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The impact of rewards on motivation of staff at a medical services organisation

by

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Abstract

Orientation: Healthcare workers fulfil a critical role in the achievement of economic and social growth. Excessive cost in the private healthcare sector and the importance to increase capacity and retain human resources, have drawn the attention of many stakeholders in South Africa in recent times. Motivational theorists have shown that total rewards are vital when considering how organisations and economies need to sustain employee’s motivational levels to retain healthcare workers and the associated skill.

Study / research purpose: The primary objective of the study was to establish whether or not reward serves as motivator for employees in a medical services organisation. Secondly the study was aimed to establish if educational and occupation levels impact the level of motivation of employees. The secondary objectives were to establish whether demographic variables among other variables such as race, age and job families have an impact on employee’s motivation levels.

Motivation for the study: An understanding from the opinions gathered from the research would enrich the knowledge of managers and organisations when developing total reward models, policies and practices in medical services organisation within the South African context.

Research methodology: An electronic questionnaire was distributed to 3000 employees in medical services organisation via an electronic survey tool. The input from 732 questionnaire respondents was used in the data analyses, to arrive at the main findings.

Key / main findings: Through data analysis the results illustrated that employees from the medical services organisation would be motivated by payment (monetary rewards), benefits and promotional opportunities. The results also found that educational levels and profession (clinical versus non-clinical) does not influence the reward preferences and thus the level of motivation of employees. However the results presented significant variances for some of the demographic variables among other variables, specifically for ethnicity / race and gender.

Practical implications: The organisation can formulate reward policies and practices more effectively and achieve efficiencies, according to these findings by
concentrating on payment (money), benefits and career paths. Based on the research findings, an increased appreciation of the motivational drivers of employees in different job families can be applied.

**Contribution:** This research has contributed to the existing body knowledge on how South African employees within medical services companies can and should be motivated using total rewards. The research has also highlighted that reward preferences amongst employees do not differ significantly in terms of employee’s levels of education and profession within a medical services organisation. In addition, the study has verified that reward preferences are different based on certain demographic characteristics of employees within the medical services organisation, which will impact employee’s levels of motivation. A total rewards framework, aligned to total reward preferences could be designed from the findings which will aid employee’s motivational levels.

**Research limitations:** The results may not be able to be extended to employees outside a healthcare / medical services organization. Due to the number of biographical variables, there were some problematic factors that split up into a number of smaller sub-dimensions, when the analysis was done. This was corrected be means of post-hoc analysis.

**Keywords:** Motivation, Total Rewards, Monetary rewards, Recognition, Reward Preferences, Medical services organisation, Clinical skills, Performance

**Article Type:** Research paper
TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract .................................................................................................................................................. ii
List of Figures ......................................................................................................................................... iv
List of Tables ........................................................................................................................................... v

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY ..................................................................................... 1
1.1 Introduction ........................................................................................................................................ 1
1.2 Key focus of the study ......................................................................................................................... 3
1.3 Background to the Problem .............................................................................................................. 3
1.4 Explanation of the Problem ............................................................................................................. 7
1.4.1 Problem statement ....................................................................................................................... 7
1.4.2 Primary research question ......................................................................................................... 8
1.4.3 Research objectives .................................................................................................................... 10
1.5 Motivation for the Study ................................................................................................................. 10
1.6 Proposed Contribution of the Study .............................................................................................. 12
1.6.1 Proposed theoretical contributions ............................................................................................ 12
1.6.2 Proposed practical contributions .............................................................................................. 12
1.7 Overview of the chapter .................................................................................................................. 13
1.8 Synthesis ........................................................................................................................................... 12

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW ...................................................................................................... 14
2.1 Introduction ....................................................................................................................................... 14
2.1.1 Research on reward and motivation .......................................................................................... 14
2.1.2 Motivational theories ................................................................................................................ 16
2.1.3 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation ............................................................................................. 19
2.1.4 Content theories ....................................................................................................................... 21
2.1.4.1 Maslow’s hierarchy of needs ............................................................................................... 22
2.1.4.2 Alderfer’s ERG theory ...................................................................................................... 23
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 The key variables for the study.........................................................6
Figure 2.1 Main components of a remuneration system.................................35
Figure 2.2 Total Rewards Model: WorldatWork..............................................37
Figure 2.3 CLC - Universe of potential total rewards components.................46
Figure 3.1 Gender distribution........................................................................58
Figure 3.2 Language preferences......................................................................59
Figure 3.3 Age distribution..............................................................................59
Figure 3.4 Race distribution............................................................................60
Figure 3.5 Job family distribution.................................................................61
Figure 3.6 Job classification distribution..........................................................61
Figure 3.7 Level of educational distribution.....................................................62
Figure 3.8 Distribution of types of medical professionals...............................63
Figure 4.1 Histogram: Promotion.................................................................78
Figure 4.2 Histogram: General.......................................................................79
Figure 4.3 Histogram: Promotion.................................................................79
Figure 4.4 Histogram: General.......................................................................79
Figure 4.5 Histogram: Payment......................................................................80
Figure 4.6 Histogram: Promotion.................................................................80
Figure 4.7 Histogram: Personal.....................................................................80
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table 1</td>
<td>Armstrong and Brown’s total rewards model</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.1</td>
<td>Mean scores - dimensions of work motivation</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.2</td>
<td>ANOVA summary table: Qualifications</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.3</td>
<td>ANOVA summary table: Race / Ethnicity</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.4</td>
<td>ANOVA summary table: Job level</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.5</td>
<td>Mean variances in rewards and recognition based on gender</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.6</td>
<td>Levene’s test on total rewards and motivation based on gender</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.7</td>
<td>Mean Variances in total rewards based on job family</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.8</td>
<td>Levene’s test on total rewards based on job family</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.9</td>
<td>Mean variances in total rewards based on clinical qualification</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.10</td>
<td>Levene’s test on total rewards based on clinical qualification</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.11</td>
<td>Variances in total rewards based on job grade</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4.12</td>
<td>Post Hoc test work motivation based on educational qualifications</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.13 A Post Hoc test work motivation based on race / ethnicity………………………………………………………………………………………………………………..91

Table 4.13 B Mean score ranking order work motivation based on race / ethnicity……………………………………………………………………………………………………92

Table 4.14 Post Hoc test work motivation based on occupational level………………………………………………………………………………………………………………93

Table 4.15 Independent sample test by job families……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………94

Table 4.16 Mean score ranking order for work motivation based on ethnicity / race – excluding payment, recognition and benefits……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………..95
APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Research Questionnaire – Part A, B & C………………………………..129
1.1 Introduction

The business landscape has changed considerably over the last decade, with all stakeholders in the value chain demanding greater outputs (Jensen, 2010). Shareholders are expecting greater returns for lower capital investments; top management is expected to achieve greater efficiency and sustainable financial growth; and employees and organised labour are demanding equitable rewards (financial and non-financial).

With the rise in social consciousness and economic pressures, management sees the need for their organisations to adapt more rapidly. News headlines are dominated by organisations engaged in labour disputes around wages, reorganisation initiatives (retrenchments) or internal staff announcements regarding business process re-engineering projects. In June 2015, unions — representing around 1.3 million public servants, inclusive of nurses — threatened that they intend to walk out from wage talks, raising the risk of a protracted strike (Reuters, 2015).

Organisations’ as well as Government’s underlying objective is to lower costs, enhance productivity and maintain a positive financial deficit.

Zaidi and Abbas (2011, p. 979) stated that, “In today’s world of competition, it has become very difficult to deliver best service in order to satisfy customers; in fact, organisations take it as a challenge to motivate employees to get best output from them”. Intangible leadership competencies enable greater competitiveness, as these are difficult to emulate compared to tangible differentiators like monetary rewards, which most organisations rely on to keep employees motivated.

Human resources management fulfils a key role in understanding the people practices and managing within a paradoxical environment. To be able to
address the requirements of each stakeholder and demonstrate value, it is imperative to understand which factors contribute to employee motivation. The challenge, however, is that management has to deal with diverse cross-cultural groups within the workforce, each group with different expectations.

Remuneration strategy, policy and systems to support the modern business environment, are of great importance and come under increasing examination. This is evident where management seeks to motivate their staff to deliver on shareholder expectations and improve efficiency and effectiveness. The practical reality is that organisations’ performance (financial or non-financial) can be positively or negatively influenced by employees in various ways. The combination of employees and information technology in the main sets the tone for an organisation’s core capabilities. Competencies or capabilities are essential for the execution required of organisational strategy, and these competencies are mainly the sum total of education, experience, knowledge and skills. Therefore, if companies are to compete on its intangible assets, its people, it has to be well-informed, demonstrate thought leadership, about what it is that motivates its employees to achieve and exceed their employee’s full potential (Lawler, 2003). According to Baron (1983), motivation is a combination of multiple aspects which directs people’s actions to achieve specific objectives.

There is sufficient published research available about what motivates people. However, the literature of studies does not comprehensively focus on the medical services industry, more specifically clinical versus non-clinical employees’ reward preferences and their impact on employees’ levels of motivation. While research has been conducted on organisational commitment in the general financial services and information technology sector, there were limitations in the findings in terms of the impact of reward on the motivation of employees.
1.2 Key Focus of the Study

The core research problem is to investigate the impact of total rewards as a motivational driver for clinical versus non-clinical staff in a medical services organisation.

Understanding the role that the various forms of rewards fulfils in motivating different employees could create a competitive advantage by attracting, motivating and retaining critical skills and supporting a performance culture within organisations.

Considering the background as discussed above, the research questions are set for the purpose of the study. The research document includes the background, motivation and objectives of the study, the research questions, theoretical, methodological and empirical contribution, and concludes with the proposed value-add of the study.

1.3 Background to the Problem

The study aims to create insight into the reward factors that support the motivation of employees in a medical services organisation, in order to ensure that optimal employee behavioural and economical value is unlocked for the organisation.

Healthcare, along with education, is a central pillar in a country that wishes to achieve growth and prosperity for its citizens and compete globally. In its 1994 *ANC National Health Plan for South Africa*, the ANC proposes the creation of a single comprehensive, equitable and integrated National Health System (NHS) based on the principles of equity, right to health and a primary healthcare approach. *(ANC Education and Health: Policy Discussion Document, 2012).* The intention of the policy statement by the ruling party confirms their intent to deliver access to quality, affordable personal health services for people, regardless of their socio-economic status.
In light of the South African Government’s intent and the ruling party’s manifesto, access to affordable healthcare will be critical in enabling the overall achievement of SA’s national growth and development plans.

Understanding the motivational drivers of healthcare workers, who have to deliver such healthcare, is thus essential.

South Africans are faced with a disparate system of healthcare. Private healthcare plays an important part in the achievement of South Africa’s economic growth and transformation, but is currently under scrutiny as it services only approximately 8.5 million people (Council for Medical Schemes Annual Report 2010-2011). On the other hand, there is the non-functional public healthcare system that is described as being in crisis, which needs to service the remainder of the population.

To change the current challenges in this sector, the key focus is on the development of a national healthcare system that will ensure access to decent and affordable healthcare for all South Africans. However, whilst the intent is admirable, the challenges that confront it are vast and complex, and so far, have pushed the set-up and implementation of such national healthcare system beyond the near future. Some of the key identified aspects (Human Resources for Health South Africa 2030 — draft HR Strategy, 2011), which will require a concerted focus on human capital, are:

- Talent management of healthcare workers;
- Learning and development;
- Remuneration and reward models;
- Performance management practices.

It is evident from the draft HR Strategy for Health South Africa (Government of South Africa, 2011) that one of the key focus areas that needs to be understood is that of remuneration and reward models. Understanding the practice purely from a model perspective, without an appreciation for the motivational drivers of
employees, will not provide a sustainable solution that serves organisations or the country’s vision.

Well-designed remuneration practices contribute greatly in enhancing organisational success in competitive markets by means of keeping employees motivated to perform their jobs (Martocchio, 1998). Indeed, some authors argued that there are strong links between the design of an organisations’ remuneration philosophy, policies practices and its overall performance (Greenhill, 1988; Modise, 1993; Rodgers, 1999; Rynes & Gerhart, 2000; Young, 2002). The collapse of major companies, together with media scrutiny of pay practices in prominent companies, have led to an urgent need for additional information on which to base decisions (Bussin, 2011).

The global economic climate requires organisations to be more competitive, and organisations must have a clear understanding of the strategies that should be deployed to create jobs, retain critical skills and the creation of macro-economic growth (Bhorat, Meyer & Mlatsheni, 2002; Kraak, 2008; Rasool & Botha, 2011; Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012). The present study needs to establish, which factors specifically contribute to improved motivational levels of employees.

Kleinginna (1981) defined motivation as a reaction that is created internally by an individual, which shapes their behaviour towards a specific outcome or direction. It can also be defined as energy which stimulates an individual's behaviour who is goal-orientated (Huitt, 2011). The question is, to what extent do these initiatives yield a positive return on investment for organisations?

The level of motivation that is engrained in employees, directly impacts their level of performance and that of the organisation (Deeprose, 1994). Baron (1993) argued that a happier, motivated employee performs better. Organisations are starting to deploy a number of strategies through their human resources function, including but not limited to integrated rewards, learning and development initiatives, wellness programmes and work environment redesign initiatives, with the hope of ensuring happier and more motivated employees.
It is important for boards of organisations and, more specifically the leadership, to inspire and activate the psychological processes of employees, to ensure that an organisation’s objectives are achieved and sustained.

What follows is a brief description of the key variables for the study.

![Figure 1. The key variables for the study](image)

The dependent variable is employee motivation, and the independent variable is reward, which includes intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, as set out in the study of De Beer (1987). The latter study refers to nine dimensions and includes sixteen factors of Herzberg’s two-factor theory.

This study is important, as it will highlight the following points:

- Motivated employees can make an organisation more competitive;
- Understanding what the motivational factors are is critical in making informed strategic decisions and developing people management strategies;
- An understanding of how total reward elements are viewed by different occupations, or to establish whether all employees are the same, regardless of their academic, professional and social disposition, is critical;
- It is imperative for organisations to establish which motivational elements should be considered in order to improve employees’ output/performance in a sustainable manner.

In the section which follows, the primary research question and the secondary research questions are formulated.
1.4 Explanation of the Problem

1.4.1 Problem statement

Due to a lack of localised occupation-specific research, organisations are faced with the challenge of finding ways to optimise their investments in employees in South Africa.

Previous research that has been conducted in South African was restricted to the financial services industry based on a convenience sample. The result can thus not be generalised to the healthcare industry or clinical professionals. The methodology used in previous research holds a low external validity.

The previous studies also did not focus on clinical employees nor did the sample have respondents that met the criteria of the current study, which is essential and the primary focus of this study.

The present study will be conducted in a South African medical services organisation that is dependent on clinical skills to ensure that healthcare costs are managed effectively for the members of medical aid schemes. The primary task that is performed by the clinical employees is of an administrative nature, but technical clinical skills and qualifications are required to interpret medical data and perform the work outputs. From a business model perspective, the function must be performed in an efficient and effective manner against defined regulation, clinical protocols, medical scheme rules and contracted service level agreements.

The technical competencies required are similar for non-clinical employees, but no specialised academic qualifications or technical work experience is required to perform the work.

Although the competencies and qualifications required are different, the remuneration strategy, policy and systems follow a very similar approach. This, in the first instance, may not be effective, due to the nature of the two functions,
and secondly, due to the educational level, professional drive, beliefs and practices that employees may have, which could be different.

The main research objective will be to determine the role that total rewards fulfil in terms of reward preferences and the extent in which it motivates these two categories of employees.

This study will give greater insight into the reward preferences of employees, which should improve the organisation’s ability to manage scarce clinical skills more effectively. The outcome of the research will enable the explanation of related concepts and theories that form the foundation for understanding the motivational drivers of clinical professionals.

The reward model that will inform the study will be the Total Reward Model of the WorldatWork Association, which is the largest compensation association in the world, and is based in the USA. The background to the WorldatWork Total Reward Model is a sphere, setting out various external drivers which influence a business and the various components of its total reward strategy.

The Total Reward Model depicts five elements (compensation, benefits, work-life balance, performance and recognition, and development and career opportunities) that collectively constitute the total reward. The model affords the organisational framework of the external factors in which the organisations’ total reward strategies and programmes should exist. Further to this, it also sets out the anticipated outcome of motivating and having engaged employees who create the desired and expected business outcomes.

The model illustrated the dynamic relationship between employees and employers, and the employees’ contribution towards the realisation of the desired business results.

1.4.2 Primary research question
In light of the abovementioned milieu, the primary research question of the study can be stated as follows:

What role does total reward play in motivating employees?

Sub-questions:

1. Which form of reward has a greater impact on employee motivation preference?

2. How do educational levels affect the relationships between reward and motivation of employees?

3. How does occupation affect the reward preferences of clinical employees?

4. How does profession affect the reward preferences of clinical employees?

5. How does race and gender affect the reward preferences of clinical employees?

A number of demographic variables are of importance in this study, including the age, race, gender, level of education, home language, marital status, job family, job classification, profession, job grade, tenure and job level of respondents. The demographical variables will allow the researcher to assess if correlations exist between certain groups of employees.

Due to the ever-changing nature of the global workforce demographics, organisations and its managers are faced with the need to manage workforce diversity. In South Africa, this is even more relevant in light of a young democracy that aspires to bring about social and economic transformation and address inequalities. The introduction of legislation such as Employment Equity Act No, 55 of 1998 and Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Amendment Act No 46 of 2013 have seen workplaces changing in terms of
race, age, gender and educational levels amongst some of the demographical variables.

