THE IMPACT OF MOTIVATION ON JOB SATISFACTION AMONGST EMPLOYEES OF A NATIONAL BROADCASTER

XOLANI ENOCH TYILANA

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of motivation on job satisfaction (dissatisfaction) of journalistic employees employed by the national public broadcaster. The idea was to profile factors causing high motivation and job satisfaction and also to profile those factors that contribute low motivation and dissatisfaction at work.

The rationale for the study was simply an observation that some employees seem better adjusted and happy at work and are able to cope well with the demands of the working environment while others are not. Another observation is that management seem not to be aware of what motivates their subordinates and to strategically utilize those motivational tools to maintain high levels of job satisfaction (or at least low levels of job dissatisfaction), high productivity and morale.

The target sample was all journalistic staff working in the television and radio news rooms of the national public broadcaster in South Africa. The profile of the respondents included a variety of ages, gender, races, educational backgrounds, different work locations, different marital statuses and managers and non-managers.

Data was collected using a questionnaire that was randomly distributed at Head Office in Auckland Park and to all the nine regional offices of the SABC.

The major findings of this investigation was that three motivational factors, namely achievement, recognition and work itself cause 88% job satisfaction; while hygiene factors cause 12% job satisfaction. At the same time the research also found that three hygiene factors, namely supervision,   company policy and administration and interpersonal relations with supervisors cause 60% job dissatisfaction; while motivational factors, namely achievement and recognition cause 40% job dissatisfaction. These results reflect the work attitudes of employees at the time of this research.

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The study illustrates that when employees are happy and satisfied in their jobs, their level of motivation is high and they perform at peak all the time. On the other hand, when employees are unhappy and dissatisfied at work, their level of motivation is low and they don't perform at peak level.

The study recommends strategies of how management can utilize achievement, recognition and work itself as a tool to keep employees motivated and satisfied in their jobs. It also recommends ways by which management can eliminate low motivation and job dissatisfaction amongst employees by improving management skills, knowledge and competencies of managers, building relations between managers and subordinates and also improving the quality of internal communication with employees especially on policy and administrative matters.

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Chapter 1 – Introduction and motivation

1.1. Introduction

This is a descriptive study looking into the impact of motivation on job satisfaction. The management dilemma in many organizations in today's fast paced technological environment is how managers can improve the motivation of employees, so that companies employ and retain a fulfilled workforce that contributes optimally to organizational stakeholders. Essentially, the questions that must be answered by this study are:

- What makes some employees perform better than others?
- What makes some employees seem better satisfied in their jobs than others? And
- In what ways can management improve the motivation of its employees?

Some of the benefits of this research for managers as well as organizations include:

- It will broaden management's insights that motivation plays a key role in the overall job satisfaction of employees.
- It will enable managers to understand the factors and processes that are internal and external to the individual employee in an organization that have an effect in his/her behaviour and performance.
- By understanding motivational issues behind employees, managers can systematically develop strategies to deal with motivational problems.
- The results of this investigation can help companies lower turnover costs by addressing motivational concerns of employees. The consequence is that employees will stay and not resign the company. Replacing an experienced and trained worker can be very costly for organization.

1.2. Problem statement

There are many and varied reasons why managers are continually under distress in organization. Resources, human and material, technology are but a few issues confronting managers daily. More importantly the human aspect has questions that have perplexed and fascinated managers for a long time. These questions include:

- What makes some employees perform better than others?
- What makes some employees seem better satisfied in their jobs than others?
- How can we improve the motivation and overall job satisfaction of our employees?

There are no easy answers to these questions, yet they plague managers in their day-to-day running of organizations.

The reality is that the level of employee motivation affects their morale, performance and overall job satisfaction.

1.3. Purpose and importance of the study

The fundamental purpose of this study is to determine the main causes of satisfaction and dissatisfaction amongst a group of employees within the framework of the Herzberg study.

This study is important or beneficial because:

- It will broaden management's insights that motivation plays a key role in the overall job satisfaction of employees.
- It will enable managers to understand the factors and processes that are internal and external to the individual employee in an organization that have an effect in his/her behaviour and performance.

- It will sensitize managers that when employee behavior is initiated and mobilized, it is for specific reasons. It is not just purposeless and aimless acting in a particular manner.

- The study will also assist managers to devise strategies that sustain a highly motivated workforce so that the end result is that all stakeholders are content with the performance of the enterprise.

- By understanding motivational issues behind employees, managers can systematically develop strategies to deal with motivational problems.

1.4. Research objectives

Cooper and Schindler (2001:95) say research objectives should address the purpose of the investigation. The objectives can be stated as research questions.

In this study, there is a primary and secondary objective.

1.4.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this investigation is to determine causes of satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

1.4.2 Secondary objectives

To make recommendations that will lead to increased satisfaction and decreased dissatisfaction.

1.5. Research hypothesis

Zikmund (2003:499) defines a hypothesis as an unproven proposition or supposition that tentatively explains certain facts or phenomena. It is a statement, an assumption about the nature of the world. In its simplest form, it is a guess.

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Cozby (1989:14) supports this by saying a hypothesis is only a tentative idea or question that is waiting for evidence to support or refute it.

In this study the following hypotheses will be investigated:

H_1: Satisfaction is largely caused by the true motivators and dissatisfaction by the hygiene factors.

1.6. Demarcation and scope of the study

The goal of this research is to describe the impact of motivation on employees' job satisfaction.

- In general, the study will cover the theoretical aspects of motivation and job satisfaction, covering both content and process theories of motivation.
- The empirical section will focus on Frederick Herzberg two-factor content theory of motivation to gain insights about the relation between motivation and job satisfaction in a South African context.
- The focus will be on motivation, job satisfaction and strategies to improve the motivation of employees in an organization.

1.7. Key concepts

In this section, key concepts of the study, namely, motivation and job satisfaction will be briefly explored.

1.7.1 Motivation

From early on, the concept of motivation has been utilized to explain types of behaviour, for example, basic biological needs or drives connected to survival and

procreation (e.g. hunger, thirst and sex) and extrinsic rewards or punishments. Both types of explanations suggest that behaviour is motivated by the need or desire to achieve particular outcomes (e.g. promotion, recognition and avoidance of punishment). Motivation thus energizes and guides behaviour toward reaching a particular goal (Sansone and Harackiewicz, 2000:1)

Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (2000:127) say motivation is a concept we use when we describe the forces acting on or within an individual to initiate and direct behavior. We use the concept to explain differences in the intensity of behavior (regarding more intense behaviors as a result of higher levels of motivation) and also to indicate the direction of behavior (e.g., when you're tired or sleepy, you direct your behavior toward getting some sleep).

Snell (1999:8) says motivation is everything. Without motivation even the most talented people will not deliver to their potential. With motivation, others will perform way above the level expected of their intelligence and academic ability. He further asserts that company staff is its business. They are the company. They project the image of the company that customers see. They alone hold the power to deliver a high quality standard of service. It is a company's staff, not its managers, who ultimately have the power to boost or reduce its profits.

In concurrence with the authors above (Bateman and Snell, 1999: 440) say motivation refers to the forces that energize, direct and sustain a person's efforts. All behavior, except involuntary reflexes like eye blinks (which have little to do with management), is motivated. A highly motivated person will work hard toward achieving performance goals. With adequate ability and understanding of the job, such a person will be highly productive.

Nel, Gerber, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono and Werner (2001:326) describe motivation as intentional and directional. The word 'intentional' refers to personal choice and persistence of action. The word 'directional' indicates the presence of a driving force aimed at attaining a specific goal. A motivated person is always aware of

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the fact that a specific goal must be achieved, and continuously directs his/her efforts at achieving that goal, even in the face of adversity.

1.7.2 Job satisfaction

Spector (1997:2) says job satisfaction is simply how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. It is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs. As is generally assessed, job satisfaction is an attitudinal variable. In this context, job satisfaction can be considered as a global feeling about the job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job.

According to Gibson et al, (2000:352 - 353) job satisfaction may be defined as an individual's expression of personal well-being associated with doing the job assigned. Job satisfaction depends on the level of intrinsic and extrinsic outcomes and how the jobholder views those outcomes. These outcomes have different values for different people. For some people, responsible and challenging work may have neutral or even negative value depending on their education and prior experience with work providing intrinsic outcomes. For other people, such work outcomes may have high positive values. People differ in the importance they attach to the job outcomes. Those differences would account for different levels of job satisfaction for essentially the same job tasks.

An investigation done by Cheung and Scherling (1999:563) concurs with the above findings. For example, Tuch & Martin (1991) in Cheung and Scherling (1999:563) have shown that employee job satisfaction is a function of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by a job; Cox & Nkomo (1991); Morrow & McElroy (1987) in Cheung and Scherling (1999:563) said employee job satisfaction is a function of the status associated with job level; Drummond & Stoddard (1991) in Cheung, and Scherling (1999:563) said employee job satisfaction is a function of work values. Lambert (1991) in Cheung, and Scherling (1999:563) says intrinsic rewards include the achievement of the task, whereas extrinsic rewards include pay, promotion, and good

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relationships in the workplace. This reward thesis has been used to explain sex differences in job satisfaction. Furnham & Gunter (1993); Neil & Snizek (1987) in Cheung, and Scherling (1999:563) have shown that task, status, monetary reward, and social relationships (or a team dimension) are four essential factors of job satisfaction. De Vaus & McAllister (1991); Shuka, Sarna, & Nigam (1989) in Cheung, and Scherling (1999:563) showed that these four factors are also important dimensions of work values. Wright, Bengtsson, & Frankenberg (1994) in Cheung, and Scherling (1999:563) claim that these four factors are the basis of the reward thesis, which explains higher job satisfaction by the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by promotion.

Bateman and Snell (1999:458) say if people feel fairly treated from the outcomes they receive, or the processes used, they will be satisfied. However, these authors hasten to caution that a satisfied worker is not necessarily more productive than a dissatisfied one; sometimes people are happy with their jobs because they don't have to work hard! But job dissatisfaction, aggregated across many individuals, creates a workforce that is more likely to exhibit 1) higher turnover; 2) higher absenteeism; 3) lower corporate citizenship; 4) more grievances and lawsuits; 5) strikes; 6) stealing, sabotage, and vandalism; and 7) poorer mental and physical health (which can mean high job stress, higher insurance costs, and more lawsuits). All of these consequences of job dissatisfaction, either directly or indirectly, are costly to organizations.

Reece and Brandt (1996:234) identified the importance of the emotional factor at work. Emotions play a critical role in the success of every organization, yet many people in key decision-making positions – leaders with outstanding technical and financial skills – fail to understand the important role emotions play in a work setting. In part, the problem can be traced to leadership training that emphasizes that "doing business" is a purely rational or logical process. These authors further emphasize that the cost of ignoring the emotional factor at work can be costly to companies in the form of lawsuits, resignation and death of valuable employees, etc.

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These keys concepts will be examined and expanded on in chapter two which will comprise an in-depth analysis of the literature of motivation and job-satisfaction.

1.8. Research design

A research design is a master plan specifying the methods and procedures for collecting and analyzing the needed information. It is a framework or blueprint that plans the action for the research project. The objectives of the study determined during the early stages of the research are included in the design to ensure that the information collected is appropriate for solving the problem. The researcher must also specify the sources of information, the research method or technique (e.g. survey or experiment), the sampling methodology and the schedule and the cost of the research (Zikmund, 2003:65)

1.8.1 Data collection

Since this is descriptive study, the survey and secondary data methods will be used to collect the needed information.

1.8.2 Survey technique

A survey is a research technique in which information is gathered from a sample of people using a questionnaire (Zikmund, 2003: 66). In this study a questionnaire will be used to solicit responses from subjects. All questionnaires will have open-ended questions.

1.8.3 Secondary data technique

Secondary data sources will be utilized to find theoretical information, for example, books, published journals and articles, the internet as revealed in the literature review.

1.8.4 Sampling

A sample is a subset, or some part, of a larger population. The purpose of sampling is to enable researchers to estimate some unknown characteristic of the population (Zikmund, 2003: 369)

1.8.5 Target population

The target population is the complete group of specific population elements relevant to the research project (Zikmund, 2003: 373). For this study the target population will be all SABC News full time journalistic staff.

1.8.6 Sampling frame

A sampling frame is the list of elements from which the sample may be drawn (Zikmund, 2003:373). For this study, the sampling frame would be the 630 full time staff.

1.8.7 Probability sampling

Probability sampling will be used. In this method, every element in the population has a known nonzero probability of selection (Zikmund, 2003: 379). Simply random sampling will be utilized, in which each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected.

1.8.8 Sample size

There are three factors required to calculate sample size, namely:

- Standard deviation of the population (S), which can be derived by conducting a pilot study or rule of thumb.

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- Magnitude of acceptable error (E), which can be obtained by using managerial judgment or using the formula $E = Z * S/n^{1/2}$
- Confidence level Z, which can be obtained using managerial judgment. In this case, a confidence level will be set at 95%.

For this study we will be looking at a sample size of about 200 employees, from non-managers to top managers.

1.8.9 Data analysis

Analysis is the application of reasoning to understand and interpret the data that have been collected (Zikmund, 2003:73). For this study, the incidents will be analyzed according to the M-H Theory of Herzberg.

1.9. Drawing conclusions and making recommendations

The final stage of the research process is to interpret the information and draw conclusions relevant to managerial decisions. Making recommendations is often a part of this process (Zikmund, 2003: 73). For this study, a formal short dissertation will be compiled.

Chapter 2 – Literature review

In this chapter we will explore the theories of motivation and job satisfaction (or dissatisfaction. These theories attempt to explain motivation and job satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) in the workplace. The basic question is what makes people tick in the work place and engage themselves in the activities that ultimately bring a sense of fulfillment and sometimes disappointment in their working lives. This will be in two parts, part one will investigate the theories of motivation; and the second part will delve into theories that enlighten us about job satisfaction (dissatisfaction) and the relevant literature thereof.

Part one – Theories of motivation

2.1. Introduction

Ever notice that once we've been doing things for a while, our curiosity fades? Some people loose the joy in their work. Some continue in their roles in order to maintain their comfortable salaries and secure benefits long after they have mentally quit. Others presume a job change is the only way to get back that long-lost enthusiasm (Harrington, 2004:13).

The above scenario captures the essence of the problem facing many organizations today. Motivation! While other employees might be motivated to come to work, others are not. It then becomes management's challenge to deal with employee inertia.

Work motivation is a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behavior, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration (Pinder, 1998:11).

Motivating employees was an important topic as far back as 1789. Samuel Slater, a pioneer who introduced textile manufacturing to America, was concerned about creating a work setting where it was comfortable for workers to do their jobs. Other efforts to create a positive work motivational work climate ranged from George M.

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Pullman's company town to Henry Ford's profit sharing plan. The Edison Electric Illuminating Company of Boston provided tennis courts and bowling alleys. Other firms planted gardens for workers or constructed libraries and athletic facilities. One reason for corporate generosity was fear of trade union movement, but there were other motivators. One was greed, the desire to get employees to work harder for less money. Another was humanitarianism, the willingness to treat employees well. And some corporate leaders believed it was simply good business to satisfy worker's needs for good working conditions, a fair day's pay, and social interaction (Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly, 2000:125 – 126).

Theories of motivation fall into two categories: content theories and process theories. Content theories focus on the factors within the individual or person that energize, direct, sustain, and stop behaviour. They attempt to determine the specific needs that motivate people. Process theories on the other hand, describe and analyze how behavior is energized, directed, sustained, and stopped by factors primarily external to the person. Both categories have important implications for managers, who by the nature of their jobs are involved with the motivational process (Gibson et al, 2000:128).

Kini and Hobson (2002:605) agree with the distinction above, between content and process theories by suggesting that content theories are concerned with the identification of important internal elements and the explanation of how these elements may be prioritized within the individual; while process theories on the other hand, focus on certain psychological processes underlying action and place heavy emphasis on describing the functioning of the individual's decision system as it relates to behavior.

2.2. Process theories of motivation

We will now examine process motivation theories, which attempt to explain and describe some of the factors, typically outside the individual, that energize, direct, sustain, and stop behavior. The major process theories of motivation to be discussed hereunder include:

1. Social learning theory
2. Operant conditioning
3. Expectancy
4. Equity;
5. Goal setting; and
6. Job Design Theory

2.2.1 Social learning theory

Learning is one of the fundamental processes underlying behavior and, in turn, motivation. Most behavior within organizations is learnt behavior. Perceptions, attitudes, goals, and emotional reactions are learned. Skills – for example, programming a computer or counseling a troubled employee – can be learned. The meanings and uses of language are learned. Learning is therefore a process by which relatively enduring change in behavior occurs as a result of practice (Gibson et al, 2000:149).

Albert Bandura of Stanford University illustrated how people acquire new behavior by imitating role models (learning vicariously). Social learning refers to the fact that we acquire much of our behavior (e.g. hitting a golf ball, giving a speech, using a computer program) by observation and imitation of others in a social context. The Bandura-inspired view of behavior is that it is a function of both personal characteristics and environmental conditions. According to Bandura, social learning theory explains behavior in terms of a continuous interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental determinants.

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Social learning theory introduces vicarious learning (modeling), symbolism, and self-control. Parents, friends, heroes, and respected leaders are imitated because we identify with them. Each of us uses symbolism as guides for our behavior. For example, we know how not to speed because we have mental pictures of fatal or crippling accidents; we set personal goals to motivate ourselves; we use mental reminders to remember a customer's name. We also attempt to exercise self-control by not smoking, nor drinking excessively and not physically attacking a person who makes a personally disparaging remark about our family, or ethnic background.

A central part of social learning theory is the concept of self-efficacy, defined as the belief that one can perform adequately in a particular situation. Self-efficacy judgments influence our choices of tasks, situations, and companions, how much effort we'll expend, and how long we'll try.

Another concept that has potential effect on self-efficacy is the Pygmalion effect, which refers to enhanced learning or performance that results from others having positive expectations of us. That is, the fact that others believe us capable of high levels of performance may lead us to perform at that level. A leader's expectations about job performance might be viewed as an important input to the employees' perceptions of their own levels of efficacy. The strength of the persuasion would be influenced by the leader's credibility, previous relationship with the employees, influence in the organization, and so on. It may also be related to gender of the leader, as the Pygmalion effect has been found to have more impact among male than among female leaders. However defined and whatever their impact, expectations play a major role in influencing behavior (Gibson et al, 2000: 150 – 151).

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2.2.2 Operant conditioning

In another perspective, learning often occurs as a consequence of behavior. This type of learning is called operant conditioning. The person most closely associated with operant conditioning is the late world-famous behaviorist B.F. Skinner. Several principles of operant conditioning can aid managers attempting to influence behavior. Reinforcement is an extremely important principle of learning. In a general sense, motivation is an internal cause of behavior, while reinforcement is an external cause.

Positive reinforcement occurs when a positively valued consequence follows a response to a stimulus. Thus, positive reinforcement is anything that both increases the strength of response and induces repetitions of the behavior that preceded the reinforcement. These positive rein forcers could include items such as raises, bonuses, or promotions or less tangible things such as praise or encouragement. Without reinforcement, no measurable modification of behavior is likely to take place. Timing and other competing reinforcement contingencies play a key role in the administering of rein forcers.

Negative reinforcement refers to an increase in the frequency of behavior following the removal of something that is displeasing (e.g. an undesirable situation) immediately after the response. An event is a negative re-inforcer only if its removal after a response increases the performance of that response. For example, turning on the air conditioner (the behavior) usually minimizes or terminates an aversive condition, namely being hot (negative re-inforcer). This increases the probability of turning on the air conditioner when the car is hot.

