated into the larger Self-determination Theory. It focuses specifically on reducing those conditions, which prevent intrinsic motivation from improving intrinsic motivation. Generally speaking Cognitive Evaluation Theory claims that actions, which influence an individual's understanding of autonomy or competence negatively, decrease intrinsic motivation. In contrast events, which encourage described autonomy and competence improve intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

For example, when someone is deprived of the ability to control his/her own behaviour, intrinsic motivation weakens. Moreover, the removal of extrinsic rewards might create a shift – from an exterior to an inner explanation – in a person's view on why the individual works at this job. Actually, if Cognitive Evaluation Theory was correct, it would be useful to disconnect individual's pay from performance in order to prevent diminishing intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic rewards which are voiced (for instance, receiving a compliment from an executive or colleague) or tangible (for instance, financial acknowledgement) might have a distinct influence on an individual's intrinsic motivation. In other words, verbal rewards expand intrinsic motivation, while tangible rewards decrease it. When employees are promised a tangible reward, they expect to receive it and for this reason place more emphasis on the reward instead of focusing on the task. Verbal rewards usually encourage individuals to continue concentrating on their actual work. These rewards also help individuals to improve (Robbins et al., 2009).

In the beginning, Cognitive Evaluation Theory takes into consideration whether the reward is verbal or tangible. Verbal rewards (for example positive feedback) are expected to be more informative while tangible rewards are

expected to be more regulatory. In addition, the theory differentiates between whether the tangible rewards have been promised or not because the choice can affect the quality of the work being done. Individuals who expect rewards are more likely to focus on the rewards than on the actual work. Rewards, which are unexpected, do not cause this behaviour. Lastly, Cognitive Evaluation Theory distinguishes between the different types of behaviours on which the expected rewards are made dependent (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

A new development of the Cognitive Evaluation Theory is self-concordance, which explains the extent to which individuals' motives for achieving goals are similar to their concerns and beliefs. For instance, if a person achieves goals of intrinsic interest, this person has a better chance to succeed and is better off even if all of the goals are not accomplished. The reason for this is that the individual might enjoy the process of striving towards them. However, employees who try to accomplish goals for extrinsic reasons (such as remuneration, status, or other benefits) will have a lower smaller of achieving their goals and will feel, even satisfied after accomplishing them. This happens because the goals are not as important to them (Robbins et al., 2009).

In the case of performance-contingent rewards, which are offered when rewards are connected to employees' performance, the control is even greater as people have to achieve at least minimum targets to be able to receive rewards. This can result in an undermining of intrinsic motivation. Conversely, performance-contingent rewards might also have a positive influence especially when they provide competence information indicating outstanding performance (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Cognitive Evaluation Theory maintains that rewards tend to be more controlling if they put pressure on the recipient. This situation leads to less intrinsic motivation. On the other hand, when an interpersonal style is less pressuring, an increase of intrinsic motivation can occur because the rewards are perceived as being more informative. According to Cognitive Evaluation Theory, this expectation affects all rewards involving verbal rewards.

Consequently, when the carrying out of verbal rewards is controlled, the expectation is that intrinsic motivation will be discouraged, whereas informational administered verbal rewards are expected to intensify intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

2.3.1.3 *Learnings from motivational theories*

Human beings are multifaceted and individuals are motivated by different things. However with the help of motivational theories organisations are able to determine what motivates employees and how they think. Motivation is a crucial element for performance enhancement. Positive reinforcement, effective discipline, fair treatment and challenging but realistic goal are some strategies, which might help to close the gap between the real and the anticipated state of the employee. Motivation is a means of diminishing and influencing this difference. Even though some of the motivation theories cannot be scientifically proved, they are relevant because organisations and managers use them in practice (Accel, 2013).

The approach of Self-determination Theory is important for researching motivational theories; even if it sometimes differs from existing motivational strategies. Unfortunately, autonomy, competence, and relationship building in the workplace are not supported in many organisations. The most likely reason is that superiors are often challenged by this approach in their long-held opinions about human motivation (Stone et al., 2009).

Owing to a shift in the business world which has resulted in a limited talent pool and changing economies, human resources professionals need to change their approaches to attract, retain and engage employees. The existing pool of talents can be described as more diverse and mobile and includes a fast growing group of senior workers and pensioners. In addition, more female employees, working parents, dual-income households, single parents, Gen X-ers, and Gen Y-ers can be found on the market. Being successful involves more than concentrating on salaries. The solution is a shift to total rewards. Total rewards are tools available for all organisations. These tools can be utilised to interest and inspire employees, and to make

them stay with the company. World at Work (2007) defines total rewards as the monetary and non-monetary return provided to employees in exchange for their time, talents, efforts, and results. The total reward perspective provides solutions to the question of which elements motivate performance and commitment (World at Work, 2007).

2.3.2 Motivation in the workplace

Resourceful personnel together with extensive and effective performance are the keys to the competitive advancement of an organisation. Consequently, employee motivation can be considered as the central instrument in running the organisation because it encourages skilled, qualified and loyal employees to be retained. For this reason, one of the most essential objectives of local and international organisations needs to be employee motivation (Vaitkuvienė et al., 2010). Managers regularly claim that they are looking for self-motivated employees, a statement which concerns the hypothesis that these individuals will be most productive (Barbuto & Strory, 2011). In addition, attractive work, as a main motivator has to be taken into consideration, because the job itself may be the most important and motivating reward (Ciorbagiu-Naon, 2010).

The factors of motivation are divided into six main groups that are described in Figure 2.4 (Pouchová, 2011). Most of them (Quality of Life, procedures, compensation, opportunities, people and work (to some extent)) are extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation is only mentioned as a part of work. In the researcher's opinion this is the case, because extrinsic motivators are more concrete.

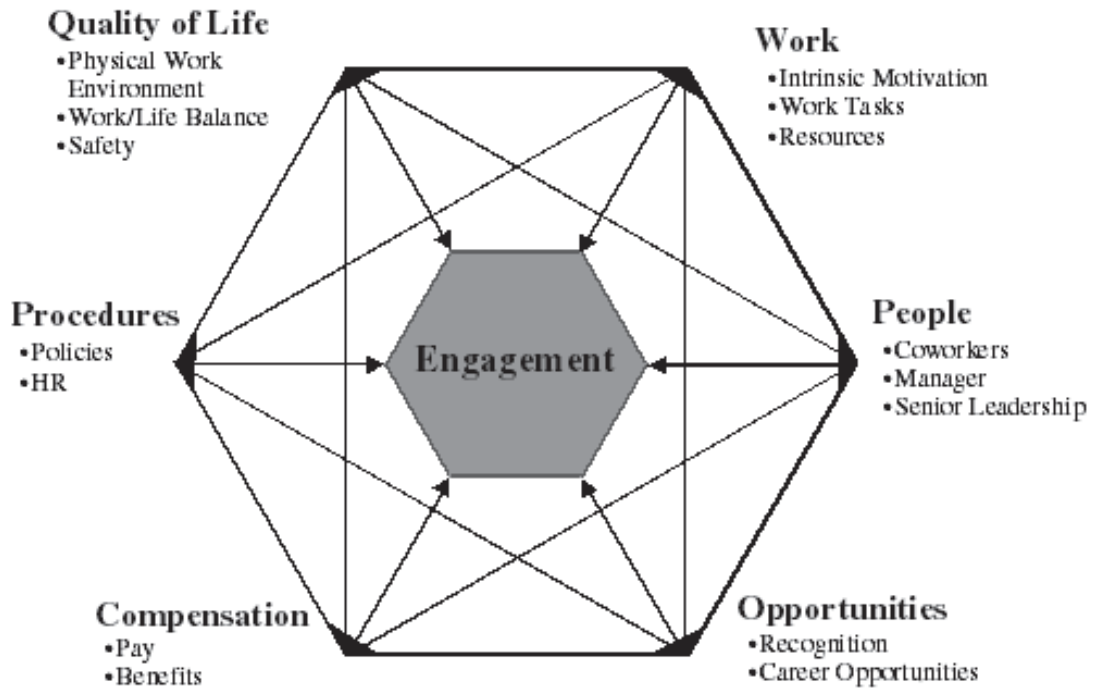


Figure 2.4 Factors of motivation (Pouchová, 2011)

The result of motivation is engagement. Engagement and retention are two key topics in today's competitive workplace (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Nowadays companies use the expression, "employee engagement", to define the way in which motivation is compulsory in today's workplace. However, different authors have regrettably applied the term, "employee engagement", in a number of ways. One precise and beneficial definition of "engagement" is the degree to which individuals actively self-manage their work (Thomas, 2009). Employee retention includes key aspects of motivation such as remuneration, development, encouragement, relationship and work-setting (Sandhya & Kumar, 2011).

These factors of motivation do not exist in isolation. Both their connection and interference with one another are shown in the following paragraphs:

2.3.3.1 Compensation and people

Standard external motivators involve external rewards such as money and praise, as well as the anticipation of being penalised. Usually, other individuals such as superiors, colleagues, and clients control these factors.

Employees hence feel forced from the outside when externally motivated. In contrast, intrinsic motivation engages in executing a task because it is in harmony with the individual's intrinsic interest and personal values (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Work motivation conveys a specific kind of work enthusiasm. Motivation and qualification capacities (abilities, knowledge, skills) spread around two main individual, character aspects shaping the efficiency and productivity of an employee (Pouchová, 2011).

The purpose of a useful total rewards programme is to initiate anticipated forms of behaviour in the workforce, to reinforce overall business strategy, and to guarantee organisational success. The key is to find the right combination of rewards that satisfies both the individual and the monetary requirements of existing and future personnel according to the current business conditions and cost limitations (World at Work, 2007). It includes the careful incorporation of five key elements, which are compensation, benefits, work-life, performance and recognition, development and career opportunities (World at Work, 2007). However, nowadays, in many of the developed countries, monotonous administrative work is declining and is being moved to wherever it can be done most cost effectively. Routine jobs, which are not very interesting, need more supervision or rules; more interesting work requires autonomy. In parts of Asia workers in lower wage brackets track the procedure, find out the right answer and immediately supply it via the Internet to the customer, who is several thousand miles away (Pink, 2011).

Relationships at work are important. The interest shown to employees by management in the employees is highly motivating, as it makes them feel more confident and appreciated. The manager's regular feedback, praise and delegation of important tasks is encouraging for the worker, who feels valued by the company. Occasionally the relationship among team members can be more inspiring and motivating than a minor increase in pay (Ciorbagiu-Naon, 2010). Saleem et al. (2010) state that training has a direct link to motivation. Personal development strategies and processes should be unbiased and clear. Job responsibilities should be clearly defined and effectively communicated to all employees (Khan et al., 2011).

Even though every employee can have an impact on the success of an organisation, managers have a key function, which is to motivate subordinates. However, the effectiveness of a manager will depend on his personality and, in particular, on his ability to motivate himself (Pouchová, 2011). Through empowerment and recognition employees will be motivated in a positive way. Consequently, if the empowerment and the recognition of employees in an organisation are improved, their motivation to work will increase as well (Manzoor, 2012). Ibironke et al. (2011) state that personnel operate in an optimal way when the equipment and working environment are effectively planned and management cares about the staff's well-being. Stone et al. (2009) share the same viewpoints by saying that personnel would be more proactive at work and would be able to adapt mentally to the situation if work environments covered their basic psychological needs. This applies to organisations of any size or to any economic system and to all employees.

2.3.3.2 *Procedures and quality of life*

Job design and skills are bound to influence performance indirectly through their impact on motivation. Although the most significant elements of motivation are often job design and skills, traditional motivation theory points this out only rarely. However, as a rule the most efficient motivational strategy involves a variation in job design and/or skills, instead of a focus on the employee, the rewards and expenses that influence motivation (Grant, 2010). When job design is used for the purpose of motivation, the following factors need to be included: the level of responsibility, the autonomy of the job, the possible significance of the position for the employee and the enhancement of those skills, needed for the successful performance of the job. It might be surprising and challenging to hear, but the majority of employees would put more effort into their jobs if more authority were assigned to them and more faith were placed in them. Today the reason for changing jobs is mainly severe limitations (Ciorbagiu-Naon, 2010).

The motivation of staff becomes easier once the employer has implemented a strategy, which includes defining intentions and deadlines (Ciorbagiu-Naon, 2010). The studies by the “Society of Incentive & Travel Executives” about

non-financial motivation reveal that less than 20 per cent of workers reach their complete potential, and 75 per cent of them admit that they might be more resourceful. In addition, more than 80 per cent of customer satisfaction is due to the truly engaged and trained employees (Ciorbagiu-Naon. 2010). Organisations should rely on the motivation of their personnel for as many as five main motives: firm-specific working together, multi-tasking, ambiguous tasking, the handover of important information, creativity and innovation (Frey & Osterloh, 2002).

Pleasant working-conditions enable employees to unleash their potential, while poor working-conditions for instance, an unpleasant location, too high or low temperature, limited and non-ergonomic spaces distract, disturb and increase the employees' frustration (Ciorbagiu-Naon, 2010). In contrast, the research of Sloof and Praag (2010) discovered that employees showed higher motivation when they were in a noisy environment than in a stable environment. Khan et al. (2011) claim that working conditions have to be protected, enjoyable and pleasing to improve employees' motivation.

As the nature of work and the environment has changed, administrative companies are obliged to flatten their structures and reduce their organisational rules. Once this has occurred, the approach to work basically changes. Employees have to become more proactive and to take responsibility by making decisions previously made by superiors (Thomas, 2009).

2.3.3.3 *Work and opportunities*

The purpose of work has changed. In the past it was enough to perform activities, but today employees have to direct their own actions towards organisational objectives. The employee's task has changed from passive obedience to proactive self-management. Self-management involves a series of four steps (Thomas, 2009) by which today's workers direct their work toward the accomplishment of organisational goals.

These steps are:

- Committing to a *meaningful* work purpose
- *Choosing* activities that will best accomplish the purpose
- Checking that the activities are being *completely* performed.
- Checking to confirm that they are actually making *progress* toward accomplishing the purpose (Thomas, p.84, 2009).

Sokro (2012) found that organisational culture is directly connected to employee motivation and, for this reason, to organisational performance. The more refined the organisational culture, the more advanced the motivational level of employees. Organisational culture is the arrangement of principles, philosophies, behaviour, mores and attitudes. These assist the members of the company to discover what the values, ethics, guidelines and goals of the organisation are. Organisational culture is an important key element for the employees' perception of work, the grade of motivation, commitment, and work contentment. Higher staff motivation results in a competent workforce, which can finally lead to an increase in the general productivity of the organisation (Sokro, 2012).

2.3.3.4 Consequences of motivational theories for the workplace

Khalid, Salim, Loke and Khalid (2011) point out that it is essential to motivate and reward employees with rewards which are valuable to them and which result in job satisfaction. One of the main issues for the successful implementation of a motivation system is the flexibility of the system, this means the capability to respond in time to situations, people's needs and behaviour changes (Vaitkuvienė et al., 2010).

As long as companies needed simply obedience from their personnel, they could buy it with money and other financial incentives. In the context of motivation theory, these are named extrinsic rewards. This was an easy solution in the compliance era, as they were possible. The hierarchical organisational structures allowed superiors to oversee personnel closely so that they control when instructions are performed and could reward or punish

the workers correspondingly. If a career goal entails only extrinsic success, individuals will discover themselves in companies with prearranged career paths that outline success for them (Thomas, 2009).

Many jobs nowadays require innovation. Consequently, a reward scheme, which supports creative and innovative thinking, should include substantial tolerance (or even reward) for early failure and reward for long-term success. Elements such as golden parachutes, managerial entrenchment, and debtor friendly bankruptcy laws safeguard or even reward the employee when failure happens (Manso, 2011).

2.3.4 Extrinsic motivation

Extrinsic motivation describes the effect of external factors on motivation level (Qayyum & Sukirno, 2012). It is the kind of motivation, which originates from outside a person as motivators in this context can be considered extrinsic rewards, for example, financial incentives and status. These rewards should compensate for the lack of fulfilment and enjoyment regarding the actual task. An extrinsically orientated individual can work on an uninteresting task in order to get a reward, even though the reward is of little significance. It might be possible, though, that an extrinsically motivated individual perceives pleasure from the task itself. According to Jelencic (2011), this means that the pleasure they anticipate from some external reward will continue to be a motivator even when the task to be done holds little or no interest (Jelencic, 2011). When extrinsic motivators are used inadequately, they risk giving individuals more of what they do not want (Pink, 2009). According to Herzberg's theory, extrinsic factors do not actually motivate employees (Worthley et al., 2009).

2.3.4.1 *Extrinsic motivation and money*

Salary, praise and status are examples of extrinsic motivators (Qayyum & Sukirno, 2012). Researchers disagree about the role of money as a motivator. Financial remuneration for accomplishing targets, delivering top results or achieving outstanding performance exists in the form of cash, a cheque or some other way involving money (Khalid et al., 2011). Financial incentives

play a significant part in motivating people as the world today is a world motivated by money (Zaidi & Abbas, 2011). Extrinsically motivated behaviours are linked to basic ambitions, which normally work in the form of a cycle that disturbs the rolling intrinsically motivated behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Taylor (2007) claims (in his concept) that cash is the best motivator. Zani et al. (2011) found that financial incentives have the greatest effect on motivating personnel at work. Employees make a living by earning money, which, according to the same authors, is the main reason for people working. Most managers believe that money is the most effective way of encouraging people to work, but what must be borne in mind is how long this motivation will last (Zani et al., 2011).

Anyim et al. (2012) point out that motivation depends on certain factors. The economic conditions of people affect the significance of money. These same authors maintain that, although cash is an important stimulus for low-income groups, it does not have the same importance for high-earning individuals, who have already satisfied their basic needs. In addition, the fair and equal distribution of salaries has a further impact on the motivation of employees. As an extrinsic reward, money might be able to create a feeling of being valued and is consequently a noticeable method of acknowledgment (Anyim et al. 2012).

In contrast, Darling, Arm and Gatlin (1997) claim that in the past, money was considered to be the best means of motivating employees. Nowadays, researchers and practitioners are aware of its several drawbacks, as monetary driven motivation is often short-lived. Non-financial rewards of high intrinsic recognition value (such as time off) are frequently more appreciated because employees regard this as a gift (Qayyum & Sukirno, 2012). According to Mundhra and Jacob (2011), extrinsic motivation is built on external factors and is only temporary. For this reason, it is essential for a company to be conscious of how their employees can be intrinsically motivated. This assists the leaders of an organisation to implement appropriate actions for the improvement of motivation (Mundhra & Jacob,

2011).

Extrinsic motivation can be used to fulfil additional or essential needs. For this reason, money is usually the means to an end – to buy material things such as holiday packages or cars, but it is not a goal in itself. In a career context, extrinsic motivation comes from the aspiration to fulfil individual needs directly. In this context, work is only an instrument that is able to fulfil needs by means of the salary it pays (Frey & Osterloh, 2002).

2.3.4.2 Extrinsic motivators at work

Managers should bear in mind that incorrectly developed reward systems demotivate of the employees rather than motivate them (Zakaria, Noordin, Sawal, Zakaria, Noor & Maras, 2011). Financial rewards might result in disappointment. After a bonus is agreed according to the standard of the individuals' performance and his/her attitude. This encourages the individual to work better, but only the financial bonuses continue to be paid independently of the financial situation of the organisation (Ciorbagiu-Naon, 2010). Nawab et al. (2011) share the opinion that financial incentives such as cash bonuses, paid leave days, and health insurance rebates, may successfully encourage behavioural adjustment among personnel as long they are properly implemented (Nawab et al., 2011). Extrinsic motivation indicates the effect of external factors such as pay, praise or status on the level of motivation (Qayyum & Sukirno, 2012).

As work is not always intrinsically satisfying, positive reinforcements in the form of rewards are offered (Pathak, 2013). A reward can change from focusing on the purpose of the work (such as solving a client's problem) to receiving the reward by achieving a certain target (billing a certain number of hours) (Pink, 2009). Deci (1975) claims that a detrimental result is not expected as regards rewards. During Taylor's time, jobs involved predominantly basic tasks that were not specifically motivating. In this context monetary stimulation seemed to be the only way in which workers could be

monitored and made to do their jobs. As jobs have become more complex nowadays, this cannot be the answer to motivation anymore (Pink, 2011).

Social and organisational rewards can be classified as extrinsic rewards. Rewards are classified as either monetary or non-monetary. Monetary rewards are tangible items, such as pay, bonuses, promotions and formal recognitions, while non-monetary rewards are intangible and involve praise and personal recognition (Weatherly, 2002). Rewards are categorised as intrinsic non-monetary, extrinsic non-monetary and extrinsic monetary (Nujjoo & Meyer, 2012). Figure 2.5 presents an overview of different reward forms.

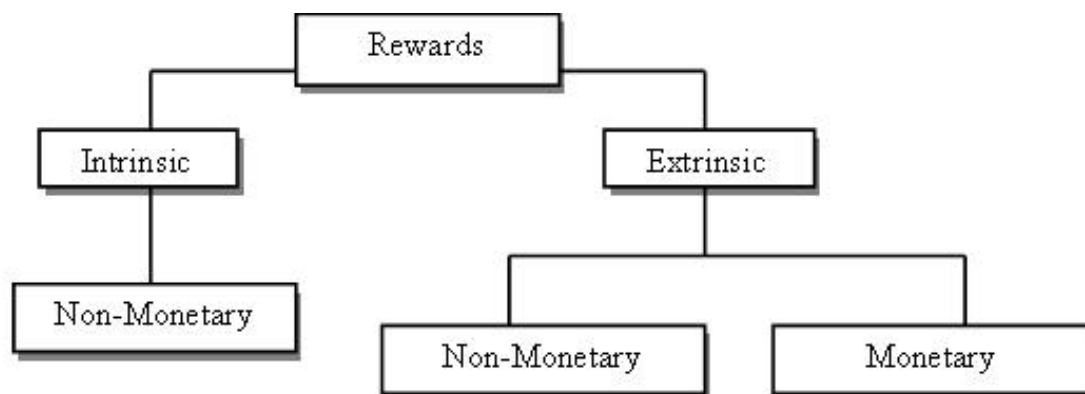


Figure 2.5 Different reward forms (Nujjoo & Meyer, 2012)

If employees are satisfied with the various types of rewards, the chance of intrinsic motivation can be initiated. Intrinsic rewards can have a stronger influence in this context than extrinsic rewards. Satisfaction with monetary rewards cannot imply intrinsic motivation in cases taken into consideration in connection with extrinsic non-monetary and intrinsic non-monetary agreement.

People are not usually offered external rewards for indulging in pleasant activities. Rewards in real life depend on the excellence of an individual's task performance. When a reward relies on accomplishing a certain niveau of performance, the reward is named performance-contingent. Performance-contingent rewards can enrich as well as weaken intrinsic motivation (Harackiewicz & Sansone, 2000).

2.3.4.3 Extrinsic rewards

Extrinsic rewards do not originate from the task itself. They are given by managers to guarantee that the task has been properly completed and the instructions adhered to. Extrinsic rewards involve monetary elements such as salaries, bonuses, commissions, benefits, and cash awards. In the compliance era extrinsic rewards were a comfortable key to motivation as strict hierarchies enabled executives to manage workers closely so that they could control the adherence to rules and could distribute or refuse rewards accordingly (Thomas, 2009).

Although financial rewards can have a number of negative impacts, organisations still look for some monetary opportunities to motivate their employees. If spending money is a satisfying option, then aligning preferences might be a useful alternative (Prendergast, 2008). Ryan and Deci (2000) agree that contingent rewards can have an influence on behaviour, but the other side of the coin is often not taken into consideration. This involves the possible cost to the employee of being kept in check to those dominant motivators (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Referring to 128 experiments Deci claims that tangible rewards seem to have a considerably undesirable influence on intrinsic motivation (Pink, 2009).

Pink (2011) states that the size of a bonus offered to an employee has no influence on motivation. Extrinsic rewards cause a problem because the target (numbers) becomes more important than the meaning (customer) and individuals are tempted to take short cuts to receive the reward. Consequently tangible rewards in particular are able to diminish the complexity of thinking (Pink, 2009).

Pink (2011, p.73) offers seven deadly flaws of carrot and stick rewards.

1. They can destroy intrinsic motivation
2. They can diminish performance
3. They can crush creativity
4. They can crowd out good behaviour
5. They can encourage cheating, shortcuts and unethical behaviour
6. They can become addictive
7. They can foster short-term thinking.

Pink (2011) further admits that tangible rewards can have a positive effect on boring and non-challenging routine tasks. In order to be considerably successful any extrinsic reward should be unpredicted and given only if the work has been carried out.