The newly introduced labour legislative changes have also introduced difficulties for organisations to attract and retain black employees. In relation to healthcare, some professionals have cited these as reasons for leaving the country.

Employee groups from different demographic groups have varied outlooks, needs and demands from their employer and as such, a rewards strategy that is designed as a generic strategy to cater for all employees will not work (Bussin, 2002).

In the section which follows, the empirical research objectives will be discussed.

1.4.3 Research objectives

The research objectives are to establish and conclude:

- Whether or not total rewards serves as a motivator;
- Which category of total rewards (monetary or non-monetary) serves as a greater preference amongst employees;
- If there are variances in terms of motivational and reward drivers between clinical and non-clinical employees, based on demographic variables such as educational level, race, gender and profession;
- Whether there are variances in terms of motivation and total reward drivers of clinical and non-clinical employees.

The literature study will focus on content- and process theories associated with motivation, and the study will draw on past research conducted and the inferences drawn from results.

In the next section, a motivation for the study will be provided.
1.5 Motivation for the Study

Retaining scarce and critical skills in the medical services sector is a key imperative, due to skills shortages, as well as South Africa’s social and economic imperatives. The White Paper on National Health Insurance goes on to state that Human Resources for Health are a key component of the pillars of a health system. The 2012 National Human Resources for Health Strategy outlines the roadmap for the planning, development, provisioning, distribution and management of human resources to meet the needs of the population (National Health Insurance White Paper, 2015).

Clinical professionals have specialised skills which cannot be rapidly duplicated. These professionals also have strong propensities to terminate their employment with their organisations and leave countries, if the intrinsic and extrinsic factors are not met and satisfied. Having insight into the motivational factors in terms of reward will give management insight into how to manage their staff better and retain their scarce skills. The White Paper also goes on to state, “Incentives for attracting health professionals to work in rural and hard-to-reach areas are necessary as part of broadening access to quality services in these areas. This will also require concerted efforts for the rapid production of specific categories of health professionals” (Board of Healthcare Funders of Southern Africa, 2015).

The South African Government acknowledges that whilst it is imperative to build capacity of health professionals to meet local needs, it will be equally important to ensure that they are motivated enough to be productive and remain within the country. Improving the conditions and state of mind of health professional will require a multi-disciplinary approach.

Failure to conduct the research may lead to the organisations and managers selecting incorrect reward structures, achieving low yields on employee investments, and valuable pointers being missed in designing effective organisational and human resources strategies.
1.6 Proposed Contribution of the Study

The sections which follow sets out the theoretical, practical and methodological contributions of this research and each section are discussed in greater detail.

1.6.1 Proposed theoretical contributions

1. Enhance the current body of knowledge on the impact of total reward preferences and employee motivation;
2. Contribute to the literature on the relationship between total rewards and employee motivation;
3. Establish current knowledge on the regulating influence of education as a variable on the relationship between total rewards and motivation.

1.6.2 Proposed practical contributions

The practical contributions will be as follows:

1. The creation of insight into the improvement of remuneration and total reward practices in medical services industry;
2. The development of total reward strategies in relation to clinical professionals;
3. Providing insight to management in structuring total reward practices;
1.7 Overview of the Chapters

Chapter 1 provides an understanding into the research. More specifically it sets out the affiliation between total rewards and motivation, the objectives of the study, the hypotheses, as well as the limitations and benefits of the research that was conducted.

Chapter 2 sets out the most important concepts of reward and motivation. This chapter provides an understanding around the key concepts of reward and motivation and presents reviewed literature relevant to this study.

Chapter 3 defines the research methodology applied in the study. The chapter provides an explanation of the sample of the study, the measuring instrument used, the data gathering techniques, and the statistical methods used to analyse the data.

Chapter 4 presents the results of the empirical analysis. It provides an overview of the variables and alternative hypothesis. The first set of analysis is in the form of descriptive statistics for the variables that are being considered. The descriptive statistics is followed by inferential analysis which is enhanced by means of post-hoc analysis.

Chapter 5 explains and discusses the results of the research more comprehensively and integration with, existing literature.

Chapter 6 explains the limitations of the study. The chapter also sets out the areas that need to be addressed in future research and concludes with recommendations.
1.8 Synthesis

The chapter provided an understanding into the study, which is to investigate the impact of total rewards as motivational driver for clinical versus non clinical staff. More specifically it sets out the affiliation between total rewards and motivation.

The chapter also highlighted the background of the South African healthcare environment and its challenges to attract and retain clinical skills and the impact thereof on the economy of the country. The chapter further outlines the critical imperative and the need to understand the motivational drivers of clinical staff.

The main research objective is discussed in the chapter against the aforementioned problem statement and the link is stabled between the related concepts and theories which forms the foundation for the understanding the motivational drivers of clinical professionals.

The chapter further outlined the limitations and contribution of the study.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

In the previous chapter the affiliation between total rewards and motivation, the objectives of the study, the hypotheses, as well as the limitations and benefits of the research that was discussed.

2.1 Introduction

This chapter explains key definitions around the most critical concepts pertaining to the study, such as motivation and reward preferences and the management of rewards. The objective of this chapter is to provide an appreciation of the key concepts by focusing on the literature review of relevant research that was previously conducted.

2.1.1 Research on total reward and motivation

Important aspects that appear to impact reward strategy include motivational theories, employee preferences and the total reward framework.

The key constructs identified for this research are employee motivation (Construct 1) and total reward (Construct 2).

As can be noted from the literature review, studies have been completed on these constructs, and sufficient literature exists around the relationship between total rewards and its impact on employee motivation. Studies such as those conducted by Pregnolato (2010), Nienaber (2010) and Snelgar, Renard and Venter (2013) in South Africa, focus more broadly on organisational commitment factors across various professional and demographical categories in relation to retention. Studies conducted by Roberts (2005) related more closely to the present research focused on the relationship between reward, recognition and motivation in the financial services sector. Zaida and Abbas (2011) research in the telecommunication sector of Pakistan, focused on the impact of rewards on employee motivation, whereas the proposed research will focus specifically on the medical services and healthcare industry.
According to Roberts (2005), from research conducted in the insurance industry, it is evident that numerous factors influence employee motivation. The interpretation of study could be that motivational levels is improved based on the quality and relevance of the total rewards and, which can potentially improve individual and organisational performance. The study by Roberts (2005) and other supporting studies found correlations in terms of gender, tenure and age. However, no outcomes were noted in terms of level of education.

Research by Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012) showed that medical and information technology professionals’ commitment to their organisation has a correlation to the level satisfaction in terms of retention factors, and that group of professionals differ in terms of demographical variables. However, the study did not go into detail about the influence of reward on the motivation of employees.

Research conducted by Bussin and Toerien (2015) on South African knowledge workers in information technology companies, relating to the the influences of total reward preferences in motivating these employees, concluded that there are particular reward preferences among the employees in the study. The research also verified that demographical attributes fulfils a statistically significant part in influencing reward preferences.

The research conducted by Snelgar, Renard and Venter (2013) on reward preferences of South African employees, which aimed at identifying the types of rewards that employees deem the most important. The study found that base pay is considered to be the most preferred rewards type among the majority of the employees who responded to the survey. In the same study it was found that most of the employees were most dissatisfied by the value at which reward was provided for by the employer. The study also found that variances between reward choices and demographical variables were present. The demographical variable that was specifically highlighted in terms of variances was age, gender and job level.
In a study by Liu and Li-Ping Tang (2011), responses were gathered from public sector professionals in eastern China. On completion of factor analysis, the regression results indicated that the respondent’s love of money influences their relationship between public service motivation and job satisfaction. Differently stated, employees with a strong love of money had a stronger relationship between public service motivation and job satisfaction than those without.

In a study done in Pakistan by Danish and Uman (2010), the results demonstrated that periodical rewards at regular intervals kept employees’ morale high and made them more motivated.

The shortage of skills in South Africa is aggravated by an educational system which is not considered up to standard and the increased mobility of knowledge workers, which leads to a loss of skills to other countries (Wöcke & Heymann, 2012).

In the quest for explanations to address the challenges of skills shortages, retention, and escalating wage cost in the South Africa healthcare industry, the learnings from the present study would be advantageous in gaining insight into the relationship between reward and motivation, and whether the pure monetary reward is sufficient a motivating factor to retain valuable employees.

2.1.2 Motivational theories

Behavioural and business science share a common challenge when it comes to people, the need of understanding an employee’s behaviour to unlock work performance or how to influence a client’s behaviour from an economic and psychological perspective. Motivation is defined as “a set of processes concerned with the force that energises behaviour and directs it towards attaining some goal” (Baron, 1983, p. 123). It is the role of organisations to develop managers and formulated strategies that will enable them to understand and positively influence the behaviour of their employees. The latter outcome can be achieved only if the psychological processes of people are understood.
Organisations and their leaders are confronted by the challenges to keep employees motivated or engaged to ensure greater levels of customer satisfaction, improved productivity and improved financial performance. One of the essential tasks of leaders is to motivate and guide performance (Moss-Kanter, 2003). Understanding people’s needs and influencing their behaviour is important for organisations and their leaders to ensure sustainable people performance by means of motivation.

Motivation is a primary element that influences employees work performance and provides and explanation to employee’s behaviours (Viorel, Aurel, Virgil & Stefonia, 2009).

According to Bergmann and Scarpello (2001), the link between reward systems and human needs exist on three levels, namely:

a) Motivating individuals to join an organisation;

b) Motivating employees to stay with an organisation;

c) Motivating employees to perform.

Each employee has a uniqueness informed by their cultural system, beliefs, values and norms. Even if a common cultural system exists, each person has a uniqueness in terms of their race, gender, age, educational background, marital status and profession, which may influence their motivational factors in the work environment. Motivation is a dynamic of personality and provides reasons for behaviour (Möller, 1995).

Studies undertaken with the objective to understand reward preferences have suggested that due to multiple factors, reward preferences of employees might differ (Bussin, 2011). It is commonly suggested that employee’s demographic characteristics, such as race, age, gender, and marital status impact their reward preferences (Bunton & Brewer 2012; Moore & Bussin, 2012; Nienaber, Bussin & Henn 2011; Snelgar et al., 2013).
Nienaber et al., (2011) study on whether employee personality type might influence reward preferences, however the research discovered that demographic characteristics of employees played a more significant role than personality types.

It should be a strategic imperative for organisations to have their managers trained so that they will understand how to keep employees and labour groups engaged and motivated to deliver against the organisation’s vision and strategic business intent. It is accepted widely by business leaders that salary fulfils a critical part in the motivation of employees. However, a holistic appreciation of total rewards elements, especially non-financial elements, can be a significant intangible competitive advantage to retain and keep employees motivated. Bergmann and Scarpello (2001) noted that organisations that focus exclusively on monetary compensation as a reward will not be able to sustain their employees’ motivation. The outcomes of the study supported the notion that different reward types are applicable for the attraction, retention and motivation of staff.

The diversity and unique attributes that each employee brings to an organisation must be leveraged and to this end, understanding to what extend rewards impact and influence their behaviour, is important. Nienaber (2010) posited the view that motivation can be influenced on an intrinsic or extrinsic level, and the role that managers play mostly influences motivation on an extrinsic level.

Variables affecting motivation within the organisational context can be found on three levels, namely:

a) Variables that are unique to *individuals*, for example, interests, ability and personal motivation;

b) Variables arising from the *nature of the job*, for example, degree of control or level of responsibility;

c) Variables found in the *organisational context* or in the external environment, for example, organisational culture and climate, systematic
As organisational culture impacts motivation, it must be understood and clearly defined. Even though the concept of organisational culture is well formulated and academic literature exists, it remains a debateable topic in organisations and remains a concept with competing interpretations and fails to reach consensus around a common definition (Langfield-Smith, 1995).

The phenomenon of organisational culture is recognised as a prevailing concept in organisational theory and other fields of organisational research (Harris and Ogbonna, 2002). Organisational culture grows from what employees view as a common shared set of behaviours, norms and believes. As a result an organisational culture is reflected in the way its employees make sense of what is allowed and acceptable in doing their work. (Morgan, 1990; Williams, Dobson & Walters, 1996).

An undefined organisational culture, in terms of values, norms and beliefs can set the tone for the development of an organisational culture that is not conducive for effective performance. Organisational culture must be intentional and defined with a clear intention to drive employee motivation and engagement. The manner in which management behaves and treats its human resources could be more essential and more impactful than the amount of investment in capital and infrastructure of a business. The study of organisational culture and market positioning is that both can influence organisational outcomes through the impact they exert on organisational commitment and performance (Lok and Crawford 2004).

From the literature, which describes the attributes of organisational culture, attributes are open to change, manage and influenced for the purpose of realising business objectives and ensuring employees are engaged and motivated.

2.1.3 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation
Motivation takes on two forms: intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Work is important for employees to earn an income that is able to sustain them. According to Thomas (2002), extrinsic motivation supplements intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation has a greater influence on behaviour when intrinsic motivation is moderate to low. Intrinsic or internal motivation originates from the satisfaction that a person experiences when a job is performed well. To some employees, the work content is more important than the actual financial rewards; where work creates a sense of purpose. In organisations that have a culture of high intrinsic motivation, pay systems may not necessarily have such a major impact on performance as meaningful work, engagement and sound performance management processes.

Extrinsic and intrinsic rewards have an impact on employees and employers. It is therefore challenging to predict the result of the interaction of the opposing dynamics of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards (Nujjoo & Meyer, 2012).

It is clear, given the different aspects that influence motivation, that so many different and wide-ranging motivational theories have been formulated. Intrinsic rewards (for example, a sense of achievement, stimulating work tasks or assignments) are an important part of the assignment for the individual who performs it (Gray & Starke, 1988). Extrinsic rewards (for example, remuneration, promotions, recognition) are independent of the assignment performed by an individual and is normally controlled by other people (Gray et al., 1988).

Research literature presents various schools of influence and effectiveness of rewards and specifically, monetary payment forms as a motivator. Although different opinions may exist around the effectiveness of financial rewards, the reality remains that in recent times, money fulfils and is a means to satisfy needs, directly or indirectly. Under the correct state of mind, money can have positive behavioural impact on the employee, depending on the level of meaning attached to the value. Lawler (2003) maintained that the degree of the monetary reward must fulfil the basic needs of survival and security. Money, therefore, can provide positive motivation, as money is needed by people, but
also because it is a tangible form of recognition (Armstrong, 2006). The risk remains that competitors and other companies around the globe may be able to compete for staff on such monetary level, thus retention of scarce staff is not guaranteed merely through financial rewards.

Notwithstanding the importance of management’s duty to develop total reward philosophies, policies and procedures to keep employees motivated and engaged, a responsible balance must be maintained to ensure fairness, equitability and accountability towards shareholders. Within the context to focus on rewards, ensuring the drive to remain competitive, yet operating and maintaining good governance, it remains management’s accountability to remain abreast of employees’ needs, intentions, preferences, and dreams. According to Nienaber (2010), being sensitive to employees’ needs, well-informed and respectful of them, and responsive to those needs, a culture of trust is formed, which is a cornerstone of the Employee Value Proposition (EVP) and critical for motivation.

Motivational theories are classified into content and process theories. Based on the uniqueness of people, no one theory can cover the full range of elements that influences people’s behaviour. What follows is an overview of the various motivational theories.

2.1.4 Content theories

There are numerous theories that have aided in the evolution of peoples understanding of motivation. Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (1991) formulated the view that content and process is the method on which motivation is based.

The following content theories highlighted and explained the rational for behaviour that is deemed as motivated:

1. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs;
2. Alderfer’s ERG theory;
3. Frederick Herzberg’s motivator hygiene theory; and
4. McClelland’s learned needs theory.

2.1.4.1 Maslow’s hierarchy of needs

Maslow (1943) developed the most commonly referenced motivational theories. Maslow suggested that people have various levels of needs and they are motivated to fulfil these needs.

Maslow postulated that peoples’ needs can be categorised in a hierarchy of importance. People can find themselves at any stage in a different level of the needs hierarchy, which will influence their behaviour dependent on their need/s.

The levels into which Maslow has arranged the hierarchy included five categories:

a) *Physiological needs*, which is the most basic need that people require to be fulfilled; this includes basic elements such as food and water;

b) *Safety needs* is the need of people to be secure and not at risk of being harmed, this includes elements such as shelter for security;

c) *Social needs* include friendship and a sense of belonging;

d) *Esteem needs* include a desire for personal achievement and recognition. In a family, social group or organisation, it is the need of an individual to have a sense of being recognised by the group, team or larger community;

e) *Self-actualisation needs* refer to the feeling that a person has truly achieved his or her full potential.

Maslow’s (1971) theory was viewed as significant as it suggested that the lower level of needs must first be satisfied before the higher level needs could be satisfied. The need hierarchy theory of Maslow also groups human needs into deficiency and growth needs.
Maslow described level 1 needs, such as physiological, safety and social needs as *deficiency needs*. He suggested that people will invest more effort in satisfying these needs.

Level 2 needs, which were defined by Maslow as safety and security, are of great relevance to organisations. Should employees not have a sense of job security and a guaranteed sense of being paid, this would impact their level of motivation.

Level 3, being social needs, are of equal importance in organisations. Employees must share a common vision or purpose and experience a sense of belonging and that they are meaningful contributors. Leadership in the organisation can play a meaningful contribution towards fulfilling this need.

Level 4 consists of employees having the need for physical and psychological engagement for the purpose of fulfilling their self-esteem needs. Organisations that are mindful of this level use meaningful recognition systems to address this level of need in their employees (Baron, 1983).