Punishment is an undesirable consequence of a particular behavior. A professor who takes off 10 points for each day a paper is late is using punishment. Punishment, when applied, is sending the message to not do something. Some people believe that punishment is the opposite of reward and is just as effective in changing behavior. Others consider punishment a poor approach to learning because:

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- The results of punishment aren't as predictable as those of reward;
- The effects of punishment are less permanent than those of reward; and
- Punishment is frequently accompanied by negative attitudes toward the administrator of the punishment, as well as toward the activity that led to the punishment.

Extinction refers to decline in the response rate because of non-reinforcement. For example, if a team member has a habit of telling demeaning jokes about other racial groups and people laugh (positive reinforcement); and if people stop laughing (non-reinforcement), over time the habit of telling demeaning racial jokes might diminish (Gibson et al, 2000:151 – 152).

- Critics of learning theories have a concern with the use of re-inforcers in that they believe there is no real change in behavior. The person is just being bribed to perform. In reinforcement, however, outcomes are typically delivered for behaviors designed to benefit the person and the organization. Thus, this criticism, although logical, really doesn't apply to the re-inforcers usually used in organizations.
- The view that reinforcement automatically modifies behavior, without the person's beliefs, values and mental processes playing a role, is simply wrong. People can learn by seeing others get reinforcement and by imitating those who aren't reinforced (social learning).
- There is also self-reinforcement, which operant conditioning theorists ignore.
- Another criticism focuses on the point that individuals can become too dependent on extrinsic re-inforcers (e.g., pay). Thus, behavior may become dependent on the re-inforcer and never performed without the promise of the re-inforcer.
- The use of positive reinforcement may be more perceived than actual. In other words, while managers may claim more use of positive reinforcement (praises, recognition and rewards), employees may report very little or no use of these re-inforcers (Gibson et al, 2000:157).

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2.2.3 Expectancy theory

A quite popular explanation of motivation, developed by Victor Vroom, is expectancy theory, rated as one of the most prominent motivation and leadership theories. The majority of the early studies (about 50) tested the accuracy of expectancy theory in predicting employee behavior.

Vroom defines motivation as a process governing choices among the alternatives forms of voluntary activity. In his view, most behaviors are under the voluntary control of the person and are consequently motivated. The expectancy theory is explained in terms of four concepts:

1. First and second level outcomes – the first level outcomes resulting from behavior are associated with doing the job itself. These outcomes include productivity, absenteeism, turnover, and quality of productivity. Second level outcomes are those events (rewards or punishments) that the first level outcomes are likely to produce, such as merit pay increase, group acceptance or rejection, and promotion.

2. Instrumentality refers to the individual's perception that first level outcomes are associated with second level outcomes.

3. Valance is the preference for outcomes as seen by the individual. For example, a person may prefer a 9% increase in pay over a transfer to another department. An outcome is positively valent when it's preferred and negatively valent when it's not preferred or avoided. An outcome has a zero valence when people are indifferent to it.

4. Expectancy refers to the individual's belief concerning the likelihood or subjective probability that a particular behavior will be followed by a particular outcome such as level of performance (Gibson et al, 2000:160 – 161).

In (Gibson et al, 2000: 164), several studies have been quoted for and against expectancy theorists, for example, Humphreys and Einstein (2004:58) expectancy theory focuses on individual perceptions of the work environment and the interactions of that context with one's personal expectations (Fudge & Schlacter,

1999). Since we believe a comprehensive model must include aspects of individual personality, an expectancy paradigm is a logical starting point (Gerhart, Minkoff, & Olsen, 1995). In addition, empirical support for the concepts of expectancy, instrumentality, and valences has been rather broad (Isaac, Zerbe, & Pitt, 2001). Based upon this generic framework of expectancy theory, we agree that a comprehensive model of work motivation must include the concepts and elements of effort, individual abilities and perceptions, goal directed behavior, intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, satisfaction, and perceived equity. As a result, these authors feel strongly that the additional variables are present in the expectancy theory of motivation such:

1. **Follower self-concept** – A contribution of Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993), proposed the motivational importance of the self-concept of followers within the leader/follower dyad. They theorized the transformational effects of charismatic leaders were the result of increased follower motivation by assisting those followers in the maintenance and enhancement of the self-concept.

2. **Follower motivational development** - The work of Leonard et al. (1999) has given rise to a concept of motivational development. The idea being that individuals might move through stages of motivational development whereby initial behaviors may be motivated by simple enjoyment but maturity and experience may lead that individual to elicit certain behaviors for things like status or personal fulfillment.

3. **Follower self-efficacy** - The idea of self efficacy has an impressive psychological heritage (Wood & Bandura, 1989). In addition, there is evidence supporting the relationship between self-efficacy, effort, and performance (Harrison & Rainer, 1997; Saks, 1995).

4. **Task complexity** - Task complexity must be a part of a meta-theory of work motivation as tasks represent the foundation of the leader/follower relationship (Griffin, 1987).). Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) suggest altering the elements of task complexity can alter one's work identity. This could lead to a diminished motivational state, as employees are motivated to

create positive self-images of themselves in work settings (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). In addition, task complexity has been shown to be a potential moderating variable (Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999; Wood, Mento, & Locke, 1987). Moreover, the conceptual relationship between task complexity and self-efficacy is such that including either construct necessitates the inclusion of the other (Winters & Lathem, 1996).

5. **Leader responsibilities** - An inclusive process of work motivation simply cannot be represented without including leadership behaviors and responsibilities. Steers et al. (1996: 5), while addressing the interrelated concepts of motivation and leadership, assert "... any analysis is incomplete unless both factors are considered."

6. **Congruency** - In the current management literature, Wofford et al. (2001: 203) state that leaders "must be aware of the motive patterns of followers and adapt behaviors to match those patterns." Further, Shamir et al. (1993) suggested there must be a "congruency" between a leader's communication and a follower's values (Ehrhart & Klein, 2001: 155).

7. **Temperament** - We realize the term temperament is somewhat broad. We believe strongly, though, that a comprehensive work motivation model cannot exist without taking into account the personalities of leader and follower and the communication match and/or mismatch of those personalities. Psychological type theorists suggest, "different personality temperaments prefer to receive and process information differently" (Ziegert, 2000: 307). There is both intuitive appeal and significant research supporting this idea (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Further, temperament congruency has been examined in various relationships and contexts. Charkins, O'Toole, and Wetzel (1985) found that temperament incongruence had a negative influence on student performance and satisfaction. Boreham and Watts (1998) concluded learning was influenced by the degree of match between teacher and student preferred styles. Temperament congruence has even been offered as a means to match advertising imagery (Labarbera, 1998) and sales pitches (Brock, 1994) to individual personality types.

Critics of expectancy theory further say theorists differ on how they define concepts (e.g., effort, motivation) and how they measure them. They also differ on research designs. No systematic approach is being used across investigations. Expectancy theory does not specify which outcomes are relevant to which individual in which situation. Expectancy theory creates an implicit assumption that all motivation is conscious. Individuals are assumed to consciously calculate the pleasure or pain they expect to attain or avoid; then a choice is made. Although, it is generally accepted that individuals aren't always conscious of their motives, expectancies, and perceptual processes, expectancy theory says nothing about subconscious motivation. Studies testing this model have relied on employees from a single organization who were doing the same or similar jobs. These studies seriously limit and restrict the range of expectancies and instrumentalities. These types of studies raise questions about generalizing the results of these studies to other situations.

2.2.4 Equity theory

J. Stacey Adams, while working as a research psychologist with the General Electric Co. in Crotonville, New York, developed and tested an equity theory of motivation. The essence of the equity theory of motivation is that employees compare their efforts and rewards with those of others in similar work situations. This theory of motivation is based on the assumption that individuals, who work in exchange for rewards from the organization, are motivated by a desire to be equitable treated at work. A key management role is the maintenance of employee perceptions of equity in the workplace. The theory is based on four important terms:

- Person: the individual for equity or inequity is perceived;
- Comparison other: any individual(s) or group used by Person as referent regarding the ratio of inputs and outcomes.
- Inputs: the individual characteristics brought by Person to the job. These may be achieved (e.g. skills, experience and learning) or ascribed (e.g. age, sex, race).

- Outcomes: what Person received from the job (e.g. recognition, fringe benefits, pay).

Equity exists when employees perceive that the ratio of their inputs (efforts) to their outcomes (rewards) is equivalent to the ratios of other similar employees. Inequity exists when these ratios aren't equivalent: an individual's own ratio of inputs to outcomes could be greater or less than that of others (Gibson et al, 2000: 164 – 165).

In essence, this theory proposes that individuals are motivated to maintain fair or "equitable" relationships between themselves and to change those relationships that are unfair, "inequitable" (Kini and Hobson, 2002:605).

Critics of this theory, firstly, questioned the extent to which inequity that results from overpayment (rewards) leads to perceived inequity. Simply because employees are seldom told they're overpaid.
Secondly, equity research focuses on short term comparisons. What about long term comparisons?
Equity theory ignores reactions to experienced inequity. It's not likely that two people will react somewhat differently to the same magnitude of inequity if they believe different things caused the inequity (Gibson et al, 2000:166 – 167)?

In practical terms, what the theory says is that if employees judge their inputs (efforts) in the organization to be rewarded fairly and justly in comparison to others doing the same job, employees will be motivated to work even harder to earn those rewards. If however, employees perceives that their inputs (efforts) are not rewarded fairly and justly in comparison to others doing the same job, employees will be less motivated and therefore exert less efforts in their jobs. In this context the role of managers is critical in ensuring that employees:

- Don't feel short-changed by the organization;

- Inputs (efforts) are recognized and remunerated fairly; and
- Outcomes as in pay and benefits are fairly and justly distributed amongst all shareholders.

This will in turn ensure that tensions and negative attitudes are not allowed to take root, which may assist in keeping workers happy and productive. Motivated!

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2.2.5 Goal setting theory

In 1968, Edwin Locke proposed that goal setting was a cognitive process of some practical utility. His view was that an individual's conscious goals and intentions are the primary determinants of behavior. A goal is the object of action; it's what a person attempts to accomplish. Locke also carefully described the attributes of the mental (cognitive) processes of goal setting. These are:

- Goal specificity refers to the degree of quantitative precision (clarity) of the goal. For example, a goal that says 'we will increase our market share next year' is clear but not quantitatively precise. A goal that says 'we will increase our market share next year by 5%' is both clear and quantitatively precise.
- Goal difficulty is the degree of proficiency or the level of performance sought. For example, increasing our market share next year by 5% is both realistic and attainable, but increasing our market share next year by 60%, may both be unrealistic and unattainable.
- Goal commitment is the amount of effort used to achieve a goal.
- Goal intensity pertains to the process of setting the goal or of determining how to reach it. Goal setting process entails:
1. Diagnosis for goal-setting readiness (this involves looking at people, history of change in the organization, job and technology, and mission, plan and strategy of the company).

2. Preparation for goal-setting (which may involve participation via increased interaction, communication, formal training and development, establishment of action plans and the establishment of criteria for assessing effectiveness).

3. Implementation which may involve the following steps:

   1. Goal setting attributes – specificity, difficulty, intensity, and commitment.
   2. Intermediate review – Frequency, exchange of ideas, and modifications.
   3. Final review - Discussion, analysis, development and recycling.
   4. Anticipated goal-setting results – Improved motivation to perform, plan, organize and control.

If goal-setting is to be an effective motivational technique, it must be carefully planned and implemented. A feedback loop is critical to monitor which goals are achieved and why, which goals are not being achieved and why (Gibson et al, 2000:167 – 169).

Gerhart and Rynes (2003:125 -126) highlight the predictive powers of the goal-setting theory (GST). In particular, this theory predicts that:

- Higher effort and performance results when people commit to difficult and specific goals rather than to vague commitments.
- Monetary incentives will affect performance only to the extent that such incentives influence the choice of goals and the extent of goal commitment.
- Goal commitment will interact with goal difficulty to determine performance. With easy goals, there typically is not much problem obtaining goal commitment, because there is little cost to doing so. However, when ambitious goals are set, (e.g., to double sales over a 12-month period), individuals may be reluctant to commit because of the extra effort involved and/or the increased probability of failure and its attendant consequences.

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Thus, for a difficult goal to have the intended effect of increasing performance, it is both more important (and more challenging) to gain goal commitment.

Some criticisms leveled at goal-setting theory include:

- Goal setting is rather complex and difficult to sustain.
- Goal setting works well for simple jobs (clerks, typists, loggers, and technicians), but not for complex jobs. Goal setting with jobs in which goals aren't easily measured (teaching, nursing, engineering, and accounting) has posed some problems.
- Goal setting encourages game playing. Setting low goals to look good later is one game played by subordinates who don't want to be caught short. Managers play the game of setting an initial goal that's generally not achievable and then finding out how subordinates react.
- Goal setting is used as another check on employees. It's a control device to monitor performance.
- Goal accomplishment can become an obsession. In some situations, goal setters have become so obsessed with achieving their goals that they neglect other important areas of their jobs (Gibson et al, 2000: 172 – 173).

2.2.6 Job design theory

Task Characteristics theory (Job Design) (JD): Seek to identify task characteristics of jobs, how these characteristics combined to form different jobs, and their relationship to employee motivation, satisfaction, and performance   (Kini and Hobson*,* 2002:605). The Hackman-Oldham job characteristics model, a derivative of this theory developed in Japan contends that providing employees with task variety, task identity, task significance, task autonomy, and feedback, will lead to three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of the actual results) which, in turn, will lead to high internal motivation, high quality work performance, high work

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satisfaction, and low absenteeism and turnover (McAfee, Quarstein, and Ardalan, 1995:7 – 12).

The implications of this theory for management are that in order to keep employees motivated and satisfied in their jobs managers must:

- Provide their employees with a variety of skills in the workplace;
- Change the nature of employees' jobs from time to time to prevent boredom;
- Constantly point out that the tasks that employees do for the organization is important in achieving company objectives;
- Managers must give employees the freedom and independence to structure, schedule (within the constraints of the company) their tasks; and
- Most importantly, managers must provide constant feedback as to how employees are measuring to set goals.

2.3. Content theories of motivation

Employees bring to a work situation their feelings, beliefs and a repertoire of behaviors which determine their modus operandi on day-to-day basis. It is for this reason that managers constantly seek to understand, explain and if possible to predict the nature of their employees' behavior. Content theories of motivation attempt to explain and describe factors within the person that energize, direct, sustain and stop behavior. They provide a framework for managers to gain insights about their employees' internal state. The major content theories of motivation include:

1. Maslow's need hierarchy
2. Aderfer's ERG theory;
3. McClelland's learned needs; and
4. McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y
5. Ouchi's Theory Z
6. Herzberg's two-factor theory on which this thesis is premised.

2.3.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

One of the most widely cited and discussed motivation theory is the need hierarchy model proposed by Abraham Maslow. The lowest level needs are the physiological needs, and the highest-level needs are for self-actualization. Maslow defined human needs as:

1. Physiological: the need for food, drink, shelter, and relief from pain.
2. Safety and security: the need for freedom from threat; that is, the security from threatening events or surroundings.
3. Belongingness, social, and love: the need for friendship, affiliation, interaction, and love.
4. Esteem: the need for self esteem and for respect from others.

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5. Self-actualization: the need to fulfill oneself by maximizing the use of abilities, skills, and potential.

Maslow's theory assumes that a person attempts to satisfy the more basic needs (physiological) before directing behavior toward satisfying upper level needs (self-actualization). Lower order needs must be satisfied before a higher order need such as self-actualization begins to control a person's behavior. According to Maslow, a satisfied need ceases to motivate. When a person decides that she's earning enough pay for contributing to the organization, money looses its power to motivate.

The hierarchy does explain aspects of human behavior in society, but it's not accurate or thorough enough to explain individual level behavior, including the fact that:
1. It is one directional in approach. It sees the satisfaction of lower order needs as a prerequisite for one to move to the next level of need. It does not say what happens when a higher order need such as self-actualization is frustrated or is no longer motivating. Does one uses lower order needs to motivate one?
2. It does not take into consideration cultural variations of people. For example, needs, work styles, and work ethics may differ across cultures.
3. The theory cannot be used to predict the behavior.

2.3.2 Alderfer's ERG theory

Alderfer agrees with Maslow that needs are arranged in hierarchy. However, his proposed need hierarchy involves only three sets of needs.

1. Existence: needs satisfied by such factors as food, air, water, pay, and working conditions.
2. Relatedness: needs satisfied by meaningful social and interpersonal relationships.

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3. Growth: needs satisfied by an individual making creative and productive contributions.

Aldefer's three needs – existence (E), relatedness ®, and growth (G), or ERG – correspond to Maslow's in that the existence needs are similar to Maslow's physiological and safety categories; the relatedness needs are similar to the belongingness, social and love category; and the growth needs are similar to the esteem and self-actualization categories.

In addition to the number of categories, Alderfer and Maslow differ on how people move through the different sets of needs. Maslow proposed that unfulfilled needs at one level are of most importance and that the needs on the next higher level aren't activated or triggered until the currently important needs are adequately satisfied. Thus, a person only progresses up the need hierarchy once his lower level needs have been effectively met. In contrast, Alderfer's ERG theory suggests that in addition to the satisfaction-progression process that Maslow proposed, a frustration-regression process is also at work. That is, if a person is continually frustrated in attempts to satisfy growth needs, relatedness needs reemerge as a major motivating force, causing the individual to redirect efforts toward exploring new ways to satisfy this lower-order need category.

Both Alderfer and Maslow need theories of motivation have been criticized as lacking verification and support by other theories. Need theories have been regarded as just simple and easily expressed views of human behavior (Gibson et al, 2000: 132 – 133).

2.3.3 McClelland's learned theory of needs

David C. McClelland has proposed a learned needs theory of motivation closely associated with learning concepts. He believes that many needs are acquired from the culture of a society. Three of these learned needs are the need for achievement (n Ach), the need for affiliation (n Aff), and the need for power (n Pow). McClelland suggested that when as need is strong in a person, its effect is to motivate her to use behavior leading to its satisfaction. For example, a worker with a high n Ach would set challenging goals, works hard to achieve the goals, and use skills and abilities to achieve them.

Regardless of his contribution, McClelland was criticized for the use of projective techniques to determine the three needs, because:

- The interpretations and weighing of a story are at best an art than a science. Some scholars question how Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) tests are validated.
- McClelland's claim that n Ach can be learned is in conflict with a body of knowledge/literature stating that motives are normally acquired in childhood and are difficult to alter in adulthood. McClelland acknowledges this problem but points to evidence in politics and religion to indicate that adult behaviors can be changed.
- McClelland's notion of learned needs is questioned on the grounds of whether needs are permanently acquired. Research is needed to determine whether acquired needs last over a period of time (Gibson et al, 2000:136 – 139).

2.3.4 McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

McGregor's Theory X, is based on the assumption that people are inherently bad. This represents a pessimistic view of human nature. According to this theory, people do not really want to work – they have to be pushed, closely supervised, and threatened

with some type of punishment. He believed that workers have little or no ambition, prefer to avoid responsibility and will seek security as their major goal.

Theory X reflects the "carrot and stick" philosophy, combining punishment and rewards to motivate employees. This approach, however, has two major drawbacks:

1. Managers who accept Theory X as valid tend to use the stick more than the carrot. "If I ever fall behind in my quota," one worker says, "you can bet I hear about it, but if I break my back to get a job done, not a word." The general belief of management under this theory is that workers are paid to do a good job; management's function is to supervise the work and correct employees if they go off course.

