

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

**“Promotion: An in-depth analysis of what drives employees
to seek promotion within the workplace.”**

**By
Lorne Andersen
207514946**

**A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the degree of
Master of Business Administration**

**Graduate School of Business
Faculty of Management Studies**

Supervisor: Mr. Martin Challenor

2009

DECLARATION

ILorne Raymond Andersen.....declare that

- (i) The research reported in this dissertation/thesis, except where otherwise indicated, is my original research.
- (ii) This dissertation/thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.
- (iii) This dissertation/thesis does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.
- (iv) This dissertation/thesis does not contain other persons' writing, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers. Where other written sources have been quoted, then:
 - a) their words have been re-written but the general information attributed to them has been referenced:
 - b) where their exact words have been used, their writing has been placed inside quotation marks, and referenced.
- (v) This dissertation/thesis does not contain text, graphics or tables copied and pasted from the Internet, unless specifically acknowledged, and the source being detailed in the dissertation/thesis and in the References sections.

Signature:

Acknowledgements

I wish to express my sincere appreciation and gratitude to the following individuals, without whose assistance, this study would not have been possible:

- Martin Challenor, my supervisor and mentor, who has given me great inspiration and guidance not only through this dissertation but through the entire MBA course.
- To all respondents who took the time to answer my questionnaire.
- To my wife Toni Andersen and my two boys Nathan and Caleb who have been so patient with me during the dissertation process.
- To Bharat Metha my Managing Director who has been gracious in allowing me the time to carry out my dissertation tasks.

ABSTRACT

Everyday and in all facets of industry some people are motivated to seek promotion. The reasons behind this motivation to succeed are vague and very little information exists to explain why people seek promotion. It was on this basis that this study was undertaken; to add to knowledge of what motivates people to seek promotion. The common thought or belief is that people seek promotion so as to earn more and to increase their living standards and to be financially "better off" than their current circumstances. However, this study has shown that not to be the case. People are not only driven by financial gains but instead have a deeper desire to succeed.

A probability sample of 123 was drawn from people who work within industry and hold various positions from senior management to those at the bottom of the organisational hierarchy. The sample was made up of 43.9% in management, 29.27% in administrative positions, and 26.83% working within the factory environment. The gender making up this sample was 21.95% female and 78.05% male. The majority of the data collected was through an online survey web page and the balance through respondents completing a paper based questionnaire. Statistical analysis software called SPSS was used to subject the data collected to statistical scrutiny.

The salient feature of this study is that people displayed high levels of confidence in either being a manager or belief that they would do well as a manager. The study also shows that people are not motivated through financial rewards as a precursor for promotion, but instead seek promotion to better their non-financial lives. Personal satisfaction, job satisfaction and the desire for a challenge are the main factors for promotional desires. This dissertation has added to knowledge of what motivates people to seek promotion. The information can be used by organisations to assess their staff for promotional abilities and gives a broader understanding of why their people seek promotion.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Motivation for the study	2
1.3 Focus of the study	3
1.4 Problem Statement	3
1.5 Objectives	4
1.6 Limitations of the study	5
1.7 Summary	6
CHAPTER 2	7
2.1 Introduction	7
2.3 Understanding motivation	8
2.4 The three theories of motivation	9
2.4.1 Maslow's theory.	9
2.4.1.1 Physiological Needs	10
2.4.1.2 Safety & Security Needs	10
2.4.1.3 Social Needs	11
2.4.1.4 Self-Esteem needs	11
2.4.1.5 Self-Actualisation needs	11
2.4.2 Alderfer's theory.	12
2.4.3 McClelland's theory.	13
2.4.3.1 Achievement Need	14
2.4.3.2 Affiliation Need	14
2.4.3.3 Power Need	15
2.5 Comparing the three theories	15
2.6 Smith's Assumptions and Maslow's Hierachy of needs.	16
2.7 An analysis of why people seek promotion	17
2.7.1 Safety Needs	17

2.7.1.1	Promotion for financial gain _____	17
2.7.1.2	To move away from diminished industry conditions. _____	19
2.7.2	Social Needs _____	20
2.7.2.1	Family Ties _____	20
2.7.2.2	To benefit the employer, colleagues and others _____	21
2.7.3	Self-Esteem Needs _____	22
2.7.3.1	Status, recognition and undervalued _____	22
2.7.3.2	Power, Authority, Responsibility and Influence _____	24
2.7.3.3	Personal and Job satisfaction _____	26
2.7.4	Self-Actualisation _____	28
2.7.4.1	Employee's desires for competition, challenges and excitement__	28
2.7.4.2	Stepping stone _____	29
2.9	Self-Confidence _____	31
2.10	The South African Future _____	32
2.10.1	The Economic Future _____	32
2.10.2	The Political Future _____	34
2.11	Acquire more skills _____	35
2.12	Junior staff's potential _____	36
2.13	Conclusion _____	36
CHAPTER 3 _____		38
3.1	Introduction _____	38
3.2	Research Design _____	38
3.2.1	The Qualitative and Quantitative divide _____	39
3.2.1.1	Qualitative analysis _____	39
3.2.1.2	Quantitative Analysis _____	39
3.3	The research instrument and the questionnaire _____	40
3.3.1	The self-completion questionnaire _____	40
3.3.2	Open and closed questions _____	42
3.4	Methodology _____	44

