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**ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE AND WORK
MOTIVATION AMONGST EMPLOYEES OF
A SERVICE ORGANISATION IN THE FREE
STATE**

SUBMITTED BY

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the current research was to investigate organisational climate and work motivation among employees working in a service organisation in the Free State region. A biographical questionnaire, work motivation questionnaire and organisational climate questionnaire were administered to 152 respondents working in several departments in the service organisation involved in the research.

Pearson's product-moment correlation, multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) and Stepwise multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the relationship between the two constructs, the effects of biographical variables on organisational climate and work motivation, and the variance in organisational climate and work motivation based on biographical variables, respectively. Correlational analysis revealed there is a significant relationship between organisational climate and work motivation, including most of the dimensions of each of the variables under investigation.

Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) revealed several biographical factors (language, educational qualification, gender and tenure) had a significant effect on perceived organisational climate, whilst educational qualification and tenure had a significant effect on work motivation. More specifically, Scheffe's Multiple Comparison revealed Afrikaans speaking employees differed significantly in their perception of organisational climate from the other language groups represented in the research. In addition, individuals who had completed diplomas differed

significantly from those who had obtained other qualifications with respect to their perception of organisational climate.

Stepwise Multiple regression analysis revealed several biographical variables (home language, gender, job category, age and educational qualification) significantly explained the variance in organisational climate, whilst educational qualification was the only variable accounting for the variance in work motivation amongst employees in the service organisation investigated. However, caution needs to be exercised in the interpretation of the findings obtained, since a convenience sample, drawn exclusively from one service organisation, was utilised. Recommendations are provided for management to improve an organisation's climate and thereby motivation of employees. Finally, recommendations for future research are provided in the light of methodological shortcomings inherent in the research design.

OPSOMMING

'n Onderzoek is geloods na die organisatoriese klimaat en werksmotivering onder werknemers van 'n diensorganisasie in die Vrystaat Streek. 'n Biografiese vraelys, 'n werksmotivering vraelys sowel as 'n organisatoriese klimaat vraelys is voltooi deur 152 respondente van verskeie departemente van die diensorganisasie.

Pearson se produkmomentkorrelasie, 'n meervoudige analise van afwykings (MANOVA) en Stapsgewyse meervoudige regressie analise is gebruik om die verwantskap tussen die twee konsepte, die uitwerking van biografiese veranderlikes op die organisatoriese klimaat en werksmotivering, en die variasie in die organisatoriese klimaat en werksmotivering te bepaal. Korrelerende analise het bewys dat daar 'n beduidende verwantskap tussen organisatoriese klimaat en werksmotivering bestaan, met die meeste dimensies van die veranderlikes in hierdie ondersoek in ag geneem.

Meervoudige analise van variasie (MANOVA) het getoon dat verskeie biografiese faktore (taal, opvoedkundige kwalifikasies, geslag en dienstyd) 'n beduidende uitwerking het op die waarneembare organisatoriese klimaat, terwyl opvoedkundige kwalifikasies en dienstyd weer 'n beduidende uitwerking op werksmotivering getoon het. Scheffe se meervoudige vergelyking het meer spesifiek getoon dat Afrikaanssprekende werknemers beduidend verskil in hul persepsie van organisatoriese klimaat in vergelyking met die ander taalgroepe wat in die studie verteenwoordig word. So ook, het persone met diplomas beduidend verskil van dié met ander kwalifikasies ten opsigte van hul persepsie van organisatoriese klimaat.

Stapsgewyse meervoudige regressie analise het verskeie biografiese veranderlikes (moedertaal, geslag, werkskategorie, ouderdom en opvoedkundige kwalifikasie) aan die lig gebring wat die variasie in organisatoriese klimaat beduidend verklaar het, terwyl opvoedkundige kwalifikasie die enigste veranderlike was wat aan die variasie in werksmotivering toegeskryf kon word onder die werknemers van dié betrokke diensorganisasie. Versigtigheid moet egter aan die dag gelê word by die vertolking van die bevindinge hierin vervat, aangesien 'n geriefsmonster, verkry uit 'n enkele diensorganisasie, deurgaans gebruik is. Aanbevelings word aan bestuur gemaak oor hoe om die organisatoriese klimaat te verbeter wat op sy beurt sal lei tot gemotiveerde werknemers. Ten slotte, word aanbevelings ook gemaak vir toekomstige navorsing weens die inherente metodologiese tekortkominge van die navorsingsontwerp.

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I hereby declare that this dissertation
is my own work and that I have not submitted
it for a Master's degree to any other university



A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read "Michael", is written over a horizontal line.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

1.1. Introduction and Problem Formulation

The construct of organisational climate has evolved within a research tradition stemming from the Human Relations approach to organisational effectiveness. Research indicates several organisational, personal and environmental factors can influence motivation (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler & Weick, 1970; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Lawler, 1973). Among the antecedents of motivation, organisational climate has been regarded as one of the most significant contributors to an employees motivation (Campbell et al., 1970; Pritchard and Karasick, 1973; Steers & Porter, 1979). Since organisational climate consists of organisational and social variables in employees job environment, it has an immediate influence on beliefs about rewards and opportunities available within the organisation which contribute significantly to employee motivation and satisfaction (Churchill, Ford & Walker, 1976; Forehand & Gilmer, 1964; Lawler, 1973; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973; Vroom, 1964).

During the past several years profound changes have characterised the South African social, political and economic landscape which have no precedents in modern times.

Within the context of today's rapidly changing environment, numerous organisations and management are faced with inter alia, downsizing decisions, affirmative action policies to

be implemented and a plethora of other factors which could influence motivation and morale, attitudes and views of employees. The focus on costs that characterised organisations in the 1980's and early 1990's is being replaced by an interest in the concept of value. In assessing value, it is the intangible assets of an organisation that are likely to be worth considerably more than the measured tangible ones, and hence need to be identified and understood. Individuals form a critical part of the intangible assets and indeed the human capital can be logically argued to be the ultimate driver of all value growth. The key conditions for such growth are individual motivation, leadership, organisational climate and workgroup effectiveness (Mayo, 2000). The aim of this research is to reflect upon the motivation and organisational climate of employees in a work organisation in the Free State.

Reber (1995) states that motivation can be seen as an internal state of an organism that impels it into action; in this sense motivation can be viewed as an energiser of behaviour. However, it is important to realise that motivation is not a concept that can be used as a singular explanation of behaviour since there are a large number of other variables that influence the motivational state of an individual. According to Litwin and Stringer (1968, p.1) "organisational climate refers to a set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in this environment". Organisational climate, as defined here, refers to the perceived, subjective effects of the "informal" style of managers, subjective effects of the formal system and other environmental factors which all effect the attitudes, values, beliefs and the motivation of employees (Litwin & Stringer 1968). Schneider (1975) posits the view that

it is not relevant in which way organisations use climate, the emphasis should instead be on the practices and the procedures of an organisation. Organisational climate has evolved out of an attempt to apply a theory of motivation in behaviour, and provides a way of describing the effects of organisations and organisational life on the motivation of employees (Field & Abelson, 1982). Limited research has been conducted to determine whether organisational climate predicts organisational profitability and productivity. There is strong evidence to substantiate the claim that organisational climate which is perceived by employees to be beneficial to personal well-being is associated with higher levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Few studies have tested whether organisational climate influences individual motivation, individual performance or organisational productivity. However, the studies that have examined these linkages have reported positive results (Brown & Leigh, 1996).

1.2. Motivation for the Study

The basic premise of the current research pivots around the axial point that if elements of organisational climate and work motivation of employees can be understood, then the overall result will be improved performance and improved productivity within an organisation. Mullins (1989) is of the opinion that organisational climate will influence the level of morale and attitudes which employees bring to bear on work performance. When morale is low and feelings of frustration or alienation are found to exist, it is important that positive action is taken to remedy the causes. An organisation is unlikely to attain optimum operational performance unless the climate evokes a spirit of co-operation throughout the organisation and is conducive to motivating employees to work

willingly and effectively (Staw, 1995). The ultimate result will be satisfied employees who will contribute to a favourable organisational image.

An understanding of motivation can serve as a valuable tool for ascertaining the causes of behaviour in organisations, for predicting the effects of any managerial action and for directing behaviour so that organisational and individual goals can be achieved (Staw, 1995). Well-motivated individuals, who are competent, are the key to optimal performance in organisations and when individuals are motivated there is usually a complex set of factors which sustain motivation amongst these individuals (Holbeche, 1997).

However, cognisance needs to be taken of the fact that the various motivational theories cannot explain all or even part of the variation that can be observed in what is often referred to as organisational climate. Hence, a research-based theory of motivation can add significantly to the understanding of the development of an organisation's climate (Litwin & Stringer 1968).

Organisational climate provides managers with a link between their organisation's practices and procedures and the concerns and needs of employees. It is essential that managers know the different procedures and practices that will or will not stimulate their employee's needs and how to enhance an employee's motivation (Field & Abelson, 1982). To understand these concepts the dynamics of organisational climate need to be addressed, since organisational climate represents the direct determinants of

organisational motivation. A corollary of this is that by studying their own organisation's climates, managers will learn to appreciate the subtle causal relationships between their own managerial behaviours and the motivated behaviour of their employees (Litwin & Stringer, 1968).

The framework that will be developed between organisational climate and organisational motivation serves as a heuristic framework within which managers can understand the behaviour of their subordinates, in understanding the effects of their own actions and informal style upon employee motivation, and in developing more effective approaches to motivational problems (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). Effective management depends on an understanding of motivation that goes beyond the "common sense" conventional wisdom. Management practices should be based on a systematic knowledge about motivational processes. Studies of motivation demonstrate the importance of environmental and situational factors including organisational climate in determining motivation (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). In conjunction with this, the current research endeavours to elucidate the concepts of organisational climate and work motivation within a service organisation.

1.3. General Research Objective

The general research objective is:

- To measure organisational climate and work motivation amongst employees of a service organisation in the Free State region.

1.4. Specific Research Questions

Specific research questions are to:

- Determine if there is a statistically significant relationship between organisational climate and work motivation amongst employees of a service organisation in the Free State region?
- Determine if there is a statistically significant difference in organisational climate based on selected biographical variables in a service organisation in the Free State region?
- Determine if there is a statistically significant difference in work motivation based on selected biographical variables in a service organisation in the Free State region?

1.5. Specific Research Objectives

By means of a non-experimental research design the research aims to achieve the following objectives:

- To determine whether a statistically significant relationship exists between organisational climate and work motivation in a service organisation in the Free State region.

- To ascertain whether there is a statistically significant difference in organisational climate based on selected biographical variables in a service organisation in the Free State region.
- To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference in work motivation based on selected biographical variables in a service organisation in the Free State region.

1.6. Overview of the Study

Chapter 2 focuses on the most important aspects of motivation, various motivational theories and their implications for managers. A model of motivation is presented followed by a discussion of the major theories in terms of this model. Each motivational model concludes with possible steps that management may take to ensure an effective organisation according to a specific model or theory.

Chapter 3 provides an overview of organisational climate and proceeds by defining organisational climate according to various theorists. Moreover a model of organisational climate is presented, as well as the different types of climates found in organisations, while the dimensions, characteristics and the benefits of having a healthy organisational climate are highlighted. The chapter concludes by linking the constructs of motivation and organisational climate in terms of achieving organisational effectiveness as a result of a motivated workforce.

Chapter 4 focuses on how the research problem was investigated by referring to the selection of respondents, data gathering instruments (questionnaires) employed and the statistical techniques including the hypotheses generated for the research.

Chapter 5 provides an overview of the most salient results and discussion thereof.

It includes a description of the research results, followed by a conclusion with respect to the potential practical implications of the results and addresses conclusions arising from the research, as well as delimitations of the current research and suggestions or recommendations for future research.

1.7. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has presented a general overview of the study, focusing on the background, motivation and problem formulation for the study. The research objective and question, more specifically the general and specific research questions, were delineated. The chapter concludes with a logical explanation of the progression of the study, with a short description of each chapter.

CHAPTER 2

WORK MOTIVATION

2.1. Introduction

The prevailing views of motivation have changed radically over the course of organisational history (Ott, 1989). These theories have passed through many stages, influencing and being influenced by the prevailing management ideologies of each era (Cooper and Robertson, 1986). The focus of this chapter concerns the most important aspects of motivation, various motivational theories and their implications for managers.

2.2. Definition of Motivation

Some individuals work only because they have to do so, and some work because they enjoy working. However, both everyday experience and research evidence suggest both of these explanations are incomplete and in some sense inaccurate. Thus comprehensive theories of work motivation are needed to guide the understanding of the complexity of work motives. Useful theories of work motivation should explain those circumstances in which motivators are applied to employees, as well as those cases in which employees appear to be self-motivated. In addition, such a theory should attempt to specify the conditions under which either form of motivation might be more effective or more likely to occur (Johns, 1992).

Traditionally motivation has referred to the process by which individuals are moved to engage in particular behaviours. In the work setting, motivation is used as an explanation for the employee's effort, productivity and attendance (or the lack thereof) (Saal & Knight, 1988). There are several definitions for motivation which have emerged over the years, the majority of which share three major components which commonly epitomise the accepted aspects of motivation (McCormick & Ilgen, 1987). Motivation is that which energises, directs and sustains behaviour (Cascio, 1998). As such motivation can be seen as some outward behaviour, and individuals who are motivated exert a greater effort to perform some tasks than those individuals who are not motivated (De Cenzo & Robbins, 1996). Carrel, Elbert & Hatfield (2000) complement this definition by stating that motivators are to a large extent, specific to the individual.

To provide a clearer picture of the nature of motivation each aspect of the definition of motivation is analysed in detail.

2.2.1. Basic Characteristics of Motivation

2.2.1.1. Energising Function of Motivation

The first aspect and the most basic component of the definition of motivation is its energising function, this is the force or drive of an organism or individual that leads to some behaviour (McCormick & Ilgen, 1987). Motivation is a state that causes individuals to act, that drives individuals to engage in particular behaviours; motivated individuals are compelled to do something, while individuals who are less, or not at all motivated, will not have this compulsion. Few tasks will ever be completed or even initiated without this energisation (Saal & Knight, 1988). In this sense motivation can be seen as the mobiliser of the organism (Wofford, 1982). However, different needs compete for attention at the same time, with those having the greatest strength leading to activity. The need is a condition of tension that the individual will seek to reduce or eliminate. In accordance with this, certain behaviours will lead to the satisfaction or reduction of a need, or energising is not likely to take place (Milton, 1981).

2.2.1.2. Direction

Another component of motivation is the directing function, which implies that motivated behaviour has a purpose; it is directed toward achieving specific goals. Motivated individuals know what they want to accomplish and engage in behaviour that they believe will help them to achieve their goals (Saal & Knight, 1988). The directing function leads or guides an individual's behaviour in some particular direction and is accompanied by

cues from within the individual and/or the environment as to the appropriateness of the behaviour. Such feedback may lead to the modification of the behaviour or provide assurance that the behaviour is adequate for achieving the intended goal. In addition to the adjustment or learning that may occur, goal directed behaviour can be a channel for satisfying certain needs (McCormick & Ilgen, 1987; Milton, 1981). Individuals who are less motivated may be unsure of exactly what they want to achieve, which decreases their chances of getting anything done (Saal & Knight, 1988).

2.2.1.3. Persistence

The final component is sustaining or maintaining behaviour once it has occurred (McCormick & Ilgen, 1987). This component explains why individuals persist in their efforts to achieve their goals. Motivational theories suggest that highly motivated individuals will sustain their goal directed behaviour longer than those who are less motivated. In addition it explains why individuals sometimes appear to abandon a particular approach to a problem, or abandon the problem altogether if they do not succeed immediately. However, this does not mean that highly motivated individuals will not hesitate to drop a course of action that is not working or appropriate. Rather, under conditions of high motivation, an individual is likely to try a new, potentially more successful approach to the problem, while under lower motivational levels the goal may be abandoned after initial failure (Saal & Knight, 1988).

2.2.1.4. Definition of Work Motivation

Emphasising these three components, *work motivation* is defined as conditions that influence the direction, arousal and maintenance of behaviours relevant in work settings. The inclusion of behaviours relevant to work settings emphasise that not all behaviours at work are of interest. In the past, relevant behaviours were defined as productivity-orientated activities, namely turnover, absenteeism and performance. However, it must be noted that other behaviours are important such as political manoeuvring of executives for attractive positions within the organisation (McCormick & Ilgen, 1987).

2.3. Sources of Motivation ✓

According to Gellerman (1994), any individual has two sources of motivation, the first source of motivation comes from within and the second source is outside the individual. The level of an individual's motivation depends on whether and how much the external motivators will arouse or subdue the internal needs of the individual. There is only a weak consensus among organisational experts concerning the exact definitions of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and whether these specific motivators should be labelled intrinsic or extrinsic (Johns, 1992).

2.3.1. Intrinsic Motivation ✓

The individual has more or less permanent needs that are built into personality. These needs include various combinations of the following:

- Survival needs, such as the need for a secure income.
- Comfort needs, being treated with respect and being liked.
- Achieving goals and being a good leader (Gellerman, 1994).

Intrinsic motivation is usually self-applied and originates from the direct relationship between an employee and a task. Feelings of achievement, challenge, accomplishment and competence from performing tasks are examples of intrinsic motivation (Johns, 1992). The task itself may be a reason why employees fail to thrive within a company, as they may consider their work unexciting and unvaried. Career plateauing may emerge when employees feel that their jobs are meaningless or unchallenging, and when task identity, skill variety and task significance are low (Schreuder & Theron, 1997).

2.3.2. External Motivation ✓

External motivation stems from the work environment external to the task and is usually applied by someone other than the individual being motivated (Johns, 1992). External motivation includes both opportunities and threats, anything that can effect the individual's chances of reaching their goals. These could include:

- Opportunities: increased pay, advancement, and more interesting work and travel opportunities.
- Threats: loss of job, unfair supervision, incompatible colleagues (Saal & Knight, 1988).

Despite the fact that the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is unclear, Johns (1992) believes that many motivational theories seem to make this distinction.

2.4. Approaches to Motivation

Although there has been consensus about the need for motivated employees, controversy exists as to how to induce higher levels of motivation amongst employees (Ott, 1989). In accordance with this, the development of different approaches to organisation and management has highlighted the changing concepts of work motivation (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995).

2.4.1. Economic Needs Motivation

In terms of the rational economic concept of work motivation espoused by earlier writers, such as Taylor, employees could be motivated to work in the most productive and efficient way by the possibility of obtaining the highest possible wages, however, performance is limited by physiological fatigue. The concept of motivation was simple for Taylor; what employees wanted from their employer's more than anything else was high wages (Mullins, 1989).

2.4.2. Social Concept of Motivation

Proponents of the Human Relations movement including inter alia, Abraham Maslow and Douglas McGregor, indicate that individuals engage in work to satisfy a range of different needs, and not simply for financial rewards. These theorists emphasise the importance of the social needs of individuals, and give recognition to the organisation as a social organisation. The Human Relations approach to organisation and management led to the social concept of motivation, which is supported by the systems approach. The social-technical system is concerned with the interactions between social and psychological factors, the needs and demands of individuals, and the technical and structural requirements of the organisation (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995).

2.4.3. Self-Actualisation

Attention to the social organisation and theories of individual motivation, together with the findings of the Hawthorne experiments, gave rise to the work of the neo-human relations movement. The personal adjustment of the individual within the work situation is the major focus of concern. This approach is the self-actualisation concept of motivation (Robbins, 2001). These theorists postulate a more psychological orientation to motivation focusing greater attention on the meaning and content of the task, and attempts to make work more intrinsically satisfying.

2.4.4. Complex–Person Concept of Motivation

The complicated behaviour of human nature together with the varying situational factors led to the complex–person concept of motivation. This contingency approach to organisation and management takes the view that there are a large number of variables, or situational factors, which influence organisational performance. Contingency theory is concerned more with differences between organisations than with similarities and maintains managers must vary their behaviour and be adaptable according to the particular situation and the different needs and motivations of employees (Mullins, 1989).

2.5. Nuisance Motivational Behavioural Variables

While motivation is intended to be a general explanation for behaviour, it is not sufficient to explain all behaviour; there are a number of variables, each of which is addressed, that do not fit into the motivational framework (Robbins, 2001).

2.5.1. Motivation and Ability

To perform a task successfully an employee must be motivated to perform the task and must have the necessary skills, knowledge, experience and opportunities (McShane & Von Glinow, 2000; Robbins, 2001). Successful completion of the task at hand is unlikely if any of the elements are omitted. A common assumption of the majority of theorists is that performance is a function of both motivation and ability (Saal & Knight, 1988). If either motivation or ability is inadequate performance will be negatively affected (Robbins, 2001).

2.5.2. Individual Differences in Motives

Individuals differ from each other in the type of goals they pursue, and there are a number of different reasons for the behaviour exhibited at different times (Robbins, 2001). The fact that employees have different goals means that attempts to increase the motivation of one employee may have no effect on another employee's motivational level, it may even affect the employees motivational level negatively (Saal & Knight, 1988).

2.5.3. Motivation as an Inferred State

Motivation is a psychological state of the individual, and while motivation may have an effect on an employee's observable behaviour; it is not the same as that behaviour (McShane & Von Glinow, 2000). Motivation cannot be observed directly, thus it must be inferred from the observation of the behaviour (Saal & Knight, 1988).

2.5.4. The Dynamic Nature of Motives

Motives change over time. Factors that motivate today do not motivate tomorrow (Robbins, 2001). Managers need to take cognisance of this fact or else they may find they are out of touch with their employees needs, and unable to motivate with the techniques that motivated in the past (Saal & Knight, 1988).

2.5.5. Stereotypes

There are generally two types of views on the stereotypes that govern motivation; the first of these is called the “trait” stereotype, while the second view is called the “external state” (Robbins, 2001). The “trait” stereotype view is characterised by the belief that motivation is a characteristic of the individual, and that various individuals have more motivation than other individuals, and hence the only way to improve work motivation is to replace employees with a more highly motivated work force. The latter view namely the “external state” view stresses the working conditions and the nature of supervision and other aspects of the job that are assumed to affect an employee’s motivation as portrayed in Figure 2.1. (Saal & Knight, 1988).

2.6. Major Concepts in the Model of Motivation

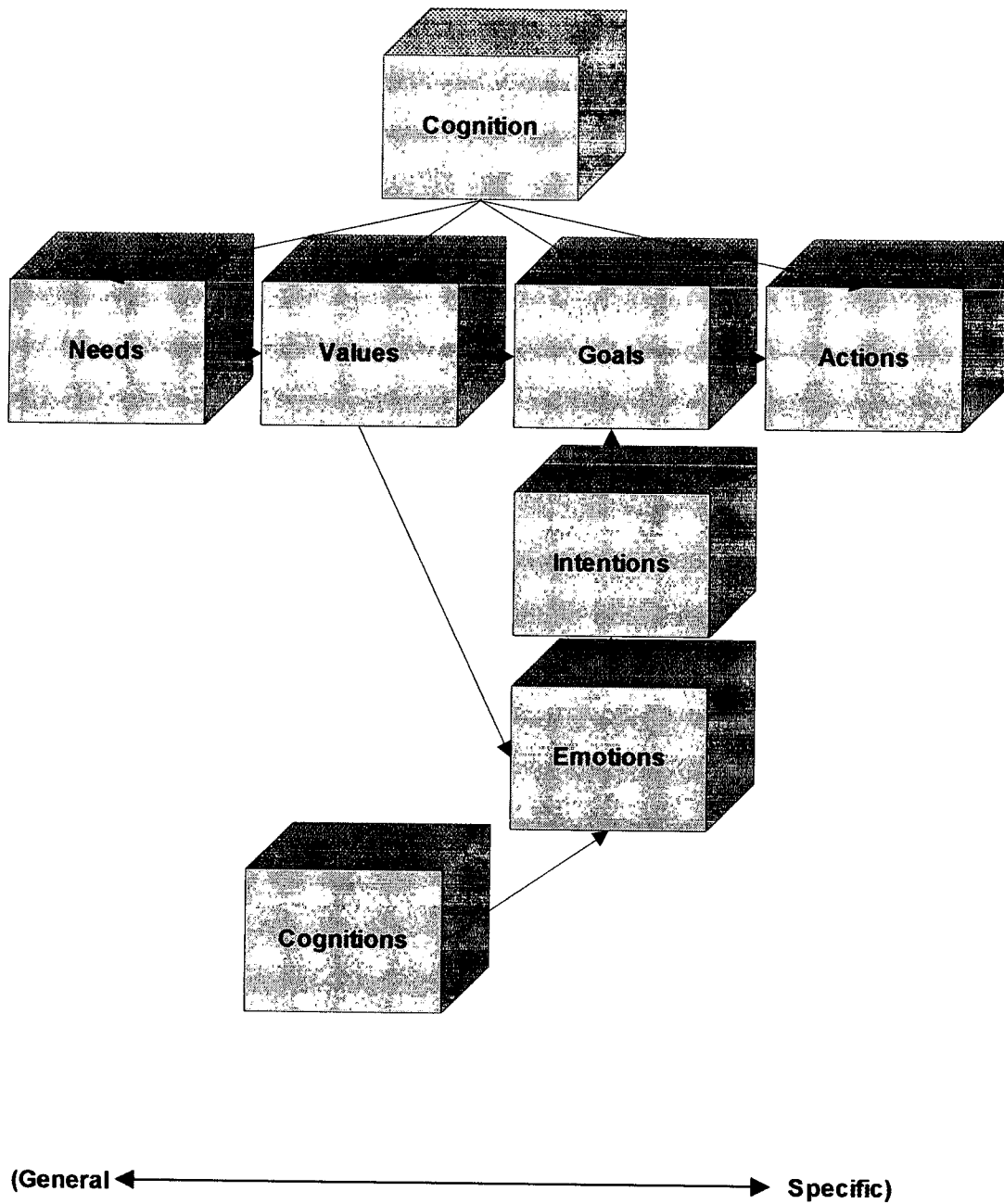


Fig. 2.1. Cooper & Robertson. (1986). A Motivation Model. International review of Industrial and Organisational Psychology. p. 2.

As seen in Figure 2.1. there are four major concepts in the motivational model as developed by Cooper and Robertson (1986): needs, values, goals, and emotions, of which cognition underpins to all of these concepts.

2.6.1. Needs

The fundamental motivational concept is that of need or want and some of the earliest theories of motivation were based on the concept of needs (Saal & Knight, 1988). A need is a requirement of the organism's survival and well-being. Thus, individuals have needs that cause them to behave in a particular way in order to reach a certain goal or to fulfill some need (Cooper & Robertson 1986; Schaefer, 1977). When these needs are not satisfied, individuals experience a drive to engage in behaviour that will lead to the satisfaction of the need. The goal of all motivated behaviour according to the needs theorists is to satisfy or eliminate the need, which serves to restore a balance in the equilibrium of the organism (Saal & Knight, 1988).

The majority of theorists divide needs into two broad categories: physical needs and acquired needs, some of which are innate, while others are acquired. Physical needs are the requirements of a healthy, properly functioning body, and psychological needs are the requirements of a healthy, properly functioning consciousness (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997). The need theorists rely mostly on secondary needs, needs that are learned such as needs for pleasure, self-esteem, status and growth (Schaefer, 1977). Need satisfaction is experienced as happiness and contentment, need frustration is characterised by unhappiness, depression, guilt, anxiety or self-doubt. The two categories of needs are

interdependent, physical health facilitates the fulfilment of psychological needs and healthy psychological needs facilitate the achievement of physical well-being.

However need theories in isolation, are inadequate to explain human action, since they do not account for individual differences. While people do differ in their degree and type of deprivation, they do not act in the same way (Cooper & Robertson, 1986). Additional explanatory concepts are needed to adequately explain human actions and one such variable is cognition. Individuals have different beliefs about what will satisfy their needs and also differ in their values.

2.6.2. Values

A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995). Values are what the individual considers good or beneficial and, unlike needs which are inborn, values are acquired through experience and thought, and they guide action towards need fulfillment (Cooper & Robertson, 1986).

Cooper and Robertson (1986) are of the opinion that most work motivation theories are in essence value theories. These researchers focus on the influence of one or several values, such as achievement or equity, or the effects of values in general. While these theories are a step closer to action than need theories, they are still inadequate in explaining motivation.

2.6.3. Goals

According to Greenberg and Baron (1995) just as individuals are motivated to satisfy their needs on the job, they are also motivated to strive for and attain goals. The process of setting goals is one of the most important motivational forces operating on individuals in organisations. Goals are the sought-after results of motivated behaviour (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997). Goals should predict and explain behaviour better than needs or values since they are closer to action than either needs or values and are more specific than values. As viewed in Figure 2.2. goals are a means of actualising values; they are the mechanism by which values are translated into action (Catt & Miller, 1991). Consider an individual who values achievement. Attaining this value in action involves deciding what task will be worked on and what standard of performance will be aimed for on the task. The term "intention" is similar in meaning to that of goal; the main difference being that goals imply a particular end state to which action is aimed, while intentions describe a determination to act in a certain way (Cooper & Robertson, 1986).

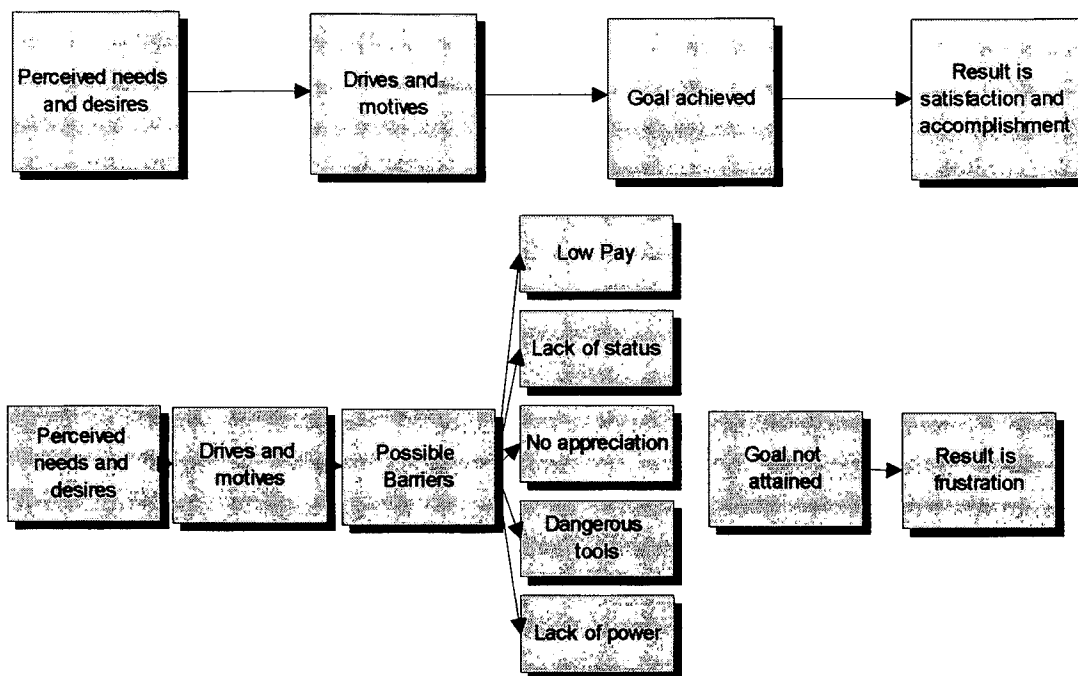


Fig 2.2. Catt & Miller (1991). Relationship among Needs, Drives, and Goals.

Supervision: Working with people. (2nd edition). p. 307.

2.6.4. Emotions

Emotions are both a result of action and an inducement to further action brought on by value and goal appraisals (Cooper & Robertson, 1986). Mathis and Jackson (1997) believe that a positive emotional state results from evaluating job experiences and job dissatisfaction and work demotivation are present when job expectations are not present. In terms of this, a belief that a value has not been attained will result in dissatisfaction. Anxiety results from appraising a situation as threatening, and depression results when an individual perceives important values as lost and believes they cannot be regained (Cooper & Robertson, 1986).

Emotions may or may not lead to action. There is no fixed relationship between one emotion (such as job satisfaction) and any one action (such as productivity). Nevertheless emotions are an essential part of any complete theory of motivation, since without emotions a individual will not be motivated to act at all (Cooper & Robertson, 1986).

2.6.5. Cognition

According to Louw and Edwards (1995) cognitive theories of motivation emphasise the role of thoughts, expectations, aims and purposive behaviour. Cooper and Robertson (1986) point out that cognition is related to every concept in the model. Through the senses and thoughts, an individual learns to identify needs and how to satisfy them, acquires values and learns how to achieve those values through action. Based on the individuals values and the situational context, goals are set and the means to achieve these goals are determined. Self conceptions are developed, including capabilities, abilities and competencies. These influence the goals and the means to attain these goals. Through introspection, an individual can identify the causes of emotions, determine the means to change them and discover what action should be taken in response to them, resulting in a continual interplay between cognition and motivation.

2.7. Theories of Motivation

2.7.1. Content Theories of Work Motivation

Content theories endeavour to explain those specific effects that actually motivate the individual at work. These theories are concerned with identifying the individual's needs and their relative strengths, and the aspirations pursued in order to satisfy these needs (Mullins, 1989). The emphasis of content theories is on what motivates individuals to perform and to identify the different rewards that individuals seek in their work (Vecchio, 1988). Content theories of motivation explain the dynamics of employees needs, such as why employees have different needs at various times and are based on the assumption that by understanding an employees needs, managers can assist in determining what motivates that employee (McShane & Von Glinow, 2000).

According to Mullins (1989), the major content theories are:

- Maslows hierarchy of needs model
- Alderfers modified need hierarchy
- Herzberg's two-factor theory and
- McClellands achievement motivation theory.

2.7.1.1. Need Theories of Work Motivation

The most popular theories about employee motivation focus on the drives within the individual. The notion that individuals are motivated or not motivated is usually explained in terms of some intrinsic needs that differ according to individual experiences. Need theorists maintain that motivation has a psychodynamic base; individual needs originate in childhood and are generally unconscious (Smither, 1988). According to the need theorists, motivation is simply a drive to reduce tension caused by an unsatisfied need (Klatt, Murdick & Schuster, 1985). The tension serves as the incentive for the conduct to fulfil the need, which is causing the tension in the individual (De Beer, Roussouw, Moolman, le Roux Labuschagne, 1998).

Need theories are the most content-orientated of the motivational theories, they hold that needs are essential for survival as well as maintenance of happiness and health and they attempt to establish and pinpoint internal factors that energise behaviour. Needs are influenced by environmental factors and can be strong or weak (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995; Howell & Dipboye, 1982). The aim of need theories is to aid managers in understanding these needs, so that they can design the reward system both to satisfy them and to meet the organisation's goals (Naylor, 1999).

- **Tension Reduction Model**

This model attempts to answer the question “What is it that makes us want to act, behave or move, in other words what motivates us?” According to this model, there are forces within us that energise us. These forces include physiological needs that are experienced as psychological needs through different biochemical mechanisms. As viewed in Figure 2.3. needs create tension that drives or motivates an individual to act in a way that will reduce the tension (Jenks, 1990).