2. The carrot and stick image itself creates a negative attitude toward workers. The manager or supervisor who views others as lazy, incompetent, reluctant to accept responsibility, and interested only in a paycheck often treats subordinates with distrust, suspicion and little respect. This leads to a form of supervision wherein fault finding, blaming, and reprimands are frequent (Reece and Brandt, 1996:163 – 164).

When a manager has low expectations about his employees, his expectations tend to become self-fulfilling prophecies. If a manager believes his employees are bad, employees tend to behave in displeasing ways. This is the negative side of the Rosenthal effect. (Middlebrook, 1980:27).

On the other hand, McGregor Theory Y is premised on the assumption that people are inherently good. This reflects an optimistic view of human behavior. According to this theory, work is as natural to people as play or rest. People's attitudes toward work depend on their previous job experiences and the conditions surrounding the job itself. If employees are able to understand and relate to their personal goals, to their organization's goals, they will tend to be somewhat self-directed and will not need to be threatened or coerced into working. When given the proper encouragement, people will seek, rather than avoid, responsibility, and they will often exercise considerable imagination and creativity in carrying out their duties.

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A healthy, mutually supportive relationship based on trust, openness, and mutual respect can create a work climate in which employees want to give more of them (Reece and Brandt, 1996: 164 – 165).

The above work climate or environment also promotes a Pygmalion effect (enhanced performance that results from others having positive expectations of us) where workers know that the supervisor/manager expects more from them. As a result, they simply perform more than expected (Gibson et al, 2000:151).

When a manager has high expectations about his employees, his expectations tend to become self-fulfilling prophecies. If a manager believes his employees are good, employees tend to behave in pleasing ways. This is the positive side of the Rosenthal effect. (Middlebrook, 1980:27).

From the above, it can be deduced that a manager's negative attitude toward employees, that is characterized by mistrust, punishment and general disrespect, only helps to engender mistrust, disrespect, sabotage and generally negative attitude in employees. No one wins in this situation. Even the organization that feeds everyone suffers. Conversely, a manager's positive attitude toward employees that is characterized by trust, support, openness, unconditional mutual respect can help instill the same values in employees. This creates a win-win situation for all including the organization.

2.3.5 Ouchi's Theory Z

Professor William Ouchi formulated Theory Z to describe characteristics common to certain successful Japanese and American companies. Organizations dedicated to this management style generally have a lifetime employment policy. Even when sales are down, employees are not likely to be laid off and thus have good reason to feel that their own long-term fate is tied to the company's. Workers are likely to perform job tasks conscientiously and enthusiastically to achieve a perfect final product.

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There is open communication, both vertically and horizontally, with complete trust amongst groups and individuals, because all employees have the same goal: the good of the company. Employees see themselves as family with the company as the parent that looks after their welfare. Theory Z also assumes that the best management approach involves workers at all levels. In theory Z organizations, employees gain a psychological sense of belonging because most decisions are made in the groups. Collective decision-making in these companies encourages ownership of decisions, and commitment to goals set. No one in the groups will try and sabotage the company or its mission and values (Reece and Brandt, 1996:165 – 166).

With egalitarianism as a central feature - this theory implies that each person can apply discretion and can work autonomously without close supervision, because they are to be trusted. Trust - the belief that individual and organizational goals correspond, accounts for the high levels of commitment, of loyalty, and of productivity (Kini and Hobson, 2002:605).

2.3.6 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Tietjen and Myers (1998:226) say Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory developed as a result of his inquiry about the attitudes of employees. Herzberg developed two distinct lists of factors. One set of factors caused happy feelings or a good attitude within the worker, and these factors, on the whole, were task related. This intrinsic set of factors is called motivators and these include recognition, achievement, growth (possibility of growth), advancement, responsibility, and work itself.

The other grouping is primarily present when feelings of unhappiness or bad attitude are evident, and these factors are not directly related to the job itself, but to the conditions that surround doing that job. This second group of factors, Herzberg called hygiene factors (extra-job factors). These include salary, interpersonal relations – supervisor, interpersonal relations – subordinates, interpersonal relations – peers,

supervision – technical, company policy and administration, working conditions, factors in personal life, status, and job security.

Motivators refer to factors intrinsic within the work itself like the recognition of a task completed. Conversely, hygiene factors tend to include extrinsic entities such as relations with co-workers, which do not pertain to the worker's actual job.

Gibson et al (2000:134) say motivators pertain to the job content. Their absence doesn't prove highly dissatisfying. But when present, they build strong levels of motivation that result in good job performance. Therefore, they're called the satisfiers or motivators. On the other hand, hygiene factors pertain to the job context. The presence of these conditions to the satisfaction of the employee doesn't necessarily motivate him, but their absence results in dissatisfaction. Because they are needed to maintain at least a level of "no dissatisfaction," the extrinsic conditions are called the dissatisfiers, or hygiene factors.

Although the hygiene factors do not directly motivate, they are a necessary base to prevent dissatisfaction, while serving as starting point for motivation (Vaughn, 2003:12). However, improving hygiene factors does not create motivation (Huling (2003:24).Herzberg, himself found out that all external stimulation, whether negative or positive, wears off and therefore does not change long-term performance or results. For example, managers who come down hard on an employee may get immediate results, but long-term behavior is unlikely to change or may deteriorate even further (Huling (2003:24).

Prior to Herzberg's views, people studying motivation saw job satisfaction as a unidirectional concept. That is, they placed job satisfaction at one end of the continuum and job dissatisfaction at the other end of the same continuum. This a traditional view which can be depicted as follows:

High job dissatisfaction _____ High job satisfaction

The interpretation given to this view was that if a job condition caused job satisfaction, removing it would cause dissatisfaction; similarly, if a job condition cause job dissatisfaction, removing it would cause job satisfaction. Herzberg, however, differs from this view. He assumes that job satisfaction is not a unidirectional concept. After researching this phenomenon, Herzberg concluded that two continua are needed to interpret job satisfaction correctly. This view can be illustrated as follows:

1. Low job satisfaction _____ High job satisfaction
2. Low job dissatisfaction _____High job dissatisfaction

In Herzberg's views, motivators or satisfiers determine whether a person has low job satisfaction or high job satisfaction; similarly, dissatisfiers or hygiene factors determine whether a person has low job dissatisfaction or high job dissatisfaction.

Criticism leveled at Herzberg's motivation-hygiene factor theory revolves around:

- The small sample of accountants and engineers he used as subjects. The issue is whether results from such a small sample could be generalized to other occupational groups and to other countries.

- Other researchers believe that Herzberg oversimplifies the nature of job satisfaction, leading to the assumption that a manager can easily change hygiene factors or satisfiers and thus produce job satisfaction. This, of cause, isn't an accurate view of how complex and difficult motivation and job satisfaction are in terms of workplace manipulation.

- The other criticism is a time factor. Herzberg's methodology requires people to remember critical incidences in their past that made them happy or unhappy. Memory, primacy, recency and telling ability become crucial points in this context. They also believed that Herzberg's analysis ignores subconscious factors.

- Herzberg offered no explanation as to why the various extrinsic and intrinsic job factors should affect performance.

- The two continua of Herzberg's theory, presents a problem in terms of interpreting job satisfaction. For example, when one has low job satisfaction, does one simultaneously experience high job dissatisfaction? When one has low job dissatisfaction, does one simultaneously experience high job satisfaction (Gibson et al, 2000:134 – 135)?

In his original works Herzberg described the extensive research he conducted with the M-H Theory (Herzberg, 1976:49; and Herzberg, 1971:90).

2.3.7 Other literature of work motivation

Though recognition is identified as a motivator by Herzberg, Miller (2002:15) mentions four common incentives (money, contests and competition, recognition including praise and rewards, and disciplinary action) thought to motivate others, but they discourage intrinsic motivation. She says the key to performance is to create an environment for intrinsic motivation, using four incentives (competency, empathy, autonomy and fulfillment). Green (2000:155) captures this issue well when he says employees are motivated by what they intrinsically believe is going to happen, not by what managers promise (extrinsic) will happen. Managers can motivate employees by setting in motion the conditions required for motivation, namely, confidence, trust and satisfaction and creating an environment that reinforces those conditions.

Pollock (2002:10) recognizes three of Herzberg's motivators as being crucial in motivating people. These are recognition, interesting work and responsibility. He says, over and above monetary reward, what people crave is praise. They need assurance that their efforts are known, valued, and appreciated. Sometimes all it takes to satisfy this deep desire is a sincere "well done", preferably delivered in front of their peers. Making peoples work interesting means driving away boredom because it's a great de-motivator. Make their work meaningful and you will spur them to realize their own highest potential. Giving people additional responsibilities implies not only giving them extra work, but work that is important and requires a higher level of knowledge and skill.

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In a study using Herzberg's theory to compare what motivates public – and private-sector employees, Maidani (1991) in Leach and Westbrook (2000) showed that in employees of both sectors, the motivation to work tended to emphasize intrinsic, motivating factors. The other interesting result of his work was that public-sector workers tended to value extrinsic or hygiene factors significantly more than did workers in the private sector (Leach and Westbrook, 2000:3).

An argument could ensue from Hertzberg's theory that says intrinsic factors would be ranked as the most important influences on job satisfaction while extrinsic components would be ranked as of low importance by workers. Therefore, it seems that items which could be identified as intrinsic motivators and meeting expectations are an important part of achieving high levels of job satisfaction or at least preventing dissatisfaction. However, these findings, though supported by workers in research have not created a major movement away from money being seen by many managers as a major motivator or at least an important factor influencing a person's willingness to work (Savery, 1996:18–27).

Muchinsky, Kriek and Schreuder (2002:249), while studying the effects of pay on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, cite an important finding by Gordon (1986) which state that the motivational value of rewards is based on the employee's perceptions of the extent to which they meet the following principles:

- Individuals are motivated to perform when they perceive that rewards are equitably distributed.
- Individuals are motivated to perform in accordance with the pay they receive.
- Individuals are motivated to satisfy their unique needs, which vary at different times.
- Individuals are motivated to behave so as to gain acceptance and support from all organizational members.
- Individuals are motivated to achieve personal goals.

In concurring with the above Maud (2001:431) says a reward is something valuable which is given for behavior that is commendable and valuable to an organization and that people are motivated to perform to get those rewards which will result in the person being fulfilled or frustrated.

Having discussed the theories of motivation and understood the underlying nuances behind employees' behaviors, we now turn to theories of job satisfaction (or dissatisfaction).

Part two - Job satisfaction (dissatisfaction)

2.4. Introduction

The theories of work motivation that have just been explained have been use for many centuries to explain what energizes people to strive or put an effort in what they do. The same theories could be utilized to elucidate why other people are satisfied in their jobs and others not. For example, Maslow's need theory would say people would be happy in their jobs if their needs are met, but unhappy if their needs are not met. Learning theories would propose that people would be motivated by seeing others rewarded for achieving certain standards of performance, and therefore put more efforts in their duties so that they could earn the same or more rewards than their role models, and hence be satisfied. Conversely, if people see others being punished for not achieving certain standards of performance, people might exert more efforts to avoid the pain of punishment and so on. These theories will therefore not be repeated in this section, the focus will be on examining job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, related theories and literature.

As allude to in chapter 1, there is a plethora of definitions, explanations and characterizations of what constitutes job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. This alone illustrates the difficulty of conceptualizing the concepts themselves. However, many scholars have offered some guiding definitions to help us understand these concepts.

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Some say job satisfaction is simple how people feel about their job and different aspects of their jobs (Spector, 1997:2). This assumes that if employees like their jobs or certain aspects of their jobs, they will be satisfied or happy. If they don't like their jobs or certain aspects of their jobs, they will be dissatisfied or unhappy.

Others view job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction as feelings of happiness or unhappiness associated with doing a particular job as expressed by the job-holder (Gibson et al, 2000, 352 – 353). This assumes that if employees verbally say there are happy with their job, we must assume that they are satisfied with their work. If they verbally say they are unhappy with their jobs, we must assume that they are dissatisfied.

Cheung and Scherling (1999:563) assert that job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a function of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (outcomes) offered by the job. For example, if employees feel challenged, interested and enthused by the task at hand, they will be happy and satisfied because they innately believe that what they do is indeed value-adding. On the other hand, if employees feel discouraged, disinterested and unenthused by the task at hand, they will be unhappy and dissatisfied, because they don't see any tangible value in them doing the job.

Bateman and Snell (1999:458) argue job satisfaction or dissatisfaction from the perspective of fairness and processes used to mete out rewards. If people feel fairly treated from the outcomes they receive, or the processes used, they will be satisfied. If on the other hand, people feel unfairly treated from the outcomes they receive, or the processes used to disseminate those outcomes, they will be dissatisfied.

Job satisfaction consists of the feelings and attitudes one has about one's job. All aspects of a particular job, good and bad, positive and negative are likely to contribute to the development of feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Riggio, 2000:217).

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2.5. Theories of job satisfaction (or dissatisfaction)

2.5.1 VIE Theory

This theory is derived from the Expectancy model of Vroom by Porter and Lawler (1968). In addition to three basic components of valence, instrumentality, and expectancy, this model incorporates abilities and traits, role perceptions, intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, and the perceived equity of the rewards. The model assumes that, for an effort to translate into a desired level of performance, the person must have the ability to perform well (abilities and traits), and he must understand the demands of his job (role clarity). The model acknowledges that people work for both extrinsic rewards, such as money and promotions, and intrinsic rewards, such as pride in one's work and a sense of accomplishment. The model also assumes that the level of performance a person attains will affect the level of rewards he perceives to be equitable. Specifically, if a person expends a great amount of effort that culminates in high performance levels, he will perceive that he deserves a substantial reward (Dipboye, Smith, and Howell, 1994: (116-117).

Adapted: Figure 2.1   The Porter-Lawler's (1968) Model of motivation and job satisfaction
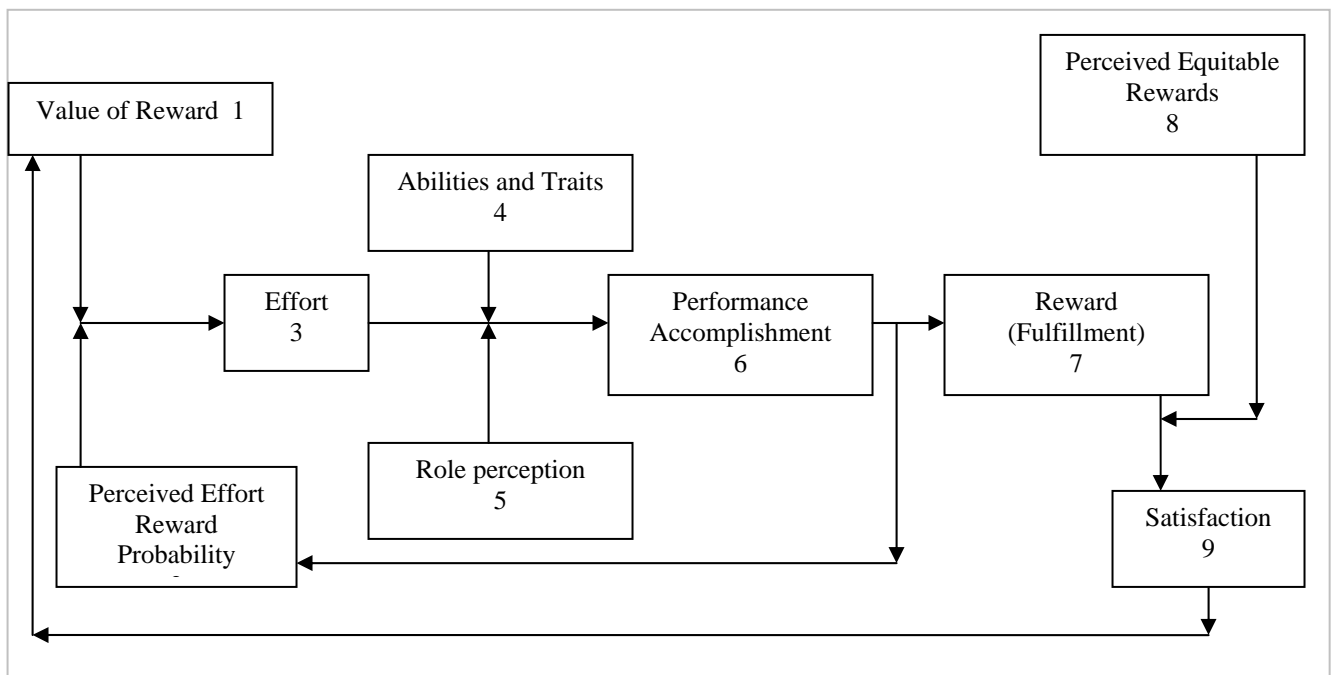
2.5.2 Comparison Theory

Lawler (1973) in Dipboye, Smith and Howell (2000) incorporated the concepts of attained versus desired needs in his model of facet satisfaction. This model is an extension of the Porter-Lawler (1968) of motivation explained above. It is a facet satisfaction model because satisfaction with various components or facets of a job, such as supervision, pay, or the work itself, is considered. Lawler's model specifies that workers compare what their jobs should provide in terms of job facets, such as promotions and pay, to what they currently receive from their jobs. However, simple need comparison theory is extended by also weighing the influence of certain worker characteristics (such as skills, training, and age) and job characteristics (such as degree of responsibility and difficulty). In addition, the model draws concepts from the equity theory of motivation by assuming that workers ultimately determine their job satisfaction by comparing their relevant job inputs and outputs to referent (comparison) others (Dipboye, Smith and Howell, 2000:149-150).

Adapted: Figure 2.2   **Lawler's (1973) Model of Facet Satisfaction.**
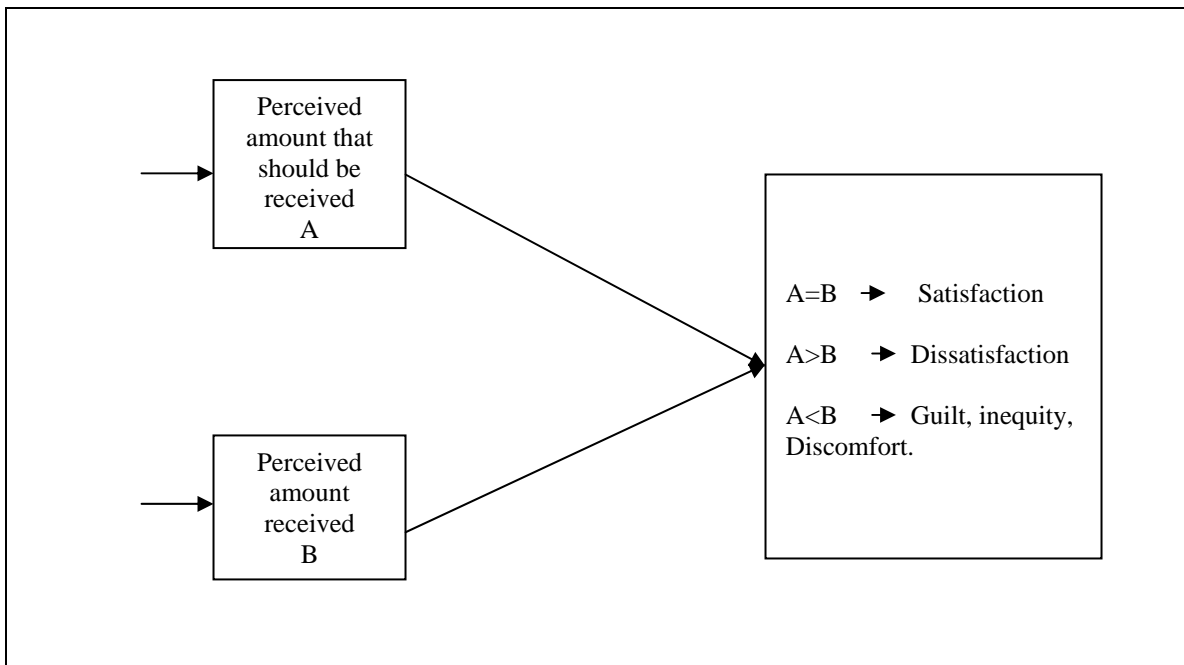
A simple interpretation of the facet model of satisfaction is that:

- If the employee perceives that the amount that should be received (A) is equal to the amount received (B), the worker will be satisfied or happy.
- If the employee perceives that the amount that should be received (A) is greater than the amount received (B), the worker will be dissatisfied or unhappy.
- If the employee perceives that the amount that should be received (A) is smaller than the amount received (B), the worker will feel guilty, uncomfortable because of the perceived inequity.