Level 5, self-actualisation is the need for an employee to seize the opportunity in realising their personal growth potential. It is important for the organisation to invest in the growth of their employees.

Although Maslow’s notion is one of the most referenced theories, it has several shortcomings, including that it focuses on personal needs only. There is no differentiation between the needs of people with different backgrounds and cultures or reference to life-stage. Maslow’s needs hierarchy, however, is valid if it is applied to society as a whole instead of the individual level.

2.1.4.2 Alderfer’s ERG theory

Alderfer (1972) hypothesised and developed Maslow’s five-level hierarchy into three core needs categories, instead of five levels.
Alderfer suggested that an employee’s motivation can be understood in terms of the following three categories:

- **Existence (E)** needs, defined as the different aspects of tangible material and psychological needs;
- **Relatedness (R)** needs, defined as involved relationships with significant others;
- **Growth (G)** needs, defined to encourage a person to evolve and enhance themselves to become more productive or influence others in a positive way (Alderfer, 1972).

Unlike Maslow’s prescription that one level of his defined needs hierarchy needs to be satisfied before moving to the next needs level, Alderfer did not prescribe a hierarchy of needs, suggesting that one level needs to be first met before moving onto the next level. Alderfer’s theory suggested that two or more needs types can influence and individuals behaviour at the same time. Alderfer questioned the role that remuneration fulfils as a motivator on an individual’s behaviour and thus placed questions around its efficacy. However, research conducted by Gerhart and Rynes (2003) contrasted the views of Alderfer; the study found that pay (namely monetary rewards) is a key factor of work motivation and as such is a key contributor in an organisation becoming successful. As their study was conducted later than Alderfer’s theory, it is possible that financial rewards increased in importance since the 1970s.

2.1.4.3 Frederick Herzberg’s motivator hygiene theory

Herzberg formulated the two-factor motivational model, which comprised of two factors namely **hygiene (maintenance)** and **motivational (growth)**. Herzberg drew a clear difference in his motivational model by means of making a distinction between factors that cause unhappiness at work and those factors that contribute to job satisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 2004).

Herzberg’s work suggested that there are elements that are of importance to people in the workplace, but the presence of those factors did not influence their
level of motivation. He termed these factors hygiene factors, and believed that the presence of these factors would in all likelihood result in job satisfaction. However, if the hygiene factors were not present, a level of dissatisfaction would occur. Notwithstanding the latter point no dependency or certainty can be placed on hygiene factors to motivate higher levels of performance (Hodson, 2001).

Although Herzberg’s theory is aligned to Maslow’s motivational theory, he was critical of Maslow’s work. Herzberg’s hygiene factors have some similarities to the theories of Maslow and Alderfer, in terms of the lower level of needs defined by the theories, while the motivators are similar to the higher levels or intrinsic needs. However, he did not state that a hierarchical relationship exists between the two factors. Herzberg’s theory also received its fair share of criticism. Research conducted by Katz (1978) proved that job satisfaction changes throughout a person’s working life and does not stay constant, which suggests that job satisfaction is more complex than Herzberg suggested.

Based on the uniqueness of employees and applying the theories of both Herzberg and Maslow, one has to appreciate the needs employees will have and that impact their motivational levels and thus their performance. The appreciation and understanding of the intrinsic and extrinsic factors in the workplace, aligned to the biographical information, are key for the level of motivation of employees.

2.1.4.4 McClelland’s learned needs theory

McClelland’s (1961) theory suggests that people firstly work to fulfil an internal need for achievement. McClelland suggested that needs or motives are learned and reinforced until they become a hierarchy, which differs from individual to individual and influences behaviour.

McClelland’s theory focuses on three primary needs, namely:
• Need for achievement – McClelland considered this the most dominant of needs;
• Need for power;
• Need for affiliation.

The criticism levelled against McClelland’s research was that the three primary needs attract different interpretations based on culture and social norms.

The theories of Maslow, McClelland, Alderfer and Herzberg, and Barret (1998) compared the different types of rewards and work with human needs. If the comparisons between the different motivational theories and reward models are combined and integrated, they provide an overall view of the alignment between rewards, personal needs and different types of motivation.

2.1.5 Process theories

Content theories of motivation sets the rational on what causes motivated behaviour by individuals. The theories provide comprehensive information on the rational for people’s needs. These theories explain the relationship of motivated behaviour and why people are driven to satisfy this state of their emotions. The insight provided by content theories is of great benefit to organisations on what employees deem as meaningful in relation to rewards given to them (Schermerhorn et al., 1991).

The work of Frederick Herzberg, in the form of the two-factor theory, Victor Vroom’s expectancy theory, and research by Gagne and Deci (2005) on self-determination theory and work motivation, are critical studies to consider in today’s complex working environment.

The following process theories deal with the process of motivation and are concerned with how it occurs:

1. Expectancy theory of Victor Vroom;
3. Equity theory;

2.1.5.1 Victor Vroom’s expectancy theory

Vroom’s expectancy theory suggest that peoples decisions are informed by their views that a particular reward will follow, whereas Maslow and Herzberg focus on the relationship between internal needs and the expected effort in fulfilling the needs. Vroom differentiated between effort (which arises from motivation), performance and outcomes. Vroom’s expectancy theory emanates from the premises that in organisations, individual's degree of performance is informed based on the level of benefits / rewards they are to receive. Therefore, individuals will vary their level of work performance if they expect their effort will result in rewards such as monetary rewards, promotion or recognition that is equitable to the effort invested in the task / work (Schultz, 1982). The notion suggests that individuals will prefer certain objectives over others.

The three key parts to this theory, termed beliefs, are:

- **Expectancy (E)**, which refers to employees having different expectations and levels of confidence about their own ability to perform and achieve;
- **Instrumentality (I)**, which refers to the perception of employees as to whether or not they will actually receive the reward that they have been promised by a manager;
- **Valence (V)**, which refers to the depth of the employee's need for extrinsic and intrinsic rewards.

In relation to business and the application to people management, the theory suggests that rewards that is considered important for employees will motivate employees. Motivational instruments should be based on input from employees instead of what is perceived by management. Roberts (2005) suggested that employees are rational in their decision-making; they consider their actions and behave in a manner to satisfy those needs. This notion was informed and based on the expectancy theory. The theory is founded on the knowledge that people
are different in terms of their individual needs and for this reasons people will assign a differently level of significance to rewards (Lawler, 2003).

Criticism of this theory includes the objection that the theory does not fully acknowledge the role of emotions in employee effort and behaviour, although it highlights the need for management to seek to understand what inspires and motivates employees (Du Toit et al., 2007).

2.1.5.2 Equity theory

Adams’ equity theory (Adams, 1965) is based on the assumption that individuals seek fairness in the employer-employee relationships.

Adams proposed that in order to maintain fairness, people need a point of reference against which to judge what they actually experience. The main source of such comparisons is the perceived treatment in relation to the treatment of other people in similar situations. The underpinning principle of this motivational theory is that employees must be treated and rewarded equitably in relation to their efforts and those of others. Where this perceived equity is not maintained between employees, a state of inequity exists, which results in conflict and influences the actions and behaviour of people. This may distract and negatively redirect the energy of employees, which is required for the achievement of key business indicators, thus negatively impacting the overall business performance.

Research also suggested that apart for reward value that must be equitable: the means in which the rewards are allocated must be deemed as fair from an employee’s perspective (Martin, 2005). Organisations have the unique challenge to ensure that all people practices, specifically pay and benefits, are applied and managed in an equitable manner, to ensure perceived fairness exists in line with employees’ expectations. Failure to manage the perceptions of employees effectively could result in perceived in equitability as Adams in his research suggested, resulting in demotivated employees and the possible development of tensions in the employer-employee relationship.
Within the South African context, Adams’ theory is meaningful, due to the historical nature and background of social inequalities that were dominant before the birth of democracy. The development of legislation to create economic equality could have an adverse impact on the level of motivation of employees if not managed effectively. As suggested in Adams’ theory, certain race and gender groups may perceive that inequality exists due to the application of legislative and organisational policy, and that their efforts are not recognised on merit, but superceded by policies and regulations.

2.1.5.3 B.F. Skinner’s reinforcement theory

Skinner’s (1953) research focused on learned behaviour, with a primary focus on the person-environment interaction. Skinner’s reinforcement theory proposed that an individual’s actions are a function of its consequences.

His motivational theory suggests that the external environment of a person shapes, changes and directs their behaviour, and that behaviour is influenced by consequences thereof. The internal state (mind) and feelings of a person are ignored by Skinner’s theory. Skinner’s work suggests that organisations need to focus on the working environment to ensure it is designed in such a way that is conducive for motivation. Skinner emphasised reinforcement processes, which are seen as primary in the shaping of behaviour, but the theory does not focus on the cause of individuals’ behaviours.

In relation to management, by applying the reinforcement theory, managers must apply the following controls to achieve the desired level of motivation in employees and encourage the desired behaviours, namely:

- **Positive reinforcement** – It implies that were a positive behaviour is performed by an individual a positive reward follows;
- **Punishment** – It implies removing positive responses of actions, with the objective that the reaction thereto will reduce the likelihood of the undesirable behaviour being repeated in future;
- **Negative reinforcement** – The intention of this type of reinforcement is to remove undesirable consequences by means of rewarding an individual. Both positive and negative reinforcement can be used for decreasing undesirable behaviour;
- **Extinction** – Extinction suggests absence of reinforcements. Said differently, it implies withholding rewards for the associated behaviour.

Skinner’s (1953) theory posited that to predict specific behaviour, positive and negative reinforcement must be applied to employees. Skinner suggested that positive reinforcement has a more positive effect on influencing the desired behaviour of people. He believed that negative reinforcement in the form of punishment does not influence or shape the change of behaviour.

Skinner’s reinforcement theory can be observed in HR remuneration strategies, where pay for performance methodology intends to serve as a positive reinforcement. However, the challenge for managers and organisations is to sustain the desired behaviour of performance. Reward-associated outcomes in time become a norm, which results in the positive reward becoming an expectation and unlocking undesirable behaviour.

Herzberg (1968) argued that certain factors may be the reason job satisfaction, while other factors may be the reason for dissatisfaction. Job satisfaction as a construct covers a very wide domain and sub-domains. At the time of the Herzberg studies, a hygiene factor like salary was less complex and not as multi-dimensional as one observes today. The question is thus, should reward be viewed as a hygiene factor or a motivator for the two-job families that will be studied in the present research? Herzberg’s theory was criticised for not allowing for individual differences (Hackman & Oldman, 1976).

Victor Vroom’s expectancy theory postulates that certain behaviours of people can be attributed to the fact that they expect certain results from their actions. The theory emphasises the need for organisations to link reward directly to employee and organisational performance, and to ensure that the rewards that are granted are merited and needed by recipients (Montana & Charnov, 2008).
However, work such as that of Elton Mayo in the Hawthorne studies in the 1930’s does not support Vroom’s findings.

2.2 Total Reward Management

For the purpose of the study apart from the motivational theories, a comprehensive appreciation of the concepts of reward, remuneration and benefits is required.

For most organisations, the costs associated with salaries, incentives and benefits are the largest expenses on their income statement, varying from 50 to 65 percent (Gerhart & Rynes, 2003; Milkovich & Newman, 1999). Therefore, it is imperative that the policies, strategies and systems that govern the total reward philosophy are carefully considered, well understood, clearly documented and communicated.

Rewards have a twofold purpose: to compensate employees for their work and to promote behaviours and practices that organisations wish to encourage. The ideal reward strategy creates a consistent, fair, value-adding set of policies governing wages and non-financial rewards. (Armstrong & Murlis, 2005).

Despite the fundamental link between the reward strategy and the overall organisational strategy, success cannot be achieved unless the reward strategy is part of an integrated HR strategy. The actual organisational strategy must be linked (cascading of performance objectives) to the individual function / role, to the level in which it operates in the broader organisation. Understanding the competencies that contribute to the achievement of the desired outputs is key and should inform the remuneration strategy.

The structure of work, competencies, outputs and remuneration has to be integrated into the culture and climate, and this should support the business strategy in a sustainable manner.
There is increasing evidence that organisations that implement an integrated reward strategy covering financial, non-financial, intrinsic and extrinsic elements, and embrace a holistic approach to reward management enjoy a much greater return on investment in human capital (Bussin, 2011).

Business-, HR and reward strategies cannot exist in isolation of each other. Strategy development is a highly interactive and dynamic process that feeds in dual directions. Key to the development of objectives and tactics from a strategy is an understanding the functional drivers that impact the various areas of the business.

It is practically not feasible to formulate bespoke individual reward systems for most organisations as smaller size organisations would find it challenging to be effective and/or efficient due to the onerous demands from a management and administrative processes of such systems, as suggested by Nienaber et al. (2011). A solution to this challenge is to design differentiated reward packages by job function or role as suggested by Snelgar et al. (2013). This notion is no different from modern-day marketing strategies that focus on customer segmentation according to the specific needs and requirements of a specific demographic, which becomes the target market.
2.3 The Components of Remuneration

The notion of total rewards includes those elements that employees deem as valuable. (Medcof & Rumpel, 2007). Total rewards are related to the employees perceived value proposition (EVP) from the employer, which, in marketing terms, refers to internal brand value, as viewed from an employee perspective (Van der Merwe, 2012).

Developing a reward or remuneration policy is one of the most important decisions an organisation has to make. In recent time, due to the potential impact to the organisation and to ensure good corporate governance, reward as a topic receives board priority and independent oversight by companies’ boards and regulators. A competitive remuneration policy allows the organisation to use the policy as a tool to attract, but most of all retain, employees and managers (Bussin, 2011).

The figure below was developed based on all the different models for total rewards, which are emphasised in the total reward systems section. It illustrates the general components of remuneration.
Figure 2.1. Main components of a remuneration system. Adapted from “The remuneration handbook for Africa” by Bussin, 2011, p. 121.

From Figure 2.1, it can be observed that when basic pay (1) and fringe benefits (2) are combined, they provide the employee with guaranteed remuneration that is also known as a total reward package. A combination of short-term incentives and long-term incentives will provide the employee with variable pay. It is essential for remuneration managers and specialists to try to maintain basic salary and fringe benefits to control short-term incentives and long-term incentives (Bussin, 2011).

**Basic salary** is a result from the organisation’s internal and external equity. Internal equity is the level to which employees are paid equitably and consistently in terms of their employment contract or remuneration relative to similar categories of employees within the organisation (Khalifa & Truong, 2011). External equity refers to one organisation comparing remuneration with competing organisations and the market (Khalifa et al., 2011). After the basic
salary has been established, the organisation can structure the employee’s benefits. The composition of an employee’s fringe benefits is subject to job grades and tax laws (Bussin, 2011).

**Short-term incentives (STIs)** can be considered as a motivation and/or retention strategy, which management can use to drive employee outputs or performance. Short-term incentives can consist of production incentives, bonuses or commission. One key attribute of short-term incentives is that these incentives can be accomplished within one year and are not guaranteed. Short-term incentives can be obtained by all employees in the organisation (Bussin, 2011).

**Long-term incentive (LTI)** schemes are designed for senior employees, in most instances limited to middle and top management positions in the organisation. Not all organisations have an LTI in place, but this may at times be substituted with a larger STI compared to the market. Long-term incentives can also be used in a motivation and retention strategy for critical skills or to reward exceptional performance. One key attribute of long-term incentives is that these are usually obtained over a period longer than one year, encourage sustainability for the organisation and can include examples such as deferred remuneration, share option schemes, retirement funds and “rolling” incentives (Bussin, 2011, p. 181).

The following models illustrate the components or factors of total reward by various researchers. These models are adopted by companies as a key point of reference in formulating their own rewards models, policies and practices (Bussin, 2009). The models that will be examined are:

- The WorldatWork Total rewards model;
- The Armstrong and Brown total rewards model;
- The Corporate Council of Leadership components of total rewards.

Van Blerck (2012) stated that although several total rewards models exist, the underlying elements are relatively similar, with slight differences to them.
2.3.1 Total rewards model: WorldatWork

The WorldatWork total rewards model comprises of five core reward categories, illustrated in the model below (WorldatWork, 2007, p. 7):

![WorldatWork Total Rewards Model](image)

**Figure 2.2. WorldatWork Total Rewards Model**

Figure 2.2 positions the total rewards model within the framework of the business environment, the organisations HR strategy and the organisational culture. The five core reward types, shown in Figure 2.2 are as follows: 1) Remuneration (compensation in the model refers to a combination of variable and fixed pay components); 2) Benefits; 3) Work / life balance; 4) Performance and recognition; and 5) Development and career opportunities.

The risk in most approaches to rewards is recognising only the direct transactional (financial) element and neglecting the multitude of other factors that significantly influence the ability to attract and, more importantly, motivate staff.

A total reward framework may seem to be the solution from an organisational perspective, but it would be merely theoretical, unless there is an appreciation
that not all employees are the same, and that employees are at different stages in their lives. Different employees may find different situations rewarding, so reward can be very personal. This is clear from the literature review of the various processes and content of motivational theories.

The need for this balanced view on the total rewards framework was highlighted in a study conducted by Kaye and Jordan Evans (2002), where 12,000 people were asked why they remained in the employment of their organisation. The top five reasons advanced as responses were as follows, with 93 percent listing at least one of the first two and 100 percent listing at least one of the first three:

1. Exciting work and challenge;
2. Career growth, learning and development;
3. Working with great people;
4. Fair pay;
5. Supportive management / good boss.