The tension reduction model is useful in explaining behaviour that is motivated by physiological needs. However a large percentage of behaviour does not appear to be motivated by a desire for a state of equilibrium (Jenks, 1990).

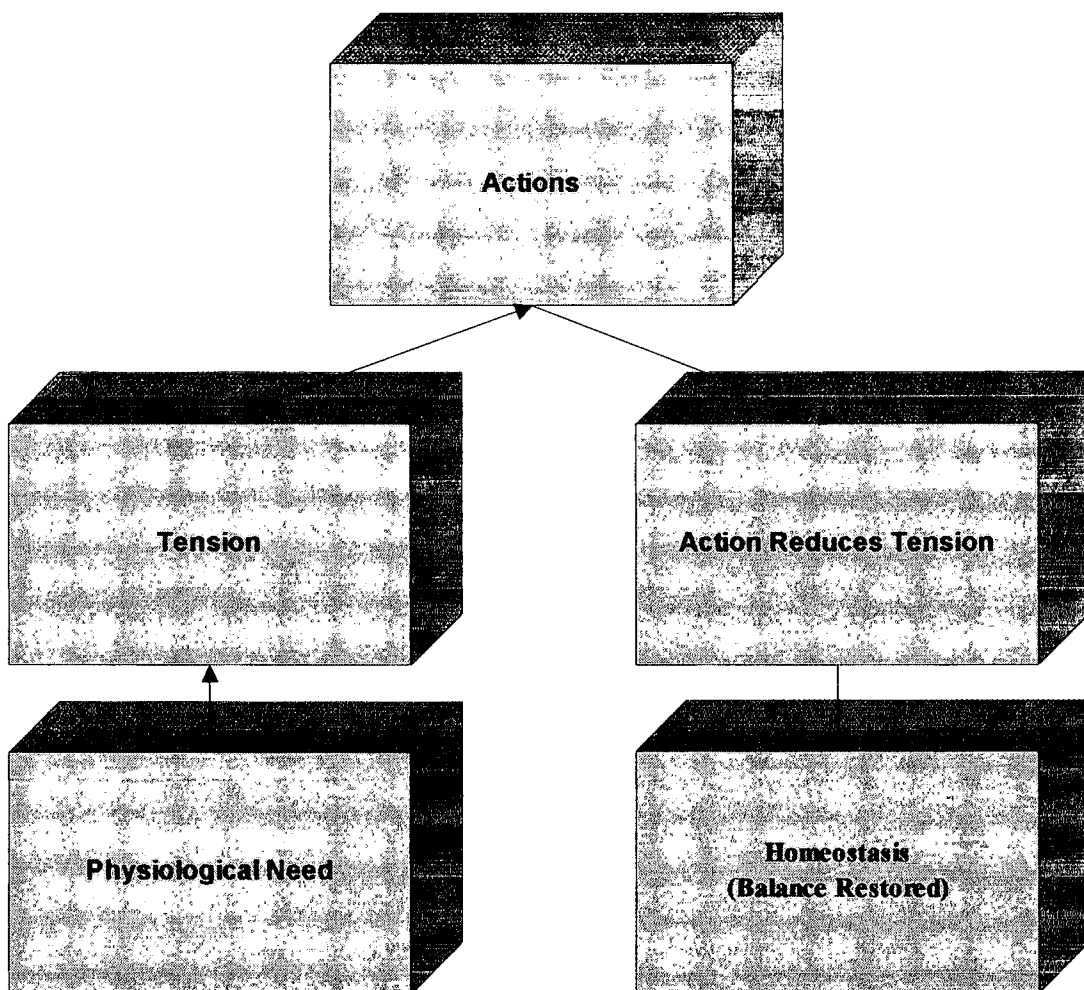


Fig 2.3. Jenks. (1990). The Five Steps in the Tension Reduction Model. Human relations in organisations. p. 36.

- **Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory**

Maslow proposed that individuals are continuously in a motivational state, but that the nature of motivation is fluctuating and complex. Maslow expressed the view that individuals seldom reach a state of complete satisfaction except for a short time, as one need is satisfied another need takes its place or rises. This is an ever-continuous process

resulting in a hierarchy of needs (McCormick & Ilgen, 1987, Nelson & Quick, 2000). Maslow focused his attention on the inner needs of the individual and not on the situation and based his conclusions on the following facts:

- Man is a need-satisfying being: At any given point in time, an individual's needs are largely dependent on what has been already obtained or what is expected to be obtained.
- Satisfied needs do not motivate: Any need that has been satisfied does not serve as a motivator any more.
- Needs organise themselves according to priority in related groups in a hierarchical structure: The occurrence of a need is due to the fact that a previous need has been satisfied, which has a higher priority (Kroon, 1995).

According to Robbins (1996) within every individual there exists a hierarchy of the following five needs:

- Physiological Needs: Needs of hunger, thirst and shelter.
- Safety Needs: Security and protection from physical and emotional harm (Smith & Venter, 1982).
- Social Needs: Includes affection, belongingness, acceptance and friendship.
- Esteem: Includes internal esteem factors such as self-respect, autonomy and achievement, as well as external esteem factors such as status, recognition and attention.

- Self-actualisation: This is the motivation or drive to become what one is capable of becoming and includes growth, achieving one's potential and self-fulfillment (Weiten & Lloyd, 1997). Self-actualisation according to Reber (1995) is the final level of psychological development that can be achieved when all basic and Meta needs are fulfilled.

Maslow proposed that human needs generally emerge in predictable stair-step fashion, with lower order needs taking prepotence over those higher up in the hierarchy. The first four levels of the hierarchy are concerned with deficiency motivation, or striving for stability and self-maintenance (Coleman, Morris & Glaros, 1997). As observed in Figure 2.4. basic needs such as food and shelter are at the bottom of the hierarchy, which then progress through physical well-being, social acceptance, self-esteem and finally self-actualisation. The various need levels are interdependent and overlapping and once a need is satisfied it activates the next higher need on the hierarchy. This process continues until the need for self-actualisation is activated (Dixon, 1994). Maslow stated that an individual might reorder the lower order needs; this fact obviously violates a strict adherence to the hierarchy (McCormick & Ilgen, 1987). Individual's are motivated to fulfill whichever need is most strongly felt at any given moment (Van der Walt, Strydom, Marx & Jooste, 1996).

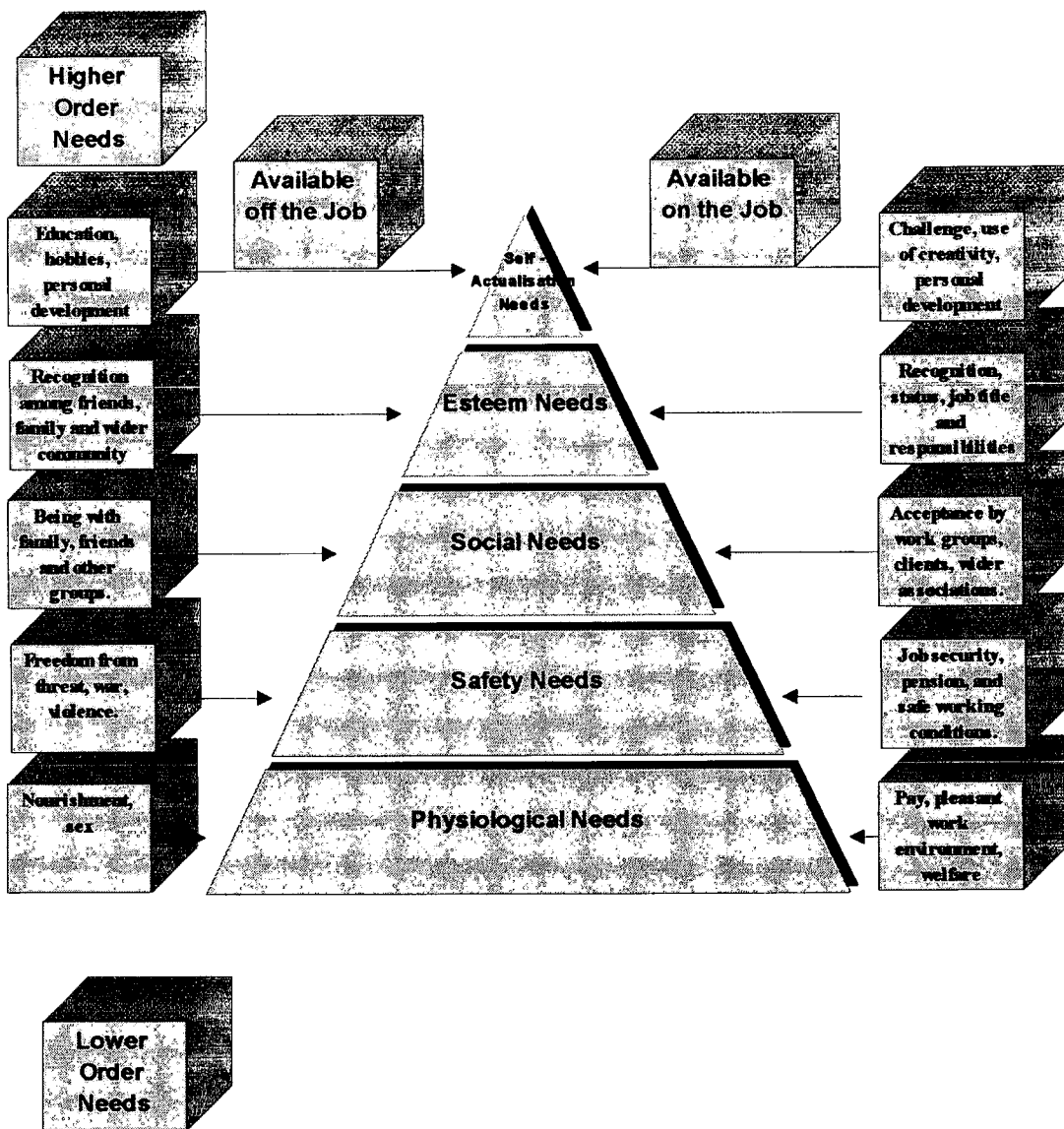


Fig 2.4. Adapted from: Kreitner & Kinicki. (1995). Practices or Programmes Aimed at Satisfying Emerging or Unmet Needs. *Organisational behaviour*. (3rd edition). p. 147.

For Maslow, the following qualities are indicative of a self-actualised person: independence, autonomy, a tendency to form deep friendships, a “philosophical” sense of humour and general transcendence with the environment. Maslow stated that the need for

self-actualisation will hardly ever reach a final stage of satisfaction, the more this need is satisfied, the stronger it becomes (Drenth, Thierry, Willems & de Wolff, 1984).

An individual will go through all categories of needs, to finally get down to realising the need for personal growth and development. In Maslow's view the development of any individual can be defined according to the level of need trying to be satisfied (Drenth, et al., 1984).

Maslow's theory provides managers, with the following important principles:

- Different individuals have different needs; therefore motivational schemes must be individually tailored.
- Satisfied needs do not serve as motivators.
- Punishment may appear immediately effective; therefore threatening an individual's job may reopen needs at any level.
- Human resource development requires for the provision of, rather than the threatening of an individuals needs. By fulfilling earlier needs, employees can expand themselves to reach their full capabilities.
- Older, more successful employees are likely to have higher level needs (Larwood, 1984).

The managerial implications of Maslow's theory is that satisfied needs may lose their motivational potential, therefore managers are advised to motivate employees by devising

practices or programmes aimed at satisfying emerging or unmet needs (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995).

It must be noted that although Maslow's theory is very popular with practitioners and managers there is very little evidence to support the components of the theory. One limitation of Maslow's theory is the difficulty psychologists have in defining constructs such as needs and self-actualisation. While these constructs form the cornerstone of Maslow's theory, Maslow did not describe how they should be operationally defined for research purposes (Saal & Knight, 1988). The limited research on need hierarchy theory offers little support for Maslow's ideas. One reason for this lack of support may be that most of the research has been cross-sectional in design, that is comparing the needs of different individuals at one point in time, whereas the theory was intended to predict changes in individual's needs over a certain time. Thus research designs that measure the needs of individual's over time would yield greater support for the need hierarchy.

- **Existence Relatedness Growth Theory (ERG)**

The ERG theory was proposed to deal with some of the criticism of Maslow's theory. The theory is based on the hierarchy of needs concept, but with substantial modifications in terms of the number of needs and how the needs operate to motivate individuals (Robertson & Cooper, 1983). The theory suggests that there are three needs instead of the five needs as postulated by Maslow's theory as viewed in Figure 2.5. These three needs are existence, relatedness and growth (McCormick & Ilgen, 1987).

- Existence needs include both the physiological and safety needs from Maslow's theory.
- Relatedness needs are Maslow's social needs
- Growth needs include Maslow's self-esteem and self-actualisation needs.

**Need Hierarchy Theory
Maslow**

**ERG Theory
Alderfer**

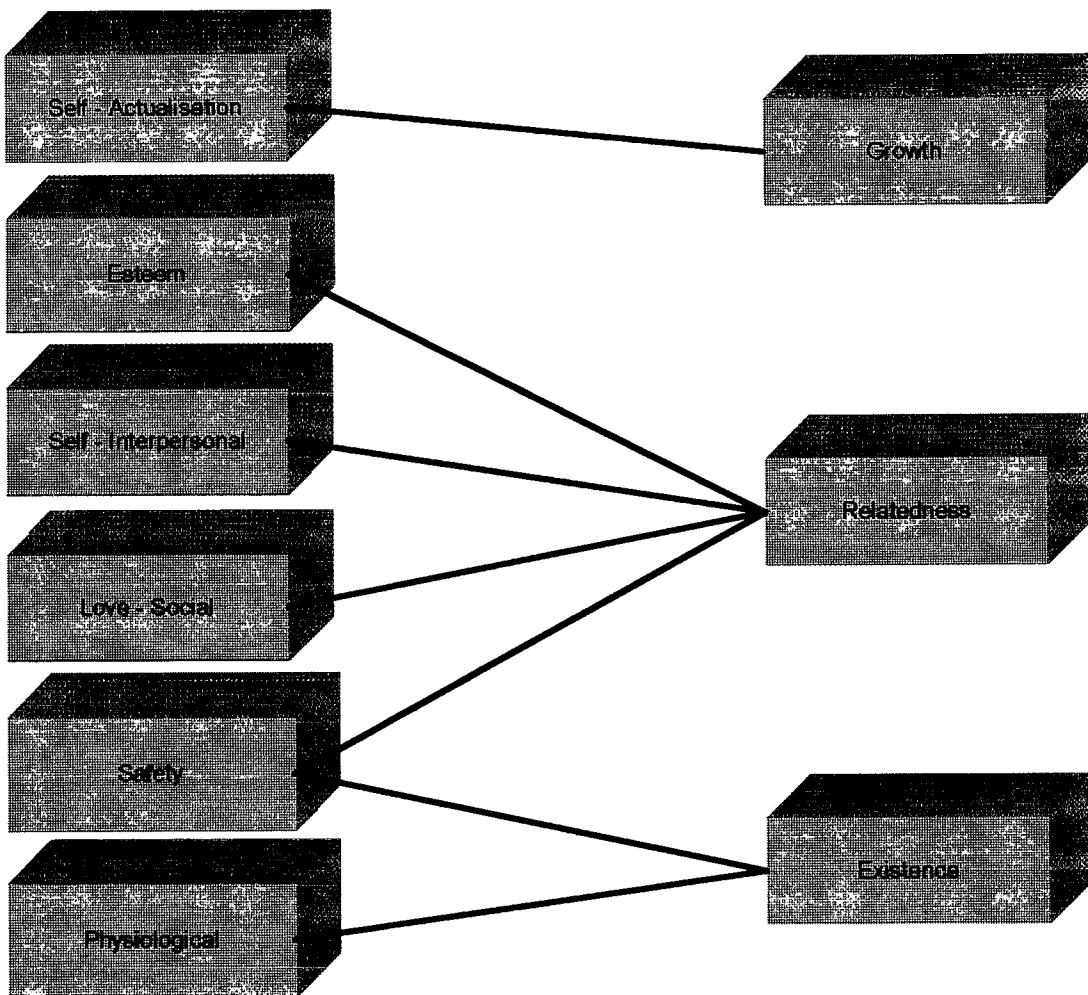


Fig. 2.5. McCormick & Ilgen. (1987). A Comparison of Maslow's Needs to those of Alderfer's. Industrial and Organisational Psychology. p. 272.

As observed in Figure 2.5, the theory predicts similarly to Maslow's theory that as the existence needs of people are satisfied, their relatedness needs become more important and likewise as the relatedness needs are gratified the growth needs become more important. However, the ERG theory places less emphasis on the hierarchical ordering of needs and postulates that individuals are likely to be motivated by more than one level at any one time (Robbins, 2001). Alderfer believes that an individual can move down the hierarchy as a result of frustration or up the hierarchy as a result of fulfillment, which makes the theory more dynamic than Maslow's theory (Howell & Dipboye, 1982; Smither, 1988). The first form of movement is satisfaction–progression which is movement upward in the hierarchy. Frustration of a need that a person wants to satisfy leads to movement down the hierarchy and is known as frustration–regression (Champoux, 2000).

The ERG theory is based on the following three principles:

- The less a need is satisfied, the stronger the desire will be to satisfy the need.
- As lower order needs are satisfied, the desire to satisfy higher order needs increases.
- The more one becomes frustrated in the effort to satisfy higher order needs, the greater the lower order needs will be pursued (Marx, Reynders & van Rooyen, 1993).

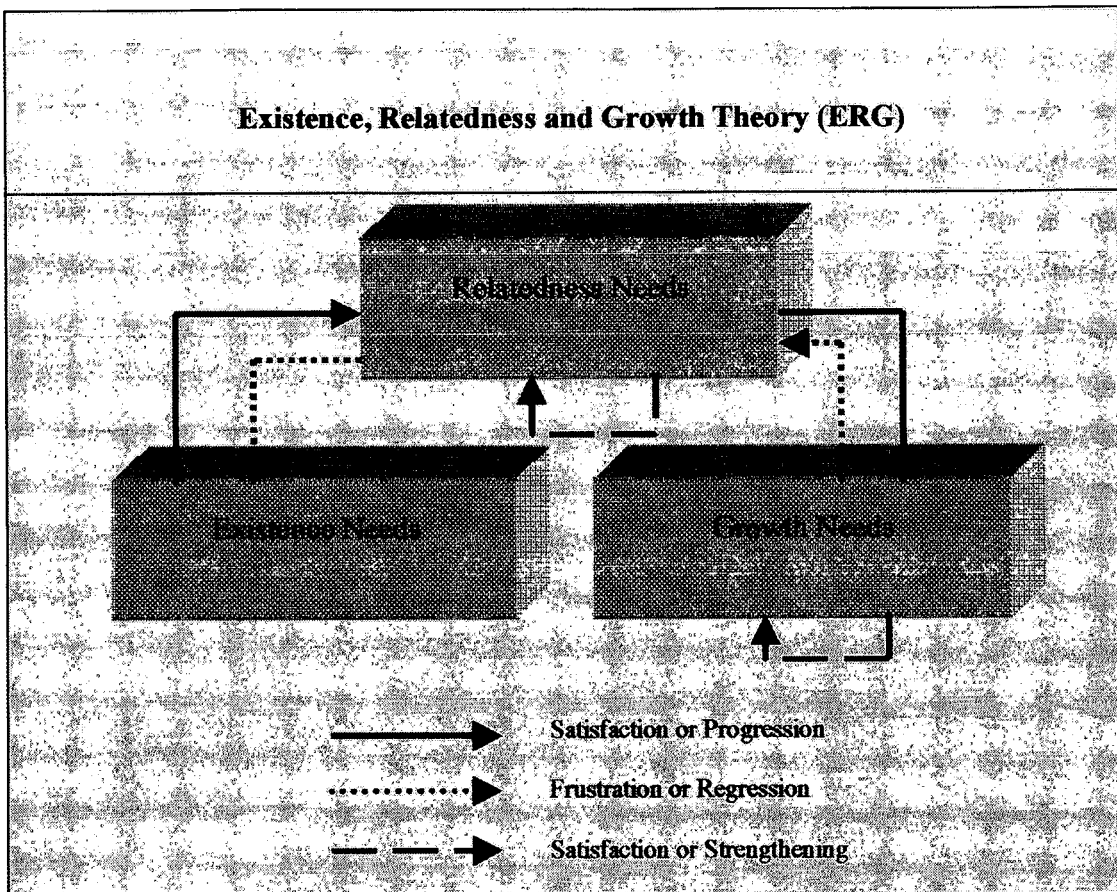


Fig. 2.6. Saal & Knight. (1988). The Frustration/Regression process.

Industrial/Organisational psychology, science and practice. p. 264.

This regression effect has some particular interesting consequences for work behaviour. Alderfer suggested that if relatedness needs are frustrated and if individuals do not feel that they are able to make the close interpersonal associations they need from their jobs, rather than trying to obtain these factors, they may become more concerned with meeting their existence needs. This implies that the individual may show more concern for salary, working conditions, vacations and other fringe benefits as a result of frustrated social needs (McCormick & Ilgen, 1987).

Employees can become locked into a deficiency cycle at the bottom of the hierarchy. If the existence needs cannot be satisfied, the desire to satisfy those needs will become greater. Under certain conditions of scarcity, a person can become obsessed with satisfying existence needs (Champoux, 2000). A different cycle operates at the top of the hierarchy; an employee who successfully gratifies growth needs desires them even more. The enrichment cycle leads a person to want to grow and develop continually (Champoux, 2000).

The ERG theory seems to be more sophisticated than Maslow's need hierarchy theory, by allowing for motivation by multiple needs as well as regression toward more basic needs, and seems to be more compatible with the experiences that most individuals have while actually working in organisations (Champoux, 2000; Greenberg & Baron, 2000).

Research based on the ERG theory is sparse and the research that has been done has provided mixed support for the theory (Saal & Knight, 1988). Empirical research seems to support those aspects which have the greatest implications for management. Progression and regression are supported, but movement through the hierarchy is not as basic as originally thought (Champoux, 2000).

- **Manifest Needs Theory**

The manifest needs theory which was developed by Murray, states that human motivation is determined by a number of needs that provide for both the direction and activation of

behaviour. The theory differs from the need hierarchy theory of Maslow on a number of points. Murray identified as many as twelve needs (see Table 2.1.), which are not instinctive, but are rather learned by individuals. In terms of the theory, not all individuals experience the same needs since each individual's life and what is learned during each stage in life is different. Moreover, needs are activated by events or cues in the individual's environment and not through deprivation or satisfaction of lower order needs. When the appropriate cues for a given need are present, the need becomes manifest or active (Saal & Knight, 1988).

However, when the environmental cues are absent, the need is inactive or latent. Murray did not believe that needs are arranged in any type of hierarchy or concreteness, and that any need can be activated at any time, regardless of the state of satisfaction of other needs. Murray did not limit motivation to the activation of a single need at any one time (Saal & Knight, 1988).

Table 2.1. delineates some of the needs and their characteristics as hypothesised by Murray.

Need	Characteristic
Achievement	Aspires to accomplish difficult tasks, maintains high standards and is willing to work towards goals, responds positively towards competition and is willing to exert effort to achieve and attain excellence.
Affiliation	Accepts people readily and enjoys being with friends and people in general, maintains associations with people and makes effort to win friendships.
Aggression	Enjoys arguments and is easily annoyed, sometimes willing to hurt people to get his or her way. May seek to get even with individuals perceived as harming him or her.
Autonomy	Attempts to break away from restraints, confinement or restrictions of any kind, enjoys being not tied to people, unattached, free of obligations, may be rebellious when faced with restraints.
Endurance	Does not give up easily, willing to work long hours even in the face of great difficulty, patient and enduring.
Exhibition	Enjoys having an audience and engages in behaviour which wins the notice of others, wants to be the centre of attention and may enjoy being witty or dramatic.
Harm Avoidance	Does not enjoy exciting activities, especially if danger is involved, seeks to maximise personal safety and avoids risk of personal bodily harm.
Impulsivity	Tends to act without deliberation and on the spur of the moment, speaks freely and may be volatile in emotional expression.
Nurturance	Gives comfort and sympathy, offers a helping hand to those in need and assists whenever possible, readily performs favours for others.
Order	Dislikes clutter, confusion, lack of organisation, interested in developing methods for keeping materials methodically organised.
Power	Attempts to control the environment and to influence or direct other people, enjoys the role of leader and accepts this role spontaneously.
Succorance	Frequently seeks protection, love, sympathy and advice of other people, may feel insecure or helpless without such support.
Understanding	Wants to understand many areas of knowledge, values synthesis of ideas, logical thought, particularly when directed at satisfying intellectual curiosity.

Table 2.1. Feldman & Arnold (1984). Some of the Needs Hypothesised by Murray.

Managing individual and group behaviour in organisations. p. 113.

The inherent complexity of a theory containing a larger number of needs such as that espoused by Murray has both positive and negative points. The primary advantage lies in the fact that a large set of needs provides flexibility and specificity in explaining precisely what factors may be causing an individual to engage in certain activities rather than others. The disadvantage of the complexity of the theory from a practical standpoint is that if the theory is used to explain and predict what an individual is motivated to do, it becomes cumbersome to simultaneously measure the strength of over twenty different needs (Feldman & Arnold, 1984).

- **McClelland's Need Theory**

McClelland's work-related motivation theory is particularly relevant to understanding the organisational careers of managers (Schein, 1988). McClelland studied the basic needs and concerns that individuals frequently express and divided them into three groups; need for achievement, need for power and need for affiliation (McClelland, 1967). McClelland formulated the concept of the need to achieve and postulated that this concept seemed to be a relatively stable personality trait rooted in experiences of middle childhood (McCormick & Ilgen, 1987). The theory is based on the premise that all needs are learned from experiences in which certain cues in the environment are paired with negative or positive consequences and that although individuals have many needs, the need for achievement is one of the critical factors in determining an individual's level of performance. (Organ, 1991; Smither, 1988). In conjunction with this, the need for achievement is learned when opportunities for competing with standards of excellence become associated with favourable outcomes. Adults can be trained to respond and create

opportunities to strive against challenges, and to behave in ways to manipulate, master or organise physical objects, human beings, or ideas, to attain a high standard and to overcome obstacles (McClelland, 1967; Organ, 1991).

In terms of McClelland's theory, individuals with a high achievement need will in their everyday activities and especially in their work, seek out activities that provide them with feedback on how well they are accomplishing the task at hand. Therefore, managers with the need for achievement must balance this need with a moderate need for affiliation and power, otherwise they will be more concerned with the task at hand and will not be concerned with creating a climate that encourages achievement by other employees (Jenks, 1990). Research conducted by Steenkamp (1988) to determine the filiation between the need for achievement and organisational climate, by determining whether there is a significant difference in scores on the organisational climate dimensions between individuals with a high and low need for achievement, concluded that organisational climate has a marginal influence on the achievement motive.

The need for achievement is generally not the sole motivation operating in the work environment according to McClelland, since many employees have a stronger need for affiliation than they have for achievement. For these individuals, the social relations of working are more important than work accomplishment (Smither, 1988). A strong affiliation need does not seem a critical factor for leadership and management performance.

However, some concern for the feelings of other employees is useful, especially if a manager wishes to create a climate in which sub-ordinates will be motivated. Managers who have a high affiliation need spend more time communicating with others than those with a high achievement or power need. Communicating with other co-workers in a friendly way can help to improve the organisational climate and achieve organisational goals (Jenks, 1990).

In terms of the need for power dimension McClelland believed that a high level of need for power is a critical factor for success. The need for power reflects the desire to influence other individuals, by exercising control over others (Smither, 1988).

According to Jenks (1990) many managers have a need for power. Research has shown that managers require a reasonably high need for power to be an effective leader. When power is used in an authoritarian way, it usually severs communication with other employees of the organisation and decreases the probability that the correct decisions will be made. In a highly authoritarian environment, motivation may also decrease, since the employees learn to obey orders rather than to act as self-motivated employees (Jenks, 1990).

Three major criticisms of McClelland's theory prevail:

- The research method used to develop the theory is criticised since most of the efforts both to develop and test the theory was conducted by the same researchers.

- Critics of the theory question whether motives can be taught to adults since considerable psychological literature suggests that the acquisition of motives normally occurs in childhood and is difficult to change once it has been established.
- Moreover the theory questions whether the needs are permanently acquired; McClelland is the only theorist who argues that needs can be socially changed through training and / or education (Gray & Smeltzer, 1989).

Despite the criticism or the inconclusive scientific research to support McClelland's theory, the theory still provides management with useful insights on the aspects that govern the motivational levels of employees (Gray & Smeltzer, 1989).

- **McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y**

McGregor proposes two distinct views of human beings, one positive labeled theory Y and the other negative view, namely theory X (Robbins, 1996). McGregor states that a manager's view of the nature of human beings is based on certain groupings of assumptions and the behaviour towards sub-ordinates is molded from these assumptions.

Theory X is the negative view held by managers and is based on four assumptions:

- Employees inherently dislike work and whenever possible will attempt to avoid it.
- Employees must be coerced, controlled or threatened with punishment to achieve goals.
- Employees avoid responsibility and seek formal direction whenever possible.

- Most employees show little ambition and place security above all other factors (Robbins, 1996).

Theory Y is the positive view about the nature of human beings and is based on four positive assumptions:

- Employees can view work as being as natural as play or rest.
- If individuals are committed to their objectives they will exercise self-control and self-direction.
- The average individual can be taught to seek and accept responsibility.
- Management is not solely responsible to make innovative decisions: this ability to make innovative decisions is widely dispersed throughout the population (Robbins, 1996).

Theory X assumes that lower order needs are dominant among individuals, while theory Y assumes that higher order needs are dominant among individuals. Theory Y's assumptions are more valid in terms of motivational implications for managers than theory X. Therefore, approaches such as participative decision making, responsible and challenging jobs, and good group relations would maximise an employee's job motivation. Theory X, implies that management being responsible for the economic objectives of an organisation must continually motivate, lead, control and adapt the behaviour of the individuals to the needs and goals of the organisation (Kroon, 1995).

Negative assumptions held by managers towards employees will be sensed by employees, resulting in poor perceptions of the organisation and a de-motivated workforce (Robbins, 1996).

Theory X is a less dynamic management strategy than theory Y, since theory Y indicates possibilities for human growth and development, emphasising the necessity for selective adaptation rather than a single absolute form of control, and is an aid that has considerable possibilities (Kroon, 1995). Managers are not likely to be exclusively orientated towards theory X or theory Y, the orientation towards a specific theory will depend on the situation involved and will most often be a combination of the two (Kroon, 1995). Theory Y is more likely to stimulate motivation, encourage teamwork and develop stronger interpersonal relationships, all of which are relevant to a positive organisational climate (Miller & Catt, 1989).

- **Herzberg's Two Factor Theory (Motivation-Hygiene Theory)**

This theory is based on the same assumption, as are all need theories: individuals are born with certain needs that must be satisfied (Landy, 1989). The notion of intrinsic reward captured an important practical distinction and led to the emphasis on motivation and needs as opposed to rewards. Herzberg bases the two factor theory on Maslow's need theory and asserts that two different needs of individuals are involved in understanding job behaviour (Hollway, 1991).

An individual has two basic needs, the hygiene need that stems from the individual's instinctive disposition. It is centred on the avoidance of loss of life, hunger, sexual deprivation and pain. The other segment of an individual's nature is motivation. This motivating need is the compelling urge to realise potential through constant psychological growth (Bass & Ryterband, 1979). Refer to Table 2.2. for a summary of hygiene and motivating factors.

Herzberg believes that an individual's relation to work is a basic one and that attitudes towards work can influence an individual's success or failure in work. Certain characteristics or motivators tend to be related to job satisfaction:

- **Achievement**

Achievement can be viewed as the ability to accomplish something demanding and to master, influence or organise physical objects, individuals, or ideals. Achievement is to overcome obstacles and attain a high standard and can be viewed as the successful completion of a task and problem solving and hence to increase self-regard by the successful exercise of talent (Robbins, 1991).

- **Recognition**

Recognition is the perception of rewards that is related to performance and what is required to earn this recognition (Sherman, Bohlander & Chruden, 1988).

Achievement can be acknowledged through promotion and salary increases (Robbins, 1991).

- **The work itself**

The disposal or the nature of this work is of importance. The nature of the task can be repetitive or variety- orientated, creative or simple, easy or difficult (Robbins, 1991).

- **Responsibility**

Responsibility in the organisation helps to identify individuals who are responsible for a specific task and the extent to which others are involved in this task (French & Bell, 1995).

- **Advancement**

Promotion or advancement involves a change of job and a shift to a higher organisation level with higher status (Robbins, 1991). This shift to a higher level implies a move to a different job title, with more authority, responsibility and a larger salary (Gerber, Nel & van Dyk, 1987).

- **Growth**

According to Lau and Shani (1988), personal growth refers to a movement that has been part of a change in social values and the deepening interest in new educational methods. Personal growth involves understanding personality and its

influence in the interpersonal communication process, establishing goals, and behaviour skills to achieve those goals. Growth can be seen in status, recognition, seniority and contribution to the organisation (Robbins, 1996).

These factors succeed in motivating individuals and thus achieving satisfaction on the job. These characteristics are intrinsically rewarding and should be emphasised by managers and organisations (Robbins, 1996). Employees who are dissatisfied tend to state extrinsic factors known as hygiene factors:

- **Company policy**

Company policies refer to the statements which intend to guide the actions of employees in order to achieve an organisation's objectives (Sherman & Bohlander, 1992).

- **Supervision**

These policies refer to the guidelines, philosophy or principles which management establishes in order to support an organisation's goals (Bittel & Newstrom, 1990).

The level of supervision depends on the talents and proficiencies of the supervisor (Robbins, 1996).

- **Working conditions**

Working conditions are created by employees who interact with their physical environment. This aspect refers to the amount of work and the availability of

facilities which include the production of machinery and protective clothing as well as aspects of the physical environment such as ventilation, lighting and space (Gerber et al., 1987).

When these factors are adequate, individuals will not be dissatisfied. However, they will neither be satisfied. If an organisation wants to have a prevailing organisational climate that motivates employees it must emphasise achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility and growth (Robbins, 1996). Table 2.2. provides a summary of hygiene and motivating factors.

Hygiene factors		Motivating factors	
-1		0	
		+1	
Policy and administration		Opportunity to achieve	
Supervision		Opportunity for recognition	
Working Conditions		The work as such	
Interpersonal relations		Responsibility	
Wage/salary and other service benefits		Progress	
Status		Opportunity for personal growth	
Security			

Table 2.2. Kroon. (1995). Herzberg's Two-Factor Approach. General management. p. 333.

The characteristics leading to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are separate and distinct as explicated in Table 2.3. Managers will be placating their employees rather than motivating them. An important way to motivate employees is by making the work itself more meaningful, through job enrichment (Landy, 1989). Herzberg stated that one of the

best ways to increase motivation is through designing tasks in ways that give greater control and responsibility to employees (Steinmetz & Todd, 1992). This means giving employees the opportunity to satisfy motivator needs by providing interesting and more stimulating work. By vertically expanding jobs to allow employees greater responsibility in planning and controlling their work, employees can be motivated substantially (Robbins, 1996). Herzberg states that it is important to provide individuals with a reasonable salary, a degree of job security, and safe working conditions. However, the added focus on these matters cannot contribute to motivation (Sashkin, 1996).