2.5.3 Opponent Process Theory

Another interesting theory of job satisfaction is that of Landy (1978) which hypothesizes that job attitudes emanate from a person's physiological state. Opponent process theory assumes that when you experience an extreme emotional state, central nervous system mechanisms attempt to bring you back to a state of emotional equilibrium or neutrality. In returning to neutrality, the emotional state may even surpass equilibrium and progresses to the opposite emotional state. For example, when you were first appointed to your job, you probable felt happy, even elated. This positive emotional state waned over time to a neutral state or perhaps to a slightly depressed or unhappy state. Opponent process theory presents an intriguing explanation of why job attitudes change over time and why workers may become bored with jobs they once found satisfying. It does not explain, however, why some workers are continually either very satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs. The theory has also not been empirically tested, so we cannot judge whether it is a viable theory of job satisfaction (Dipboye, Smith and Howell, 2000:152-153).

2.5.4 High Performance Cycle Theory

The High Performance Cycle theory is really an integration of work motivation and job attitude theories. This model uses the motivational framework of goal setting theory and predicts that high goals and high success expectations lead to high performance. High performance, in turn, produces rewards, satisfaction, and commitment to future goals. The model also considers the influence of personal and situational factors, such as ability and task complexity.

Adapted: Figure 2.3   **Locke and Latham's (1990) High Performance Cycle**
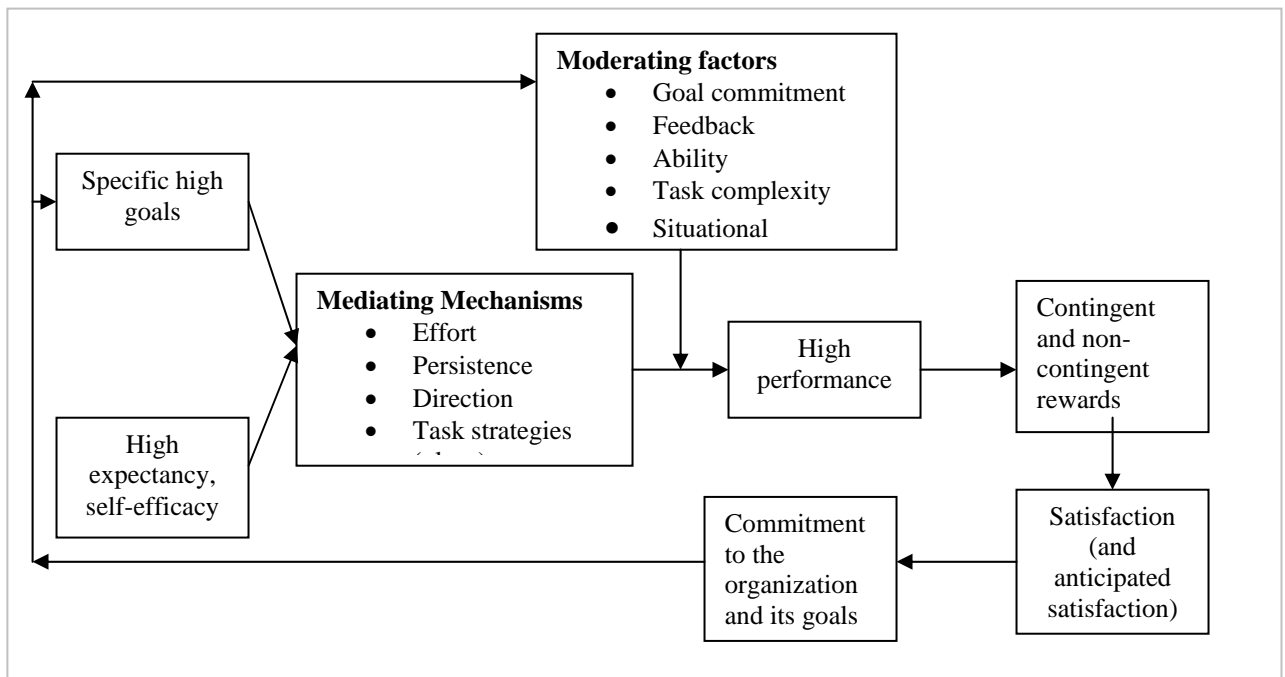
2.5.5 Other literature on job satisfaction (or dissatisfaction)

Other authors raise the importance of emotions at work. Emotions determine whether employees will be satisfied or dissatisfied in a work setting Reece and Brandt (1996:234). This goes against the notion held by many leaders that "doing business" is a purely rational or logical process, that "doing business" has nothing to do with employees' feelings. Kim and Garman (2004:69) found that employees'

personal lives affect their attitudes and behaviors at the workplace. They discovered this when examining the relationship between financial stress and work outcomes including pay satisfaction, work time use, and absenteeism. Results of their exploration showed that employees who had high levels of financial stress had lower levels of pay satisfaction, were more likely to waste their work time, and more frequently absent from work. The inevitable consequence is poor productivity. They recommended that employers should give financial education classes to reduce financial stress from their employees. Pinder (1998:82) agrees with the two authors when he says people have feelings at work and that they have feelings about their work. Emotions serve to communicate with one's self and others. Emotions also indicate intentions or changes of intentions.

A study by Glen (2003:42) in the IT industry reveals an important relationship between job satisfaction and motivation. He asks the question: How important is job satisfaction anyway? He pronounces that he has never been captivated by the idea of managers making job satisfaction a high-priority goal. Off cause, he says good leaders want their people to be reasonably happy, but how important is it, really, that they be satisfied. He cites a few reasons for his skepticism:

- He believes it's not possible to satisfy people completely. He believes people are always restless and ambitious

- He believes it's probable not desirable to satisfy people because satisfaction doesn't guarantee productivity. In fact, it probably does just the opposite. Nor does satisfaction spark creativity. There's a reason why the old saying goes, "Necessity is the mother of invention," rather than, "Abundance is the mother of invention." I've also never heard people suggest that big paychecks and job security were the source of their group's outstanding performance.

- The range of things we measure to gauge job satisfaction distracts from what's really important and distorts the true state of our organizations. I've observed that there are a few things that are critical for technical people's happiness: cool work, fair pay, good relationships and a reasonable belief that the future holds more of the same. Most of the things we measure are

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important only if these primary things are missing, in which case there's already a problem.

He further claims that it's not that workers' dissatisfaction is unimportant, but alleviating it shouldn't be the manager's primary focus. Instead, he proposes that we should look at their motivation, which he believes has much more of a direct impact on what they can achieve than their satisfaction does and is also much more important for your collective success. People who are motivated are focused on their work more than on their personal satisfaction. Motivated teams can operate at many levels of job satisfaction. Motivation can also be a great source of job satisfaction. Bateman and Snell (1999:458) seem to concur with this view by saying "a satisfied worker is not necessarily more productive than a dissatisfied one; sometimes people are happy with their jobs because they don't have to work hard!

It's also been shown that the reasons so many people struggle with the demands of work these days is because they expect so much more from their job than they used to. This is what leads to disappointment or even disillusion – a meaning gap (Gwyther, 2004: 3).

Peterson, Puia, and Suess (2003:73) in Mexico indicated that work satisfaction, supervision, coworker relationships, pay, and promotion potential were predictive of overall job satisfaction. Also predictive of overall job satisfaction were supervisor conduct, and perception of company financial and social status. Behavioral, affective, and continuance commitment were predicted by sex, education, directive conduct, organizational status, and satisfaction with supervision. The traditional positive relationship between job commitment and job satisfaction was not supported.

In another study (Dolliver, 2004:36), found that the American overall satisfaction with their jobs has risen considerably in the past 15 years. Interestingly, the majority of people in this study declared them completely satisfied with relations with co-workers, physical safety of their workplace, the flexibility with the hours of work, the superior, job security, workload, vocation time. These same workers were less

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enthused about the tangible benefits of work as in money, health insurance, and on-the-job stress.

Examining the impact of social efficacy on the relationship between vocational efficacy beliefs and various job performance dimensions as well as career satisfaction, Hochwater, Kiewitz, Gundlach, and Stoner (2004:27) found that people who held low social efficacy beliefs performed better than individuals who reported high social efficacy beliefs. Moreover, those with low social efficacy beliefs reported being more satisfies with their career than their high social efficacy counterparts.

Walkup (2002:62) showed that motivated and satisfied employees are critical to the success of organizations, especially service industries. Motivated and happy employees are the best way to ensure that customers receive great service and keep returning. Russ Umphenour, one of the executives who participated in this focus group study remarked, "Sales are driven by satisfied customers who are driven by satisfied employees". Optimal staffing has been shown to impact directly on staff morale and job satisfaction, which in turn transfers to the customers' experience and the bottom line (Heatley, 2004: 24). People also get dissatisfied with their jobs simply because their jobs don't make meaning anymore. Giving work that is meaningful seems the only way for managers to make their employees happy (Hoar, Rebecca and Kirwan-Taylor, Helen, 2004: 44).

In a study of the effects of organizational communication on job satisfaction and motivation, Burton, Pathak, and Zigli (1977:17–25) illustrate that role clarity problems lead to stress, tension, anxiety, dissatisfaction, turnover, lack of job interest, and less innovation. They also indicated that different workers from different working environments have varying degrees of role clarity needs.

Huang and Van de Vliert (2003:159) showed that the link between intrinsic job characteristics and job satisfaction is stronger in richer countries, countries with better governmental social welfare programs, more individualistic countries, and smaller power distance countries. By contrast, extrinsic job characteristics are strongly and positively related to job satisfaction in all countries. In addition, they

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found that intrinsic job characteristics tend to produce motivating satisfaction in countries with good governmental social welfare programs irrespective of the degree of power distance, while they do not tend to work so in countries with poor governmental social welfare programs as well as large power distance culture.

In endeavoring to define the concepts of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction Henne and Locke (1985:222) say job satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) is an emotional response to a value judgment by an individual worker. If his job values are perceived as being fulfilled, he will experience the pleasurable emotion of satisfaction; if they are perceived as being frustrated, he will experience the unpleasurable emotion of dissatisfaction. The intensity of these emotional reactions will depend on the importance of the values whose fulfillment is being facilitated or frustrated by the work experience. What values do employees typically seek from their jobs? Although there are individual differences, there also are many broad similarities in what people want from their jobs. In the realm of the work itself, most people want: work that is personally interesting and significant; success or a sense of accomplishment or progress; growth; responsibility; autonomy; role clarity; role congruence (lack of role conflict); feedback concerning performance; and freedom from physical strain and drudgery. With respect to pay, people want: fairness (in relation to what comparable others are getting); enough money to meet expenses; competitive fringe benefits; and security. In the realm of promotions, employees want: fairness; clarity (as to how the promotion system works); and availability (if they want a promotion). As to working conditions, most people prefer: convenient location and hours; safe and attractive physical surroundings; and equipment and resources that facilitate work accomplishment. Co-workers are preferred who: share similar values and facilitate work accomplishment. Employees like supervisors who are: considerate, honest, fair, competent, who recognize and reward good performance, and who allow some participation in decision-making. Finally, they like organizations which show a basic respect for employees and employee welfare (values), and which are competent (i.e., have a clear sense of direction, are managed effectively, and put out a good product).

An empirical study to show the effects of: 1) providing discretion (the freedom to choose production techniques/methods) and outcome feedback (information regarding whether a standard was met) on employee satisfaction; and 2) providing discretion and both outcome feedback and process feedback (information concerning the effectiveness of the work method used) on their productivity and job satisfaction; indicate that 1) providing discretion and outcome feedback alone does not improve employee satisfaction significantly; and 2) providing employees with discretion and both outcome and process feedback results in statistically significant improvements in productivity and job satisfaction (McAfee, Quarstein, and Ardalan, 1995:7–12).

The philosophy of Total Quality Management (TQM) practiced by many Japanese companies emphasizes the process type of feedback. TQM states that employee involvement and feedback improves employee satisfaction. Employees feel that they are a major part of the organization and are motivated to further participate in improving the system (McAfee, Quarstein, and Ardalan, 1995:7–12).

Kirkman *and* Shapiro (2001:557) maintain that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are important because they have, in turn, been associated with other positive organizational outcomes. For example, Kirkman *and* Shapiro cite other authors who assert that employees who are more satisfied with their jobs are also absent less (Hackett & Guion, 1985) and less likely to leave (Carsten & Spector, 1987), and they are more likely to display organizational citizenship behavior (Organ & Konovsky, 1989) and to be satisfied with their lives overall (Judge & Watanabe, 1993). Employees who are more committed are less likely to intend to leave their jobs (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) or to actually leave (Netemeyer, Burton, & Johnston, 1995); less likely to experience stress (Begley & Czajka, 1993); and more likely to perform well (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) and behave prosocially (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Internationally, commitment has been linked to lower intent to leave in India (Agarwal, 1993) and Japan (Marsh & Mannari, 1977) and to higher organizational citizenship behavior in Israel (Koslowsky, Caspy, & Lazar, 1988) and New Zealand (Inkson, 1977).

Kim (2002:231) cites other studies that highlight the relation between participative management or participative decision making and job satisfaction (Cotton et al. 1988; Macy, Peterson, and Norton 1989). Several studies have demonstrated that participative decision making can be beneficial to workers' mental health and job satisfaction (Spector 1986; Miller and Monge 1986; Fisher 1989). Daniels and Bailey (1999), however, argue that the evidence regarding the impact of participative decision making on job satisfaction has not been consistent. The relationship between participative decision making and job satisfaction could be nonlinear and contingent on individual and situational variables (Cotton 1993, 1995; Daniels and Guppy 1994). On the other hand, Spreitzer, Kizilos, and Nason (1997) argue that the notion of empowerment is derived from theories of participative management and employee involvement. According to these authors, the basic assumption of participative management is that sharing managers' decision-making power with employees will enhance performance and work satisfaction. They maintain that the main issues of the quality-of-life movement are enhancing employee satisfaction, improving intrinsic motivation, and helping employees to feel good about their work and jobs. Therefore, job satisfaction was one of the earliest anticipated outcomes of empowerment. Many managers, union leaders, and scholars share the belief that participative management practices have substantial positive effects on performance and satisfaction at work (Jackson 1983; Hoerr 1989; Peterson and Hillkirk 1991; Bluestone and Bluestone 1992; Bernstein 1993). In recent research regarding public-service motivation, Brewer, Selden, and Facer (2000) suggest that policy makers and public managers should consider employees in decision-making processes as one of the strategies for advancing public-service motivation

In examining the influence of total compensation on work motivation and job satisfaction in France, Igalens and Roussel (1999:1003) found that 1) under certain conditions, individualized compensation of exempt (employees not paid overtime) employees can be a factor of work motivation; 2) flexible pay of nonexempt (employees paid overtime) employees neither motivates nor increases job satisfaction; and 3) benefits of exempt and nonexempt employees neither motivate or increase job satisfaction.

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Terpstra and Honoree (2004: 528) discusses studies that indicate that job satisfaction is related to employee motivation and performance (Ostroff, 1992), absenteeism (Hackett & Guion, 1985), turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000) and organizational citizenship behavior (organ & Ryan, 1995). Pay satisfaction has been shown to influence overall job satisfaction, motivation and performance, absenteeism and turnover, and may be related to pay-related grievances and lawsuits (Cable & Judge, 1994; Gerhart & Milkovich, 1990; Huber & Crandall, 1994; Huselid, 1992; Milkovich & Newman, 2002). Backer (1979)) found that all three Black groups in his study associated wages largely with job satisfaction.

If a person becomes engaged in work that matches his or her occupational self-concept, he or she is likely to experience general job satisfaction. Specifically, the match between expressed occupational choices and the kind of work that a person enters contributes to the person's general job satisfaction (Jepson and Hung-Bin-Sheu, 2003:162).

In summary, as the literature reveals, job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a complex, dynamic state which can be brought about many factors. Some factors are within employees themselves (intrapersonal) and they have a direct or an indirect control or influence over them. Some factors are outside the employees (extra-personal) and employees may not have a direct or indirect control or influence over them. Also evident from the analysis of the theories of motivation is the fact that motivation and job satisfaction could actually be the two sides of the same coin.

Chapter 3 – Research design and procedure

3.1 Introduction

This investigation will analyze the factors that cause job satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the workplace of employees employed by the national public broadcaster in South Africa., namely, the South African Broadcasting Corporation. It focuses on the employees in the News Division of the corporation. In essence, the research will profile the factors that contribute to job satisfaction and high motivation as well as factors that contribute to job dissatisfaction and low motivation amongst journalistic staff of the news division of the SABC. It is an attempt to answer the question: what makes some employees happy at work and others not? It will test the following hypotheses as raised in chapter one.

H_1: Satisfaction is largely caused by the true motivators and dissatisfaction by the hygiene factors.

Though other theories have been discussed, this research is premised on Herzberg Two Factor Theory of motivation that claims there are two kinds of factors that interact in the employment situation that can either make employees satisfied (motivators) or dissatisfied (hygiene factors).

The focus would be on assessing whether employees in the African continent (South Africa, to be precise) are more motivated and satisfied when satisfiers (achievement, recognition, growth etc) are present in the workplace than when dissatisfiers (company policy, physical environment, salary, status etc) are present. It will also test the view that when motivators are absent, employees will be unhappy, but when hygiene factors are present, employees will not necessarily be happy, though dissatisfaction would have been prevented.

Adair (1996:69 – 70; and 76 – 77) tabulates these factors and explains them as follows:

Motivators	
Achievement	Specific successes, such as the successful completion of a job, solutions to problems, vindication, and seeing the results of your work.
Recognition	Any act of recognition, be it notice or praise. A distinction can be made between situations where concrete rewards are given along with acts of recognition and those in which they are not.
Growth or the possibility of growth	Changes in job situation where the possibilities for professional growth increase. Besides new vistas opened up by promotion, they include increased opportunities in the existing situation for learning and practicing new skills.
Advancement	Actual changes which enhance position or status at work.
Responsibility	Being given real responsibility, matched with the necessary authority to discharge it properly.
The Work itself	The actual doing of the job, or phases of it.