Extrinsic motivation plays an important role in the workplace, but intrinsic motivation is even more crucial in this context. For this reason it will be elaborated on in the next section.

2.3.5 Intrinsic motivation

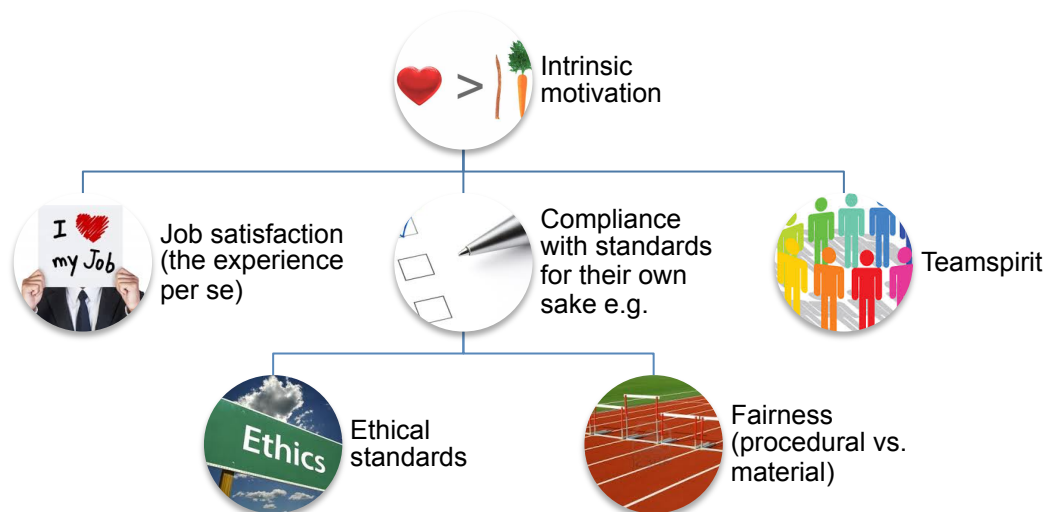


Figure 2.6 Intrinsic motivation (Frey & Osterloh, 2002)

Figure 2.6 provides an overview of intrinsic motivation, which originates from job satisfaction, compliance with standards and team spirit. Ethical standards and perceived fairness are further factors e.g. influencing intrinsic motivation (Frey & Osterloh, 2002). Whatever a person's individual talents, field abilities, and creative thinking skills are, the circumstances of work environment are able to influence the amount of creativity. Intrinsic motivation is nevertheless considered to be the main influential dynamic behind the creative process (Hennessey, 2000). Intrinsically motivated undertakings are the ones for which the action itself is the reward. Individuals appear to participate in the activities because of them and not because of expecting to receive an extrinsic reward (Deci, 1975). The task itself or the related target satisfies a direct need in its own right. Ethical standards, fairness and team spirit are three of the key elements of intrinsic motivation (Frey & Osterloh, 2002). Deci (1975) mentions three factors which can be used by extrinsic stimuli to manipulate intrinsic motivation: Firstly, the perceived cause of the action, secondly, the emotional feelings of the action and thirdly, the impact of the extrinsic motivator.

As regards the first factor, an increase in intrinsic motivation is expected, when the rewards exceed the expectation of the individual. Regarding the second factor, it is assumed that intrinsic motivation rises if stimuli support an individual's perceived competence and self-direction. With reference to the third factor it is assumed that extrinsic motivators through the aspect connect the controlling effect and feedback in performance measurement for determining remuneration. Consequently, control diminishes intrinsic motivation, while feedback increases it, especially if factors of 1) and 2) are supported. In addition, the same aspects can be found in participating in assignments, challenges and autonomy (Weber, 2006). This corresponds with Pink (2009), who suggests mastery, purpose and autonomy for work in order to increase intrinsic motivation. However, intrinsic motivation does not only place emphasis on the achievement of an undertaking or on success in a career. An intrinsically orientated individual regards the process of completing the job as significant as the outcome. This view is independent of the pleasure that the task brings. Job satisfaction can be achieved by completing a task

(Watkins & Leigh, 2009).

Mundhra and Jacob (2011) selected perceived competence, perceived autonomy and perceived relatedness as intrinsic motivators for their studies and found a strong connection between intrinsic motivators and the performance of employees. This complements with the factors mastery, purpose and autonomy, which Pink (2011) views as important elements for intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation reveals an individual's core aspiration for meeting internal needs, and it originates from emotions (Qayyum & Sukirno, 2012).

Non-financial motivation refers to rewards, which are different in nature from traditional rewards. This form of motivation encourages employees to be loyal, to participate and perform effectively, and to achieve the aims of the organisation. It succeeds in rewarding and motivating without directly relying on money. In order to motivate employees, without using money directly, the answer could be the so-called "learning experiences": team-building, workshops, feedback, communication, enthusiasm, setting objectives, analysing the strengths and weaknesses, practising and ability training (Ciorbagiu-Naon, 2010).

Zani et al. (2011) added some non-financial motivators, which complement the above list. They are opportunities to use initiatives, the perception of work importance in the outside world, advancement, autonomy, civilised treatment, employer commitment, environment, exposure to senior people, praise awarded when praise is due, availability of support, the feeling of being trusted and a feeling of working for a good and reliable organisation. According to the same authors the optimum method of motivating employees is to apply non-financial inducements; for example, praise and recognition, in situations, which are of special intrinsic value to the employees (Zani et al., 2011).

2.3.5.1 *Intrinsic motivation at work*

The purpose of work was separated in the early twentieth century, when scientific approaches to management were developed, mainly because of the start of industrialisation and the invention of mass production. However, without information about the purpose, personnel could not make sharp decisions about their work or how to perform the different tasks. Consequently, supervisors had to give instructions on which tasks to complete and how to execute them. For these reasons there was a need for specified instructions and processes (Thomas, 2009). Herzberg argues that only intrinsic factors (for example, challenge of work, personal growth, and importance of contribution) are able to generate high levels of motivation (Worthley et al., 2009).

Frey and Osterloh (2002) claim that intrinsic motivation is highly important for every action in the business world. It is unimaginable that employees are only or even mostly motivated by extrinsic rewards (Pink, 2011). If intrinsic motivation develops as a consequence of self-determination and a feeling of ability combined, then a reward can motivate individuals to manage tasks which are originally new and observed as extremely difficult at the outset. As the individual's knowledge increases over a period of time, new intrinsic motivation is encouraged. These concealed benefits of insufficient rewards are the drawbacks of the unknown cost of reward (Frey & Osterloh, 2002).

2.3.5.2 *Intrinsic rewards*

Task rewards are originally intrinsic and are related to the essential characteristics of an employee's work such as the responsibility, the autonomy and the status of the job for the company (Nujjoo & Meyer, 2012). However, rewards cannot be separated from influences such as learning effects, past experience with rewards, individual differences in terms of self-esteem, self-efficacy, or personality. As individuals are highly multifaceted, it cannot be said that a reward always (or never) has a negative influence on intrinsic motivation or on the creative aspects of performance (Hennessey, 2000).

From the research of Nujjoo and Meyer (2012) the following key findings were extracted. Firstly, the researchers found a connection between the various kinds of rewards examined and the affective commitment as well as intrinsic motivation. Secondly, this bond seemed to apply to intrinsic rewards only and not extrinsic ones. Finally, monetary rewards do not account for the variance in intrinsic motivation more than non-monetary ones do (Nujjoo & Meyer, 2012).

Pink (2011) recommends “now that” rewards instead of “if then” rewards for creative, right brain, exploratory tasks. These rewards should offer praise, positive criticism, and helpful information. According to the same author individuals need four Ts (their task, their time, their technique and their team) in order to show Type I behaviour by autonomy.

If the combination of self-determination and a sense of competence results in intrinsic motivation, the outcome can also be a “pleasant flow experience“. In these situations a reward can direct individuals to start assignments which were first perceived to be unfamiliar and extremely challenging. By practising the task the person gains confidence and experience. The result is that new intrinsic motivation is encouraged. This process is called “the hidden benefits of inadequate reward“ and is the counterpart of the hidden costs of reward. However, it is simpler to demolish an employee’s morale than to quash generating intrinsic motivation by undercutting it with inappropriate rewards (Frey & Osterloh, 2002).

In this section three intrinsic rewards are discussed.

a) Competence/ Mastery

A sense of competence is the achievement experienced after the mastery of activities. The emotion of competence includes the feeling that work of a high standard is supplied (Thomas, 2009). Flow is important for mastery, but is no guarantee of it. The reason for this is that the two concepts work on different time frames. While flow occurs in a moment, mastery is built up over time (Pink, 2011). During this process of achieving mastery, there are unavoidable

obstacles that could even be regarded as signposts. In order for mastery to exist this process is accompanied by pain (Pink, 2009). In the researcher's opinion competences builds the foundation for mastery. Self-directed people who aim for mastery are able to exert a task at extraordinary levels (Pink, 2011).

b) Autonomy

Intrinsic motivation is an alternative form of autonomous motivation. Intrinsically motivated employees participate in their jobs for the sake of passion, pleasure and interest. If anything, incorporated instruction appears when employees totally support the significance of the work although they might not find it attractive. In the perfect workplace, self-directed and motivated individuals are intrinsically interested in their tasks, and have completely incorporated the work's importance and its complementary procedures and directions (Stone et al., 2009).

A sense of choice is the opportunity to choose activities that make sense and to accomplish them in ways that appear suitable. The impression of choice is the possibility of being able to build one's own opinion and act out of one's own will (Thomas, 2009). According to Stone et al. (2009), the usual answer of organisations regarding the competition for future employees is to make current reimbursement and reward programmes complex, but this strategy regularly creates uncertainty. Superiors should allow employees' authority, promote decision participation and support self-initiation.

The research of Foss, Minbaeva, Pederson and Reinholt (2009) reveals a positive connection between an increase in job autonomy and intrinsic motivation. In addition, it is stated that task identity can be positively associated with intermitted motivation, while job feedback has a beneficial influence on employees' external motivation to participate in knowledge-sharing (Foss et al., 2009).

Hewitt Associates outlines motivation as a phase of emotional and intellectual commitment in activities within an organisation. Three models of behaviour are considered:

- Employees are resilient and show a strong desire to stay with the organisation in the future.
- Employees make positive statements about the organisation to their peers, their teammates, prospective employees and customers.
- Employees show engagement by making a concentrated effort to do their job well, which results in better results for the organisation.

Table 2.1 offers some information about how to create autonomous motivation.

Table 2.1 – How to create enduring (autonomous) motivation (Stone et al., 2009)

1)	Ask open questions and invite participation in problem solving
2)	Listen actively and acknowledge employee perspectives
3)	Offer choices within a structure and include the clarification of responsibilities
4)	Provide sincere, positive feedback that acknowledges initiative and factual, non-judgmental feedback about problems
5)	Minimise coercive controls such as rewards and comparisons with others
6)	Develop talent and share knowledge to enhance competence and autonomy

It shows that it is important to value the employee as a partner and take him seriously by acknowledging his skills and ability by giving him the opportunity and freedom to make his own decisions.

c) Purpose/ relatedness

A sense of meaningfulness is the opportunity one identifies to follow a worthy purpose. The emotion of meaningfulness is the impression that one is following a goal, which is worth your time and input – that one is on a respected assignment and that one's commitment stands for the larger scheme of things (Thomas, 2009). Authority and mastery enable individuals to reach extraordinary results. However, if the individual is driven by some higher purpose, it is possible to excel even more. Those people with the highest motivation, which is linked to being the most productive and satisfied, link their aspirations to a source superior than themselves. Their target is to follow a purpose and to utilise profit as the catalyst rather than the objective (Pink, 2011).

Monetary incentives can also increase intrinsic motivation as long as the task itself – for example, participating in the stock markets – is, naturally financial. In this context, money assists in fulfilling the concrete need and is no longer a means to an end (Frey & Osterloh, 2002). Intrinsic rewards result from the work itself like being proud of workmanship or being able to assist the customer (Thomas, 2009). Individuals have an inborn internal ambition to be independent, self-determined, and related to one another. When that ambition is realised, individuals accomplish more and enjoy their life (Pink, 2009). The sense of progress is the success one enjoys in accomplishing the purpose. The realisation of progress includes the feeling that your effort is moving in the right direction and that your actions will actually bear fruit (Thomas, 2009).

As an intrinsically motivated task does not involve an obvious reward besides the task itself, individuals participate in a task of that nature for the sake of it and not in order to receive an extrinsic reward. This kind of task is not a means but the actual end. According to Deci and Ryan (1985) intrinsically motivated actions are connected to internally rewarding effects, which are placed in the central nervous system and have no noticeable biological influence on the tissues of the non-nervous system (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Osterloh and Frost (2002) claim that the management of intrinsic motivation has been neglected. Present management concepts have also failed to cover this matter. Instead they have concentrated on extrinsic financial remuneration systems and have indicated strongly that there is no connection between variable management pay and corporate performance (Osterloh & Frost, 2002). Theoretically, satisfaction comes after a reward. When an individual receives a reward for reaching a target, he should experience satisfaction. However, regarding intrinsic or affective rewards, disconnecting the positive affect of the reward from the feelings of satisfaction is challenging (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

As the final target and the task itself are equally significant, it is important to set standards. An example can be ethical standards. Empirical research has shown that these have implications for productivity. In addition, the achievement of a self-set goal can be motivating even if the way to accomplish the goal is difficult and painful (Qayyum & Sukirno, 2012).

2.3.6 Relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation

The fulfilment employees develop from the intrinsic features of their work, such as responsibility and task attraction, is more imperative for intrinsic motivation and retention in the organisation than extrinsic rewards (for instance, monetary benefits or supervisory support). When companies demonstrate commitment towards employees and offer basically fair bonuses and salary packages that are rewarding, employees respond with loyalty in the form of emotional commitment (Burke, Arkowitz & Dunn, 2002). However, this concept does not work for intrinsic motivation because, monetary rewards, which are originally extrinsic, tend to result in extrinsic motivation (Nujjoo & Meyer, 2012).

According to Arnolds, Boshoff, Mazibuko and Klemz (2010), it is still uncertain which intrinsic and extrinsic rewards in particular actually motivate employees. Occasionally a humble “thank you” is sufficient, but unrewarded accomplishments on the jobs are de-motivating, meanwhile, if it makes no

difference if tasks get fulfilled badly or well, the employee will not put in much effort in work (Ciorbagiu-Naon, 2010). While a debated connection between reward and recognition programmes and extrinsic and intrinsic motivation can be found, research indicates that if personnel recognise a clear connection between outstanding performance and reward, the programme can actually enhance motivation (Salie & Schlechter, 2012). The disadvantage of the compliance-era was that the tasks were not able to motivate, as they were boring and monotonous (Thomas, 2009).

Intrinsic motivation is initiated by enduring influences, whereas extrinsic motivation is short-lived (Mundhra & Jacob, 2011). As these two approaches seem to be in conflict with each other. The following questions can be asked: are employees driven by remuneration and control (extrinsic motivation) or are they driven by internal factors such as job satisfaction and identification with common values (intrinsic motivation)? Furthermore, must management choose between the two approaches (Frey & Osterloh, 2002)?

According to Nica, Lefter and Popsecu (2011) recognition is regarded as the greatest global motivator. One of the biggest assets of any company are the employees who work there; for this reason there is a need to apply the new total motivational process. Loyal long-term employees offer knowledge, experience and approaches, which are the reasons for the success of an organisation. The company needs to guarantee a pleasant environment for the professional progress regarding promotion. In addition, the company must help to further the careers of those loyal employees who have managed to make themselves respected by their colleagues through their hard work and widely recognised results (Nica et al., 2011). Figure 2.7 shows the connection between, motivation, loyalty and employee retention.

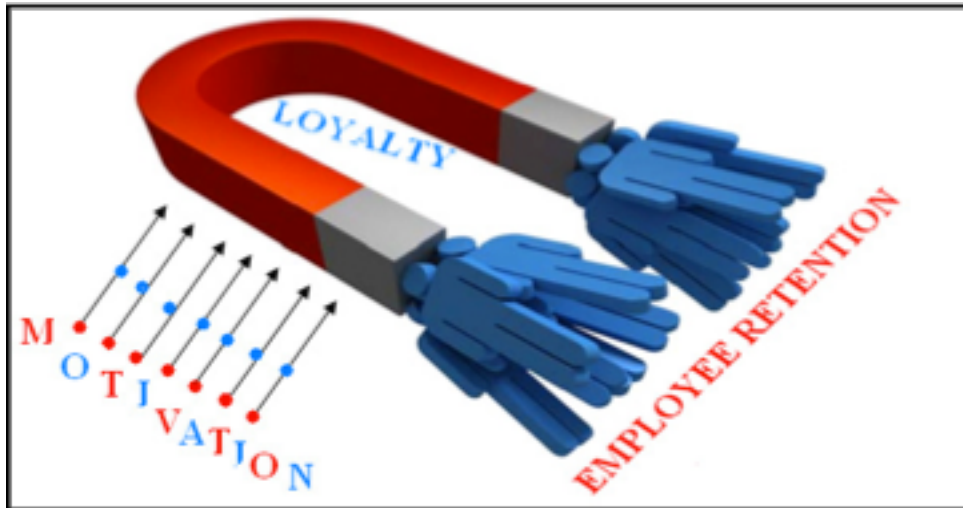


Figure 2.7 Influences of motivation (Telles, 2013)

After an individual realises that there is an opportunity that brings satisfaction, he will focus his behaviour on achieving the desired goal because he leaves what to expect from the result. Two significant differences between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can be found. The remunerations for behaviour driven by primary drives are extrinsic, for example food, water, et cetera, which substitute for insufficiencies in non-nervous system nerves. Competence and self-determination are rewards for intrinsic needs. Their main effect takes place in the nervous system tissues. While the need for extrinsic reward might be temporarily reduced after accomplishing a goal, the need for intrinsic motivation remains after tasks have been completed successfully. Instead the need is omnipresent, as if it results in a new goal being chosen unless the process is disturbed by a drive or an emotion (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Economic theory prefers the concept of 'homo economicus', who is a self-centred person with an established idea of his or her preferences and whose main focus is monetary success. On the other hand conventional sociology and psychology follow a view that an individual's behaviour is influenced by morals and preferences that remain unchanged and do not often involve monetary rewards. Values and emotions have an impact on this kind of image of humanity (Frey & Osterloh, 2002). Over years, research has discovered that a potential reward is not the only extrinsic limitation that can undermine intrinsic job motivation and in turn, a creative approach to work. A number of

environmental factors can even result in a decrease in intrinsic motivation. An estimated reward, an expected assessment, a limited choice, rivalry, surveillance, and time restrictions all have been known to reduce intrinsic interest and creativity (Hennessey, 2000).

Very few activities happen in a social vacuum and many individuals face external restrictions on their activities. For instance, scholars may be asked by lecturers to participate in previously interesting work for marks. Parents and educators regularly have a genuine interest in targeting, reassuring, or controlling the behaviour of their offspring or learners, although these activities might be originally intrinsically motivated. To forge behaviour, rewards are promised, requests made, objectives recommended, performance assessed, or feedback given. These interferences, communications, and encouragements are examples of extrinsic interferences that might be able to influence the intrinsic motivation that follows (Harackiewicz & Sansone, 2000).

Frey and Osterloh (2002) claim that it is not possible to distinguish between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation during empirical research, as together they form a unit. What differentiates the one approach from the other is if a target is being reached only as a reason for achieving the following. In this context the previous goal fails to provide intrinsic importance. For that reason the crowding-out effect, which is discussed later, comes into play. For a long time, it was assumed that extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation acted independently of each other. However, various socio-psychological researches have revealed that an interchange between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can be found. For example, children who are enthusiastic about their schoolwork in the beginning, show less interest in the activity itself after being offered a reward (Frey & Osterloh, 2002).

Rewards that provide competence information may not counteract intrinsic motivation (and resourcefulness of implementation) as much as rewards that offer just controlling information (Hennessey, 2000). According to Pink (2011) the strategy in connection with money and motivation is that employers should

pay their employees so much that their needs are satisfied and that they are not interested in money anymore. It has to be noted that, real-life activities in contrast to characteristic laboratory assignments are not always, or constantly, “intrinsically” fascinating (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000). Self-set goals which individuals are focused on, are a good way to achieve mastery. In contrast, goals enforced by others such as sales targets, quarterly returns or standardised test scores might involve risky consequences. Like all extrinsic motivators goals narrow our focus (Pink, 2009). Research has shown that punishment does not necessarily support the right behaviour. Moral obligation was “crowded out” by pure transaction (Pink, 2011).

From a management’s perspective, the predominant tactic for motivation is unclear. On the one hand, more and more employers are beginning to implement individual, variable, performance related pay. This kind of compensation attracts employees because it rewards individuals for outstanding performance. On the other hand, employees who identify with their jobs and with the company for which they work, are emphasised as being important time and time again. From an executive's aim, the objective should be to find an ideal combination of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Furthermore, it is important for all personnel to improve motivation actively, be a team player and to approach critically any inconsiderate tendency to maximise monetary gains (Frey & Osterloh, 2002).

Since the beginning of the 20th century business has become less stable and less predictable which means that organisations facing uncertain technologies and conditions need to become less bureaucratic. The world is smaller, and organisations have to respond in real-time to changes in an international business world (Thomas, 2009). A relationship between motivation and organisational structure can be found. While Taylorism pays attention only to extrinsic motivation, the group organisation structure of Likert focuses exclusively on the need for intrinsic motivation from an organisation’s members. A profit centre organisation aims to accommodate extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Bohnet & Oberholzer-Gee, 2002).

Negative effects caused by rewards cannot be restricted to rewards because they appear to be related to various other extrinsic limitations, such as deadlines and surveillance. For example, Deci and Ryan (1985) suggested that every action can include both informational and controlling elements (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000).

If people have adequate extrinsic (incentive) and intrinsic (interest) motives to perform in a certain way, they will neglect the intrinsic motivation and focus their behaviour on the extrinsic reward. Accordingly, when the extrinsic reward is taken away, the person loses the intrinsic reasons to behave in a certain manner (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000).

2.3.7 The crowding-out effect

For a long time, it was believed that extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation were autonomous of each other. Nevertheless, various socio-psychological research has indicated, that under certain conditions, a trade-off between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can be found (Frey & Osterloh, 2002). The crowding-out effect is assumed to form a link between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. An interest that is followed for its original meaning (intrinsic) might be undermined or actually damaged by external (extrinsic) involvement. The social and economic consequence of the crowding-out effect has been extensively noted (Pink, 2009). A tangible reward is supposed to involve an increased crowding-out effect compared to a symbolic one. The weighting between reward and performance is larger if the issues are difficult instead of easy. For this reason a financial remuneration system must be the reason for staff to get less involved in the direct target (Frey & Osterloh, 2002).

The visible crowding-out effect can be found less often in connection with simple, monotonous activities, especially when there is a lack of intrinsic motivation.

Different forms of motivation have different effects on various groups (Table 2.2). While status seekers and loyalists are motivated by praise, the same approach has a crowding-out effect on income maximisers and autonomists. Commands have a negative influence on most groups except formalists and, while participation has a negative impact on individuals, who value money, autonomists need it to feel motivated. Furthermore, not all groups deal well with autonomy. In reality, employees do not usually belong to one group alone, but this categorisation helps to identify needs and to understand different groups (Frey, 2002).

Table 2.2 The effect of different forms of motivation (Frey, 2002).

Forms of motivation	Dominant influence on performance	
	Crowds out	Crowds in
Praise	Income maximisers	Status seekers
	Autonomists	Loyalists
Commands	Income maximisers	Formalists
	Status seekers	
	Loyalists	
	Autonomists	
Participation	Income maximisers	Autonomists
Autonomy	Income maximisers	Loyalist
	Status seekers	

The reward approach (extrinsic motivation) is successful on a short-term basis, but not on a long-term one because the individual would only complete the task in exchange for a reward. This is an example of the crowding-out effect. In this context, intrinsic motivation must have been there from the outset, otherwise there would be nothing to undermine (Pink, 2009). Financial incentives are only able to increase intrinsic motivation if the action itself – for example taking part in a gambling game or participating in the stock markets – is, of a monetary nature. In this situation, money is no longer a means to an end, but helps to fulfil a direct need (Frey & Osterloh, 2002).

Motivation in this definition experiences three compatibility difficulties. It does not fit in with the way many new business models function, as employees are looked upon as both intrinsically motivated purpose maximisers, and extrinsically motivated profit maximisers. It is difficult to reconcile both of these views with the majority of activities at work because for more and more individuals, work is often creative, interesting, and self-directed rather than monotonous, uninteresting, and other-directed (Pink, 2011). However, no one can be intrinsically motivated indefinitely and in every situation. In addition, some social conditions are more harmful to intrinsic motivation than those situations in which rewards have been assured for task accomplishment (Hennessey, 2000).