Change Specifically aimed at Enrichment	Change aimed at increasing Motivators
Remove some measures of control but maintain accountability.	Responsibility and personal achievement (success).
Increase the responsibility of the individual.	Responsibility and acknowledgement for the individuals work.
Give an individual a complete work unit.	Responsibility, achievement and recognition (section module).
Delegate additional authority to individuals work (freedom).	Recognition within the organisation.
Give important information to employee directly instead of via a supervisor.	Grow and learn.
Set new and more difficult tasks not done before.	Responsibility, growth and advancement.
Provide for the opportunity for expertise by setting specialised tasks.	

Table 2.3. Kroon. (1995). Herzberg's Guidelines for Successful Job Enrichment. General management. p. 333.

Intrinsic to Herzberg's theory is the fact that only motivators cause true motivation. Since the hygiene factors are of short duration, focusing on pain avoidance, they could never be

associated with true motivation (Barling, Fullager & Bluen, 1987). Hygiene factors can be satisfied by money, according to Herzberg's theory while motivators cannot be satisfied by money (Smit & De J Cronje, 1999). Herzberg admitted that in some individuals, hygiene factors might cause individuals to increase their qualitative and quantitative productivity. However, Herzberg did not see this as true work motivation since the appropriate behaviour was being performed for the wrong reasons (Barling, et al., 1987).

Herzberg's theory may be appealing on the intuitive level but despite this fact, it has been subjected to extensive testing with more studies producing negative results than positive results. Several criticisms have been launched against the theory (Smither, 1988), the most obvious of which is that the sample on which he based his findings was not representative of the general population since the research was conducted on engineers and accountants (Smit & De J Cronje, 1999). Another major criticism of the theory is that Herzberg's conclusions seem to be method bound; an interview method was used to gather the data (DuBrin, 1984). The theory does not give considerable attention to individual differences, not everyone has the same set of motivators and hygiene factors and not everyone is primarily concerned with satisfying higher-level needs on the job (Loscocco & Roschelle, 1991).

Despite the criticism of the theory, Herzberg's ideas have led to considerable research in the field of motivation and to a greater emphasis on job enrichment (Jenks, 1990). The theory provides an initial departure point for considering employee motivation, and helps

to identify specific extrinsic and intrinsic factors in the work environment and research carried out by Herzberg has shown that pay, fringe benefits and vacation time are not necessarily the individual's most important goals (Grasha, 1987).

- **The Application of Need Theories across Cultures**

Motivational theories that revolve around human needs are faced with cultural limitations to their generalisability. Both Alderfer and Maslow suggest that individuals pass through a social stage on their way to a higher-level personal growth or self-actualisation stage. However, it is well established that there are cross-national differences in the extent to which societies value a more individualistic or collective approach to life. This fact suggests that there may be no hierarchical superiority to self-actualisation as a motive in more collective cultures, where there are more closely knit social bonds and in which members of ones in-group is expected to take care of each other in exchange for strong loyalty to the in-group. In certain situations appealing to employee loyalty might prove more motivational than the opportunity for self-expression because it relates to strong belongingness needs that stem from cultural values. Cultures also differ in the extent to which they value the need for achievement, and conceptions of achievement might be more group-orientated in collective societies than in individualistic societies (Johns, 1992).

- **Evaluating Need Theories**

Like many theories in the field of psychology, need theories are intuitively appealing and offer some insight into the concept of motivation, but they do not hold up very well under empirical testing. This limits their applicability but does not make the theories useless, since need theories are particularly helpful in developing practical techniques for motivating employees (Smither, 1988).

A problem in utilising need theories to explain employee motivation is determining the levels of needs. Maslow's hierarchy suggests that an individual supervisor may be incapable of identifying the level of achievement of an employee or the motivators within the work environment. If an individual accepts the evidence for most of these approaches, assessment of need levels requires a sophisticated psychological approach that is generally beyond the scope of ordinary individuals or ordinary supervisors. Another problem with need approaches is their psychodynamic foundation. If individuals experience deficiencies in childhood that determine their levels of motivation as adults, it is unlikely that such levels are amenable to adjustment. Need theories suggest that patterns of behaviour and cognition that have developed over the individual's lifetime can be changed by the interventions of skilled supervisors, managers and consultants. Clinical psychologists who subscribe to the psychodynamic approach would suggest that changes in long-standing patterns of behaviour are both difficult to maintain and difficult to accomplish. Ethical questions may also arise apart from the practical problems, if one

expects managers to bring about personality changes in their employees. Finally, need theories generally minimise or ignore important factors in the environment that affect motivation, many researchers consider the environment and the workers perception of the environment to be the major factor in worker motivation (Smither, 1988).

The limited success of need approaches in work motivation has led some to question the utility of any need-orientated views. Relying upon personality theorists who have questioned the very existence of needs and the behaviourists who insist that all behaviour is a complex interaction of person situation interactions over time, some individuals have questioned whether any attention at all should be paid to needs. Others acknowledge the failure of internal state variables like needs or personality in understanding behaviour at work, as well as the weak conceptual development of the need constructs and measures that have typically been used to address work motivation. The final view is of those researchers which believe that research to date has not provided a good evaluation of the potential for need effects and that more longitudinal research is needed. (McCormick & Ilgen, 1985).

- **Managerial Applications of Need Theories**

According to Greenberg and Baron (1995), need theories are important, as they suggest specific things that managers can do to help their subordinates become self-actualised. Self-actualised employees are likely to work at their maximum creative potential, therefore it should make sense to help people to attain this state by helping them meet their needs. Some organisations are helping to satisfy their employees' physiological

needs, by providing incentives to keep them healthy. Financial security is an important type of safety need and some companies are going beyond the more traditional forms of payroll savings and profit sharing plans (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). In addition, to help employees satisfy their social needs, some organisations have incorporated social activities deep into the fabric of their culture, for example, own “theme” days, athletic teams, a committee, which organises events such as a lunch hour employee Olympics. Recognising employees’ achievements is an important way to satisfy their esteem needs (Greenberg & Baron, 2000).

2.7.2. Process Theories of Work Motivation

Process theories attempt to identify the relationship among the changing variables, which make up motivation (Mullins, 1989). Process theories are concerned with how rewards control behaviour and hence the focus of these theories is on the dynamics, or process aspects of work motivation (Vecchio, 1988). The emphasis of process theories is on the process of individual goal setting and the evaluation of satisfaction after the goals have been attained (Smit & De J Cronje, 1999).

2.7.2.1. Value Theories of Work Motivation

Value theories aim to link several variables that constitute motivation, rather than examine innate traits, thus they tend to be more complex than the need theories because of the multiple perspectives used (Naylor, 1999). The four main approaches are based on the notions of equity, expectancy, job characteristic and goal setting (Naylor, 1999).

- **Equity Theory**

The Equity theory views motivation from the perspective of the social comparisons individuals make, that is what they see when they compare themselves to others. The theory proposes that individuals are motivated to maintain a fair and equitable relationship amongst themselves and individuals seem to avoid those relationships that are unfair and inequitable (Johnson, 1999).

According to Robbins (1996), employees make comparisons of their job's inputs and outcomes, relative to those of others and then they respond so as to eliminate any inequalities. If individuals perceive their ratio to be the same to that of relevant others with whom they compare themselves, a state of equity exists. When the ratio is viewed as unequal inequity tension results and this negative tension state provides the impetus to do something to correct it (Robbins, 1990). The greater the inequity the individual perceives the more distress the individual feels. Individual is motivated to maintain the same balance between their contributions and rewards as that of a salient comparison individual or individuals.

According to Robbins (2001), when employees perceive an inequity they can be predicted to make one of six choices:

- Change their inputs.
- Change their outcomes.
- Distort perceptions of self.

- Distort perceptions of others.
- Choose a different referent.

What determines the equity of a particular input-output balance is the individual's perception of what is given and received, this cognition may or may not correspond to an observer's perception or to reality (Staw, 1995).

The Equity theory suggests several possible courses of actions that individuals may follow to change inequitable states to equitable ones (Refer to Table 2.4. for a summary of possible reactions to inequity). Generally individuals who are underpaid may either lower their inputs or raise their outcomes. Either one of these options may bring the underpaid individuals outcome/input ratio into line with that of the comparison individual. Individuals may sometimes be unwilling to do something to respond behaviourally to inequities. Individuals may feel uncomfortable stealing from their employees, or would be uncomfortable and unwilling to restrict their productivity or even uncomfortable asking their manager/supervisor for an increase in payment. As a result an individual may resort to resolving the inequity not by changing behaviour but by changing the appraisal of the situation (Robbins, 2001).

Type of Reaction		
Type of Inequity	Behavioural (What you can do is)	Psychological (What you can think is)
Overpayment Inequity	Raise your inputs (e.g. work harder), or lower your outcomes (e.g. work through a paid vacation).	Convince yourself that your outcomes are deserved. Based on your inputs (e.g. rationalise that you work harder than others and so deserve more pay).
Underpayment Inequity	Lower your inputs (e.g. reduce effort) or raise your outcomes (e.g. get a salary increase).	Convince yourself that others inputs are really higher than your own (e.g. rationalise that the comparison worker is really more qualified and so deserves higher outcomes).

Table 2.4. Greenberg & Baron. (1995). Possible Reactions to Inequity: A Summary. Behaviour in organisations: Understanding and managing the human side of work (5th edition). p. 139.

Generally, research has supported the claim that individuals respond to overpayment and underpayment in the ways described by the Equity theory (Greenberg & Baron, 1995). Research has shown that when individuals experience disadvantageous equity, they are likely to change their behaviour (Smither, 1988). The Equity theory does not contain either the elements of history and time, considering instances of behaviours without considering the background leading up to the perception of inequity. Omitting time from

the equity theories formulation has made the theory mathematically precise, but has limited its explanatory power (Smither, 1988).

Equity theory has some important implications for ways of motivating individuals. It suggests that underpayment must be avoided, implying that companies that attempt to save money by cutting a percentage of employees salaries may find that the employees respond by cutting a few minutes of their work-days, or otherwise reducing their production levels. Overpayment also needs to be avoided, since the increase in performance shown in response to overpayment inequity tends to be temporary in nature. Employees eventually believe that they deserve the higher pay they are receiving and bring their work level down to a normal level (Robbins, 2001). A further reason not to overpay an employee is the fact that this means that all other employees are being underpaid. When the majority of employees decrease their performance levels, because of their dissatisfaction caused by the inequality the overall performance level of the organisation will fall. Hence, managers should attempt to treat all employees equitably (Greenberg & Baron, 1995).

- **Expectancy Theory**

The Expectancy theory follows the view that individuals are influenced by the expected outcomes of their behaviours and focuses on three elements:

- The effort an individual exerts.
- Belief about probable outcomes.
- Values placed on those expected outcomes (Naylor, 1999).

In contrast to the Need and Equity theories, the focus of the Expectancy theory is on the dynamic interplay between factors affecting motivation (Smither, 1998). Expectancy theory recognises that efforts, values and outcomes mutually affect each other and influence the performance of an individual (Smither, 1988).

A useful model and one of the most widely accepted explanations of motivation in the workplace, is Vroom's expectancy theory (Naylor, 1999). This theory does not consider the specific needs but rather the choices between alternative actions (Schaefer, 1977).

The theory attempts to explain the process by which an individual chooses one alternative for action, out of many possible actions. Expectancy theorists agree that motivation is a multiplicative function of all three components (Greenberg & Baron, 1995):

- Expectancy: The belief that effort will result in performance.
- Instrumentality: The belief that performance will be rewarded.
- Valence: The perceived value of the rewards to the recipient.

Thus the expectancy theory focuses on three relationships (Robbins, 1996):

- Effort-performance relationship: The probability perceived by the individual that exerting a given amount of effort will lead to performance.
- Performance-reward relationship: The degree to which the individual believes that performing at a given level will lead to the attainment of a desired outcome.

- Rewards-personal goals relationship: The degree to which organisational rewards satisfy an individual's personal goals or needs and the attractiveness of those potential rewards.

Louw and Edwards (1995) show that the strength and the intensity of goal directed behaviour is determined by two factors:

- The strength of the individual's expectations of attaining the desired goal.
- How much the individual values the particular goal.

In terms of the theory, an individual will strongly work towards a goal if it is something of high value. Accordingly the Expectancy theory looks at the role of motivation in the overall work environment, and asserts that individuals are motivated to work when they expect that they will be able to achieve the things they want from their jobs (Greenberg & Baron, 1995). The model proposes that an employee will act in a certain way depending on the strength of the expectancy or belief that the act will lead to a certain outcome or goal and on the value of that outcome or goal to the employee (Organ, 1983).

Staw (1995), developed a general model of motivational behaviours in organisational settings which is reflected in Figure 2.7.

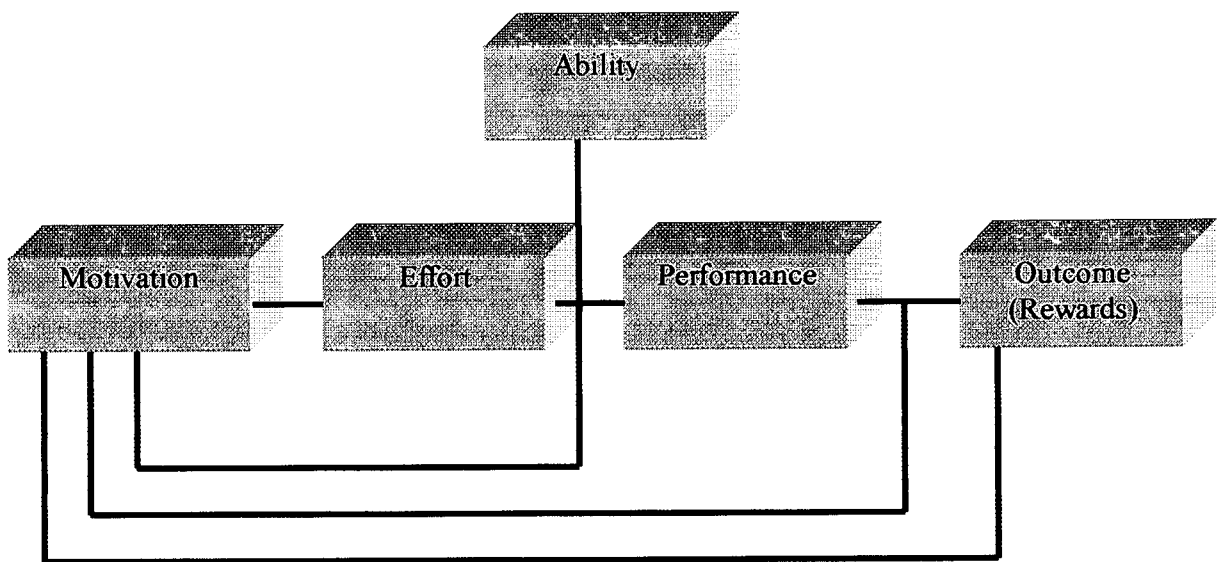


Fig. 2.7. Staw. (1995). The Basic Motivation-Behaviours Sequence. Psychological dimensions of organizational behaviours. p.30.

In terms of Figure 2.7. it can be seen that an individual's motivation is a function of:

- Effort-to-performance expectancies.
- Performance-to-outcome expectancies.
- Perceived valence of outcomes.

As viewed in Figure 2.8. motivation leads to an observed level of effort by the individual. However, effort alone is not enough as performance results from a combination of the effort and the level of ability, thus effort combines with ability to produce a given level of

performance. As a result of performance, the individual attains certain outcomes and if these outcomes are valued then motivation is influenced in the future positively (Staw, 1995). A high level of motivation exists when expectancy, instrumentality and valency are high, a moderate level of motivation is likely if any one factor is low. A weak level of motivation would exist if two or three of the associated factors are low (Greenberg & Baron, 1995; Jenks, 1990).

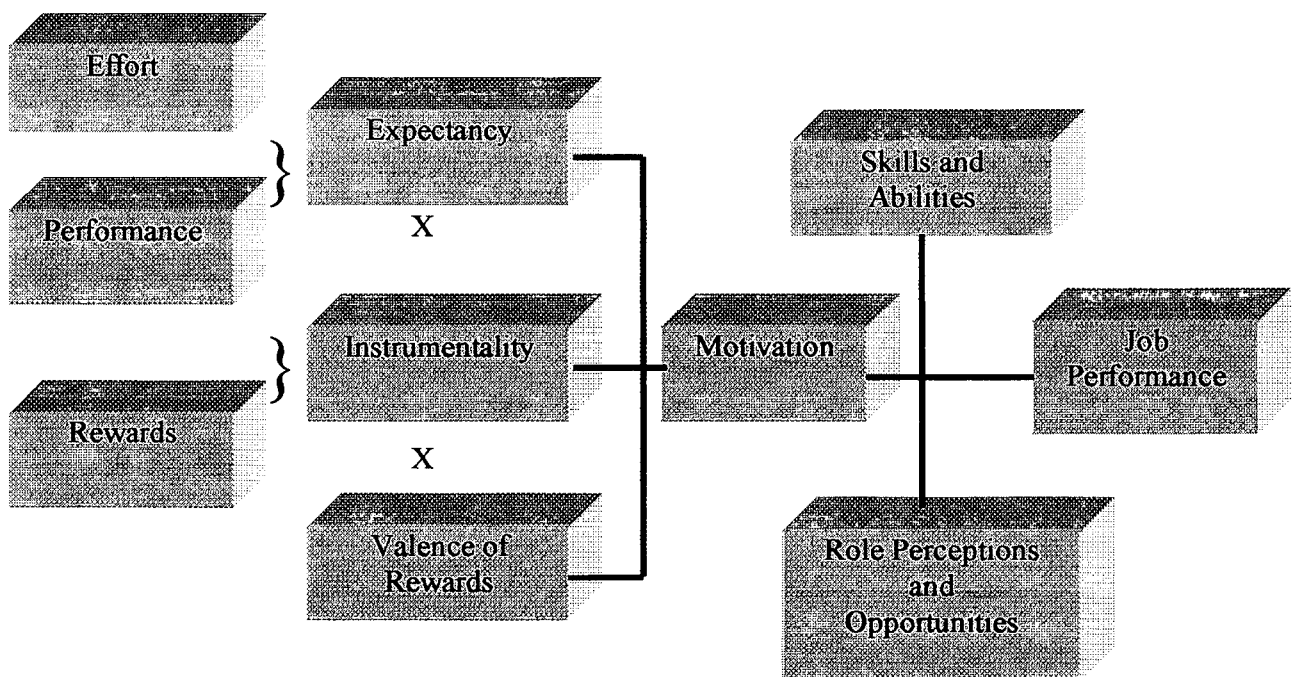


Fig. 2.8. Greenberg & Baron. (1995). Expectancy Theory Model: An overview.

Behaviour in organisations: Understanding & managing the human side of work. p. 144.

The advantages of Expectancy theory is that it can be applied in many different situations and can reflect changing conditions or even be used to bring about changes in performance levels (Smither, 1988). A study conducted by Gardner (1982) concludes that

expectancy theory's strength lies in its use as a determiner of organisational climate, with its ability to highlight critical problems areas such as the pay-performance linkage.

However managers tend to prefer to Maslow or Herzberg's theories over mathematically precise theories such as the Expectancy theory (Smither, 1988). Another, questionable aspect of the expectancy model is the assumption that employees have sufficient information in order to make rational decisions and that employees always make rational decisions. Information about job situations is not always available and many employees make decisions on the basis of emotions or other irrationalities (Smither, 1988). Moreover, the Expectancy model has been tested chiefly amongst the fairly well-educated, and thus its generalisability may appear to be limited to individuals with a high level of literacy. Hence it is these qualities that limit its applicability in the work environment (Smither, 1988).

According to Greenberg and Baron (1995) the expectancy theory strongly suggests that it is essential to:

- Clarify individual's expectancies that their effort will lead to performance. Motivation may be enhanced by training employees to do their jobs more efficiently, thereby achieving higher levels of performance from their efforts.
- Make the desired performance attainable. Good supervisors not only make it clear to employees what is expected of them, but also help them attain that level of performance.

- Clearly link valued rewards and performance. In other words, managers should enhance their subordinates' beliefs about instrumentality by specifying exactly what job behaviours will lead to what rewards.
- Finally, a practical suggestion from the Expectancy theory is to administer rewards that are positively valent to employees. It is erroneous to assume that all employees care about having the same rewards, some might recognise the incentive value of a pay raise, whereas others might prefer additional vacation days, improved insurance benefits, day care or elder care facilities.

The Expectancy theory helps managers to be more aware of the factors affecting individual motivation and to work ardently at developing an organisational climate that encourages open communication and a high level of motivation (Jenks, 1990). Money according to this theory can satisfy a variety of needs. The theory accepts that if employees perceive that good performance results in generous payments, money can serve as a motivator (Smit & De J Cronje, 1999). Management must carefully develop a reward structure to obtain performance; careful planning, organising and a clear definition of duties and responsibility in the organisation are necessary for high levels of motivation (Gray & Smeltzer, 1989).

If organisations take these concepts into account the result will be increased motivation amongst employees, creating a favourable attitude towards the organisation, which will lead ultimately to a positive organisational climate.

- **The Application of Process Theories across Cultures**

The Equity theory states that individuals should be motivated when outcomes received match job inputs. Thus, higher producers are likely to expect superior outcomes compared to lower producers. This is only one way to allocate rewards, however, and it is one most likely to be endorsed in individualistic cultures. In collective cultures there is a tendency to favour reward allocation based on equality rather than equity. In other words, every individual should receive the same outcomes despite individual differences in productivity and group solidarity is a dominant motive (Johns, 1992).

The Expectancy theory compares well when considered cross-culturally allowing for the possibility that there may be cross-cultural differences in the expectancy that effort will result in high performance and that work outcomes may have different valences across cultures (Johns, 1992).

2.7.3. Goal-Setting Theory of Work Motivation

The question of how to motivate employees has perplexed managers for years. One reason the problem has seemed difficult, is that motivation ultimately comes from within the individual and therefore cannot be observed directly. Most managers moreover are not in a position to change an employee's basic personality structure. The best that managers can do is to try and use incentive programmes to direct the energies of their sub-ordinates towards the organisation's goals and objectives. Research has shown that one effective approach to motivation is the process of goal-setting (Tosi, 1990).

2.7.3.1. Locke and Latham's Goal-Setting Theory

The process of setting goals is one of the most important motivational forces operating on employees in organisations (Greenberg & Baron, 1995). Motivation to work is enhanced by having specified goals toward which to work and one of the most direct precursors to performance related work behaviours is an employee's goal or goals (McCormick & Ilgen, 1987). Locke and Latham's goal-setting theory claims that an assigned goal influences an individual's beliefs about being able to perform the task in question (self-efficacy) and their personal goals. Self-efficacy is known as the "*can do*" facet of personality. If an individual has a high self-efficacy personality variable it means that the individual will be more successful in completing the task (Greenberg & Baron, 1995).

Locke and Latham's postulate that goals serve as a motivation because:

- They cause individuals to compare their present capacity.
- They need to perform to that requirement, in order to succeed at the goal.
- When individuals succeed at meeting a goal, they feel competent and successful.

Goals provide information about how well a task is being performed, and this leaves scope for improvement as well (Greenberg & Baron, 1995). If individuals are made aware of current performance levels by receiving feedback, they may modify direction, intensity, persistence or strategy in order to be able to meet the goal better. It might also persuade an individual to reject the goal by deciding it is too difficult or easy and

therefore not worth the effort (McCormick & Ilgen, 1987). Refer to Figure 2.11. for a diagrammatic representation of the Goal-Setting theory.

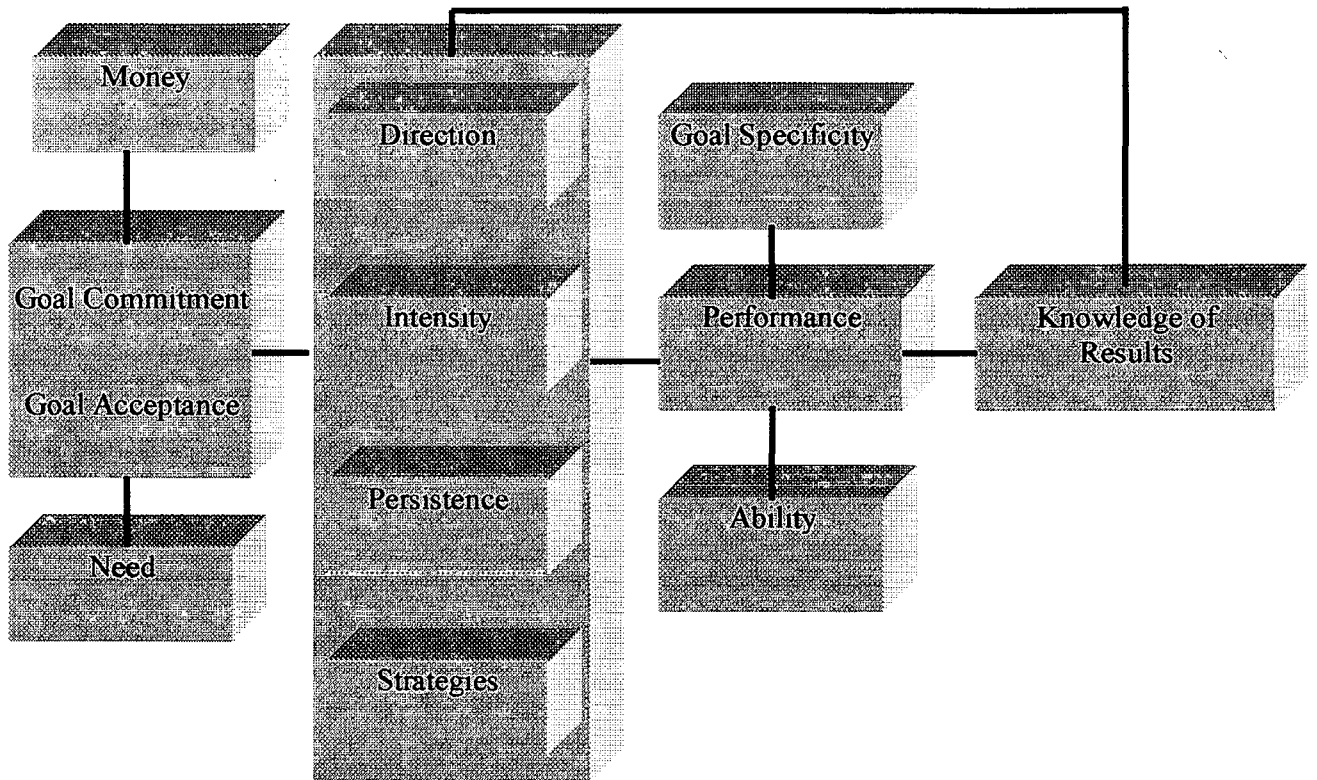


Fig. 2.9. Greenberg & Baron. (1995). A Diagram of the Goal-Setting Theory. Behaviours in organisations: Understanding and managing the human side of work, p. 133.

Goals must meet at least two basic conditions; the individual must be aware of the goal and know what it is that is supposed to be accomplished. The combination of awareness and knowledge of action can be considered the goal's information value (Greenberg & Baron, 1995).

Goals can differ along several dimensions, but two of these differences stand out by far as the most significant, these are difficulty and specificity. The specificity of a goal provides information for the individual; the more specific the goal, the more the individual knows what is required. Thus the goal serves to route behaviour in a specific direction. In terms of goal difficulty, the effect seems to be through commitment rather than through information increase (McCormick & Ilgen, 1987).

Locke and Latham observed in their research that ninety percent (90%) of all goal-setting studies shared a beneficial effect of goal setting on performance (Cooper & Robertson, 1986). The main findings of goal-setting research are as follows (Cooper & Robertson, 1986):

- Difficult goals lead to higher task performance than easy goals.
- Specific and difficult goals lead to higher performance, than no goals or vague goals such as “do your best”.

In summary, goal setting is a very successful tool managers can use to motivate subordinates. Setting a specific, acceptably difficult goal, and providing feedback about that goal greatly enhances job performance (Greenberg & Baron, 1995). Specific, challenging goals lead to better performance than do easy or vague goals, and feedback motivates higher performance only when it leads to the setting of higher goals. It is important to note that participation in setting difficult goals is not only a motivational tool. When a

manager has competent subordinates, participation is a useful device for increasing the manager's knowledge and thereby improving the decision-making quality (Tosi, 1990).

2.7.4. Application of Concepts Applicable to the field of Motivation

2.7.4.1. Job Design

This approach is directed at improving the nature of the work performed, the basic idea behind job design is that motivation can be enhanced by making jobs more appealing to individuals. Organisational scientists have discovered several ways of designing jobs that cannot only be performed very efficiently, but are also highly enjoyable and pleasant for employees (Greenberg & Baron, 1995). Robinson (1993) indicates that job enrichment, job enlargement, work schedules and environmental fit as well as the design of effective and satisfying jobs, which meet both the organisations needs for effectively achieving its goals through the use of its human resources and the individual needs, expectations and goals enhance worker motivation.

2.7.4.2. Job Enlargement

One of the first modern approaches to re-designing jobs was through job enlargement which suggests that the consequences of a highly routine job could be minimised by having employees perform an increased number of different tasks all at the same level.

As a result of job enlargement, employees have no more responsibility nor use any greater skills, but perform a wider variety of different tasks at the same level (Greenhaus & Callanan, 1994). This method of adding tasks is hypothesised to increase the horizontal job loading of the position.

Although the majority of reports of the effectiveness of job enlargement have been subjective, carefully conducted empirical studies have examined their impact. Although it is more difficult and expensive to train employees to perform the enlarged jobs than the separate jobs, research has shown important benefits that result as well; in particular, employees express greater job satisfaction and less boredom (De Cenzo & Robbins, 1996). Since one individual completed all the tasks on a particular job, there is a greater opportunity to correct errors while building a base of experience and a wider range of competencies that can positively influence career succession (Greenberg & Baron, 1995; Greenhaus & Callanan, 1994).

However, one disadvantage of job enlargement is that employees get used to their enlarged jobs and thus they find them less interesting and too mundane. Hence, although job enlargement may help aid job performance, its effects may not be long-lasting (Greenberg & Baron, 1995).

2.7.4.3. Job Enrichment

In contrast to job enlargement, job enrichment is one of the most popularly advocated structural techniques for increasing an employee's motivational potential (De Cenzo & Robbins, 1996). Job enrichment gives employees not only more jobs to do but more tasks to perform at a higher level of skill and responsibility and to take greater control over how to do their jobs (Greenberg & Baron, 1995). Job enrichment requires that employees increase their planning and controlling of their work, usually with less supervision and more self-evaluation. (De Cenzo & Robbins, 1996). Employees performing enriched jobs have increased opportunities to work at higher levels (Greenberg & Baron, 1995).

2.7.4.4. The Job Characteristic Model

The job characteristic model postulates that certain core job dimensions create psychological states which lead to beneficial personal and work outcomes. The model recognises that these relationships are strongest among employees who have a high need for personal growth and development. Employees who are not interested in personal growth and development are not expected to react to the psychological reactions to the core job dimensions or the benefits of the predicted work and personal outcomes (Smit & De J Cronje, 1999).

• **A Model for Enrichment : Hackman-Oldham Theory**

There are several theories about the job enrichment model, some approaches combine both environmental (task) and individual characteristics. This model identifies how jobs can be designed to help individuals feel that they are doing valuable and meaningful work. In particular this approach specifies that enriching certain elements of jobs alter an individual's psychological states in a manner that enhances their work effectiveness. The approach specifically identifies five core job dimensions that help to create three psychological states, which in turn lead to several beneficial work and personal outcomes (Greenberg & Baron, 1995).

As viewed in Figure 2.12. the Hackman and Oldham model incorporates the following five core dimensions which are key factors when designing or re-designing jobs:

- Skill variety: The exercise of different skills and abilities.
- Task identity: The extent to which the job requires the completion of an identifiable segment of work.
- Task significance: The impact the job has on the life of others.
- Autonomy: The use of discretion in performing tasks and the freedom the job offers.
- Feedback: The extent to which the employee receives information on his performance (De Cenzo & Robbins, 1996; McKenna & Beech, 1995).

The first three dimensions, skill variety, task identity and task significance combine to create meaningful work. It is maintained that if these three characteristics are present in a

job, the employee will view the job as being important, worthwhile and valuable. Jobs that provide a great deal of autonomy are said to make individuals feel personally responsible and accountable for their work, while effective feedback is important as it gives employees knowledge of the results of their work (De Cenzo & Robbins, 1996).

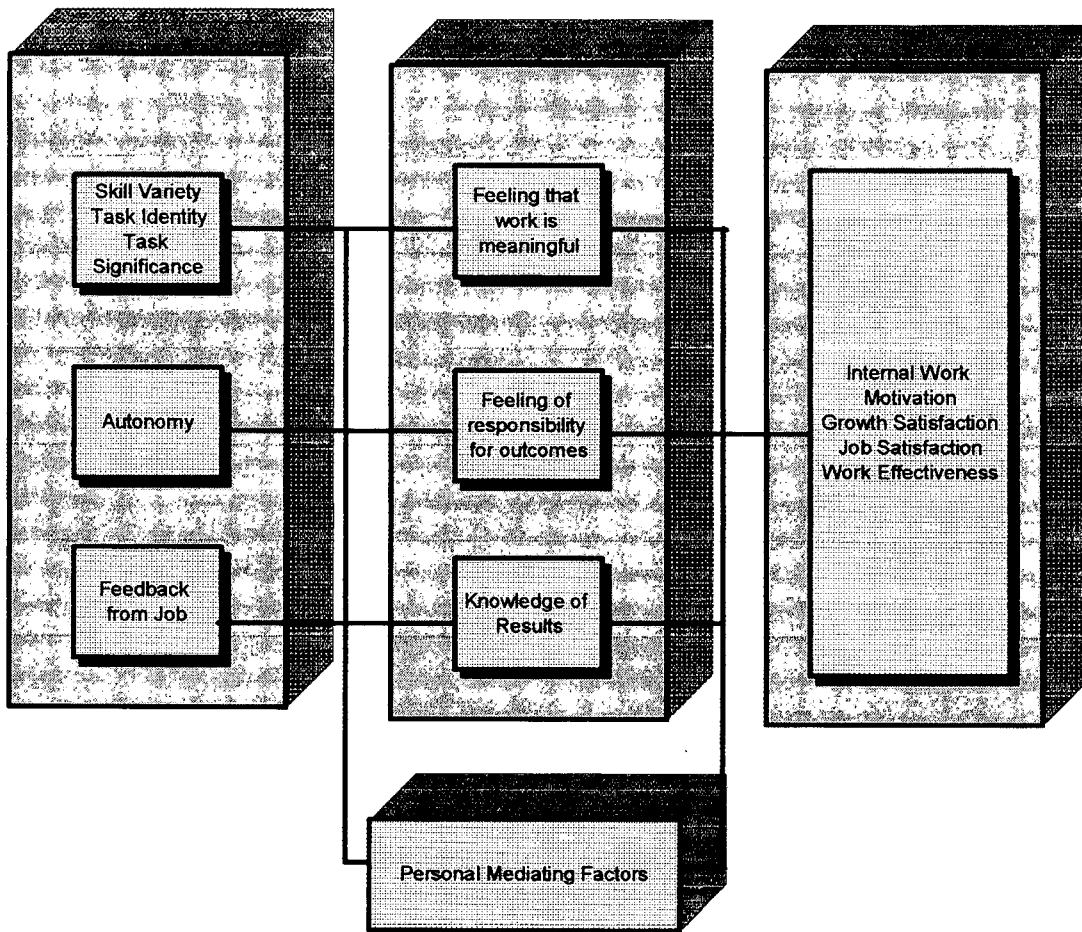


Fig. 2.10. Naylor. (1999). The Motivational Theory of Hackman and Oldham. Management. p. 548.