Adapted: Table 3.1 Factors that lead to Job Satisfaction

Hygiene Factors	
Company policy and administration	Availability of clearly defined policies, especially those relating to people, adequacy of organization and management.
Supervision – technical	Accessibility, competence and fairness of your superior.
Interpersonal relations	The relations with supervisors, subordinates and colleagues, the quality of social life at work.
Salary	The total compensation package, such as wages, salary, pension, company car and other financially related benefits.
Status	A person's position or rank in relation to others, symbolized by title, parking space, car, size of office, furnishings.
Job security	Freedom from insecurity, such as loss of position or loss of employment altogether.
Personal life	The effect of a person's work on family life, e.g. stress, unsocial hours or moving house.
Working conditions	The physical conditions in which you work, the amount of work, facilities available, ventilation, tools, space, noise and other environmental aspects.

Adapted: Table 3.2 Factors that create Job Dissatisfaction

Choosing the methodology to be used in research is as critical as defining what is to be investigated.

3.2 Research design

A research design is a master plan specifying the methods and procedures for collecting and analyzing the needed information. It is a framework or blueprint that

plans the action for the research project. The objectives of the study determined during the early stages of the research are included in the design to ensure that the information collected is appropriate for solving the problem. The researcher must also specify the sources of information, the research method or technique (e.g. survey or experiment), the sampling methodology and the schedule and the cost of the research (Zikmund, 2003:65). A research design is the structure of the investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research questions (Kerlinger, 1986:279).

This study will be a cross-sectional design in which information will be elicited from employees in a number of different conditions expected to be significant to the change at a single time. Often, this involves studying people in different age cohorts because, particularly in theories of developmental psychology, age is deemed to be a major determinant of change. Age cohorts refer to the total population of individuals born at approximately the same time which is usually taken to mean in the same calendar year. Cross-sectional designs permit age related changes to be gauged (Breakwell, Hammond and Fife-Schaw, 1997:12).

The advantages of doing a cross-sectional study is that it saves time; 2) it saves costs; 3) all things being equal, response rates are generally high; and 4) results can be published in time for other agencies to make policy changes. The biggest disadvantage is time of measurement. The data may be susceptible to influences of historical events. For example, the attitudes of employees might be affected by an industrial action that takes place on the day the survey is conducted (Breakwell, Hammond and Fife-Schaw, 1997:100-101).

3.3 Target population and sampling procedure

Choosing subjects for research is an integral part of the research process. The method used has implications for generalizing the research results (Cozby, 1989:107).

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This section will explore the method that will be used in selecting respondents to this study.

The sample will be drawn from the population of 630 full-time employees employed in the News division of the SABC on a simple probability basis (so that each population element has a known and equal chance of selection.) The relevant sample will be all News Division employees (Cooper and Schindler, 2001:167). A further requirement of simple random sampling is that you have a list of the units in the population. The idea is to draw subjects one at a time until you have as large a sample as you require (Rosnow and Rosenthal, 1996:192).

SABC news employees are spread all over the nine provinces. An attempt will be made to get an equal distribution of males and females across salary scales. Forty employees will be selected from Head Office and about one hundred and sixty from regional offices.

3.4 Sample size

A sample is a subset, or some part, of a larger population. The purpose of sampling is to enable researchers to estimate some unknown characteristic of the population. Three factors are required to specify sample size: 1) variance or heterogeneity of the population; 2) magnitude of acceptable error; and 3) confidence level (Zikmund, 2003:369 & 424).

In working out the sample size we have to make certain parameter estimates. For this study, the confidence level (Z) will be set at 95%, the margin of acceptable error (E) will 5%. Further, we assume that 90% of employees at SABC News Division are happy. Therefore, the sample size (N) for this proportion is determined by:

$N = \dfrac{(Z)^2 \times (pq)}{E^2}$,   where p = is the percentage of happy employees and q the percentage of unhappy employees.

$= \underline{(1.96)^2 \times (.85)(0.15)}$

$$(.05)^2$$

$$= \frac{3.84 \times 0.1275}{0.0025}$$

$$= \frac{0.4896}{0.0025}$$

= 195.84 ~ 196. Thus 200 employees is a representative sample (Zikmund, 2003:427 – 428).

One hundred and ninety six employees represent 31% of the news full time staff. So, our earlier estimate of two hundred was not far from the mark.

Since researchers can never be 100 percent certain a sample reflects its population, they must decide how much precision they need. Precision is measured by 1) the interval range in which they would expect to find the parameter estimate and 2) the degree of confidence they wish to have in that estimate. Some principles that influence sample size include:

- The greater the dispersion or variance within the population, the larger the sample size must be to provide estimation precision;
- The greater the desired precision of the estimate, the larger the sample must be.
- The narrower the interval range, the larger the sample must be.
- The higher the confidence level in the estimate, the larger the sample must be.
- The greater the number of subgroups of interest within a sample, the greater the sample size must be, as each subgroup must meet minimum sample size requirements.
- If the calculated sample size exceeds 5 percent of the population, sample size may be reduced without sacrificing precision (Cooper and Schindler, 2001: 172).

3.5 Sampling frame

A sampling frame is the list of elements from which the sample may be drawn (Zikmund, 2003:373). For this study, the sampling frame would be the 630 full time staff members. This will exclude freelancers and part-time workers. See page sixty nine for the final sample.

3.6 Data collection

Since this is descriptive study, the survey and secondary data methods will be used to collect the needed information. A survey is defined as a method of gathering primary data based on communication with a representative sample of individuals. Typically, surveys aim to describe what is happening or to learn reasons for a particular business activity. Other survey objectives might include identifying the characteristics of a particular group, to measure attitudes, and to describe behavioral patterns. For example, in this research the main aim is to determine what motivates employees and make them happy or unhappy in their jobs. The main advantage of surveys is that they are quick, flexible, inexpensive, efficient and accurate means of assessing information about the population. If the research is conducted properly, surveys provide valuable information to managers (Zikmund, 2003:175).

3.7 Survey technique

A survey is a research technique in which information is gathered from a sample of people using a questionnaire. These questionnaires will be self-administered, in that respondents will have to fill them up under supervision of a human resource practitioner. Self-administered questionnaires present a problem to the researcher because they rely on the clarity of the written word rather than the skill of the interviewer (Zikmund, 2003:66 & 212).

The other assumption that has to be made when using questionnaires is that respondents can read, understand and write in the language of the questionnaire.

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For the above reason, Zikmund (2003:330-332) is of the view that it is critically important that questions are properly phrased and constructed. For a survey is as good as the questions it asks. Relevance and accuracy are the two basic criteria a questionnaire must meet if it is to achieve the researcher's purpose. The questionnaire is relevant if no unnecessary information is collected and if the information that is needed to solve the business problem is obtained. Asking the wrong or irrelevant question is a pitfall to be avoided. Accuracy means that the information is reliable and valid. As a general rule of thumb researchers believe that questions should be simple, understandable, unbiased, unambiguous, and use nonirritating words. There is no step-by-step procedure to ensure accuracy in question writing that can be generalized to all projects. Therefore a researcher has to make certain decision about:

- What to ask?
- How should each question be phrased?
- In what sequence should the questions be arranged?
- What questionnaire layout will best serve the research objectives? And
- How should the questionnaire be pre-tested? Does the questionnaire need to be revised? And these questions should not necessarily be in the order presented above.

The researcher must also decide whether the questionnaire is going to have open-ended or fixed alternative questions. Open ended questions give respondents unlimited freedom in answering questions. For example, a subject may use his or her own words. What things do you like most about your job? This is a free-answer question. On the other hand, fixed alternative questions, or sometimes called "closed questions," in which the respondent is given specific, limited-alternative responses and asked to choose the one closest to his or her own viewpoint. For example, do you work overtime? Yes or No.

For this study, fixed alternative questions will be asked. Zikmund (2003:336 – 343) offers some guidelines in asking questions. In summary, these are:

- Avoid complexity: Use simple, conversational language.
- Avoid leading and loaded questions.
- Avoid ambiguity: Be as specific as possible.
- Avoid Double-Barreled Items.
- Avoid making assumptions
- Avoid burdensome questions that may tax the respondent's memory.

3.8 The measuring scale

In this study a questionnaire will be used to capture demographic information from respondents. Each employee will be asked to describe a critical incident/s in his work environment that caused either great happiness or unhappiness and to describe his or her reactions to that incident/s.

3.9 Secondary data technique

Secondary data sources will be utilized to find theoretical information, for example, books, published journals and articles, the internet as revealed in the literature review.

3.10 Data analysis

Analysis is the application of reasoning to understand and interpret the data that have been collected (Zikmund, 2003:73). For this study, the M-H Theory analysis technique will be utilized to describe the results of the research.

Statistics are simply tools used by the researcher to help make sense out of the observations that have been collected. Some statistical analyses are very simple and

are used to help describe and classify the data. Other statistical techniques are quite complex and help the researcher make detailed inferences. For data to be statistically manipulated, it must be organized and quantified in some way (Riggio, 2000:25).

Now that the methodology of this study has been detailed, a questionnaire which will be distributed to all targeted employees of the SABC news division in all provinces of the Republic of South Africa.

Chapter 4 - Findings

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on research results of profiling factors that contribute to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction amongst the journalistic employees in the News Division of the national public broadcaster in South Africa using Herzberg Motivation – Hygiene Theory (M-H Theory).

Essentially the M-H Theory claims that two sets of factors are responsible for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the work place. Herzberg named these factors true motivators and hygiene factors respectively. Feelings of satisfaction in most cases stemmed largely from motivating factors, the task itself, opportunities to achieve, recognition, responsibility, advancement and psychological growth in ones career. Emotions of dissatisfaction in the work situation are largely linked to factors surrounding the job, such as wages, company policy and administration, interpersonal relations with supervisors and fellow workers, subordinates, physical working conditions, job security, status, supervisory skills and personal life. These latter factors were called hygiene factors (hygiene in every day life averts the danger of health hazards in the environment), since they prevent trouble rather than eliminate it (Backer, 1976:153-154).

4.2 Overview of the SABC

The SABC is the biggest broadcaster in Africa with regional offices in all provinces of the Republic and indeed a World Class performer in the broadcasting industry. The SABC is controlled by a Board of Directors whose members are selected through public hearings and appointed by the President on recommendations of the parliamentary Portfolio Committee on Communications. The Board is responsible and accountable for matters of policy. The Board in turn appoints a Group Executive Committee whose core task is to apply policy, formulate strategies and set broad corporate objectives for the SABC. The SABC has about ten Divisions, namely Radio,

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Television, News, Sales and Marketing, Operations, Corporate Affairs, Audience Services, Business Enterprises, Finance and Human Capital. It has about 3500 full-time staff in its employ. The SABC operates with the obligations and precincts of the Broadcasting Act (No. 4) of 1999 and amongst its core mandates are:

- To make its services available throughout the Republic;

- To provide sound and television broadcasting services, whether by analogue or digital means, and to provide sound and television programmes of information, education, and entertainment funded by advertisers, subscriptions, sponsorship, license fees or any other means of finance (SABC Annual Report, 2001:2 – 3).

The researcher believes that this study will be beneficial for the SABC because:
- It will broaden management's insights on the role that motivation plays in making employees either satisfied or dissatisfied in their work.
- It will enable managers to understand the factors and processes that are internal and external to the individual employee in an organization that can have an effect in his/her behaviour and performance.
- The study will also assist managers to devise strategies that sustain a highly motivated workforce so that the end result is that all stakeholders are content with the performance of the enterprise.
- By understanding motivational issues behind employees, managers can systematically develop strategies to inject more energy in each employee and at the same time develop strategies to deal with motivational problems as and when they occur.

4.3 Methodology

4.3.1 Data collection

A survey questionnaire with two sections A and B was constructed and randomly distributed to all staff in both regions and national office of the News Division of the SABC. The Human Resource practitioner at Head Office was responsible for distribution and collection of questionnaires with support from regional editors. Section A gathered biographic information. In section B respondents were required to state one or more critical incident/s which caused them great happiness or unhappiness in the work situation and to describe their reactions to those incidents. See Annexure C for the questionnaire.

Forty self-administered questionnaires were printed. They were distributed to workers of the news division by the Human Resource Practitioner during working hours at Head Office. Twenty self-administered questionnaires were printed and posted to each of the eight regions of the SABC by the Human Resource Practitioner. Attached to each questionnaire was the research and approval letters. See Annexure A and B. Regional Editors were instructed to distribute questionnaires to employees in their news offices and not outside news division. At both Head Office and Regional Offices employees were asked to fill questionnaires at work or home and return all completed questionnaires to the Human Resource Practitioner at Head Office or Regional Editor's Office in the case of Provinces. Completed questionnaires from regional offices were posted back to the Human Resource Practitioner at Head Office who in turn handed them to the researcher.

Two hundred employees was targeted in the News Division, forty from Head Office and twenty from each of the eight Provinces.

While some employees filled the questionnaires immediately with enthusiasm, others returned them after several weeks and numerous reminders. Some took questionnaires and never filled them or returned them. Several reasons were forwarded by employees for non-response or delayed responses. Some said they

don't have the time to fill the questionnaire; there is no benefit for them in filing the questionnaire; they are overloaded with work; and that filling the questionnaires will not change their personal circumstances.

4.3.2 Sample and sample characteristics

The study population consisted of a diverse group of 630 professionals, namely, African, Coloureds, Indians/Asians and Whites employed in the News Division. Different job levels were targeted from production assistants, cameraman, video editors, journalists, producers/writers, specialists, executive producers and editors from lower to higher salary levels in the News Division of the SABC. Eighty two (82) participants took part in the research and there were sixty four (64) useful questionnaires. This represented 10% of the sample. The characteristics of the sample are illustrated in figures one to eight below.

Sample characteristics

4.3.2.1 Age

A bigger percentage (28%) of respondents were older than forty five (45) years, followed by 25% between the ages of 26 and 30 years; 14% of respondents fell between 21 and 25 and 16% was between the ages 36 and 40 years old. Only 6% of subjects were between 41 and 45 years of age while only 3% were 20 and below.

Figure 4.1   *Age distribution of sample*
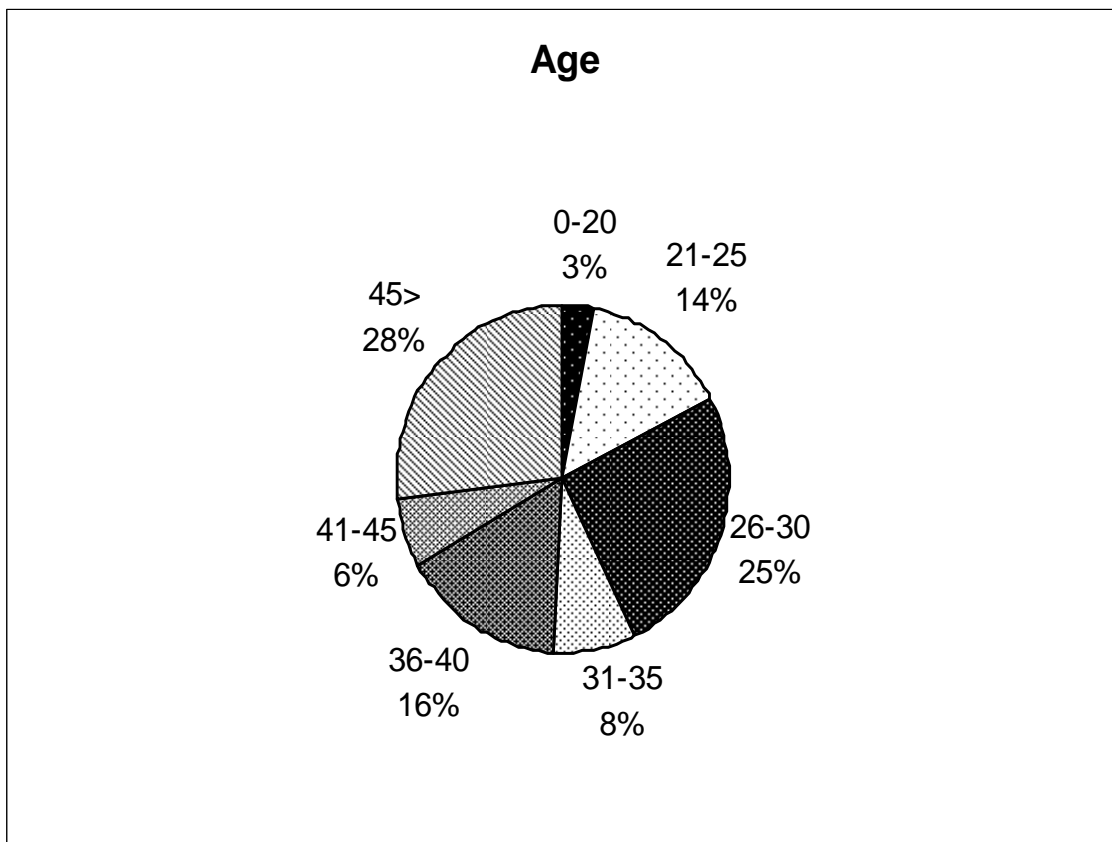
4.3.2.2 Gender

Of the 64 respondents, 35% were female and 65% were males.

Figure 4.2   <u>*Gender distribution of sample*</u>

Gender

Female
35%

Male
65%
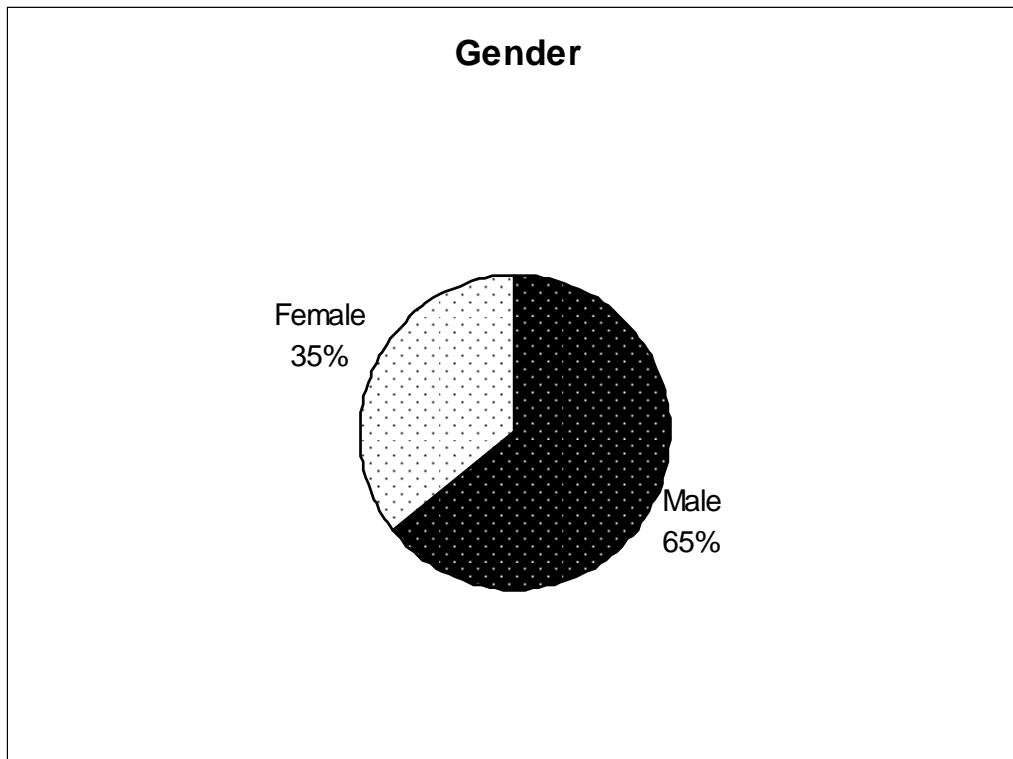
4.3.2.3 Race

The sample represented a diverse workforce with the majority being Africans (65%), followed by Whites at 16% and Coloureds at 11%. Only 8% were Indians or Asians.