3.4.1	The Questionnaire: Design & purpose	44
3.4.2	Validity & Reliability	46
3.4.3	Population and the sample	47
3.4.3.1	Sample	47
3.4.3.2	Sample Size	48
3.4.4	Online survey	49
3.4.5	Generalizability	50
3.5	Conclusion	50
CHAPTER 4		51
4.1	Introduction	51
4.2	Descriptive Analysis	51
4.2.1	Descriptive Statistical Techniques	51
4.2.1.1	Frequency Distribution	52
4.2.2	Skewness	52
4.2.2.1	Symmetric	52
4.2.2.2	Positively skewed	53
4.2.2.3	Negatively skewed	53
4.2.3	Cross Tabulation	53
4.2.4	The areas in which the data fall	54
4.2.5	Comparison of means	56
4.2.6	Cross Tabulation	57
4.2.7	In answering the objectives	59
CHAPTER 5		80
5.1	Introduction	80
5.2	Discussion	80
5.3	Recommendations	88
5.4	Reliability & Validity	90
5.5	Limitations of study	91

5.6	Future Research	91
5.6.1	Demographics	91
5.6.2	Methods	92
5.7	Conclusion	92
6	Bibliography	xi

LIST OF FIGURES

2.7.1.2	Figure 2.1 Industry Life Cycles	19
2.10.1	Figure 2.2 Consumer Confidence	33
4.2.2	Figure 4.1 Skewness Diagrams	51
4.2.4	Figure 4.2 Job Category	53
4.2.4	Figure 4.3 Gender Category	54
4.2.4	Figure 4.4 Age Category	54
4.2.7	Figure 4.5 Mean Table	59
4.3.3.1	Figure 4.6 Estimated Marginal Means: Family	76
4.3.3.2	Figure 4.7 Estimated Marginal Means: Asking	77

LIST OF TABLES

2.5	Table 2.1 Comparing Theories	15
2.6	Table 2.2 Maslow & Variables	16
3.4.3.1	Table 3.1 Respondents per Job Category	46
3.4.3.2	Table 3.2 Population Samples	47
4.2.5	Table 4.1 Comparison of Means	55
4.2.5	Table 4.2 Comparison of Means	56
4.2.6	Table 4.3 Gender & Cross Tabulation	57
4.2.6	Table 4.4 Age & Gender Cross Tabulation	57
4.2.6	Table 4.5 Age & Job tabulation	58
4.2.7.1	Table 4.6 Employer Success Descriptive	60
4.2.7.1	Table 4.7 Employer Success Frequency	60
4.2.7.2	Table 4.8 Confidence Descriptive	61
4.2.7.2	Table 4.9 Confidence Frequency	61
4.2.7.3	Table 4.10 SA Economy Descriptive	62
4.2.7.3	Table 4.11 SA Economy Frequency	62
4.2.7.4	Table 4.12 SA Political Descriptive	63
4.2.7.5	Table 4.13 SA Political Frequency	63
4.2.7.6	Table 4.14 Better Position Descriptive	64
4.2.7.6	Table 4.15 Better Position Frequency	64
4.2.7.7	Table 4.16 Financial Gain Descriptive	65
4.2.7.7	Table 4.17 Financial Gain Frequency	65

4.2.7.8	Table 4.18 Competitive Desire Descriptive	66
4.2.7.9	Table 4.19 Competitive Desire Frequency	66
4.2.7.8	Table 4.20 Quality of Life Descriptive	67
4.2.7.8	Table 4.21 Quality of Life Frequency	67
4.2.7.9	Table 4.22 Personal Satisfaction Descriptive	68
4.2.7.9	Table 4.23 Personal Satisfaction Frequency	68
4.2.7.10	Table 4.24 Family Links Descriptive	69
4.2.7.10	Table 4.25 Family Links Frequency	69
4.2.7.11	Table 4.26 Junior Staff Descriptive	70
4.2.7.12	Table 4.27 Junior Staff Frequency	70
4.3.1	Table 4.28 Correlation Strength	71
4.3.1.1	Table 4.29 Correlation: Political/Economic	72
4.3.1.1	Table 4.30 Mean Comparison	72
4.3.1.2	Table 4.31 Correlation: Job/Personal	73
4.3.1.2	Table 4.32 Mean Comparison	73
4.3.2.1	Table 4.33 Confidence & Gender	74
4.3.2.1	Table 4.34 Independent Samples test	74
5.4	Table 5.1 Reliability Statistic	89

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

People, in any society, are in competition for a very important resource – a well paying, satisfying and interesting career (George & Jones, 2006). People, as motivation theories suggest, strive to achieve more than they already have. Mullins (2006, p. 471) says that motivation theory of people is to ask the question “why do people do what they do, and why do people choose a particular course of action”? What is this driving force and what are people’s needs and expectations (George & Jones, 2006, p. 472)?

Merging George & Jones’s (2006) statements into the context of business and its employees, a question arises: “why do people seek promotion”? Is it for the pursuit of financial rewards, self edification, or status? Or is it to contribute to society and help to grow an organisation? Promotions and why people seek them must be understood from within an organisational context if business seeks to understand their people better.