Core job dimensions can be analysed into a single index called the motivating potential score (De Cenzo & Robbins, 1996). Hackman and Oldham developed a method for estimating the potential of a job to motivate employee. By having incumbents answer a

series of questions about the nature of their jobs, it is possible according to these theorists to calculate a motivating potential score (MPS). These questions tap five distinct areas, task identity, skill variety, autonomy, task significance and feedback. Any job that is prominent on all these characteristics has the potential to be motivating, if a job is low on these characteristics it has a low potential for motivating employees (Landy, 1989). The motivating potential score (MPS) is a summary index of a jobs potential for motivating individuals, knowing a jobs MPS help managers to identify jobs that may benefit by being redesigned (Greenberg & Baron, 1995). Jobs that are high on motivating potential must be high on at least one of the three factors that lead to experiencing meaningfulness, and they must be high on both autonomy and feedback. The model predicts the motivation, performance and satisfaction will be positively affected, if jobs score high on motivating potential, while the likelihood of turnover and absence is reduced (De Cenzo & Robbins, 1996).

Empirical research indicates that individuals who work in a job with high core job dimensions are more motivated, satisfied and productive than those who do not. The results show that individuals with strong growth needs respond more positively to jobs that are elevated in motivating potential than do those with weak growth dimensions, and job dimensions operate through the psychological states in influencing personal and work outcome variables, rather than influencing them directly (Landy, 1989).

- **Managerial Applications of Job Enrichment**

Job enrichment is only successful when it increases responsibility, increases the employees' independence and freedom, organises tasks so as to allow individuals to do a complete activity and provides feedback to allow individuals to correct their own performance. Research has shown that job enrichment has direct benefits to the organisation, since job enrichment programmes lower absenteeism, reduces turnover costs and increases employee commitment (De Cenzo & Robbins, 1996).

One of the major problems associated with both the implementation and the evaluation of job redesign, is the fact that many factors are involved, often when job redesign takes place, other changes take place in the organisation at the same time, so it is difficult to identify the precise cause of any particular change (Cooper & Makin, 1988).

Although research suggests that job enrichment programmes have been successful at various organisations, several factors limit their popularity:

- The difficulty in implementing this approach.
- The lack of employee acceptance (Greenberg & Baron, 1995).

2.8. Integration of the Motivational Theories

According to Smit and De J Cronje (1999), the motivational theories discussed can create the impression that there is one best theory for a specific situation. However, this is not the rationale behind these theories. The motivational theories discussed complement each other and each motivational theory is used in a different stage of the motivation process.

Robbins (1996) presents a model that integrates much of what is known about motivation.

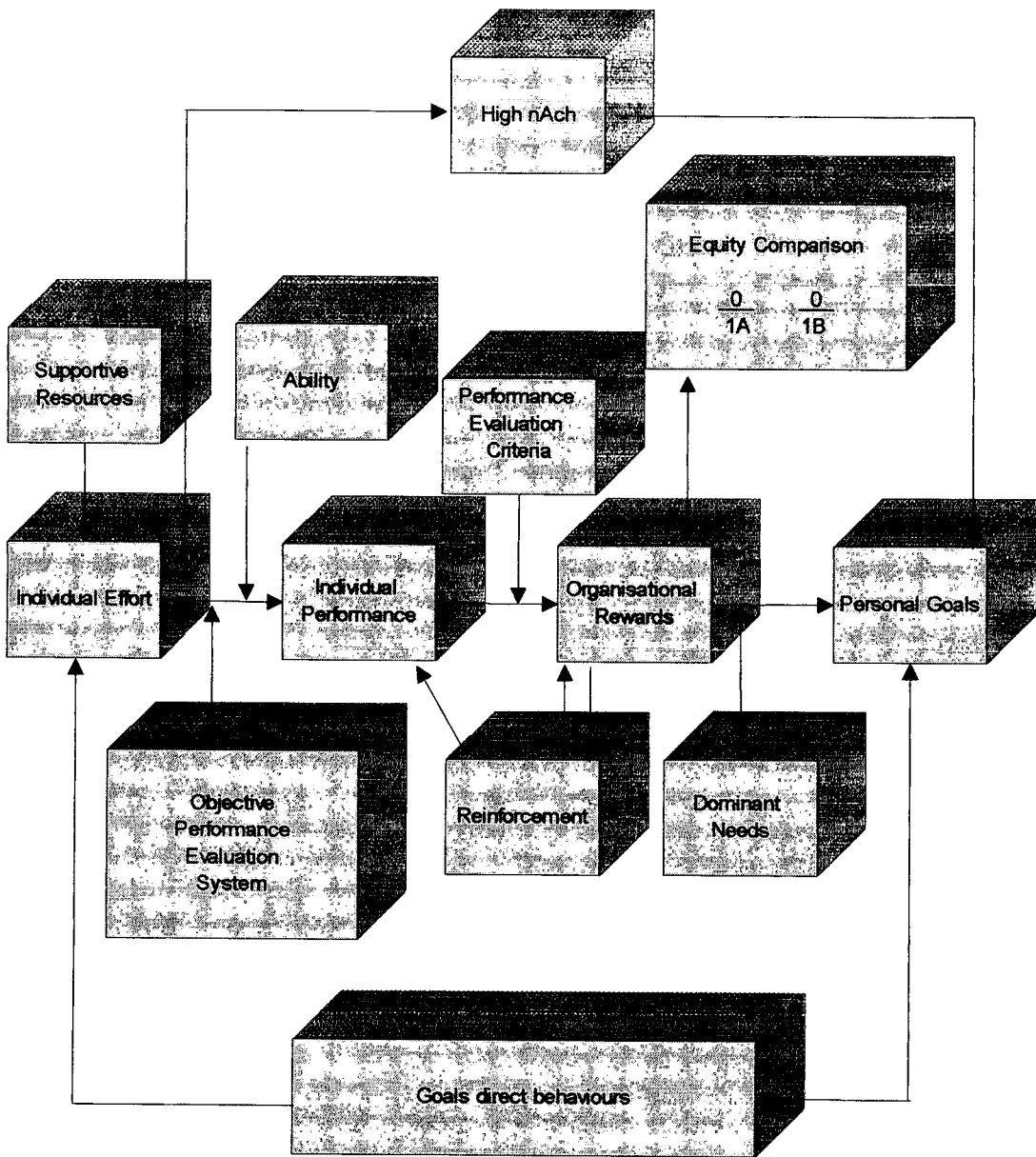


Fig. 2.11. Robbins. (1996). Integrating Contemporary Theories of Motivation. Managing today. p. 406.

As viewed in Figure 2.14, Robbins (1996) surmises that a individual must begin by recognising that opportunities can aid or hinder individual effort, while individual effort is also influenced by goals which direct behaviour. An employee will exert a high level of effort, if a strong relationship is perceived between:

- Effort and performance.
- Performance and rewards.
- Rewards and satisfaction of personal goals.

For effort to lead to good performance the individual must have the required ability to perform and the performance appraisal system that measures the individual's performance must be perceived as fair and objective. The performance-reward relationship will be strong if the individual perceives it is performance that is rewarded. Motivation will be high if the reward an employee receives for performance satisfies the dominant needs consistent with the employees goals (Saal & Knight, 1988).

The model also considers the Achievement need, Reinforcement and Equity theories. The high achiever is not motivated by the organisation's assessment of performance or organisational rewards; therefore there is a leap from effort to personal goals for those with a high nAch. High achievers are internally driven as long as the jobs they are doing provide them with personal responsibility, feedback and moderate risks (Robbins, 1996).

Reinforcement theory enters the model by recognising that the organisation's rewards reinforce the individual's performance (Robbins, 1996). If employees perceive the organisation's reward system as paying off for good performance, the rewards will reinforce and encourage continued good performance. Rewards also play a key part in the Equity theory. Employees will compare the rewards (outcomes) they receive from the inputs they make with the outcome-input ratio of relevant others ($O/IA : O/IB$) and inequalities may influence the effort expended.

2.9. Implications for Managers in Motivating Employees ✓

It is arguable that motivation is the responsibility of the individual, rather than of the manager. Equally, it might be argued that the manager is responsible for enabling employees as much as possible to find what motivates them or at least eliminate sources of demotivation (Holbeche, 1997). Employees are motivated in different ways and tend to have differing degrees of tolerance for frustration; one individual may be content doing structured and routine work, while another individual may be unhappy in such a situation (Catt & Miller, 1991). Diversity in the workplace makes the issue of employee motivation in South Africa even more complex (Carrel, Elbert & Hatfield, 2000). Motivational theories that apply in North America, Europe and Japan do not necessarily apply to South Africa's diverse workforce (Smit & De J Cronje, 1999).

Landy (1989) suggests some principles of motivation in applied settings:

- Rewards should be linked to good performance.
- Goals should be set whenever possible. To the extent feasible, the individual should be included in the goal-setting process.
- Steps should be taken to increase the feeling of personal efficacy that employees have about their work. It is better for employees to have a slightly exaggerated view of their skills and abilities than a realistic one.
- Individuals should receive accurate and timely feedback with respect to their levels of performance as well as the level expected of them.
- Performance may be less predictable when punishment or negative reinforcement is used by managers than when positive rewards are employed as incentives to outstanding performance.
- Individuals may be more concerned with broad estimates of fairness (i.e. where they fit in a distribution of co-workers) than with specific comparisons (i.e. a particular co-worker). As a result, if a manager is concerned with developing perceptions of equity, this broader context should be considered.

Robbins (1996) also proposes the following guidelines with regard to motivating employees in organisations.

- Recognise individual differences: Employees have different needs; do not treat them all alike. Spend the time necessary to understand what is important to each employee. This will allow one to individualise goals, level of participation and rewards to align with individual needs.
- Use goals and feedback: Employees should have specific goals, as well as feedback on how they are fairing in pursuit of those goals.
- Allow employees to participate in decisions that affect them: Employees can contribute to a number of decisions that affect them such as setting work goals, choosing their own fringe benefit packages, solving productivity and quality problems. Likewise, Roger, Clow and Kash (1994) indicate that communication of company policy, if clearly understood, will reduce conflicts between employees and management, thus improving work motivation in the organisation. In addition Carnall (1990) mentions that involvement of the employees in the decision making process promotes a positively perceived organisational climate. A study conducted by Butcher (1994) in a medical centre to examine whether components of organisational climate could be related to workers knowledge of the organisation's mission statement and mission-centered values substantiates the results achieved by the previous researchers.
- Link rewards to performance: Rewards should be contingent on performance. Importantly, employees must perceive a clear linkage, between these two concepts. If individuals perceive this correlation to be low, the result will be low

performance, a decrease in job satisfaction and an increase in turnover and absenteeism statistics.

- Check the system for equity: Rewards should also be perceived by employees as equating with the inputs they bring to the job. At a simplistic level, this means that experience, skills, abilities, effort and other inputs should explain differences in performance and pay, job assignments and other obvious rewards.
- Set realistic and challenging targets: Individuals are capable of transcending self in the pursuit of demanding and high ideals. If the individual accepts that the goal is both desirable and realistic then the individual will start drawing upon their fifty per cent of the motivational equation.
- Create a motivating environment: The psychological and physical well-being of individuals has to have a top priority, it is important that Herzberg's hygiene factors are properly catered for. Adair (1990) supports the statement by stating that attention should be paid to job design.

2.10. Summary of Chapter

This chapter provided an overview of the theoretical body of knowledge pertaining to motivation and proceeded by examining the approaches to motivation in general work motivation, more specifically. An historical overview of the origin of the various schools of thought was followed by the most popular content, process and reinforcement theories. The chapter concludes with applications of concepts applicable to the field of motivation and an integration of the various motivational theories.

Organisational effectiveness can be increased by creating an organisation climate that satisfies employee's needs while channeling motivated behaviour toward's organisational goals. It is through the creation of an effective organisational climate that managers can improve or manage the motivational levels of employees. Management should take an overall view of all the models, and incorporate the most noteworthy aspects and apply them accordingly to bring about favourable employee perceptions towards the organisation and thus promote motivation amongst employees (Kolb, Rubin & McIntyre, 1979). In chapter three an attempt is made to link organisational climate and work motivation, with the purpose of improving organisational climate and motivation to the benefit of the organisation.

CHAPTER 3

ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

3.1. Introduction

Studies of motivation have accentuated the importance of both environmental and situational factors in determining work motivation. These environmental and situational factors that affect work motivation are referred to as organisational climate. Organisational climate is a product of several environmental and internal organisational factors that are subject to some degree of regulation or influence by management.

In this chapter, the nature of organisational climate is considered. Organisational climate is defined according to various theorists, a model of climate is presented, as well as the different types of climates found in organisations and the dimensions and the determinants of climate are listed and discussed. The characteristics and benefits of having a healthy organisational climate are highlighted. The chapter concludes by linking the constructs of motivation and organisational climate in terms of achieving organisational effectiveness as a result of a motivated workforce.

3.2. Nature of Organisational Climate

Organisational climate can be seen as the “personality” of the organisation, that is, organisational climate is to the organisation as personality is to the individual (Hoy, Tarter, Kottkamp, 1991). Climate relates to the recognition of the organisation as a social system and the extent to which membership is a psychologically rewarding experience. It can be seen as a state of mutual trust and understanding among employees of the organisation and is characterised by the nature of the employee-organisation relationship and the superior-subordinate relationship. These relationships are determined by interactions among goals and objectives, formal structure, styles of leadership, the process of management and the behaviour of employees (Mullins, 1989). The common view is that organisational climate should be conceptualised as a set of global perceptions held by individuals about their objective organisational situations and interrelationships between them (Campbell, et al., 1970; Churchill, et al., 1979).

Organisational climate is a way of summarising numerous specific, detailed perceptions in a small number of general dimensions and is a concept that describes the quality of the environment subjectively perceived by the organisation’s employees (Schneider, 1975). Organisational climate has evolved from being considered exclusively as an organisational attribute to an attribute that may be subsystems specific (Field & Abelson, 1982). Organisations can have many different climates within their various departments since organisations have many different priorities to fulfill (Schneider, 1975).

The establishment of an organisational climate is a process where inputs, structure of an organisation, values and beliefs, impact on the behaviour of employees in an organisation and the output of this process can be identified as organisational climate (Schneider, 1975). It is the atmosphere that employees perceive to be created in their organisations, through rewards, practices, policies and procedures (Schneider, 1975; Lewicki, Bowen, Hall & Hall, 1988). Employees sense particular climates as a function of the flow of everyday activities, practices, events and procedures in the organisation. No individual can remember every aspect that happens to them and around them, hence individuals tend to group perceptions into meaningful clusters (Lewicki et al., 1988). These clusters are made up of the perceptions of events, practices, activities and procedures that tend to connote a common theme in the organisation (Lewicki et al., 1988). These rewards, practices, policies and procedures according to Rentsch (1990) exist in lasting patterns and are considered to be objective properties of the organisation. The perceptions of climate in an organisation are a result of organisational socialisation (Jones, 1986).

Organisational climate is presented as a perceptual attribute at an organisational, group and individual level. The construct is important because it provides a conceptual link between analysis at the organisational level and the individual level and can be seen as the individual's descriptions of the social setting or context of which the individual is a part. Climate is a content-free concept, denoting in a sense generic perceptions of the context in which the individual behaves and responds (Cooper & Robertson, 1988; Field & Abelson, 1982).

Climate is formed on a day-to-day basis, when employees observe what happens around them and to them, from which employees draw conclusions about their organisation's priorities (Schneider, 1975). Top, middle and lower levels of management perceive organisational climate differently (Milton, 1981). Once employees discover what the organisation's priorities are they set their own priorities accordingly and these perceptions help employees to discover how and where they should focus their energies and competencies. This is a major determinant in creating an organisational climate. Critical elements of organisational climate are an individual's perceptions of the organisation and it is these perceptions which govern employees behaviour (Campbell et al., 1970). Proponents of this notion base their arguments on Indik's (1965) linkage model which states that the linkage between an objective attribute and a dependent variable is mediated by two processes, the organisational process and the psychological process. Organisational climate is viewed as a situationally determined psychological process in which organisational climate variables are considered to be causative factors for attitudes and performance.

Hence, organisational climate is a relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organisation that is:

- Experienced by its members.
- Influences the behaviour of the employees.
- Can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics or attributes of the organisation (Fink & Chen, 1995).

3.3. Specifying the Concept of Work Climate

Organisational climate exists in the perceptions that individuals have of their organisational environment. In forming organisational climate perceptions, the employee acts as an information processor, using inputs from the objective events and the characteristics of the perceiver. Global perceptions of the organisation appear as a result of a number of activities, interactions, reactions and frequent experiences the employee has with the organisation (Johns, 1992; Schneider, 1975). Schneider (1975) states that climate reflects the interaction of personal and organisational characteristics and that approaches to climate based solely on objective organisational characteristics (e.g. structure) appear to be excessively organisationally orientated. On the other hand, approaches based on the personal characteristics of members seem to be too individually orientated. Since organisational climate is conceptualised as being caused by diverse experiences and as causing later behaviours, it is in actuality an intervening variable in the list of variables available for organisational behaviour research. It is not an output in the sense that performance and turnover are outputs. Contrary to the way it has been used in most research; organisational climate is not an independent that can be instantaneously rearranged (such as working conditions or formal structure) (DuBrin, 1984; Kossek & Lobel, 1996). Organisational climate is a perception that results from the diverse events occurring to and around individuals and may affect job experiences and is an outcome only in the sense that it is a global summary of perceptions rather than the perception of a discrete event (Schneider, 1975).

3.4. The Definition of Organisational Climate

The definition and focus of organisational climate research has evolved over the past twenty-five years (Rentsch, 1990). The term organisational climate refers to a set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the individuals who live and work in this environment and is assumed to influence motivation and behaviour (Litwin & Stringer, 1968).

Mullins (1989) sees organisational climate as the prevailing atmosphere surrounding the organisation. In terms of the attitudes, perceptions and dynamics that affect how an individual performs on a daily basis (Childre & Cryer, 1998).

Hunsaker and Cook (1986, p. 551) define organisational climate "as the descriptive perceptions individuals form of the work environment; and the attitudes that stem from climate influence performance motivation and job satisfaction." Hoy et al. (1991) extend this definition by stating that organisational climate is the set of internal characteristics that distinguishes one organisation from another and influences the behaviour of the employees in the organisation.

Organisational climate can be seen as an all-encompassing concept that could be regarded as a result of all the elements contained in the job context environment (Gerber, Nel & van Dyk, 1999). A number of organisational factors are potentially relevant contributors to organisational climate. The crucial elements are the individuals' perceptions of the

relevant stimuli; constraints and reinforcement contingencies that direct the employees job behaviours (Steers & Porter, 1979). According to Field & Abelson (1982), the common elements of the various definitions of organisational climate is that organisational climate has enduring qualities, which may be measured and which influence the behaviour of the individuals in the organisation. The predicament in defining organisational climate is that organisational climate has been validated as an organisational phenomenon, therefore, clarity is needed about which hypothetical model accounts for the manner by which the perceptions of individuals are transformed into an organisational entity. Despite the inadequacies there have been a number of attempts to account for this process and explain how organisational climate is formed (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). Moran and Volkwein (1992) state that if organisational climate is viewed from various perspectives, it becomes problematic to identify a more specific structured definition. These researchers defined four approaches to clarify the construction of organisational climate.

- **Structural approach**

The structural approach aims to locate the genesis of climate in organisational properties. This approach addresses the relationship between objective and perceptual measures of organisational climate (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). Guion (1973) states that if organisational climate is considered as an organisational attribute, but measured by perceptions, then the accuracy of these perceptions should be validated against objective external measures. Organisational climate

arises from several aspects of the organisational structure such as organisational size, the number of hierarchical levels, the nature of the technology used, the degree of decision-making and the extent to which formal rules and policies apply to individual behaviour. Organisational climate is defined as the common perceptions of members in an organisation who are exposed to the same organisation structure (See Figure 3.1.).

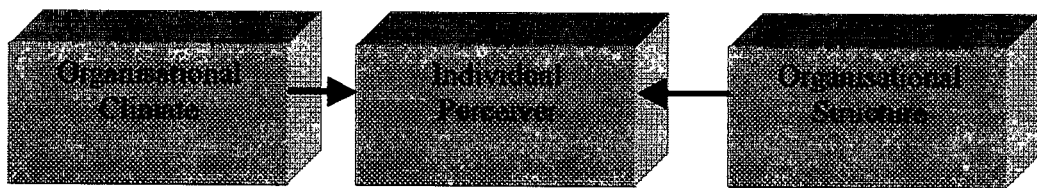


Fig. 3.1. Moran & Volkwein. (1992). Structural approach. The cultural approach to the formation of organisational climate. p. 22.

Several shortcomings to this approach have been highlighted. Moran and Volkwein (1992) state that this methodology does not account for organisations where different group climates exist in one organisation. The structural approach contends that climate arises in response to identifiable features of the organisation's structure, hence it follows that an organisation's climate must validate a consistent and significant relationship to the organisations structural characteristics. However, there is a high degree of inconsistency in results on research conducted in this regard (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). Bhagat en McQuaid (1982) further emphasise that this approach gives inadequate consideration to the subjective impact that structural variables have on an individual's reactions to a situation.

According to Moran and Volkwein (1992) the structural approach suggests the complete convergence on perceptions and objective factors may be theoretically possible, but such a condition is unlikely since organisational climate is not a measure of aggregated individual perceptions or organisational characteristics, since it is a measure of collective social meaning.

- **Perceptual approach**

The perceptual approach takes a more contrasting standpoint from the structural approach and places the emphasis for the basis of organisational climate on the perceptions of the individual in the organisation (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). Individuals interpret and respond to situational variables in a manner that is psychologically meaningful to them and not simply on the basis of the objective descriptions of specific structural or situational attributes (James, Hater, Gent & Bruner, 1978). In terms of this approach organisational climate is observed at the individual level as psychological climate, hence psychological climate is a product of perceptual processes that result in cognitive representations which reflect an interpretation of the situation to the individual in a form which is psychologically important (Moran & Volkwein, 1992).

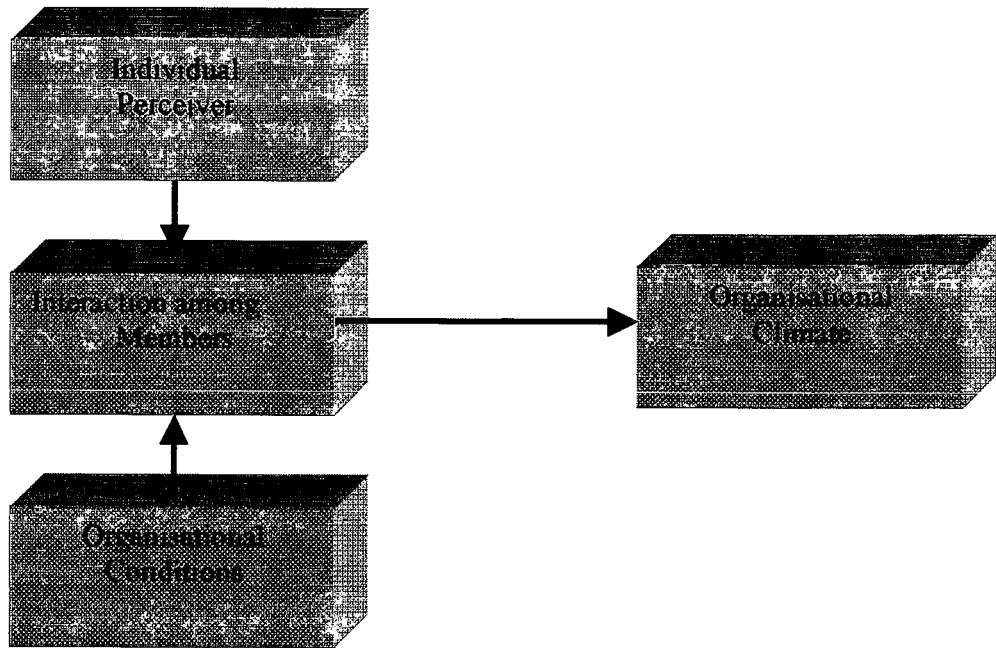


Fig. 3.2. Moran & Volkwein. (1992). Perceptual approach. The cultural approach to the formation of organisational climate. p. 25.

The basic tenet of the perceptual approach pivots around the axial point that individuals perceive organisational conditions and create a psychological representation of organisational climate. The term organisational conditions intended to embody structural as well as process characteristics of the organisation. The incorporation of the concept organisational conditions enhances the more narrow approach on structural properties which was found in the structural approach. Included in these process characteristics of the organisation are influence, communication, leadership and decision making patterns that operate within the organisation (Field & Abelson, 1982).

An impediment with the perceptual approach is that it places the source of climate primarily with the individual. This implies that meaning is something that the individual brings to and imposes on organisational processes and events (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). Consequently the perceptual approach provides insufficient detail to the extent to which perceptions about the situation and the interpretation and assignment of meaning are produced by the interaction of the organisations members. The perceptual agreement is essentially the end point of organisational climate and that the interaction among organisational members produces a patterning or structuring of meaning which enables perceptual agreement (Moran & Volkwein, 1992).

- **Interactive approach**

The interactive approach builds on the shortcomings of the structural and perceptual approach with distinct characteristics. It does not assume that the origin of climate is only within the characteristics of the organisation or within the individual, but the interaction of individuals in responding to their situation brings forth the shared agreement, which is the source of organisational climate. The interactive approach can be viewed to contain multiple meanings. As viewed in Figure 3.3. this approach references the interaction among employees as they engage in the process of comprehending and interpreting organisational realities. However, the interactive approach recognises that the process of generating

meaning requires the interaction between subjective awareness and objective conditions. This represents a crucial difference from the previous two approaches (Moran & Volkwein, 1992).

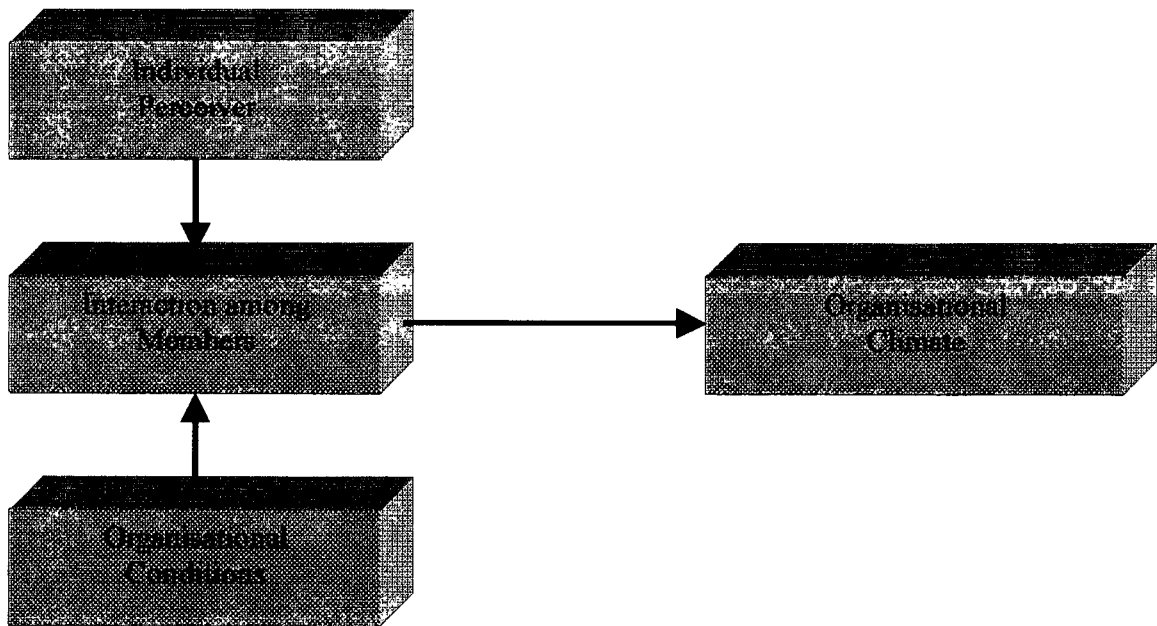


Fig. 3.3. Moran & Volkwein. (1992). Interactive approach. The cultural approach to the formation of organisational climate. p. 29.

The interactive approach acknowledges that individuals develop shared perceptions of their setting, a common frame of reference, and contends that the meaning of this common frame of reference is not fixed in objective reality, but evolves from the interactions of individuals. Meaning is consequently described as “socially constructed” (Ashforth, 1985). What the interactive approach fails to fully provide is an explanation of the way in which the social context, shapes the interaction. Employee interactions are highly constrained and regulated by the prior and deeper meanings of the organisation’s culture as manifested by such

elements as norms, values and myths in the organisation (Moran & Volkwein, 1992).

- **Cultural approach**

This interpretative paradigm provides a perspective on the manner in which groups of organisations form a common sense of history, intentions, values and purpose through the collective interpretation of members. The cultural approach focuses on the way groups interpret, construct and negotiate reality through the creation of an organisational culture (Mumby, 1988). The cultural approach moves from the primarily psychological focus inherent in the interactive approach towards a more sociological approach. This approach supplements a conceptual orientation which is more than a set of cultural variables than simply adding to the interactive approach (Moran & Volkwein, 1992).

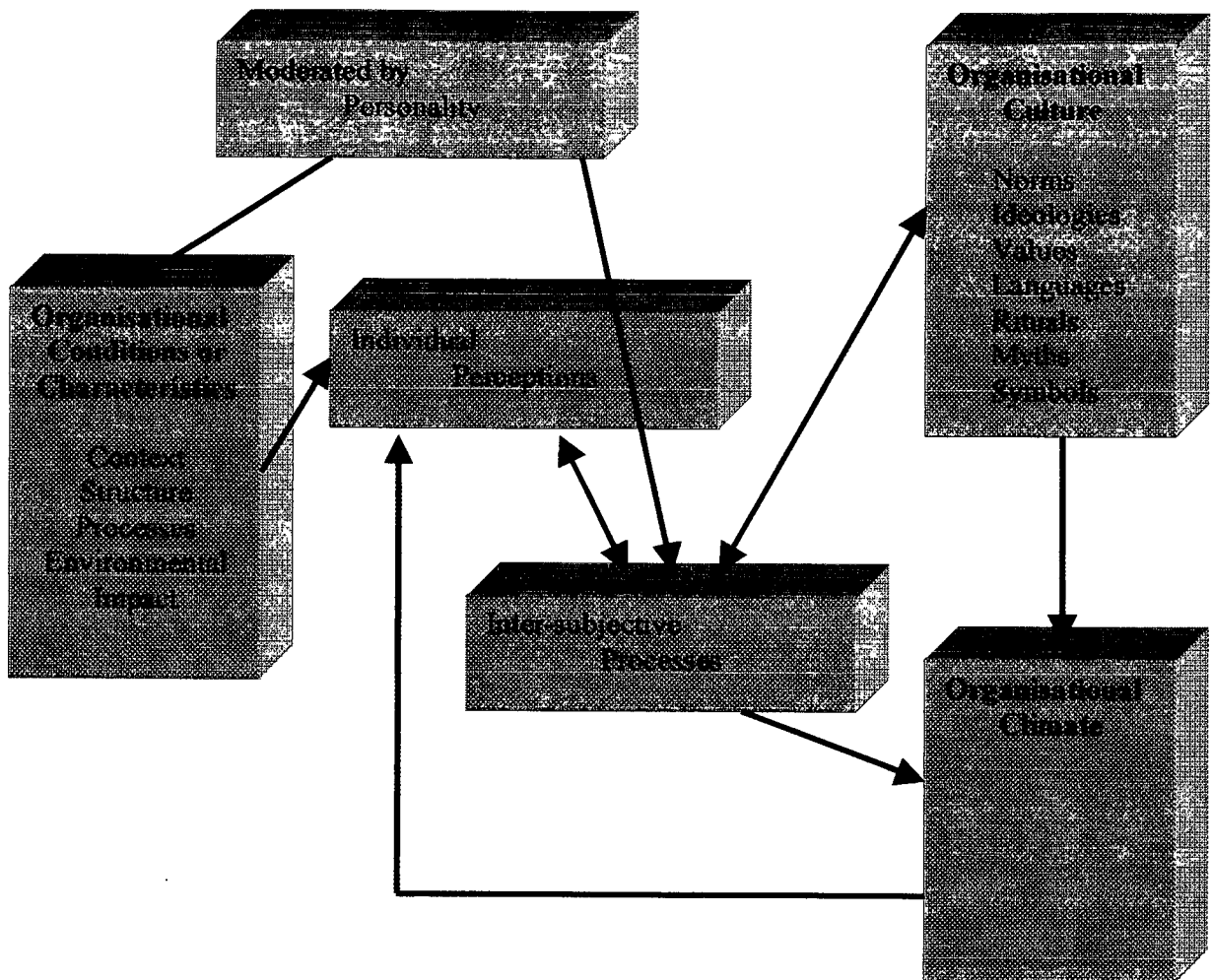


Fig. 3.4. Moran & Volkwein. (1992). The cultural approach. The cultural approach to the formation of organisational climate. p. 32.

As observed in Figure 3.4. the origin of climate according to the cultural approach shifts the focus away from individual perception as a source of climate formulation and emphasises the interaction of the organisations employees. However the cultural approach in addition underscores the critical role that the

organisations culture plays in shaping processes that produce organisational climate (Moran & Volkwein, 1992).

3.5. Definitional Problems Associated with the Concept

Organisational Climate

There are a number of predicaments associated with understanding and defining the concept organisational climate. Fink and Chen (1995) observe that the consistent theme throughout climate literature is a concern that researchers are overzealous to measure and analyse data about a concept that is not only ill-defined, but also lacking a consistent and comprehensively applied theoretical context.

The definition of organisational climate has been fraught with conceptual deficiencies and contradictory results.

- It is complicated to secure a universally accepted measure of the various climate dimensions of a particular organisation because of the different perceptions held by employees. The concept of organisational climate is to some extent in the eye of the beholder. Organisational climate must be analysed as trends in climate perceptions across individuals. If no trend exists the meaningfulness or the usefulness of the concept must be questioned (Steers & Porter, 1979).