Different employees may seem to find different situations rewarding. According to Maslow, people have seven different levels of needs and each level fulfils a higher order of need. The needs follow a pre-set chronological order and individuals will only move to the next higher order of need, if the lower order of need has been fulfilled. Flexibility in the total reward structures is thus a fundamental requirement. Giancola (2008) stated that there is a close correlation between stages in the lifecycle and certain reward preferences. Being able to understand employees by segmenting them accordingly could greatly assist in creating alignment between employee needs and optimising the return on the organisation’s reward investment.

WorldatWork defined total reward as containing five core reward categories to attract, motivate and retain employees. The sections below describe each of the elements.
2.3.1.1 Compensation

Remuneration (compensation as referred to in the model) denotes a mix of fixed (guaranteed) pay and variable (non-guaranteed) pay.

Fixed Pay

Fixed pay or also referred to as guaranteed pay, is compensation that is a contractually reoccurring form of payment that does not fluctuates according to the performance of the employee. Based on good governance and business practice this form of compensation is set in the organisation's pay philosophy and policies. In some instances this type of pay can also be regulated by sectorial determinations.

Variable pay

Variable pay fluctuates in relation to the level of individual or team performance achieved against predetermined criteria. It is a form of payment that must be re-earned each performance period. Employees have no entitled right to this pay type which is given at the discretion of the employer.

2.3.1.2 Benefits

Benefits are traditionally assigned as an enhancement to fix pay by providing employees with additional rewards such as leave, health/wellness and retirement benefits. Benefit programmes may be categorised into income-protection programmes and paid time off programmes.

However, regardless of defined statutory benefits, organisations need to consider benefits beyond the defined minimum benefits and consider what would motivate employees to succeed.

Although compensation may be the first option and probably the easiest option to consider, it may not be effective and generate the return that the organisation wishes to achieve.
2.3.1.3 Work-life balance

Individuals cannot operate their lives in silos; work and personal life are interdependent and inter-related. Organisations are required to give careful consideration to how the different dimensions of the employee’s life and workplace are integrated to ensure the employee is and remains engaged and motivated.

This idea was supported by Fitzgerald and Thirsk (2004), who suggested that work-life balance would be the new focus for employers. Approximately twelve years since the work of Fitzgerald and Thirsk’s suggestion, it has become a focus point for an organisation’s search for an effective solution to address work-life or total employee wellness challenge.

The research of Fitzgerald and Thirsk (2004) suggested there are seven categories of support for effective work-life programmes to harmonise and balance important connections between the worker, their family, the community and the workplace:

- **Creating workplace flexibility**
  
  o A menu of flexible options that enable greater control over when, where and how work gets done;
  
  Technological advancements in the last decade have unlocked many options for employers and employees in the field of work flexibility. Access to the latest technology and solutions that allows for work from home have become an incentive for some people;

- **Paid and unpaid time off**
  
  o Personal time off from work to use at the total discretion of the employee. The practice varies from country to country based on statutory regulations, around how much time an employee can or must take off, and whether or not that time is paid by the employer;
This is of particular importance at a time when gender equity consciousness is topical worldwide.

- **Supporting health and wellness**
  
  o Employee wellness initiatives extend further than the physical health of an employee. Wellness programs traditionally focus on the employees, physical wellness but this view have changed significantly. From the employers perspective the focus is primarily around supporting healthy lifestyle choices for employees and their families, for the purpose of improving employee productivity and managing absenteeism;

  The complexities of modern-day life and the increase in lifestyle diseases require employers to play a more active role concerning employee wellness. The focus does not only extend to the physical wellbeing of employees, but also to the psycho-social, financial and spiritual wellbeing;

- **Community involvement**
  
  o The social consciousness of organisations has extended and greater level of demand has been placed on organisations, to get involved with the external and internal community in which their employees, suppliers and customers originate from. The expectation is that organisations become involved through monetary donations, volunteer programmes and partnerships;

- **Caring for dependents**
  
  o To only consider the wellness of the immediately employee would be wasted energy, as employees cannot be seen in isolation from their families. There are numerous matters relating to caregiving for dependents. Organisations need to offer support for parenting and extended family members if they are to remain attractive as an employer;
• **Financial Wellness / Support**

  o In the area of financial wellness, work-life is primarily concerned with the education, training and awareness of employees to manage their financial responsibilities in an effective manner. The focus is also to ensure that are provided with excess to necessary resources to make informed decisions around their finances.

• **Culture and diversity initiatives**

  o Organisational culture is the collection of values, believes, norms, attitudes and behaviours of the employees in an organisation. However what is normally deemed and adopted as an organisational culture is what management through their leadership behaviours display as acceptable. Effecting changes to an organisations culture is a challenge because it involves changing people’s behaviours through altering their beliefs and values which is diverse.

  Stephenson (2005) posited the view that top management and leadership buy-in and their behaviour must remain in line with the organisational policies promoting work-life balance for employees. Due to the competitive nature of modern leadership and long hours being spent in offices and board rooms, employees try to emanate the behaviour of their leaders with the hope to equally achieve success. However long hours of work with no balance of personal time, has seen the increase of employee burnout and relationship breakdowns amongst families. The rules must be applied fairly to everyone.

2.3.1.4 Performance and recognition

Performance-related rewards allow for top performing employees to be rewarded in a way that is differentiated and greater in value, compared to employees with average performance output. According to Lyons and Ben-Ora (2002), successful performance-based rewards are thought through in terms of the desired performance outcomes, developed with the employee motivators in mind, implemented and
aligned with the organisation’s strategy on total rewards and consistently reviewed and adjusted.

2.3.1.4.1 Performance management

Performance management can be defined as the system used to set out the organisational objectives and targets and cascading of these objectives into team and individual objectives and measurements towards the achievement of a common business goal.

Historically most, if not all, rewards have been subjectively based on the views of the manager. The standards, in most cases, had very little if any alignment to the department and / or organisation’s objectives. In current times, it is important that there is an appreciation for the impact that well-defined objectives could have on the overall performance of the organisation and the motivational impact on the employee. If the employees understand the goals to which their efforts must be directed, it can serve as a motivator in attaining those goals.

Nel (2001) supported the notion and argued further that if a person is motivated, that they would place a greater level effort, specifically discretionary effort, at attaining that goal. Nel's argument was however based on the condition that such a person must fully aware and understand the objectives to be achieved. To this end organisations are realising the significance of planning and the enabling of individual performance and the impact thereof on organisational performance.

2.3.1.4.2 Recognition

Recognition – particularly if given in front of others to acknowledge an employee’s efforts or performance it has a meaningful impact on employee’s level of motivation. It meets an intrinsic psychological need which people desire in terms of appreciation. The increased level of motivation from employees who are recognised can reinforce certain positive behaviours that contribute to organisational success. Awards can take on various formats which can include financial or non-financial rewards.
The economic pressures that are impacting societies have not left organisations immune to the impact. Organisations are under immense pressure to manage their cash-flow better, resulting in organisations having to become innovative in the development of formal and informal recognition programmes to complement the formal rewards. However, in developing recognition programmes, one needs to be mindful that recognition programmes over time can become impersonal and no longer achieve the desired impact.

Romano (2003) stated that the best way of knowing how to meet employees’ needs is to ask them directly on what rewards they would attached meaning to and would value.

2.3.1.5 Career and development opportunities

Career opportunities
These are plans formulated by the organisation for an employee to advance their own career goals; it may include advancement or promotion into a role with a greater level of responsibility and complexity. The organisation enables career development opportunities within the organisation so that talented high performing employees are placed in a role that allows them to make the best possible contribution to the organisation in terms of investment value.

Development

A clearly constructed and mutually agreed learning programme designed to improve employees’ competencies and level of proficiency; learning development actively involves employees to be involved in a structured program to perform better and leaders to advance their human resources capabilities and talents.

2.3.2 Total rewards model: Armstrong and Brown

Armstrong and Brown (2006) added a further component to the WorldatWork total rewards model. They included an additional rewards category to the model in the
form of work experience. The rewards model also included transactional and relational rewards in their explanation of total rewards. They also make reference to non-financial or intrinsic rewards as depicted in Table 2.

Table 1

Armstrong and Brown’s total rewards model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transactional rewards</th>
<th>Relational rewards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Base Pay</td>
<td>Learning and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contingent Pay</td>
<td>Non-financial/intrinsic rewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Benefits</td>
<td>The work experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total remuneration</td>
<td>Total reward</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


It should be noted that the work-life balance component is not included in the model, but is referred to as work experience. A comparison can be illustrated between Armstrong and Brown’s total rewards model and the WorldatWork total rewards model, which follows in subsequent paragraphs of the chapter.

2.3.3 Components of Total Rewards: Corporate Leadership Council

The Corporate Leadership Council (CLC) (2015) described total rewards components from a theoretical point of view. In comparison to the WorldatWork’s total rewards model, it is apparent that performance as well as learning and development are excluded. The CLC (2015) updated components of total rewards revealed the following categories for total rewards:

- Remuneration and benefits;
- Work environment;
- Work-life balance;
- Organisational environment.

The table below contains an explanation of the different categories of total rewards components and variables as described by CLC.
2.3.4 Reward as motivator

From various studies, it is clear that there are numerous schools of thought regarding what truly energises and motivates employees. Bettencourt and Brown (2003) stated that to remain competitive, customer retention requires excellent employee retention. To develop a human resources strategy, a comprehensive understanding of the employee-specific motivational drivers is vital. Organisations can thus not deploy a one-size-fits-all solution in terms of rewards and expect the HR strategies to yield optimal results.
Martocchio (1998) describes compensation as the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards employees are awarded in exchange for their skills and work outputs. Intrinsic compensation can be described as the emotional sense of pleasure and achievement for employees, which arises from their work. Extrinsic compensation is the rewards received in the tangible format of monetary and non-monetary rewards (inclusive of benefits).

Barton (2002) argued that formal reward programmes are financial rewards such as salary, benefits, bonuses and share options. It appears that employees perceive the latter financial rewards as given rewards for motivation. Sarvadi (2005) further stated that the greatest oversight by organisations is that they focus too much on financial rewards and they miss the opportunity of recognition programmes to demonstrate appreciation to their employees. Recognition programmes can have the means to serves as a well-balanced reward system that can be delivered at a marginal cost compared to other reward types.

Incentive programmes that involve cash payments are onerous on the organisation and reach a point where it is not sustainable. Apart from the financial impact, cash incentives reach a point where it is perceived by employees as a right of entitlement. Incentive that have proven to be more successful, are those programmes that are customised to the employees needs and awarded as an when required (Stephenson, 1995). Most businesses approach recognition and incentive programmes as ‘feel good’ celebrating activity versus positioning it as a key rewards mechanism. A positive correlation exists between non-cash awards and improved employee performance. (Wiscombe, 2002).

According to Lawler (2003), an effective and efficient reward model in terms of motivating employees must take into account some key principle: it must motivate employees to perform through rewards, provide employees and managers with a clear line of sight, afford employees the accountability to influence their performance, and deliver on the performance and rewards promise.

Wilson (1994) argued that a reward system needs to have a positive impact on employee’s behaviour for it to be considered fit for purpose.
To achieve rewards that is fit for propose the rewards need to be:

- Conditional on achieving desired outcomes in terms of performance versus being present;
- Meaningful and valuable to the individual;
- Targets must be specific, measurable and achievable;
- Open to all to individuals in the same job to participate;
- Aligned in terms of the employee’s needs (intrinsic) and the workplace setting (extrinsic) in which the employee operates.

Lawler (2003) posited that rewards for employees must strive towards satisfying employee at the basic needs of survival and security. Organisations should have a selection of rewards that is of relevance for the employees who they wish to motivate; distributed in an equitable manner; employees must make the link between their performance and the value of the reward they are awarded. Rewards will not be sustainable in the long term to motivate employees and may lead to employees being discourage (positive) risk-taking behaviour, should the aforementioned points not be taken into account by an organisation.

Organisations are increasingly rewarding employees as means to establish a tangible differentiator in terms of quality and performance. Employees who participate in such reward programmes are more likely to feel valued; employees are also more likely to identify with the organisation vision and purpose (Armstrong & Murlis, 1991). This could also give effect to employees being able to give a greater degree of discretionary effort towards the organisation.

2.3.5 Intrinsic versus extrinsic rewards

The discussion on rewards illustrated the impact that intrinsic and extrinsic rewards could have on the levels of motivation of employees. Employees perform their work-related functions/duties to attain some variable form of rewards. Certain rewards provided by the organisation, including pay, promotions, and learning and development, are extrinsic since they are tangible elements. Other formats of
rewards, such as the feeling of achievement and personal growth as experienced by the employee are viewed as intrinsic rewards (Arnold & Feldman, 1986).

Intrinsic rewards align closely to Maslow’s higher-level needs. It proposes that individuals can reward themselves, by means of the emotional feeling they experience. One such behaviour of “self-reward” is when an employee experiences a sense of achievement and growth. It would appear that employees are more motivated if they are given tasks that are both intrinsically and extrinsically rewarding (Lawler, 2003).

The reward model adopted by an organisation can have a significant impact, positively or negatively, on employee’s level of motivation and engagement. Although rewards can serve a variety of objectives, it is commonly introduced to motivate employees and to invoke specific action or behaviour from the employee (Arnold et al., 1986).

A person, therefore, could be described as extrinsically motivated if they perform some activity solely as a means to an end. A person is described as intrinsically motivated if they appear to perform an activity for its own sake and appear to derive enjoyment from it.

Early research suggested that intrinsic and extrinsic factors or types of motivators existed independent or in isolation from each other.

However, it was found later that intrinsic and extrinsic factors do not exist in isolation and that they actually have a high level of interdependence on the level of motivation of a person.

2.3.6 Reward preferences based on demographics

Results from research presenting individuals’ reward preferences on work motivation and satisfaction are influenced by their personal biographical features. As shown by Nienaber et al., 2011, reward preferences may vary according to an employee’s biographical characteristics.
With regard to age, it has been found that an employee’s reward preferences change as the employee go through their life cycle. As the employee gets older rewards such as flexible work arrangement rather than the mere remuneration component becomes steadily more important to them, compared to younger employees (Snelgar et al., 2013). Similarly, studies conducted by Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman and Lance (2010) provided findings where younger workers preferred leisure values and work that provided extrinsic rewards. Cennamo and Gardener (2008) argued that salary and benefits have more value for older employees than for younger employees.

Regarding job level / grade, research found that employees with dependents may prefer family-accommodating rewards, for example medical aid, and that lower level employees feel educational benefits such study assistance, bursaries, study leave would increase their chances for career advancement (Snelgar et al., 2013). Nienaber et al. (2011) supported this statement and observed that employees in positions such as junior management levels held considerably higher preference for remuneration and benefits when compared to top management levels. Job level group, therefore, can be seen as an efficient variable to categorise and reward accordingly.

Gender, as a demographic variable also affects reward preferences (Chiang & Birtch, 2006). Nienaber et al. (2011) as well as Snelgar et al. (2013) illustrated that females have higher preferences for payment and benefits as well as a favourable work setting. Contrary to the above research, Paddey and Rousseau (2011) found that no differences existed between males and females in terms of reward preferences.

The literature that was discussed has clearly illustrated that demographic variables influence reward preferences; however, the difficulty lies in reliably correlating these factors with certain reward preferences.
2.4 Synthesis

Informed by the literature review of motivational theories, it is apparent that a well-constructed reward models can positively contribute to employees’ motivational levels, their discretionary efforts and willingness to learn and improve their skills. More importantly, management teams that understand, anticipate the needs, wants and goals of its employees can positively contribute towards the achievement of organisational objectives.

Notwithstanding the importance of rewards as motivator, and the body of knowledge as a research field, most organisations and managers fail to balance rewards with the importance of other variables on the motivational levels of employees. The ignored variables by organisations include, but are not limited to content of work, job security, leadership, performance management, learning and development, employees’ physical, emotional and spiritual wellbeing, work-life balance and informal employee recognition.

It is evident through motivational theory, specifically content theories, that motivated employees will apply a greater degree of discretionary efforts and will improve their level of proficiency, which may result in greater work performance.

In the next chapter, the research design utilised will be outlined, it will describe the sample of the study, the hypotheses, the technique followed to gather the data, and the statistical methods used to analyse the data.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The previous chapter provides an understanding around the key concepts of total rewards and motivation theory and presents reviewed literature relevant to this study. In this chapter the research methodology applied in the study. An explanation of the sample of the study, the measuring instrument used, the data gathering techniques, and the statistical methods used to analyse the data.

3. Introduction

When commencing with a study the point of departure is normally informed by the purpose of study. When considering the purpose of the study a number of factors need to be taken into account such as the desired sample size, practicality, time and cost. The design of the study is thus influenced by the latter considerations, which informs decisions on the method of data collection, (Fowler, 2009). Mouton (2001) indicated that surveys are a typical method for the collection of data in studies of a quantitative nature. Surveys are the most commonly used approach / method for the collection of descriptive information about groups of people (Stangor, 2015).

Internet and online communication have increased exponentially and users in Africa grew more than 3600% between 2000 and 2012 to 167 million users (Bryman, 2011). This has allowed for greater accessibility to greater number of people, it is more economical and efficient. Based on the latter reasons a web-based survey, in the form of a structured questionnaire, will be used in the present study.

3.1 Research Hypothesis

(i) H1: There is a statistically significant relationship between total rewards preference of staff in a medical services organisation.

(ii) H2: The nine independent variables (work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leadership / supervision and general) will significantly explain the variance in reward preferences of employees in different job families (clinical versus non-clinical).
(iii) H3: There are statistically significant variances in terms of total rewards on the biographical variables based on employee's gender, race, educational qualifications, job family and grade.