This dissertation will illustrate why people seek promotion. It will help equip managers of organisations with the knowledge and understanding to identify with these needs and to act accordingly. The study has highlighted the importance of the need for people to be promoted and for management to be aware of the dangers of non-promotion of their staff. Dissatisfaction with promotional processes, insufficient promotional opportunities, and stifled organisational advancement are often cited as primary causes of employee

turnover. Promotions, therefore, appear to occupy a central role in the success of business enterprise (Carson, Griffeth, & Steel, 1994).

In reviewing the literature very little information has been devoted to this subject except what has been written about by Smith (2007). Inferences have been made but there has been no direct attempt to discuss or theorise the notion of exactly why do people seek to be promoted. It is original and thus deserves further study to add to knowledge.

This dissertation starts with explanations of motivation theories in an attempt to understand the inner psyche of what motivates people and to relate that into the understanding of why people seek promotion. This understanding will cascade into promotions within the organisation and the factors that affect promotion. Various research methodologies will be explored in explaining how the research will be conducted. The dissertation will end with a discussion and conclusion, based on research of why people seek promotion.

1.2 Motivation for the study

Very little work has been devoted to the subject of why people seek to be promoted. The main thought or understanding, without research, is that people seek promotion entirely for financial gain. This may not necessarily be true. As human beings are highly complex, and are motivated by various things in life, they seek out more than just financial wealth; or do they? The motivation for this study is to identify what people consider as important in seeking promotion. This work is original and exploratory as very little literature has been written of why people seek to be promoted.

This study will help not only managers, but employees as well to identify why they themselves and their co-workers seek promotion. It will give a broader understanding to the prospective "promotee" of his/her reasons for seeking promotion that is not only affiliated to financial or status reasons.

The primary motivation for the study is the need to gather data and then interpret it in an effort to understand "why people seek to be promoted". This study then, will contribute knowledge to the subject of promotion in general through quantitative analysis and literature review.

1.3 Focus of the study

This dissertation focuses on the motives of why people seek promotion. Smith (2007, p. 428) introduces assumptions, discussed in the problem statement, of why people seek promotion. Smith's (2007, p. 428) writings will be used as a basis of the questionnaire as the research instrument, the literature review and the discussion. Running alongside Smith's assumptions (2007) will be a side by side discussion on motivational theory as a support to Smith's writings.

1.4 Problem Statement

Acquiring promotion at the workplace can rightly be taken as affirmation that the employee is conducting themselves in a fitting and proper way, and as a sign of individual success and achievement. Given the rewards on offer, employees would do well to strive for promotion (Smith, 2007). In any organisational environment, people are in direct competition to obtain jobs that are not only well paid but also interesting and satisfying as well. Often people are in the same job for many years and during this time learn new skills to put them in better

positions to find more interesting and rewarding careers (George & Jones, 2006, p. 07).

A question arising from the act of seeking and securing promotion is why people do exactly that – seek promotion.

Smith (2007, p. 428) introduces his assumptions to the matter by saying that the answer to the question could on the one hand be an unarticulated, unquestioned instinctive injunction within employees to seek to improve themselves at the work place in relation to colleagues. Smith (2007, p. 428) elaborates by saying that employees may wish to acquire financial gain, status, power, personal satisfaction, job satisfaction, influence, authority, responsibility, were by nature competitive, wanted a new challenge, seeking more excitement, recognition, or because they may feel undervalued. Employees might be promoted on the basis of their family ties. More deliberately and consciously, people may wish to seek promotion in a desire to benefit themselves, the employer and or their colleagues. The employer and employee could have different futures in mind in the act of promotion. The employee could be placing their personal future first and be using the new position as a stepping stone for themselves to an even better position whereas the company wanted a person dedicated firstly to its future. Employees could be seeking a new position inside or outside their current place of employment in a response to and an escape from changed, diminished industry conditions.

1.5 Objectives

At issue in this study are the reasons why people seek promotion, ranging from instinctive to deliberate, conscious and magnanimous. There is a need to rank

which motives for promotion are held more strongly than others among employees in general.

The problem statement gives rise to five research objectives. These are:

- To rank in order of importance the factors that drive employees to seek promotion.
- To test, from a range of possibilities, as identified in the literature and shaped by the problem statement, what motivates people to seek promotion?
- To gauge the extent to which employees seek promotion so as to benefit themselves, their colleagues and or the employer.
- To test if employees seek promotion so as to consciously meet internal drivers or if they are responding instinctively by seeking promotion.
- To assess the flexibility of employees in securing promotion.

1.6 Limitations of the study

Initially the objective of the study was to target managers only. Due to the difficulty experienced in contacting managers it was decided to broaden the research domain. People in three main job categories such as management, administration and factory staff were contacted. This increased the sample size but at the same time still maintained a degree of focus.

It is possible, as the questionnaire was not answered under controlled conditions, that respondents may or may not have given complete thought to the questions posed. Although every effort was made to make the completion of the questionnaire as short and as easy as possible, there is a possibility that the data may not be completely representative of the population as a whole.

Bryman & Bell (2007, p. 169) speak about generalizability in probability sampling in that a researcher is concerned about been able to conclude that the findings can be inferred to the broader population. As far as possible probability sampling was used when collecting data. But it is extremely difficult to follow this technique completely when respondents either fail or refuse to answer the questionnaire, or cannot be located. The targeted sample may not necessarily be conducive to following the probability sampling technique. However, all effort was made to do this.