- Researchers concur that the intellectual roots of climate research come from Gestalt psychology, but the sense of totality and dynamism of this approach has not been adequately captured (Fink & Chen, 1995).
- Researchers have relatively few problems in dealing with climate at the individual level, but there exists a certain degree of confusion in examining climate on the aggregate level (Fink & Chen, 1995).
- A problematic issue that is often raised with the climate construct is the cause and effect relationship involved. Do considerate managers aid to improve motivation or does improved employee motivation allow the supervisor to be more considerate? (Steers & Porter, 1979).
- The problem of "level". Is organisational climate an organisation wide occurrence or is it in actuality a department wide or even sub-department wide occurrence? If the immediate manager is considerate and open, but the supervisor is autocratic, what type of organisational climate exists? (Steers & Porter, 1979).

The approach to defining organisational climate necessitates a careful distinction between organisational culture and climate.

3.6. Difference's between Organisational Climate and Organisational Culture

The recent interest in organisational climate developed in part from research on organisational culture conducted during the 1970's, in which additional ways of understanding organisational life were developed (Brown, 1995). Organisational climate is used interchangeably with organisational culture and the definitions of climate and culture are applied synonymously, but organisational climate and culture are two separate concepts (Hoy et al., 1991; Schneider & Bowen, 1995). There is a difference between the concepts of organisational climate and organisational culture though there are definite overlapping parallels (Pietersen, 1991; Schneider, 1990).

Pietersen (1991) suggests that when distinguishing between these two conceptual ideas, it is vital to realise that culture is entrenched in an organisation on three levels:

- Level one (surface culture) refers to all tangible objects and phenomena such as records, physical assets, documents, technology, language, work procedures, rituals, methods of production, dress code and terms of address.
- Level two (intermediate culture) encompasses those phenomena which are partly observable and partly unobservable. Level two contains aspects of culture such as motivation, socialised norms, attitudes and shared values. The phenomena

characterising level two have a definite psychological existence. This existence lies in the fact that they guide and influence activities in the organisation.

- The last level (deep culture) encompasses those unconsciously held basic beliefs and assumptions about life.

Sherman, Bohlander & Chruden (1988) are of the opinion that organisational climate is concerned with the way in which employees perceive the characteristics of an organisational culture, while culture set the boundaries of behaviour. Climate has a direct effect on behaviour in an organisation while culture entails a study of the meaning of events in an organisation. An individual's attitude towards climate evaluation is the individual's reaction to the culture, not a description of the culture itself (Pietersen, 1991). Organisational culture seems to be a more comprehensive concept than organisational climate. Organisational climate slots into the intermediate level of culture. Consequently climate forms part of the less manifested and communicable aspects of an organisation (Pietersen, 1991). A helpful distinction is that climate is defined by shared perceptions of behaviour while culture consists of shared assumption and ideologies (Hoy, Tarter & Kottkamp, 1991). An individual's description of the organisation does not tell whether the employee considers it is a good place to work (Shockley-Zalabak, 1999).

Verwey (1990) expresses the fact that organisational culture manifests at the organisational level, and serves to create the contextual environment within which climate manifests at other levels, thereby enabling the organisation to adapt effectively to changes within the environment. Coetzee (1991) states that organisational culture is the shared assumptions, norms, beliefs, values and expectations of the members of the organisation. Organisational culture can be perceived by studying the organisation's history, ideologies, philosophy, symbols, myths, stories, sayings, organisational culture is verbal and non-verbal communication. Organisational professionals state that the culture of an organisation cannot be managed, but the change of the culture can be managed (Critchley, 1993).

Coetzee (1991), in contrast, sees organisational climate as the employee's perception of and attitude towards happenings in the organisation and the "temperature" prevailing among the employees within a given time frame. Organisational climate is seen as changeable, shorter term and relatively easy to change. According to Hoy et al. (1991), the two approaches emanate from different intellectual traditions. Denison (1990) believes that the debate about the difference between organisational climate and culture concerns the methodological differences that have managed to obscure basic substantive similarities. In conjunction with this, Tustin (1993) states that once the "what" of organisational climate has been distinguished, it will be easier to study the concept of organisational climate. Tustin (1993) and Verwey (1990) allude to the fact that the normal way of studying organisational climate is to aggregate the measures of the individual's perception of the organisational climate. However this method does not

reveal the individual perception of each of the individuals measured. Lim (1995) states that questionnaires are more valid and useful to measure organisational climate than organisational culture.

Organisational climate is characterised as a manifestation of culture. Climate and culture appear to address common phenomena (Denison, 1996; Schein, 1988). Denison (1990) stresses the point that only when individuals agree about the similarities of the two concepts can they delineate the differences between the concepts. Denison (1990) postulates the argument for the similarities between organisational climate and culture is based on three premises.

- Both organisational climate and organisational culture focus on organisational-level behaviour characteristics, which implies that organisational divisions are a viable level for the analysis of behaviour.
- Collectively these concepts cover a wide range of phenomena which range from deeply held assumptions to behaviour that is rooted in these assumptions.
- Organisational climate and culture have a similar problem with explaining how the behavioural characteristics of a system influence the individual in an organisation and how individuals influence the behaviour of the organisation.

According to Brink (1996), an analysis of the literature on organisational climate and culture implies that the concepts cannot be viewed as mutually exclusive. Organisational climate and culture influence each other. Moran and Volkwein (1992) claim that while organisational climate and culture may be conceptually distinct, both the constructs are related though the influence an organisation's culture exerts on forming an organisation's climate. Climate is an individual construct that displays a point of reference based on personal values (James, James, & Asche, 1990; van Vianen & Prins, 1997). Culture is a shared phenomenon within a group and is difficult to measure due to its embedded nature (Schein, 1985).

In summary if the aim of research is to describe the behaviour of the employees in the organisation, with the intent to manage and change the behaviour then a climate approach seems more desirable. Researchers of climate utilise quantitative techniques and multivariate analyses to identify patterns of perceived behaviour in organisations (Glick, 1985; Xenikou & Furnham, 1996). Climate researchers assume that organisations are rational instruments to accomplish purpose, thus they search for rational patterns. The goal of studying climate is to determine effective strategies of change (Hunsaker & Cook, 1986).

In contrast, scholars of organisational culture tend to make use of the qualitative and ethnographic techniques of anthropology and sociology to examine the character or atmosphere of organisations (Glick, 1985). Culture researchers assume that the culture of

an organisation is a natural outgrowth of a particular time and place and as such culture is not responsive to attempts at manipulation and change (Hoy, Tarter & Kottkamp, 1991).

3.7. Characteristics of Climate Perceptions

According to Rousseau (1988), since the early use to characterise employee perceptions of their organisations, climate has been a central concept in organisational research. Climate focuses on perceptions that are critical to virtually all models in organisational behaviour that seek to explain behaviour (e.g. motivation).

The impact of organisational and other contextual characteristics on individual response are mediated by individual perceptions of the situation. Rentsch (1990) states that continued study of meaning in organisations is likely to yield even greater understanding of behaviour in organisations because an individual's behaviour is based on their interpretations of or the meaning they attach to situations. Thus, climate perceptions summarise an individual's description of organisational experiences rather than the affective or evaluative reaction to what has been experienced. Although description cannot be completely detached from evaluation, the distinction between descriptive and evaluative feedback to organisational experiences distinguish climate from job satisfaction. Climate perceptions tend to be stable over time and tend to be widely shared by the members of the relevant organisational unit. Finally, various climates may exist within the same organisation since organisational life can be perceptually diverse for members at different organisational levels, different locations, or in different units within the same location (Koys & DeCotis, 1991).

The following conclusions are justified by a number of investigations and writings conducted by Litwin and Stringer (1968) and Pritchard and Karasick (in Milton, 1981):

- Organisations of any size or complexity may have several climates. Every relatively homogenous sub-unit should be examined separately and remedial measures tailored to that unit.
- Top, middle and lower levels of management perceive climate differently. This is another way of partitioning an organisation into different homogenous groups.
- Organisations do have organisational climates that differ from one another.
- The field and laboratory studies of the organisations previously surveyed indicate that climate influences the predictability of motivation (Milton, 1981).

Perceptions are necessary to understand both the behaviour of individuals and the processes characteristic of their organisations (Cooper & Robertson, 1988).

3.8. Types of Climate

3.8.1. Psychological Climate

According to Cooper and Robertson (1988), psychological climate is essentially unaggregated individual perceptions of their environment. It is the individual's cognitive representation of an organisation which is composed of the set of attitudes and beliefs that reflect each individual's perceptions of the prevalent values, norms and expectations in the organisational environment (Fink & Chen, 1995). Climate evolves from perceptual interaction between the individual and the situation and serves as an information source to the individual in the formulation of expectation, affective responses and instructional behaviour towards the organisational situation that is perceived (Verwey, 1990).

Psychological climate reflects how individuals organise their experiences of their environment shaped by inter alia, individual thinking styles, cognitive processes, personality, culture and social interactions. Due to the fact that psychological climate represents an internal state of the individual, it is only of importance to the organisation once it becomes externalised in the form of behaviour (Verwey, 1990). Studying dimensions of psychological climate may reveal important aspects of the relationship between the employee and the organisation that are related to greater work motivation.

Childre and Cryer (1998) propose six dimensions of a workplace's psychological climate:

- Supportive Management: The extent to which individuals feel supported by their immediate manager.
- Clarity: The degree of clarity about what is expected of an individual.
- Contribution: The feeling that an individual's contribution is worthwhile.
- Recognition: The feeling that the individual's contribution is recognised and appreciated.
- Self-expression: Feeling free to question the way things are done.
- Challenge: The feeling that the work is challenging.

Each of these is considered to be an indicator of how psychologically meaningful the employee perceives the organisational environment to be. Childre and Cryer (1998) propose the following model in their study of organisational climate (Fig. 3.5.).

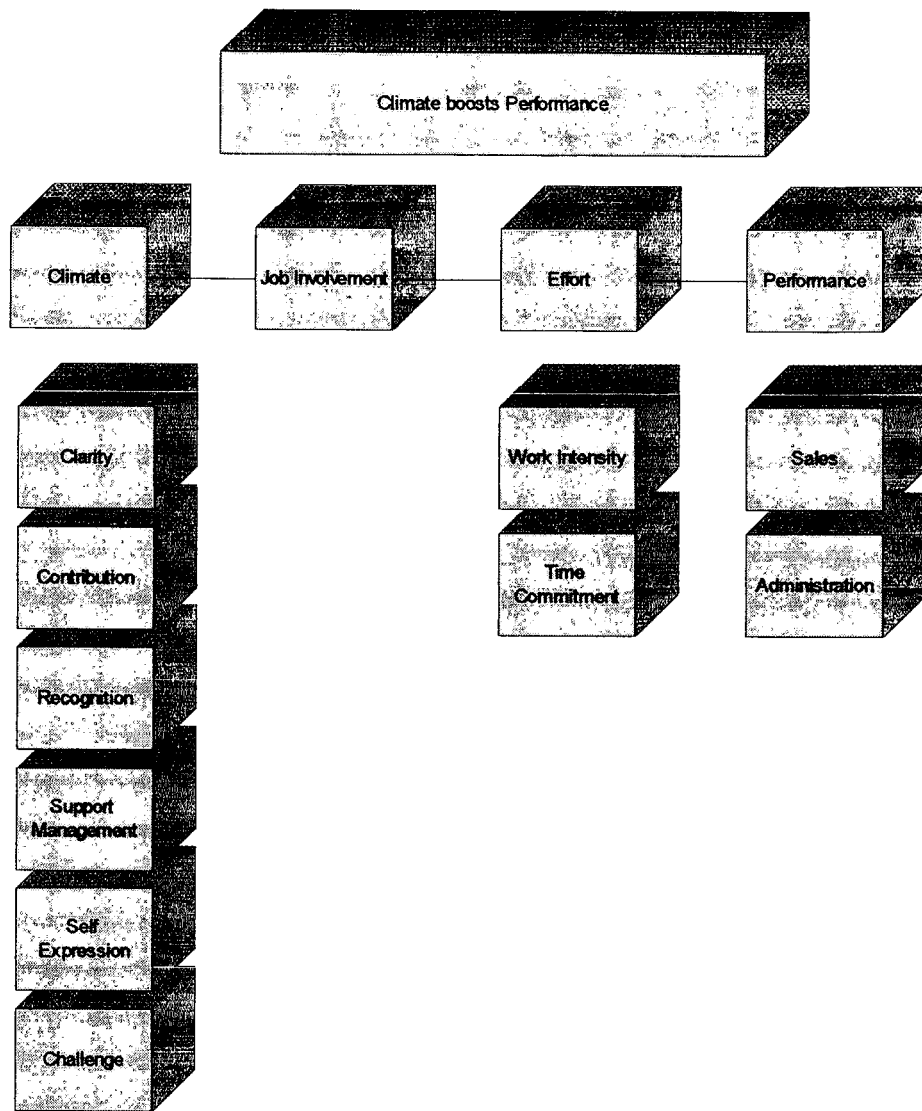


Fig. 3.5. Childre & Cryer. (1988). Climate boosts performance. Advancing emotional and organisational intelligence through inner quality management. p. 3.

In terms of Figure 3.5., when employees perceive management as supportive and they feel free to express themselves, feel that they are making a meaningful contribution, are appropriately recognised for their contribution, perceive the work as challenging and the

work roles are well defined then the employees will be motivated to exert greater effort in their jobs (Childre & Cryer, 1995).

3.8.2. Aggregate Climate

Aggregate climate is an individual's perceptions, averaged at some formal hierarchical level (e.g. workgroup, department, division, plant and organisation). Aggregate climate can be viewed as a frame of reference, which serves to help the individual interpret organisational experiences in order to react towards it in an appropriate manner (Verwey, 1990). Aggregated climates are constructed based on membership of individuals, in some identifiable unit of the formal organisation and within-unit agreement or consensus in perceptions (Cooper & Robertson, 1988). Aggregate climate is of importance to the organisation since it is on this level that climate changes from being a psychological phenomenon that represents the internal state of the individual, to being a collective phenomenon that is shared through social interaction (Verwey, 1990).

3.8.3. Collective Climate

Amalgamating the individual's perception of situational factors and combining these into clusters reflecting similar climate scores characterise collective climate. Collective climates emerge from agreement between individuals regarding their perception of behavioural contexts. Collective climates are composites of individuals for whom situations have common stimulus values (Verwey, 1990). Situational and personal factors have been considered as predictors of cluster membership, but personal factors such as

work experience, age, management and time in position account for some clusters, while situational factors, functional area, location and shift account for others (Cooper & Roberston, 1988). In terms of collective climate, interactions are postulated to play a substantial role in determining shared perceptions (Cooper & Robertson, 1988).

3.8.4. Organisational Climate

Organisational climate is characterised by a set of attitudes and beliefs relating to the organisation that is shared and collectively held by employees as a whole (Fink & Chen, 1995). It is an organisational attribute and represents the equilibrium position toward which all the psychological climates are seen to tend. In other instances organisational climate can be argued as a real organisational attribute (e.g. technology or structure) as opposed to something "psychological". Treating climate as a real thing to be encountered and experienced means that individuals report climate not as subjects or respondents, but as informants. Organisational climate reflects an insider's orientation, as opposed to an outsiders analytic categories (Cooper and Robertson, 1988). Louw and Edwards (1995) state that organisational climate covers aspects that include employment practices, management philosophy and organisational goals.

The group of which the individual is a member, the task the individual needs to perform, as well as the individual's personality moderate the link between organisational and psychological climates. A cognitive map climate is then created from the individual's psychological map which serves to filter future incoming information and therefore has a feedback effect on the psychological climate of the member. Furthermore, a cognitive

map allows individuals to construct expectations and instrumentalities, which are then related to the individual's job behaviour including motivation, performance and satisfaction. The abilities and personality of the individual have an influence on these relationships (Field & Abelson, 1982).

3.8.4.1. Different Types of Organisational Climate

Litwin and Stringer (1968) define three different types of organisational climate

- Power motivated climate.
- Affiliation orientated climate.
- Performance orientated climate.

The power motivated climate specifies that decision making is done on the higher levels, communication activities are well described and employees can use very little or no discretion in decision making (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). Power orientated climates are appropriate in organisations where the work is highly routine and repetitive (Nasser, 1975).

Nasser (1975) provides the following guidelines for the creation of a power-orientated climate:

- Provide extensive structure.
- Allow individuals to obtain positions of responsibility, high status and influence.

- Encourage the use of formal authority as a basis for resolving conflict and disagreement.

The affiliation-orientated climate focuses on the development of good work relationships and management play an advisory role in decision-making (Litwin & Stringer, 1968).

Litwin and Stringer (1968) provide guidelines for management to create an affiliation-orientated climate:

- Allow the development of warm close relationships.
- Provide support and encouragement for the employees.
- Provide considerable freedom and very little structure or constraints.
- Give the employee the feeling of acceptance in terms of a family group.

Affiliation-orientated climate will be appropriate where close relationships are demanded for effective job functioning. In large organisations, where competent and motivated employees are working together but where some non-coercive means for generating organisational cohesion and team spirit is required, an affiliative climate may be appropriate (Nasser, 1975).

Lastly in the performance-orientated climate participative objectives are set. High levels of performance expectations are communicated to employees as well as feedback on their performance (Litwin & Stringer, 1968).

According to Nasser (1975) the following steps can be taken to create an achievement-orientated organisational climate:

- Emphasise personal responsibility.
- Allow calculated risks.
- Give recognition and reward performance.
- Create the impression that the employee is part of a successful team.
- Structure (rules, procedures and formal communication channels). The structure must be no more than moderate.

Achievement-orientated climates are appropriate in areas that demand employee initiative and calculated risk-taking, and in organisations seeking rapid growth in a changing environment (Nasser, 1975).

3.9. Nature of Organisational Climate

Organisational climate as viewed in Figure 3.6. is a perceptual interpretation of how well organisational and managerial practices fit or match employee needs, values, goals and expectations at a juncture in time. Researchers identify climate as an intervening variable between organisational practices and individual experiences. The attitude reflected in organisational climates mediates the influence of organisational characteristics on performance, motivation and satisfaction outcomes (Hunsaker & Cook, 1986).

The individual's needs, incentives and expectancies are frustrated or satisfied by the perception of various aspects of the work environment. Experienced motivation tends to

lead to behavioural outcomes, absenteeism, accidents, quality of work and quantity of work.

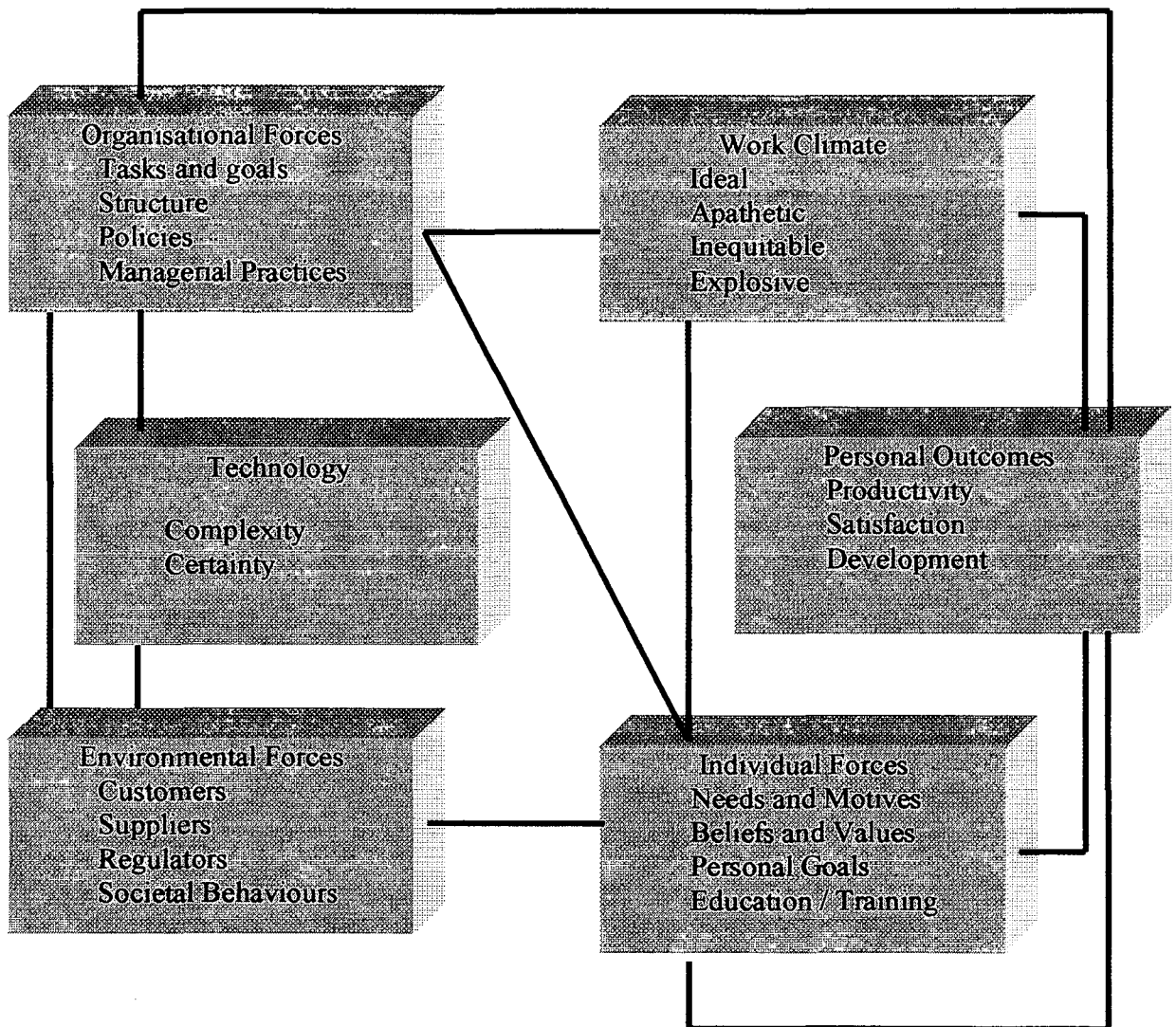


Fig. 3.6. Hunsaker & Cook. (1986). Work Climate Mediates the Impact of Organisational Forces on Work Outcomes. Managing organisational behaviour.

p. 553.

3.10. A Model of Organisational Climate

Field and Abelson (1982) present a model as observed in Figure 3.7. of climate that focuses on three main classes of variables that influence organisational climate.

- External influences of the physical and socio-cultural environments affect the climate of an organisation both directly and through the effects on the organisation.
- Organisational variables also affect climate directly and indirectly through the actions of employees.
- The third class of variables affecting climate is the individual influences of employees.

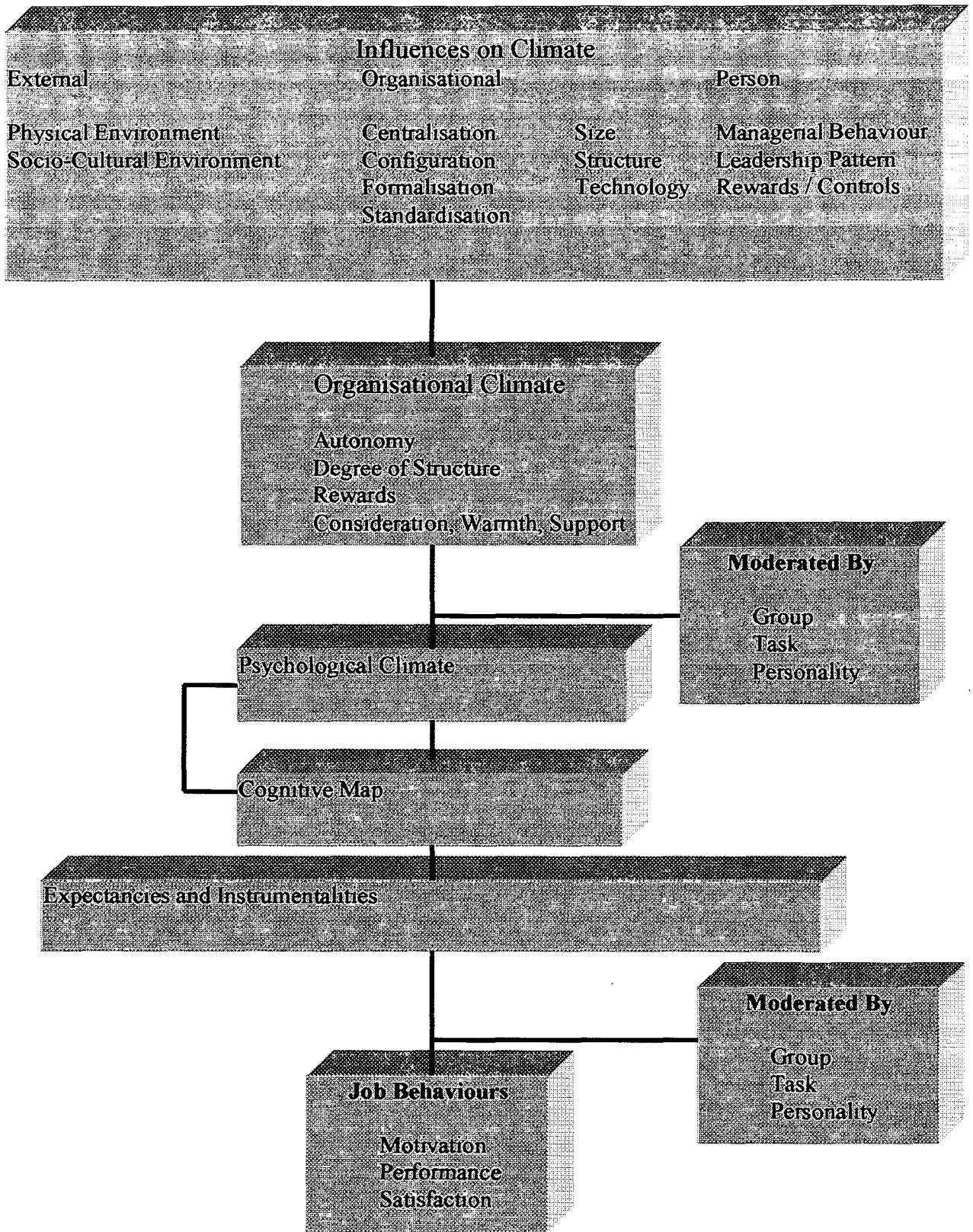


Figure 3.7. Field & Abelson. (1982). A Climate Model. *Human Relations*, p.183.

A distinction can be drawn between the dimensions and determinants of organisational climate. Dimensions are the factors (or components) of climate, while the determinants are the causes of climate (DuBrin, 1984).

3.11. Dimensions of Organisational Climate

Many measures of climate were developed in the 1960's and 1970's and changes in organisations continue to direct the developments of new dimensions. The following dimensions regularly appear as independent proportions of organisational climate and suggest its content, as well as stressing that it is multi-dimensional concept: interpersonal warmth and support, concern for conforming versus personal autonomy, concern for being progressive and innovative, punishing versus rewarding orientation and concern for achievement (Nicholson, Schuler & Van de Ven, 1995).

Organisational climate can be characterised by the nature of the employee–organisation relationship and the superior–subordinate relationship. These relationships are determined by interactions among goals and objectives, formal structure, styles of leadership, the process of management and the behaviour of individuals (Mullins, 1996). Specialised measures of organisational climate have also been produced; an example of these specialised climates is a service climate and safety climate (Nicholson et al, 1995).

Litwin and Stringer (1968) purport that dimensions are subjective and perceptive in nature; hence there may be a variety of organisational climate dimensions differing from organisation to organisation. Dimensions such as leadership, management functions,

leader facilitation, support and managerial trust and consideration are seen as part of the non-standardised set of organisational climate dimensions used by organisations should they prefer to use them (Gavin & Howe, 1975).

3.11.1. Litwin and Stringer's Climate Dimensions

Litwin and Stringer (1968) developed an organisational climate questionnaire to measure organisational members perception in six different areas:

- **Structure**

Perception of the extent of organisational rules and regulations.

- **Individual responsibility**

Feelings of autonomy amongst employees.

- **Rewards**

Feelings related to being confident of adequate and appropriate rewards, praise, recognition for doing a job well.

- **Risk and risk taking**

Perceptions of the degree of challenge and risk in the work situation.

- **Warmth and support**

Feelings of good fellowship and helpfulness existing in a work setting.

- **Tolerance and conflict**

Degree of confidence that the climate can tolerate various opinions.

These dimensions proved to distinguish among diverse organisational subunits and have been incorporated into a number of experimental studies (Steers & Porter, 1979).

3.11.2. Schneider and Bartlet's Organisational Climate

Dimensions

A broader and more systematic study of climate dimensions was conducted by Schneider and Bartlet. Six organisational climate dimensions emerged from this study (Steers & Porter, 1979).

- **Managerial support**

Managerial support is the active interest managers take in the progress of their employees in maintaining a spirit of friendly co-operation.

- **Managerial structure**

Managers requiring their employees to adhere to budgets, and produce new customers.

- **Concern for employees**

Most of the items in the questionnaire are concerned with selection orientation and training of new employees.

- **Employee independence**

These items describe employees who tend to run their own businesses and do not pay attention to management.

- **Intra-agency conflict**

The presence of in - groups or out - groups within an employer and the undercutting of managerial authority by the employees.

- **General satisfaction**

Refers to the extent to which the employer sponsors periodic social get-togethers and the employees express satisfaction with various management and employee activities (Steers & Porter, 1979).

The organisational climate dimensions derived in the above two efforts are inadequate to generalise across the perceptions of all individuals in the organisation (Steers & Porter, 1979).

3.11.3. Nash's Organisational Climate Dimensions

Nash (1983) identified eight dimensions of organisational climate. High and low scores achieved on the given factor for the eight dimensions on the questionnaire have specific implications for the organisation.

- **Organisational clarity**

Organisational clarity is the understanding of the organisation's goals and plans by the employees. When the employees perceive the companies mission, processes, objectives and activities as a purposeful, rational and fully communicated (Nash, 1983). In this type of setting, employees experience these characteristics as unifying experiences that enhance cooperation. Organisational clarity is enhanced by the use of planning and goal setting to provide a clear context for performance (Nash, 1983).

- **Decision-making structure**

Measures the nature of the flow of information through an organisation. Decision-making refers to the process of rationally selecting a course of action from a group of alternatives and then implementing and analytically evaluating that choice (Nash, 1983).

- **Organisational integration**

The extent to which various subunits cooperate and communicate to achieve an organisational objective is referred to as organisational integration (Nash, 1983).

- **Management style**

The pattern of delegated authority throughout a company and employee's perception of constraints and freedom is known as management style. Management style measures the degree to which employees feel encouraged to use their own initiative and to question authority and how much collaboration they sense from higher levels of management (Nash, 1983).

- **Performance orientation**

Performance orientation is the degree of importance placed on the accountability for clearly defined end results and high levels of accomplishment (Nash, 1983).

- **Organisational vitality**

This dimension refers to the way in which employees see the organisation as dynamic and responsive to change, with innovative decisions and venturesome goals (Nash, 1983).

- **Compensation**

Compensation refers to the acuity about the rewards available and how they are perceived. Are the rewards seen as equitable, competitive and related to performance (Nash, 1983).

- **Human resource development**

The extent to which employees perceive opportunities within an organisation and the extent that will allow employees to develop to their full potential (Nash, 1983).

3.11.4. Koys and DeCotis' Organisational Climate Dimensions

Koys and DeCotis' (1991) identified eight organisational climate dimensions

- **Autonomy**

The individual's freedom to exercise responsibility, independence, and initiative as well as their self-determination with respect to work procedures, goals, and priorities is referred to as autonomy (Greenberg & Baron, 2000; Koys & DeCotis, 1991). A study conducted by Shadur, Kienzle and Rodwell (1999), using a sample

of 269 employees of an information technology company has found evidence that employee involvement practices create a strong organisational climate.

- **Degree of structure**

The degree of structure refers to the feeling that employees have about the constraints in a group, rules, regulations, procedures there are and also include whether there is an emphasis on red tape and bureaucracy. Organisational theorists concur that there is no consensus on what makes up the term organisational structure. Theorists agree on the dimensions of organisational structure but disagree on any operational definitions of organisational structure and whether a dimension is primary or can be subsumed under any larger dimension (Robbins, 1990).

- **Reward/Recognition**

The degree to which the organisation rewards an individual for a job well done (James & Sells, 1981). In addition rewards or recognition refer to the perceived equity of the recognition and the advancement policy of the organisation (Dippenaar & Roodt, 1996).

- **Trust**

Trust is seen by individuals in the organisation as a freedom to communicate openly with members at higher organisational levels about sensitive or personal issues with the hope that the integrity of such sensitive issues will not be violated (Joyce & Slocum, 1984).

- **Cohesion**

Cohesion is the perception of togetherness and sharing within the organisational setting, including the willingness of members to provide material aid (Koys and DeCotis, 1991).

- **Pressure**

The way individuals perceive time demands in relation to task completion and performance standards is referred to as pressure (Koys & DeCotis, 1991).

- **Warmth and Support**

Warmth and support reflect the perception of tolerance of members by management, which include the willingness that employees learn from mistakes without fear of victimisation or reprisal (James & Sells, 1981). Support refers to the perceived assistance that management and other employees in the organisation offer to each other, with emphasis on an equitable exchange between management and employees (Dippenaar & Roodt, 1996).

- **Fairness and innovation**

If employees perceive organisational practices as equitable and unbiased, such perception is regarded as fair. When employees perceive that change and creativity are encouraged, as well as risk-taking initiated, this perception is regarded as innovation (Koys & DeCotis, 1991).

For the purposes of this study, Koys and DeCotis' (1991) dimensions of organisational climate will be utilised.

3.12. Dimensional Interrelationships

Dippenaar and Roodt (1996) stress the point that the dimensions of organisational climate are not independent. Although the concept climate denotes the internal characteristics of an organisation, climate is partially a product of the environment (Milton, 1981; Sherman & Bohlander, 1992). As an open system, the organisation is influenced by various elements including.

- **Economical**

The economical element is determined by the organisations financial condition.

- **Political**

Associated with the influence from within the organisation and is related to the social element. Includes the influences which are not supported by formal authority.

- **Social**

Includes elements of the attitudes and behaviours of all employees within an organisation.

- **Technological factors**

The processes, job equipment and the layout of the work-station (Wilson & Wagner, 1997).

Manning (1987) singles out communication, whilst Ball and Asbury (1990) single out a participative leadership approach, as the primary factors involved in forming a positive organisational climate. The study conducted by Piscopo (1994) supports the assumption that communication is an important determinant of organisational climate. These dimensions are important, however, but not more important than the other dimensions.

Schneider and Reichers (1983) indicate that different work settings have different climates for specific things such as safety, production, service, security and quality. For the purpose of this study, four factors appear common in the research conducted to determine the dimensions of organisational climate:

- Autonomy.
- Structure.
- General reward level.
- Warmth and support (Steers & Porter, 1979).

3.13. Determinants of Organisational Climate

The nature of the climate of an organisation is determined by a variety of internal and external factors. Figure 3.8. gives an overview these determinants. However, organisational climate is a function of how climate is perceived, not an objective reality (Milton, 1981).