3.2 Approach

The approach to the research was an empirical, quantitative design technique. Quantitative research considered the data gathered from a survey in terms of the numbers and statistical interpretation thereof as opposed to looking at processes and meanings gathered in qualitative research (Creswell, 2007). Quantitative research is focussed with the facts or responses of participants. It seeks to understand and explain attitudes, perceptions and views of participants, while the researcher attempts to gain a holistic understanding of the topic and literature.

Quantitative research can be described as research that is more descriptive in nature and applies more formal measures of behaviours (Stangor, 2015). The measurement instruments that are normally used for quantitative research includes questionnaires and systematic observation of behaviour which can be subjected to statistical analysis.

Qualitative research has some advantages in that it endeavours to capture composite behaviour and affords a more complete understanding of the situation. However it also contains its own set of weaknesses in that it only provides a view of a specific point in time. This results in a static view of the current happening. Another distinct disadvantage of qualitative research is that it does not assess the relationships among variables.

Some of the weaknesses of qualitative research can be addressed by means of trustworthiness which consists of four main criteria:

- Credibility – which consider the accounts of the event or aspect;
Transferability – which is a detailed or in-depth account of the event allowing other to make judgements about the transferability of the findings to other situations;

Dependability – which suggest that complete records must be kept of the research which can be audited;

Confirmability – which is to ensure that the researcher have not allowed their personal values to influence the research;

Apart for the methods set out above to address the weaknesses of the quantitative research in this study, triangulation was also applied. This is the means where the data of the findings being cross-checked not only from a quantitative perspective but also from a qualitative perspective.

Research was conducted by gathering data, by means of a survey. The survey comprised of three parts, which is described in more detail further on in this chapter.

Ontological view

Ontology is described as a set of assumptions about the nature of reality or the state of things. This study would suggest an ontological position which says that clinical employees based on their qualification hold some kind of behavior, and that behavior is meaningful in the context of their level of motivation (their social world). The social reality under investigation in this study is therefore made up of people, attitudes, experiences, qualifications, experiences, actions and behaviors.

Epistemological view

Epistemology is concerned with the question of what is (or should be) regarded as acceptable knowledge in a discipline (Stangor, 2015). The study plans to investigate whether total rewards have an impact on motivation of staff in a medical services organisation. The epistemological position the study is going
to seek to investigate if clinical staff is more motivated by rewards compared to non-clinical staff.

Positivism forms part of an epistemological approach that advocates applying natural science methods to study and understand social reality. The approach involves the following principles (Stangor, 2015):

- Only phenomena that can be observed by senses can be verified as objects and sources of knowledge.
- Purpose of theory is to generate hypothesis that can be tested, so that validity of the proposition can be assessed.
- By means of gathering facts, it forms the basis for universal propositions and by so doing arrive at knowledge.
- Science must be conducted in an objective manner.
- There must be a clear distinction between scientific statements and normative statements.

Many social scientists reject positivist methods in their study of social reality and they accept other accounts of scientific practices (Stangor, 2015).

3.3 Research Methodology

In the next section, the population, sampling frame and the respondents will be discussed.

3.3.1 Data collection

The Chief Executive Officer of Medscheme Holdings Pty (Ltd) gave approval for the research to be conducted in the medical services organisation, which allowed access to the sample population of 3 000 employees.

The task of gathering data was performed by distributing an electronic copy of the survey, using SurveyMonkey in the identified medical services organisation.
Participation by the population was voluntary, subject to informed consent that their responses would be kept confidential.

3.3.2 Units of analysis

Units of analysis refer to data or individuals about whom a researcher wishes to extract conclusions (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001). In most instances, the unit of analysis comprised of individuals, but in others, units of analysis can also indicate groups.

The sample units and the units of analysis in the study were identical. The unit of analysis referred to employees because the objective of the study was to understand the impact of rewards on motivation of employees and a specific group of employees, where the sample units were individuals in a medical services organisation.

3.3.3 Sampling method

The research problem suggests that a quantitative study should be conducted to ascertain the impact of rewards on motivation of employees. Due to the research being conducted on the population of one organisation, a medical service company, the sampling method can be considered as convenience. However in this case, combination random and convenience sampling was used, where the researcher has no assurance or means of guaranteeing that the entire population will be represented in the sample, even thou all the employees have the probability of being included in the sample. More specifically, there are different types of non-probability, namely convenience sampling, quota sampling and purposive sampling (Saunders et al., 2009).

For this study, convenience sampling was the desired sampling technique as the researcher has access to a database of a total of 3 000 individuals. Convenience sampling utilises people or units that are readily available (Saunders et al., 2009). Convenience sampling identifies a representative subsection of a population by taking individuals or other units that are voluntarily accessible into account.
3.3.4 Population

The population was a South African medical services organisation, employing approximately 3 000 employees. The population were all employees within the organisation, and a structured data collection instruments was used. The sample was determined by the employees who opted voluntarily to respond to the survey.

The research required the probability of receiving sufficient responses from employees associated with clinical and non-clinical job functions in a medical services organisation.

An organisation was selected that has an adequate and diverse representation of employees in clinical and non-clinical roles based on their academic qualifications.

3.3.4.1 Sampling frame

Sampling can be described as the method to select a group of people of the population for which the study is conducted on (Stangor, 2015). The Work Motivation questionnaire was sent to all individuals in the identified medical services organisation. The level to which a sample reflects the population is known as representivity and in quantitative research, this is a defensive factor in determining the adequacy of a study (Coughlan, Cronin & Ryan 2007). The size of the sample of any study is therefore essential.

The population comprised two groups of employees:

1. Non-clinical staff (1 626);
2. Clinical staff (692).

All respondents who returned the survey constituted the sample. The non-clinical group was made up of human resources, finance, marketing, IT and call centre staff. The clinical group was made up of nurses, doctors, dentists and medical specialists.

3.3.4.2 Sample characteristics
Descriptive statistics are used to summarise the data in a meaningful way. In the context of statistical research data, it describes, shows or summarises the views, feeling and opinions of the respondents in a study. Said differently it is the method in which all the rated scores from respondents are summarised into averages and percentages, which allows for the interpretation thereof.

In this study a sum total of 732 responses was received from a population of about 3 000. This is a response rate of 24.4%. As noted by Stangor (2015), when mailings are sent to a general population, the response rate may not be very high. However, based on the responses received, it is reasonable to assume that it is a representative sample, which reflects approximately the same characteristics as the rest of the population. The demographical details of the participants are discussed below. The demographical characteristics of participants include job family, job level, clinical profession, gender, home language, age, ethnicity, qualification, and length of service at the organisation.

The tables that follow sets out the biographical information of the 732 respondents in relation to gender, language preferences, age, race, job classification, job family and educational level.

![Figure 3.1. Gender distribution](image)

The above figure 3.1 sets out the range of the respondents in terms of gender distribution, relative to the population. Based on the gender distribution it is noted, that a large proportion of respondents (n= 549 or 75%) was female, with
males representing (n= 183) 25% of the respondents. The gender distribution of the respondents aligns to the organisation’s gender distribution. The distribution is also reflective of the general gender profile of healthcare workers who are females.

Figure 3.2. Language preferences

Analysing Figure 3.2, it can be observed that the preferred home language of the respondents is English (n= 412), which accounts for 56% of responders followed by Afrikaans (n= 163), which accounts for 22%. The eight remaining official languages constitute 22% of respondents’ preferred home languages (n= 153).

Figure 3.3. Age distribution
The figure illustrates that the majority (n= 366) of the respondents are between the age of 39 to 53 years, followed by the range of 23 to 38 year olds (n= 309). The 23 to 53 year range accounts for 92% of all respondents. Only 0.2% of the respondents are below the age of 22 and 7.2% (n= 53) above the age of 54. It should be noted that two respondents did not specify their age.

**Figure 3.4. Race distribution**

Figure 3.4 represents the race distribution of the respondents. From the table and frequency distribution it is apparent that a large section of respondents (36%) are White (n= 264), followed by African (n= 202 or 27.6%) and 23.4% Coloured (n= 171). The least represented group is Asians (n= 93), which account for 12% of all respondents. Two respondents did not indicate their race. The race distribution does not align to the South African economically active population profile.
From Figure 3.5 and frequency distribution it is apparent that the majority of respondents are from the Administration and Client Services (n= 517), which represents approximately 70% of the respondents, whilst the remaining 30% of respondents form part of the Medical and Clinical job family. The distribution allows for analysis to be performed and deductions to be made between employees in a clinical role compared to those employees that do not hold a clinical qualification.

From Figure 3.6 it is clear that the greatest proportion of respondents (n= 448) or 61.2% of the sample occupied positions at an operational level, whilst (n= 98)
or 13.4% held senior manager / specialist equivalent roles or higher. Manager roles only accounted for 9% or \((n= 66)\) of the sample.

![Bar Chart](image)

**Figure 3.7. Level of educational distribution**

In terms of Figure 3.7, it can be noted that 47\% \((n= 346)\) of the respondents of the sample completed a degree / diploma. A total of 35\% or \((n= 260)\) of the respondents completed matric, and those with an Honours degree account for 5\% \((n= 42)\) of the sample. Respondents with a Master’s or PhD degree account for 3.8\% of the sample. The distribution between employees with a matric versus a post matric qualification is relatively equally represented, which allows for analysis to be performed and correlations to be drawn based on the demographical characteristic of educational level.
Figure 3.8 shows that of the respondents who have a medical qualification, the majority (20% or n= 147) have obtained a nursing qualification. The second highest qualification obtained by respondents is a pharmacist qualification (5% or n= 35). Respondents with a medical doctor qualification account for 1.5% (n= 11) and 0.5% (n= 4) of the sample qualified as dentist.

3.3.5 Data collection

A quantitative methodology was used for the purpose of the study, and an electronic survey was used as the measurement instrument.

The work motivation questionnaire was considered suitable and used for the study. The benefit of the instrument was that it could be used to research the targeted population simultaneously.

3.3.5.1 Biographical

The section of the survey covering biographical section was self-developed in line with the problem statement and questions. The questionnaire covered the following personal information of the respondents:

- Gender;
• Home language;
• Marital status;
• Age;
• Race;
• Job family
• Job classification;
• Educational qualification;
• Profession;
• Job grade;
• Tenure.

3.3.5.2 Work motivation questionnaire

Motivation was measured by De Beer’s (1987) work motivation and satisfaction questionnaire. This questionnaire contains 62 items and consists of nine dimensions.

3.3.5.2.1 Questionnaire structure

The structure of the questionnaire makes use of a 5-point Likert scale to assess opinions on each of the questions associated with the dimensions. Each question provided the respondents with five options to choose from:

1 – Strongly disagree;
2 – Disagree;
3 – Neutral;
4 – Agree;
5 – Strongly Agree.

The questionnaire comprises three parts (refer to Appendix 1 for full details), a summary of which is set out below.

The first section of the survey (Part A) positions the study in respect of the respondents and includes guidelines for respondents for the completion of the electronically distributed survey questionnaire. This section also includes a
statement that participation is voluntary. The section also sets out that all responses to the questions will be kept confidential; and the personal information of the participants would not be captured or shared.

The second section (Part B) consisted of a set of thirteen questions to gather the demographic characteristics of each respondent.

The final section (Part C) of the questionnaire comprises a set of eleven categories of questions / statements, using questions from the work motivation and satisfaction questionnaire, which incorporates 16 factors of Herzberg’s two-factor theory.

3.3.5.2.2 Dimensions of the questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of nine dimensions that impact employee motivation and was adapted accordingly for the purpose of this study.

The dimensions that impact employee motivation are set out below:

**Intrinsic:**
- Work content;
- Working conditions;
- Personal;
- Leadership;
- General.

**Extrinsic** (monetary and non-monetary);
- Payment – salaries, incentives and commissions;
- Promotions – career progression and advancement;
- Recognition – formal and informal;
- Benefits – medical and retirement.

The measurement instrument was also used by Roberts (2005) in research conducted on the relationship between reward, recognition and motivation at an
insurance organisation in the Western Cape. The study showed that managers can use various strategies to motivate employees; however, the various strategies can have different levels of motivational influence on different people. Managers need to understand trans-cultural issues, and must recognise each individual’s values, beliefs and practices. The research results of Roberts (2005) reported a positive correlation between motivation and total rewards. The findings of the research concluded that females and non-white employees are less motivation.

3.3.5.2.3 Reliability and validity

De Beer (1987) conducted an item analysis to evaluate the inter-item consistency of the work motivation and satisfaction questionnaire. The evaluation process provided the reliability on the responses to all the items used in the instrument. The Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients for the sub-sections of the questionnaire were as follows: work content - r = 0.78; payment - r = 0.86; promotion - r = 0.84; recognition - r = 0.90; working conditions - r = 0.77; benefits - r = 0.84; my leader / supervisor - r = 0.72; and general - r = 0.75.

3.3.6 Procedure followed to collect data

Because the researcher is the head of human capital for the population, he had the benefit of being able to engage the specific sample to request the completion of the survey.

Due to the fact that the organisation and the population uses electronic mail as their primary means to engage and communicate, it was decided to communicate the request for participation by this means.

The survey was administered, using a web-based survey tool (SurveyMonkey), and data capturing will be online and done by the participants. On completion, the data will be downloaded into an Excel spreadsheet for statistical analysis and safekeeping.
The respondents were given eight days to complete the questionnaire. None of the respondents were forced or coerced in any way to complete the questionnaire.

3.3.6.1 Pilot

The benefits of the electronic survey were that the survey could be tested prior to sending it to the population to ensure it meets the requirements for the achievement of the research objective/s and problem statement and to address any administrative challenges.

The pilot survey was tested with a specific unit and group employees to assess the understanding of instructions, clarity of questions, terms and statement of the various dimensions and questions.

On completion of the pilot, the data was cleared and sent out to the target population. The data gathered as part pilot was not used and did not form part of the final data set on which they research analysis was performed. The pilot data was separately stored.

The survey response rate could be tracked daily and a reminder could be distributed to ensure a higher response rate was achieved.

3.3.7 Statistical techniques

3.3.7.1 Data analysis

The analysis and presentation of data in this research was conducted using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 22. The reporting of the results of the descriptive analysis is presented first, followed by the inferential statistical analysis.

3.3.7.2 Statistical analysis

According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2014, p. 64), “the term statistics refers to a set of mathematical procedures for organising, summarising and interpreting
information”. Statistics provide researchers with a set of standardised techniques that are recognised and understood in the research community. The statistics provides answers to the behavioural inconsistency from the respondents in the research.

3.3.7.3 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics provides a synopsis of the research data in a meaningful way. In the context of statistical research data, it describes, shows or summarises the views or opinions or behaviours of the respondents in a study. Measures that are frequently used to describe a data set are measures of central tendency and measures of variability or dispersion. Measures of central tendency include the mean, median and mode, while measures of variability include the standard deviation. Stangor (2015) defined descriptive statistics such as numbers, the mean, median, mode, standard deviation and variances, which summarises the distribution of a measured variable.

In the study the key demographic variables of the respondents is reported by using descriptive statistics based on frequency tables and illustrated graphically. The standard deviation which forms part of the analysis is a measure of variability or inconsistency of the response scores. The mean score provides a mathematical average in relation to the score distribution which is a measurement of central tendency of the respondents scores pertaining to a specific question. (Leary, 2004).

3.3.7.4 Inferential statistics

The application of inferential statistics in the study is to make deductions or arrive at set conclusions about the reliability and generalisation of the findings in relation to the larger population that the sample originates from.

According to Leary (2004), inferential statistics determines if findings are due to irrelevant random factors rather than due to the variables of central interest. In order to validate the main research questions, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) procedure was utilised with post-hoc tests.
Stangor (2015) explained inferential statistics as numbers, such as a $p$-value, that are used to specify the features of a population on the bases of the data of the sample.

3.3.7.4.1 ANOVA - Analysis of variance

The analysis of variance is a collection of statistical models used to evaluate the variances in mean scores of groups and their associated procedures (such as "variation" among and between groups). ANOVAs are useful for comparing (testing) for statistical significance of mean scores for groups of variables. Explained differently, it is the analysis of variance that is used to determine if there is an association between the independent and the dependent variables – that is, whether there are differences on the dependent measure across the levels (Stangor, 2015).

ANOVA was used in this study, to perform analysis on whether there are variances in work motivation based on the biographical characteristics of the respondents.

According to Stangor (2015, p. 195), “the ANOVA compares the variance of the means of the dependent variables between (between-groups variances) the different levels to the variance of the individuals on the dependent variables within (within-group variances) each of the conditions”.

Should the between-variance of the dependent variables be greater than the within-group variance between groups, then the changes influence the dependent measures.

The ANOVA summary provides a starting point to establish if the conditions means are significantly different. Should the ratio ($F$) between two variances be statistically significant, then the difference between levels can be rejected as there are no differences.

Due to the statistical significance between two groups, which could not be anticipated on completion of the variance analysis (ANOVA) and the initial analysis not indicating, which groups are significantly different from each other, even if there
was a significant $F$, further means comparisons in the form of post-hoc analysis was performed.

3.3.7.4.2 Post-hoc analysis: Fisher’s least significant difference (LSD)

The purpose of the post-hoc comparison in relation to the research was to focus on finding patterns and/or relationships between subgroups of sampled populations that would otherwise remain undetected.

Further, in the current research, the post-hoc analysis was not planned, as the number of comparisons between groups was not anticipated and was decided upon when the variance analysis was completed and significant mean scores between variances were observed.

According to Stangor (2015), post-hoc means comparison tests are designed to control the Alpha level in mean comparisons that are made after the data have been analysed.