1.7 Summary

People are motivated through various ways and for various reasons to be promoted. Human beings are complex organisms and may be driven by other innate desires that inspire, challenge and grow. There is a strong need to discover these motives, research them, analyse them and draw conclusions about them.

People have desires, wants and needs and explore or even create the vehicles to get them. The trick is to identify those desires, wants and needs through understanding and appreciating motivational theories. Parallels can be drawn through these understandings to draw inferences as to why people seek to be promoted.

The next chapter is the literature review. It discusses the individual human being and looks at various areas that make up the psyche, attitude towards work and the will to progress of the human being. Through the discussion of motivation theories, personality and perception in this chapter, better understanding of why people seek promotion will be acquired.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Nel, Gerber, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono (2001, p. 272) offer a definition on promotion by saying "a promotion occurs when an employee is moved from one job to another that is higher in pay, responsibility, or organisational level. Promotions are usually based on merit or responsibility". The question still remains however: "What motivates people to seek a promotion"? Very little literature is available on this subject except what has been introduced in the problem statement in this dissertation by Smith (2007, p. 428):

- Employees may wish to acquire financial gain, status, power, personal satisfaction or job satisfaction.
- Employees may want influence, authority, responsibility, were by nature competitive, wanted a new challenge, seeking more excitement, recognition, or because they may feel undervalued.
- Family ties could very well have a bearing on the reasons why employees seek promotion.
- More deliberately and consciously, people may wish to seek promotion in a desire to benefit themselves, the employer and or their colleagues. The employer and employee could have different futures in mind in the act of promotion.
- The employee could be placing their personal future first and be using the new position as a stepping stone for themselves to an even better position whereas the company wanted a person dedicated firstly to its future.

- Employees could be seeking a new position inside or outside their current place of employment in a response to and an escape from changed, diminished industry conditions.

After a discussion of motivation and the various theories thereof, Smith's (2007, p. 428) suggestions on the reasons why people seek promotion will be discussed alongside motivational theory. Motivational theory is viewed as a "precursor or an influential phenomenon" that will have a significant impact in understanding why people seek to be promoted. Part one of this chapter will be a discussion on motivation and motivational theorists followed by Smith's (2007) assumptions relative to motivational theory. The chapter will then conclude with part two with a discussion on the fundamentals that impact people's decisions to seek promotion.

2.2 Part 1 - Smith's assumptions and motivational theory.

2.3 Understanding motivation

Mullins (2006, p. 471) says that motivation theory of people is to ask the question "why do people do what they do, and why do people choose a particular course of action"? Griffin (2008, p. 439) speaks of motivation by saying that managers should understand that employees may not only be satisfied with the status quo of salary and benefits, but they may very well seek challenging job opportunities to experience self growth and satisfaction.

Mullins (2006, pp. 479-480) says that motivation theory helps to explain specific things that motivate people at work. It attempts to identify people's needs, their strengths and the "goals they pursue to satisfy their needs".

Mullins (2006, p. 480) speaks of three different types of motivational theories by theorists such as Maslow, Alderfer and McClelland. As motivation forms an important part of why people seek to be promoted, each one of these theories will be discussed. Smith's assumptions will then be referred to by using Maslow's hierarchy of needs as the overarching theory but utilising the theories of Alderfer and McClelland to support.

2.4 The three theories of motivation

2.4.1 Maslow's theory.

Plunkett, Attner & Allen (2005, p. 44) say that Maslow was a humanistic psychologist, teacher, and practicing manager who developed a needs based-theory of motivation. Maslow's theory is now considered central to understanding human motivations and behaviour. This is the same reason why Maslow's hierarchy of needs is used in this dissertation as the over-arching motivation to which other theories are subject in exploring Smith's assumptions of why people seek to be promoted. Maslow's theory was based on four premises (Plunkett, Attner & Allen 2005, p. 423):

- Only an unsatisfied need can influence behaviour; a satisfied need is not a motivator. Thus, someone who has just eaten is unlikely to want food until the hunger need arises again.
- A person's needs are arranged in a priority of importance. Maslow's hierarchy, which will be discussed below, goes from the most basic needs (such as water or shelter) to the most complex (esteem and self-actualisation).
- A person will at least minimally satisfy each level of need before feeling the need at the next level. Someone must feel companionship before desiring recognition.

- If need satisfaction is not maintained at any level, the unsatisfied need will become a priority once again. For example, for a person who is currently feeling social needs, safety will become a priority once again if he or she is fired.

Cole (2005, p. 281) says that according to Maslow and his four premises as a base, human beings have certain physiological and psychological needs, which he grouped into five categories and arranged into a hierarchy. This means that lower-level needs must be reasonably well satisfied before needs at the next level can emerge. The five levels are (Cole 2005, p. 283):

2.4.1.1 Physiological Needs

Mullins (2006, p. 480) says that physiological needs are obvious - they are the literal requirements for human survival. If these requirements are not met (with the exception of clothing and shelter), the human body simply cannot continue to function. These are the primary or basic-level needs such as air, water, food, shelter.