Determinants of climate:

✿ • Economic conditions

Different climates develop according to the organisation's position in the economic cycle. In times of prosperity, organisations tend to be more adventurous, money is available and organisations tend to take risks into new ventures and new programmes. Conversely, tight budgets contribute to an atmosphere of caution and conservatism within an organisation. Few managers are willing to suggest new programmes of potential merit when authorisation from senior management calls for tight control over expenses (DuBrin, 1984).

• Leadership style

A key influence on climate is the leadership style in an organisation (DuBrin, 1984). Sekaran (2000) identifies three forms of leadership styles, namely autocratic leadership, democratic leadership and laissez-faire leadership.

According to Gerber et al. (1999), managerial leadership and supervision have an important impact on the motivation of employees.

* • **Organisational policies**

Specific organisational policies can influence organisational climate. Policies specify a particular and specific behaviour, enabling individuals to exercise discretion within a limited confine. Employees acquire an organisations implied policies by observing and imitating the actions of co-employees (Robbins, 1990). For example, a company policy that states that layoffs will be used only as a last resort to cope with business downturn, may contribute to an internal environment that is supportive and humanistic (DuBrin, 1984).

* • **Managerial values**

The personal motivational level of key managers often sets the tone for the climate in the organisation (Kolb, Rubin & McIntyre, 1979). Values held by executives have a deep-seated influence on organisational climate since values lead to action and shape decisions. Values lead to perceptions of the organisation such as paternalistic, informal, formal, impersonal, hostile or friendly (DuBrin, 1984).

• Organisational structure

The design or structure of an organisation influences the perception of its internal environment, and plays a role in the motivation of employees (DuBrin, 1984). Organisational structure determines how tasks are to be allocated, who reports to whom, and the formal coordinating mechanisms and interaction patterns that will be pursued (Robbins, 1990). Organisational structure is the perception of the employees in relation to the number of rules, regulations and procedures and the prominence of officious red tape in contrast to a more informal atmosphere (Dippenaar & Roodt, 1996).

• Characteristics of members

An organisation's climate can be influenced by the personal characteristics of its employees. Organisations with a high proportion of older, less educated and less upwardly mobile members will have a climate different from an organisation with many younger, well educated and ambitious members (DuBrin, 1984). A study conducted by Hershberger, Lichtenstein and Knox (1994) examined heredity and human development as factors in creating an organisational climate. They utilised the Work Environmental Scale (WES) to evaluate perceptions of organisational climate and deduced that there was no genetic predictors for job satisfaction.

- **Nature of the business**

An organisation's basic mission or basic business is an influential determinant of organisational climate. The nature of the business is not an isolated variable; it influences many other organisational characteristics such as policies, leadership style and characteristics of the employees (DuBrin, 1984).

- ✧ **Organisational size**

Even if an organisation produces the same goods or service, the size of the organisation has an effect on its organisational climate (DuBrin, 1984). Research has shown that organisational size is related positively to specialisation, formalisation and vertical span and negatively to centralisation of the organisation (Robbins, 1990). Further research has proven that larger organisations have more rules, more documentation, are more specialised and have a greater decentralisation of decision making at a greater distance down the organisation's hierarchy (Robbins, 1990).

- **Organisational life stage**

An organisation's position in its life cycle has an effect on its organisational climate. Newly created organisations tend to be less formal and smaller, while mature organisations tend to be larger and more formal (DuBrin, 1984). The

organisations must have the ability to adapt during different points in the organisations life stage (Kolb et al., 1979).

It is vital to realise that outside environmental forces influence events within any organisation, a collection of societal forces aid in shaping an organisation's climate, including:

- **Rising educational levels**

As the educational levels of present and future employees increase, so the expectations of these employees for satisfying and fulfilling work increases. Jobs are gradually re-designed to meet these expectations; the internal environment of an organisation shows a corresponding shift toward an increased atmosphere of professionalism (DuBrin, 1984).

- ✱ • **Diversity of the work force**

Organisational climate has shifted as more women and previously disadvantaged individuals have entered into professional and managerial jobs within organisations (Bendix, 1996). The internal environment of an organisation where one cultural group occupies virtually all the management-level jobs has a climate different from that of a more diverse organisation (DuBrin, 1984).

- **Technological advances**

Technological advances affect the organisational climate of an organisation both positively through perceptions such as modern, exciting, dynamic and negatively such as dehumanising, sterile and impersonal (DuBrin, 1984).

- **Union contracts**

Among the various provisions of union contracts that influence organisations are those dealing with rewards systems and job design. A union that supports and encourages merit pay and job enrichment contributes to a distinctive organisational climate than a union that impedes these practices (DuBrin, 1984). Another factor affecting the organisational climate is the organisation's treatment of unions. One organisation may establish a relatively agreeable relationship with a union, while another may persistently disapprove of unions as a matter of principle (Bendix, 1996).

- **Government regulations**

Regulations imposed by government on organisations tend to decrease the organisations options; each major regulation has a different influence on climate (DuBrin, 1984). Legislation may be established for the peaceful resolution of conflict between parties, delimit the rights of both parties and attempt to correct

perceived imbalances, which exist (Bendix, 1996). Laws about employment discrimination, safety and health and product liability all have their own impact on climate (DuBrin, 1984).

- **Attractiveness of non-work**

It may prove to be more difficult to motivate some employees on the job, as societal values towards educational and recreational activities increase. As their passion for non-work increases, they become less passionate about job performance. Organisations would need to bolster the potency of their reinforcers or offer more non-work related rewards for good performance. A firm with many leisure-orientated employees will thus have a climate different from an organisation with a higher proportion of work-orientated employees (DuBrin, 1984).

3.14. Characteristics of Organisational Climate

Mullins (1996) states that each organisation will have its own different and distinctive features. The normative climate of an organisation reflects the history of its internal and external struggles; its work processes and physical layout, patterns of communication, type of individuals employed and the exercise of authority (Carnall, 1990). Distinctive features of collective feeling and beliefs will be passed on to new group members. If organisational climate is seen as a set of conditions that exist and have an impact on the individuals' behaviour within the organisation then an organisation, which encourages

open and constructive conflict, as well as the recognition of individual needs, will be an effective organisation with a positive organisational climate (Carnall, 1990). Carnall (1990) stipulates that the prerequisites for effective organisations are lack of status differentials, innovation, sharing of responsibility, collaboration, expression of feelings and needs, open and constructive conflict, feedback, flexible leadership, involvement and trust. These factors play a role in enhancing organisational climate.

Several researchers have described and investigated specific characteristics of organisational climate. These findings are presented below.

- **Motivation**

Knobbs (1975) applies the seven factors that Gelfand (1972) lists to a study on the effect that the managerial styles of managers of a large gold mine have on the organisational climate of that mine, with specific reference to motivation. One of the conclusions reached is that although organisational climate is perceived differently at various levels in the organisation, there is a positive attitude regarding the actions that are deemed to enhance organisational climate. These actions contributing to the enhancement of organisational climate are perceived by the employees as motivators.

- **Perception**

Various researchers define organisational climate as the individual's perception of the organisation. Moussavi, Jones and Cronan (1990) examine whether individual variables and position variables of interest would qualify as determinants of an individual's perception of organisational climate. These researchers suggest that for a specific perception of organisational climate to exist, these same perceptions needed to exist within the work unit. Moussavi et al. (1990) postulate that variables of organisational climate are supervisory style, task characteristics, performance–reward relationships, co-worker relationships, employee competence, decision-making policy, physical setting and pressure to produce.

- **Affiliation**

Affiliation is described as the degree to which the employee feels part of the organisation and is one of the criteria for measuring organisational climate (Knobbs, 1975). To examine the possibility of a cognitive approach to organisational climate, Dippenaar and Roodt (1992) scrutinises organisational climate as a predictor of organisational affiliation, indicating three factors evidencing a positive correlation namely remuneration, standards and identity.

- **Heredity and human development**

Heredity and human development as factors in creating an organisational climate create an interesting perspective that researchers do not often encounter. Hershberger, Lichtenstein and Knox (1994) made use of the Swedish Adoption/Twin Study of Ageing (SATSA) to research the environmental and genetic influences on perceptions of organisational climate. These researchers measured job satisfaction to evaluate the effects of genes and environment on attitudes to work and deduced that there were no genetic predictors for job satisfaction.

- **Communication**

An important dimension of organisational climate is that of communication, and numerous organisational climate studies have been conducted in this regard (Verwey, 1990). Coetsee and Pottas Zyl (1990) investigated the relationship of communication to organisational climate and behaviour by analysing the factor structure of an organisational diagnostic questionnaire. These researchers concluded that communication was statistically significant for 26 of the 27 factors of organisational behaviour measured by the Organisasie Diagnose Vraelys – 86 (ODV). Their research confirms that communication plays a major role in any organisation, as well as in the development of the organisations climate. Verwey (1988) examined the effects of communication and its effects on organisational climate in a formally structured

organisation in South Africa. Verwey (1988) found that a more formal communication structure was more effective in a formal structured organisation because the employees perceived the communication as effective. This perception gave rise to a more positive perception of organisational climate.

Verwey (1988) discusses the patterns of influence between organisational communication, organisational climate and organisational behaviour. Verwey (1988) refers to the effect of communication on motivation and various other factors, and states that communication has an effect on these factors. A positive effect can be created by effective communication; in contrast a negative effect can be created by ineffective communication.

Van Vuuren (1989) states that the attitude of management towards communication and the effect of communication on organisational climate should be addressed during a positive and effective employee induction programme. Manning (1988) agrees that communication is important for an effective organisational climate, but the method of communication cannot be ignored. Therefore the induction programme should be constructed in a way that promotes a positive attitude, which in turn should lead to a positive organisational climate (Van Vuuren, 1989).

- **Staff attitudes**

Another important aspect of organisational climate is that of staff attitudes. Meyer (1988) states that organisational climate and staff attitudes have a reciprocal relationship, and that these attitudes are seen to influence every aspect of the organisational climate.

These characteristics of organisational climate will serve to promote work motivation amongst employees. A healthy organisational climate is proven to boost productivity and the creation of this climate includes supportive management, contribution, self-expression, recognition and challenge (Childre & Cryer, 1998).

3.15. The Importance of a Healthy Organisational Climate

Mullins (1985) is of the opinion that climate will influence the level of morale and attitudes which employees of the organisation bring to bear on their work performance and personal relationships. When morale is low and feelings of frustration or alienation are found to exist, it is important that positive action is taken to remedy the causes.

The question is posed what constitutes a positive and successful organisational climate? One criterion that differentiates a positive climate from a negative climate is participation in management. An effective climate emphasises achievement, a sense of individual responsibility and personal goal setting (Nash, 1983). Carnall (1990) states that

involvement of employees in the decision-making processes promotes a positively perceived organisational climate, while Armstrong (1992) states that if all employees are involved, it promotes a positive perception of organisational climate. Research conducted by Lotter (1994) states that a favourable organisational climate can contribute towards the promotion of organisational efficiency and the quality of work-life of personnel.

According to Mullins (1989), a healthy organisational climate might be expected to exhibit characteristic features such as:

- The integration of organisational goals and personal goals.
- A flexible structure with a network of authority, control and communications and with autonomy for individual members.
- Styles of leadership appropriate to a particular work situation.
- Mutual trust, consideration and support among different levels of the organisation.
- Recognition of individual differences and attributes and of individual's needs and expectations at work.
- Attention to job design and the quality of working life.
- Challenging and responsible jobs with high performance standards
- Equitable systems of rewards based on positive reinforcement.
- Opportunities for personal development, career progression and advancement.
- Justice in treatment and fair personnel and industrial relations policies and practices.
- The open discussion of conflict with emphasis on the settlement of differences without delay or confrontation.

- Democratic functioning of the organisation with full opportunities for genuine consultation and participation.
- A sense of identity with and loyalty to the organisation and a feeling of being a needed and important member of the organisation.

An organisation is unlikely to attain optimum operational performance unless the climate evokes a spirit of co-operation throughout the organisation and is conducive to motivating members to work willingly and effectively (Mullins, 1996). The factors which contribute to a healthy organisational climate, high morale and motivation, is the degree to which employees have a sense of duty to the organisation. In a study using the Improved climate questionnaire, designed by Litwin and Stringer (1968), reward was an important predictor of improved climate and one of the most important dimensions of climate. Feeling and concerns about compensation are vital factors in climate. The poorer the organisation's climate, the more the employees are likely to demand more money, suggesting that compensation tends to be either a cause or a symptom of pervasive dissatisfaction (Nash, 1983).

Hunsaker and Cook (1986) contend that skilled management of work climate can do much to enhance worker performance, motivation, satisfaction and adaptability. Knowledge of organisational climate is necessary in understanding why employees behave differently to responses in organisations (Tustin, 1993). It is through the creation of an effective organisation climate that managers can manage the motivation of employees. Organisational effectiveness can be increased by creating an organisational

climate that satisfies member's needs while channeling their motivated behaviour towards organisational goals (Kolb et al., 1979). Fink and Chen (1995) maintain that the study of climate represents one of the major efforts to explain the behaviour of individuals in certain molar characteristics of the organisation. Most organisational climate researchers are interested in organisational members' perceptions of certain properties of their work environment.

According to Rentsch (1990) climate researchers have used primarily quantitative methods. One assumption of climate theory is that organisational members perceive and make sense of organisational policies, practices and procedures in psychologically meaningful terms. These policies, practices and procedures are considered to be objective properties of the organisation and exist in lasting patterns. Organisational members perceive events in the organisation that include organisational policies, practices and procedures, as well as specific occurrences (Reichers & Schneider, 1990). They then interpret and attach meaning to these events in order to make sense of the workplace (Rentsch, 1990).

3.16. Toward an Integrated Theory

Litwin and Stringer (1968) state the opinion that if organisational climate is to demonstrate real value in understanding and explaining behaviour in organisations, it must be integrated with the kinds of theories of organisational behaviour that have evolved and are in current use. These theories tend to emphasise decision-making processes, management practices, technology, formal organisational structure and social

structure, which are largely objective features of an organisation system (Litwin & Stringer, 1968).

Litwin and Stringer (1968) provide an integrated model of organisational behaviour, where the concept organisational climate is used as an intervening variable, mediating between organisational system factors and motivation tendencies. The perceptions and subjective responses, which comprise the organisational climate, are seen as stemming from a variety of factors. Some of these factors originate from the patterns of leadership and management practices, such as punishments, rewards and expectations of management praise. Some factors are related to the formal systems and structures of the organisation, such as the knowledge of monetary incentive plans or regular promotions. Factors are also the result of the behaviour of co-employees, such as the anticipations and feelings about social support and rewards resulting from the activities, interactions and sentiments that build up in the group.

The organisation system features are seen as generating an organisational climate, which in turn arouses or suppresses particular motivational tendencies. The patterns of motivated behaviour that result are seen as determining a variety of consequences for the organisation. The importance of interaction and feedback is stressed by Litwin and Stringer (1968). Mitchel and Larson (1987) further stress that the supply of regular and accurate feedback is essential for work motivation.

3.17. Work Motivation and Organisational Climate

3.17.1. Work Climates Derived from Herzberg's Motivational Theory

Herzberg's theory defines four possible motivational climates brought about by combinations of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Although a small organisation may sustain a single climate, in most organisations climate differences exist among departments or work subunits. Climates vary according to localised tasks, leader-member relations and physical working condition. (Hunsaker & Cook, 1986).

Herzberg defines the following climates (Hunsaker & Cook 1986, p. 558):

- **Ideal Climate**

High feelings of satisfaction and team members are motivated to high performance because no energy is diverted into worrying about or struggling to overcome work related deficiencies. Jobs are interesting and provide opportunities for learning and future advancement. Employees are kept well informed of organisational issues and events, and everyone works co-operatively on team projects.

- Inequity Climate

Work itself is challenging and interesting but certain distractions impede consistent high performance. Most members believe their salaries have failed to keep pace with inflation and market conditions.

- Apathy Climate

There are no problems with regard to interpersonal conflicts, equipment, remuneration and working conditions. However, the work is largely repetitive, tasks are learnt quickly, and most employees view their jobs as dead end positions. In an apathy climate production is fairly systematic but void of enthusiasm.

- Explosive Climate

Jobs are highly structured and machine paced. Individual employees have little control over the work and the work place is noisy and subject to extreme fluctuations in conflict.

3.18. The Integration of Motivation and Organisational

Climate

If the concept of organisational climate is to demonstrate real value in the understanding and explanation of behaviour in organisations, it must be integrated with the kinds of theories of organisational behaviour that have evolved and are in current use. These theories tend to emphasise factors such as management practices, decision-making processes, technology, formal organisational structure and social structure. These factors are largely objective features of an organisation system; they can be observed directly. Modest attention is given to the members perception of and subjective responses to the organisational environment. Thus, it has been intricate for these theories to utilise motivational concepts, many of which are based on subjective elements (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). In this section an attempt is made to link the concepts of work motivation and organisational climate in order to demonstrate how climate relates to motivational tendencies amongst employees. Figure 3.8. endeavours to outline an input-output systems model.

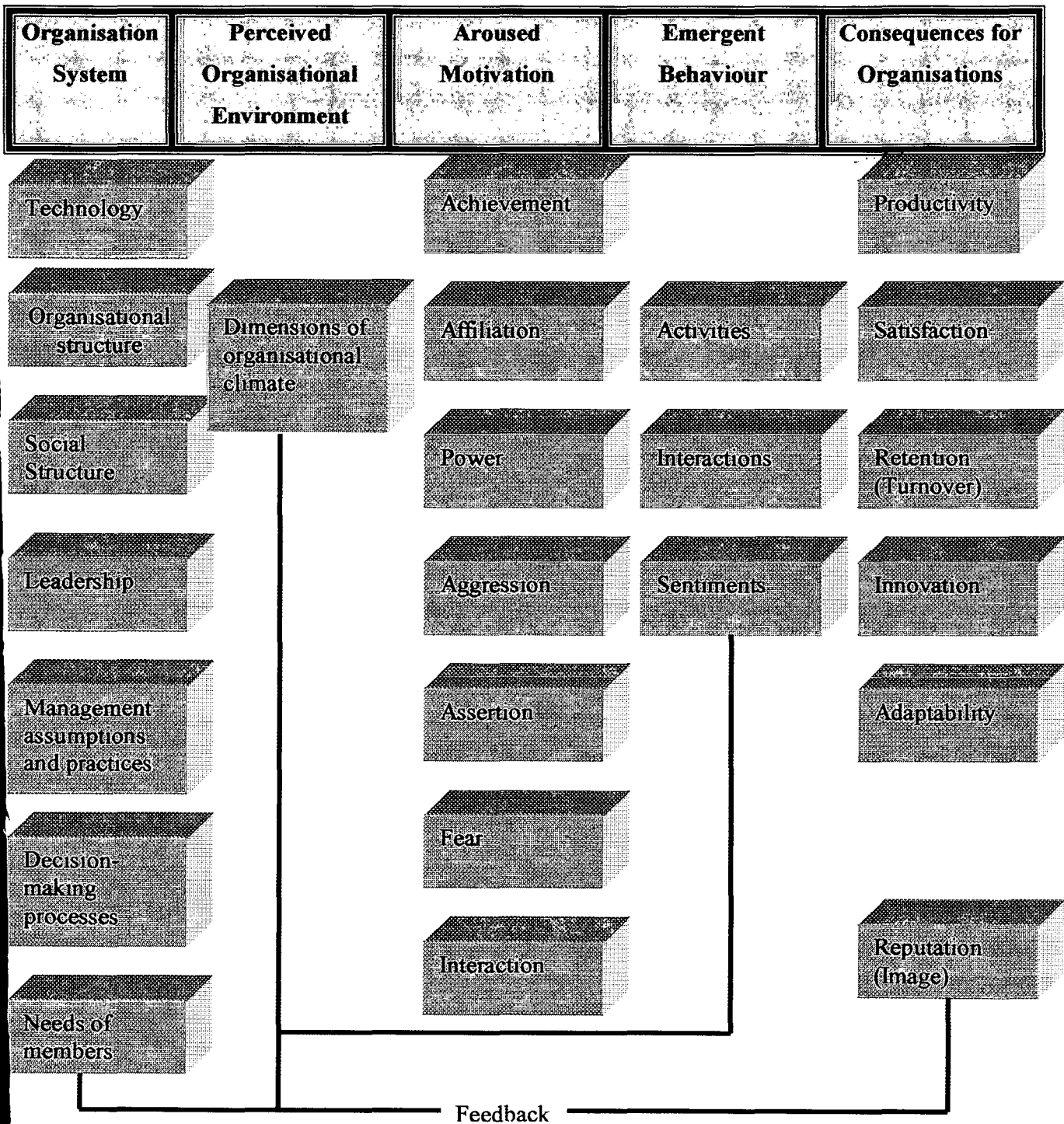


Fig 3.8. Litwin & Stringer. (1968). A Model of Motivation and Organisational Climate.

Motivation and organisational climate. p. 41.

In this model the concept of organisational climate is used as an intervening variable, mediating between organisational system factors and motivation tendencies. The perceptions and subjective responses which comprise the organisational climate stem from a variety of factors, such as the patterns of management practices, the formal system and structure of the organisation as well as the behaviour of co-workers (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). Within an open system several internal as well as external factors are influencing organisations (Milton, 1981). These societal trends have implications for managers attempting to foster an organisational climate that results in high degrees of motivation (DuBrin, 1984).

Brink (1996) compared groups of nurses to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference in the psychological well-being of nurses in hospitals where working conditions are poor and those where working conditions are better. Moreover Brink's (1996) study was conducted to determine what effect the organisational climate of these hospitals has on nurses. Results indicate that the concept of organisational climate, and all that it implies, may make it possible to identify certain factors that can be used as motivators in the organisation. Figure 3.9. attempts to clarify the nature of the motivational factors involved. This model outlines a subjective model of the determinants of motivated behaviour in organisations.

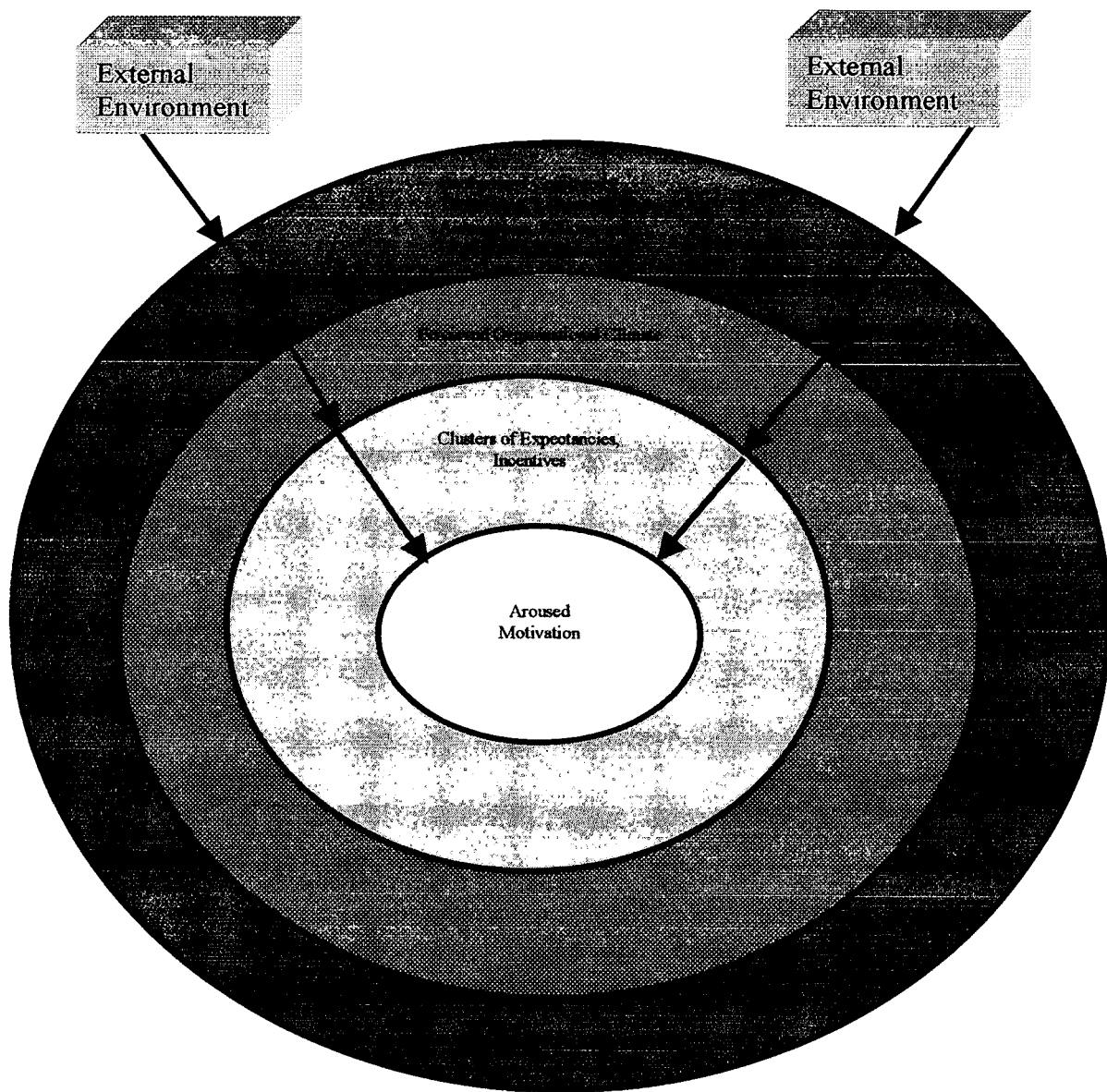


Fig 3.9. Litwin & Stringer. (1968). A Subjective Model of the Determinants of Motivated Behaviour in Organisations. *Motivation and organisational climate*. p. 43.

The two inner circles represent the individual, while the intermediate sphere represents the direct determinants of the individual's motivation. The outer circle represents the more indirect influences on motivation and in addition, represents the direct determinants

of climate (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). The organisation system features are seen as generating an organisational climate, which in turn arouses (or suppresses) certain motivational tendencies. The patterns of motivated behaviour that result are seen as determining a variety of consequences for the organisation, including productivity, satisfaction, retention (or turnover), adaptability and reputation. The importance of feedback and interaction is noted in this model (Litwin & Stringer, 1968).

Research (Gelfand, 1972) investigating the relationship between organisational climate and an individual's higher order needs concludes that organisational climate has an influence on motivation. Worth's (1991) research concurs with this in concluding that motivation plays a decisive role in the formation of organisational climate. The effects of leader behaviour and organisational climate on the job satisfaction and motivation was investigated by Snyder (1990). Based on a sample of 117 respondents using the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire, the Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire and the Job Descriptive Index, results indicate that a leaders behaviour and organisational climate have direct and indirect effects on job satisfaction and work motivation. Mkhize (1999) explored the motivation of black managers in two different organisations, postulating that perception of organisational environment influences both motivation and locus of control. Mkhize (1999) further hypothesised that Black managers working in a White management dominated organisation will have a less positive perception of the organisational environment in comparison with their counterparts working in a Black management dominated organisation. The hypothesis was confirmed to a significant extent. Additional research that provides information on the climate-

motivation relationship includes path-goal studies of leadership (Evans, 1974; Georgopoulos, Mahoney & Jones, 1957; House, 1971), job characteristic studies (Forehand & Gilmer, 1964; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; House & Rizzo, 1972; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal, 1964; Porter & Lawler, 1968), organisational characteristics studies (Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Rizzo, House and Lirtzman, 1970) and performance studies (Dachler & Mobley, 1973; Graen, 1969).

In general, research has attempted to provide direction as to how specific organisational climate variables may influence employee expectancy and instrumentality beliefs. For example, leadership studies have consistently shown that leadership consideration through path-goal clarification can increase both intrinsic and extrinsic instrumentalities in a variety of job situations. In job characteristic studies, perceptions of job dimensions have been shown to influence expectancy and intrinsic/extrinsic instrumentalities. Similarly, in organisational characteristic studies, management programmes designed to recognise employees problems and to create feelings of identification have been found to enhance expectancy beliefs and clarify performance-reward contingencies, thus influencing instrumentalities. Though information clarifying climate-expectancy and climate-instrumentality relationships is substantial, relatively little is known how climate variables may influence valences of job outcomes (Tyagi, 1982).

Some researchers have suggested possible relationships between valence and certain organisational climate variables such as leadership behaviour (House, 1971) and job situations (Mitchell, 1974). For example, to the extent employees feel that their

supervisor is sensitive to their needs and problems, they will perceive outcomes facilitated by the supervisor as desirable. The underlying dynamics of these relationships have not been sufficiently detailed to provide a sound theoretical basis for climate-valence linkages. Moreover, results concerning these linkages are somewhat contradictory (Tyagi, 1982). Research conducted by Ashdown (1977) accentuates the assumption that organisational climate acts solely as a predictor of motivation is too simplistic, certain organisational climates do facilitate and others do inhibit motivation.

3.19. Summary of Chapter

This chapter provides an overview of the different theories regarding organisational climate, highlighting the lack of an appropriate definition. An attempt is made in this chapter to link organisational climate and work motivation, so as to assist in understanding how the concepts contribute to organisational effectiveness and efficiency.

The framework developed between organisational climate and organisational motivation will be useful for managers in understanding the behaviour of those they must work with, in understanding the effects of their own actions and informal style upon the employees' motivation and in developing more effective approaches to motivational problems.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

This chapter focuses on how the research problem was investigated by referring to the selection of respondents, data gathering instruments (questionnaires) and the statistical techniques utilised. In conjunction with the literature review which was undertaken, empirical analyses are conducted to assess the hypotheses generated for the purpose of the study.

4.2. Sampling Design

Despite the methodological shortcomings involved, non-probability sampling design was considered appropriate for the purpose of this research since it is less complicated than a probability sampling design, incurs less expense and may be done to take advantage of the available respondents without the statistical complexity of a probability sample (Dunham, 1988). In the context of the present study, the type of non-probability sampling utilised for the current research involved convenience sampling (Bailey, 1987).

4.3. Convenience Sampling

According to Kerlinger (1986, p.110) sampling is defined as “taking any portion of a population or universe as representative of that population or universe.” Convenience sampling involves collecting information from members of the population who are most easily accessible and conveniently available to provide the required information. Although convenience sampling is convenient, quick and less expensive than most other sampling techniques, the results are not generalisable, except to the extent of the organisations which are represented in the research (Leedy, 1993; Sekaran, 2000). Martins, Loubser and van Wyk (1996) maintain convenience sampling is a worthwhile tool in the exploratory period of a research project, a period in which ideas and insights are more important than scientific objectivity.

4.4. Population and Sample

Sekaran (2000, p.225) defines a population as: -

“The entire group of people, events or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate”.

The population for the study comprised all employees at selected departments of a service organisation in the Free State region. From this population, a sample of 152 employees was obtained. Sekaran (2000, p.226) defines a sample as: -

“A subset of the population. It comprises some members selected from the population”.

Present employment records were utilised to identify all designated employees working in the organisation. The selected population size constitutes approximately 250 employees and as viewed in Table 4.1 the ideal sample size will constitute approximately 152 individuals. For the purpose of this research 250 questionnaires were administered with 152 questionnaires being returned, indicating a response rate of approximately sixty one percent (60.8%). Sekaran (2000) states that a response rate of thirty percent (30%) is considered acceptable for most research purposes.

N	S	N	S	N	S
30	28	400	196	4500	354
40	36	420	201	5000	357
50	44	440	205	6000	361
60	52	460	210	7000	364
70	59	480	214	8000	367
80	66	500	217	9000	368
90	73	550	226	10000	370
95	76	600	234	15000	375
100	80	650	242	20000	377
110	86	700	248	30000	379
120	92	750	254	40000	380
130	97	800	260	50000	381
140	103	850	265	75000	382
150	108	900	269	100000	384
160	113	950	274		
170	118	1000	278		
180	123	1100	285		
190	127	1200	291		
200	132	1300	297		
210	136	1400	302		
220	140	1500	306		
230	144	1600	310		
240	148	1700	313		
250	152	1800	317		
260	155	1900	320		
270	159	2000	322		
280	162	2200	327		
290	165	2400	331		
300	169	2600	335		
320	175	2800	338		
340	181	3000	341		
360	186	3500	346		

Table 4.1. Sekaran (2000). Sample Size for a Given Population Size. Research methods for business: A skill-building approach. p. 295.

4.5. Gathering of the Data

For the purposes of the current research, questionnaires were considered appropriate as data gathering instruments. Weiers (1988) indicates specific benefits of utilising questionnaires:

- The cost per questionnaire is relatively low.
- Analysing questionnaires is relatively straightforward because of structured information in the questionnaire and few open questions.
- Questionnaires give respondents extended time to formulate accurate responses.

The limitations of using questionnaires can be summarised as follows:

- The negative reaction of the public regarding questionnaires.
- Usage of questionnaires is limited to literate respondents.
- Questionnaires are time consuming due to the construction of a linguistic questionnaire and the response time of respondents (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995; Weiers, 1988).
- The response rate for questionnaires tends to be relatively low (Kerlinger, 1986). According to Bless & Higson-Smith (1995) a response rate of between 20 to 40 percent (20% - 40%) can be expected when utilising questionnaires as a data gathering instrument.

The data gathering instruments used included a biographical questionnaire, Organisational Climate Questionnaire developed by Koys and de Cotis (1991), and the Work Motivation Questionnaire as set out by De Beer (1987).

To counteract some of the limitations of using questionnaires, the questionnaires were administered by hand to the sample of subjects in the service organisation. The researcher collected the completed questionnaires by hand after 4 weeks.

4.5.1. Biographical Questionnaire

The biographical questionnaire incorporated the following personal information of the individual: age, home language, marital status, highest educational qualification, gender, job category, department worked in and tenure.

4.5.2. Organisational Climate Questionnaire

4.5.2.1. Nature and Composition

The Organisational Climate questionnaire, developed by Koys and de Côtis (1991), utilises closed questions which aid the respondent to make quick decisions to choose among several alternatives. Koys and De Cotis (1991) identified 80 independent dimensions in their review of organisational climate. The number of dimensions should:

- Be a measurement of perception.
- Be a measurement that describes activities and must not evaluate these activities.
- May not be an aspect of an organisational structure or task structure.

The result was that all objective measurements, evaluative measurements, and measurements concerning organisational structure were eliminated. After this reduction 61 dimensions remained. The existing dimensions were re-evaluated in terms of the way in which they were compiled in existing underlying groups resulting in forty-five of the original dimensions being retained (Koys & De Cotis, 1991). A circle of comparison can be drawn around these remaining 45 dimensions in order to introduce general concepts

(Koys & De Cotis, 1991). Through a process of elimination eight dimensions of organisational (psychological) climate emerged which are measured through the questionnaire namely:

- **Autonomy**

Autonomy is the perception of self-determination with respect to work procedures, goals and priorities (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). Autonomy encompasses the following (Koys & de Cotis, 1991):

- Closeness of supervision.
- Employee responsibility.
- Management's initiation of structure.