2.4. Motivation in the context of demographics

Variables such as age, literacy, work experience, relationship status, and the number of children can influence the perception and preference of employees regarding certain remunerations (Ciorbagiu-Naon, 2010). Citing Herzberg's theory Najafi, Hamidi, Vatankhah and Purnajaf (2010) name certain factors, which might influence motivation such as the content of job, accountability, development possibilities and improvement. Furthermore, the administration quality in an organisation, the supervision quality, the relationships amongst employees, responsibilities, salaries and position, security and performance appraisal can be added to this list.

Manzoor (2012) completes the list of components that improve employee motivation. They are reasonable pay, incentives, special allowances, fringe benefits, leadership, encouragement, trust, respect, joint decision-making, quality of supervision, adequate working relationships, appreciation, chances for growth, loyalty of organization, identification and fulfilment of employees' needs, recognition, empowerment, inspiration, importance attached to jobs, safe working conditions, training and information availability and communication to perform actions (Manzoor, 2012). In the following section the researcher provides context information from literature and discusses previous research connected with rewards and demographical information.

Age, values, religion, marital status, number of dependants and culture might influence motivation (Meyer & Kirsten, 2012). The following factors provide information on previous research about motivation and the various forms of demographics.

2.4.1 Gender

Research regarding the connection that gender has with motivation varies. While Worthley, MacNab, Brislin, Ito and Rose (2009) found that gender has an influence on motivation, Yuan and Fisler (2000) found no gender differences concerning motivation. The results of research done by Epstein, Clinton, Gabrovskaja and Petrenko (2013) reveal that the intrinsic motivation of female participants grew during the programme while the extrinsic motivation of males decreased. While female participants started with a lower level of intrinsic motivation, they were at the same level as their male colleagues by the end of the programme, which means that the male participants in the programme kept their intrinsic motivation on the same level.

Research done in Japan showed that men value intrinsic factors to extrinsic ones, while female participants valued extrinsic factors more highly than male participants did. In addition, women did not have a preference when asked to choose between extrinsic motivators and intrinsic ones. Regarding age, the focus shifted to non-work aspects such as personal growth and an increased desire for job security (Worthley et al., 2009).

2.4.2 Age

Generations can be classified according to different age groups: Veterans (born before 1946), Baby Boomers (born between 1946 and the early 60^{'s}), Generation X (born between the early 60^{'s} and the early 80^{'s}) and Generation Y (also called Millennials, born after the early 80^{'s}). Each generation has its own values and was influenced by different external conditions. For this reason, they are motivated by different things. Table 2.3 provides an overview of the characteristics of the different generation groups.

Table 2.3 Characteristics of different generations (Peterson, 2011).

Personal/ Lifestyle Characteristics	Veterans (1922-1945)	Baby Boomers (1946-1964)	Generation X (1965-1980)	Generation Y (1981-2000)
Core Values	Respect for Authority Conformers Discipline	Optimism Involvement	Skepticism Fun Informality	Realism Confidence Extreme fun Social
Family	Traditional Nuclear	Disintegrating	Latch-key kids	Merged families
Education	A dream	A birthright	A way to get there	An incredible expense
Communication Media	Rotary phones One-on-one Write a memo	Touch-tone phones Call me anytime	Cell Phones Call me only at work	Internet Picture Phones E-mail
Dealing With Money	Put it away Pay Cash	Buy now, pay later	Cautious Conservative Save, Save, Save	Earn to spend

Table 2.4 presents the main motivators of the different generations.

Table 2.4 Motivators of different generations (Marston, 2009)

	<u>Veterans</u>	<u>Baby Boomers</u>	<u>Generation X</u>	<u>Generation Y</u>
Main Motivator	Accomplishment	Money	Bonus	Mentoring
2.	Control	Recognition	Recognition	Recognition
3.	Responsibility	Control	Meeting personal objectives	Time off
4.		Promotion	Mentoring	Training
5.			Training	Meeting personal objectives

As regards Millennials, their relationships and lifestyle take priority over their work. Generation X sets family-orientated priorities and men, in particular, get more involved in the upbringing of their children. Adaptable time frames are flexible alternatives to the out-dated strict working day. For instance,

employees might need a flexible work schedule to organise individual needs or an organisation might have to provide a range of contact times to meet its customers' needs. Millennials want to be guided by mentorship rather than by an autocratic leadership style. For millennial applicants flexible working arrangements are imperative for job satisfaction to be sustained (Smith, 2010).

Career stage theory claims that employees' motivation differs throughout the four career stages (first jobs, development phase, establishment phase, pre-retirement phase), but empirical research could not find adequate evidence concerning the different patterns of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Miao, Lund & Evans, 2009). Today Generation X and Y employees make up a large part of the staff in organisations. For this reason motivational and reward strategies should be modified and oriented towards these groups of the workforce. In this way these younger employees can be effectively motivated and retained (Grobler, Wörnich, Carell, Elbert & Hatfield, 2011).

In a review of 24 empirical and nine conceptual studies Kooij, de Lange, Janson, Kanfer and Dikkers (2009) found that the older people have lower motivation. Truxillo (2009) shares the same sentiments when he mentions that age-related differences in motivation are due to the fact that people have different foci at different of their life stages. According to the research of Fast, Jenkins, Kotzian, Collins, Moschfer, Dobriansky, Korben and Tremaine (2009) generation Y rates responsibilities as the least important factor of motivation in contrast with Generation X and the Baby Boomers, who see this as more important. The same research had similar results for compensation. Advancement and free time are regarded as motivators by Generation Y.

The research of Inceoglu, Bartram and Segers (2012) had similar findings, which showed that mature individuals were more highly motivated by intrinsically rewarding work attributes than by extrinsically rewarding ones.

2.4.3 Managerial position

It is a challenging undertaking to motivate managers (Benz, Kucher & Stutzer, 2002). Motivation differs in terms of managerial position. For example, executives regarded suitable remuneration as the most important motivational aspect; however it was ranked only fifth by employees (Qayyum & Sukirno, 2012). Sesil and Lin (2011) are of the opinion that top managers usually consider stock options not only as the main part of their payment but also as something that encourages them to align their objectives with those of the organisation. Nevertheless managers seem to get stock options more often than non-managerial employees. Wyld (2011) claims that stock-options are only effective (and motivating) if they are supplied on a regular basis.

Khan et al. (2011) share the same opinion by stating that individuals have different desires and requirements. For this reason, managers, who perceive retirement benefits, career progression opportunities and serving the public as important, are motivated to work in the public sector. As a contrast, executives who prefer increased responsibilities and family-friendly policies should rather work in the non-profit sector (Khan et al. 2011).

Arnolds et al. (2010) argue that many managers fail to motivate their workforce, as many of them still consider financial incentives as the main motivator of their employees, even though there is no empirical evidence to support this. Executives still use a superficial approach to motivation, and overlook the fact that motivation systems should include people and an organisation's cultural aspects (Vaitkuvienė et al., 2010). One explanation might be that managers are forced to perform, to keep timelines, to balance the budget and produce forecasts. They have to provide results for their superiors and those superiors who are under pressure normally generate anxiety for their colleagues (Stone et al., 2009).

One aspect worth considering in this context is the manager's leadership style, which has a great impact on the motivation of employees. Based on the research of behavioural scientists, higher productivity and efficiency are more likely under democratic leadership (Halepota, 2005).

2.4.4 Income

The results of the research done by del Mar Salinas-Jimenez, Arte and Salinas-Jimenez (2010) reveal that there is a higher life satisfaction irrespective of income, persons change from extrinsic to intrinsic satisfaction. Extrinsic motivation encourages a change in focus: more importance is placed on security and life satisfaction than on income. Regarding intrinsic motivation, an intense feeling of accomplishment provides more satisfaction than the emphasis placed on social relatedness. In conclusion, various goals and the corresponding results influence an individual's perception of wellbeing, but intrinsic motivators are the most important element for satisfaction. The move from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation results in having a stronger sense of satisfaction in life. This is irrespective of what the individual earns. However, intrinsic motivation is more important for individuals with a low income.

Pay for performance was implemented by organisations to increase productivity, but it does not necessarily create the desired effect. It might even have an impact on an individual's motivation to perform by "crowding out" the intrinsic motivation to work (Frey, 2002).

Employees can be divided into different groups and are motivated by different values. Frey (2002) classified them as follows:

Table 2.5 Employee types and their primary goals

Extrinsically motivated	Motivated by
1. Income maximisers	→ Monetary income
2. Status seekers	→ Position
Intrinsically motivated	Motivated by
3. Loyalists	→ Identification with company goals
4. Formalists	→ Correct procedures
5. Autonomists	→ Pursuit of own ideology

The various groups of employees respond differently to pay for performance (Table 2.5). Income maximisers and status seekers (extrinsically motivated) are most likely to increase their performance in this situation, whereas loyalists, formalists and autonomists (intrinsically motivated) are most likely to react negatively. In the case of intrinsically motivated employees, other possibilities for motivation such as praise, commands, participation, and autonomy can be used to increase motivation effectively. It is the main responsibility of management to offer an appropriate combination of financial and valued non-monetary incentives that suit the needs of different individuals, bearing in mind that the categorisations are theoretical. In practice mixed types regularly can be found (Frey, 2002).

Nowadays two entirely contradictory opinions of the motivational influence of pay exist. The first approach states that a rise in pay has an encouraging effect on the worker, who then willingly puts more effort into his work. The second approach claims that a rise in pay essentially undermines motivation and could lead to a decrease in performance. Individuals should at least receive as much as they need to keep their current standard of living. It is important to realise that besides pay, there are other ways in which people can be motivated (Frey, 2002).

2.5 Cultural influences

A cultural system can be defined as “people sharing similar beliefs, customs, categorisation, norms, and ‘mental programming’ encapsulating a group’s characteristic way of perceiving its social environment“ (Hofstede, 2001, p.10). Descriptions of culture characteristically involve human created features, which are distributed by communication, which increase the prospect for survival, and provide greater satisfaction for those in the community. Culture can be described as the personality of a region and incorporates the objectivity (for example, cuisine, art and dressing) as well as the subjectivity (for example, attitudes, beliefs, and values) (Worthley et al., 2009).

Luthans and Doh (2009) pointed out six important characteristics of culture.

Table 2.6 Six characteristics of culture (Casey & Robbins, 2012)

a) Learned	Culture is not inherited or biologically based; it is acquired by learning and experience
b) Shared	People as members of a group, organisations, or society share culture; it is not specific to single individuals
c) Transgenerational	Culture is cumulative and is passed down from one generation to the next
d) Symbolic	Culture is based on the human capacity to use symbols or use one thing to represent another.
e) Patterned	Culture has structure and is intergraded; a change in one part will bring about changes in another.
f) Adaptive	Culture is based on the human capacity to change or adapt as opposed to the more genetically driven adaptive process of animals.

Table 2.6 shows the complexity of culture by its various characteristics. Employee motivation has been extensively studied in western countries. The subject has been discussed by well-known management theorists, including F. Taylor, A. Maslow and F. Herzberg (Ramanauskiene, Vanagiene & Klimas, 2011). As values differ across and within cultures, it is challenging to identify a summary of motivating needs or factors that are applicable to individual employees. For this reason research outcomes on the content models are not well supported empirically (Francesco & Gold, 2005).

Cultural differences become obvious in different dimensions. Hofstede's framework (see Figure 2.8) classifies these dimensions as following: collectivistic versus individualistic, masculinity versus femininity, power distance, long term versus short term and uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 2001). While in a collectivist society group rewards are more accepted, an individualistic society tends to be motivated by individual rewards. Feminine cultures value leisure time and non-financial rewards, whereas money and

status are important in masculine societies (Francesco & Gold, 2005). The conclusions of the studies implemented in North America and European countries cannot always be applied to other countries because of substantial variances in cultural and socio-economic conditions (Qayyum & Sukirno, 2012).

Lefter et al.(2009) discovered in their research that the most important driver of motivation differed from country to country. For example, the presence of senior management is absolutely essential for employees in Ireland, the United States and Japan. Direct management is valued in the United Kingdom and Japan, whereas teamwork has a high value for employees in the Netherlands. In the Czech Republic and Russia remuneration plays the most important role. The study found out that the development of human resources and daily activities are very important factors for increasing employees' satisfaction throughout all countries (Lefter et al., 2009). The research of Kim and Scullion (2013) discovered that cultural, institutional and political aspects have an important influence on motivation.

2.5.1 Cultural framework in the context of motivation

Factors influencing motivation differ between countries and cultures (Francesco & Gold, 2005). According to Hofstede's cultural framework (Hofstede, 2001), Germany and South Africa do not seem to have many differences. However, the data was gathered before 1970 and since then political and social changes have taken place in both countries (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Most importantly, standards of living are different. These differences might have influences on motivational factors. Figure 2.8 presents Hofstede's dimensions of Germany and South Africa compared with the highest and lowest score in each dimension of Hofstede's cultural framework. This helps to integrate both countries into the general context. The scores in Hofstede's framework range from 0 till 120: a low score implies a low form of the corresponding dimension, whereas a higher score (close to 100) indicates a high example of the correlate dimension.

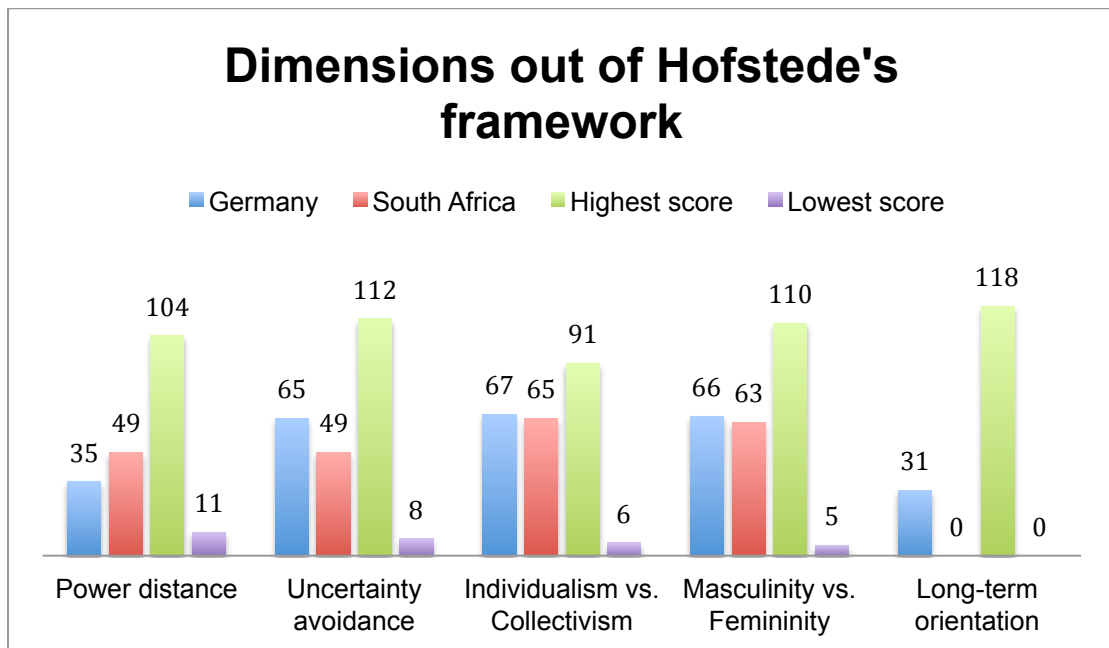


Figure 2.8 Dimensions out of Hofstede's framework

2.5.2 Cultural aspects of Germany

Germany is number two in the world for exporting and number three for importing goods. Despite its close contacts and connections with other countries around the world, it maintains its individual but dissimilar culture. Germany is known for values such as punctuality, quality, efficiency and tidiness (Scherlf, 2012). Furthermore, Germans prefer logic, which is often confused with stubbornness or perceived as impoliteness by other cultures, as they argue their point straightforwardly (German language guide, 2013). Previous research (Schmuck, Kasser & Ryan, 1999) portrays Germans as being more motivated by intrinsic goals, especially those which improve well-being. Generally they are less extrinsically motivated than other cultures (for example, the United States of America).

According to a survey done by Institut der deutschen Wirtschaft Köln, more than 88 per cent of the working population are "satisfied" or even "very satisfied" with their current job. Only two per cent state that they are "very dissatisfied". Compared to other European countries, Germany ranks the ninth (see Figure 2.9). However, the percentage difference between those

countries with a higher ranking and Germany is minor (Stettes & Zimmermann, 2013).

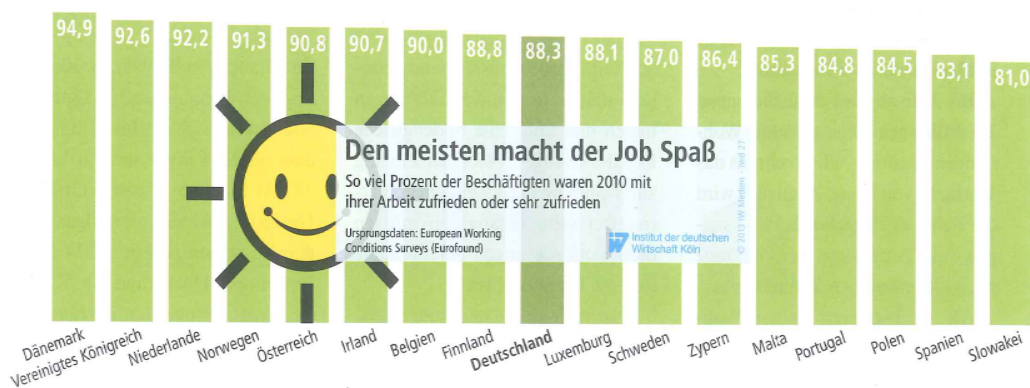


Figure 2.9 Motivation in the workplace – European comparison

Pay is not the most important thing for German employees. 82 per cent of employees, who are not satisfied with their remuneration, are satisfied with their work in general. An important need for them is the opportunity to influence, to be able to put forward their own ideas, to be involved in decision-making and to help shape guidelines and targets agreements. The pressure of deadlines and stress are often discussed, but do not seem to influence job satisfaction too much. Even 85 per cent of the employees who state that they often experience stress and time pressure on the job, are still satisfied with their job (Stettes & Zimmermann, 2013).

Research by Forsa (2011) shows that financial aspects are still important for German employees, but the non-financial aspects of motivation have become more and more important. The following aspects increase motivation in the workplace:

- Pleasant colleagues (84 per cent)
- Work-life balance (81 per cent)
- Interesting work content (78 per cent)
- Respect and appreciation of the supervisor (77 per cent)
- Training and development opportunities (61 per cent)
- Flexible working time (59 per cent)

One main motivator is the behaviour of the direct supervisor. Managers who treat their colleagues with respect, show an ability to organise and include their team in decision-making. In addition, they increase the job satisfaction of all Europeans in the workforce. In Germany it is also important that managers have the capability to solve conflicts in a suitable way (Stettes & Zimmermann, 2013).

Gender has a minimal influence on motivation as women are only slightly more motivated than men. Age does not seem to have a major influence. In the age group 60 and older, motivation decreases slightly. While managers are highly motivated (97 per cent), blue-collar workers are the least motivated (82 per cent) (Forsa, 2011). Kaufmann (2012) states that according to a survey done by Towers Watson, the current economic situation has made security of employment the most important issue for German employees. Even though the employment situation in Germany is one of the safest in Europe, Germans rate a secure work contract more highly than money.

2.5.3 Cultural aspects of South Africa

South Africa can be described as a multicultural country. It is known as the “rainbow nation” because of its various ethnic groups. Consequently, it is a challenge to formulate a specific South African culture owing to its variety (Kwintessential, 2013). The South African National Values Campaign (2011) conducted a survey about the personal values of South Africans. The top five personal values were accountability, honesty, respect, integrity and family. The top five perceived problems preventing the upholding of these values of the same survey were corruption, crime/violence, blame, wasted resources and unemployment, which all belong to the limiting category. In general this survey claims that the similarities outweigh the differences of the different ethical groups. Van Rooyen, du Toit, Botha and Rothmann (2010) found in their research that remuneration was the most important issue for a South African artisan to remain with an organisation. Key criteria were development opportunities, equality and recognition.

Although there is a mobility of employees worldwide owing to globalisation, South Africa experiences a high form of brain drain, which means that those who are highly talented leave the country for better opportunities and working conditions abroad. This makes it difficult to retain employees in South Africa. For this reason South African companies need to have predominantly work-developing strategies, which motivate their staff (Nujjoo & Meyer, 2012). According to the same authors, South African employers have to consider the fact that monetary rewards might become less relevant once a motivated and dedicated workforce has been established. When this happens, non-monetary and specifically intrinsic rewards might play a greater role. The research has already proven that in South Africa the positive influence of non-monetary, and particularly intrinsic rewards can lead to highly skilled individuals becoming more committed and intrinsically motivated (Nujjoo & Meyer, 2012).

Table 2.7 provides information about differences of Southern Africa in a global context. Even though the term Southern Africa comprises other countries such as Mozambique or Namibia, it is obvious that the main variances between the Southern African and the global approach can be found. It seems that the global approach is one or two steps ahead in the process. South Africa is more advanced than other Southern African countries, but the table gives an indication about the step between the global economy and the South African one.

Table 2.7 Southern Africa in a global comparison (Robbins et al., 2009)

Global	Southern Africa
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Companies know what their employees' salient needs are. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most companies work on a broad estimate of what their employees' needs are
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Companies periodically assess their employees' needs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Few companies periodically assess their employees' needs and levels of need satisfaction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Companies follow a "different strokes for different folks" approach to employee motivation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most companies follow a "one size fits all" approach.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee motivation is approached from an integrated perspective (integrating different theoretical perspectives and approaches) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some companies still think there is a "single best" motivational theory or approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Companies base their management practices and approaches on sound theoretical principles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most companies' motivation and management practices lack a sound integrated theoretical approach

The results of research done by Snelgar, Renard and Venter (2013) indicate that base pay is considered to be the most favoured element of reward. However, the respondents of the study were most dissatisfied with the amount of base pay offered by their companies.

Little research has been done in South Africa in the connection between motivation and demographics. Nienaber, Bussin and Henn (2011) found no different preferences when it comes to age or race but discovered that women prefer to have decent pay and opportunities of personal development. Snelgar et al. (2013) found different preferences in the various age groups. For example, the youngest group (Generation Y) considered variable pay more

important than base pay. In terms of salary scales Nienaber et al. (2011) and Snelgar et al. (2013) produced a similar result. Lower income groups preferred remuneration and benefits.

2.5.4 Germany and South Africa by comparison

While South Africans place a stronger emphasis on work-life balance, the Germans are very focused on work. Quality, results and productivity play a larger role for German managers than employee satisfaction and flexibility. While the equality of men and woman is promoted in Germany, this is not yet the case in the South African society (Muhs, 2001). Diligence, punctuality and being goal-orientated are important attributes in the German business world. In South Africa the emphasis is on recognition, on closeness between co-workers and management, and on being involved in team-decisions (Mycookie, 2012).

2.6. Previous research

Research on extrinsic and intrinsic motivation is a wide field. The early experiments that were conducted, concentrated on labour work, children and scholars (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Further research was done with the focus on the workplace (Cinar et al., 2011; Pulasinghage, 2010; Mansell, 2011). Results revealed a preference for intrinsic motivation. In addition, emphasis has been placed on certain characteristics which are connected. These are age, gender (Epstein et al., 2013; Fast et al., 2009; Worthley et al., 2009) or income (del Mar Salinas-Jime'nez et al., 2010). However, the researcher has not found a study on culture and its connection with extrinsic and intrinsic motivators. For this reason she decided to compare two countries, which have different cultural aspects, life standards and values. In the context of the war for talents, organisations need to be aware of the various factors which motivate their employees. In addition, they should be aware of cultural differences and needs.

2.7 Summary

In this chapter a literature review of the topic and motivation in an intercultural context, was presented. The first part dealt with traditional and current motivational theories and provided insights into the history of motivational research. The second part of the chapter focussed on extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. It discussed the relationship between the two and explained the Crowding-out effect. Furthermore, motivation in connection with other variables such as rewards, engagement and demographic variables, which include age, gender and income, was researched. Although research results have underlined the importance of intrinsic motivation, the majority of organisations are unaware of its significance. This chapter builds the foundation for the empirical research. The researcher firmly believes that motivation is a relevant and important consideration for an organisation in today's world of globalisation, advanced technology and competing for talents. For these reasons companies need to be aware of motivational factors when formulating strategies and finding ways that will attract, retain and engage talented and skilled personnel.