2.4.1.2 Safety & Security Needs

These are the needs of acquiring a salary, work benefits, safe working conditions and job security (Plunkett, Attner, Allen 2005, p. 423). Mullins (2006, p. 480) says that these needs are those satisfying a person's desire for adequate shelter from natural elements, safety from the perils of society, and the need for predictability and orderliness. People may seek promotion within the organisation in which they work that will give higher pay to afford better safety protection mechanisms. Or people may seek promotion in another organisation that will result in a re-location that may remove a person from their present social

demise. Both of these reasons may be heavily influenced through family and social ties.

2.4.1.3 Social Needs

This is where people seek friendship, companionship, a place in a team and to feel valued (Cole 205, p. 281). Mullins (2006, p. 480) says that it is the need where a person feels welcome within his/her organisation and is part of the social fray. People may want to be promoted to enter into such a scenario or leave a situation devoid of such love needs.

2.4.1.4 Self-Esteem needs

This is the desire for self-respect, and for the recognition of one's abilities by others (Cole 205, p. 281). Mullins (2005, p. 480) says that these are the needs to satisfy a person's egotistical desires. It can also be made up of confidence, strength, independence, freedom and achievement. Promotion may fulfil the esteem needs and could be the main driver for a person seeking promotion as that person may feel "good about themselves" after achieving promotion.

2.4.1.5 Self-Actualisation needs

This motivational level relates to the desire for fulfilment. Self-actualisation represents the need to maximise the use of one's skill, abilities, and potential (Cole 205, p. 281). This stage is "what humans can be, they must be, or becoming everything that one is capable of becoming" (Mullins 2005, p. 480).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is based on the assumption that people are motivated to satisfy a number of needs and that money can directly or indirectly satisfy only some of those needs (Rue & Byars, 2003). A need is a strong feeling of void in one's life that needs to be fulfilled and until it is, creates an uncomfortable tension. This tension can become a motivating force that will cause a person to take action to satisfy that need and to attempt to fill the void. As the need is being satisfied, this tension eases and so too does the motivation (Hellriegel, *et al.*, 2007). This reduction in tension and motivational force can be ascribed to economist's utility theory. Schiller (2007, p. 91-92) says that the more a need is satisfied, the less of a desire it is to satisfy that need; it is called the law of diminishing marginal utility: the marginal utility of a need declines as more of it is satisfied in a given period of time.

2.4.2 Alderfer's theory.

According to Mullins (2006, p. 484), Alderfer's motivation theory condenses Maslow's five stages into three (see table 2.1) and is based on the core needs of Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG theory).

- **E**xistence needs are those needs that sustain human existence and survival and cover the physiological and safety needs of people.
- **R**elatedness needs are those needs covering the dynamics of love, belonging, affiliation, and meaning of interpersonal relationships of safety or esteem.
- **G**rowth needs are the needs that further suggest, without empirical research, the reasons why people seek promotion at work. The growth needs are concerned with development of potential, and cover the self esteem as well as the self-actualisation dynamics of people.

According to Alderfer's theory, people progress from existence needs through to growth needs as the preceding level is satisfied, but insists that these are more on a continuum than a hierarchy (Mullins 2006, p. 480). Plunkett, Attner, Allen (2005, p. 431) explain this theory that higher level needs become more important as they are satisfied. If a person is frustrated at attaining more of a need, the individual might return to a lower-level need.

2.4.3 McClelland's theory.

McClelland identified four different motivators: Achievement Motive; Power Motive; Affiliative Motive

According to Mullins (2006, pp. 487-488) the three motives correspond roughly to Maslow's self-actualization, esteem and love needs. The intensity of these motives varies between people and the occupations that they hold. Managers tend to be higher in the motivation than in affiliation motivation. McClelland saw the achievement need as the most critical for the country's economic growth and success. The need to achieve can be linked to entrepreneurial drive and the development of resources. Hellriegel *et al* (2007, p. 40) says that the same motivation can be linked to intrapreneurial drive where the manager strives to increase profitability of an organisation through effective use of a company's resources. Entrepreneurial behaviour within companies can produce growth and profits and may even be the precursor to long-term survival. Thus corporate intrapreneurship is becoming more and more widespread. People may very well seek promotion based on their intrapreneurial spirit and their desire for achievement.

2.4.3.1 Achievement Need

The level of achievement motivation varies between individuals at work. Some people strive for achievement where others do not; they are content with their present circumstances and have little urge to achieve. For people whom achievement is priority, money is not an incentive but may serve as a means of giving feedback on performance. But higher achievers will not stay long at an organisation that does not pay well. Money may seem to be important but they view it as a “symbol” of success and goal achievement. On the other hand, for people who have very little to no desire for achievement, money may serve as an incentive for performance (Mullins, 2006). Griffin (2008, p. 441) says that people with a high need for achievement have a desire to assume personal responsibility and a desire to set moderately difficult goals. They desire to accomplish a goal or task more effectively than in the past.

2.4.3.2 Affiliation Need

People with this need desire human companionship and acceptance. A survey found that workers with one or more good friends at work are more likely to be committed to their company (Griffin, 2008). Buckingham and Coffman (1999, p. 3) refers to the Gallup Survey in which one of the twelve questions posed to employees to measure total employee engagement was “do you have a best friend at work”? The Gallup survey argued that having a best friend at work can fulfil the affiliation need.

2.4.3.3 Power Need

Griffin (2008, p. 442) explains this need as a desire to be influential in a group and to have control over an environment. Research has found that those who possess a high need for power tend to be superior performers and hold supervisory positions.