- **Cohesion**

Cohesion is achieved when employees sense that they are a part of an organisation (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). When employees take pride in the fact that they belong to an organisation, cohesion can be sensed in the following organisational situations (Koys & de Cotis, 1991):

- Espirit.
- Employee relations.
- Status polarisation.
- Universalism.

- Employee co-operation.
- Friendliness.
- Warmth.

- **Trust**

Trust is seen by individuals in the organisation as a freedom to communicate openly with members at higher organisational levels about sensitive or personal issues with the hope that the integrity of such sensitive issues will not be violated (Joyce & Slocum, 1984).

Trust encompasses the following (Koys & de Cotis, 1991):

- Confidence versus aloofness.
- Management insensitivity (Reversed).
- Managerial trust.
- Candidness.

- **Pressure**

Pressure is seen as the perception of time demands with respect to task completion and performance standards. Pressure consists of (Koys & de Cotis, 1991):

- Work pressure.
- Role overload.

- Conflicting roles.
- Role indistinctness.
- Time span orientation.
- Emphasis on achievement.
- Job standards.
- Production emphasis.

- **Support**

Warmth and support reflect the perception of tolerance of members by management, which include the willingness that employees learn from mistakes without fear of victimisation or reprisal. Support can be viewed as the perception of the tolerance of employees' behaviour by superiors, including the willingness to let employees learn from their mistakes without fear of reprisal. Support consists of the following (Koys & de Cotis, 1991):

- Management's consideration.
- Management's work facilitation.
- Management's psychological distance.
- Hierarchical influence.
- Management awareness.

- **Recognition**

Recognition is the perception that an employee's contributions to the organisation are acknowledged. In addition rewards or recognition refer to the perceived equity of the recognition and the advancement policy of the organisation (Dippenaar & Roodt, 1996). According to Koys & de Cotis (1991) recognition consists of the following:

- Acknowledgement and feedback.
- Opportunities for progression and advancement.
- Reward-punishment relationship.
- Reward.

- **Innovation**

Innovation is the perception that change and creativity are encouraged, including risk-taking into new areas where the employee has little or no prior experience (Koys & de Cotis, 1991). Innovation can also be viewed as the successful implementation of creative ideas within the organisation (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). Innovation involves the following (Koys & de Cotis, 1991):

- Organisational flexibility.
- Impulsiveness.
- Security versus risk.

- Challenge and risk.
- Future orientation.

- **Fairness**

Fairness can be viewed as the perception that organisational practices are equitable and non-arbitrary. Fairness includes the following: (Koys & de Cotis, 1991):

- Fairness and objectivity of the reward system.
- Promotion clarity.
- Policy clarity and efficiency of structure.
- Altruism.
- Egalitarianism.

The questionnaire comprises 40 fixed alternative questions, with each dimension being measured by 5 questions.

4.5.2.2. Validity and Reliability

Co-efficient alpha, total item correlation and factor analysis demonstrate evidence of validity and reliability. Reliability co-efficients as measured by the alpha reliability method fluctuates between 0.57 to 0.87. Through factor analysis with an oblique rotation, eight factors were produced, which show evidence of the validity of the scales by using a separate sample of managerial and professional employees. (Koys & de Cotis, 1991).

4.5.2.3. Rationale for Inclusion

This questionnaire as developed by Koys & de Cotis (1991) is selected as a result of the above average validity and reliability of this specific questionnaire. The questionnaire as set out by Koys and De Cotis (1991) is designed to measure organisational climate in a complex organisation, hence it was considered appropriate for the study.

4.5.3. Organisational Motivation Questionnaire

4.5.3.1. Nature and Composition

The questionnaire as set out by De Beer (1987) incorporates all sixteen factors of Herzberg's motivator-hygiene or two-factor theory (Prinsloo, 1996).

The questionnaire consists of nine categories:

- **Work Itself**

The nature of the task can be repetitive or variety-orientated, creative or simple, easy or difficult (Robbins, 1991). An employee's work can be done in isolation or as part of a greater task (Prinsloo, 1996).

- **Compensation**

Attention is focused on salary and overtime pay that incorporates all aspects of financial compensation that play a functional role (Prinsloo, 1996). It is the physical compensation that the individual gains in exchange for rendering a service, under salary increases and paid salary circumstances (Mondy, Noe & Premeaux, 1999).

- **Advancement**

Advancement is viewed as all changes in status or organisational hierarchy that include more responsibility and power (Prinsloo, 1996).

- **Recognition**

Recognition is the perception of rewards that is related to performance and what is required to earn this recognition (Sherman et al., 1988). This recognition can, for example, come from a member of management, a client, a colleague or even a member of the public (Prinsloo, 1996). Achievement can be acknowledged through promotion and salary increases (Robbins, 1991).

- **Working Conditions**

This refers to the quantity of work, the availability of facilities and aids, and all aspects of the physical working environment that include ventilation, lighting and working space (Gerber et al., 1987; Prinsloo, 1996).

- **Work Benefits**

Work benefits includes all opportunities for the acquisition of knowledge, training and skills and provides the possibility to work together with individuals from which friendships can develop. The employee is entitled to receive support from colleagues and for an opportunity for development (Prinsloo, 1996).

- **Interpersonal Relations**

The necessity to work long hours has an influence on the personal lives of employees and affects attitudes towards work and colleagues (Prinsloo, 1996; Robbins, 1996).

- **Supervision**

An individual can have an agreeable relationship with a supervisor because there are certain characteristics of the supervisor's role that need to be learnt.

The competence and the proficiency of the supervisor entail job knowledge, leadership skills and solving of problems (Prinsloo, 1996). Supervisory policies refer to the guidelines, philosophy or principles which management establishes in order to support the organisation's goals (Bittel & Newstrom, 1990).

- **Security (General)**

An individual can experience a sense of security in work (Prinsloo, 1996).

The questionnaire consists of 43 positively stated statements or items. Every item in the questionnaire consists of a scale from one to nine as set out by Herzberg's motivational and hygiene factors and is classified into nine categories.

Each item allows the sample of subjects to make a choice between three answers, namely:

True = T

Not Certain = NC

False = F

For the purpose of this study all responses are coded in the following manner:

True	=	1
Not Certain	=	2
False	=	3

A total score can be calculated for every individual in the sample in terms of the nine appropriate categories. The individual scales can be placed on a continuum of an extreme of one (satisfaction in terms of a specific need) and three (dissatisfaction in terms of the same need).

4.5.3.2. Reliability and Validity

Reliability is determined with the aid of SPSSX-program in conjunction with Cronbach coefficient-alpha. The calculated coefficient-alpha is 0,82 which implies a strong positive item-homogeneity in this measuring instrument, which signifies an indication of test reliability and validity (Prinsloo, 1996).

4.5.2.3. Rationale For Inclusion

The study is based on Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, since Herzberg considers factors such as recognition, achievement and work content as being motivating factors. In addition the questionnaire exhibits a high degree of reliability and validity.

4.6. Statistical Techniques

4.6.1. Descriptive Statistics

The purpose of descriptive statistics is to describe the raw data in a clear manner. This method enables the researcher to display the data in a structured, accurate and summarised way (Huysamen, 1990). The descriptive statistics considered appropriate for the current research include the mean and standard deviation. The mean is a measure of central tendency that offers a general picture of the data, by providing an average value for the distribution of scores (Myers & Well, 1995). Standard deviation is a measure which is calculated as the square root of the variance. It is the standard measure of variability from the mean and the measure of dispersion (Sekaran, 2000; Leedy, 1993).

4.6.2. Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics can be described as a statistical method that can be utilised to gain universal deductions from gathered results of a specific population and/or sample (Viljoen & Van der Merwe, 1999). The inferential statistics for this research involved the use of the Pearson product–moment correlation, Multiple Regression analysis, Multiple Analysis of Variance and Scheffe' Multiple Comparison method.

4.6.2.1. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is employed to determine the critical relationship between two variables, namely organisational climate and organisational motivation (Pfeiffer & Olson, 1981).

The calculated value will signify the extent to which organisational climate and work motivation are related to one another (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). The product-moment correlation provides an objective measure of the direction and strength of the relationship between two variables (Guyatt, Walter, Shannon, Cook, Jaeschke & Heddle, 1995; Sekaran, 2000). The size of the product moment correlation coefficient is an index of the extent of the (linear) relationship between two variables, and the sign of such a coefficient reveals the direction of the relationship, a positive sign indicating a direct relationship and a negative sign, an inverse relationship (Greenberg & Baron, 2000; Salkind, 1994).

The computational formula of the Pearson product-moment correlation is as follows (Huysamen 1990, p. 68):

$$r_{xy} = \frac{N\Sigma XY - (\Sigma X)(\Sigma Y)}{\sqrt{[N\Sigma X^2 - (\Sigma X)^2][N\Sigma Y^2 - (\Sigma Y)^2]}}$$

4.6.2.2. Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis is employed to determine the extent to which several different variables contribute to predicting another variable (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). Regression analyses the strength of the relation between one or more predictor variables and a target variable (Guyatt et al., 1995).

Multiple regression analysis will aid in gaining an understanding of how the variance in the dependent variable will be explained by a set of predictor variables (Sekaran, 2000). In this research, multiple regression analysis will assist in explaining how the variance in organisational climate and work motivation will be explained by various biographical factors.

4.6.2.3. Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)

Multiple analysis of variance is used in the current study to calculate the differences between group means on multiple variables, namely biographical variables, organisational climate and work motivation (Bless & Kathuria, 1993). Multiple analysis of variance has the distinct advantage that all the groups are compared simultaneously with the appropriate variables.

Mostert (1996) and Sherry (1997) identified the following foundations on which MANOVA is based

- The groups must be normally distributed.
- The groups must be independent.
- The population variance must be homogenous.
- The population distribution must be normal.

MANOVA is used to determine whether there is a difference between organisational climate and work motivation based on predetermined variables namely different departments and predetermined biographical variables.

4.6.2.4. Scheffe' Multiple Comparison

Since in MANOVA, there is no way of determining where differences between groups lie, an attempt will be made with the use of the Scheffe' multiple comparison method to determine exactly where such differences lie (Ravid, 1994; Snedecor & Cochran, 1978).

4.7. Research Hypotheses

Once the research problem was stated and the relevant literature examined, the expected outcome of the investigation could be predicted. Thus, the research question was refined further into the following more specific research hypotheses:

4.7.1. Hypothesis 1

Null Hypothesis (H₀):

There is no statistically significant relationship between organisational climate and work motivation at a service organisation in the Free State region.

Alternative Hypothesis (H₁):

There is a statistically significant relationship between organisational climate and work motivation at a service organisation in the Free State region.

4.7.2. Hypothesis 2

Null Hypothesis (Ho):

The selected biographical factors will not statistically significantly explain the variance in organisational climate at a service organisation in the Free State region.

Alternative Hypothesis (H1):

The selected biographical factors will statistically significantly explain the variance in organisational climate at a service organisation in the Free State region.

4.7.3. Hypothesis 3

Null Hypothesis (Ho):

The selected biographical factors will not statistically significantly explain the variance in work motivation at a service organisation in the Free State region.

Alternative Hypothesis (H1):

The selected biographical factors will statistically significantly explain the variance in work motivation at a service organisation in the Free State region.

4.7.4. Hypothesis 4

Null Hypothesis (H₀):

The perceived organisational climate and work motivation will be the same irrespective of the biographical factors of the individuals at a service organisation in the Free State region.

Alternative Hypothesis (H1):

The perceived organisational climate and work motivation will not be the same irrespective of the biographical factors of the individuals at a service organisation in the Free State region.

4.8. Summary of Chapter

The research design has served to elucidate the objectives of the research, the research design issues involved and a description of the research sample. Moreover, the procedure followed in executing the research, the research instrument (data collection methods) and the quantitative statistical analyses, which were utilised, are described.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The results section provides an explanation of what was found in the study, specifying the research results obtained, followed by a conclusion with respect to the potential practical implications of the results.

The chapter commences with an overview of the biographical characteristics of the selected sample. The biographical, organisational climate and work motivation questionnaires are analysed through the use of descriptive and inferential statistics. For the purpose of this study all statistical calculations were computed with the aid of the statistical package SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

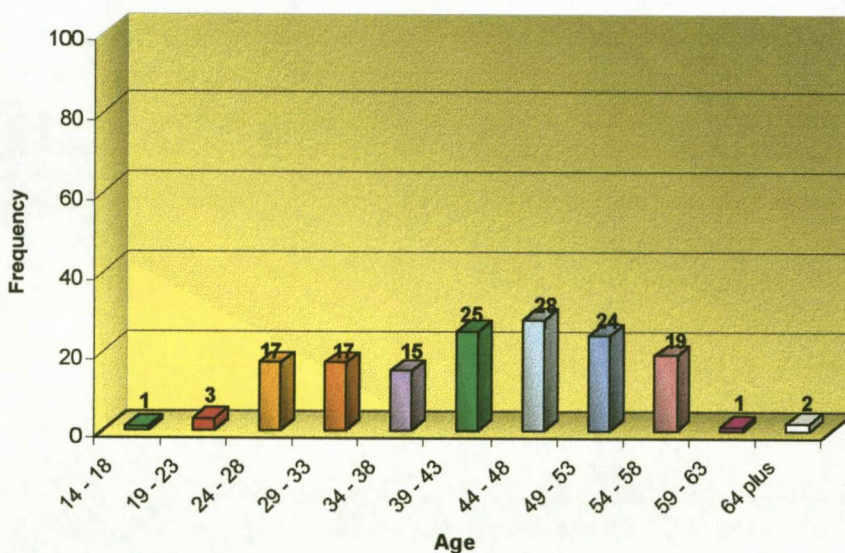
5.2. Descriptive Statistics

The processing of the descriptive statistics are presented in a graphical manner.

5.2.1. Biographical Nature of the Selected Sample

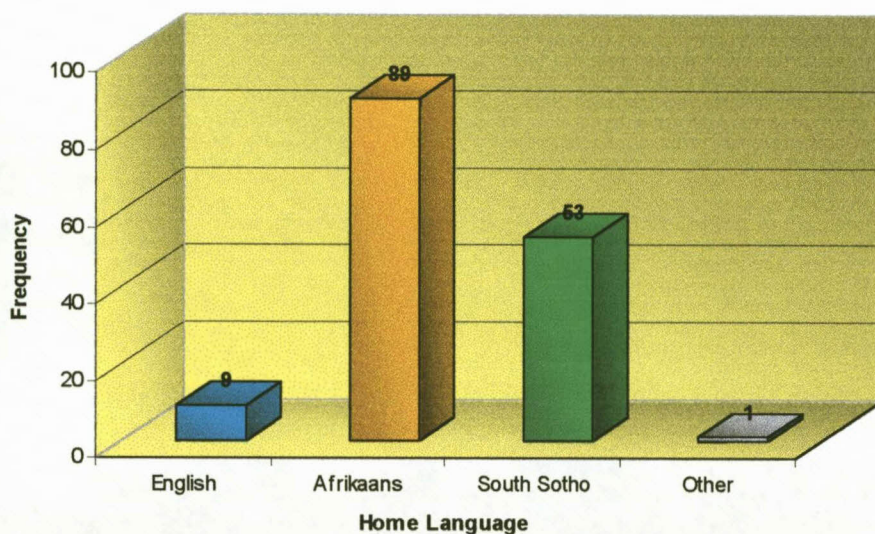
The biographical characteristics of the 152 employees of the service organisation which participated in the study are presented in a graphical format.

Figure 5.1. Age Status of the Respondents



As viewed in Figure 5.1. the majority of the respondents namely 18.4 % (N = 28) fall into the age group of between 44 – 48 years of age. The minimum number of respondents falls into two age group categories, namely 14 – 18 years [(N = 1) (0.65%)] and 59 – 63 years [(N = 1) (0.65%)] of age. The average age of the respondents is 43 years.

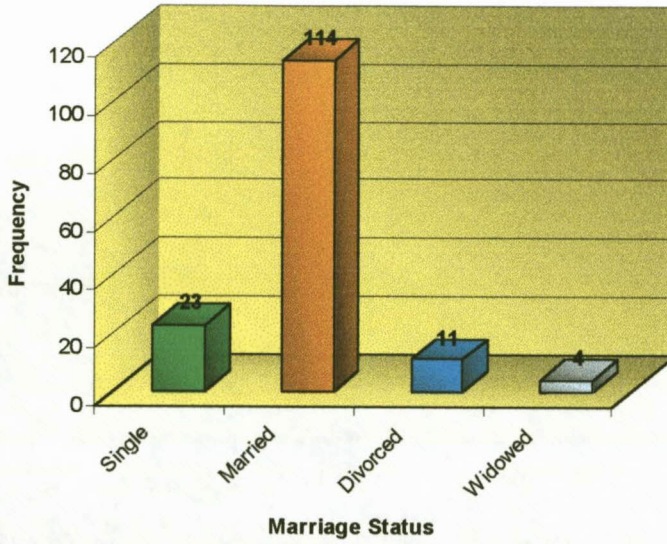
Figure 5.2. Home Language of the Respondents



As observed in Figure 5.2. the majority of the respondents are Afrikaans speaking individuals [(N = 89) (58.6%)]. The next significant group is those individuals who speak South Sotho [(N = 53) (34.9%)], while English speaking individuals [(N = 9) (5.9%)] and individuals who speak other languages [(N = 1) (0.7%)] comprise the balance of the respondents.

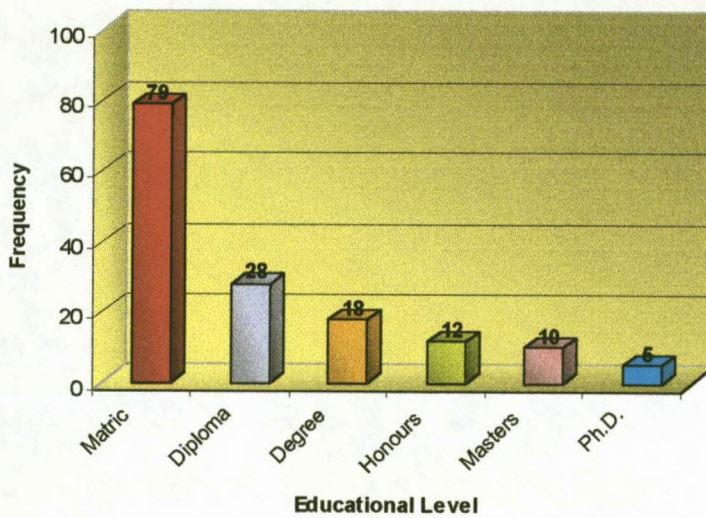
The previous values can be ascribed to the fact that the service organisation's premises are located in Bloemfontein in the Free State province, which is predominantly Afrikaans.

Figure 5.3. Marriage Status of the Respondents



As viewed in Figure 5.3. it can be observed that the 75% of respondents are comprised of married individuals (N = 114), while only 15.1 % of the respondents are single (N = 23).

Figure 5.4. Educational Level of the Respondents



The majority of the respondents (52%) possess a matric certificate (N = 79), while 18.4% (N = 28) of the respondents possess a diploma and 11.8% of the respondents have acquired a degree (N = 18). Finally 17.8% of the respondents have achieved a post-graduate qualification (N = 27).

Figure 5.5. Sex of the Respondents

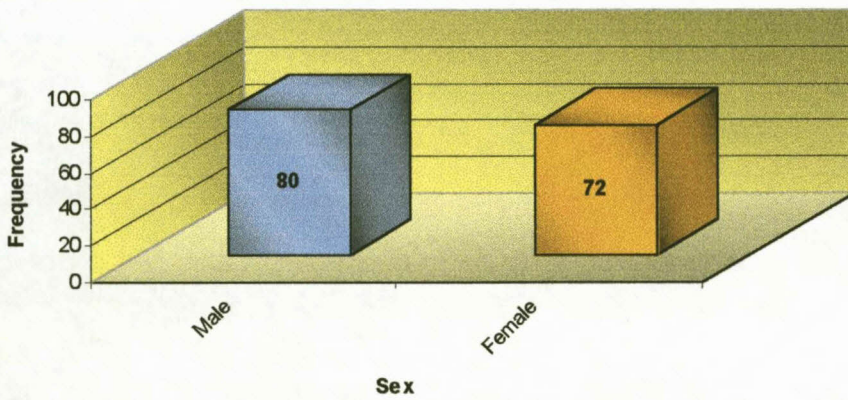
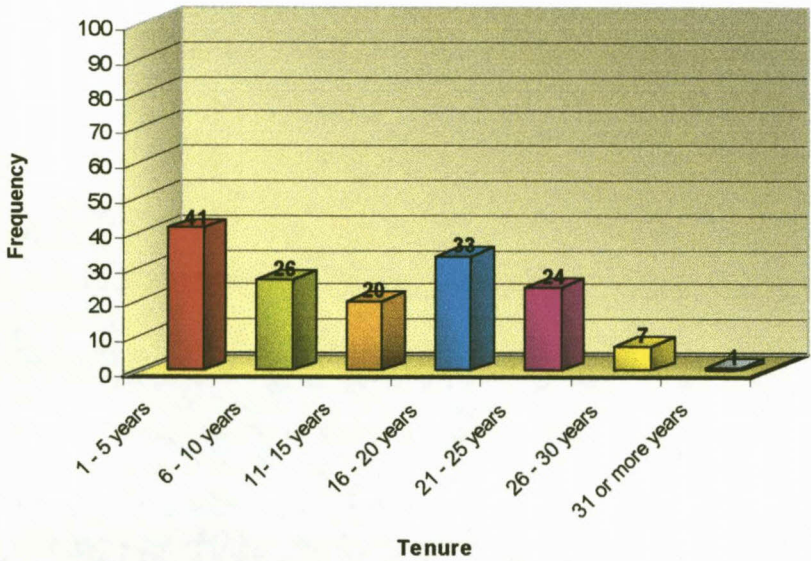


Figure 5.5. illustrates that 52.6% of the respondents comprises of men (N = 80), while the remaining 47.4% of the respondents are women (N = 72).

Figure 5.6. Tenure in the Service Organisation



As viewed in Figure 5.6. the majority of the respondents have been employed at the service organisation for 1–5 years [(N = 41) (27 %)]. The average years of tenure for the respondents is 13 years. According to Litwin and Stringer (1968), the lack of experience in organisational life may be attributed to the way employees perceive the dimensions of organisational climate.

5.3. Inferential Statistics

This section utilises inferential statistics to present and analyse the empirical data. Correlational analysis is utilised to ascertain the relationship between the diverse organisational climate and work motivation dimensions. Multiple regression analysis is employed to explain the variance in the organisational climate and work motivation. Multiple analysis of variance is used to determine whether, there is a difference between organisational climate and work motivation based on the biographical variables. To determine where the differences lie between organisational climate and work motivation the Scheffe' test is applied.

Hypothesis 1:

H0: There is no statistically significant relationship between organisational climate and work motivation at a service organisation in the Free State region.

H1: There is a statistically significant relationship between organisational climate and work motivation at a service organisation in the Free State region.

5.3.1. Pearson Product - Moment Correlation Analysis

Table 5.1. Correlation between Organisational Climate and Work Motivational Dimensions

	TC	TM	A1	A2	A3	A4	A5	A6	A7	A8	A9	A10	A11	A12	A13	A14	A15	A16
TC	1.000 p = 0.000																	
TM	0.4443** p = 0.000	1.000 p = 0.000																
A1	0.6400** p = 0.000	-0.3953** p = 0.000	1.000 p = 0.000															
A2	0.6911** p = 0.000	-0.3278** p = 0.000	0.4947** p = 0.000	1.000 p = 0.000														
A3	0.8851** p = 0.000	-0.3492** p = 0.000	0.5117** p = 0.000	0.6289** p = 0.000	1.000 p = 0.000													
A4	0.3068** p = 0.000	0.0632 p = 0.442	0.1370 p = 0.095	0.1878* p = 0.021	0.1202 p = 0.143	1.000 p = 0.000												
A5	0.8820** p = 0.000	-0.5991** p = 0.000	0.4553** p = 0.000	0.5520** p = 0.000	0.8528** p = 0.000	0.0738 p = 0.570	1.000 p = 0.000											
A6	-0.4600** p = 0.000	0.4947** p = 0.000	-0.2908** p = 0.000	-0.2840** p = 0.000	-0.3926** p = 0.000	-0.334 p = 0.685	-0.3866** p = 0.000	1.000 p = 0.000										
A7	0.8248** p = 0.000	-0.4470** p = 0.000	0.4302** p = 0.000	0.4032** p = 0.000	0.6868** p = 0.000	0.1965* p = 0.016	0.7245** p = 0.000	-0.4662** p = 0.000	1.000 p = 0.000									
A8	0.8802** p = 0.000	-0.4150** p = 0.000	0.4224** p = 0.000	0.5387** p = 0.000	0.7158** p = 0.000	0.2019* p = 0.013	0.7709** p = 0.000	-0.4078** p = 0.000	0.7307** p = 0.000	1.000 p = 0.000								
A9	-0.5677** p = 0.000	0.7480** p = 0.000	-0.4748** p = 0.000	-0.5416** p = 0.000	-0.2737** p = 0.001	-0.057 p = 0.945	-0.2767** p = 0.001	0.3804** p = 0.000	-0.2947** p = 0.000	-0.3373** p = 0.000	1.000 p = 0.000							
A10	-0.1071 p = 0.189	0.4194** p = 0.000	0.0736 p = 0.374	-0.1430 p = 0.079	-0.1007 p = 0.217	0.0860 p = 0.662	-0.1547 p = 0.059	0.2901** p = 0.000	-0.1121 p = 0.171	-0.0883 p = 0.477	0.0783 p = 0.337	1.000 p = 0.000						
A11	-0.1281 p = 0.115	0.5278** p = 0.000	-0.0762 p = 0.352	-0.0024 p = 0.977	-0.0829 p = 0.312	0.2034* p = 0.013	-0.1536 p = 0.061	0.3703** p = 0.000	-0.1892 p = 0.020	-0.1902 p = 0.066	0.2959** p = 0.000	0.3045** p = 0.000	1.000 p = 0.000					
A12	-0.2309** p = 0.000	0.5151** p = 0.000	-0.2693** p = 0.001	-0.2207** p = 0.002	-0.2286** p = 0.005	0.2381** p = 0.003	-0.2379** p = 0.003	0.2172** p = 0.007	-0.2632** p = 0.001	-0.2479** p = 0.002	0.2970** p = 0.000	0.2898** p = 0.001	0.2332** p = 0.004	1.000 p = 0.000				
A13	-0.1587 p = 0.051	0.5963** p = 0.000	-0.0820 p = 0.315	-0.0023 p = 0.977	-0.1225 p = 0.130	0.1250 p = 0.099	-0.1996* p = 0.016	0.2703** p = 0.001	-0.3005** p = 0.000	-0.1916* p = 0.018	0.1222 p = 0.134	0.2151** p = 0.008	0.2256** p = 0.005	0.2729** p = 0.001	1.000 p = 0.000			
A14	-0.2979** p = 0.000	0.5008** p = 0.000	-0.3527** p = 0.000	-0.2337** p = 0.004	-0.2125** p = 0.009	-0.290 p = 0.636	-0.2333** p = 0.004	0.2896** p = 0.000	-0.2233** p = 0.005	-0.2085** p = 0.010	0.4297** p = 0.000	0.0708 p = 0.386	0.1665* p = 0.041	0.1556 p = 0.056	0.2470** p = 0.002	1.000 p = 0.000		
A15	-0.3676** p = 0.001	0.5250** p = 0.000	-0.1451 p = 0.075	-0.228** p = 0.006	-0.2751** p = 0.001	0.2094** p = 0.010	-0.3196** p = 0.000	0.2645** p = 0.001	-0.2020* p = 0.013	-0.2823** p = 0.000	0.3215** p = 0.000	0.0332 p = 0.968	0.2742** p = 0.001	0.2454** p = 0.000	0.3358** p = 0.000	0.1337 p = 0.100	1.000 p = 0.000	
A16	0.1499 p = 0.065	-0.1633* p = 0.042	0.0793 p = 0.332	0.1750* p = 0.031	0.1810* p = 0.026	-0.2888** p = 0.000	0.2154** p = 0.008	-0.1226 p = 0.132	0.0920 p = 0.261	0.1603* p = 0.049	-0.3406** p = 0.000	-0.920 p = 0.260	-0.3331** p = 0.000	-0.1656* p = 0.041	0.0281 p = 0.731	-0.2289** p = 0.005	-0.3128 p = 0.000	1.000 p = 0.000

* p < 0.05
** p < 0.01

Clarification of abbreviations used in correlational table:

TC: Total Climate	TM: Total Motivation	A1: Autonomy	A2: Cohesion
A3: Trust	A4: Pressure	A5: Support	A6: Recognition
A7: Fairness	A8: Innovation	A9: Work Content	A10: Payment
A11: Promotion	A12: Working Conditions	A13: Benefits	A14: Interpersonal Relations
A15: Supervision	A16: Security (General)		

As viewed in Table 5.1. the following relationships are significant at the 99% level:

- Organisational climate and work motivation ($r = 0.4443$; $p = 0.000$).
- Organisational climate and autonomy ($r = 0.6420$; $p = 0.000$).
- Organisational climate and cohesion ($r = 0.6911$; $p = 0.000$).
- Organisational climate and trust ($r = 0.8831$; $p = 0.000$).
- Organisational climate and pressure ($r = 0.3068$; $p = 0.000$).
- Organisational climate and support ($r = 0.8820$; $p = 0.000$).
- Organisational climate and recognition ($r = -0.4600$; $p = 0.000$).
- Organisational climate and fairness ($r = 0.8348$; $p = 0.000$).
- Organisational climate and innovation ($r = 0.8602$; $p = 0.000$).
- Organisational climate and work content ($r = -0.3677$; $p = 0.000$).
- Organisational climate and working conditions ($r = -0.2909$; $p = 0.000$).
- Organisational climate and interpersonal relations ($r = -0.2979$; $p = 0.000$).
- Organisational climate and supervision ($r = -0.2676$; $p = 0.001$).
- Motivation and autonomy ($r = -0.3953$; $p = 0.000$).
- Motivation and cohesion ($r = -0.3278$; $p = 0.000$).
- Motivation and trust ($r = -0.3492$; $p = 0.000$).
- Motivation and support ($r = -0.3991$; $p = 0.000$).
- Motivation and recognition ($r = 0.6947$; $p = 0.000$).

- Motivation and fairness ($r = -0.4470$; $p = 0.000$).
- Motivation and innovation ($r = -0.4150$; $p = 0.000$).
- Motivation and work content ($r = 0.7480$; $p = 0.000$).
- Motivation and payment ($r = 0.4194$; $p = 0.000$).
- Motivation and promotion ($r = 0.5278$; $p = 0.000$).
- Motivation and working conditions ($r = 0.5151$; $p = 0.000$).
- Motivation and benefits ($r = 0.5363$; $p = 0.000$).
- Motivation and interpersonal relations ($r = 0.5008$; $p = 0.000$).
- Motivation and supervision ($r = 0.5250$; $p = 0.000$).
- Autonomy and cohesion ($r = 0.4047$; $p = 0.000$).
- Autonomy and trust ($r = 0.5117$; $p = 0.000$).
- Autonomy and support ($r = 0.4553$; $p = 0.000$).
- Autonomy and recognition ($r = -0.2908$; $p = 0.000$).
- Autonomy and fairness ($r = 0.4302$; $p = 0.000$).
- Autonomy and innovation ($r = 0.4224$; $p = 0.000$).
- Autonomy and work content ($r = -0.4748$; $p = 0.000$).
- Autonomy and working conditions ($r = -0.2693$; $p = 0.000$).
- Autonomy and interpersonal relations ($r = -0.3527$; $p = 0.000$).
- Cohesion and trust ($r = 0.6389$; $p = 0.000$).
- Cohesion and support ($r = 0.5620$; $p = 0.000$).
- Cohesion and recognition ($r = -0.2840$; $p = 0.000$).
- Cohesion and fairness ($r = 0.4032$; $p = 0.000$).
- Cohesion and innovation ($r = 0.5387$; $p = 0.000$).

- Cohesion and work content ($r = -0.3416$; $p = 0.000$).
- Cohesion and working conditions ($r = -0.2507$; $p = 0.002$).
- Cohesion and interpersonal relations ($r = -0.2337$; $p = 0.004$).
- Cohesion and supervision ($r = -0.228$; $p = 0.006$).
- Trust and support ($r = 0.8528$; $p = 0.000$).
- Trust and recognition ($r = -0.3926$; $p = 0.000$).
- Trust and fairness ($r = 0.6868$; $p = 0.000$).
- Trust and innovation ($r = 0.7158$; $p = 0.000$).
- Trust and work content ($r = -0.2737$; $p = 0.001$).
- Trust and working conditions ($r = -0.2286$; $p = 0.005$).
- Trust and interpersonal relations ($r = -0.2125$; $p = 0.009$).
- Trust and supervision ($r = -0.2751$; $p = 0.001$);
- Pressure and working conditions ($r = 0.2381$; $p = 0.003$).
- Pressure and supervision ($r = 0.2094$; $p = 0.010$).
- Pressure and security ($r = -0.2858$; $p = 0.000$).
- Support and recognition ($r = -0.3866$; $p = 0.000$).
- Support and fairness ($r = 0.7245$; $p = 0.000$).
- Support and innovation ($r = 0.7709$; $p = 0.000$).
- Support and work content ($r = -0.2767$; $p = 0.001$).
- Support and working conditions ($r = 0.2379$; $p = 0.003$).
- Support and interpersonal relations ($r = -0.2333$; $p = 0.004$).
- Support and supervision ($r = -0.3196$; $p = 0.000$).
- Support and security ($r = 0.2154$; $p = 0.000$).

- Recognition and fairness ($r = -0.4662$; $p = 0.000$).
- Recognition and innovation ($r = -0.4078$; $p = 0.000$).
- Recognition and work content ($r = 0.3901$; $p = 0.000$).
- Recognition and payment ($r = 0.2901$; $p = 0.000$).
- Recognition and promotion ($r = 0.3703$; $p = 0.000$).
- Recognition and working conditions ($r = 0.2172$; $p = 0.000$).
- Recognition and benefits ($r = 0.2703$; $p = 0.001$).
- Recognition and interpersonal relations ($r = 0.3396$; $p = 0.000$).
- Recognition and supervision ($r = 0.2645$; $p = 0.001$).
- Fairness and innovation ($r = 0.7307$; $p = 0.000$).
- Fairness and work content ($r = -0.2947$; $p = 0.000$).
- Fairness and benefits ($r = -0.3005$; $p = 0.000$).
- Fairness and interpersonal relations ($r = -0.2233$; $p = 0.006$).
- Innovation and work content ($r = -0.3373$; $p = 0.000$).
- Innovation and working conditions ($r = -0.2479$; $p = 0.002$).
- Innovation and interpersonal relations ($r = -0.2085$; $p = 0.010$).
- Innovation and supervision ($r = -0.2823$; $p = 0.000$).
- Work content and promotion ($r = 0.2959$; $p = 0.000$).
- Work content and working conditions ($r = 0.2970$; $p = 0.000$).
- Work content and interpersonal relations ($r = 0.4297$; $p = 0.000$).
- Work content and supervision ($r = 0.3215$; $p = 0.000$).
- Work content and security ($r = -0.3406$; $p = 0.000$).
- Payment and promotion ($r = 0.3045$; $p = 0.000$).