In conclusion, the hypotheses which result from the literature and are relevant to this research, are listed below.

Hypothesis 1: A difference in motivators exists between the South African and German cultures (p. 71).

Hypothesis 2: Germans are more intrinsically motivated than extrinsically motivated (pp. 66-68).

Hypothesis 3: Germans are more intrinsically motivated than South Africans (p. 71).

Hypothesis 4: The correlation between culture is stronger than the correlation between gender (pp. 58, 64-65).

Hypothesis 5: The correlation between ages is stronger than the correlation between cultures (pp. 58-60, 64-65).

Hypothesis 6: The higher the income, the higher the preference for intrinsic motivation (pp. 62-53).

CHAPTER THREE:

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview and description of the research design and methodology employed in the study. The purpose of this study is to explore the differences and the similarities between the German and the South African workforces regarding intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Empirical research was mandatory in order to accomplish this. The methodology for conducting this research is discussed in this chapter. In order to satisfy the context of the research, a pilot study was performed. As regards the main study, special attention is given to the sampling frame, the research technique, the data analysis methods and ethical considerations. The sampling frame includes the following subsections: the target population, the control measures for the population, the sampling technique and the sample size. Furthermore, the research technique section explains reliability and validity of the instrument, as well as the survey method and the data analysis technique.

3.2 Research Methodology

This section discusses the design implementation in the study. This research is of a non-experimental, descriptive and quantitative nature. Descriptive research, among others is used to estimate the percentage of units in a specified population exhibiting certain behaviour (Malhotra, 2010). The study was conducted during a twelve months' period, namely January 2013 until December 2013. Data collection occurred during the months of May and July 2013.

3.3 Pilot study

The researcher decided to carry out a pilot study to likely eventual language problems with the questionnaire or scales, and to conduct a trial of some of the analysis procedures to be undertaken in the main study. As the research instrument had been previously used only in Turkey (Cinar et al., 2011), it was translated from Turkish into English by the developer. After gaining permission from the developer, the researcher then adapted the language with the help of a language expert and the supervisor of the research.

The target population of the pilot study is presented in terms of elements, sampling units, extent, and timing. Firstly, the elements of this study are German or South African individuals with a tertiary education and work experience. The sampling units, where the elements of the study were found, were the researcher's contacts, who matched the criteria. The data for the pilot study was collected during a two week period, namely between 17th May 2013 and 30th May 2013.

A number of control categories had to be put in place for the target population of the pilot study. The participants had to be either Germans or South Africans, who have work experience and possess a tertiary education. The researcher selected only those contacts that fulfilled these criteria. Non-probability sampling was used, in the form of convenience sampling. According to Malhotra (2010) convenience sampling attempts to obtain a sample of elements that are suitable, with the choice of the sampling units being left primarily to the interviewer. A size of at least $n = 30$ per country was aimed for in order to reach a representative sample size for a pilot study (Snelgar, 2013). The actual number of participants were in total $n = 70$ with 34 German and 36 South African participants. The pilot study delivered promising results, which are discussed in chapter 4.

3.4 Main study

3.4.1 Sampling frame

The method used to choose participants for this study is as follows.

3.4.1.1 *Target population*

A number of control categories had to be identified for the target population. The participants had to be either German or South Africans, who have work experience and possess a tertiary education. Data collection occurred between 13 June 2013 and 23 July 2013.

3.4.1.2 *Control measures for the population*

The following control measures had to be put in place for the target population. The participants had to be either German or South African. This was verified by a mandatory question in the demographic section. Furthermore, the researcher pointed out in the instructions that participants had to have work experience and a tertiary education. Additionally, the participants were also asked to supply a variety of information about their gender, age, marital status, position at work, industrial field, annual income and heritage (race).

3.4.1.3 *Sampling technique*

Non-probability sampling was used in the form of convenience and snowball sampling. According to Malhotra (2010) convenience sampling attempts to obtain a sample of elements that are suitable, with the choice of the sampling units being left primarily to the interviewer. Snowball sampling occurs when the original unit of respondents is selected randomly, and the respondents thereafter are selected on the recommendations of the initial respondents (Welmann, Kruger & Mitchell, 2011). The researcher made use of contacts and by means of email.

3.4.1.4 Sample size

A total of 256 people were contacted via e-mail and asked to participate in this study. In total 374 individuals fully completed the online questionnaire. This sample size was believed to be adequate for this research in which 193 Germans and 181 South African participants took part.

3.4.2 Research technique

A quantitative research technique was used for this study, and the data was gathered by means of a questionnaire. The survey method of using a structured questionnaire, which was circulated to a sample of a population was followed. Detailed information from the respondents was acquired. This systematised data collection was ensured by the use of a formal questionnaire which presents questions in a prearranged order. In addition, the researcher chose an electronic survey method for reasons of practicability, time, costs and environmental concerns.

3.4.2.1 The instrument

The questionnaire was designed by Cinar et al. (2011) as a two-dimensional measure of extrinsic and intrinsic motivators. Questions one to nine dealt with intrinsic motivators and questions ten to twenty-four with extrinsic motivators. The Turkish authors obtained 0.80 as Cronbach's alphas for the section dealing with intrinsic motivators (Question 1-9) and 0.86 for the section dealing with extrinsic motivators (Question 10-24). Overall the coefficient alpha 0.87 was obtained for this study. The researcher obtained permission from the developer regarding the questionnaire to use it and she adapted it. As the questionnaire would be answered by both English and German speakers, the researcher felt it was necessary to adopt the level of English to accommodate both countries. Although a large number of Germans speak adequate English, it is not the language of everyday life as it is in South Africa. Consequently, the questionnaire was adapted with the assistance of Mrs J. Roberts, an English teacher, and with the approval of the researcher's supervisor.

Respondents had to choose which category best defined the item that was being evaluated. The specific rating scale that was used in the questionnaire was the Likert scale, which forces the respondents to reveal their degree of agreement or disagreement with each of a number of statements about the stimulus object (Malhotra, 2010). A five-item scale was decided upon, which had five response categories ranging from “not at all motivating” to “highly motivating”. A copy of the questionnaire is included as Annexure A.

The questionnaire is divided into two sections consisting first of questions about extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. A second section termed ‘demographic information’ follows the extrinsic/intrinsic scale. The eight categories for statistical purposes are the respondent’s home country, gender, age, marital status, position at work (for example, manager), industrial field, annual income and heritage (race). The researcher decided to use the word “heritage” instead of “race” because “race” is a very sensitive term in the German language. All questions were mandatory. For the demographic questions the researcher provided a choice of answers. Furthermore, respondents were asked to indicate their industrial field. As this data was gathered through an open- ended question, no predetermined categories were used. The 374 responses to this question were analysed and the various fields were grouped into sectors. The careers of the respondents covered a wide range of industries and occupations, with a high number in the automotive sector.

3.4.2.2 *Reliability of the instrument*

“Reliability” refers to the stability or consistency of a response on a measure (Phillips & Gully, 2012). The reliability of an instrument is an important element of the research. A research instrument needs to be satisfactorily constant and unequivocal in order to generate continuity in results (Miner, 2006). The coefficient alpha, or Cronbach’s alpha, was calculated as a measure of internal consistent reliability, which is used to “assess the reliability of summated scale where several items are summed to a total score” (Malhotra, 2010, p.318). The coefficient alpha is the “average of all

possible split-half coefficients resulting from different ways of splitting the scale items” (Malhotra, 2010, p.318). The reliability of the instruments is indicated in Section 4.2 of Chapter 4 of this report.

3.4.2.3 *Validity of the instrument*

The validity of a scale can be defined as the determination of whether the scale measures what it is intended to measure (Phillips & Gully, 2012). Content validity, which evaluates how well the content of a scale represents the measurement task, is also known as face validity (Malhotra, 2010). This was determined by having an Industrial and Organisational Psychology professor examine the questionnaire. In addition, a specialist of statistics approved the questionnaire before it was sent out to the participants. Furthermore, content validity has been achieved owing to the fact that there is a link between the items in the questionnaire and the information in the literature review.

In addition, the Cronbach’s coefficient alphas are compared to the results of the original questionnaire in 4.2.2 of Chapter 4 so that construct and contingent validity could be measured.

3.4.2.4 *Survey method*

Once the questionnaire had been selected, the researcher chose to use an electronic survey method, as this was the easiest and most convenient method for the target group, which involved two different countries on two different continents. Further advantages of using online questionnaires are a shorter response time and the capturing of the data on a central database. This saves time and resources.

The questionnaire was designed using the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University Survey Website, which allows users to design and analyse questionnaires online. Each contact person who fulfilled the criteria was sent an e-mail (Annexure B) explaining the purpose of the research and the time

frame. Issues of confidentiality were also addressed. This email functioned as the cover letter for the questionnaire. Additional information was given before the participants started the questionnaire. The participants were asked to open a Web link provided in the e-mail. This link took them directly to the researcher's questionnaire. The Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University Survey website allows respondents to complete the questionnaire online. After respondents had completed the questionnaire, the researcher was able to generate a Microsoft Excel sheet, which presented the results electronically. This Excel sheet helped to process the data for statistical purposes.

All Likert-scale items as well as all demographic questions were compulsory.

3.4.2.5 Data analysis technique

A statistician assisted with the data processing and analysis for this investigation. Both inferential and descriptive statistics were used for data processing. The statistical package STATISTICA, version 11.0, and SPSS 9.0 were utilised for this purpose.

3.5 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics can be explained as ways of representing or describing research data in a way that is concise and meaningful (Malhotra, 2010). The descriptive statistics for this research are presented in frequency tables. In addition, means and standard deviation can be found in Chapter 4.5 and the values of skewness and kurtosis are also presented.

3.6 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics is an approach which examines research data and which expresses relationships in terms of probabilities (Malhotra, 2010). Factor analysis, as well as Pearson's product moment correlations were calculated. The purpose of these correlations was to summarise the strength of the relationship between two or more metric variables (Malhotra, 2010).

3.6 Ethical considerations

According to Anderson (2009) the following considerations should be borne in mind particularly when researching Human Resources: the wellbeing of participants, informed consent and the protection, privacy and dignity of the participants. All participants were informed in the initial e-mail before they accessed the questionnaire that their anonymity would be protected if they completed the questionnaire. In addition, all information would be used in a strictly confidential manner. Furthermore individuals completing the questionnaire were not requested to provide their names. The participants were informed that all information would be used for research purposes only. This ensured that the moral obligation of the researcher to uphold the confidentiality of the data was met.

Participation in the research was voluntary, and no individuals were forced or coerced to take part. The questionnaire contained no sensitive questions that might have been offensive or hurtful to the respondents. In addition, the researcher asked O. Cinar, the author of the original questionnaire, for permission to use the questionnaire (Annexure C). Finally the researcher was honest at all times about the study being conducted, and participants were informed about the research topic and control categories in their emails. Whenever individuals responded by e-mail to confirm that they had completed the questionnaire, they were sent a further e-mail thanking them for their contribution to the study.

3.7 Summary

This chapter has attempted to describe all aspects of the research methodology that were used in this study, including the sampling technique, research technique, data analysis methods and ethical considerations. It has also addressed the issue of reliability and validity in order to ensure that the results obtained from the study would be valid and reliable. The following chapter will discuss the results obtained from the research.

CHAPTER FOUR:

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

Chapter three provided an overview of the methodology and techniques, which the researcher used to conduct empirical research. At the beginning of this chapter the results of the pilot study are presented. Afterwards the reliability of the instrument is addressed. This is followed by a presentation of the results and an analysis of the collected data. In addition, descriptive and inferential statistics are used to evaluate and understand the data. At the end of the chapter a summary is given. Cinar et al. (2011) have found that extrinsic as well as intrinsic motivators influence employees, but discovered a preference for intrinsic motivation. The same researchers did not come across significant differences in terms of demographics. In contrast, the research of Worthley et al. (2009) discovered that male Japanese participants prefer intrinsic motivators to extrinsic ones, while female participants in the same study did not make a difference in this context. Results of Qayyum and Sukirno (2012) revealed “high salary” as the most important motivational factor. Their research investigated South African blue-collar workers and revealed a higher job motivation in service employees than factory workers. In this context work environment played an important role for motivation. It further revealed differences in what managers think is motivating and what actually motivates employees.

4.2 Pilot study

In this section the reliability and validity is discussed commencing with the internal consistency (Chronbach’s alpha) of the instrument.

4.2.1 Cronbach’s alphas of the pilot study

The results for the Cronbach’s alphas and the item correlation of the pilot are shown in Tables 4.1 to 4.4.

Table 4.1 Cronbach's alphas and item correlation of the pilot study

Average inter-item corr.: 0.19					
	Inter-Item Correl.	Alpha if deleted		Inter-Item Correl.	Alpha if deleted
Q 1	0.13	0.84	Q 13	0.49	0.83
Q 2	0.31	0.84	Q 14	0.35	0.84
Q 3	0.17	0.84	Q 15	0.57	0.83
Q 4	0.50	0.83	Q 16	0.48	0.83
Q 5	0.35	0.84	Q 17	0.47	0.83
Q 6	0.45	0.83	Q 18	0.36	0.84
Q 7	0.42	0.83	Q 19	0.48	0.83
Q 8	0.51	0.83	Q 20	0.32	0.84
Q 9	0.39	0.84	Q 21	0.28	0.84
Q 10	0.33	0.84	Q 22	0.41	0.83
Q 11	0.45	0.83	Q 23	0.31	0.84
Q 12	0.49	0.83	Q 24	0.42	0.83
			Cronbach's alpha: 0.84		

The Cronbach's coefficient alphas scored high values (between 0.83 and 0.84), which are indicators of acceptable reliability. Vogt and Johnson (2011) suggest a coefficient of 0.70 or greater as acceptable. The inter-item correlation is low (between 0.13 and 0.57).

As regards the intrinsic factors (items 1 to 9) and extrinsic factors (items 10 to 24), the item correlation and the Cronbach's coefficient alphas are as follows:

Table 4.2 Cronbach's alpha intrinsic and extrinsic factors

ITEMS 1 to 9			ITEMS 10 to 24		
Average inter-item corr.: 0.24			Average inter-item corr.: 0.23		
	Inter-item Correl.	Alpha if deleted		Inter-item Correl.	Alpha if deleted
Q 1	0.17	0.75	Q10	0.27	0.80
Q 2	0.46	0.71	Q 11	0.40	0.79
Q 3	0.14	0.76	Q 12	0.55	0.78
Q 4	0.59	0.69	Q 13	0.45	0.79
Q 5	0.51	0.70	Q 14	0.32	0.80
Q 6	0.49	0.70	Q 15	0.57	0.78
Q 7	0.44	0.71	Q 16	0.39	0.79
Q 8	0.54	0.69	Q 17	0.36	0.79
Q 9	0.37	0.72	Q 18	0.47	0.79
			Q 19	0.48	0.79
			Q 20	0.43	0.79
			Q 21	0.32	0.80
			Q 22	0.41	0.79
			Q 23	0.32	0.80
			Q 24	0.53	0.78
			Cronbach's alpha: 0.74		

The average inter-item correlation was slightly higher in each group (0.24 for intrinsic and 0.23 for extrinsic) than the overall item correlation, but still fairly low. The scores of the Cronbach's coefficient alphas were still satisfactory, but lower than the overall Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The pilot study revealed satisfying values for the Cronbach's coefficient alphas. The lowest value was 0.69 for questions four and eight, which still showed a satisfying reliability. Even though it offered a low inter-item correlation the researcher proceeded after the pilot study without changing the research instrument after consulting with her supervisor and the statistician. The reason for this was that the

results were satisfying and a representative inter-item correlation could only be determined in connection with a larger sample.

4.2.2 Factor analysis of the pilot study

The original instrument did not include a factor analysis. For this reason the researcher grouped the questions and gave them headings. The grouping is shown in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3 Factor grouping

Progressing/ Prospering in the job

Qu 1	Being successful in what I'm doing on the job
Qu 7	Believing that I am an important member of my organisation
Qu 15	Being provided with the opportunity to attend educational activities (e.g. seminars, conferences)
Qu 18	Being provided with opportunities for promotion
Qu 21	Being recognised for my work achievements

Value of the job/ Perception of the job

Qu 2	Being given responsibility related to my job
Qu 4	Believing that my job is valuable
Qu 5	Having complete authority to do my job
Qu 6	Believing my job is respected
Qu 8	Being able to freely make decisions related to my job

Interaction with others and appreciation shown by them

Qu 3	Being treated with respect by my colleagues
Qu 9	Being treated with respect by my superiors.
Qu 14	Having good relations with others in my organisation
Qu 17	Having a good relationship with my manager
Qu 19	Having the support of my manager in resolving conflicts in the workplace
Qu 22	Having my colleagues' support when experiencing personal problems

To be continued on p. 86

Circumstances / Environment

Qu 10	Being given the opportunity to take unplanned leave if necessary
Qu 11	Working in a pleasant environment
Qu 12	Having access to free utilities such as lunch, tea, coffee etc.
Qu 13	Being provided with satisfactory work resources and equipment

Sustainability of the job

Qu 16	Believing that the organisation will improve in the future
Qu 23	Being sure that I will retire from my organisation as a result of long-term employment

Financial rewards

Qu 20	Being paid additional bonuses for exceeding my goals
Qu 24	Earning a fair salary

The results of the pilot study did not support grouping by the researcher, as the factors did not load in the way the researcher had grouped them. For this reason an exploratory factor analysis was performed afterwards. The results of this are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Exploratory factor analysis pilot study

Six factors resulting from the exploratory factor analysis

Factor 1			Factor 2		
Average inter-item corr.: 0.34			Average inter-item corr.: 0.49		
	Inter- item Correl.	Alpha if deleted		Inter- item Correl.	Alpha if deleted
Q 1	0.31	0.72	Q 22	0.49	
Q 2	0.52	0.65	Q 23	0.49	
Q 5	0.57	0.62	Cronbach's alpha: 0.63		
Q 8	0.55	0.63			
Q 16	0.44	0.69			
Cronbach's alpha: 0.71					

To be continued on p. 87

Factor 3		
Average inter-item corr.: 0.45		
	Inter- item Correl.	Alpha if deleted
Q 18	0.70	0.71
Q 19	0.45	0.79
Q 20	0.59	0.76
Q 21	0.59	0.76
Q 24	0.61	0.75
Cronbach's alpha: 0.80		

Factor 4		
Average inter-item corr.: 0.35		
	Inter- item Correl.	Alpha if deleted
Q 10	0.45	0.69
Q 11	0.48	0.68
Q 12	0.58	0.63
Q 13	0.48	0.67
Q 15	0.45	0.68
Cronbach's alpha: 0.72		

Factor 5		
Average inter-item corr.: 0.36		
	Inter- item Correl.	Alpha if deleted
Q 3	0.46	0.62
Q 9	0.52	0.59
Q 14	0.40	0.66
Q 17	0.51	0.59
Cronbach's alpha: 0.68		

Factor 6		
Average inter-item corr.: 0.46		
	Inter- Item Correl.	Alpha if deleted
Q 4	0.48	0.70
Q 6	0.53	0.65
Q 7	0.63	0.51
Cronbach's alpha: 0.72		

The results of the exploratory factor analysis were not satisfactory enough. The statistics specialist pointed out that there might be different factors for the two different countries, but unfortunately the sample size did not permit an exploratory factor analysis per country. For this reason, the researcher and the statistical expert agreed to proceed with the research instrument and to work with the results of the main study.

4.3 Reliability and Validity

In the following section the reliability and the validity of the study are described. According to Phillips and Gully (2012, p.210) reliability defines “how dependably, or constantly, a measure assesses a particular characteristic”. In addition, validity explains, “how well a measure assesses a given construct and the degree to which you can make specific conclusions or predictions based on observed scores” (Phillips & Gully, 2012, p.215).

4.3.1 Reliability

To evaluate the reliability of the summated scale scores of the factors connected to the issues of the questionnaire; Cronbach’s coefficient alpha was calculated for the complete sample, for each country individually and for intrinsic and extrinsic motivators using the statistical package STATISTICA 11. These reliability coefficients are indicated in Table 4.5 Internal consistency is used to measure the reliability of a summated scale where some elements are added together to build a complete score. “In a scale of this type, each item measures some aspect of the construct measured by the entire scale, and the items should be consistent in what they indicate about the characteristics” (Malhotra, 2010, p.319). All Cronbach’s coefficient alphas are above the 0.80 criterion, which is the recommended criterion for good internal consistency reliability. 0.70 – 0.79 is seen as adequate for most needs, 0.80-0.89 means good, and 0.90 and above indicates superior (Malhotra, 2010).

Table 4.5 Reliability of summated scale scores

	Cronbach’s alpha	Average inter-item corr.
Whole sample	0.88	0.25
Germany	0.85	0.20
South Africa	0.87	0.24

The alpha for whole sample is 0.88: the German part of the sample scores 0.85, and the South African part of the sample, 0.87. The average inter-item correlation is 0.25 for the overall sample, 0.20 for Germany and 0.24 for South

Africa. This means that the correlation between the items is low.

Table 4.6 presents the reliability scores for the two countries for extrinsic and intrinsic motivation.

Table 4.6 Reliability of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and the two countries

	Cronbach's alpha	Average inter-item corr.
Intrinsic (Q 1-9)	0.82	0.34
Intrinsic Germany	0.80	0.31
Intrinsic South Africa	0.80	0.31
Extrinsic (Q 10-24)	0.84	0.28
Extrinsic Germany	0.82	0.24
Extrinsic South Africa	0.84	0.28

The alpha for the intrinsic questions of the sample is 0.82: the German intrinsic part of the sample scores 0.80, and the South African intrinsic part scores 0.80 as well. Regarding the extrinsic part of the sample the total alpha is 0.84. Once again the South African score (0.84) is slightly higher than the German one of 0.82. In terms of the average item correlation the intrinsic questions have a higher inter-item correlation (0.34) than the extrinsic questions (0.28). South Africa has higher scores (0.31 and 0.28) than Germany (0.30 and 0.24). Overall the average inter-item correlation is slightly higher, when split into intrinsic and extrinsic questions, but in general the items of the instrument reveal low levels of correlation.

4.3.2 Validity

Construct validity deals with the subject of what construct or characteristic the scale is actually measuring, while convergent validity is the degree to which the scale connects clearly with other measures of the same concept (Malhotra, 2010). Table 4.7 compares the Cronbach's coefficient alpha scores

with the results of the original questionnaire (Cinar et al., 2011) and the current research. In the original research, only the presented scores were determined.

Table 4.7 Reliability indices of sub-scales

	Cinar et al.	Current research
Overall Cronbach's alpha	0.87	0.88
Cronbach's alpha intrinsic factors	0.80	0.82
Cronbach's alpha extrinsic factors	0.86	0.84

The Cronbach's alpha results of the current research are similar to those found by the developers (Cinar et al., 2011). This means these factors measure the constructs that they are developed for and can be recognised as good validity, as explained above.

4.4 Sample distribution

This section explains the sample distribution. The discussion begins with a comparison of the data distributions. The other demographic information of the participants is presented afterwards.

4.4.1 Whole sample

In this section the sample distribution in terms of demographics is discussed in terms of graphical displays commencing with nationality.

4.4.1.1 Nationality

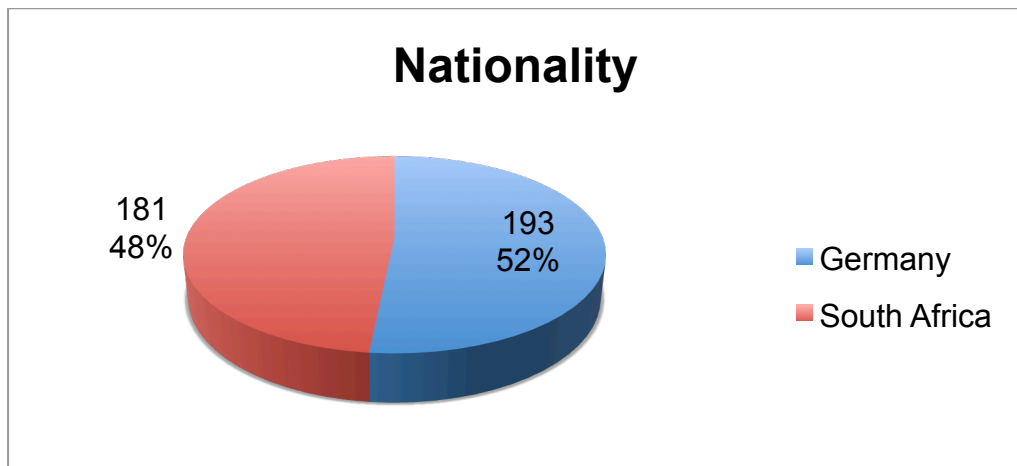


Figure 4.1 Nationality

Figure 4.1 shows the distribution of nationalities. While 193 (52%) German individuals participated in the study, 181 (48%) South African citizens filled out the questionnaire. This is considered to be a balanced distribution between the two countries.