This technique is used after a hypothesis in an analysis of variance if the initial ANOVA $F$ value is significant. Fisher’s LSD is a set of individual t-tests, differentiated only in the calculation of the standard deviation. In each t-test, a pooled standard deviation is computed from only the two groups being compared, while Fisher’s LSD test computes the pooled standard deviation from all groups – thus increasing power (Hayter, 1986).

3.4 Completeness of Data

Detailed attention has been given to the accuracy and completeness of the questionnaires. Questionnaires that were not fully completed were excluded from the data analysis. SurveyMonkey, the system on which the questionnaire was designed, grouped all the complete responses and incomplete responses separately.

Assessing and demonstrating the quality and thoroughness of the research design suggests that the researcher identifies the possible source of bias and error in the research findings, as well as the methods to overcome these challenges. Thus, the
researcher should attempt to mitigate the possibility of the respondent getting the answer wrong, and for this reason the selection of the most suitable research design is important (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). The next section will concentrate on methods to ensure research rigour.

3.4.1 Bias and error

Bryman and Bell (2011) defined a biased sample as a sample that does not represent the population. They defined three causes of bias:

1. If a non-probability or non-random sampling method is used;
2. If the sampling frame is inadequate;
3. If there is non-response because some sample members refuse to participate or cannot be contacted.

Bryman and Bell (2011) defined an “error” as being made up of four main factors. Two of these factors relate to sampling.

1. Sampling error is viewed as the difference between a random sample and the population from which it is selected;
2. Sampling-related error, which relates to activities that are related to the sampling process and are connected with the issue of generalisability or external validity of findings;
3. Data collection error, which relates to the implementation of the research process and includes poor question wording or flaws in the administration instrument;
4. Data processing error arises from data management and errors in coding.

Saunders et al. (2009) advised the following methods to prevent bias and error in research, which is applied to the study:

**Reliability** – The degree to which the data gathering process or techniques will result in trustworthy discoveries, similar clarification can be made, or conclusion by other researchers or if there is precision in how logic will be obtained from the raw
data (Saunders et al., 2009). Reliability can be ensured by retaining notes relating to the research design, the rational for the research methods and data collected, therefore allowing the researcher to understand the underlying concepts of the study.

Reliability refers to the level or degree that a concept is measured consistently. The following elements are to be considered to assess if a measurement is reliable:

- Stability;
- Internal reliability;
- Inter-observer consistency.

In other words, if the same research technique and process is applied by other researchers, the same outcomes will be obtained from the data.

**Validity** – It can be described as the level at which a dimension instrument or procedure, for instance a questionnaire, generates valuable outcomes.

**Preparation** – This implies that the researcher is obliged to illustrate how credibility will be demonstrated. All the preparation methods, techniques and procedures were explained in detail. This will lead to engaged and confidential participation.

**Credibility** – This is achieved by informing participants of the purpose of the study. The participants are informed about the approach in answering the questionnaire.

### 3.5 Research Ethics

Research ethics can be defined by Saunders et al. (2009) as issues relating to the formulation of the research problems, research designs, access to the respondents, collecting of data and the reporting of findings in a moral and responsible way.
According to Bryman and Bell (2011), and Diener and Crandall (1978), ethical issues can fall into four categories, classified according to how ethical principles can be transgressed into four main areas:

- Whether there is harm to participants;
- Whether there is a lack of informed consent;
- Whether there is an invasion of privacy;
- Whether deception is involved.

During the course of the research, no participant was harmed physically, emotionally or mentally, and confidentiality was committed to and maintained throughout the study.

The study was voluntarily on the part of the respondents and the organisation gave consent prior to the research commencing. Appendix 1 contains the consent form that was used in this study. The consent form included an outline of the research and the duration of completing the questionnaire, a statement that partaking in the study was voluntary, that the responses will be treated as confidential; the consent form also includes the researchers contact details.

A methodical approach was adhered to, to maintain objectivity during the course of the study and respondents were not influenced to answer questions in a particular way. The study ensured confidentiality of the respondents by not asking respondents to state any personal information such as name, surname or contact details. The participants who agreed to complete the questionnaires were reassured that it was completely anonymous and that their personal details would be kept strictly confidential.

Research findings were reported in an honest manner, no fabrication of data or misleading research findings were stated; and the personal conduct by the researcher was honest and objective.

The research data was stored on a personal computer which is password protected and back up to an organisational server. The data was further backup to an external
hard drive which is password protected. Due to the information being transmitted via email the data is automatically stored via mimecast (cloud-based email management for Microsoft Exchange and Microsoft Office 365, including security, archiving, and continuity services to protect business mail).

3.6 Synthesis

In the chapter that follows, the results of the research analysis will be reported in further detail. To enable a structured and coherent reporting of the empirical analysis, the descriptive analysis will be reported, followed by the inferential statistical analysis.
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS OF THE STUDY

In the previous chapter, the design of the study was set out, as well as the description of the analytical techniques that were anticipated and further techniques applied post result of the planned statistical techniques.

Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the empirical analysis are reported. The variables in the study is analysed by means of descriptive statistics. The analysis and presentation of data in this research was performed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 22.

4.1 Research Objectives

The key focus of the research was to examine the impact of reward as a motivational driver/s for clinical versus non-clinical staff in a medical services organisation.

Based on the research hypotheses formulated in Chapter 3, the following alternative hypotheses were formulated:

- \( H_{1A} \): There is no statistically significant relationship between total rewards and motivation of staff in a medical services organisation;
- \( H_{2A} \): The independent variables will not explain the statistical significance in motivation of employees in different job families (clinical versus non-clinical);
- \( H_{3A} \): There are no statistically significant variances in terms of total reward preferences of the biographical variables based on employees’ gender, race, educational qualifications, job family and grade.

From the literature and present study it is apparent that total rewards have an impact on the level of preference in terms of motivation, but there are multiple factors that influence such motivation.
Supporting literature on total rewards identified recognition fulfilling an important intrinsic psychological need to demonstrate appreciation. The present study results indicated and support H1: that there is a statistically significant relationship between rewards regarding the motivation of staff in a medical services company.

In relation to H2: the study indicated that profession, i.e. clinical versus administrative (non-clinical) job roles, did not influence the reward preferences of those employees and in turn variances in motivational levels of employees. Further results H2 is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

The study results reject H3 in terms of the biographical variable of educational qualification, which suggested that there are statistically significant variances in terms of total rewards on the biographical variables such as educational qualification. The study reported that qualification did not seem to influence the reward preference of employees. However, the sample size was small for higher levels of education.

The results support and accept H3 in terms of the biographical variable of race. The results reported that reward preference was different based on race and impacted on work motivation. Based on the results of this study, as well as supporting studies, the work motivation and satisfaction among men and women are different. Again, cross tabulations may yield more specific results.

4.2 Outcomes of the Work Motivation Questionnaire

4.2.1 Descriptive statistical analysis for section B

Descriptive statistics in the form of the mean and standard deviations for the respondents were calculated for the variables contained in the dimensions measured by means of the survey instrument. The means and standard deviations of the questionnaire are presented in Table 4.1
A detailed outline of the questionnaire, illustrating the questions for the nine dimensions measured can be reviewed in Appendix 1.

Table 4.1 sets out the factor mean scores of the dimensions measured by the Work Motivation Questionnaire which ranges from a low of 2.92 for the promotion dimension to a high of 3.91 for working conditions.

As part of the analysis of the study it is important to note that of the respondents who have a medical qualification, the majority (20% or n= 147) have obtained a nursing qualification. The second highest qualification obtained by respondents is a pharmacist qualification (5% or n= 35). Respondents with a medical doctor qualification account for 1.5% (n= 11) and 0.5% (n= 4) of the sample qualified as dentist.
The results, based on the relatively high mean scores for each of the dimensions, suggest that staff in the sample is relatively distributed in terms of their level of motivation.

The mean values for promotion (Figure 4.1) and general (Figure 4.2) are the lowest.

Table 4.1
Mean scores - dimensions of work motivation
(ranked highest to lowers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension Variable</th>
<th>Mean Score</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working Conditions</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Content</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader / Supervisor</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1. Promotion
These mean scores outlines and suggest the dimensions that the respondents (employees) are possible demotivated.

The table which sets out the means scores table 4.1 and Figures 4.3 and 4.5 illustrate that respondents/employees are likely to be motivated by promotion opportunities and payment. Employees’ level of motivation would be least impacted if changes were to be introduced relating to working conditions and work content as determined by the work motivation questionnaire.
Figure 4.5. Payment

From the analysis there are areas of opportunities that exist to improve the level of motivation for the sample and decrease employees’ intention to search for alternative employment. The areas of opportunity identified from the results are within the dimension of development of career paths and development that may lead to promotional opportunities.

Figure 4.6. Promotion

Figure 4.7. Personal
4.2.2 Inferential statistics of section C

This section sets out and reports the outcomes of the inferential statistics of the study. Inferential tests are used to validate the research questions, specifically the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) procedure with post-hoc tests, which include Fisher’s least significant difference (LSD). The statistical analysis allows that inferences be drawn in relation to the three hypothesis formulated for the study.

The intention of the inferential statistics is to establish if the data gathered from the sample can be analysed and interpreted as providing the support for the research hypothesis.

In relation to the research, the inferential analysis is conducted to establish the impact of the total rewards (dimensions of the work motivation instrument) on the motivational levels of employees. The sub-questions, which the analysis will also set out to analyse are:

1. Which form of reward has a greater impact on employee motivation?
2. How do educational levels affect the relationships between reward and motivation of employees?
3. How does occupation influence the reward preferences?

For the purpose of the analysis the Alpha (α) is set to be $\alpha = .05$.

4.2.2.1 Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

One of the objectives of this study is to determine whether there are differences in work motivation based on the biographical characteristics of the sample.

The ANOVA summary provides a starting point to establish if the conditions means are significantly different. Should the ratio ($F$) between two variances be statistically significant, then the difference between levels can be rejected as there are no differences.
Table 4.2
ANOVA summary table: Qualifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Payment</td>
<td>.641</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>1.470</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>.614</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ANOVA calculations contained in Table 4.2 summarise the between-groups and within-group variances based on qualifications.

In the case of payment, recognition and benefits of employees in the sample, Sig is not statistically significant, which means that employees with different qualifications experience the dimensions in the same way and thus there is no statistical significance between employees based on their qualifications.

The dependent variables of payment ($F = 1.68$; Sig. = .15); recognition ($F = 2.14$ Sig. = .07) and benefits ($F = 2.07$; Sig. = .08) means must be considered in the different conditions to establish the meaningfulness thereof. As there are multiple levels of education, the researcher is required to conduct further statistical tests to determine if the regression is greater for the various qualification levels that are present in the sample. The different conditions in terms of qualification were analysed further and explained under the post-hoc analysis.

Table 4.3
ANOVA summary table: Race / Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Payment</td>
<td>5.768</td>
<td>16.22</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>1.502</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ANOVA calculations contained in Table 4.3 summarise the between-groups and within-group variances based on race / ethnicity.
The analysis performed on the data of the study, demonstrated that there is a statistically significant mean difference in terms of payment ($F = 16.22; \text{Sig.} = .000$) and benefits ($F = 5.13; \text{Sig.} = .002$) of employees in the sample; $F$ is statistically significant, which means that employees’ race or ethnicity significantly impacts the way in which they will experience rewards as a motivational driver.

Further analysis based on race / ethnicity is performed as part of the post-hoc analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Payment</td>
<td>2173</td>
<td>5.86</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>2127</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>1282</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>.022</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ANOVA calculations contained in Table 4.4 summarise the between-groups and within-group variances based on job level.

The analysis of the data also pointed to the fact that there is a statistically significant mean difference in terms of payment ($F = 5.86; \text{Sig.} = .000$); promotion ($F = 3.79; \text{Sig.} = .005$) and benefits ($F = 2.82; \text{Sig.} = .022$) of employees in the sample, $F$ is statistically significant, which suggests that employees’ motivational driver is influenced by their job level.
### Table 4.5

Mean variances on rewards and recognition based on gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work Content</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>2.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Conditions</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>3.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>3.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>3.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4.6

Levene's test on total rewards and motivation based on gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.863</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.090</td>
<td>260.055</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the mean scores illustrated in Table 4.5, it is interesting to note the work motivation of men and women are relatively similar, due to the similarity in the mean score between the genders, with the exception of promotion, recognition and the
general dimension. The latter dimension (general) assesses employees’ intention to seek alternative employment or the employees’ intent to stay.

The analysis indicated that there is a statistically significant mean difference in terms of promotion (Sig. = .002) of employees in the sample, which means based on gender, employees are significantly influenced by the way in which they will experience or view promotions, which will impact their level of job motivation or satisfaction.

### Table 4.7

Mean variances on total rewards based on job family

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Payment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical and Clinical</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>3.2081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration and Client Services</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>3.1750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical and Clinical</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>3.7092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration and Client Services</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>3.5483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical and Clinical</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>2.8261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration and Client Services</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>3.1508</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on Table 4.7, the output of the mean scores, respondents from the two job families share similar views in relation to the various dimensions. Clinical and non-clinical employees’ work motivation levels in relation to payment, based on the mean scores, are similar. It is reasonable to accept that based on the responses from this sample, employees with a professional clinical qualification are not influenced by or differ from employees who are not clinically qualified.

Differences at a job family level, however, exist and can be noted in relation to personal (how they feel towards their job) and general (considering alternative employment) dimensions. Table 4.8 further confirms that the only dimensions where a statistically significance exists at a job family level is in terms of promotions. The results suggest that based on the dimension of promotion, professional qualification influences employees’ level of motivation and satisfaction towards their job.

The two job families’ respondents report similar levels of reward and recognition and hence, one can infer that their levels in terms of the impact of rewards for work motivation are the same.
Table 4.9
Mean variances on total rewards based on clinical qualification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work Content</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>3.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>130</td>
<td>3.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>3.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>130</td>
<td>3.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>130</td>
<td>2.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>130</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Conditions</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>3.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>130</td>
<td>3.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>3.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>130</td>
<td>3.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>130</td>
<td>3.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>130</td>
<td>3.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the output, there are minimal differences in the mean scores for medical doctors versus nurses. These employees’ work motivation levels in relation to payment are not too different. It is important to note that of the other medical professionals, n=129 is made up of, inter alia, 11 Medical doctors and 118 other medical practitioners who are not nurses.

Considering the type of clinical qualifications, the results indicate that clinically qualified employees have similar views in relation to rewards on work motivation. The results, however, may vary when employees with better qualifications are analysed on their variables such as gender, race, and marital status.
Table 4.10
Levene’s test on total rewards based on clinical qualification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Content</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.553</td>
<td>256.787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>.855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.531</td>
<td>256.988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>.933</td>
<td>.335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.404</td>
<td>253.384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>.793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.656</td>
<td>256.551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Conditions</td>
<td>.794</td>
<td>.374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.643</td>
<td>256.421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>.807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.779</td>
<td>256.960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>.160</td>
<td>.690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-1.629</td>
<td>256.583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader</td>
<td>.522</td>
<td>.471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.172</td>
<td>256.788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>.800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.296</td>
<td>256.686</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Further the results as set out in Table 4.11, there are statistically significant variances in the payment, promotion, benefits and personal variables experienced by respondents based on their job grade. The significance is specifically evident in the payment (Sig. = .000), promotion (Sig. = .005), benefits (Sig. = .024) and personal dimension (Sig. = .022) of employees in the sample, which means that employees’ job grade impacts the way in which they will experience reward, promotion and benefits as motivational driver.

### Table 4.11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Payment</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2.173</td>
<td>5.867</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>2.127</td>
<td>3.792</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>.832</td>
<td>2.825</td>
<td>.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1.282</td>
<td>2.888</td>
<td>.022</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.2.2 Post-hoc means comparisons: Fisher’s least significant difference (LSD)

A risk of means comparisons is that there are a number of these comparisons performed that increase the likelihood of Type 1 error. The Fisher’s least significant difference (LSD) is a means to reduce the probability of Type 1 errors. It is important to note that LSD does not correct for multiple comparisons.

The following analysis, which is a post-hoc analysis, uses the least significant difference (LSD) test.
Table 4.12
Post Hoc test work motivation based on educational qualifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Fisher’s least significant difference (LSD) test: Qualifications</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
<th>Lower Bound</th>
<th>Upper Bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Payment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matric</td>
<td>Master’s &amp; Doctorate / Doctor / Dentist</td>
<td>-.31341</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>-.5648</td>
<td>-.0621</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree / Diploma</td>
<td>Master’s &amp; Doctorate / Doctor / Dentist</td>
<td>-.28704</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>-.5347</td>
<td>-.0394</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recognition</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matric</td>
<td>Degree / Diploma</td>
<td>-.14593</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>-.2911</td>
<td>-.0008</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honours</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>-.36874</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>-.7279</td>
<td>-.0096</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Degree / Diploma</td>
<td>-.32556</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>-.6093</td>
<td>-.0424</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Benefits</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matric</td>
<td>Honours</td>
<td>.21751</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.0275</td>
<td>.4076</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree / Diploma</td>
<td>Honours</td>
<td>.23916</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.0529</td>
<td>.4254</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honours</td>
<td>Master’s &amp; Doctorate / Doctor / Dentist</td>
<td>-.36590</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>-.6393</td>
<td>-.0925</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The analysis indicated that there is a significant mean difference in relation to the payment, recognition and benefits dimension, in relation to level of qualification of the respondents, for motivation and work satisfaction.

This is specifically evident in terms of payment in relation to respondents with a matric, or Master’s and Doctorate/doctor/dentist qualification (Sig. = .015) as well as respondents with a degree / diploma (Sig. = .023).