The study of motivation, from a theoretical base, helps to give insight into the motives of people's desire for organisational progress. People behave in certain ways and the underlying concept of motivation for promotion is the driving force in which they attempt to satisfy a goal, need or expectation (Mullins, 2006).

2.5 Comparing the three theories

Mullins (2006, p. 484) illustrates the relationship between the three theories by way of table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Maslow's hierarchy of needs	Alderfer's ERG theory	McClelland's Achievement motivation theory
Physiological	Existence	
Safety		
Love	Relatedness	Affiliative
Esteem		Power motive
Self-Actualisation	Growth	Achievement motive

Referring to Plunkett, Attner & Allen (2005, p. 44) who say that Maslow's theory is now considered central to understanding human motivations and behaviour, table 2.1 above illustrates the two motivational theorists being "subject to

Maslow". With Maslow's hierarchy of needs being the overarching theory and with Alderfer and McClelland as supporting the theory, Smiths (2007) assumptions will be explored.

2.6 Smith's Assumptions and Maslow's Hierachy of needs.

Table 2.2 shows where each of Smith's assumptions is assigned to under each of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The reasoning for these assignments will be discussed except under "Physiological Needs". As these needs explained by Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn (2005, p. 122) are the lower level needs such as the need for food, water and sustenance pertains to people who are driven to achieve these needs has little to do with the desire for promotion. Those who cannot fulfil physiological needs will not be seeking promotion. For this reason none of Smith's assumptions will be discussed under this heading.

Table 2.2: Maslow and Variables

Physiological Needs	Safety Needs	Social Needs	Self-Esteem Needs	Self-Actualisation
	People desire & seek: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial gain • To move away from diminished industry conditions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family ties is a motivator To benefit: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The employers • Colleagues • Themselves 	People desire & seek: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Status • People feel undervalued • Recognition • Power • Authority • Responsibility • Influence over others • Personal Satisfaction • Job Satisfaction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To acquire a challenge • Stepping stone • Excitement • Competition

2.7 An analysis of why people seek promotion

2.7.1 Safety Needs

Safety needs, as per Maslow, are those needs for security, protection and stability where according to Alderfer they are existence needs; the need for material well being of persons and family (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn 2005, pp. 122-123).

Smith's (2007) assumptions of "people may seek promotion for financial gain, and seek promotion to escape from diminished industry conditions" are discussed under this hierarchy as two of many assumptions being motivators to seek safety needs.

2.7.1.1 Promotion for financial gain

Money has a significant impact on people's motivation and their work-related behavior in organisations (Tang Li-Ping 1992, p. 197). However, money isn't everything and its meaning is in the eye of the beholder (Lawler, 1980, cited in Tang Li-Ping 1992, p. 197) and McClelland (cited in Tang Li-Ping, 1992 p.197) says that to some, money is a motivator. It may be a motivator when a person has very little of it to provide security, clothing and other security needs. Or money may already be in excess in one's life and hence does not become a motivator and should then be placed under the Maslow category of "self-esteem" needs or under McClelland's "power need".

Tang Li-Ping (1992, pp. 197-202) in his research pointed out that "people's attitudes towards money is by no means uni-dimensional. People's attitudes towards money can be perceived as their 'frame of reference' in which they

examine their everyday life." Tschohl (2009 (a)) says that recognition is what motivates employees and is more effective than money. There are other factors that motivate employees other than money such as job satisfaction, recognition, authority, and company progression. This according Alderfer is "growth needs" where there is a desire for continued personal growth and development (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn 2005, p. 123).

Smith & Cronje (2002, pp. 359-360) say that employees place more emphasis on the importance of factors such as challenging jobs, recognition for achievement, and opportunities for personal growth and creativity at the workplace than advancement for financial gain. According to the motivation theories, which are based on extensive research into human behaviour, these factors do satisfy the higher order needs of people in the work place. Tschohl (2007 (b), p. 158) says that "studies rank 'more money' anywhere from third to tenth place on a list of employee motivators".

Tschohl (2007 (b)) says that the Hay Group, a leading research management company, has found that employees do not value money as the most important aspect. Pinelli, 2005, (cited by Tschohl 2007 (b) pp. 158-159) says that money is important but not an end-all as long as the employees understand why they get paid and what they get paid.