4.4.1.2 Gender

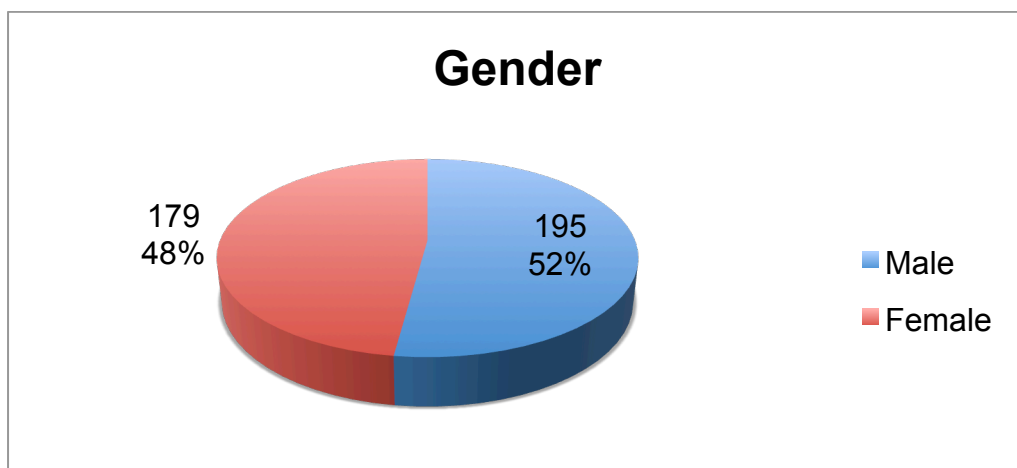


Figure 4.2 Gender

The gender distribution of the sample is presented in Figure 4.2. While 195 (52%) male participants filled out the questionnaire, the number of female participants was 179 (48%).

4.4.1.3 Age

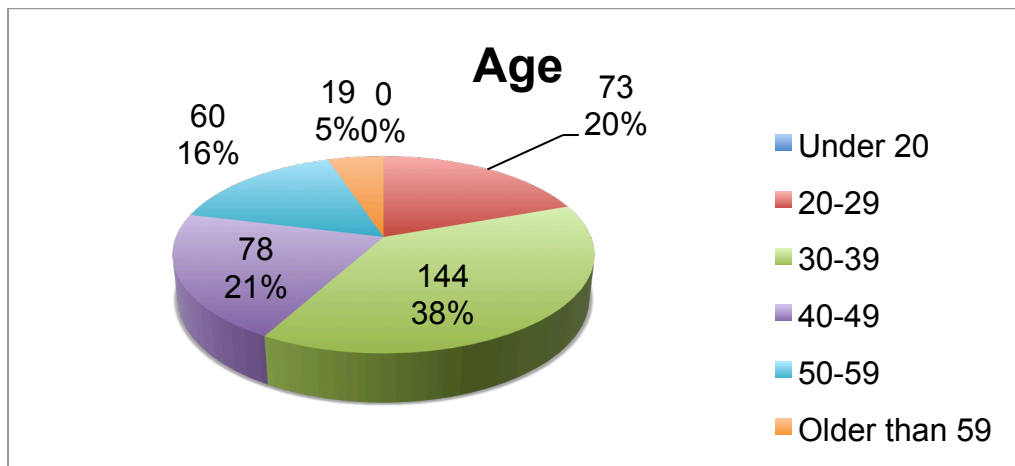


Figure 4.3 Age

As presented in Figure 4.3 none of the participants was under 20 years. In total, 73 (20%) belonged to the age group 20-29 years. The most represented group is the age group between 30-39 (38%). The age group between 40 and 49 was 21 per cent (78 participants). Lastly, 60 people, equivalent to 16 per cent were between 50 and 59 and 5 per cent (19) older than 59. The low numbers at the beginning and the end of the age group can be explained by the reason that the younger ones have not entered the workforce yet and the older ones are about to leave it.

4.4.1.4 Marital status

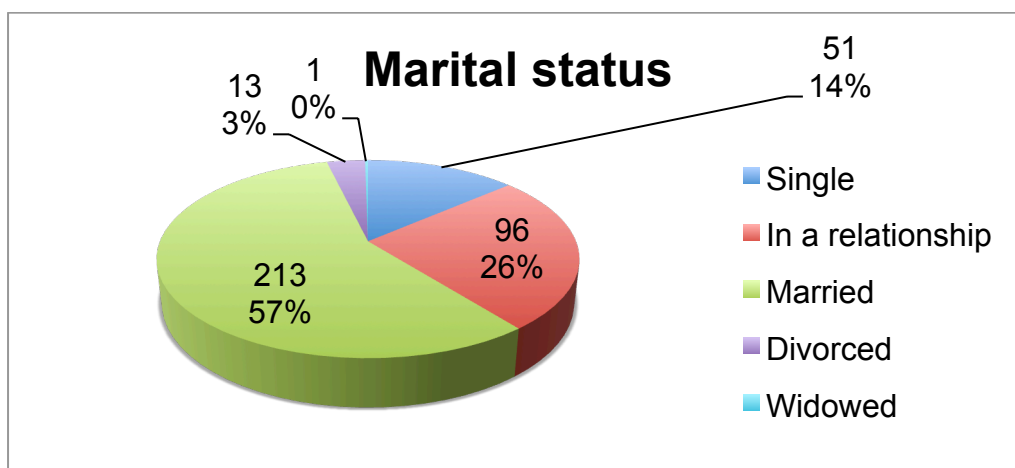


Figure 4.4 Marital status

Figure 4.4 presents the marital status of the participants. This shows, that 51 participants were single (14%), 96 (26%) in a relationship and the majority, 57 per cent (213) were married. 13 participants (3%) were divorced and 1 was widowed.

4.4.1.5 Managerial position

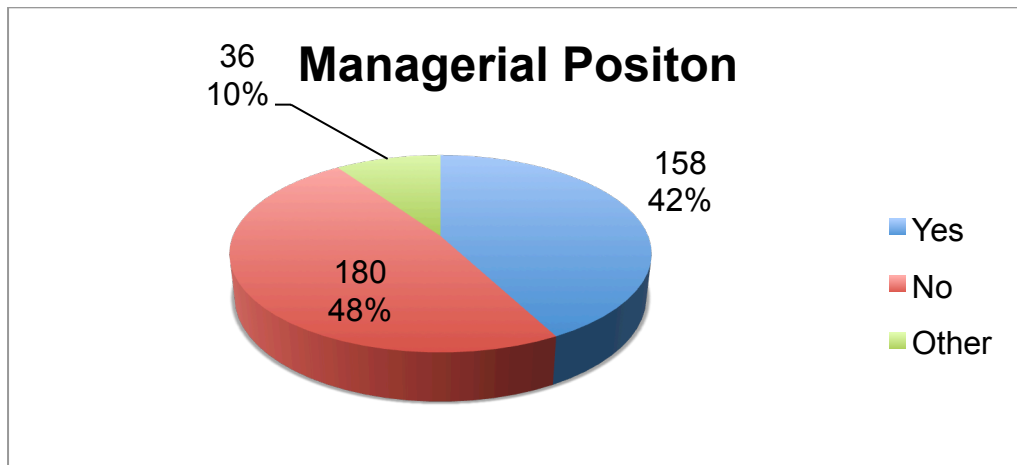


Figure 4.5 Managerial position

As presented in figure 4.5, 158 (42%) occupied a managerial position, while 48 per cent (180) answered this question with "No". 36, or 10 per cent stated that they were neither.

4.4.1.6 Annual income

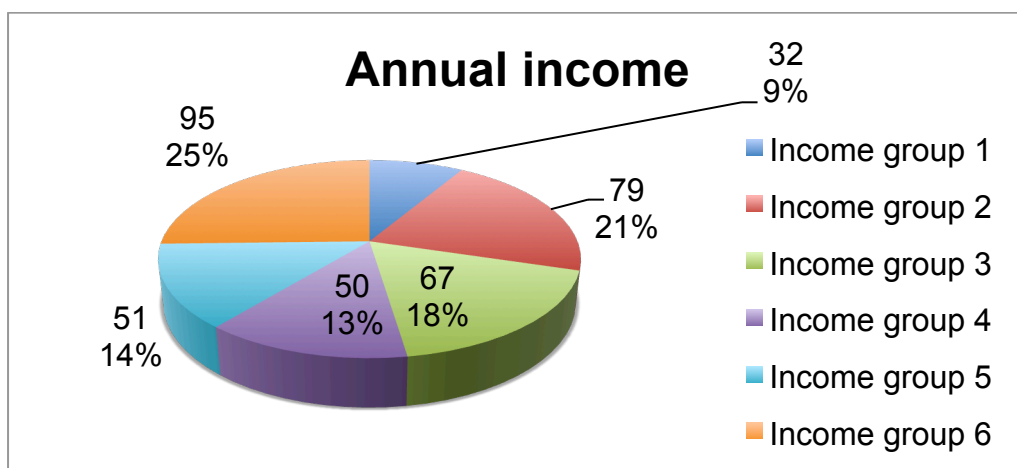


Figure 4.6 Annual income

The distribution of the income group is almost balanced (Figure 4.6). Only 32 (9%) were part of the lowest income group (group 1, see Table 4.8). 79 and therefore 21 per cent stated they would earn between 120.000 and 239 999 Rand (12.000 and 23.999 Euros) a year and belonged to income group 2. Income group 3 entailed 67 participants (18%). Furthermore, 50 (13%) belonged in income group 4. Income group 5 consisted of 51 respondents (14%). The largest group is number 6 with 95 respondents (25%).

Table 4.8 Overview income groups

Income group	Rand	Euro
1	Below 120 000	Below 12.000
2	120 000 - 239 999	12.000 – 23.999
3	240 000 - 359 999	24.000 – 35.999
4	360 000 - 479 999	36.000 – 47.999
5	480 000 - 599 999	48.000 – 59.999
6	Above 600 000	Above 60.000

4.4.1.7 Heritage (race)

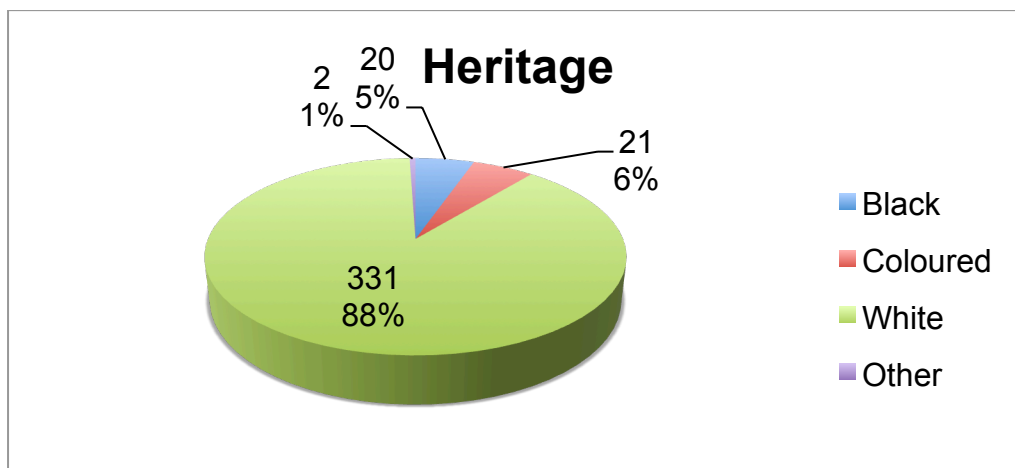


Figure 4.7 Heritage

The heritage (Figure 4.7) of the complete sample is one-dimensional because the majority of the respondents are Germans, who belong in the “white” group. The researcher will elaborate more on this in the next paragraph 4.5.2.

4.4.2 Frequency distribution according to countries

Table 4.9 provides an overview of the demographical frequencies per country.

Table 4.9 Frequency distribution according to countries

Demographic variable		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
		Germany	Germany	South Africa	South Africa
Gender					
	Male	99	51,30	80	44,20
	Female	94	48,70	101	55,80
Age					
	20-29	42	21,76	31	17,13
	30-39	85	44,04	59	32,60
	40-49	38	19,69	40	22,10
	50-59	19	9,84	41	22,65
	Older than 59	9	4,66	10	5,52
Marital status					
	Single	28	14,51	23	12,71
	In a relationship	65	33,68	31	17,13
	Married	95	49,22	118	65,19
	Divorced	4	2,07	9	4,97
	Widowed	1	0,52	0	0
Managerial Position					
	Yes	59	30,57	99	54,70
	No	119	61,66	61	33,70
	Other	15	7,77	22	11,60

To be continued on p. 96

Demographic variable		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
		Germany	Germany	South Africa	South Africa
Annual income					
	Below R120.000 (12.000 Euro)	8	4,15	24	13,26
	R120.000 - R239.999 (12.000 – 23.999 Euro)	23	11,92	56	30,94
	R240.000 - R359.999 (24.000 – 35.999 Euro)	30	15,54	37	20,44
	R360.000 - R479.999 (36.000 – 47.999 Euro)	28	14,51	22	12,15
	R 480.000 - R599.999 (48.000 – 59.999 Euro)	36	18,65	15	8,29
	Above R600.000 (60.000 Euro)	68	35,23	27	14,92

Gender is almost evenly distributed. In the South African part of the sample more women (55,80%) than men (44,20%) participated. This is a satisfying distribution. The age distribution of the South African part of the sample is dispensed in the form of a curve, which corresponds with the distribution of the South African population. The majority of the German group (44,09%) were in the age group 30 to 39. This is probably due to the fact that most of the contacts of the researcher fall within this age group. Regarding the marital status the majority of the participants of both countries were married (South

Africa 65,19%; Germany 49,22%) or in a relationship (South Africa 17,13%; Germany 33,68%).

While the majority of South African participants (54,70%) occupied a managerial position, only 30,57 per cent of the German participants were managers. The spread of the annual income reveals further differences. While the majority of the German sample (35,23%) per cent in the highest income groups (above R600.000/ 60.000 Euros), the main income group (30,94%) of the South African sample falls within the second lowest income group (R120.000 - R239.999/12.000 – 23.999 Euros). This reflects the reality of circumstances, where the average income in South Africa is much lower than in Germany.

4.5 Descriptive statistics

In this section the results of descriptive statistics are given. Table 4.10 presents the number of valid answers, the means, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis and frequencies for the captured data.

4.5.1 Means, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis

All 24 questions are valid and have been answered by 374 respondents. The mean is an average value and indicates the dominant leaning (Malhotra, 2010). The overall mean is 3,91 (Table 4.10), but the means for the intrinsic motivators (4,71) differ from the means of the extrinsic motivators (3,75). Question 1 has the highest mean (4,41), which indicates that the respondents correspond strongly to this factor. The lowest mean is 2,81 (Question 12). The standard deviation is the square root of the variance, which was the difference between the mean and an observed value. A low standard deviation signifies that the data tends to be very close to the mean, whereas high standard deviation implies that the data were extended over a large range of values (Malhotra, 2010). The average standard deviation is 0,87. Question 23 has the highest standard deviation (SD=1.24), while question 1 has the lowest (SD= 0.66).

According to (Malhotra, 2010) skewness is a characteristic of an extension that measures its proportion about the mean. It indicates whether the distribution is symmetrical or not. The average skewness is -0,64, which is a negative skew. All questions except question 12 have a negative skew (Table 4.10). The range of the skew is from -1,14 (Question 1) to 0,19 (Question 12), which mainly falls into the range of -1 to +1 and does not indicate a substantially skewed distribution (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). Exceptions are Question 1 (-1,14) and Question 24 (-1,01). These questions have a relatively small number of small values and tail to the right. The negative skew explains the tendency to answer the questions in a way that indicates motivation.

Table 4.10 Descriptive statistics

	Valid N	Mean	Std.Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Q 1	374	4,41	0,66	-1,14	2,21
Q 2	374	4,16	0,72	-0,60	0,46
Q 3	374	4,22	0,74	-0,73	0,54
Q 4	374	4,30	0,70	-0,87	1,15
Q 5	374	4,06	0,85	-0,76	0,49
Q 6	374	4,03	0,79	-0,72	0,77
Q 7	374	3,97	0,88	-0,63	0,11
Q 8	374	4,14	0,74	-0,83	1,65
Q 9	374	4,28	0,73	-0,85	0,84
Q 10	374	3,53	1,06	-0,42	-0,38
Q 11	374	3,95	0,88	-0,51	-0,11
Q 12	374	2,81	1,12	0,19	-0,56
Q 13	374	3,80	0,82	-0,49	0,16
Q 14	374	3,94	0,73	-0,32	-0,11
Q 15	374	3,77	0,94	-0,54	-0,04
Q 16	374	3,82	0,93	-0,64	0,20
Q 17	374	4,05	0,79	-0,68	0,57
Q 18	374	3,91	1,03	-0,87	0,36
Q 19	374	3,94	0,86	-0,77	0,57
Q 20	374	3,90	1,03	-0,71	-0,09
Q 21	374	4,22	0,80	-0,93	0,90
Q 22	374	3,35	1,01	-0,42	-0,15
Q 23	374	3,13	1,24	-0,18	-0,89
Q 24	374	4,16	0,81	-1,01	1,50
Intrinsic	374	4,17	0,49	-0,85	3,13
Extrinsic	374	3,75	0,53	-0,13	0,02
Average	374	3,91	0,87	-0,64	0,42

Kurtosis is an element of comparative flatness of the curve defined by the frequency distribution. The kurtosis of a normal distribution is zero. If the kurtosis is above zero, then the distribution is more peaked than a normal distribution. Consequently, a negative value indicates that the distribution is flatter than a normal distribution (Malhotra, 2010). The total average kurtosis was 0,42 (Table 4.10). The kurtosis of the questions varies between 2,21 (Question 1) and -0,89 (Question 23). But the majority of the questions are above 0, which indicates a peaked distribution. This means that most of the respondents agree in the degree of motivation. However, the kurtosis varies within the dimension to a great extent.

4.5.2 Frequency distribution of the questions

In this section the frequency distribution is revealed in Tables 4.11 and 4.12. Concerning the first question 49,47 per cent feel extremely motivated by being successful in what they are doing. Together with the second position of the scale (very motivating) the score is 93,59 per cent. The majority (50,80%) is very motivated by the responsibility related to their job. Fewer (47,06%) find it very motivating to be treated with respect by their colleagues. 47,59 per cent are very motivated by the belief that their jobs are valuable. Again most answers can be found in category 4 (43,85%), which refers to having complete authority on the job. While 52,14 per cent believe that respect for their jobs is highly motivating, 27,54 per cent regard this as extremely motivating. 42,78 per cent agree that believing that they are important members of their organisation is very motivating, 30,21 per cent consider this to be extremely motivating. 52,67 per cent are highly motivated by being freely able to make decisions. The last question about intrinsic motivation reflects the relationship between motivation and the treatment with respect to superiors. Almost 90 per cent consider this as highly (45,45%) or extremely (41,98%) motivating.

Table 4.11 Frequency distribution of intrinsic motivators

n=374						
	Q1_1		Q1_2		Q1_3	
	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent
Not at all	1	0,27	1	0,27	1	0,27
Only slightly	4	1,07	4	1,07	5	1,34
Moderately	19	5,08	54	14,44	49	13,10
Very	165	44,12	190	50,80	176	47,06
Extremely	185	49,47	125	33,42	143	38,24
	Q1_4		Q1_5		Q1_6	
	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent
Not at all	1	0,27	3	0,80	2	0,53
Only slightly	4	1,07	12	3,21	12	3,21
Moderately	34	9,09	69	18,45	62	16,58
Very	178	47,59	164	43,85	195	52,14
Extremely	157	41,98	126	33,69	103	27,54
	Q1_7		Q1_8		Q1_9	
	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent
Not at all	3	0,80	3	0,80	1	0,27
Only slightly	17	4,55	3	0,80	5	1,34
Moderately	81	21,66	52	13,90	41	10,96
Very	160	42,78	197	52,67	170	45,45
Extremely	113	30,21	119	31,82	157	41,98

Regarding the frequency distribution of the intrinsic motivators most of the items seem to be supportive of motivation. Without any exception the clear majority of the respondents vote as being either highly motivated or extremely motivated by the intrinsic motivators. The distribution for these answers is between 93,59 per cent (Question 1 Being successful in what I am doing) and 72,99 per cent (Question 7 Believing that I am an important member of my organisation).

Table 4.12 Frequency distribution of extrinsic motivators

n=374						
	Q1_10		Q1_11		Q1_12	
	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent
Not at all	15	4,01	3	0,80	49	13,10
Only slightly	46	12,30	14	3,74	98	26,20
Moderately	110	29,41	95	25,40	135	36,10
Very	132	35,29	150	40,11	60	16,04
Extremely	71	18,98	112	29,95	32	8,56
	Q1_13		Q1_14		Q1_15	
	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent
Not at all	2	0,53			6	1,60
Only slightly	22	5,88	10	2,67	28	7,49
Moderately	93	24,87	81	21,66	98	26,20
Very	189	50,53	203	54,28	156	41,71
Extremely	68	18,18	80	21,39	86	22,99
	Q1_16		Q1_17		Q1_18	
	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent
Not at all	6	1,60	2	0,53	12	3,21
Only slightly	26	6,95	10	2,67	23	6,15
Moderately	87	23,26	66	17,65	75	20,05
Very	167	44,65	184	49,20	142	37,97
Extremely	88	23,53	112	29,95	122	32,62
	Q1_19		Q1_20		Q1_21	
	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent
Not at all	3	0,80	9	2,41	2	0,53
Only slightly	23	6,15	25	6,68	8	2,14
Moderately	63	16,84	89	23,80	50	13,37
Very	191	51,07	121	32,35	160	42,78
Extremely	94	25,13	130	34,76	154	41,18
	Q1_22		Q1_23		Q1_24	
	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent
Not at all	20	5,35	48	12,83	4	1,07
Only slightly	47	12,57	64	17,11	8	2,14
Moderately	130	34,76	110	29,41	51	13,64
Very	137	36,63	96	25,67	173	46,26
Extremely	40	10,70	56	14,97	138	36,90

As the factor analysis provided limited results (which will be discussed in 4.7.1) the researcher decided to present the frequencies of the questions in more detail. This should help the reader to get more information of the results. Regarding the extrinsic motivators, the answers differ slightly from those of the intrinsic motivators. Even though 35,29 per cent find the opportunity to take unplanned leave if necessary "very" motivating, the second most popular

response (29,41%) reflected this as being “moderately” motivating. Working in a pleasant environment (Question 11) is regarded as “very” motivating for 40,11 per cent of the respondents and “extremely” motivating for 29,95 per cent. Question 12 dealt with how the availability of free utilities (such as lunch, tea or coffee) influenced motivation: 36,10 per cent found it only “moderately” motivating, while the second highest answer (26,20%) considered this benefit as “only slightly” motivating.

Rather motivating is provision with satisfactory work resources and equipment. The majority (50,53%) finds this very motivating. Even more (54,28%) consider a good relationship with others in the organisation as very motivating. Question 15 concerns the opportunity to attend educational activities. 41,71 per cent found this “very” motivating. In addition, the following are also perceived as very motivating: believing that the organisation will improve in the future (44,65%), having a good relationship with their manager (49,20%) and being provided with opportunities for promotion (37,97%). The participants send a clear message when answering the next question about having the support of the manager in resolving conflicts in the workplace because 51,04 per cent looked upon this as “very motivating. The next question about the payment of an extra bonus for exceeding their goals is even considered “extremely” motivating by 34,76 per cent.

The last few questions deal with being recognised for work achievements, the support of colleagues when experiencing personal problems, retirement from the organisation after long-term employment and earning a fair salary. Most of the participants choose “very” motivating (42,76% recognition; 36,63%, colleagues’ support and 46,26% earning a fair salary). However, retirement from the organisation is considered only “moderately” motivating (29,41%).

Compared to the intrinsic factors the extrinsic factors are less motivating, in spite of the highest scores coming from the “very” and the “extremely” motivating categories. Several times the second highest category is the moderately motivating one. Question 12 about free utilities and question 23 about long-term employment are rated less motivating.