Figure 4.3   *Race distribution of sample*
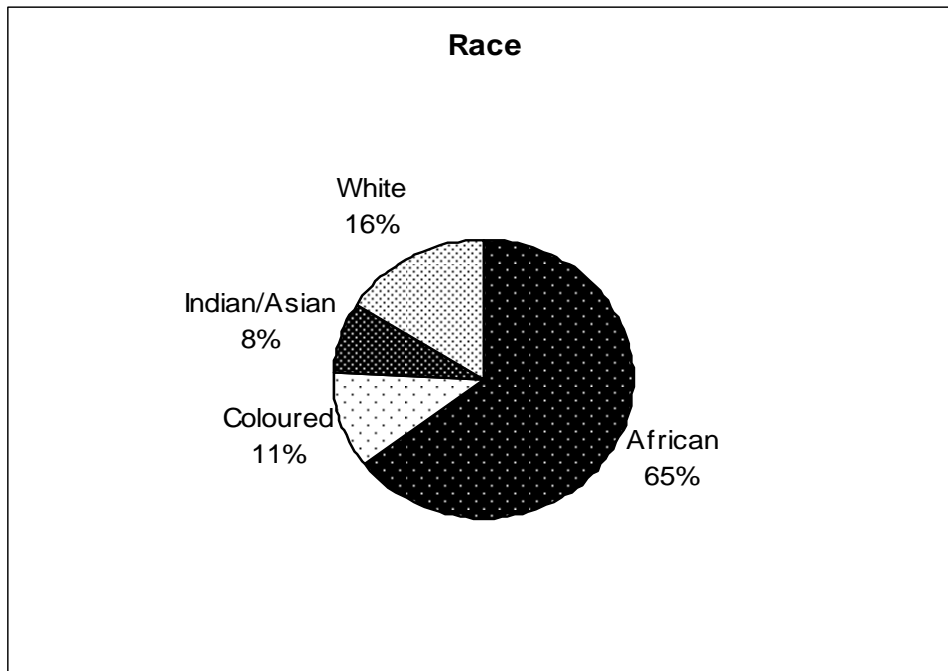
4.3.2.4 Marital status

The majority of respondents were single (51%), followed by married or living together (45%). 2% were divorced or separated while another 2% were widowed.

Figure 4.4   *Marital status distribution of sample*
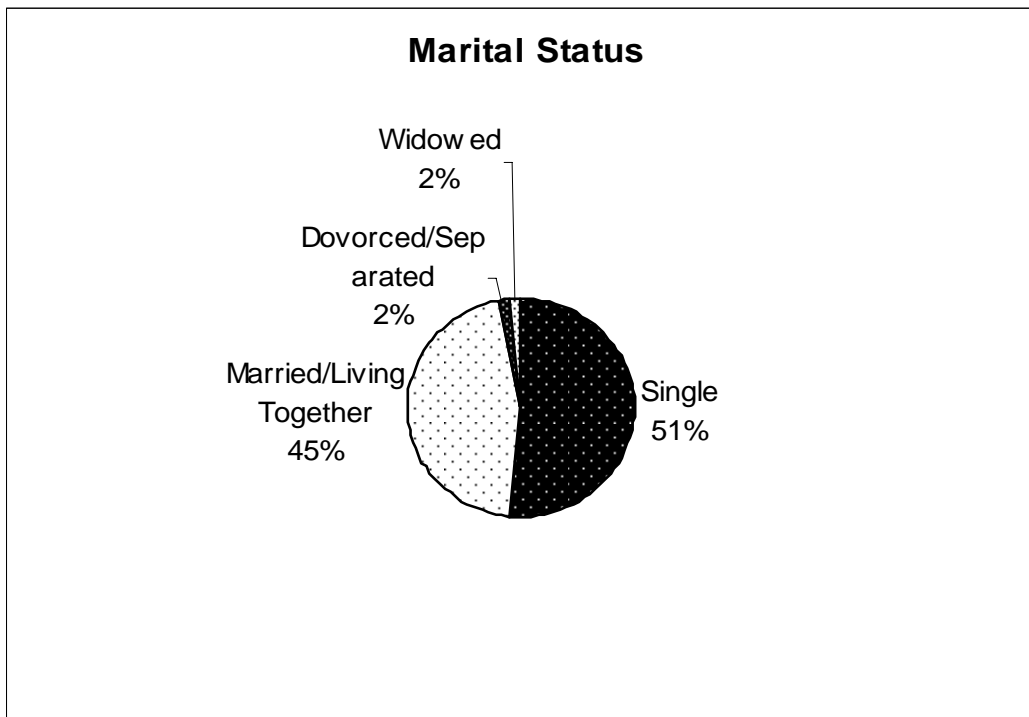
4.3.2.5 Work experience

The majority of the workers (42%) in the sample had 5 years or less work experience with the national broadcaster. 24% had more than 5 years but less than 10 years. 12% had at least 10 years but less than 15 years and another 12% were at least 15 but less than 20 years. Only 10% had 25 years or more.

Figure 4.5   *Length of work experience distribution of sample*
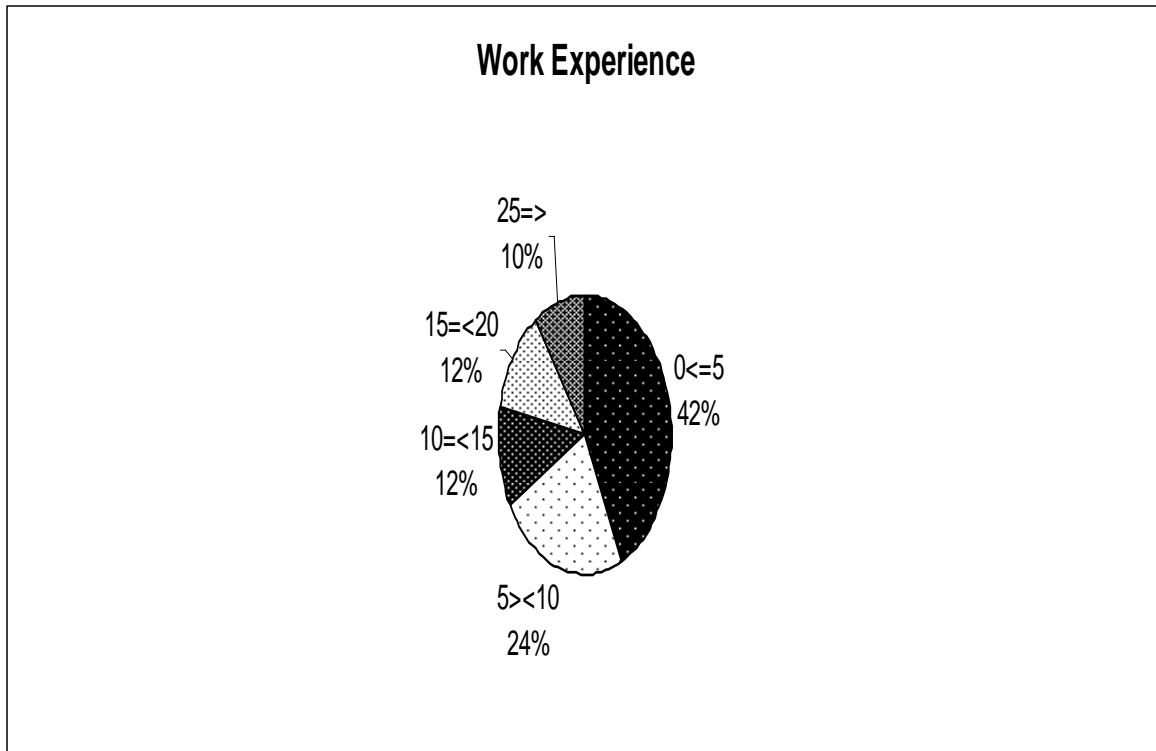
4.3.2.6 Education

The majority of respondents (44%) had a post school diploma or certificate; 28% had grade 12 or matriculation; 20% were degreed; 8% had a post graduate qualification while none had a qualification less than grade 12.

Figure 4. 6   *Education distribution of sample*
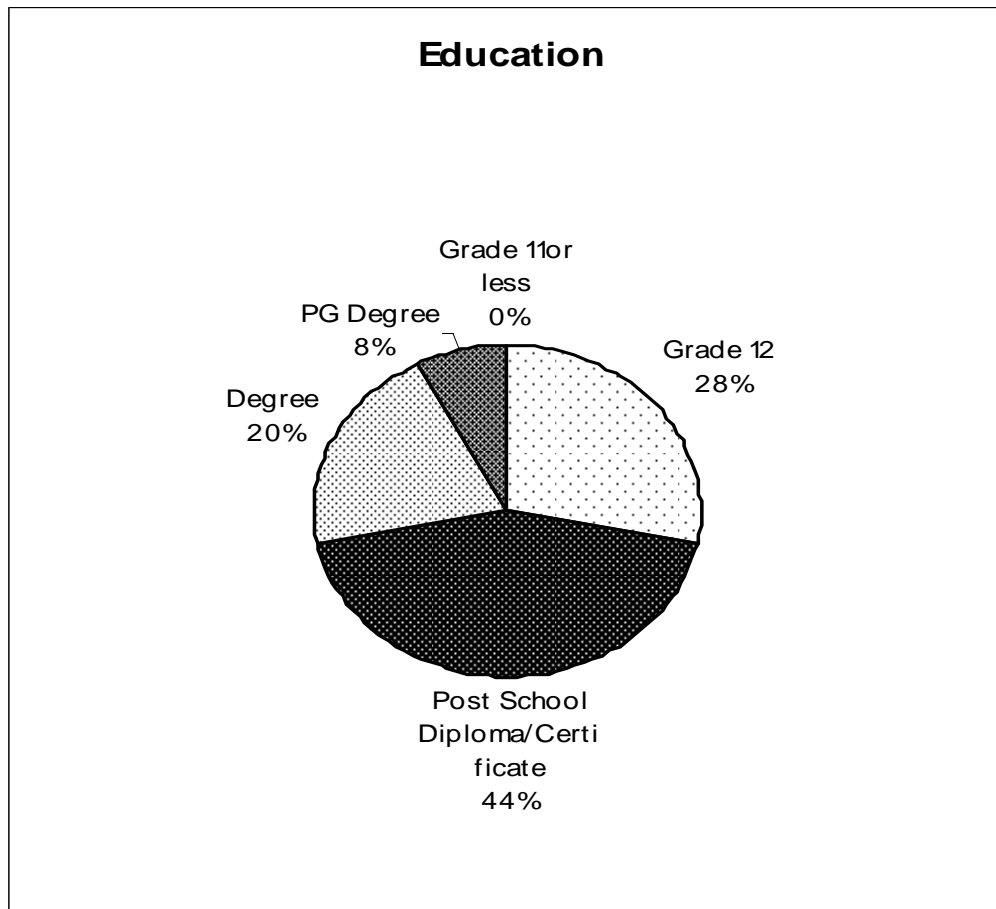
It is to be noted that for this sample no responded had an education level of less than grade 11; hence 0% for grade 11 or less.

4.3.2.7 Position

76% of the sample was non-managers or occupied subordinate positions. 24% were managers or occupied positions of authority over others.

Figure 4.7   <u>*Seniority distribution of sample*</u>
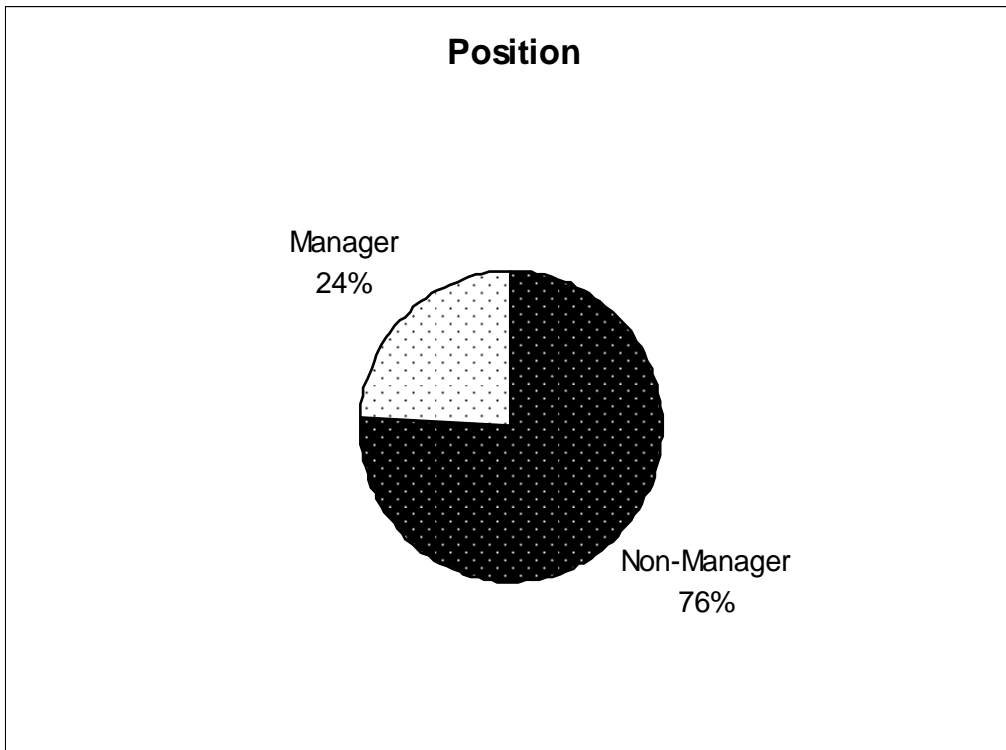
4.3.2.8 Location

45% of respondents in the sample came form regional offices while 55% originated from Head Office.

Figure 4.8   *Place of work distribution of sample*
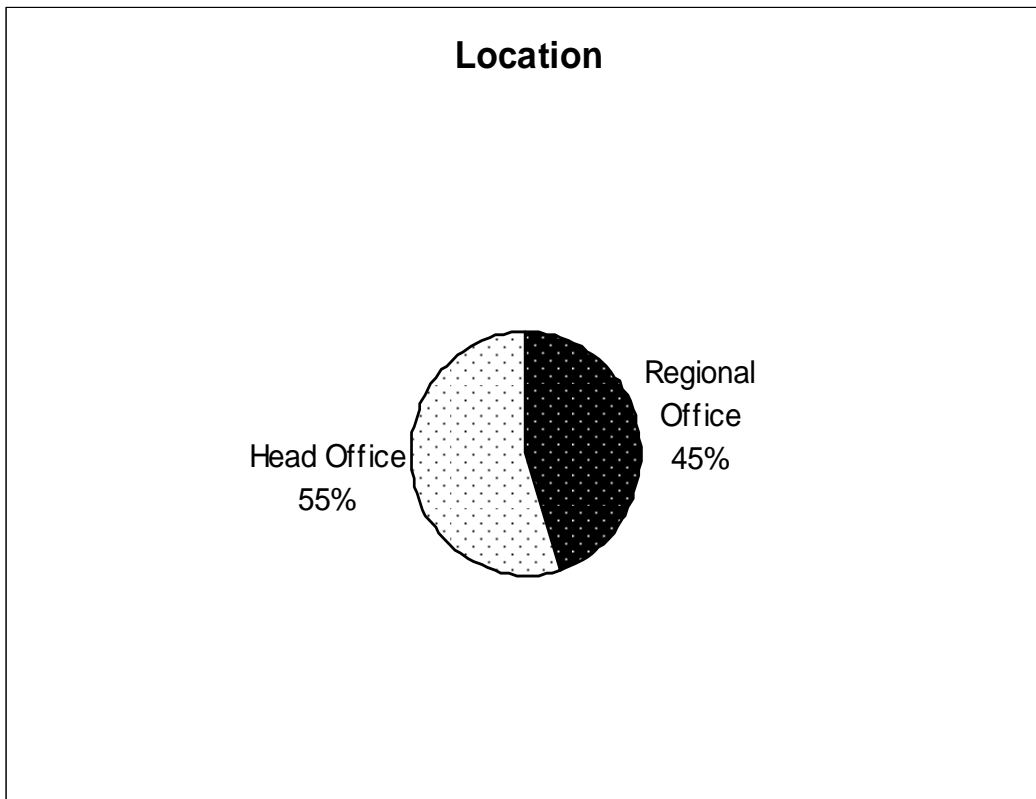
4.4. Analysis

Section B was analyzed using the critical-incident approach developed by Herzberg in his Motivation – Hygiene theory. See table 1 below for the distribution of factors as a percentage of satisfaction and dissatisfaction of incidents.

4.4.1. Findings

It is important to note that some respondents mentioned more that one story that contributed to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction. There were 84 incidents of satisfaction and 63 incidents of dissatisfaction that were mentioned. Their frequencies (f) and percentages (rounded off) are displayed in table 1.

Table 4.1   *Distribution of factors*

		Satisfaction		Dissatisfaction	
Total incidents	**84**		**63**		
Motivators	f	% (Rounded off)	F	% (Rounded off)	
Achievement	34	41	13	21	
Recognition	29	35	9	14	
Advancement	4	5	3	5	
Responsibility	2	2	1	2	
Work Itself	14	17	4	6	
Growth or the possibility of growth	6	7	1	2	
Sub-Total Motivators	*89*		*31*		
Hygiene factors					
Company Policy and Administration	5	6	13	21	
Salary	0		4	6	
Supervision- Technical	1	1	15	24	
Interpersonal Relations	0				
-With Fellow workers	5	6	2	3	
-With Supervisors	0		8	13	
Personal Life	1	1	1	2	
Physical working conditions	0				
Status	0				
Job security	0		3	5	
Sub-Total Hygiene factors	*12*		*46*		
Grand Total (All factors)	101		77		

4.5. Classification of factors

Employees in the sample mentioned 84 incidents of satisfaction and 63 incidents dissatisfaction. As mentioned before, some wrote more than one incident of happiness or unhappiness.

4.5.1 Incidents that caused satisfaction

The following factors were identified by some respondents as having contributed to satisfaction in their working lives:

Achievement (41%)

1. Satisfaction was caused predominantly by a sense of achievement (41%) for the accomplishment of some milestone, goals or objectives set by the individual himself, supervisor or the line manager.

Examples:

   a. "I was a team leader of current affairs shows sometime ago".
   b. "When I was appointed as the first TV reporter in the Free State in 1976 and when I won the "Akademire vir Wetenskap en Kuns" for radio in two occasions in 1983 and 1993".
   c. "My very first story in TV".
   d. "I feel so good when the story I wrote is being used in all the bulletins in different   languages".
   e. "The first time I worked for a national radio station".
   f. "A fire destroyed the Moratoria building in the city. I worked through the night until midday the next day. It was rewarding to know that you are keeping people up to date with the latest and on every opportunity we had a new angle to the story and everyone was well informed on what is happening and where to avoid what".
   g. "My team comprises of the presenter, senior producer and myself, and we covered the world Conference Against Racism in Durban. During the conference we caught an idea of covering or bringing

together Israel and Palestinian youth to debate their problems in the Middle East in our studios. When we forwarded the proposition we were given the green light but they laughed at us. But for the nonbelievers, we triumphed as we had youths represented in our hour long programme which was successful".

h. "Covering big events such as the election or international conferences. If our office makes a success of the coverage, it reflects well on us as managers".

i. "It was time when I was asked to act in a senior post".