In relation to recognition and benefits, there is a statistical significance for employees with a matric, degree or Honours degree.
Table 4.13 A

Post hoc test work motivation based on race / ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>-.43824</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-.5982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>-.29822</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-.4337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>-.39804</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-.5197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>-.29106</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>-.5143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>-.21518</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td>-.3842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>-.20682</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>-.3519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>-.22962</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-.3524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>-.13521</td>
<td>.016</td>
<td>-.2455</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The results illustrate that there is a statistical significant difference in terms of payment and recognition and benefit levels between Coloured, Asian and White employees in the sample.

For the African employees in the sample, a statistical significant difference exists in terms of payment and benefits. It is reported that African employees have the lowest level of motivation (mean = 2.90 and Sig. = .00) in terms of payment, recognition and benefits, relative to other race groups in the sample.
Table 4.13 B

Mean score ranking order work motivation based on race / ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Payment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>3.3408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>3.3006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>3.2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.9026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>622</td>
<td>3.1856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recognition</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>3.4434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>3.3675</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>3.2932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.1523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>622</td>
<td>3.3077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Benefits</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>3.5574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>3.5346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>3.4630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.3278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>622</td>
<td>3.4622</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results illustrate a significant mean difference in payment, benefits (collectively defined as rewards) and recognition in terms of race groups.

Asian employees report the highest level of motivation and satisfaction (mean = 3.34), more so than White employees (mean = 3.30), followed by Coloured (mean = 3.20) employees, in terms of payment.

In the case of recognition, the same mean ranking is observed for the payment element.

Coloured employees report the highest level of motivation and satisfaction (mean = 3.55), more so than Asian employees (mean = 3.53), followed by White (mean = 3.46) employees, in terms of benefits.
Table 4.14
Post Hoc test work motivation based on occupational level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Payment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top Management</td>
<td>Senior Manager / Specialist equivalent</td>
<td>.29084</td>
<td>.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational Staff</td>
<td>Top Management</td>
<td>-.42870</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>-.22450</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Team Leader</td>
<td>-.21706</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>Operational Staff</td>
<td>-.16994</td>
<td>.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>-.16755</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Team Leader</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

There is a statistically significant difference regarding the payment and benefits dimension in relation to the occupational level (grade) of respondents, for work motivation.

For the operational level employees in the sample, a statistically significant difference exists in terms of payment and benefits. It is reported that operational level employees (based on occupational level) have the lowest level of motivation and satisfaction in terms of payment, relative to other occupational levels, top management (Sig. = .001), managers (Sig. = .009) and team leaders (Sig. = .001) in the sample.

In the case of benefits; it is reported that operational level employees (based on occupational level) have the lowest level of motivation and satisfaction relative to managers (Sig. = .026) and team leaders (Sig. = .005) in the sample.

Based on the job level of the employees, it was found that there are significant mean score variances for employees. Operational level employees showed to be the least satisfied / motivated because of payment (mean = 3.09 Sig. = .001) compared to other levels. Employees at top management have the highest level of work motivation in relation to payment.
### Table 4.15

Independent sample test for job families

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAYMENT</td>
<td>Equal</td>
<td>.086</td>
<td>.769</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal</td>
<td>.606</td>
<td>338.699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROMOTION</td>
<td>Equal</td>
<td>948</td>
<td>.331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal</td>
<td>.869</td>
<td>362.870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RECOGNITION</td>
<td>Equal</td>
<td>1.208</td>
<td>.272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal</td>
<td>1.130</td>
<td>355.244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BENEFITS</td>
<td>Equal</td>
<td>3.689</td>
<td>.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal</td>
<td>-.540</td>
<td>414.727</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(The level of significance is set at 0.05. If the score is less than 0.05 there is a significant difference in the mean scores on the dependent variable for each of the 2 groups. If the value is above 0.05, there is no significant difference).

The ANOVA variance analysis set out in Table 4.7, a post-hoc test was performed to establish the means comparison between clinical and medical job family and employees in the administrative and clerical job family.

The Levene’s Sig values for all the elements in Table 4.15 are significantly higher than 0.05. The Sig (2-tailed) values for all the dimensions are also greater than the 0.05 level set, which means that the mean scores between the job families are not significantly different.

This allows one to accept the mean values between the job families as illustrated in Table 4.7.
Table 4.16

Mean score ranking order for work motivation based on ethnicity / race – excluding payment, recognition and benefits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Promotion</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>3.0241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>2.9903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>2.8992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>2.8980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>622</td>
<td>2.9206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Working Conditions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>4.0293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>3.9585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>3.8679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>3.8657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>622</td>
<td>3.9104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Personal</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>3.6615</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>3.6446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>3.5709</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>3.4917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>622</td>
<td>3.5965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leader</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>3.6604</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>3.6084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>3.6014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>3.3560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>622</td>
<td>3.5655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>General</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>3.2252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>3.1509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>3.0281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>2.8986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>622</td>
<td>3.0552</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Taking into account the ranking order of the entire work motivation dimensions, there is a significant mean difference on all the dimensions for Asian employees, compared to other race groups.

The results illustrate a significant mean difference on all the dimensions for African employees. African employees report the lowest mean score on all the dimensions, suggesting relative to other race groups they are least motivated and / or satisfied with their work. Although African employees report the lowest mean scores in relation to the recorded responses on general (intent to stay), African employees report the highest mean score, which suggests that they are most likely to remain with the organisation compared to other race groups.
4.3 Summary

This chapter concentrated on reporting and presenting the results of the empirical analysis. The intention is to perform an analysis to illustrate the relationship between the dimensions of work motivation. Inferential tests are used, as well as post-hoc tests, which include the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Fisher's least significant difference (LSD).

The key findings from the analysis include:

- Based on the mean scores for each of the dimensions, it seems that employees in the sample are relatively divided in terms of their level of work motivation;
- Respondents are least motivated by working conditions and work content;
- The analysis indicated that there is a significant statistical correlation between promotional opportunities and work motivation for the reported employees;
- Payment and recognition forms a key element of work motivation for the reported employees in the research;
- Based on the analysis and supported by previous research, male and female motivational and satisfaction drivers are different and this is specifically evident in terms of promotion and recognition;
- From the analysis, it is conclusive that occupational level differs in terms of the work and motivational drivers;
- There are statistically significant differences in terms of race, when reward and recognition preferences are considered;
- The analysis confirmed that based on employees qualifications; there is a significant statistical difference in the total rewards, which in turn influences the level of motivation of those employees.
4.4. Synthesis

The chapter which follows will describe the results / outcomes of the study more comprehensively and where applicable incorporated existing literature into the discussion. The limitations of the research and the implications for further research are also discussed and the chapter concludes with recommendations.
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION

In this section, the results described in Chapter 4 will be comprehensively discussed and existing literature will be integrated into the discussion. The limitations of the study and suggestions for future research will be reported on. The chapter concludes with recommendations.

5.1 Introduction

The objective of the study was to determine what role reward plays in motivating employees in clinical and administrative job families in a South African medical services organisation and to determine which type of reward (monetary or non-monetary) causes greater motivation amongst employees. The research also assesses the relation of biographical variables on reward preferences and the impact of employee’s motivation.

5.2 Descriptive Statistics

The key demographic variables from the study are set out in the descriptive statistics below.

- The sample of the study comprised of 732 employees, of whom 25% were males, with females representing 75% of the respondents;
- The most frequently represented preferred home language of the respondents was English (n= 412), which accounts for 56% of respondents;
- Fewer than one percent (0.2%) of the respondents was below the age of 22 and 7.2% above the age of 54. Fifty percent (50%) of the respondents were between the ages of 39 and 53 years, 42% of the respondents in the range of 23 to 38 year olds;
- Fifty nine percent (59%) were married, 28% unmarried, 11% divorced and 0.8% widowed;
- A third (35%) of the respondents completed matric, and those with an Honours degree accounted for 5.7%. Respondents with a Master’s degree or higher accounted for 3.8% of the sample;
• Two thirds (67%) of the respondents were operational staff, while management levels accounted for 23% and senior management 3%;
• About a third (29%) of the sample was from the medical and clinical job family, and 71% from administration and client services.

5.3 Inferential Statistics

The dimensions which was evaluated by the Work Motivation Questionnaire, pointed out that the mean scores for the work content, payment, promotion, recognition, working conditions, benefits, personal, leader / supervisor and general extended from a low of 2.92 to a high of 3.90.

Therefore, it can be inferred that the respondents was reasonably motivated; however, the mean values for working conditions, work content, personal and leaders dimensions were the lowest. These mean values are an indication of the areas that employees are likely to be demotivated about.

Based on the sample, the results indicate that there was not one specific dimension that motivated employees, but a combination of a number of variables. This supports the views extended in the research conducted by Kaye and Jordan Evans (2002) that illustrated the top five reasons that motivate employees, being a combination of work content, career growth, leadership, reward and benefits. The results also support the research of Martocchio (1998), which suggested that it is a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards that impact the motivation levels of employees. Respondents are most likely to be motivated by the promotion and payment value propositions in the organisation. The employees, are however least motivated by the working conditions and work content as determined by the Work Motivation Questionnaire.

The results were supported by the research findings of Roberts (2005) on the relationship between rewards, recognition and motivation. The research confirmed that a positive correlation exists in relation to rewards, recognition and the influence it has on motivation.
The results indicate that for the specific work motivation dimensions; work content, payment, recognition, working conditions, benefits dimensions, there are statistically significant variances.

The research results suggest that there are multiple factors that impact an employee’s work motivation; however, some elements, and in this instance – dimensions, are more significant in relation to the motivational impact of employees.

5.4 The impact of total rewards on motivation of staff

Based on the research by Roberts (2005), in which the same instrument was used, the research validated the correlation between nine dimensions of work motivation.

The results reflected that a statistically significant relationship exists between rewards and work motivation. The results from this study also confirmed that the nine dimensions had a positive influence on the motivation of employees.

The results of this study were also supported by the findings of Liu and Li-Ping Tang (2011). They conducted research on full-time public sector professionals in eastern China. The results of their study showed that a public servant’s love of money moderated the relationship between public service employees motivation.

Danish and Uman (2010) supported the notion that periodical reward increments will keep employees’ morale high and make them more motivated. Table 4.1 illustrated that some dimensions have a significantly greater impact on the motivation of employees.

Figures 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5 illustrated that staff in the sample were in all probability motivated by the promotions and payment value proposition in the organisation. Employees’ level of motivation would be least impacted if changes were to be introduced relating to working conditions and work content.

Research conducted by Kaye and Jordan Evans (2002) asked 12 000 people why they would remain employed with their current organisation. The top five reasons were: 1) Exciting work and challenge; 2) Career growth, learning and development;
3) Working with great people; 4) Fair pay; and 5) Supportive management / good boss. 93% of respondents listed at least one of the first two and 100% listing at least one of the first three reasons.

Research conducted by Snelgar et al. (2013) suggested that performance and career management are to be considered as significant types of rewards for the motivation of employees. Research conducted by WorldatWork (2010) aligned with the research of Snelgar (2013), the study confirmed that performance and development rewards were important in motivating employees. Therefore, although pay is essential in terms of motivating employees, organisations should not exclusively consider pay as a means to motivate employees, but also consider non-financial, intrinsic and extrinsic reward elements (Bergmann et al., 2001; Hill & Tande, 2006; Bussin, 2011). The results from the study support the notion that promotion and providing career paths are critical to support the motivational levels of the reported employees. As stated by Chen and Hsieh (2006), employees that are top performers in an organisation, work for more than just money, they consider organisations more favourably who can offer them a career path with higher professional and societal status, as well as gaining recognition.

Smit’s (2014) study conducted on the differences between total reward preferences and demographical variables – which include age, gender, race, industry and job level – confirmed that variances does exists in terms of these variables. The study confirmed and supported the literature review that there were a host of variables that influence the motivation of employees, but some variables may fulfil a different role in terms of employees’ motivations.

A variety of rewards were proposed to different employee groups based on their life cycle (Du Toit, Erasmus & Strydom, 2007; Snelgar, Renard & Venter 2013). The results can also be interpreted against Maslow’s theory, which suggests that the needs of people can be arranged in a hierarchy of importance. Employees can find themselves at any stage in a different level of the needs hierarchy, which will influence their behaviour dependent on their need/s. Even though the results from this study do not show significance in reward preferences on motivation, this could be different if assessed by a different set of employees or organisations.
5.4.1 The impact of total rewards on motivation of staff based on job family

One of the key objectives of the research was to establish if there were significant variances in terms of motivation and reward drivers between clinical and non-clinical employees.

The outcomes of the analysis confirmed that there is a statistically significant variance exists between clinical and non-clinical employees in relation to reward and recognition. Notwithstanding this fact, it appears that respondents from the medical and clinical job families were less satisfied with their payment and recognition offers by the organisation.

Relative to the other dimensions measured in the research in terms of work motivation, it would be reasonable to infer that payment and recognition plays a less significant impact for the respondents. Considering the research by Hodson (2001), it is clear that hygiene factors such as reward and recognition cannot be relied on as the only factors to motivate employees. The study conducted by Tang and West (1997), also confirmed that when employees have enough money, they may prioritise and focus on their intrinsic needs.

The findings also supported the notion of Meyer and Kirsten (2012), who suggested that it is important to provide flexibility in terms of structuring benefits based on an employee’s job levels.

Roberts’ (2005) research amongst employees in the insurance industry found there was a positive relationship between rewards and recognition and job satisfaction and motivation. More specifically the study illustrated that there is a variety of factors that influences employees’ level of motivation and satisfaction.

However, the results from the study also indicated that in terms of promotion and the general dimensions (employees’ intention to stay), there was a statistically significant difference between the dimensions and work motivation. The same results also appeared to be true for medical doctors versus nurses.
When considering job levels, Lawton and Chernyshenko (2008) study concluded that rewards, such as medical and life insurance is preferred by senior employees with dependents, compared to junior employees who preferred learning and development value add’s, which would improve their chances for career advancement. Junior employees held stronger preferences for pay and benefits when compared to senior and executive management (Nienaber et al., 2011).

The results of job level influence on employees’ preferences of payment, promotion and benefits, does not correlate with those of Snelgar et al. (2013). Job level and job family groups, therefore, cannot be seen as an efficient variable to categorise and reward accordingly.

5.4.2. The impact of total rewards on motivation of staff based on gender

Based on the results, it is interesting to note that work motivation of men and women does not differ significantly due to the minimal variance in the mean scores. In relation to payment, females reported a mean score of 3.20, whilst males reported a mean score of 3.13. The same results were also evident in relation to the recognition dimension, where females reported a mean score of 3.29, whilst males reported a mean score of 3.34.

There was no statistical significance in relation to how males and females experience total rewards and motivation. Promotion as dimension was the only dimension where there is a statistical significance (Sig. = .002) in terms of gender as reported in table 4.6.

In relation to gender, the dimensions that were the exception, and where both males and females had relatively important differences in terms of mean scores, were promotions and recognition.

It is evident from the results that remuneration dimensions are not experienced in an identical manner by males and females. What is interesting is how different work motivation is for gender and ethnicity across the sub-dimensions. This is contrary to the studies of Chiang and Birtch (2006), Nienaber et al. (2011) and Snelgar et al.
(2013), who concluded that female have relatively stronger remuneration, benefits and favourable work environment preferences.

It is clear that demographical variables such as gender influence reward preferences; however, the difficulty lies in the reliability correlating these factors with certain reward preferences. The challenge of correlating these factors, can be seen in the opposing results from research conducted by Chiang & Birtch, 2006; Nienaber, 2011; Paddey & Rousseau, 2011 and Snelgar, 2013.

5.4.3 The impact of total rewards on motivation of staff based on race / ethnicity

Whilst it was found that there are statistically significant variances between race groups as per tables 4.13 A and 4.13 B, and even though other authors have suggested investigating race as a segmentation variable (Moore & Bussin, 2012), the differences found need to be reviewed in more detail.

Based on employee’s race this study has found that significant differences are present in terms of employee’s views in relation to rewards. Based on the various dimensions of the work motivation survey, it was found that significant difference exists based on race when it comes to payment and benefits. The least significant difference that was found based on their racial groups is within the dimension of promotions.

It is apparent from the analysis and findings that even though researched remuneration frameworks suggest a universally endorsed best practice, it cannot be extended entirely too demographical variables such as race. It is evident from the research results that specifically Africans do not assign the same level of motivation and satisfaction to payment, benefits and leadership as what Coloured, Asian and White respondents do. However, it may well be oversimplified to assume that race per se is the determining factor. It may well be established through further cross tabulations that African females react differently to African males, or that Africans at different levels of their occupation, or their qualifications, marital status or age differ in their perceptions of what motivates and what does not.
Employees’ reward preferences change over time and so does their needs (Gross & Friedman, 2004; Snelgar et al., 2013) and there are several aspects that can influence employees’ reward preferences, including but not limited to age, values and culture (Meyer et al., 2012; Snelgar et al., 2013).

This supports previous research that culture and background play a role in preferences (MacGrain Herkenhoff, 2000; Nienaber, 2009). Taking into account the history of South Africa, the impact of racial segregation and economic disparity as well as post-demographic labour legislations and employment practices, the differences between race groups’ reward preferences cannot go ignored.

The results from the study may, to a certain extent, explain some of the differences of race groups towards their total reward preferences. They also raise new questions regarding the levels of overlap across racial lines in reward demands, depending on other factors.

5.4.4 The impact of total rewards on motivation of staff based on qualification

There was immaterial statistical difference in the rewards (payment and benefits) and recognition levels of employees based on their qualifications. Based on the various dimensions of motivation, the only significant difference by qualification was in relation to promotion.