Annexure D provides an overview of the frequency of each question per country. Only three questions (Question 1.2, 1.3 and 1.10) show similar answers. The questions 1.1, 1.4, 1.5, 1.7, 1.9, 1.11, 1.18, 1.20, 1.21 and 1.24 most of the German participants answer "very" motivating. While most of the South Africans answer "extremely" motivating. As regards questions 1.6, 1.8, 1.13, 1.14, 1.15, 1.16, 1.17 and 1.19 the most popular answer for both countries is "very" motivating, while the second highest score for the South Africans is "extremely" motivating and for the Germans 'moderately motivating'. In conclusion, South Africans tend to be more motivated by the factors mentioned in the questionnaire. Furthermore, they are more willing to select answers on the positive side of the scale as opposed to the Germans who tend to select answers close to the middle of the scale.

Three questions differ from the majority: Question 12 about motivation in the context of free utilities such as lunch, tea, and coffee is answered less positively than any other question. The majority of the German participants perceive this as "only slightly" motivating. South Africans were more neutral with it and most answering "moderately" motivating. When this answer is added to "not at all" motivating and "only slightly" motivating the total represented more than 70 per cent of the answers. Question 22, which is about the support of colleagues when experiencing personal problems is the only question where the distributions of the answers were fairly similar for both countries. Question 23 asks about long-term employment in and retirement from an organisation. Here the answers of both countries are distributed over the whole scale. The German majority regards this as "moderately" motivating. Most of the South Africans choose "very" motivating, but the distribution was relatively even, with a range between 12 and 24 per cent.

This section reveals different preferences in the various motivators. In general most of the items are perceived as motivating, but research shows that some items such as being successful in what the individuals are doing are much more motivating than free utilities or retirement within an organisation.

4.6 Inferential Statistics

Descriptive statistics deals with the presentation of facts. Inferential statistics uses a number of methods for interpreting data and drawing conclusions.

4.6.1 Exploratory factor analysis

Factor analysis is an interdependence technique, whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). After the experience of the pilot study, the researcher decided on the advice of the statistical expert to perform an electronic factor analysis. Table 4.13 shows 5 factors seem appropriate.

Table 4.13 Determination of number of factors

Eigenvalues				
Extraction: Principal components				
	Eigenvalue	% Total variance	Cumulative Eigenvalue	Cumulative %
1	6,78752096	28,2813373	6,78752096	28,2813373
2	2,26239947	9,42666445	9,04992043	37,7080018
3	1,54410323	6,43376344	10,5940237	44,1417652
4	1,35387565	5,64114855	11,9478993	49,7829138
5	1,16016015	4,83400062	13,1080595	54,6169144
6	0,987077507	4,11282295	14,095137	58,7297373
7	0,943475196	3,93114665	15,0386122	62,660884
8	0,904919016	3,7704959	15,9435312	66,4313799
9	0,784546996	3,26894582	16,7280782	69,7003257
10	0,73012874	3,04220308	17,4582069	72,7425288

Table 4.13 presents the loading of the factors for the whole sample. The factors, which load together, are highlighted in yellow. The correlations are between 0,364 and 0,863. These statistics were conducted in order to determine the appropriate number of factors for this study. The number of five was chosen because the “Eigenvalue” was still above 1.

According to the results the following questions can be grouped as factors:

- Factor 1 14,15,16,17,18,19
- Factor 2 10,12,14,22,23
- Factor 3 18,20,21,24
- Factor 4 1,2,5,8
- Factor 5 3,4,9,21

Questions 6, 7 and 11 do not load to any factor. Question 21 loads for both factor three and factor five, factor three has a higher value.

Table 4.14 Exploratory factor analysis of the whole sample

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
Q 1	,066	-,119	-,027	,418	,276
Q 2	,157	-,029	-,120	,453	,144
Q 3	-,037	,271	,018	,007	,559
Q 4	,077	-,040	-,002	,240	,508
Q 5	-,100	,081	,173	,687	-,026
Q 6	,083	,127	,076	,303	,318
Q 7	,188	,094	,060	,252	,308
Q 8	,034	-,017	-,043	,720	-,024
Q 9	,177	-,057	,118	,135	,496
Q 10	-,069	,364	,030	,174	,112
Q 11	,276	,337	,060	,064	,133
Q 12	,015	,621	,114	,105	-,149
Q 13	,221	,298	,178	,258	-,086
Q 14	,358	,426	-,151	-,014	,164
Q 15	,479	,164	,014	,089	-,079
Q 16	,600	,112	,084	,104	-,148
Q 17	,714	,000	-,076	-,075	,176
Q 18	,427	-,132	,441	,069	,046
Q 19	,603	-,066	,146	,033	,135
Q 20	-,091	,048	,863	,026	,060
Q 21	,078	-,113	,453	,012	,443
Q 22	,100	,587	-,058	-,158	,135
Q 23	,137	,452	,194	-,109	-,021
Q 24	,105	,168	,476	-,029	-,044

A factor loading of 0.30 is considered as significant for a sample size higher and larger than 350 (Hair et al., 2010). Table 4.14 presents the questions,

which load together as factors. Results higher than 0.30 are highlighted yellow to show the reader in which factor the question loads. Some questions load for more than one factor. As the factors determined by the exploratory factor analysis do not correspond substantially, a further analysis was conducted to find out if the two countries possibly had different factors. As the sample size is smaller a loading of 0.4 or 0.45 is needed in order to be significant. The results are presented in Table 4.14 and Table 4.15.

Table 4.15 Exploratory factor analysis for Germany

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
Q1	,078	-,134	-,049	-0,009	,611
Q 2	,230	-,139	,046	-0,049	,452
Q 3	,130	-,010	,224	-0,097	,464
Q 4	,084	-,085	-,079	-0,039	,607
Q 5	-,261	,111	,128	0,222	,499
Q 6	-,048	-,002	,266	-0,026	,506
Q 7	-,039	,374	-,121	0,012	,496
Q 8	-,089	,020	,024	0,071	,575
Q 9	,147	,043	,021	0,092	,573
Q 10	-,004	,296	,125	0,039	,264
Q 11	,205	,155	,374	-0,038	,099
Q 12	,007	,196	,462	0,146	-,012
Q 13	,041	-,155	,815	0,038	,060
Q 14	,400	,213	,252	-0,197	,066
Q 15	,537	-,099	,174	0,165	-,023
Q 16	,351	,305	,101	0,064	-,047
Q 17	,661	,149	,020	-0,082	,060
Q 18	,447	,023	-,032	0,349	,126
Q 19	,535	,206	-,035	0,129	,141
Q 20	,024	-,008	,042	0,782	-,050
Q 21	,287	-,151	-,113	0,379	,346
Q 22	,207	,670	-,029	-0,025	-,063
Q 23	,058	,416	,134	0,091	-,152
Q 24	-,013	,202	,309	0,417	-,023

The results of the exploratory factor analysis of the German sample show several differences to the one of the whole sample. Only the first factor concurs in both Tables (4.14 and 4.15).

Table 4.16 Exploratory factor analysis South Africa

	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
Q 1	,100	-,137	-,021	,341	,188
Q 2	,033	,040	-,113	,496	,119
Q 3	-,002	,166	,088	-,018	,559
Q 4	,201	-,013	,021	,305	,411
Q 5	-,084	,061	,112	,760	-,111
Q 6	,164	,103	,055	,302	,324
Q 7	,322	,048	,053	,243	,395
Q 8	,010	,030	-,032	,769	-,128
Q 9	,390	-,242	,192	,178	,309
Q 10	-,103	,334	,024	,183	,103
Q 11	,294	,340	,074	,060	,181
Q 12	-,009	,737	,047	,032	-,105
Q 13	,215	,428	,136	,112	-,079
Q 14	,253	,431	-,036	,022	,329
Q 15	,410	,396	-,033	,089	-,080
Q 16	,580	,262	,099	,169	-,196
Q 17	,623	,063	-,088	-,077	,259
Q 18	,356	-,054	,585	-,010	-,119
Q 19	,570	-,061	,184	,093	,067
Q 20	-,302	,161	,913	,048	,015
Q 21	,004	-,133	,549	,109	,342
Q 22	,006	,541	,000	-,061	,367
Q 23	,101	,498	,231	-,142	,142
Q 24	,090	,085	,547	-,110	-,033

Table 4.16 provides information about factors in the South African sample. It is again obvious that there are differences of the factors between the overall, the German and the South African samples. These differences are presented in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17 Factor comparison

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	With out
Germany	14,15,16,17,18,19	7,22,23	11,12,13	18,20,21,24	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9	10
South Africa	9,15,16,17,18,19	12,13,14,15,22,23	18,20,21,24	2,5,8	3,4,7,22	1,10,11

From an overview of Table 4.17 it is obvious that, although there are some overlaps, the factors load differently. This results in no sufficient base to produce further sufficient statistical results, especially because the questions grouped in factors do not correspond substantially. Further consequences are discussed in Chapter 5.

Annexure E presents the factor matrix with the corresponding loadings. From this table can be deduced that the factor loading is fairly low. In order to be categorised as a factor loading, the value has to be at least 0.35. The highest value is only 0.52. Unfortunately, an underlying structure of the factor could not be determined. For this reason the researcher will discuss the consequences and results based on the individual question in chapter 5.

4.6.2 Measures of strength

In this section the measure of strength Pearson Chi-Square, is presented for all of the questions for the two countries. The significance level for these T-tests is set on 0.05 ($P=0.05$). The p-value provides more information for the reader as it indicates the correlation between two groups or variables.

Table 4.18 provides an overview of the values of the different measures.

Table 4.18 Measures of strength

	Pearson Chi- square	
		p
Q1	24,315	0,00007
Q2	14,335	0,00630
Q3	5,71631	0,22136
Q4	18,7676	0,00087
Q5	32,24	0,00000
Q6	34,4458	0,00000
Q7	42,8914	0,00000
Q8	22,3655	0,00017
Q9	14,9207	0,00487
Q10	4,0846	0,39468
Q11	20,414	0,00041
Q12	24,2517	0,00007
Q13	45,4471	0,00000
Q14	7,39018	0,06045
Q15	12,1989	0,01593
Q16	34,75	0,00000
Q17	29,9479	0,00001
Q18	60,4183	0,00000
Q19	38,1886	0,00000
Q20	73,8012	0,00000
Q21	37,3595	0,00000
Q22	13,6644	0,00845
Q23	20,3306	0,00043
Q24	11,1224	0,02522

The p-value can be explained as follows:

- $p > 0,1$ very weak
- $p > 0,1 - 0,05$ weak
- $p < 0,05 - 0,01$ strong
- $p < 0,01$ very strong

As seen in Table 4.18, the answers given by the two countries differ significantly for most of the questions, because the p-value is smaller than 0,05. Only the p-values of questions 2, 3, 10, 14, 15 and 24 are above 0,05 and for this reason can be categorised as either weak or very weak. In other

words there are no significant differences between the countries for these questions.

4.6.3 Hypotheses

As mentioned in Chapter 1.8.4, this research has attempted to explore the differences and similarities between intrinsic and extrinsic motivators in the context of workplaces in Germany and South Africa.

Table 4.19 Differences per country

All Groups							
	Mean	Std.Dv.	N	Diff.	Std.Dv.	t	p
					Diff.		
Intrinsic	4,17	0,49					
Extrinsic	3,75	0,53	374,00	0,42	0,49	16,68	0,00
Home country=Germany							
	Mean	Std.Dv.	N	Diff.	Std.Dv.	t	p
					Diff.		
Intrinsic	4,01	0,48					
Extrinsic	3,58	0,48	193,00	0,43	0,51	11,71	0,00
Home country=SA							
	Mean	Std.Dv.	N	Diff.	Std.Dv.	t	p
					Diff.		
Intrinsic	4,35	0,43					
Extrinsic	3,94	0,52	181,00	0,42	0,47	11,90	0,00

Table 4.19 presents the means of the two countries. It can be seen that the South African values are higher than the German ones, for both categories: intrinsic and extrinsic are between 0,43 and 0,53. The t-value is 16,68 for the whole sample, 11,71 for the German answers and 11,90 for the South African answers. In terms of the p-values, all are below 0,01, which indicates significant differences.

4.6.3.1 Hypothesis 1

A difference in motivators exists between the South African and German cultures.

As presented in Table 4.19 the means of the two countries differ significantly. While the standard deviation lies at 0,48 for the German answers, it lies at 0,43 for the intrinsic South African answers and 0,52 for the extrinsic South African answers. The p-value is below 0,00 for the whole sample, as well as for the two countries, which indicates a very strong p-value and means there are significant differences between the two countries.

Hypothesis 1 can be accepted.

4.6.3.2 Hypothesis 2

Germans are more intrinsically motivated than extrinsically motivated.

The mean of the German intrinsic answers (4,01) is higher than the mean of the extrinsic ones (3,56) of the same group. The standard deviation is 0,48 for both categories. Furthermore, the p-value is smaller than 0,01, which indicates a strong p-value.

Hypothesis 2 can be accepted.

4.6.3.3 Hypothesis 3

Germans are more intrinsically motivated than South Africans.

South Africans have a mean of 4,35 for intrinsic motivators while Germans have a mean of 4,01 (Table 4.19). The standard deviation of 0,43 for the South Africans is lower than that of 0,48 for the Germans. Again the p-value is below 0,01. This means that the intrinsic motivation of South Africans is higher than that of the Germans.

Hypothesis 3 cannot be accepted.

4.6.3.4 Hypothesis 4

The correlation between cultures is stronger than the correlation between gender.

Table 4.20 Gender statistics

	Mean	Mean	t-value	p	Std.Dev.	Std.Dev.
	Female	Male			Female	Male
Intrinsic	4,21	4,13	1,63	0,10	0,51	0,46
Extrinsic	3,79	3,71	1,52	0,13	0,51	0,55
Home country=Germany						
	Mean	Mean	t-value	p	Std.Dev.	Std.Dev.
	Female	Male			Female	Male
Intrinsic	4,05	3,97	1,11	0,27	0,53	0,42
Extrinsic	3,63	3,53	1,48	0,14	0,47	0,49
Home country=SA						
	Mean	Mean	t-value	p	Std.Dev.	Std.Dev.
	Female	Male			Female	Male
Intrinsic	4,37	4,33	0,59	0,56	0,43	0,43
Extrinsic	3,94	3,93	0,13	0,90	0,50	0,55

Table 4.20 presents the means, t-values and p-values as well as the standard deviation according to gender. The means for the whole sample differ only minimally between the genders. The t-value is 1,63 for the intrinsic and 1,52 for the extrinsic categories. The standard deviation is between 0,46 and 0,55. Regarding the two countries the differences are bigger: while the mean for the intrinsic German female sample is 4,05, the mean for the intrinsic South African female sample is 4,37. Regarding the extrinsic category the mean for German women is 3,63, while that for South African women is 3,94. The distribution of the male answers is similar. The means of the German men are obviously lower in both categories (intrinsic 3,97, extrinsic 3,53) than those of the South African men (intrinsic 4,33, extrinsic 3,93). Consequently cultural differences are bigger than gender differences.

Hypothesis four can be accepted.

4.6.3.5 Hypothesis 5

The correlation between ages is stronger than the correlation between cultures.

4.21 Age statistics

All Groups				
Age	Intrinsic Means	Intrinsic Std.Dev.	Extrinsic Means	Extrinsic Std.Dev.
20-29 years	4,02	0,53	3,74	0,50
30-39 years	4,18	0,48	3,72	0,53
40-49 years	4,24	0,45	3,74	0,55
50-59 years	4,27	0,42	3,88	0,49
60+ years	4,13	0,56	3,67	0,66
All Groups	4,17	0,47	3,75	0,53

Marked effects are significant at p < .05000								
	SS	df	MS	SS	df	MS	F	p
	Effect	Effect	Effect	Error	Error	Error		
Intrinsic	2,76	4	0,69	85,43	369	0,23	2,98	0,02
Extrinsic	1,26	4	0,32	103,49	369	0,282	1,12	0,34

Table 4.21 presents statistical information about gender. The means vary from 4,02 to 4,27 with a standard deviation between 0,42 and 0,56 for the intrinsic part, and means between 3,67 and 3,88 for the extrinsic part (with a standard deviation from 0,49 and 0,66). When determining the relationship between age and culture in the light of motivation highlighted differences are found. A p smaller than 0,05 indicates a significant difference. As only the p-value of the intrinsic part (0,02) is below 0,05, it can be said, that the correlation between ages is stronger than it is between cultures as regards intrinsic motivation. For this reason:

Hypothesis 5 can be partly accepted.

4.6.3.6 Hypothesis 6

The higher the income, the higher the preference for intrinsic motivation.

Table 4.22 Income statistics

Income (annual)	Intrinsic Means	Intrinsic Std.Dev.	Extrinsic Means	Extrinsic Std.Dev.
Below R120 000	4,26	0,51	3,98	0,57
R120 000 - R239 999	4,19	0,60	3,84	0,52
R240 000 - R359 999	4,21	0,46	3,89	0,50
R360 000 - R479 999	4,15	0,44	3,75	0,51
R480 000 - R599 999	4,12	0,51	3,56	0,60
R600 000+	4,14	0,40	3,61	0,46
All Groups	4,17	0,49	3,75	0,53

Table 4.23 Differences intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivators

Marked effects are significant at $p < .05000$							
	SS	df	MS	SS	MS	F	p
	Effect	Effect	Effect	Error	Error		
Intrinsic	0,65	5	0,13	87,55	0,24	0,55	0,74
Extrinsic	7,19	5	1,44	97,56	0,27	5,43	0,00

In Table 4.22 the means of the different income groups for intrinsic and extrinsic motivators are presented. The means range from 4,14 to 4,26 with a standard deviation between 0,4 and 0,6 for the intrinsic questions. For the extrinsic questions the values of the means are between 3,56 and 3,98. The standard deviation here is between 0,46 and 0,57. Table 4.23 shows the marked differences according to the various income groups. The p-value for intrinsic motivation is above 0,5 and therefore very weak, but the p-value for extrinsic motivation is below 0,01 and therefore very strong. Consequently a preference for intrinsic motivation does not increase as income becomes high; instead extrinsic motivation becomes stronger.

Hypothesis 6 cannot be accepted.

4.7 Summary

In this chapter the findings of the study are stated. The chapter began with explanations about the reliability and validity of the instrument. After that the frequency distributions and the descriptive statistics were given. These were

followed by the inferential statistics and then finally the summary. In the following chapter the empirical data will be discussed and a conclusion is drawn.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the results of the statistical analysis were presented in order to offer answers to the research questions and provide quantitative data to the research. The earlier chapters have described the literature review, methodology and results of this study. The purpose of this chapter is to deliberate on these results in connection with the relevant literature as presented in the second chapter. In particular, it deals with the portability of the instrument, results of the survey and differences between the demographic variables. The results are discussed collectively first. Differences between the two countries are looked at afterwards in 5.3.3. The researcher intends that the discussion in this chapter will shed light on the results in the right context.

5.2 Portability of the instrument

Nowadays, in the context of globalisation and various cultures in a fast paced world, it is important to bear in mind the portability of the research instrument. In particular, in this research the instrument had been used only in one country before, and has now been used in two different countries at the same time. The instrument was developed in Turkey and used in research with a sample of co-workers of an electricity company. It was specifically designed for the purpose of understanding the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors, the effectiveness of these factors and the research of the differences of these factors (Cinar et al., 2011).

The researcher realised that using the instrument for her study posed a challenge. Firstly, the instrument was only used in one country within one company and was specifically designed for this purpose. Furthermore, the participating nationalities were neither from the original country of the instrument (Turkey), nor was English the mother tongue for a considerable number of the participants. The researcher adapted the instrument after

confirming with the author in cooperation with the language expert. In addition, she discussed linguistic and cultural issues with her supervisor, an expert in the field of industrial and organisational psychology. Finally, one criteria of participation was a tertiary education. This level of education enabled the participants to fulfil a certain standard of complex understanding. In the context of these provisions, the researcher decided to use an already tested research instrument instead of designing a completely new one. In spite of the fact that the instrument was developed in a foreign language, it produced reliable and valid results, which allowed the researcher to make accurate assumptions and decisions in the study.

5.3 Survey results

The results from the survey were already presented in chapter 4. The researcher now would like to discuss the findings in connection with the theory. In the beginning, it should be mentioned that the distribution of the scores for most of the variables (except one) of the study were moderately negatively skewed. This indicates the tendency to a give positive answer (Hair et al., 2010), which was implied by a positive wording. The values of the kurtosis varied within the dimension, but in general there was a tendency of peakedness. This means that most of the participants chose the same or similar answers (Hair et al., 2010). As a result of the above, the distribution differs from the norm. This should be born in mind when interpreting the results, as it may have influenced the validity of the findings presented in the discussion.

5.3.1 Intrinsic motivation

Regarding intrinsic motivation the questions can be divided into three groups: success (competence) (Questions 1.1, 1.4, 1.7), authority (Questions 1.2, 1.5 1.8) and respect (relatedness) (Questions 1.3,1.6, 1.9). They relate to the three natural psychological desires (Mundhra & Jacob, 2011). The need for competence in order to succeed at optimally challenging tasks and accomplishing expected results, the need for autonomy, which involves the experience of decision-making and of being able to initiate individual actions, and the need for relatedness, which deals with creating an awareness of

shared respect for and trust with other individuals. Fulfilment of these needs will improve intrinsic motivation (Mundhra & Jacob, 2011). Pink (2009) focuses on similar factors such as mastery, purpose and autonomy in order to achieve intrinsic motivation.

5.3.1.1 *Mastery*

A sense of competence is the achievement experienced after the mastery of activities. The emotion of competence includes the feeling that work of a high standard is supplied (Thomas, 2009). According to the results of the study to be successful at an individual task is the main motivator. It might be an explanation that the individual experiences the flow in this work. This might be the result of mastery, which was established painfully over time (Pink, 2011). The second element, the belief that the specific job of the individual is valuable was still motivating, but only “very” instead of “extremely” for most of the participants. The last question, the part of the “moderately” motivated answers is higher than compared to the earlier questions. In the researcher’s opinion this category shows that the inner drive comes from the person himself (perceived success). The more abstract or broader the topic became, the less motivating it was perceived by the participants of this research. According to Pink (2009), the achievement of mastery involves overcoming obstacles, which might be accompanied by a certain level of pain. The result of positively overcoming is success or mastery, which is a high motivator.

In conclusion, the results show a tendency that mastery is a highly motivational factor. This corresponds with the research of Lee (2010) which suggests recruiting employees who have a need for mastery, because those employees will fulfil their personal contact. Interestingly, Lim, Srivastava and Qing (2008) found the link between motivation and mastery only for the US part and not the Asian part of their sample. In this research the differences between cultures were minor.

5.3.1.2 *Autonomy*

Autonomy has been emphasized as a main intrinsic motivator in theory (Foss et al., 2009; Pink, 2009; Stone et al., 2009; Thomas, 2009). The results of this research reveal that most of the participants are “very” motivated by being given responsibility related to their job, having complete authority to do their job and the ability to make free decisions related to their jobs. The last item is the main motivator in this category. In the researcher’s opinion it is easier to make decisions freely than to take responsibility or even have complete authority. It can be possibly seen as steps of a ladder: the first step would be to make decisions freely, after that to take responsibility and lastly have complete authority. This process has to be accompanied by competence or otherwise the individual might not be able to take these steps. In addition, the wording “complete authority” might be intimidating for a person who feels not a hundred per cent settled in the job yet. Thomas (2009) uses the word “choice” as an opportunity to choose activities that make sense and to accomplish them in ways that appear suitable. This might be a verbalisation, which is still powerful but less frightening as the impression of choice is the possibility of being able to build one’s own opinion and act out of one’s own will (Thomas, 2009).

In summary, the results reveal autonomy as an important motivator. The research of Christ, Emett, Summers and Wood (2012) shows similar results: in cases when autonomy was restricted, it had a negative impact on the employees performance. One main conclusion of their study was to implement a control system in order to ensure timely feedback without compromising the feeling of autonomy. Gallett, Portoghese and Battstelli (2011) found a similar result by revealing a positive connection between job autonomy and intrinsic motivation and affective commitment.

5.3.1.3 *Purpose*

Meaningfulness is the opportunity one identifies to follow a worthy purpose. The emotion of meaningfulness is the impression that one is following a goal, which is worth one’s time and input – that one is on a respected assignment

and that one's commitment adds value to the larger scheme of things. The sense of progress is the success one enjoys in accomplishing the purpose. The realisation of progress includes the feeling that your effort is moving in the right direction and that your actions will actually bear fruit (Thomas, 2009). Meaningfulness in combination with progress results in the respect of others. The majority of the participants are "very" motivated by the fact that their job is respected, but if one adds up the scores of "extremely" and "very" motivating in the answers for the three questions in this category together, it is obvious that the respect of colleagues and superiors is more important than the respect for the job. In the researcher's opinion the reason here is that human beings have emotions, which can be more acutely triggered by other people than by tasks.