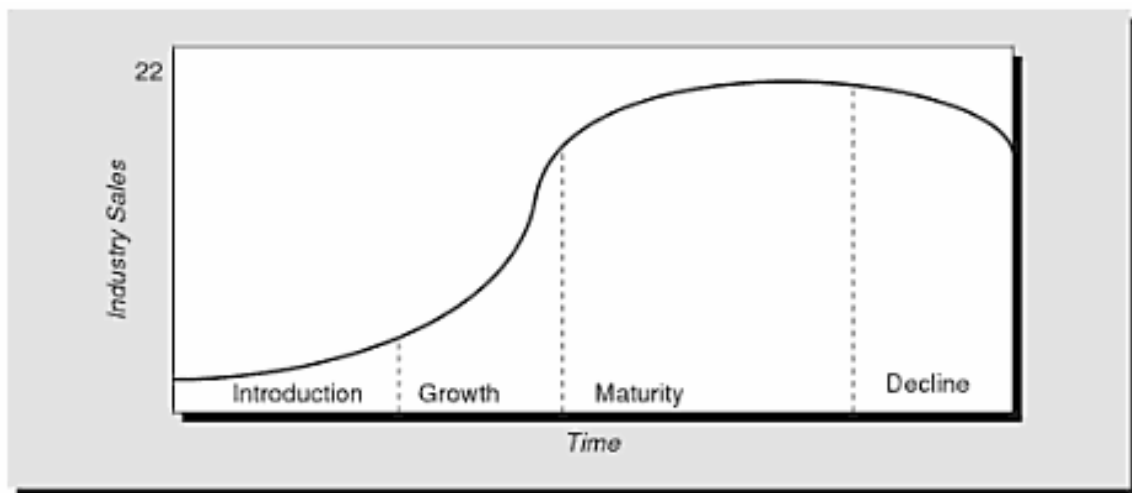
Grossman (2009) on the other hand refers to industrial psychologists who "call money a 'deficiency need'. Money motivates people only when they feel deficient in it - when they feel they do not have enough". This argument may lay well with employees at the bottom of the hierarchical ladder where their pay is so low that they are willing to take on the next job with higher pay regardless of potential consequences (Grossman 2009).

So, depending on the circumstance of the individual, seeking promotion for financial gain could fit under the motivation category of “safety needs”, or it could fit under the category of “self-esteem and social needs”.

2.7.1.2 To move away from diminished industry conditions.

Employees may seek promotion either out of a department within a company that is perceived as going into decline, or move out of an industry altogether to avoid stunted growth or even loss of a job. Figure 2.1 shows the life cycle of an industry.

Figure 2.1 – Industry life cycles



Source: Grant, R. (2005). Contemporary strategy analysis. 5th Edition. Australia: Blackwell Publishing.

Grant (2005, p. 305) says that one of the best known and most enduring market concepts is the product life cycle. As figure 2.1 above depicts, products are born, their sales grow, they reach maturity, they go into decline, and then ultimately die. If products have life cycles, so too do the industries that produce them. The industry life cycle is the supply-side equivalent of the product life cycle. If the

product life cycle goes into decline and the industry is not prepared by either introducing substitutes or even diversifying into other products then the industry will go into decline. It is in the decline stage that industry begins to lose skills as employees move into declining industry instead before being caught in an extinct industry where their skills are no longer required and hence find themselves jobless. As a result people, so as to survive and to look after their safety needs may seek promotion into a completely different industry.

2.7.2 Social Needs

According to Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2005, p. 123) citing Maslow, these needs are affiliated to love, affection, sense of belonging, team-ship and to help others. Alderfer refers to these needs as the desire for satisfying interpersonal relationships where McClelland, 1963, (cited by Ratzburg n.d.) says that these needs are affiliative; which is the need characterized by a desire to belong, an enjoyment of teamwork, a concern about interpersonal relationships, and a need to reduce uncertainty.

Family ties, the need to benefit colleagues, the employer or oneself have been assigned to Maslow's category of Social Needs. These assumptions of Smith's (2007) are closely related to Maslow's social needs, Alderfer's relatedness needs and McClelland's affiliative needs and are discussed below.

2.7.2.1 Family Ties

Chope and Consoli (n.d, p. 85) say that the family is often influential in career decisions of its members. Some families want the members to earn more money and to be independent. Others want them to achieve but others want them to

refrain from drawing attention to themselves. Attitudes to work and progression can also be related to earnings. Family attitudes about money, savings, assets and the desires to achieve more or to maintain the status quo will have an impact on a family members' desire to be promoted through the organisation. How a family influences the career decision making of its members is often related to culturally specific factors of that family.

Taylor, Harris and Taylor (2004) say that families, parents and guardians in particular, play a significant role in the occupational aspirations and career goal development of their members. Without family approval or support, members are often reluctant to pursue—or even explore—diverse career possibilities. Research demonstrates that family members' comments, beliefs, and interactions with their members may have a profound influence on their member's career development.

2.7.2.2 To benefit the employer, colleagues and others

DuBrin (2005 (a), p. 58) explains the theory of organisational citizenship behaviour where at times employees work for the benefit of the organisation or peers and that these same employees relate to work as a central life issue. There is a sense of obligation of these employees to the organisation and others as well as a positive involvement in terms of career, or the willingness to work for the good of the organisation even without promise of a specific reward. This theory lends itself to McGregor's Theory Y (1960) approach to human motivation. People need to work, actively seek responsibility, and are generally creative and resourceful. They will be self-directed to achieve objectives that meet both organisational and individual goals and to help others. Latham (2007, pp. 32-33) who cites McGregor (1960) by explaining that people wish to work for the benefit of the organisation and "the motivation, the potential for development, the

capacity for assuming responsibility, the readiness to direct behaviour toward organisational goals are all present in people”.

2.7.3 Self-Esteem Needs

As table 2.2 above illustrates, the majority of Smith’s assumptions have been assigned under the category of “self-esteem needs”. This is because Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn (2005, p. 122) explain that these are needs for esteem, respect, recognition, prestige, personal sense of competence and even mastery. Ratzburg (n.d) cites McClelland’s (1963) power need theory where the need for power is characterised by a drive to control and influence others, a need to win arguments and a need to persuade and prevail.