Recognition (35%)

2. The second most important factor that caused positive feelings in the work place was recognition (35%) for work well done, a good idea, and was in the form of appreciation, positive feedback, positive compliments and admiration.
Examples:

a. "I feel so great about my job when my boss appreciates what I am doing, especially when doing something new".

b. "When I come up with ideas, am assigned to implement them for broadcast and get good positive feedback".

c. "When I got a letter from my supervisor that said a client called her complimenting me for being very helpful. It really motivated me".

d. "When editors told me the story was nice".

e. "My first years in the TV news division were the best of my work life. My contribution was admired both internally and externally".

Work itself (17%)

3. The third factor contributing to happiness was work itself (17%) which was always linked to the nature of the work.
Examples:

a. "I feel good about my job every day"

b. "In my case this feeling always comes when I have completed packaging a story. And after watching it play flawless and seeing the audiences' (colleagues) expressions on their faces".

c. "I work to meet the challenges on the camera field; enjoying self assignments i.e. scoops".

d. "When I was assigned to meet inspiring people, to listen to them and to share their stories/news with everyone in every corner of the country/continent".

e. "When I am asked and encouraged to be creative + trusted to deliver the goods to the best of my ability in the name of excellent public service broadcasting".

Growth (7%)

4. Growth or possibility of growth (7%) contributed to job satisfaction in the fourth position.

Examples:

a. "When news management has genuinely empowered us and we do what we are passionate about".

b. "When I joined the SABC I had no training at all. I was trained and told that I would be given any extra tool that I felt would enhance the product. The SABC did not fail to keep this promise, the cars used were always roadworthy and in good condition. When working away we slept in good accommodation, equipment was the latest and always in good condition".

Company policy and administration (6%) and Interpersonal Relations (with fellow workers) (6%)

5. Company policy and administration (6%) and Interpersonal Relations (with fellow workers) (6%) seem to contribute equally to job satisfaction.

Examples:

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a. "Your productivity was not looked at over the shoulder type but measured by the fact that your work was done timeously and correct.

b. "When we recorded Newsmaker of the week. On the final day of the broadcast we could not go "On-Air" at 11:00 as scheduled but after 13 minutes. All was manned but the technical team did not live up to standard. They were supposed to have rigged everything Saturday night as I suggested and they had enough time but failed the SABC dismally. I was ashamed for a few months until after Live Freedom Day all was superbly transmitted".

Advancement (5%)

6. Advancement was mentioned by 5% of the cases as cause for happiness.

Examples:

a. "When promoted to editor level, I felt proud of my work".

b. "When promoted to manager position, I felt the company respects me".

Responsibility (2%)

7. Responsibility contributed to satisfaction in 2% of the cases.

Examples:

a. I was a team leader of current affairs shows sometime ago, I enjoyed the responsibilities of the show and I got maximally committed to my job".

b. "I am happy with responsibility and accountability".

Supervision – Technical (1%) and *Personal Life* (1%)

8. Supervision –Technical (1%) and Personal Life (1%) contributed equally to job satisfaction for this sample.

Examples:

a. "My manager resigned and a new one was appointed in his place. The new manager understands what I do I can discuss relevant issues with him".

b. "It reminds me of the incident of my engagement in a car accident – but the company was so passionate with my situation to the extent of my recovery – now I am proud that I am productive and happy with my deliberations".

4.5.2 Incidents that caused dissatisfaction

Supervision – Technical (24%)

1. Supervision-Technical, the majority of the cases (24%) in the sample mentioned this factor as a major cause of unhappiness in SABC News Division.

Examples:
   a. "I was just told that I am to be moved to input which was not what I wanted to do. But just to be told and not having a say in the decision was very demoralizing".
   b. "The first time a story I had edited had a 'black-on-air' which lasted for +-10sec. This was my saddest day of my working life. My manager called me with the bulletin editor and the tape was played in front of my colleagues and I was given a tongue lashing".
   c. "I worked 12 years in Durban under an Indian manager. He did not promote you – although he always says/uses you for all work. He called me into the office for coming in 5 minutes late – yet the announcers only arrive 1 min to airtime he did not notice. I hated him for that".

   d. "When I was told by my manager /supervisor that I must not think that I am the best whist he was around as he would not even consider me for an upgrade /salary adjustment because he does not like me. Indeed he did not recommend".

e. "My old manager blamed his short falls on me. This caused people to think I wasn't actually doing anything when I was always trying to fix up his broken promises".

Achievement (21%)

2. Achievement (21%) was mentioned as the second strongest factor that contributes to job dissatisfaction and was experienced mainly when people failed to accomplish their goals or milestones set for them.

Examples:

a. "It was my first time going to cover a story in the East Rand. Residents of the area were on strike due to their electricity and water being cut by the municipality. My cameraman and I were still busy preparing our equipment (tripod and the camera). We were surprised our residents decided to attack the media who was there. Fortunately we were able to get out of the area with the story and a damaged car".

b. "It was when I failed to deliver the job expected from me on time".

c. "This happens mostly when you work hard the whole day trying to do a perfect job but get disappointed by the final product. This can make you doubt you're potential and affect your confidence in what you are trying to do".

d. "Missing deadline and the MD came to shout at me. I will never ever forget that dreadful moment".

e. "The standard of performance and professionalism went down. I was de-motivated and felt like resigning".

Company policy and administration (21%)

3. Company policy and administration contributed to job dissatisfaction in 21% of the cases and related mainly to how the rules are applied and how people are managed by their supervisors.

Examples:

a. "There are many incidences where people superior to you (Editors) make decisions without transparency and without consultation. This is standard at SABC/SABC Africa".

b. "Working extra mile under hard conditions without anyone to relieve you. The problem arises when one should be rewarded. That makes an individual to loose hope as well as an urge to help out in difficult situation in the future".

c. "When I return from leave to find that the office was exactly as I had left it. Bad planning in my department is a definite let down. It is just depressing".

Recognition (14%)

4. Lack of recognition (14%) was the fourth strongest dissatisfier.

Examples:

a. "Expect nothing from this world! Maybe in the world to come".

b. "There is nothing as depressing as when your story has a problem technically on air and everyone goes "who the hell edited that story?". One feels like shrinking into the thin air".

c. "When you don't actually feel appreciated by superiors and colleagues".

d. "When your management doesn't acknowledge what viewers and listeners think of you. It is disappointing factor and it also demoralizes one but mostly it affects your performance one way or the other".

Interpersonal Relations (with supervisors) (13%)

5. Interpersonal Relations (with supervisors) (13%) was also mentioned as the cause of dissatisfaction.

Examples:

    a. "No one cares in this division. I don't want to even think about it, this place makes me sick".

    b. "There is no personal relationship between management and staff (you do your job and go home)".

Work itself (6%)

6. Work itself, only in 6% of the cases was employees unhappy about the content of their job.

Examples:

    a. "When a white gentleman referred to me as a black monkey who knew nothing about the SABC and where it originated from".

    b. "I think a first I was excited of working at SABC News".

Salary (6%)

7. Salary, only in 6% of the cases was salary expressed as a cause of unhappiness.

Examples:

    a. "For three years, starting from 1983 to 1985 I had to work without a bonus because my employer thought that I was a trouble maker when I organized SABC workers to join the union".

    b. "...Salaries are very low, I and the rest of my colleagues battle to buy petrol..."

Advancement (5%)

8. Advancement, 5% of the sampled employees expressed feelings of dissatisfaction when they were denied opportunities for promotion or advancement in their career paths.

Examples:

    a. "…When my application for a senior position failed as I was not even short-listed".

    b. "I worked 12 years in Durban under an Indian manager. He did not promote you – although he always says/uses you for all work".

Job security (5%)

9. Job security, 5% of the cases expressed insecurity about the future prospects of their jobs or about the continuity of certain public broadcasting services.

Examples:

    a. "When I was targeted for retrenchments – and retrenched and subsequently re-deployed. I was depressed – I felt my many years and contribution amounted to nothing".

    b. "Uncertainty about the future of current affairs from the stations side…"

Interpersonal Relations (3%)

10. Interpersonal Relations, about 3% expressed about poor relations with fellow workers.

Example:

    a. "When staff in the region puts a motion of no-confidence in management because of instigation by outside influences. It took a lot of the joy out of my work

- I trust a lot fewer people now.
- Just do my work and go home.

Responsibility (2%)

11. Responsibility, only in 2% of the cases was responsibility mentioned as a contributor to unhappiness.

Example:

    a. "It was when I failed to deliver the job expected from me on time. I felt irresponsible. The situation haunted me for a long time".

Growth (2%)

12. Lack of Growth was mentioned as the cause of unhappiness in 2% of the cases.

Example:

    a. "When the management unit decided to scale down my activity, I felt very strongly about engaging with activities of interest to me. But, they had a different idea of how my development and experience would influence my contribution to the unit".

Personal Life (2%)

13. Personal Life was cited as a cause of dissatisfaction in 2% of the cases.

Example:

    a. "Six years ago one radio station was relocated to Mafikeng from its Head Quarters in Johannesburg. This move caused hardship in the family and it also affected my performance adversely".

Figure 9   <u>Factors causing satisfaction and factors causing dissatisfaction (% rounded off)</u>

Personal Life		Personal Life
Interpersonal relations (Supervisors		Salary
Job security		Job security
Salary		
Interpersonal relations (f/ workers)		Interpersonal relations (Super)
Company policy and administration		Interpersonal relations (f/workers)
Supervision-Technical		Company policy and admin.
Responsibility		Supervision-Technical
Growth		Responsibility
Advancement		Advancement
Work itself		Growth
		Work itself
Recognition		Recognition
Achievement		Achievement

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*Table 4.2*   *All factors contributing to job satisfaction and all factors contributing to job dissatisfaction*

All factors contributing to Dissatisfaction (%)	All factors contributing to Satisfaction (%)
Hygiene factors	True Motivators
-60	-40
12	88

Figure 4.10   *Total factors contributing to job dissatisfaction and job satisfaction*
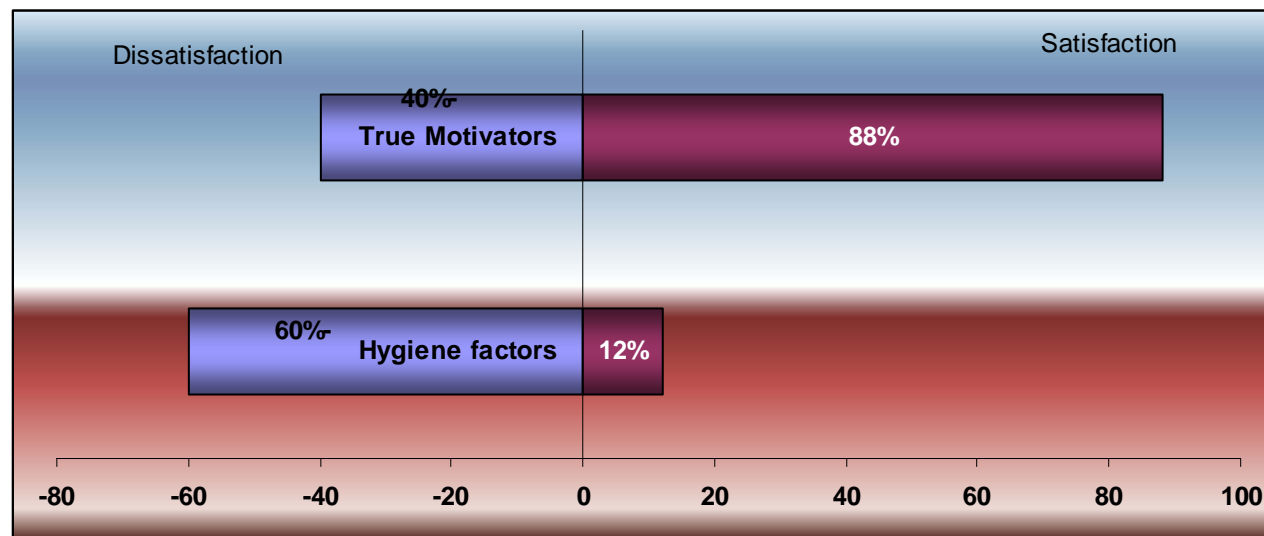
Chapter 5 Interpretation, conclusions and recommendations

5.1 Introduction

The factors contributing to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction were ranked the way they emerged from the research findings as in the table 3 below. The positive and negative signs have been utilized to indicate satisfaction and dissatisfaction respectively.

Table 5.1   *Ranking of the factors causing satisfaction and dissatisfaction*

Satisfaction		Dissatisfaction	
Factors	%	Factors	%
Achievement	41	Supervision-Technical	-24
Recognition	36	Achievement	-21
Work itself	17	Company policy and administration	-21
Growth	7	Recognition	-14
Company policy and administration	6	Interpersonal relations (Supervisors)	-13
Interpersonal relations (fellow workers)	6	Work itself	-6
Advancement	5	Salary	-6
Responsibility	2	Advancement	-5
Supervision-Technical	1	Job security	-5
Personal Life	1	Interpersonal relations (fellow workers)	-3
		Responsibility	-2
		Growth	-2
		Personal Life	-2

The same information can be presented in graphic form as in figures 5.1 and 5.2.

Figure 5.1   *Graphic representation of factors contributing to satisfaction*
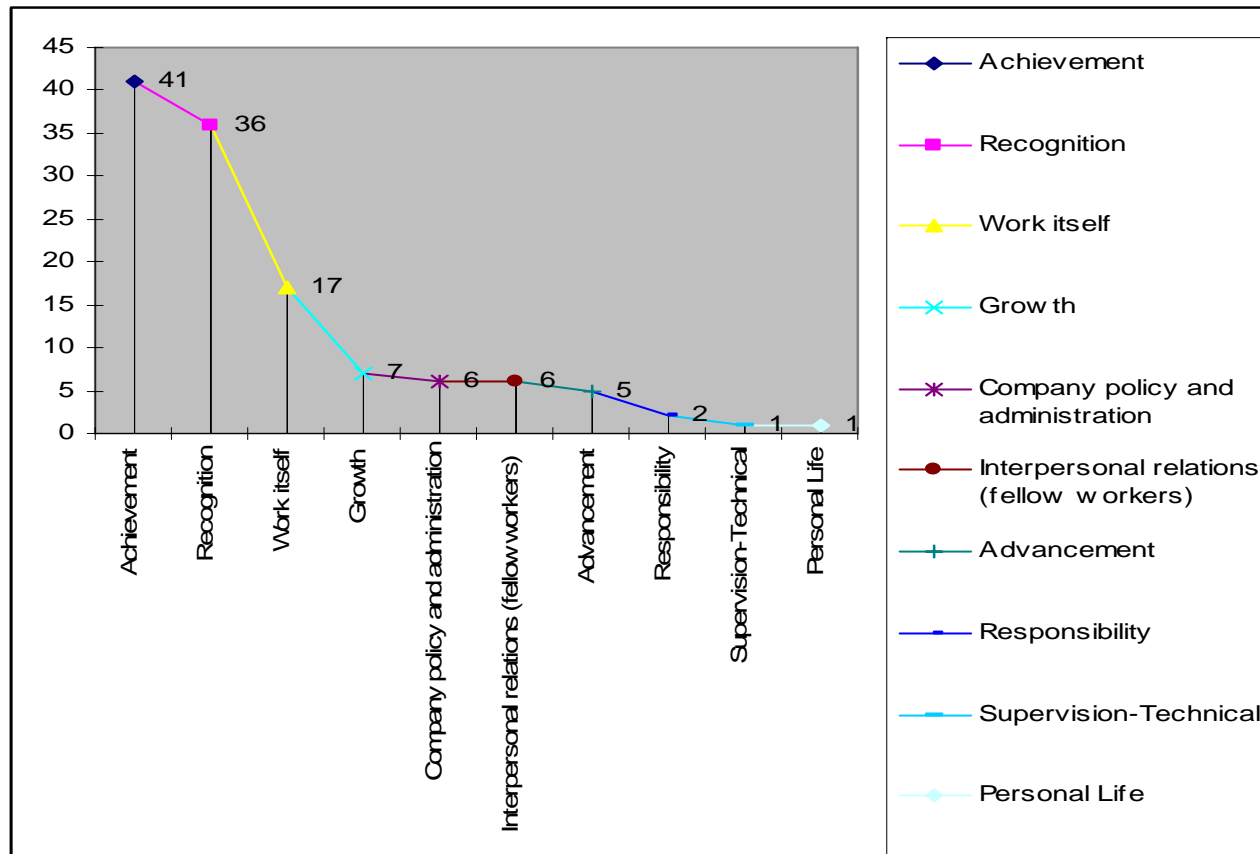
Figure 5.2   *Graphic representation of factors contributing to dissatisfaction*
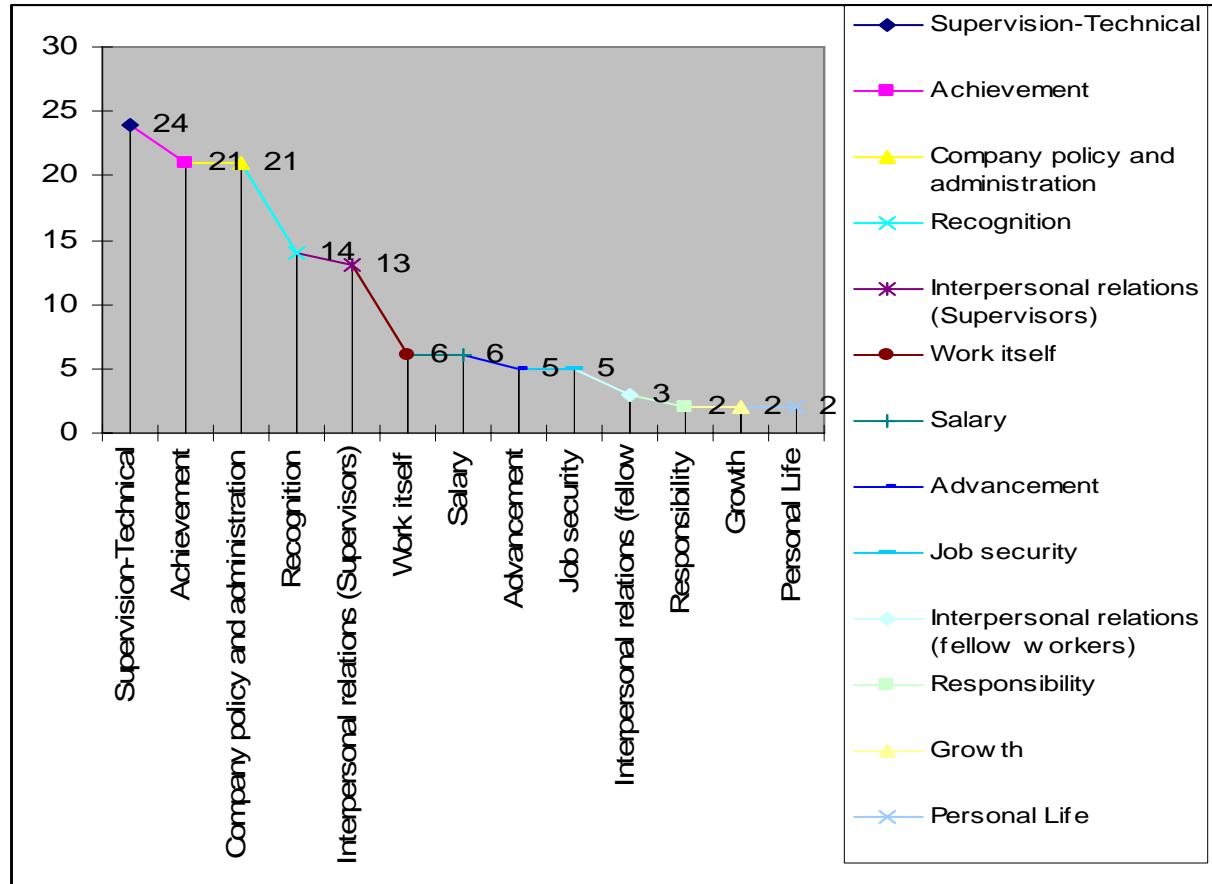
5.2 Interpretation

The study shows that the true motivators, *achievement and recognition* jointly contribute 77% to job satisfaction. Achievement alone contributes 41% to job satisfaction while recognition contributes 36%.