- Payment and working conditions ($r = 0.2698$; $p = 0.001$).
- Payment and benefits ($r = 0.2151$; $p = 0.008$).
- Promotion and working conditions ($r = 0.2332$; $p = 0.004$).
- Promotion and benefits ($r = 0.2256$; $p = 0.005$).
- Promotion and supervision ($r = 0.2742$; $p = 0.001$).
- Promotion and security ($r = -0.3331$; $p = 0.000$).
- Working conditions and interpersonal relations ($r = 0.2470$; $p = 0.001$).
- Working conditions and supervision ($r = 0.3454$; $p = 0.000$).
- Benefits and interpersonal relations ($r = 0.2470$; $p = 0.002$).
- Benefits and supervision ($r = 0.3358$; $p = 0.000$).
- Interpersonal relations and security ($r = -0.2289$; $p = 0.005$).
- Supervision and security ($r = -0.3158$; $p = 0.000$).

As viewed in Table 5.1. the following relationships are significant at the 95% level:

- Motivation and security ($r = -0.1653$; $p = 0.042$).
- Cohesion and pressure ($r = 0.1878$; $p = 0.021$).
- Cohesion and security ($r = 0.1750$; $p = 0.031$).
- Trust and security ($r = 0.1810$; $p = 0.026$).
- Pressure and fairness ($r = 0.1965$; $p = 0.016$).
- Pressure and innovation ($r = 0.2019$; $p = 0.013$).
- Pressure and promotion ($r = 0.2034$; $p = 0.013$).
- Fairness and supervision ($r = -0.2020$; $p = 0.013$).
- Innovation and benefits ($r = -0.1916$; $p = 0.018$).

- Innovation and security ($r = 0.1603$; $p = 0.049$).
- Working conditions and security ($r = -0.1656$; $p = 0.041$).
- Support and benefits ($r = -0.1956$; $p = 0.016$).
- Promotion and interpersonal relations ($r = 0.1665$; $p = 0.041$).

Results depicted in Table 5.1. indicate there is a statistically significant relationship between organisational climate and work motivation, thus the null hypothesis is rejected.

5.3.2. Multiple Regression Analysis

Hypothesis 2

Null Hypothesis (H₀):

The selected biographical factors will not statistically significantly explain the variance in organisational climate at a service organisation in the Free State region.

Alternative Hypothesis (H₁):

The selected biographical factors will statistically significantly explain the variance in organisational climate at a service organisation in the Free State region.

Table 5.2. Stepwise Regression Analysis conducted between Organisational Climate and the Home Language of Service Employees.

Stepwise Regression Analysis					
Multiple Regression	0.31917	Analysis of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
R²	0.10187	Regression	1	18506.16114	18506.16114
Adjusted R²	0.09588	Residual	150	163162.30596	1087.74871
		F = 17.01327		Significant F = 0.0001	
Variables in the Equation					
Independent Variable	B	Standard Error for B	Beta	T	Significant T
Home Language	-18.850682	4.570179	-0.319167	-4.125	0.0001**

* : p < 0.05

** : p < 0.01

The results shown in Table 5.2. suggest a modest percentage of variation in organisational climate can be explained by home language ($R^2 = 10.2\%$; R^2 (adj) = 9.5%). Thus 10.2% of the variance in organisational climate can be explained by home language. The F-ratio of 17.01327 ($p = 0.001$) indicates that the regression of organisational climate on the home language expressed through the adjusted squared multiple R (R^2 (adj) = 9.5%) is statistically significant. Home language accounts for an inconsequential proportion of the variability in the organisational climate of the organisation (9.5%). This suggests that other yet unexplored variables are influencing the results obtained.

Table 5.3. Stepwise Regression Analysis conducted between Organisational Climate, Home Language and Gender of Service Employees.

Stepwise Regression Analysis					
Multiple Regression	0.35704	Analysis of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
R²	0.12748	Regression	2	23158.93290	11579.46645
Adjusted R²	0.11577	Residual	149	158509.53420	1063.82238
		F = 17.01327		Significant F = 0.0000	
Variables in the Equation					
Independent Variables	B	Standard Error for B	Beta	T	Significant T
Home Language	-17.825666	4.546134	-0.301812	-3.921	0.0001**
Gender	11.145645	5.329468	0.160974	2.091	0.382

* : p < 0.05

** : p < 0.01

The results shown in Table 5.3. suggest a small percentage of the variation in organisational climate explained by the variables entered in the equation ($R^2 = 12.8\%$; R^2 (adj) = 11.57%). Thus 12.8% of the variance in organisational climate can be explained by language and gender. The F-ratio of 17.01327 ($p = 0.001$) indicates that the regression of organisational climate on the home language and gender expressed through the adjusted squared multiple R (R^2 (adj) = 11.57%) is respectively statistically significant and not statistically significant. This result is supported by a study conducted by Naidoo (1993) in which it was found that there is no significant difference between males and

females on the respective dimensions of organisational climate. These two variables only account for 12.8% of the variance in organisational climate, this suggests that other yet unexplored variables are influencing the results obtained.

Table 5.4. Stepwise Regression Analysis conducted between Organisational Climate, Home Language and Job Category of Service Employees.

Stepwise Regression Analysis					
Multiple Regression	0.31828	Analysis of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
R²	0.10130	Regression	2	1702.10278	851.05139
Adjusted R²	0.08924	Residual	149	15100.36433	101.34473
		F = 8.39759		Significant F = 0.0004	
Variables in the Equation					
Independent Variable	B	Standard Error for B	Beta	T	Significant T
Home Language	-18.850682	4.570179	-0.319167	-4.125	0.0001**
Job Category	-7.228687	2.350924	-0.266527	-3.075	0.0025**

* : p < 0.05

** : p < 0.01

The results shown in Table 5.4. suggest a small percentage of the variation in organisational climate explained by the variables entered in the equation ($R^2 = 10.13\%$; R^2 (adj) = 8.92%). Thus 10.13% of the variance in work motivation can be explained by home language and job category. The F-ratio of 8.39759 ($p = 0.001$) indicates the regression of work motivation on the home language and job category expressed through

the adjusted squared multiple R (R^2 (adj) = 8.92%) is statistically significant. These two variables only account for 8.92% of the variance in work motivation, this suggests that other yet unexplored variables are influencing the results obtained.

Table 5.5. Stepwise Regression Analysis conducted between Organisational Climate, Age, Educational Qualification and Job Category amongst Service Employees.

Stepwise Regression Analysis					
Multiple Regression	0.37618	Analysis of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
R^2	0.14151	Regression	3	2377.77584	792.59195
Adjusted R^2	0.12411	Residual	148	14424.69127	97.46413
		F = 8.13214		Significant F = 0.0000	
Variables in the Equation					
Independent Variables	B	Standard Error for B	Beta	T	Significant T
Age	2.132035	0.809745	0.208695	2.633	0.0094**
Educational Qualification	-2.183227	0.627634	-0.298401	-3.479	0.0007**
Job Category	-8.245585	2.337601	-0.304021	-3.527	0.0006**

* : p < 0.05

** : p < 0.01

The results shown in Table 5.5. suggest a fairly small percentage of the variation in organisational climate explained by the variables entered in the equation ($R^2 = 14.15\%$; R^2 (adj) = 12.41%). Thus 14.15% of the variance in organisational climate can be explained by age, educational qualification and job category. The F-ratio of 8.13214 (p =

0.000) indicates the regression of work motivation on the age, educational qualification and job category expressed through the adjusted squared multiple R (R^2 (adj) = 12.41%) is statistically significant. Research by Gelfand (1972), indicates that qualified employees in a senior job position in general do have a need for independence and innovation. Gelfand (1972) postulates that these needs can only be gratified if the organisational climate encourages the fulfillment of these needs. These variables only account for 12.41% of the variance in organisational climate, this suggests that other yet unexplored variables are influencing the results obtained.

As viewed in the preceding section, selected biographical factors significantly explained the variance in organisational climate at a service organisation in the Free State, thus the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 3

Null Hypothesis (H₀):

The selected biographical factors will not statistically significantly explain the variance in work motivation at a service organisation in the Free State region.

Alternative Hypothesis (H₁):

The selected biographical factors will statistically significantly explain the variance in work motivation at a service organisation in the Free State region.

Table 5.6. Stepwise Regression Analysis conducted between Work Motivation and the Educational Qualification of Service Employees.

Stepwise Regression Analysis					
Multiple Regression	0.21042	Analysis of Variance	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
R²	0.04428	Regression	1	743.93213	743.93213
Adjusted R²	0.03790	Residual	150	16058.53497	107.05690
		F = 6.94894		Significant F = 0.0093	
Variables in the Equation					
Independent Variable	B	Standard Error for B	Beta	T	Significant T
Educational Qualification	-1.539498	0.584009	-0.210417	-2.636	0.0093**

* : p < 0.05

** : p < 0.01

As viewed in Table 5.6. the results suggest that a small percentage of the variation in work motivation explained by the variable entered in the equation ($R^2 = 4.4\%$; R^2 (adj) = 3.8%). Thus, 3.8% of the variance in work motivation can be explained by educational qualification. The F-ratio of 6.95% ($p = 0.0093$) indicates the regression of work motivation on the educational qualifications expressed through the adjusted squared multiple R (R^2 (adj) = 3.8%) is statistically significant. In a study conducted by Gelfand (1972), it was found that highly qualified individuals have a need for independence and freedom and that these needs can only be satisfied through an organisational climate that

emphasises effectiveness. The result suggests that other yet unexplored factors are influencing the results obtained.

As viewed in Table 5.6. certain biographical variables do explain the variance in work motivation and thus the null hypothesis is rejected.

5.3.3. Multiple Analysis of Variance

Hypothesis 4

Null Hypothesis (Ho):

The perceived organisational climate and work motivation will be the same irrespective of the biographical factors of the individuals at a service organisation in the Free State region.

Alternative Hypothesis (H1):

The perceived organisational climate and work motivation will not be the same irrespective of the biographical factors of the individuals at a service organisation in the Free State region.

Table 5.7. MANOVA of the effect of Age on Total Climate and Total Motivation

	Hypoth. Sum of the Squares	Error Sum of Squares	Hypoth. Mean Squares	Error Mean Squares	F	Significance of F	Scheffe' Test
Variable : Age							
Total Climate	5324.39258	176344.07452	1774.79753	1191.51402	1.48953	0.220	No groups differ significantly.
Total Motivation	687.55217	16114.91493	229.18406	108.88456	2.10484	0.102	No groups differ significantly.

* : p < 0.05

** : p < 0.01

The effect of age on total climate (F = 1.48953, p = 0.220) and total motivation (F = 2.10484, p = 0.102) is not significant (p > 0.05) therefore the null hypothesis is accepted in both cases. This implies that there is no significant difference in organisational climate and work motivation based on the variable age.

Table 5.8. MANOVA of the effect of Language on Total Climate and Total Motivation

	Hypoth. Sum of the Squares	Error Sum of Squares	Hypoth. Mean Squares	Error Mean Squares	F	Significance of F	Scheffe' Test
Variable : Language							
Total Climate	29089.63649	152578.83061	9696.54550	1030.93804	9.40556	0.000	Group 2 differ significantly from group 1, 3 and 4
Total Motivation	790.65621	16011.81090	263.55207	108.18791	2.43606	0.067	No group differs significantly.

* : p < 0.05

** : p < 0.01

The effect of language on total organisational climate ($F = 9.40556$, $p = 0.000$) is significant ($p < 0.05$) therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. To determine among which groups the true difference lie a Scheffe' test was performed. The result of the Scheffe' test indicates that Afrikaans speaking individuals significantly differ in their perception of organisational climate from the other language groups represented. The effect of language on total work motivation ($F = 0.067$) is not significant ($p > 0.05$) therefore the null hypothesis is accepted. Scheffe' test conducted indicates that there are no two groups significantly different.

Table 5.9. MANOVA of the effect of Marital Status on Total Climate and Total Motivation

	Hypoth. Sum of the Squares	Error Sum of Squares	Hypoth. Mean Squares	Error Mean Squares	F	Significance of F	Scheffe' Test
Variable : Marital Status							
Total Climate	1796.73217	179871.73494	598.91072	1215.34956	0.49279	0.688	No groups differ significantly.
Total Motivation	70.96511	16731.50199	23.65504	113.05069	0.20924	0.890	No groups differ significantly.

* : $p < 0.05$

** : $p < 0.01$

The effect of marital status on total climate ($F = 0.49279$, $p = 0.688$) and total motivation ($F = 0.890$, $p = 0.890$) is not significant ($p > 0.05$), therefore the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 5.10. MANOVA of the effect of Educational Qualification on Total Climate and Total Motivation

	Hypoth. Sum of the Squares	Error Sum of Squares	Hypoth. Mean Squares	Error Mean Squares	F	Significance of F	Scheffe' Test
Variable : Educational Qualification							
Total Climate	28225.09557	153443.37154	5645.01911	1050.98200	5.37119	0.000	No groups differ significantly.
Total Motivation	1385.15590	15417.31120	277.03118	105.59802	2.62345	0.026	Group 2 differ significantly from group 1, 3, 4, 5 and 6

* : p < 0.05

** : p < 0.01

Educational qualification has a significant effect ($p < 0.05$) on both total climate ($F = 5.3719$, $p = 0.000$) and total motivation ($F = 0.026$, $p = 0.026$) hence the null hypothesis is rejected. To determine among which groups the true differences lie the Scheffe' test was performed. Scheffe' test indicates that employees with diplomas differ with respect to work motivation from the five different groups of employees with matric, degrees, honours, masters and doctorates.

TABLE 5.11. MANOVA of the effect of Gender on Total Climate and Total

Motivation

	Hypoth. Sum of the Squares	Error Sum of Squares	Hypoth. Mean Squares	Error Mean Squares	F	Significance of F
Variable : Gender						
Total Climate	6802.96849	174865.49861	6802.96849	1165.76999	5.83560	0.017
Total Motivation	159.46849	16642.99861	159.46849	110.95332	1.43726	0.232

* : p < 0.05

** : p < 0.01

The effect of gender on total climate (F = 5.83560, p = 0.017) is significant (p < 0.05) therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. The effect of gender on total motivation (F = 1.43726, p = 0.232) is not significant (p > 0.05) therefore the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 5.12. MANOVA of the effect of Job Category on Total Climate and Total

Motivation

	Hypoth. Sum of the Squares	Error Sum of Squares	Hypoth. Mean Squares	Error Mean Squares	F	Significance of F
Variable : Job Category						
Total Climate	392.26319	181276.20392	392.26319	1208.50803	0.32458	0.570
Total Motivation	244.01434	16558.45276	244.01434	110.38969	2.21048	0.139

* : p < 0.05

** : p < 0.01

The effect of the job category on total climate ($F = 0.32458$, $p = 0.570$) and total motivation ($F = 2.21048$, $p = 0.139$) is not significant ($p > 0.05$) therefore the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 5.13. MANOVA of the effect of Tenure on Total Climate and Total Motivation

	Hypoth. Sum of the Squares	Error Sum of Squares	Hypoth. Mean Squares	Error Mean Squares	F	Significance of F	Scheffe' Test
Variable : Tenure							
Total Climate	10464.55948	171203.90762	3488.18649	1156.78316	3.01542	0.032	No groups differ significantly.
Total Motivation	871.83630	15930.63080	290.61210	107.63940	2.69987	0.048	No groups differ significantly.

* : $p < 0.05$

** : $p < 0.01$

The effect of tenure on total climate ($F = 3.01542$, $p = 0.032$) is significant ($p < 0.05$) and the effect of tenure on total motivation ($F = 2.69987$, $p = 0.048$) borders on significance ($p < 0.05$) therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. To determine among which groups the true differences lie the Scheffe' test was performed (Refer to Table 5.22.).

As viewed in the previous tables a number of biographical factors do have an effect on organisational climate and work motivation, thus the null hypothesis is rejected.

5.4. Discussion of Results

5.4.1. Descriptive Results

The sample consisted of 152 employees at a service organisation. As observed in Figure 5.1. the average of the respondents is 43 years, with the majority of the respondents between the age of 44–48 years of age [(N = 28) (18.3%)]. The majority of the employees selected were afrikaans speaking individuals [(N = 89) (58.6%)], as viewed in Figure 5.2. 75% of the respondents are married [(N = 114)]. The majority of the respondents as observed in Figure 5.4. possess a matric certificate [(N = 79) (52%)]. From Figure 5.5. the majority of the respondents are male [(N = 80) (52.6%)]. As seen in Figure 5.6. the majority of the respondents have been employed between 1 to 5 years [(N = 41) (27%)].

5.4.2. Inferential Results

5.4.2.1. Correlation Analysis

As observed in Table 5.1. a substantial proportion of organisational climate dimensions and work motivation dimensions are significantly related at the 99% and 95% level. The computed correlation co-efficient between organisational climate and work motivation is 0.4443 ($r = 0.4443$; $p = 0.000$), which indicates a direct and significant, although moderate relationship. The findings of the present study are comparable to the research conducted by Steenkamp (1989) and Worth (1991), in which it was found that organisational climate has an influence on motivation. Kelley's (1992) study investigating a conceptual framework that considers customer orientation of service employees and its relationship with the perceived level of organisational socialisation,

perceptions of organisational climate, motivation and organisational commitment, concluded that the perception of organisational climate provides service employees with greater motivational direction. Furthermore, Geldfand (1973) demonstrated that there is a statistically significant relationship between organisational climate and higher order motivational needs. The research by Knobbs (1975) indicated that there is a statistically significant relationship between organisational climate and work motivation. Nevertheless Knobbs (1975) research was limited to white employees while this research sample comprised respondents from diverse race groups. Brink (1996) compared groups of nurses to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference in the psychological well-being of nurses in hospitals where working conditions are poor and those where working conditions are better. Moreover, Brink's (1996) study was conducted to determine what effect the organisational climate of these hospitals has on nurses. Results indicate that the concept of organisational climate, and all that it implies, may make it possible to identify certain factors that can be used as motivators in the organisation.

Path-goal studies of leadership (Evans, 1974; Georgopoulos, Mahoney & Jones, 1957; House, 1971), job characteristic studies (Forehand & Gilmer, 1964; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; House & Rizzo, 1972; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal, 1964; Porter & Lawler, 1968), organisational characteristics studies (Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Rizzo, House and Lirtzman, 1970) and performance studies (Dachler & Mobley, 1973; Graen, 1969), provide confirmatory evidence of the relationship between organisational climate and work motivation and direction as how specific organisational climate variables

influence employees expectancy and instrumentality beliefs (Tyagi, 1982). The results of this research are encouraging as most of the relationships between organisational climate and motivational components are significant. Manning's (1988) research indicates that if employees perceive themselves as not trusted, they become less trusting. The fact that managerial style affects the employee's perception of climate in the organisation is substantiated by research conducted by Brink (1996) and Moll (1983). Brink's (1996) research reveals that perception of management practices may be detrimental to motivation and organisational climate. Furthermore research conducted by Tyagi (1982) indicates that the highest intercorrelation among explanatory variables is between task conflict, management concern and awareness. This finding is not surprising, because in a climate of task conflict, employees are likely to perceive that management is not concerned about their needs and problems.

Research conducted by Johnson (2000) states that in order to improve an organisations perceived climate non-supervisors need to be empowered, given more opportunity for involvement and rewarded for implementing innovative and creative solutions to work performance. In addition research conducted by Steenkamp (1988) concluded that in order to improve the climate of an organisation, calculated risks and innovation must be encouraged. The research study conducted by Ngwezi (in Brink, 1996) demonstrates that the lack of recognition and promotion incentives tends to promote a lack of motivation.

5.4.2.2. Multiple Regression Analysis

The results obtained suggest that the following biographical factors have a modest effect on organisational climate:

- Home language.
- Gender.
- Job category.
- Age.
- Educational qualification.

Research that investigates the effects of organisational and demographic features relative to perceptions of organisational climate is scarce (Johnson, 2000). The results obtained in the current research are supported by a study conducted by Hershberger, Lichtenstein and Knox (1994) utilising the Work Environmental Scale to evaluate perceptions of organisational climate and the effect of heredity and human development as factors in creating an organisational climate. Research conducted by Johnson (2000), based on an anonymous survey measuring 9 aspects of quality culture and 10 aspects of organisational climate of 8126 employees in a large government service agency, shows that supervisors perceived all 19 aspects of the culture and climate measured on the survey significantly more positively than did non-supervisors. Fritz (1993) examined relationships between position, size of department, age, gender, tenure and perceptions of quality management implementation for a sample of university personnel. Fritz (1993) found that staff at all levels in the organisation were interested in improving services to

customers whilst perceived opportunity for improvement in the quality climate was greatest in the area of utilisation of human resources. All personnel were concerned with rewards, but especially those in the 29-39 year old age bracket. Furthermore, females perceived greater opportunities for quality improvement than did males. Similar results were revealed by Petric (1990), where it was determined that the psychological climate is determined by the social situation and the sex of the employee.

The results obtained suggest that the variation in work motivation can be explained in part by the following biographical factor:

- Educational qualification.

In a study conducted by Gelfand (1972), it was concluded that qualified employees in a senior job position in general do have a need for independence and innovation. Lock & Ortlepp's (1997) research was aimed to assess the relationships between career salience and job satisfaction and motivation, organisational commitment and psychological well-being. In addition the variance within these relationships between management and clerical employees were explored. Self-report data was collected from 86 accounting employees at the head office of a large retail company. Pearson product-moment correlation, t-test and z-transformations were computed. The results indicated that there is a significant positive relationship between career salience and work motivation, satisfaction and organisational commitment. These results were found to differ according to level in the organisation's hierarchy.

5.4.2.3. Multiple Analysis of Variance

In terms of the current research, the following biographical factors have an effect on organisational climate:

- Language.
- Educational qualification.
- Gender.
- Tenure.

Fritz (1993) found that staff at all levels in the organisation were interested in improving services to customers, perceived opportunity for improvement in the quality climate was greatest in the area of utilisation of human resources. Females perceived greater opportunities for improvement in the quality climate than did males. Research by Schneider & Hall (1972) indicated that position was shown to moderate the relationship between specific activities and perception of work climate.

The following biographical factors will have an effect on the perceived work motivation:

- Educational qualification.
- Tenure.

According to Robbins (2001) diverse biographical variables influence the motivational level of employees.

5.4.2.4. Scheffe' Multiple Comparison

The Scheffe' test indicated that:

- Afrikaans speaking individuals differ in their perception of organisational climate in comparison to English, Southern Sotho and other languages.
- Individuals with diplomas differ with respect to organisational climate from the five different groups of employees with matric, degree, honours, masters and doctorates.

5.5. Conclusions

- A major conclusion emerging from this study is that when the motivation construct is separated into its components, certain components are more strongly influenced by organisational climate dimensions than others. Various biographical factors have an influence on organisational climate and work motivation and managers should take cognisance of this fact when attempting to improve the organisational climate or to enhance work motivation of employees. A statistically significant relationship exists between work motivation and organisational climate. The practical implications of this result suggest that managers, in order to promote motivation among employee or subordinates, must focus on certain aspects of the organisations climate that provide necessary motivational resources.

- Clear and positive communication has to be enhanced since it impacts on internal motivation and organisational climate. Employee motivation to increase productivity will also increase only when employees have a challenging goal and receive feedback on their progress. Goals without feedback and feedback without goals have little effect on motivation. Manning (1988) and Coetzee and Pottas Zyl (1990) states that communication is essential for an effective organisational climate, but the approach of communication cannot be ignored. Manning (1988) and van Vuuren (1989) suggest that management should engage in a two-way communication process. Mitchel and Larson (1987) stress that the supply of regular and accurate feedback is essential for work motivation. Thirion and Verwey (1988) and Verwey (1990) examined the effects of communication and its effects on organisational climate in a formally structured organisation in South Africa. They found that a formal communication structure was more effective in a formally structured organisation because the employees perceived this type of communication as effective. This perception gave rise to a more positive perception of organisational climate. As a service organisation is seen as a formal organisation with a formal organisational structure, the more formal form of communication could be implemented to create a positive attitude towards overall organisational climate.
- Moreover, the task of proper supervision from the manager requires imagination, attention to detail, empathetic reasoning, and decisiveness. The most significant benefits, in this regard, will be the increased motivation of the

employees (Warren, 1989). Managerial style affects the employees perception of organisational climate. If employees perceive the management style as positive, it generates trust, commitement and motivation (Denison, 1990). Armstrong (1992) and Carnall (1990) states that involvement of employees in the decision-making processes promotes a positively perceived organisational climate.

- Managers should take steps to make appropriate adjustments in organisational climate (inter alia make jobs more challenging, offer more variety and avoid task conflict) to enhance the level of corresponding motivational components. If the levels of motivational components and organisational climate are regularly monitored over time it should be possible to gauge the impact of changes in organisational policies of supervision, pay and promotion and the degree to which these rewards operate as motivators (Tyagi, 1982).
- Further investigations on the organisational climate construct should be conducted to answer the following questions: What work related and non-work related factors influence the concept of organisational climate? Does the assessment of climate change over time? What is the difference between the ideal climate and the perceived climate? What effect does changes in technology have on the formation of organisational climate?

5.6. Limitations of the Study

- A primary limitation of the study is that convenience sampling was utilised, a proportionate stratified random sample should ideally be utilised comparing several organisations.
- A major limitation which can reduce the external validity of the current study was the relatively small sample size utilised. With only 152 respondents providing climate and motivation data, the power to detect main effects and interactions in the analyses was relatively small.
- Only one organisation in one region was chosen for the study, which reduces the ecological validity. The results must be viewed in the context of the specific recognition programmes, compensation methods and promotional opportunities used in the given job situation.
- A perceptually measured organisational climate, may not always reflect reality. One reason, among others, may be a lack of correspondence between management's policies and perceptions of employees (Tyagi, 1982).
- The above limitations cause the study to have a low external validity and thus the results may not be generalisable with confidence to other organisations.
- There are a number of predicaments associated with understanding and defining the concept organisational climate. Fink and Chen (1995) observe that the consistent theme throughout climate literature is a concern that researchers are overzealous to measure and analyse data about a concept that is not only ill-defined, but also lacking a consistent and comprehensively

applied theoretical context. The definition of organisational climate has been fraught with conceptual deficiencies and contradictory results. It is complicated to secure a universally accepted measure of the various climate dimensions of a particular organisation because of the different perceptions held by employees. The concept of organisational climate is to some extent in the eye of the beholder. Organisational climate must be analysed as trends in climate perceptions across individuals. If no trend exists the meaningfulness or the usefulness of the concept must be questioned (Steers & Porter, 1979).

- A problematic issue that is often raised with the climate construct is the cause and effect relationship involved. Do considerate managers aid to improve motivation or does improved employee motivation allow the supervisor to be more considerate? (Steers & Porter, 1979).
- The reliance on early studies of preferred or prevailing organisational climate is due to a dearth of more recent empirical investigations.

5.7. Recommendations for Future Research

- Ideally a similar study should be conducted which includes a national sample of South African service organisations, incorporating various sectors in order to investigate whether or not the variables identified in the literature are significant or not.
- A stratified random sample which is more representative and generalisable and hence has higher external validity, should be utilised in future research.
- The current study focused exclusively on the dimensions of organisational climate and work motivation, however, future research should include a focus on the determinants of organisational climate, viz. internal and external environments.
- Though the variance in motivational components explained by organisational climate is significantly high, a considerable level of unexplained variance remains. Personal characteristics, situational factors and other organisational variables may influence motivation, since in certain situations, the climate-motivation relationship may be moderated by situational conditions and personality factors. Research studies in different personal settings are needed to examine whether the relationships between organisational climate and motivation are situation specific and to investigate the relative contribution of climate dimensions with other moderating factors influencing motivational components.

- The classical issue of causality should be addressed. It is difficult to draw definitive cause-effect conclusions from static design studies. Testing causal relationships in a non-experimental field setting is more difficult than examining such relationships in a laboratory experiment, but a partial test is possible through the use of longitudinal data and cross-lagged correlation panel designs or structural equation procedures. These approaches lend themselves to more rigorous evaluation and will more directly address the question of the importance and causality of climate with regard to motivation. Future research should make use of such analyses to identify causal relationships between organisational climate dimensions and motivational components.
- Finally, any conclusions drawn from this investigation must be qualified by an acknowledgement of the limitations inherent in the design of the study.

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Appendix A

Work Climate Questionnaire

Work Climate Questionnaire

**D.J. KOYS
T.A. DECOTIS**

WORK CLIMATE

In this questionnaire, forty statements regarding the psychological climate and the way you see the organisation in which you are working, are made. You must please evaluate each statement on a five point scale as follows:

- | | | |
|----------|----------|-------------------------|
| 1 | = | virtually never |
| 2 | = | sometimes |
| 3 | = | reasonably often |
| 4 | = | often |
| 5 | = | virtually always |

Do not ponder long on each situation. Your first spontaneous reaction is normally valid.

Scale

- 1 = virtually never**
2 = sometimes
3 = reasonably often
4 = often
5 = virtually always

Using the above-mentioned scale encircle the number (next to the question) which you prefer. Try to answer all the questions. If some of the questions are not directly applicable to you, try to think as if you are in that situation.

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | I make most of the decisions that effect the way my job is performed | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. | I determine my own work procedure | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. | I schedule my own work activities | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. | I set the performance standards for my job | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 5. | I organise my work as I see best | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6. | Our company's people pitch in to help each other out | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 7. | Our organisation's people tend to get along with each other | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 8. | The company's people take a personal interest in one another | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 9. | There is a lot of "team spirit" among the organisations people | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 10. | I feel like I have a lot in common with the organisations people I know | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 11. | I can count on my boss to keep things I tell him confidential | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 12. | My boss has a lot of personal integrity | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 13. | My boss is the kind of person I can level with | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 14. | My boss follows through on his commitments to me | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

15.	My boss is not likely to give me bad advice	5	4	3	2	1
16.	I have too much work and too little time to do it in	5	4	3	2	1
17.	The organisation is a relaxed place to work	5	4	3	2	1
18.	At home, I sometimes dread hearing the telephone ring because it might be someone calling about a job-related problem	5	4	3	2	1
19.	I feel like I never have a day off	5	4	3	2	1
20.	Too many organisational employees at my level get "burned out" by the demands of their tasks	5	4	3	2	1
21.	I can count on my boss to help me when I need it	5	4	3	2	1
22.	My boss is interested in me getting ahead in the company	5	4	3	2	1
23.	My boss is behind me 100%	5	4	3	2	1
24.	My boss is easy to talk to about job-related problems	5	4	3	2	1
25.	My boss backs me up and lets me learn from my mistakes	5	4	3	2	1
26.	I can count on a pat on the back when I perform well.	5	4	3	2	1
27.	The only time I hear about my performance is when I screw up	5	4	3	2	1
28.	My boss knows what my strengths are and lets me know it	5	4	3	2	1
29.	My boss is quick to recognise good performance	5	4	3	2	1
30.	My boss uses me as an example of what to do	5	4	3	2	1
31.	I can count on a fair shake from my boss	5	4	3	2	1
32.	The objectives my boss sets for my job are reasonable	5	4	3	2	1

33.	My boss is not likely to do anything that would disadvantage me unfairly	5	4	3	2	1
34.	My boss does not play favourites	5	4	3	2	1
35.	If my boss terminates someone, the person probably deserved it	5	4	3	2	1
36.	My boss encourages me to develop my ideas	5	4	3	2	1
37.	My boss likes me to try new ways of doing my job	5	4	3	2	1
38.	My boss encourages me to improve on his methods	5	4	3	2	1
39.	My boss encourages me to find new ways around old problems	5	4	3	2	1
40.	My boss encourages new ways of doing things	5	4	3	2	1

Appendix B

Work Motivation Questionnaire

Work Satisfaction and Motivation Questionnaire

CONFIDENTIAL

1. INTRODUCTION

It is fairly obvious that people differ from one another in what they need and expect to get from different areas of their lives. Please think about the work you do and because most jobs are not perfect, consider what would make it better from your point of view.

2. METHOD FOR ANSWERING QUESTIONS

With each question, you have a choice of three answers.
Choose one of the following:

TRUE = T
NOT SURE = NS
UNTRUE = U

Mark your answer with a cross.

3. WORK CONTENT

	T	NS	U
3.1. I am interested in my work	1	2	3
3.2. My work consists of a variety of work	1	2	3
3.3. I receive training daily which teaches me something new	1	2	3
3.4. My work is easy	1	2	3
3.5. The amount of work is easy to handle	1	2	3
3.6. I control the amount of work I do myself	1	2	3
3.7. I am completely independent of others	1	2	3
3.8. I regard the content of my work as responsible	1	2	3
3.9. I know exactly what my tasks are	1	2	3

3.10.	I am allowed to decide on the methods for doing the work	1	2	3
3.11.	I am proud to say what kind of work I do	1	2	3
3.12.	My work is the way to future success	1	2	3
3.13.	I will not be dismissed without good reason	1	2	3
3.14.	I have the opportunity to take part when decisions are made	1	2	3
3.15.	I feel that my work is of value in my department	1	2	3
3.16.	There is not time for idleness	1	2	3
3.17.	I have a certain degree of authority in my work	1	2	3

4. PAYMENT

		T	NS	U
4.1.	My salary is satisfactory in relation to what I do	1	2	3
4.2.	I earn the same as or more than other people in a similar job	1	2	3
4.3.	The basis of payment, for example overtime payment, is reasonable	1	2	3
4.4.	Salary increases are decided on a fair manner	1	2	3

5. PROMOTION

		T	NS	U
5.1.	I will be promoted within the next two years	1	2	3
5.2.	Everyone has an equal chance to be promoted	1	2	3

5.3. Staff are promoted in a fair and honest way 1 2 3

6. RECOGNITION

	T	NS	U
6.1. I am praised regularly for my work	1	2	3
6.2. I receive constructive criticism about my work	1	2	3
6.3. I get credit for what I do	1	2	3
6.4. I am told that I am making progress	1	2	3

7. WORKING CONDITIONS

	T	NS	U
7.1. My working hours are reasonable	1	2	3
7.2. I am never overworked	1	2	3
7.3. I get the opportunity to mix with my colleagues and to communicate on aspects of our work	1	2	3

8. BENEFITS

	T	NS	U
8.1. My pension benefits are good	1	2	3
8.2. My medical scheme is satisfactory	1	2	3
8.3. I never have problems with my arrangements for leave	1	2	3

9. PERSONAL

	T	NS	U
9.1. I am given work in accordance with my qualifications and skills	1	2	3

9.2. I work in the department of my choice 1 2 3

10. MY LEADER/SUPERVISOR

	T	NS	U
10.1. Is satisfied easily	1	2	3
10.2. Will support me if there are problems	1	2	3
10.3. Can be convinced and persuaded	1	2	3
10.4. Is a warm-hearted person	1	2	3

11. GENERAL

	T	NS	U
11.1. I have considered changing jobs	1	2	3
11.2. I have been looking out for another job	1	2	3
11.3. I am thinking of resigning	1	2	3

THANK YOU

Please check to be sure you have not missed any questions out.

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