The purpose of the work was separated in the early twentieth century, when scientific approaches to management were developed. However, without information about the purpose, personnel could not make fast decisions about their work or how to perform the different tasks (Thomas, 2009). Consequently personnel lost the intrinsic motivation at work. Intrinsically motivated employees participate in their jobs for the sake of passion, pleasure and interest (Stone et al., 2009). The results of this research show how motivating factors such as autonomy, purpose and mastery are. For this reason it should be in the interest of an organisation to take an interest in these factors and make an effort to include them in the work process.

5.3.2 Extrinsic motivation

The researcher has decided to use the structure of Figure 2.4, which was already presented in chapter 2 to discuss extrinsic motivators. To give a better overview, this figure is included again.

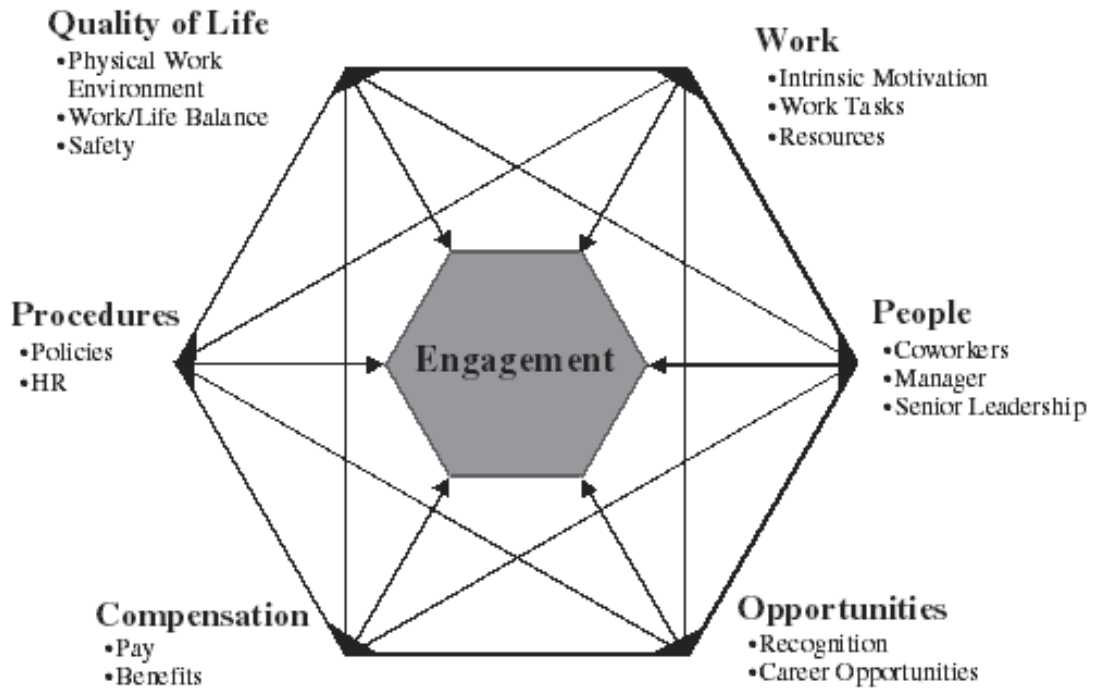


Figure 2.4 Factors of motivation

The questions were allocated in the following way by the researcher: compensation (Questions 1.12, 1.20), people (Questions 1.14, 1.17, 1.19, 1.22), procedures (Questions 1.10, 1.23), quality of life (Questions 1.11, 1.24), work (Questions 1.13, 1.16,) and opportunities (Questions 1.15, 1.18, 1.21).

5.3.2.1 Compensation and people

According to World at Work (2007) it is important to find the right combination of rewards that satisfies both the individual and the monetary requirements of existing and future personnel according to the current business conditions and cost limitations (World at Work, 2007), but in addition, relationships at work are important. The interest shown towards the employees by management is highly motivating, as it makes them feel more confident and appreciated (Ciorbagiu-Naon, 2010). Through empowerment and recognition employees will be motivated in a positive way (Manzoor, 2012).

Regarding the two questions about compensation, the responses are fairly different. On the one hand free utilities such as lunch, coffee, tea are perceived as only “moderately” to “only slightly” motivating, and is the item

which is rated the least motivating. On the other hand most respondents vote being paid an additional bonus for exceeding goals as “extremely” motivating. In the researcher’s opinion employees might take free utilities for granted and they are rather perceived as hygiene factors, which are only noticed if not available anymore, or in a negative light when the quality of the utilities is poor. The question of the bonus is formulated in connection with exceeding goals. Firstly, a bonus usually is associated with a considerable amount of money, and secondly, in this case it is connected to success (achieving goals). For this reason it looks motivating at first glance, but more research would be required to determine if it was motivating on a long-term basis.

Regarding the questions about people, the answers are more similar in kind with one exception: the majority of the respondents perceive having good relations with each other in the organisation as well as with their direct manager and the support of the manager in resolving conflicts in the workplace as “very” motivating. Most of the respondents answer the question about a colleague’s support when experiencing personal problems also as “very” motivating, but the value placed on this item is less than the other three questions. Relationships at work are important and have an impact on motivation. In particular, the relationship with a direct superior is crucial. Some people separate their personal and business lives. In the researcher’s opinion this is the reason for the differences in responses between the three questions in this context. It will be discussed in 5.3.3 if a difference in cultures can be found here.

Results by Aworemi and Durojowu (2011) recommend good working conditions, interesting work, and good pay as having a high positive impact on employee motivation. Furthermore, purposefully designed reward systems incorporating job enlargement, job enrichment, promotions, monetary, and non-monetary compensation help to achieve an increase in motivation. In the researcher’s opinion it becomes crucial for organisations to find the right mix of possibilities to motivate their employees and to balance various employees’ needs and organisational profit-orientated decisions.

5.3.2.2 Procedures and quality of life

According to Ciorbagiu-Naon (2010), the definition of guidelines and strategies as well as pleasant working conditions have a positive influence on motivation. The research of Khan et al. (2011) came to a similar result. Ciorbagiu-Naon (2010) further claims that poor working conditions increase the employees' frustration. In contrast, Sloof and Praag (2010) discovered that employees showed higher motivation when they were in a noisy environment than in a stable environment.

Although most of the respondents perceive the opportunity of unplanned leave if necessary as "very motivating", in comparison with other answers it is less motivating as the second highest score is "moderately" motivating. Retirement from the organisation as a result of long-term employment is less motivating as well. Most of the respondents answer "moderately" motivating. Procedures can be viewed as hygiene factors as well, as they might be perceived as disturbing, but are also needed in order to achieve a certain level of fairness and control. In the researcher's opinion the retirement decision has changed because nowadays fewer employees choose an organisation to retire from. This happens because the business world and jobs have changed and are less persistent now. It changes with age groups and varies between the two countries (Annexure F).

Working in a pleasant environment is "very" motivating for most of the respondents or even "extremely" motivating as the second most chosen answer. Earning a fair salary has a similar score, perceived as "very" motivating for almost 50 per cent. The researcher decided to classify earning a fair salary in this category and not in the category of compensation because in the researcher's opinion perceiving a salary as fair has other things to do with the employee's preference of work-life balance.

5.3.2.3 Work and opportunities

The purpose of work has changed. In the past it was enough to perform activities, but today employees have to direct their own actions towards organisational objectives. The employee's task has changed from passive

obedience to proactive self-management (Thomas, 2009). Organisational culture is an important key element for the employees' perception of work, the level of motivation, commitment, and work contentment. Higher staff motivation results in a competent workforce, which can finally lead to an increase in the general productivity of the organisation (Sokro, 2012).

The provision of satisfactory work equipment is "very" motivating for the majority of the respondents. Most of the participants perceive the belief that the organisation will improve in the future as "very" motivating as well. Being provided with satisfactory work resources and equipment is perceived as "very" motivating by most of the participants. The same level of motivation is achieved by opportunities of promotion as "very" motivating. For this question one third answer as well with "extremely motivating for this item. Regarding the question of being recognised for their work achievements, over forty per cent expressed an answer of "extremely" or "very" motivating.

Overall intrinsic motivation is perceived more motivating than extrinsic motivation. This corresponds with the results of Cinar et al. (2011), who found a preference for intrinsic motivation and Nujjoo and Meyer (2012), who found a preference for intrinsic rewards.

5.3.3 Differences between countries

As reported in chapter 4, the frequency distribution was similar for three questions only (Questions 1.2, 1.3, 1.8). South Africans tend to give more positive answers than Germans. Regarding the different categories this means the following: most of the South Africans are "extremely" motivated by "mastery", while most of the Germans are "very" motivated in the same category. Regarding "authority" the differences are smaller, only "complete authority" is "extremely" motivating while the other aspects of this category are "very" motivating. The differences in the category "purpose" vary. While the answers are similar regarding the respect from colleagues and the respect by others for the job, most of the South Africans are "extremely" motivated by respectful treatment from their supervisors, while Germans are "very" motivated.

Differences in motivation in connection with “procedures” are minor. The opportunity to take unplanned leave is admittedly “very” motivating for both nationalities, but the distribution is wide and retiring from an organisation is in general more motivating for South Africans than for Germans. The categories “quality of life” and “compensation” provide a greater motivation for South Africans than for Germans. The category “people” is “very” motivating for both nationalities with a tendency of South Africans towards “extremely” motivating and a tendency for Germans towards “moderately” motivating. The exception is the support of colleagues when experiencing personal problems, where both nationalities have the tendency towards “moderately” motivating. Regarding “work” the tendency here again is that most participants are “very” motivated by this factor but Germans drift again to “moderately” while South Africans incline to “extremely”. “Opportunities” are “extremely” motivating for South Africans too, especially the opportunity for promotion and recognition, while being “very” motivating for Germans.

All in all South Africans select the category “extremely” motivating more often than German participants. In particular “mastery”, “opportunities”, “quality of life” and “compensation” are categories that are “extremely” motivating for South Africans. In the opinion of the researcher, this could have two reasons: South African participants have greater motivation at work compared to the German participants. In the curve of development and industrialisation South Africa is progressing, while Germany is already established and Germans feel comfortable in their positions, which also means less passion or drive. The other explanation could be that Germans avoid “extreme” answers and prefer give answers, which tend to the middle. Further research would be needed to verify these explanations.

The factors of the factor analysis are as follows

Table 4.17 Factors comparison

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	With out
Germany	14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19	7, 22, 23	11, 12, 13	18, 20, 21, 24	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9	10
South Africa	9, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19	12, 13, 14, 15, 22, 23	18, 20, 21, 24	2, 5, 8	3, 4, 7, 22	1, 10, 11
Content coherence						
		1, 4, 7	2, 5, 8	3, 6, 9	14, 17, 19, 22	
		11, 24	13, 16	15, 18, 21	12, 20	10, 2, 3

Unfortunately, the researcher could not find a substantial coherence for the factors of the electronic factor analysis (Table 4.17). The colours show the compliance of the different factors of the two countries. Additionally the researcher has listed the groupings which make sense substantially. It becomes obvious that the differences are immense. The researcher has not come across research she could compare in this particular matter. In future research she would use a research instrument, which already had been used for a factor analysis.

5.3.4 Hypotheses findings

One of the main objectives of this study is to research differences and similarities regarding extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of German and South African people. For this reason six hypotheses were formulated. Table 5.1 presents the hypotheses and whether they were accepted or rejected:

Table 5.1 Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Result
1) A difference in motivators exists between the South African and German cultures.	Accepted
2) Germans are more intrinsically motivated than extrinsically motivated.	Accepted
3) Germans are more intrinsically motivated than South Africans.	Rejected
4) The correlation between cultures is stronger than the correlation between gender.	Accepted
5) The correlation between ages is stronger than the correlation between cultures.	Partly accepted
6) The higher the income, the higher the preference for intrinsic motivation.	Rejected

The results of the hypothesis show significant differences and reinforce the results of the frequency analysis, and in particular, that South African results are higher than the German ones. While the intrinsic motivation for both countries is higher than the intrinsic motivation, the researcher is surprised by the results revealing that the intrinsic motivation of South Africans is higher than that of the German respondents. Interestingly, the results show that culture has a stronger influence on motivation than gender, while the result for age shows a stronger influence at least as an intrinsic motivation.

Former results of research show a decreasing interest in extrinsic factors if the individual has reached a higher income (Thomas, 2009). This research could not confirm this. In the researcher's opinion this might be the reason individuals are less motivated by financial rewards because their physiological need is satisfied to a certain degree.

5.4 Summary

In this chapter the results in connection with the findings of the literature were discussed. The chapter began with the discussion of complexities of the

instrument. Next, the findings of intrinsic motivators, especially purpose, mastery and autonomy in the context of the literature were elaborated on. The next part of the chapter dealt with a discussion of the findings in relation to extrinsic motivation, especially compensation and people, procedures and quality of life and work and opportunities. Finally the differences in the findings between the two countries were reviewed. The next and final chapter presents the conclusion, strengths and limitations of the research and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER SIX:

CONCLUSIONS, STRENGTHS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

6.1. Introduction

The final chapter documents conclusions based on the literature and empirical study beginning with the literature review. The chapter also takes into consideration the strengths and the limitations of the study. Certain limitations encountered during the study must be acknowledged, as they provide suggestions for future research. The chapter concludes with recommendations for future research and a summary.

6.2 Conclusions

6.2.1 Conclusions based on literature study

Employee motivation is a crucial factor in today's organisations. Human capital is an important key element for a company's success, because human capital provides an opportunity for a competitive advantage. In the end a company will be only successful on a long-term basis if it is able to inspire its employees and meet their emotional needs. Of course, to a certain extent individuals have to work to make a living and there might be always some employees who work to rule.

The following questions can be asked: are employees driven by remuneration and control (extrinsic motivation) or are they driven by internal factors such as job satisfaction and identification with common values (intrinsic motivation)? Furthermore, must management choose between the two approaches? (Frey & Osterloh, 2002).

Motivation and rewards: organisations use rewards to motivate their employees. Rewards are very often offered for the purpose of making people

do what does not happen naturally: for example, working long hours, neglecting interests and relationships or behaving in a manner meaningless to a person (Ryan & Deci, 2000). To forge this kind of behaviour, rewards are promised, requests made, objectives recommended, performance assessed, or feedback given. These interventions, communication, and encouragements are examples of extrinsic interferences that might be able to influence the intrinsic motivation that follows (Harackiewicz & Sansone, 2000). The extrinsic reward approach (extrinsic motivation) is successful on a short-term basis, but not on a long-term one because the individual would only complete the task in exchange for a reward (Thomas, 2009). This is an example of the crowding-out effect. In this context, intrinsic motivation must have been there from the outset, otherwise there would be nothing to undermine (Pink, 2009).

For this reason it turns out that the power of extrinsic rewards generates an even more serious and longer-lasting problem: by using arbitrary reward contingencies, intrinsic motivation could be destabilised, and the inherent tendencies which form the structural basis for the self-regulation of actions, could force individuals to act against their nature. Contingent rewards, which undermine self-regulatory tendencies, lead individuals to ignore their basic needs, and disturb attentiveness and choice, all to the disadvantage of healthy development (Ryan & Deci, 2000). According to Pink (2009) a successful strategy in connection with money and motivation is that employers should pay their employees so much that their needs are satisfied and that they are not interested in money anymore and then focus on intrinsic motivators.

In case people have adequate extrinsic (incentive) and intrinsic (interest) motives to perform in a certain way, they will neglect the intrinsic motivation and focus their behaviour on the extrinsic reward. Accordingly, when the extrinsic reward is taken away, the person loses the intrinsic reasons to participate in the behaviour (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000). Over years, research has discovered that a potential reward is not the only extrinsic limitation that can undermine intrinsic job motivation and in turn, a creative approach to work. A number of environmental factors can even result in a

decrease in intrinsic motivation. An estimated reward, an expected assessment, a limited choice, rivalry, surveillance, and time restrictions all have been known to reduce intrinsic interest and creativity (Hennessey, 2000).

Intrinsic motivation reveals an individual's core aspiration for meeting internal needs, and it originates from emotions (Qayyum & Sukirno, 2012). According to Nica et al. (2011) recognition is recognized as the greatest global motivator. One of the biggest assets of any company are the employees who work there, for this reason there is a need to apply the new total motivational process. Organisations have chosen the one-dimensional reward for a long time (Pink, 2009). In order to attract, retain and motivate employees for now and in the future it is important to include intrinsic factors in their strategies. Loyal long-term employees offer knowledge, experience, and approaches, which are the reason for the success of the organisation.

Even though every employee can have an impact on the success of an organisation, managers have a key function, which is to motivate subordinates. However, the effectiveness of a manager will depend on his personality and, in particular, on his ability to motivate himself (Pouchová, 2011). Superiors should allow employees' authority, promote decision making participation and support self-initiation (Stone et al., 2009). Osterloh and Frost (2002) claim that the management of intrinsic motivation has been neglected. Present management concepts have also failed to cover this matter. Instead they have concentrated on extrinsic financial remuneration systems and have indicated strongly that there is no connection between variable management pay and corporate performance. The manager's regular feedback, praise and delegation of important tasks is encouraging for the worker, who feels valued by the company. Occasionally the relationship among team members can be more inspiring and motivating than a minor increase in pay (Ciorbagiu-Naon, 2010).

Pink (2009) recommends "now that" rewards instead of "if then" rewards for creative, right brain, exploratory tasks. These rewards should offer praise,

positive criticism, and helpful information. Consequently, if the empowerment and the recognition of employees in an organisation are improved, their motivation to work will increase as well (Manzoor, 2012).

The literature review aimed to provide an overview of past and current motivational research regarding extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. It was intended to help to integrate the research results in the actual discussion about motivation. In conclusion, intrinsic motivators become more and more important for the long-term success of companies.

6.2.2. Conclusions based on empirical study

In the empirical section good reliability and validity could be presented. Cronbach's coefficient alphas for the overall study are all above 0.8, which indicates good reliability. The comparison between the Cronbach's coefficient alpha from this research and the previous research shows similarities and only small differences. The overall Cronbach's alpha varies by 0.01, the Cronbach's alphas for extrinsic and intrinsic motivation vary each by 0.02. Consequently, it can be concluded that the results of the research are reliable and measured what they are intended to do. A pilot study, which was conducted in advance of the study, helped to test the instrument for the specific research context and to discover and eliminate possible flaws. The results were promising, and in agreement with her supervisor, the researcher proceeded with the study.

The researcher managed to achieve and sample a balanced distribution. Nationality and gender were spread in almost even parts. Regarding age the highest proportion of the participants was in the age groups between 30 and 39. The highest percentage of the sample in relation to income was also the highest income group, but the majority of the highest income group were Germans. The distribution of the sample was satisfying as it was equalised regarding the demographics and gave insights into the participants of the survey.

The frequency distribution reveals some insights about extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Unfortunately the factor analysis failed to produce consistent factors. The factors do not load in the way the researcher had grouped them. An exploratory factor analysis did not bring satisfying results as well, because the loading of these factors is too small as well. In general, the participants perceive the questions as rather positive and give mostly the answer “mostly” motivating. Differences between intrinsic and extrinsic motivators can be found, while intrinsic motivators are rated higher than extrinsic motivators. “Being successful in the job” is the most motivating topic. “Free utilities” and “retirement from the same organisation” are the least motivating.

Further differences in the following categories can be observed. According to this study, mastery, authority and purpose are main motivators. Purpose as a motivator receives the highest scores overall. Key extrinsic motivating categories are compensation and people. Procedures are rather perceived as hygiene factors, while quality of life, work itself and opportunities are important categories to consider for organisations in order to motivate their employees.

The more abstract or broader the topic becomes, the less motivating it is perceived to be by the participants of this research. While being successful in the job receives the highest motivation, the knowledge that a job is valuable is less motivating and the importance for the organisation even less. The process of motivation can be possibly seen as steps of a ladder: for example the first step would be to make decisions freely, after that to take over responsibility and lastly having complete authority.

The results reveal a higher motivation in intrinsic factors than in extrinsic factors for both countries, while South Africans are more highly motivated than German participants. In particular, the factors “mastery”, “opportunities”, “quality of life” and “compensation” stand out for South African participants. In addition, fewer differences between genders are discovered than between cultures. Regarding “age”, the results in intrinsic motivation show a stronger

correlation between the same age groups than between cultures. Finally, participants show a higher interest in intrinsic motivators than in extrinsic motivators independent of the income group.

6.3. Strength and limitations of the study

Several strengths and limitations emanated from this research; the next section deals with the strength of this research followed by the limitations.

6.3.1 Strength of this research

The main contribution of this research is an empirical assessment of intrinsic and extrinsic motivators between two countries, namely Germany and South Africa. This research has focused on a new area of study by investigating intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in two different countries or cultures. To the knowledge of the researcher no such study had previously been done in the field of motivation, thus making this study a unique contribution to the body of knowledge on motivation.

In addition, good reliability and validity could be achieved owing to the fact that the questionnaire was specifically developed for the research purpose of extrinsic and intrinsic motivators and already tested. This indicates that the results can be useful and the conclusions sustainable.

The findings give some indication regarding the differences between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in the context of two different cultures and bring to attention useful information which might assist organisations in developing reward strategies and structures to increase and maintain their employees' motivation. The awareness of different preferences in motivation is the first step towards finding a solution for a successful strategy.

6.3.2 Limitations of this research

The researcher only limited the target group by a few characteristics, namely working experience, nationality and tertiary education, for the participation of

this research. The reason for this decision was to achieve a reasonable sample size. Further research could be undertaken with an increased number of limiting characteristics such as industrial field, managerial position or age group in order to make more specific assertions. In addition, this research was limited to two countries. Other countries could be taken into consideration to receive further insights.

Furthermore, although the online questionnaire had the advantage of being easy to access by the participants, and the data could be processed easily, the researcher had little control over composition of the sample or the industry to which the respondents belonged. It was not possible to calculate an accurate response rate, because it was difficult to determine how many questionnaires were distributed. Although the respondents were provided with written instructions and the offer to contact the researcher in case of questions, misunderstandings may also have taken place.

In addition, the researcher struggled to find factors which could be useful for further statistical analysis. The defined factors did not load statistically and the factors which were determined by exploratory factor analysis did not correspond content-wise. The researcher would recommend using an instrument which was developed by using more than extrinsic and intrinsic factors and tested by previous research. These factors could be mastery, autonomy, purpose, compensation, people, quality of life, processes, work and opportunities.

6.4 Recommendations

In this section recommendations for further research are provided. The researcher came across several interesting and important questions during the research. One research topic could be the effects and impacts that extrinsic and intrinsic motivators have in organisations. For example, the opportunities for organisations to offer specifically intrinsic and extrinsic reward and research the impact on motivation. Further it is important to explore the effects measurable in productivity and company success. In this

context success should be defined and the role of motivation should be researched. In other words is motivation just a means to an end? Do organisations use motivation just to improve their productivity and profits?

In particular, intrinsic motivation does not happen in a vacuum. In this study it was not possible to compare motivation in different stages of a process or determine if motivation changes over time. A possible research question could be to ask how an organisation can increase and maintain motivation over time. In order to achieve this a questionnaire could be sent to the same respondents over a period of time or several times.

In addition, motivation in relation to demographic variables should be researched in depth. In particular the role of the management as a demographic variable could be looked into in more detail as management occupies a key role when it comes to motivation. On the one hand, how managers are motivated could be the focus of research but on the other hand, how they motivate their employees by using extrinsic and intrinsic motivators is a further possibility for research. Finally, cultural differences in extrinsic and intrinsic motivation could be studied in depth and more cultures examined in this context.

6.5 Summary

This final chapter provides the conclusion of this research. At the beginning of the chapter the findings of the literature have been summarised and highlighted. Subsequently, some of the results of the empirical research were presented and discussed. These were followed by the strengths and the limitations of the research, and finally, recommendations for further research were provided.

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ANNEXURES

ANNEXURE A Questionnaire

Dear Respondent,

The following questionnaire is part of the empirical research for a Master's Thesis. The research topic is: 'A comparison between extrinsic and intrinsic motivators in an international context.' Kindly fill in the following questionnaire, which will take about 10 minutes to complete. The questionnaire is divided into two parts. The first part concerns statements relating to different degrees of motivation in the workplace. Please indicate your opinion by selecting a number between 1 and 5 on the scale, which indicates the following:

Score	Definition
1	Not at all motivating
2	Only slightly motivating
3	Moderately motivating
4	Very motivating
5	Extremely motivating

The second part contains question related to demographic information (such as age, gender, etc.) for statistical purposes.