However, when considering qualifications, it is important to take note that some of the more advanced qualifications have a small sample size. There was a significant mean difference in relation to the payment, promotion, recognition and benefits dimension for work motivation. This was specifically evident in terms of payment in relation to employees with a Master’s degree or Doctorate/doctor/dentist qualification as well as employees with a degree / diploma qualification and higher. The results also indicated a significant difference in relation to promotion for employees with a Matric qualification compared to employees with a degree qualification and higher.

The results is supported by the findings of Snelgar et al. (2013), who reported that educational level held no relationship with the importance of reward. This could be
explained based on studies conducted by Du Toit, Erasmus & Strydom, 2007; Snelgar, Renard & Venter 2013, where variety of rewards were proposed to different employee groups based on their life cycle. The results can also be interpreted against Maslow's theory, which suggests that the needs of people can be arranged in a hierarchy of importance. Employees can find themselves at any stage in a different level of the needs hierarchy, which will influence their behaviour dependent on their need/s.

5.5 Limitations of the Study

- Results may not be able to be extended to employees outside a healthcare / medical services organisation;
- Some of the more advanced qualifications had a small sample size;
- Due to the number of biographical variables, there were some problematic factors and some factors that split up into a number of smaller sub-dimensions, when the analysis was done. This was addressed and corrected by means of performing post-hoc analysis;
- LSD analysis does not correct for multiple comparisons.

5.6 Summary

The results of the analysis from this study suggested that staff in the sample was relatively motivated, and will most likelihood be motivated by promotional opportunities and payment. Extrinsic motivators such as working conditions and payment were least likely to motivate the employees in this sample. It is possible that these factors were already satisfactory and taken for granted.

Differentiated reward models for the clinical and administrative job family will not be required, as the results indicated no significant difference in the reward preferences of the two job families. In relation to promotion and the general dimensions, it appears that there may be a retention risk in favour of staff within the medical job family if promotional opportunities (or similar other personal development and career advancement choices) are not offered.
The following chapter will conclude the overall research and make recommendations for future research and contributions on the topic.
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The previous chapter explained and discusses the results of the research comprehensively and the integration with, existing literature.

In the following chapter the limitations of the study is explained. The chapter also sets out the areas that need to be addressed in future research and concludes with recommendations.

**Introduction**

It is apparent that there are many variables that influence the behaviour of people and in turn the performance of an organisation. Intangible leadership competencies enable greater competitiveness, as these are difficult to emulate, compared to tangible differentiators, like monetary rewards that most organisations rely on to keep employees motivated.

The reality is that people and organisations exist within a system and employees influence organisational performance in a multitude of ways. Therefore, if an organisation deems it employees as an asset and wishes to unlock performance, the organisation is to be well-informed about what it is that motivates its employees to unlock their full potential (Lawler, 2003).

Healthcare, along with education, is a central pillar in a country that wishes to achieve growth and prosperity for its citizens and to compete globally. Understanding the role that reward fulfils in motivating healthcare professionals could create a competitive advantage for an organisation in such an important industry by motivating critical skills and supporting a performance culture.

**6.1 Overview of the Chapters**

A broad synthesis of the entire study is provided within this section. This section will be organised with each chapter under its own heading.
Chapter 1 dealt with the relationship between rewards and recognition and the impact thereof on employee motivation, the purpose and objectives of the study, the study hypotheses, as well as the motivation and benefits of conducting the research.

Chapter 2 dealt with the important concepts from literature, such as motivational theory and reward management. This chapter also provided granular understanding into these concepts by focusing on comparative research.

Chapter 3 discussed the research design; specifically, the sample of the study, the measuring instrument used, the data gathering methods, the hypotheses and the statistical techniques used to perform the analysis of the study.

In Chapter 4, the outcomes of the statistical analysis were reported, which included the descriptive and inferential statistics on the variables under consideration. Due to the results from the intended analysis, further analysis in the form of post-hoc analysis had to be performed.

Chapter 5 discussed the results of the research comprehensively and integrated the results with the literature as discussed in Chapter 2.

In the next section, the research findings will be provided.

6.2 Research Findings

The research was organised based on four objectives, which were set in Chapter 1.

Objective 1: To determine whether or not total reward serves as a motivator;

Objective 2: To determine which category of total rewards (monetary or non-monetary) serves as a greater preference amongst employees;

Objective 3: To determine if there are significant differences in terms of total rewards drivers between different employees, based on demographic variables such as educational level;
Objective 4: To determine if there are significant differences in terms of motivation and total reward drivers between clinical and non-clinical employees.

The research findings will be summarised based on the latter objectives in the sections to follow.

From the literature and present study it is apparent that rewards have an impact on the level of motivation, but there are multiple factors that influence such motivation. Well-designed remuneration philosophies, policies and procedures play an increasingly strategic part in stimulating organisational success in a competitive business environment, in which macro-economic changes constantly influence how employees are motivated and perform their jobs (Martocchio, 1998). The level of motivation that is displayed by employees directly impacts their level of performance and that of the organisation.

Research presents various schools of influence and effectiveness of rewards and specifically monetary payment forms as a motivator. Money, therefore, can stimulate and have a positive impact on employee motivation under the right conditions, not only because people want money, but also because it is a desirable form of recognition (Armstrong, 2006). For most organisations, the costs associated with salaries, incentives, benefits and perks are the largest expenses on their income statement, varying from 50 to 65 percent (Gerhart & Rynes, 2003; Milkovich & Newman, 1999). The ideal total reward management strategy establishes a consistent, fair, value-adding set of policies governing wages and non-financial rewards.

6.2.1 Relationship between total rewards on motivation of staff

Supporting literature on total rewards identified recognition fulfilling an important intrinsic psychological need to demonstrate appreciation. The present study results indicated and support H1: that there is a statistically significant relationship between rewards regarding the motivation of staff in a medical services organisation.
The study also confirmed that there is a significant impact on reward preference based on job grade / level. Based on the job grade, motivation is influenced specifically by the dimensions of payment, benefits, promotions and personal (which includes how employees feel about their job).

In relation to the organisation in which the study was performed, it is recommended that careful consideration is given to their remuneration philosophy as a key differentiator to motivate its employees. The organisation should also give careful consideration in terms of defining payment and benefits for its employees as the statistical evidence indicate this as significant motivational driver for employees regardless of their level of education, gender. Non-financial rewards such as clearly defined career paths and development which may lead to promotional opportunities will also increase the motivational levels of the employees in this medical services organisation, this is particularly more important for male employees versus females.

6.2.2 Motivational variables of employees in different job families

Möller (1995) commented that motivation is a dynamic of personal circumstances and provided reason for behaviour.

In relation to H2: the study indicated that profession, i.e. clinical versus administrative (non-clinical) job roles, did influence the reward preferences of those employees and in turn variances in motivational levels of employees. Further results H2 is accepted and the alternative hypothesis is rejected.

The results of the current study demonstrated that except for one dimension (promotion), statistical significance exists between clinical and non-clinical staff. Further analysis of the clinical job family, it was also found that minimal differences exist between doctors and nurses. However it is important to note that n=129 and is made up of, inter alia, 11 Medical doctors and 118 other medical practitioners who are not nurses.
It is recommended that the organisation consider their investment in the creation of differentiated reward policies between the two job families as this may influence employees reward preferences and impacting employees motivational levels.

6.2.3 Employees total rewards preferences based on biographical variables

The present study results reject H3 in terms of the biographical variable of educational qualification, which suggested that there are statistically significant variances in terms of total rewards on the biographical variables such as educational qualification. The study reported that qualification did not seem to influence the total reward preference of employees. The results can also be interpreted against Maslow's theory, which suggests that the needs of people can be arranged in a hierarchy of importance. Employees can find themselves at any stage in a different level of the needs hierarchy, which will influence their behaviour dependent on their need/s. However, the sample size was small for higher levels of education. Cross tabulation of qualification, current job level and other biographical items may well yield other results.

The present study results support and accept H3 in terms of the biographical variable of race. The results reported that reward preference was different based on race and impacted on work motivation. Based on the results of this study, as well as supporting studies, the work motivation and satisfaction among men and women are different. It is clear that demographical variables such as gender influence reward preferences; however, the difficulty lies in the reliability correlating these factors with certain reward preferences. Again, cross tabulations may yield more specific results.

Based on the correlation results, promotion (opportunities that the organisation offers for career progression) can have a more significant impact on work motivation and satisfaction. The organisation should thus consider its talent development strategies in order to keep employees motivated in the organisation.

In summary the findings from this study confirmed that the respondents are motivated by money (payment), promotional opportunities, recognition and benefits.
A key recommendation that is made to the organisation, in which this study was conducted, the organisation should be concerned around the retention of their employees as the intent to stay of most of the respondents seems high.

6.3 Recommendation for Future Research

- Based on demographical variables, consideration must be given on segmentation of the population;
- More consideration to be given on life stages of employees;
- Opportunity to further interrogate the race / ethnical differences that exist in terms of reward preferences and cross tabulated against other biographics / demographics;
- It would also be interesting to explore the impact or effect of the top motivational drivers and the impact on actual employee work performance.

6.4 Conclusion

Companies are acknowledging the opportunity that exists to increase the return on their HR investment by aligning reward models with business strategy. The approach of aligning HR strategy to business objectives and more specifically having an integrated rewards model aligned to organisational performance indicators is of great importance to business success. The capability of companies to motivate employees and critical-skilled employees increases their competitiveness in the market.

The study has shown that companies must be mindful and understand the variables impacting employees' level of motivation and deploy different strategies to align. It is essential that managers, who are entrusted to manage, are mindful that different reward models can have a vastly different motivational impact on employees with different demographical characteristics. To improve motivational levels of employees and ensure a greater return on capital investments and effort, companies have to comprehend and master trans-cultural issues of employees. It is important for companies to consider how different reward strategies may affect an employee in relative to where the employee is in their live-cycle because personal conditions, needs and objectives are dynamic.
Although the results demonstrated that for certain biographical variables differences exists, in terms of race and gender. South African legislation such as section 6(1) of the Employment Equity Act an employer is not allowed to “unfairly discriminate, directly or indirectly, against a current employee in any employment policy or practice on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, family responsibility, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, HIV status, conscience, belief, political opinion, culture, language, and birth or on any other arbitrary ground”. A newly introduced section 6(4) of the aforementioned act reads as follows: “A difference in terms and conditions of employment between employees of the same employer performing the same or substantially the same work or work of equal value that is directly or indirectly based on any one or more of the grounds listed in subsection (1), is unfair discrimination.”

It is thus recommended that the organisation be mindful of legislation when considering and applying the results from this study.

A rewards strategy formulated with the intention to motivate employees may have the ability of impacting some employees in a positive way and weakening it for others. To ensure the efficacy of employee rewards, it is vital to careful deliberate the unique motivational drivers of its employees. The consideration to get the correct reward strategy in place will require extensive quantitative and qualitative gathering of information, reflection, patience, time and effort, but could have enormous benefits for the organisation and all employees in terms of increasing job performance and productivity.

By so doing, organisations will develop optimal reward strategies that are fit for purpose and its people.
LIST OF REFERENCES


APPENDIX 1: Research Questionnaire – Part A, B & C

Part A

Dear Colleagues,

REQUEST FOR ASSISTANCE WITH A RESEARCH PROJECT

I am in the process of completing my Master’s Degree at the University of Johannesburg.

The aim of the study is to determine the role that reward plays in motivating employees.

The attached questionnaire contains questions related to specific aspects of your job. Please mark the answer that best captures your view. There are no right or wrong answers.

The questionnaire should not take more than 10 minutes to complete. The completion of the questionnaire is voluntary, and you may withdraw from the study at any time.

Please be assured that all data will be kept confidential, and that the identity of the participant is not required and will therefore not be captured.

Kindly note that the research is independent from my role within the organisation, and findings and interpretation of results will be treated ethically and responsibly.

Thank you for your co-operation.

Yours sincerely

Lee R Callakoppen
**Questionnaire: Part B (Demographics)**

1. Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

2. Home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Tswana</th>
<th>Southern Ndebele</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Tsonga</td>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xhosa</td>
<td>Sotho</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zulu</td>
<td>Northern Sotho</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swati</td>
<td>Venda</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

3. Marital status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Single</th>
<th>Married</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>Widow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Age

Please state your age

5. Race

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>African</th>
<th>Asian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>White</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian/Chinese</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

6. Job family

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medical and clinical</th>
<th>Administration and client services</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

7. Job classification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specialist (at a managerial level but no direct reports)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Line manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical/administrative</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
If you are unsure of which category to select, please state your occupation.

8. Educational qualification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Matric</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma / Degree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate/doctor/dentist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (Please specify):</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Profession *(applicable to clinical/medical professionals only)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profession</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dentist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical doctor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optometrist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmacist</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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</table>
10. Please select your job level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Level</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Executive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Manager / Specialist equivalent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Manager / Specialist equivalent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Leader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational Staff</td>
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11. Job grade

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Grade</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1M3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2M1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3M1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3M2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4M1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4M2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B4M3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5M1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5M2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B5M3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. How long have you been employed at this organisation?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of service</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
13. What was your last performance score?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Range</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 – 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 – 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 – 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 – 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1 – 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Questionnaire: Part C

1. INTRODUCTION

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 what would make it better, from your point of view.

2. METHOD FOR ANSWERING QUESTIONS

With each question, you have a choice of five answers.

Choose one of the following:

1 - Strongly disagree
2 - Disagree
3 - Neutral
4 - Agree
5 - Strongly Agree

Mark your answer with a cross (X).

3. WORK CONTENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1 I am interested in my work.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 My work contains variety</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 I receive regular training which teaches me something new.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>---</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4 My work is easy.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 The amount of work is easy to handle.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6 I control the amount of work I do myself.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7 I work completely independently of others.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.8 I regard the content of my work as responsible.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.9 I know exactly what my mistakes are.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.10 I am allowed to decide on the methods for doing the work.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.11 I am proud to say what kind of work I do.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.12 My work is the way to future success.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.13 I will not be dismissed without good reason.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.14 I have the opportunity to take part when decisions are made.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.15 I feel that my work is of value in my department.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.16 There is no time for idleness.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.17 I have a certain degree of authority in my work.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.18 Titles are important in my occupation / profession</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. PAYMENT

4.1 A guaranteed package is important to me  
   | SD | D | N | A | SA |
   | 1  | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  |

4.2 My salary is satisfactory in relation to what I do.  
   | SD | D | N | A | SA |
   | 1  | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  |

4.3 I earn the same as or more than other people in 
   a similar job.  
   | SD | D | N | A | SA |
   | 1  | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  |

4.4 Payment for, for example, overtime 
   is reasonable.  
   | SD | D | N | A | SA |
   | 1  | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  |

4.5 The basis of incentive / bonus payments, is 
   reasonable.  
   | SD | D | N | A | SA |
   | 1  | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  |

4.6 I would rather earn less income and have a 
   guaranteed package than potentially earn 
   more income linked to an incentive scheme  
   | SD | D | N | A | SA |
   | 1  | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  |

4.7 I prefer short-term to long-term incentives  
   | SD | D | N | A | SA |
   | 1  | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  |

4.8 Salary increases are decided in a fair manner.  
   | SD | D | N | A | SA |
   | 1  | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  |

5. PROMOTION

5.1 I will advance in my job within the next two years.  
   | SD | D | N | A | SA |
   | 1  | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  |

5.2 Everyone has an equal chance to be promoted.  
   | SD | D | N | A | SA |
   | 1  | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  |

5.3 Staff members are promoted in a fair and 
   honest way.  
   | SD | D | N | A | SA |
   | 1  | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  |

5.4 I would be willing to work for less money if  
   | SD | D | N | A | SA |
   | 1  | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  |

136
there were career and growth opportunities

5.5 Career and growth opportunities are more important to me than other employee benefits

6. RECOGNITION

6.1 I am praised regularly for my work.  
6.2 I receive constructive criticism about my work.  
6.3 I get credit for what I do.  
6.4 I am told that I am making progress.  
6.5 Recognition for a job well done is more important to me than a financial reward

7. WORKING CONDITIONS

7.1 My working hours are reasonable.  
7.2 I would like to have flexibility in my working hours  
7.3 I am never overworked.  
7.4 I get the opportunity to mix with my colleagues and to communicate on aspects of our work.  
7.5 A comfortable work environment is important in my job
7.6 Good physical working conditions (good ventilation, lighting, adequate space,) are important in my job

7.7 An aesthetically pleasing environment (eg, décor, physical appearance) is important to my job.

8. BENEFITS

8.1 A organisation pension / retirement plan is an important benefit for me.

8.2 My medical scheme benefits are satisfactory.

8.3 My leave benefit is satisfactory.

8.4 I never have problems with my arrangements for leave.

8.5 I would like the opportunity to work fewer hours for less pay.

8.6 My employee wellness benefit is satisfactory.

8.7 My learning and development benefit is satisfactory.

8.8 I would like the opportunity to purchase increases levels of benefits based on my personal needs.
9. PERSONAL

9.1 I am given work in accordance with my qualifications and skills.
9.2 I work in the department of my choice.
9.3 I often need to inhibit my personal needs in place of team needs.
9.4 Job security is more important to me than continued pay increases.

10. MY LEADER / SUPERVISOR

10.1 Is satisfied easily
10.2 Will support me if there are problems
10.3 Can be convinced and persuaded
10.4 Is a warm-hearted person

11. GENERAL

11.1 I have considered changing jobs.
11.2 I have been looking out for another job.
11.3 I am thinking of resigning.