Interesting *work itself* contributes 17% to job satisfaction. *Growth or the possibility of growth* accounts for 7% of job satisfaction. *Company policy and administration and interpersonal relations* (with fellow workers) both contribute 6% each to job satisfaction. *Advancement* contributes 5% while being given an opportunity for responsibility contributes about 2% to job satisfaction. Good *supervision* and consideration for *private life* accounts for about 1% of job satisfaction.

On the other hand, poor supervision *(supervision – technical)* came out as the highest contributor to job dissatisfaction at 24%. Lack of *achievement* and poor *company policy and administration* each contribute 21% to job dissatisfaction. No *recognition* and poor *interpersonal relations (with supervisors)* contribute 14% and 13% respectively to job dissatisfaction. Both uninteresting *work itself* and low *salary* contribute 6% each to job dissatisfaction. No opportunities for *advancement* and lack of *job security* contribute 5% each to job dissatisfaction. Poor *interpersonal relations (with fellow workers)* contribute 3% to job dissatisfaction. No opportunity for *responsibility and growth* and negative effect on *personal life* each contributes 2% to job dissatisfaction.

5.3 Conclusions

Factors causing satisfaction

The major finding of this study is that job satisfaction in the SABC News Division is largely caused by true motivators (88%); while hygiene factors contribute 12% to job satisfaction (see figure 10).

The study also finds that dissatisfaction is largely caused by hygiene factors (60%); while true motivators contribute 40% to job dissatisfaction (see figure 10).

True motivators, namely, achievement, recognition and work itself play a dominant role in contributing to job satisfaction. All three factors were above the mean (12%) for this sample. In all instances the employees were excited and highly motivated when recognized for specific achievements, when praised or being appreciated for doing a task well and for being given the space and opportunity to do what they know best.

A mixture of true motivators and hygiene factors came below the mean and still contribute to job satisfaction albeit in smaller ways. For example, growth or the possibility of growth, advancement and responsibility, also true motivators, play a part in contributing to job satisfaction though all appeared relatively low. In these instances, employees expressed satisfaction when opportunities were opened for them to learn, practice a new skill, when their position changed to enhance their status, or when given responsibility with authority to discharge that challenge.

Company policy and administration, interpersonal relations (with fellow workers) and supervision-technical and personal life were some of the hygiene factors that contribute to job satisfaction. In these instances, employees were happy with how they are generally managed, had good relations with supervisors and the employer did something that contributed positively to the employees personal life, such as support when ill.

Factors causing dissatisfaction

On the other hand, a mixture of true motivators and hygiene factors, namely, supervision-technical, achievement, company policy and administration, recognition and interpersonal relations (with supervisors) emerged as the highest contributors to job dissatisfaction as they all accounted for more than the mean of 9% to job dissatisfaction. With regard to supervision-technical, company policy and administration and interpersonal relations (hygiene factors) most employees were unhappy with management styles, accessibility of supervisors, competence of supervisors, poor relationships with supervisors and fairness in managing them or handling issues affecting them. With regard to achievement and recognition (true motivators), most employees mentioned lack of notice and acknowledgement for work well done or tasks successfully completed.

Salary, job security, interpersonal relations (with fellow workers), personal life (hygiene factors) came out below the mean of 9% and contribute to job dissatisfaction. In these instances employees mentioned not receiving bonuses, worry over the possibility or the experience of being retrenched, poor work relations with fellow workers and changes in work situation (transfers to another location) as having contributed to distress in their working lives.

The work itself, advancement, responsibility, and growth (true motivators) also came below the average of 9% and contributed to job dissatisfaction. These related to external factors interfering with their work, denial of an opportunity for promotion, not being given the necessary responsibility and authority to perform delegated tasks, and lack of promotional opportunities or unclear career path.

The results of this study seem to suggest that some factors (achievement, recognition and work itself) are at present clear front runners in causing greater job satisfaction while at the same time other factors (company policy and administration, interpersonal relations (with supervisors), advancement,

responsibility, supervision-technical, and personal life) also contribute to some degree to job satisfaction albeit very little.

These results also indicate that some factors (supervision-technical, achievement, company policy and administration, recognition, interpersonal relations (with supervisors) are at present clear front runners in causing job dissatisfaction while other factors (work itself, salary, advancement, job security, interpersonal relations (with fellow workers), responsibility, growth and personal life) are also contributing to job dissatisfaction to some degree albeit small.

Integration

The above results confirm the results of the original Herzberg studies which claimed that satisfaction will largely be caused by the true motivators and dissatisfaction by the hygiene factors. Herzberg found that achievement, recognition and work itself were the strongest contributors to the motivation of people (Adair, 1996). Achievement and recognition for achievement have also been found to be the two strongest satisfiers in Herzberg motivation studies by Backer (1982), Senekal (1998) and Botha (2003).

Dipboye, Smith, and Howell (1994) found that people work for both extrinsic rewards, such as money and promotions, and intrinsic rewards, such as pride in one's work and a sense of accomplishment. Miller (2002) also mentions recognition (including praise and rewards) as a common incentive but asserts that it discourages intrinsic motivation. Green (2000) says employees are motivated by what they intrinsically believe is going to happen, not by what managers promise (extrinsic) will happen.

Another study by Pollock (2002) recognized Herzberg's motivators, recognition and interesting work as being crucial in motivating people. He says, over and above monetary reward, what people crave is praise. They need assurance that their efforts are known, valued, and appreciated. Sometimes all it takes to satisfy this deep desire is a sincere "well done", preferably delivered in front of their peers. Pollock further

says making peoples' work interesting means driving away boredom because it's a great turn-off. Make their work meaningful and you will spur them to realize their own highest potential. Similar results in support of work itself as a strong motivator, Cheung and Scherling (1999) assert that job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a function of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (outcomes) offered by the job. For example, if employees feel challenged, interested and enthused by the task at hand, they will be happy and satisfied because they innately believe that what they do is indeed value-adding. On the other hand, if employees feel discouraged, disinterested and unenthused by the task at hand, they will be unhappy and dissatisfied, because they don't see any tangible value in them doing the job. In a study Hoar, Rebecca and Kirwan-Taylor, and Helen (2004), they found that people also get dissatisfied with their jobs simply because their jobs don't make meaning anymore.

Peterson, Puia, and Suess (2003) showed that supervision and coworker relationships are amongst the factors that are predictive of overall job satisfaction. In other words, if employees are happy with the quality of supervision or relations with fellow workers, one can predict that they will be happy at work; if employees are not happy with the quality of supervision or relations with fellow workers, one can predict that they will not be happy at work.

5.4 Recommendations

Recommendations will be made only with regard to the major contributors to job satisfaction (achievement, recognition and work itself). No discussion or recommendations will be made with regard to the factors that contributed minimally or insignificantly (below the mean) to job satisfaction.

5.4.1 Achievement

In order to strategically utilize achievement as a motivational tool for employees, it is recommended that companies should:

- Introduce multi-discipline empowerment where employees are allowed to learn another relevant skill. For example, a journalist might want to know more about video editing.

- Introduce mentoring and couching as a developmental tool for employees. This, as first phases of the process may mean identifying and training potential mentors; and secondly selecting and attaching protégés to mentors for a period of time.

- Set clear challenging goals for individuals or teams and when these are achieved acknowledge them in a team function or a social activity where other sections are invited to the occasion.

- Introduce an end of the year function where the most senior manager renders a speech, highlighting the achievements of individuals and teams.

- Create space and time for individuals and teams to be innovative and allow them to pursue goals that they believe will benefit them and ultimately the organization. For example, give them an all expenses paid training and development opportunity such as attaching them to international broadcasting organizations to further their career choice.

- Create exposure opportunities for individuals and teams to do special projects outside own country so that they can gain useful experiences to be shared in own country.

- Introduce study assistance programs for employees and on completion assist in placing them in matching job opportunities in line with new skills gained.

- Introduce bursaries for achieving staff children to be trained and developed in line with organizational areas of competence. For example, bursaries for children to study journalism, finance, human resources etc.

- Create social milestones for unbroken service for staffers where their families are invited to take part. These can be at intervals of five, ten, fifteen, twenty, twenty five years of service.

- Create opportunities for 'firsts', employees have a sense of achievement when they do something for the first time.

- Create opportunities where employees participate in decision-making processes. For example involve employees in meetings, workshops, conferences wherever it is practically possible from conception to implementation of decisions.
- Also create space to talk to all staff on issues of concern to them and seek their input. Even if there are no immediate solutions to their concerns, the fact that you have created a platform for engagement goes a long way to creating a perception of achievement.

5.4.2 Recognition

Recognition of employees work should be a deliberate strategic exercise for management. Managers must as part of their Key Performance Areas (KPAs) continuously look for opportunities to notice or praise employees for good ideas and work well done. For example:

- Introduce company sponsored quarterly spouse visits for those employees not living with families in the same province.
- Cultivate a culture of caring by introducing birthday's gifts, cards, letters and small tokens for the individual employee and his or her family.
- Sending messages of support and condolences during hospitalization and bereavements and where practically possible visit or attend funeral.
- For work well done or great ideas ensure you give praise preferably in the presence of colleagues.
- Visible shake the hand of an employee who has done well, and again preferably in the presence of colleagues.
- Create an opportunity for one-on-one sessions with each employee to give feedback on performance and set new targets and timelines. This can be accompanied an appreciation letter for the period reviewed.
- Continuously share positive feedback from external clients with staff. This will motivate them to perform even better and smarter.

- Management should consistently give positive feedback and not dwell on the negatives, this motivates employees

- Encourage innovation and allow employees space and time to put their ideas to test. When they work praise them.

- Create forums where the benefits offered by the organization are debated, discussed, shared with all employees. Knowledge empowers and motivates.

- At the end of the mentorship programs give protégés some form of recognition. This can be a certificate or promotion to acknowledge the new skills, knowledge and experiences gained.

- Introduce achievement awards for individuals, teams or sections to encourage best practice;

- 'All expenses paid weekends' for selected team members after the team has successfully completed tasks. Select one employee for a weekend stay with his or her family in a local hotel or resort. Management must monitor this carefully as it can be abused. For example, the same member of the team gets all the weekends and others don't get. Also an easy way to create disgruntlement. Remember, the idea is to motivate the entire team to super perform!

- For unbroken years of service, the employee's family must invited by management to receive a milestone award. For example, after completing five years of service, it can be a Five Year Certificate of Service; at ten it can be a Radio worth R2000.00; at fifteen it can be a TV set worth R3000.00; etc.

- Company promotional material such as pens, T-shirts, caps, cups, diaries, Christmas cards should be given to staff once a year as standard. Management discretion should be applied as this is a cost item. But, giving these items recognizes employees as advocates of company identity, image and reputation. These items create belonging and pride.

5.4.3 Work itself

Employees should be strategically lured, enthused and kept focused on their job content so that they remain motivated by:

- Building relationship of trust and understanding with employees balanced with the application of fair authority.

- Creating an environment where the good work of others is observed and appreciated by others motivates employees.

- Allowing people space and time to be creative and follow through with their innovative ideas motivates them to perform even better. This of cause should be supported with the necessary resources.

- Creating teams that share knowledge, skills and competencies without fear of retribution or criticism, makes people go the extra mile in performing their duties.

- Designing interesting job content with the involvement and participation of employees is motivating because they own the job and the design process.

- Continuous monitoring and evaluation of employee attitudes towards the actual performance of their jobs should be an integral aspect of performance management.

Similarly, recommendations will be made to only the three major contributors to job dissatisfaction (supervision-technical, company policy and administration, and interpersonal relations with supervisors). The contribution of the other factors (work itself, salary, advancement, job security, interpersonal relations with fellow workers, responsibility, growth, and personal life) to job dissatisfaction is very little and insignificant.

5.4.4 Supervision-technical

Supervision-technical including accessibility of supervisors, competence and fairness of your superior is the major dissatisfier amongst the sampled employees at the time

of this study. The question is do can management improve this situation? It is recommended that management should:

- Make themselves visible to employees throughout the work cycle, input-production-output processes. For example, a manager must go and observe the story editing process fully to appreciate how pictures and sound are put together to form one flowing piece of information. Ask questions and listen attentively to answers including taking notes for future reference.

- Engage employees on process issues as well use the opportunity to solve process related issues. For example, asking questions around the type of facility used and how it can be improved to better the quality of the final product would go a long way towards saying management is keen to know and is interested in my work. Asking pointed questions aimed at finding problems and solving them to make life easy for employees can turn employee attitudes around.

- Supervisors should use the space and time to show that they know something about the core functions of the organizations albeit at a different level. For example strategic as opposed to operational. Share some visions and missions and ask for ideas from employees.

- Explore the attitudes of employees towards management and strategically attempt to dispel myths or the passage talk. Straighten rumours by facts through:
    - Notices in the notice board;
    - Call a staff briefing meeting;
    - One-on-ones;
    - Send e-mails;
    - Write article in the newsletter;
    - Use the website;
    - Make telephone calls to certain employee.

5.4.5 Company policy and administration

Company policy and administration including the availability of clearly defined policies, especially those relating to people, adequacy of the organization and management was the third strongest factor causing dissatisfaction amongst the sample. This can be improved by:

- Simplifying policies and ensuring that they are accessible at places and in formats that are user friendly to employees such as:
    - o On the intranet;
    - o In booklet form;
    - o Are regularly shared on the company newsletter;
    - o Workshops are held to explain the implications of policies;
    - o One-on-ones;
    - o Group meetings conducted by human resources section.
    - o Organizational meetings where top management explain issues of policy and strategy;
    - o Policies in audio visual format that employees can play in their cars to and from work.

5.4.6 Interpersonal relation

Interpersonal relation with supervisors was the fifth strongest factor causing dissatisfaction and this can be improved by management genuinely embracing their workforce through monitoring daily staff interactions such as:

- Greetings especially in the mornings is a sign of respect and recognition especially in racially diverse workforce;
- Performance appraisals should be used constructively and not in a punitive manner;
- Staff meetings offer opportunities for staff to share their frustrations and anger and management to offer solutions to some pressing needs or expectations;

- Break fast with teams and short talks during these occasions;

- Retreats or team building sessions where crucial strategic, tactical and operational issues are discussed and explained and outside facilitators are recommended for these sessions:

- Introducing an employee wellness program at work including
    - Sports facilities
    - HIV_AIDS support groups
    - Gender support groups;
    - Disability support groups;
    - Women forums;
    - Men forums;
    - Counseling and guiding services;
    - Youth forum;
    - Elderly forum;
    - Lift clubs etc
    - Child Care Centers
    - Helpdesk or Customer Care Center
    - Mentors and Protégé Groups

Finally, we have seen in this research that true motivators (achievement, recognition and work itself) contribute to job satisfaction and therefore higher levels of motivation amongst employees. Hygiene factors (supervision-technical, company policy and administration and interpersonal relations with supervisors) are major causes of job dissatisfaction and therefore lower levels of motivation amongst employees at work. It is important to note that these results are dynamic and depend on the organizational culture obtaining in an organization at a particular point in time.

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C. Research letter

Dear Sir/Madam,

This study is in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree MAGISTER COMMERCII in BUSINESS MANAGEMENT at the Rand Afrikaans University. This research is aimed at profiling the factors causing job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The study consists of a questionnaire that will be administered to participants and I know that many of you are under pressure of time, but I would appreciate it if you could take the time to complete the questionnaire for me. The questionnaire is completely anonymous and the information provided will be treated with high degree of confidentiality. As a result the information which is utilized in the dissertation cannot be used by your employer to your disadvantage or to prejudice you in anyway.

The questionnaire is voluntary and it is important that you answer all questions. In section B, it will be preferred if you use bullet form rather than the essay form. This is not a test. There are no wrong or right answers, so please feel free to express your true feelings in your answers, as honestly as you can.

The News Divisional management has seen the value of this study, as a result agreed to have the study conducted within the news division of the SABC.

This study is supervised by the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences at Rand Afrikaans University.

Therefore, your assistance and cooperation is greatly appreciated. If you would like any further information on the study or the results of the study please feel free to contact me on 083 940 6169.

Thank you for participating in the study.

Yours faithfully,

Xolani E. Tyilana
Master Student
Department of Economic and Management Sciences
Rand Afrikaans University.
Auckland Park
Johannesburg
2006

Study Leader: Professor W. Backer

D. Research approval letter

Dear colleagues,

One of our colleagues is completing his masters' degree with RAU. To that extent he needs to conduct a research project in partial fulfillment of the study requirements.

Please assist our colleague by completing a questionnaire yourselves and also distribute them amongst your rest of your teams. The study is only targeted at the news division.

As the study states, it is completely anonymous as no personal details are required. When you have completed the questionnaire, please return it to News Human Resources in Johannesburg. For those in the regions, please return to Regional Editors offices.

To complete the questionnaire it should take between ten to fifteen minutes. Regional Editors please return the completed questionnaires by overnight bag on or before the stipulated date. It is critical to maintain this said date.

Your assistance in this project is highly appreciated.

Thank you for supporting our colleague.

General Manager Human Resources

Rand Afrikaans University
(Research Questionnaire)

KINDLY COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONNAIRE BY CROSSING (X) IN THE RELEVANT BLOCK OR FILLING IN YOUR ANSWER WHERE REQUIRED.

The information provided in this questionnaire will be treated confidentially. Kindly do not write your name on the questionnaire. It remains anonymous.

SECTION A

<u>Demographic information</u>

1. Your Age (In years):

0 - $\leq$20	21 - $\leq$25	26 - $\leq$30	31 - $\leq$35	36 - $\leq$40	41 - $\leq$45	45$>$
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. Gender:

Male	Female
1	2

3. Race:

African	Coloured	Indian or Asian	White
1	2	3	4

4. Marital status:

Single	Married or living together	Divorced or separated	Widowed
1	2	3	4

5. Work experience in the SABC (in years):

5 years or less	More than five years but less than 10 years	At least 10 years but less than 15 years	At least 15 but less than 20	At least 20 but less than 25 years	25 years or more
1	2	`3	4	`5	6

6. Education:

Grade 11 or less	Grade 12	Post-school diploma or certificate	Degree	Post-graduate degree
1	2	3	4	5

7. Position:

Non-manager	Manager
1	2

8. Location:

Regional office	Head Quarters
1	2

SECTION B

9. Think of a time at work when you felt especially good about your job – an incident or incidents which had a long-lasting effect on you, and which led to good feelings. Describe the circumstances, and how your work was influenced by it or them.

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10. Think of a time at work when you felt especially bad about your job – an incident or incidents which had a long-lasting effect on you, and which led to bad feelings. Describe the circumstances, and how your work was influenced by it or them.

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