Please be assured that all data will be kept confidential and be used for research purposes only. Participation is voluntary and anonymity will be assured. If you have any questions or are interested in the results, please contact the researcher via email: s211281409@live.nmmu.ac.za.

Thank you for giving your time to answer the questionnaire. Your assistance is really appreciated.

Kind regards,

Anne Giesser

Sehr geehrter Teilnehmer/in,

Der folgende Fragebogen ist Teil der empirischen Forschung für eine Masterarbeit. Der Titel der Arbeit lautet: 'Vergleich zwischen extrinsischen und intrinsischen Motivatoren im internationalen Zusammenhang.' Bitte füllen Sie folgenden Fragebogen aus, um an der Studie teilzunehmen. Das Ausfüllen dauert ungefähr 10 Minuten. Der Fragebogen ist in zwei Teile gegliedert. Der erste Teil beinhaltet Aussagen über unterschiedliche Motivatoren am Arbeitsplatz. Bitte wählen Sie eine Zahl zwischen 1 und 5 aus, welche folgendes bedeuten:

Wert	Definition
1	Überhaupt nicht motivierend
2	Ein wenig motivierend
3	Durchschnittlich motivierend
4	Sehr motivierend
5	Höchst motivierend

Der zweite Teil beinhaltet Fragen über demographische Daten (wie zum Beispiel Alter, Geschlecht) für statistische Zwecke.

Alle Daten werden absolut vertraulich behandelt und werden nur im Rahmen dieser Masterarbeit verwendet. Die Teilnahme ist freiwillig und Anonymität ist über den gesamten Zeitraum gewährleistet. Falls Sie Fragen haben sollten oder interessiert an den Ergebnissen sind, melden Sie sich bitte per email unter: s211281409@live.nmmu.ac.za.

Vielen herzlichen Dank für Ihre Mitarbeit und Unterstützung.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen,

Anne Giesser

1. Statements about different degrees of motivation in the workplace

	<p>1-9 : Intrinsic</p> <p>10-24 : Extrinsic</p>	Not at all motivating	Only Slightly motivating	Moderately motivating	Very motivating	Extremely motivating
1.1	Being successful in what I'm doing on the job	1	2	3	4	5
1.2	Being given responsibility related to my job	1	2	3	4	5
1.3	Being treated with respect by my colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
1.4	Believing that my job is valuable	1	2	3	4	5
1.5	Having complete authority to do my job	1	2	3	4	5
1.6	Believing my job is respected	1	2	3	4	5
1.7	Believing that I am an important member of my organisation	1	2	3	4	5
1.8	Being able to freely make decisions related to my job	1	2	3	4	5
1.9	Being treated with respect by my superiors.	1	2	3	4	5
1.10	Being given the opportunity to take unplanned leave if necessary	1	2	3	4	5
1.11	Working in a pleasant environment	1	2	3	4	5
1.12	Having access to free utilities such as lunch, tea, coffee etc.	1	2	3	4	5
1.13	Being provided with satisfactory work resources and equipment	1	2	3	4	5
1.14	Having good relations with others in my organisation	1	2	3	4	5
1.15	Being provided with the opportunity to attend educational activities (e.g. seminars, conferences)	1	2	3	4	5
1.16	Believing that the organisation will improve in the future	1	2	3	4	5
1.17	Having a good relationship with my manager	1	2	3	4	5
1.18	Being provided with opportunities for promotion	1	2	3	4	5
1.19	Having the support of my manager in resolving conflicts in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5

1.20	Being paid additional bonuses for exceeding my goals	1	2	3	4	5
1.21	Being recognised for my work achievements	1	2	3	4	5
1.22	Having my colleagues' support when experiencing personal problems	1	2	3	4	5
1.23	Being sure that I will retire from my organisation as a result of long-term employment	1	2	3	4	5
1.24	Earning a fair salary	1	2	3	4	5

2. Demographics

	Category	Criteria
2.1	Home country	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> Germany <input type="radio"/> South Africa
2.2	Gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> Male <input type="radio"/> Female
2.3	Age	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> Younger than 20 <input type="radio"/> 20-29 <input type="radio"/> 30-39 <input type="radio"/> 40-49 <input type="radio"/> 50-59 <input type="radio"/> Older than 59
2.4	Marital status	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> Single <input type="radio"/> In a relationship <input type="radio"/> Married <input type="radio"/> Divorced <input type="radio"/> Widowed
2.5	Children	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No
2.6	Managerial position	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No <input type="radio"/> Other
2.7	Industrial field	Please indicate your sector
2.8	Income (annual)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> Below R120.000 (12.000 Euro) <input type="radio"/> R120.000 - R239.999 (12.000 – 23.999 Euro) <input type="radio"/> R240.000 – R359.999 (24.000 – 35.999 Euro) <input type="radio"/> R360.000 – R479.999 (36.000 – 47.999 Euro) <input type="radio"/> R 480.000 – R599.999 (48.000 – 59.999 Euro) <input type="radio"/> Above R600.000 (60.000 Euro)
2.9	Heritage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="radio"/> White <input type="radio"/> Black <input type="radio"/> Coloured <input type="radio"/> Other

ANNEXURE B Email participants

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire is part of a study for a Master's Thesis in the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology. The topic deals with a comparison between different motivators in an international context, with focus on differences and similarities between Germany and South Africa. I would be grateful if you could fill out the questionnaire. The following link guides you to my study.

<http://www.nmmu.ac.za/websurvey/q.asp?sid=1126&k=ffqpemvnap>

To participate you need to be German or South African and need to be working or have at least working experience. It will take about 7 minutes to complete the questionnaire. I need about 350 participants for the study so I would be grateful if you could forward this message to other people.

Please be assured that all data will be kept confidential and be used for research purposes only. If you have any questions or are interested in the results, please let me know.

Thank you for giving your time to answer the questionnaire. Your assistance is really appreciated.

Kind regards,

Anne Giesser

PS: If you interested in the results, please contact me
(s211281409@live.nmmu.ac.za)

Liebe/r Teilnehmer/in,

dies ist eine Studie für eine Masterarbeit im Bereich Wirtschaftspsychologie. Die Arbeit beschäftigt sich mit unterschiedlichen Motivatoren im Arbeitsumfeld in internationalen Kontext am Beispiel von Deutschland und Südafrika. Es wäre eine große Unterstützung, Sie den Fragenbogen über den untenstehenden Link ausfüllen würden.

Den Fragenbogen finden Sie unter

<http://www.nmmu.ac.za/websurvey/q.asp?sid=1126&k=ffqpemvnap>

Die Kriterien für die Teilnahme sind, daß die Teilnehmer deutsch oder südafrikanisch sein müssen, sie sollten im Berufsleben stehen oder Berufserfahrung haben. Der Fragebogen ist auf Englisch, da bei einer Übersetzung die Gefahr besteht, daß der Sinn verfälscht wird.

Die Beantwortung dauert ungefähr 7 Minuten. Bitte leiten Sie den Link auch gerne an andere Personen weiter. Es wird eine Teilnehmerzahl von mindestens 350 benötigt.

Falls Sie Fragen haben, melden Sie sich gerne!

Vielen herzlichen Dank für Ihre Unterstützung

Anne Giesser

PS: Alle Daten werden absolut vertraulich behandelt und werden nur im Rahmen dieser Masterarbeit verwendet. Die Teilnahme ist freiwillig und Anonymität ist über den gesamten Zeitraum gewährleistet.

PPS: Wenn Sie Interesse an den Ergebnissen haben, melden Sie sich gerne (s211281409@live.nmmu.ac.za)!

ANNEXURE C Permission of the instrument

From: ORHAN CINAR [orhanar@gmail.com]
Sent: Thursday, February 07, 2013 5:04 PM
To: Giesser, Anne (Ms) (s211281409)
Subject: Re: Measure for employee motivation

Dear Anne,
It is very nice to receive such a mail.
You can use the questionnaire.
I will be happy if you sent me your completed thesis at the end.

Best regards.

Orhan

2013/2/7 Giesser, Anne (Ms) (s211281409) <s211281409@live.nmmu.ac.za>
Dear Mr. Cinar,

My name is Anne Giesser and I'm a Master student in Industrial and Organisational Psychology at Nelson Mandela Metropole University in Port Elizabeth, South Africa. At the moment I'm busy writing my thesis on the topic: Cultural differences in motivation in the workplace.

During my research I came across your article "A motivation study on the effectiveness of intrinsic and extrinsic factors". The purpose of my communication is to obtain your permission to use your questionnaire for research purposes. In case of a positive answer it would be highly appreciated if you could email the questionnaire to me. The study is purely of academic nature and not for commercial purposes.

Thank you very much!
Kind regards,
Anne Giesser

--

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Orhan ÇINAR

Atatürk Üniversitesi
İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi
ERZURUM

--

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Orhan ÇINAR

Atatürk Üniversitesi
İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi
ERZURUM

Annexure D Frequencies

2-Way Summary Table: Observed Frequencies

Country	Q2_1	Q2_1	Q2_1	Q2_1	Q2_1	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	1	3	12	105	72	193
Row %	0,52%	1,55%	6,22%	54,40%	37,31%	
SA	0	1	7	60	113	181
Row %	0,00%	0,55%	3,87%	33,15%	62,43%	
Totals	1	4	19	165	185	374

Chi-square 24,32 df=4 p=.00007

Country	Q2_2	Q2_2	Q2_2	Q2_2	Q2_2	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	0	3	36	104	50	193
Row %	0,00%	1,55%	18,65%	53,89%	25,91%	
SA	1	1	18	86	75	181
Row %	0,55%	0,55%	9,94%	47,51%	41,44%	
Totals	1	4	54	190	125	374

Chi-square 14,33 df=4 p=.00630

Country	Q2_3	Q2_3	Q2_3	Q2_3	Q2_3	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	1	4	28	95	65	193
Row %	0,52%	2,07%	14,51%	49,22%	33,68%	
SA	0	1	21	81	78	181
Row %	0,00%	0,55%	11,60%	44,75%	43,09%	
Totals	1	5	49	176	143	374

Chi-square 5,72 df=4 p=.22136

2-Way Summary Table: Observed

Frequencies

Country	Q2_4	Q2_4	Q2_4	Q2_4	Q2_4	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	1	3	26	99	64	193
Row %	0,52%	1,55%	13,47%	51,30%	33,16%	
SA	0	1	8	79	93	181
Row %	0,00%	0,55%	4,42%	43,65%	51,38%	
Totals	1	4	34	178	157	374

Chi-square 18,77 df=4 p=.00087

Country	Q2_5	Q2_5	Q2_5	Q2_5	Q2_5	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	3	10	49	87	44	193
Row %	1,55%	5,18%	25,39%	45,08%	22,80%	
SA	0	2	20	77	82	181
Row %	0,00%	1,10%	11,05%	42,54%	45,30%	
Totals	3	12	69	164	126	374

Chi-square 32,24 df=4 p=.00000

Country	Q2_6	Q2_6	Q2_6	Q2_6	Q2_6	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	2	10	43	107	31	193
Row %	1,04%	5,18%	22,28%	55,44%	16,06%	
SA	0	2	19	88	72	181
Row %	0,00%	1,10%	10,50%	48,62%	39,78%	
Totals	2	12	62	195	103	374

Chi-square 34,45 df=4 p=.00000

2-Way Summary Table: Observed Frequencies

Country	Q2_7	Q2_7	Q2_7	Q2_7	Q2_7	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	3	12	59	86	33	193
Row %	1,55%	6,22%	30,57%	44,56%	17,10%	
SA	0	5	22	74	80	181
Row %	0,00%	2,76%	12,15%	40,88%	44,20%	
Totals	3	17	81	160	113	374

Chi-square 42,89 df=4 p=.00000

Country	Q2_8	Q2_8	Q2_8	Q2_8	Q2_8	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	1	1	40	105	46	193
Row %	0,52%	0,52%	20,73%	54,40%	23,83%	
SA	2	2	12	92	73	181
Row %	1,10%	1,10%	6,63%	50,83%	40,33%	
Totals	3	3	52	197	119	374

Chi-square 22,37 df=4 p=.00017

Country	Q2_9	Q2_9	Q2_9	Q2_9	Q2_9	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	1	2	27	99	64	193
Row %	0,52%	1,04%	13,99%	51,30%	33,16%	
SA	0	3	14	71	93	181
Row %	0,00%	1,66%	7,73%	39,23%	51,38%	
Totals	1	5	41	170	157	374

Chi-square 14,92 df=4 p=.00487

2-Way Summary Table: Observed Frequencies

Country	Q2_10	Q2_10	Q2_10	Q2_10	Q2_10	Row
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	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	6	28	61	65	33	193
Row %	3,11%	14,51%	31,61%	33,68%	17,10%	
SA	9	18	49	67	38	181
Row %	4,97%	9,94%	27,07%	37,02%	20,99%	
Totals	15	46	110	132	71	374

Chi-square 4,08 df=4 p=.39468

Country	Q2_11	Q2_11	Q2_11	Q2_11	Q2_11	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	2	9	61	82	39	193
Row %	1,04%	4,66%	31,61%	42,49%	20,21%	
SA	1	5	34	68	73	181
Row %	0,55%	2,76%	18,78%	37,57%	40,33%	
Totals	3	14	95	150	112	374

Chi-square 20,41 df=4 p=.00041

Country	Q2_12	Q2_12	Q2_12	Q2_12	Q2_12	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	17	68	65	33	10	193
Row %	8,81%	35,23%	33,68%	17,10%	5,18%	
SA	32	30	70	27	22	181
Row %	17,68%	16,57%	38,67%	14,92%	12,15%	
Totals	49	98	135	60	32	374

Chi-square 24,25 df=4 p=.00007

2-Way Summary Table: Observed Frequencies

Country	Q2_13	Q2_13	Q2_13	Q2_13	Q2_13	Row
	Not at all	Only	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals

	slightly					
Germany	2	19	65	90	17	193
Row %	1,04%	9,84%	33,68%	46,63%	8,81%	
SA	0	3	28	99	51	181
Row %	0,00%	1,66%	15,47%	54,70%	28,18%	
Totals	2	22	93	189	68	374

Chi-square 45,45 df=4 p=.00000

Country	Q2_14	Q2_14	Q2_14	Q2_14	Row
	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	4	51	104	34	193
Row %	2,07%	26,42%	53,89%	17,62%	
SA	6	30	99	46	181
Row %	3,31%	16,57%	54,70%	25,41%	
Totals	10	81	203	80	374

Chi-square 7,39 df=3 p=.06045

Country	Q2_15	Q2_15	Q2_15	Q2_15	Q2_15	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	3	13	61	84	32	193
Row %	1,55%	6,74%	31,61%	43,52%	16,58%	
SA	3	15	37	72	54	181
Row %	1,66%	8,29%	20,44%	39,78%	29,83%	
Totals	6	28	98	156	86	374

Chi-square 12,20 df=4 p=.01593

2-Way Summary Table: Observed Frequencies

Country	Q2_16	Q2_16	Q2_16	Q2_16	Q2_16	Row
	Not at all	Only	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals

	slightly					
Germany	2	18	57	93	23	193
Row %	1,04%	9,33%	29,53%	48,19%	11,92%	
SA	4	8	30	74	65	181
Row %	2,21%	4,42%	16,57%	40,88%	35,91%	
Totals	6	26	87	167	88	374

Chi-square 34,75 df=4 p=.00000

Country	Q2_17	Q2_17	Q2_17	Q2_17	Q2_17	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	1	8	46	102	36	193
Row %	0,52%	4,15%	23,83%	52,85%	18,65%	
SA	1	2	20	82	76	181
Row %	0,55%	1,10%	11,05%	45,30%	41,99%	
Totals	2	10	66	184	112	374

Chi-square 29,95 df=4 p=.00001

Country	Q2_18	Q2_18	Q2_18	Q2_18	Q2_18	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	11	21	54	72	35	193
Row %	5,70%	10,88%	27,98%	37,31%	18,13%	
SA	1	2	21	70	87	181
Row %	0,55%	1,10%	11,60%	38,67%	48,07%	
Totals	12	23	75	142	122	374

Chi-square 60,42 df=4 p=.00000

2-Way Summary Table: Observed Frequencies

Country	Q2_19	Q2_19	Q2_19	Q2_19	Q2_19	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals

Germany	2	19	49	90	33	193
Row %	1,04%	9,84%	25,39%	46,63%	17,10%	
SA	1	4	14	101	61	181
Row %	0,55%	2,21%	7,73%	55,80%	33,70%	
Totals	3	23	63	191	94	374

Chi-square 38,19 df=4 p=.00000

Country	Q2_20	Q2_20	Q2_20	Q2_20	Q2_20	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	8	20	62	74	29	193
Row %	4,15%	10,36%	32,12%	38,34%	15,03%	
SA	1	5	27	47	101	181
Row %	0,55%	2,76%	14,92%	25,97%	55,80%	
Totals	9	25	89	121	130	374

Chi-square 73,80 df=4 p=.00000

Country	Q2_21	Q2_21	Q2_21	Q2_21	Q2_21	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	0	6	37	97	53	193
Row %	0,00%	3,11%	19,17%	50,26%	27,46%	
SA	2	2	13	63	101	181
Row %	1,10%	1,10%	7,18%	34,81%	55,80%	
Totals	2	8	50	160	154	374

Chi-square 37,36 df=4 p=.00000

2-Way Summary Table: Observed Frequencies

Country	Q2_22	Q2_22	Q2_22	Q2_22	Q2_22	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	5	19	75	78	16	193
Row %	2,59%	9,84%	38,86%	40,41%	8,29%	

SA	15	28	55	59	24	181
Row %	8,29%	15,47%	30,39%	32,60%	13,26%	
Totals	20	47	130	137	40	374

Chi-square 13,66 df=4 p=.00845

Country	Q2_23	Q2_23	Q2_23	Q2_23	Q2_23	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	25	36	67	51	14	193
Row %	12,95%	18,65%	34,72%	26,42%	7,25%	
SA	23	28	43	45	42	181
Row %	12,71%	15,47%	23,76%	24,86%	23,20%	
Totals	48	64	110	96	56	374

Chi-square 20,33 df=4 p=.00043

Country	Q2_24	Q2_24	Q2_24	Q2_24	Q2_24	Row
	Not at all	Only slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	Totals
Germany	3	3	29	101	57	193
Row %	1,55%	1,55%	15,03%	52,33%	29,53%	
SA	1	5	22	72	81	181
Row %	0,55%	2,76%	12,15%	39,78%	44,75%	
Totals	4	8	51	173	138	374

Chi-square 11,12 df=4 p=.02522

ANNEXURE E

Factor matrix

	Q2_1	Q2_2	Q2_3	Q2_4	Q2_5	Q2_6	Q2_7	Q2_8	Q2_9	Q2_10	Q2_11	Q2_12
Q2_1	1,00	0,47	0,30	0,30	0,40	0,34	0,23	0,31	0,34	0,28	0,15	0,00
Q2_2	0,47	1,00	0,27	0,30	0,30	0,28	0,25	0,29	0,40	0,28	0,13	0,08
Q2_3	0,30	0,27	1,00	0,37	0,37	0,16	0,35	0,30	0,14	0,41	0,20	0,18
Q2_4	0,40	0,30	0,37	1,00	1,00	0,31	0,42	0,41	0,29	0,43	0,19	0,03
Q2_5	0,34	0,28	0,16	0,31	1,00	1,00	0,40	0,35	0,52	0,28	0,24	0,18
Q2_6	0,23	0,25	0,35	0,42	0,40	0,40	1,00	0,52	0,31	0,41	0,21	0,18
Q2_7	0,31	0,29	0,30	0,41	0,41	0,35	1,00	0,35	0,35	0,41	0,13	0,15
Q2_8	0,34	0,40	0,14	0,29	0,29	0,52	0,31	1,00	1,00	0,33	0,18	0,09
Q2_9	0,28	0,28	0,41	0,43	0,43	0,28	0,41	0,33	0,33	1,00	0,22	0,30
Q2_10	0,15	0,13	0,20	0,19	0,19	0,24	0,21	0,13	0,18	0,22	1,00	0,36
Q2_11	0,13	0,16	0,32	0,24	0,24	0,19	0,36	0,26	0,22	0,30	0,28	1,00
Q2_12	0,00	0,08	0,18	0,03	0,03	0,18	0,18	0,15	0,09	0,05	0,36	0,27
Q2_13	0,19	0,24	0,27	0,21	0,21	0,29	0,36	0,24	0,22	0,21	0,18	0,43
Q2_14	0,13	0,24	0,31	0,23	0,23	0,11	0,25	0,31	0,16	0,23	0,18	0,42
Q2_15	0,14	0,24	0,20	0,16	0,16	0,15	0,20	0,22	0,15	0,24	0,14	0,26
Q2_16	0,11	0,16	0,14	0,19	0,19	0,21	0,29	0,34	0,21	0,24	0,14	0,38
Q2_17	0,24	0,25	0,29	0,29	0,29	0,13	0,30	0,35	0,11	0,34	0,18	0,39
Q2_18	0,23	0,22	0,23	0,21	0,21	0,27	0,29	0,33	0,19	0,32	0,15	0,28
Q2_19	0,23	0,20	0,18	0,37	0,37	0,23	0,30	0,33	0,26	0,43	0,18	0,36
Q2_20	0,11	0,10	0,16	0,18	0,18	0,30	0,22	0,20	0,14	0,21	0,16	0,23
Q2_21	0,29	0,21	0,30	0,33	0,33	0,26	0,33	0,33	0,23	0,45	0,13	0,23
Q2_22	0,02	0,03	0,22	0,09	0,09	0,07	0,10	0,23	0,02	0,09	0,26	0,27

ANNEXURE F Differences question 23 in age

2-Way Summary Table: Observed Frequencies

Age	Q2_23 Not at all	Q2_23 Only slightly	Q2_23 Moderately	Q2_23 Very	Q2_23 Extremely	Row Totals
20-29 years	12	12	22	19	8	73
Row %	16,44%	16,44%	30,14%	26,03%	10,96%	
30-39 years	21	35	41	33	14	144
Row %	14,58%	24,31%	28,47%	22,92%	9,72%	
40-49 years	11	9	26	21	11	78
Row %	14,10%	11,54%	33,33%	26,92%	14,10%	
50-59 years	2	5	18	17	18	60
Row %	3,33%	8,33%	30,00%	28,33%	30,00%	
60+ years	2	3	3	6	5	19
Row %	10,53%	15,79%	15,79%	31,58%	26,32%	
Totals	48	64	110	96	56	374

Chi-square 30,72 df=16 p=.01461
Cramer's V 0,14 Small practical significance

2-Way Summary Table: Observed Frequencies

Subtable within: Home country:Germany

Age	Q2_23 Not at all	Q2_23 Only slightly	Q2_23 Moderately	Q2_23 Very	Q2_23 Extremely	Row Totals
20-29 years	6	8	15	9	4	42
Row %	14,29%	19,05%	35,71%	21,43%	9,52%	
30-39 years	12	22	26	21	4	85
Row %	14,12%	25,88%	30,59%	24,71%	4,71%	
40-49 years	5	5	15	10	3	38
Row %	13,16%	13,16%	39,47%	26,32%	7,89%	
50-59 years	0	1	8	7	3	19
Row %	0,00%	5,26%	42,11%	36,84%	15,79%	
60+ years	2	0	3	4	0	9
Row %	22,22%	0,00%	33,33%	44,44%	0,00%	
Totals	25	36	67	51	14	193

Chi-square 16,71 df=16 p=.40448

2-Way Summary Table: Observed Frequencies

Subtable within: Home country:SA

Age	Q2_23 Not at all	Q2_23 Only slightly	Q2_23 Moderately	Q2_23 Very	Q2_23 Extremely	Row Totals
20-29 years	6	4	7	10	4	31
Row %	19,35%	12,90%	22,58%	32,26%	12,90%	
30-39 years	9	13	15	12	10	59
Row %	15,25%	22,03%	25,42%	20,34%	16,95%	
40-49 years	6	4	11	11	8	40
Row %	15,00%	10,00%	27,50%	27,50%	20,00%	
50-59 years	2	4	10	10	15	41
Row %	4,88%	9,76%	24,39%	24,39%	36,59%	
60+ years	0	3	0	2	5	10
Row %	0,00%	30,00%	0,00%	20,00%	50,00%	
Totals	23	28	43	45	42	181

Chi-square 22,50 df=16 p=.12767