As a result, Smith’s (2007) assumptions of “people desire status, want to be recognised, want power and authority, seek more responsibility, desire to have more influence, want to feel valued, and seek out job and personal satisfaction” have been assigned to this category.

2.7.3.1 Status, recognition and undervalued

Hellriegal, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw and Oosthuizen (2007 p. 325-326) say that status is a person’s social rank in a group, which is often determined by a person’s characteristics, in addition to the person’s formal position. When one person holds a higher formal position than another, that person has a higher level of authority as well as status. It is this desire “to have status and authority” that people seek to move up the corporate ladder.

Knights and Willmot (1999, pp. 38-39) speak about those persons occupying a career job where work is more likely to be an important source of status and a

sense of identity. Those who work at the bottom of the organisational hierarchy tend to regard work as a means to an end and hence do not identify with it neither do they apply any form of status to it either. Willmot and Knights (1999, p. 40) argue that where high status is applied to a job higher up in the organisational hierarchy it benefits the job incumbent's self esteem. Seeking promotion to attain the job to which a higher level of status is attached is a sense of fulfillment and the addition to one's self-respect.

Status is not only limited to an individual person but is carried through into groups. A person's relative rank, prestige, or standing in a group is referred to as status. Status within a group can be based on any number of factors including work seniority, occupation, education, or performance (Schermerhorn, Hunt, Osborn, 2005, p. 202). Smith and Cronje (2002) say that an individual can achieve a certain status by joining a group that others view as important because the group provides recognition and status for its members; belonging to the management group carries with it a certain status.

Status and recognition can be viewed as mutually exclusive. DuBrin (b) (2002, pp. 322-323) explains recognition as the desire to be acknowledged for one's contributions and efforts and to feel important. Kole (2005, p. 296) says that recognizing people for the quality of their individual performance helps to motivate people and gives them the desire to want to hold higher positions.

On the other hand, if employees are not recognized then they feel undervalued. Gill (2000) says that in today's world there's no reason for employees to stay if they think they're being undervalued by their bosses and says that workers with lousy bosses are four times as likely to quit in the next year as are people with caring supervisors. Stocker (2006, pp. 82-83) explains what when management undervalues employees, they become unhappy. When employees are unhappy, they leave to find other jobs or seek a promotion into another department under

a better manager. Hence people can be motivated to seek promotion so as to achieve recognition.

Stocker (2006) argues that to decrease employee turnover, improve employee recognition and increase employee happiness, employees must be made to feel valuable and to be recognised for their worth.

Maxwell (2006, p.22) says that there is not a person in the world who does not have the desire to be someone, to have significance. Even the least ambitious and unassuming person wants to be regarded highly by others.

2.7.3.2 Power, Authority, Responsibility and Influence

Griffin (2008, p. 442) explains the need for power as a desire to be influential in a group and to have control over an environment and others. Those that possess a high need for power tend to be superior performers and hold supervisory positions. Power refers to the ability to influence the behaviour of others in an organisation (Smith & Cronje 2002, p. 196). Dubrin (2002, pp. 290-291) argues that when an employee has been given power, he/she then becomes empowered. Empowerment is a way of distributing authority and power within an organisation. Empowerment is a way for leaders to share power. When leaders share power, employees experience a greater sense of personal effectiveness and job ownership. Empowered employees says Dubrin (2002, pp. 291) perform better because they become better motivated. "The extra motivation stems from a feeling of being in charge".

Power is all consuming and encompasses the tributaries of authority, responsibility and influence.

Authority means that a person has the power and the right to make decisions, give orders, draw on resources, and do whatever else is necessary to fulfil the responsibility (Bateman & Snell, 2009, p. 297).

Responsibility means that a person is assigned a task that he or she is supposed to carry out. With that responsibility will come enough authority to get the job done (Bateman & Snell, 2009, p. 297). With responsibility comes accountability. Plunkett, Attner and Allen (2005, p. 261) describe accountability as having to answer for one's actions. It means a person delegated responsibility is accountable and has to accept the consequences for failure of not achieving a task. Bateman and Snell (2009, p. 261) say that the ultimate responsibility that people desire (and hence accountability) lies with the manager doing the delegating. Managers remain responsible and accountable not only for their own actions but also for the actions of their subordinates. People who are career orientated seek to be empowered to make decisions or take action to increase their own levels of responsibility; and hence seek promotion to achieve these levels.

Plunkett, Attner, Allen (2005, pp. 456-457) place influence under the form of leadership. Leadership is a process of influencing individuals and groups to set and achieve goals where influence is the power to sway people to one's will or views. Dubrin (2002, pp. 288-289) agrees with the notion of leadership and influence being inseparable. Leaders influence people to do things through the use of power and authority so that set goals and an over arching vision can be achieved.

According to Mullins (2006, pp. 487-488) power is an extract of individual motivation and gives insight into the motives of people's desire for organisation progress. Pfeffer (1992, p. 30) has described power and influence as "the potential ability to influence behavior, to change the course of events, to

overcome resistance, and to get people to do things that they would otherwise not do". Finkelstein (1992, p. 507) has referred to power as "the capacity of individual actors to exert their will". Based on these writings and the writings of others (French & Raven, 1969; House, 1988; Shackleton, 1995), power, influence and authority are defined here as the ability to exert one's will, influencing others to do things that they would not otherwise do. People behave in certain ways and the underlying concept of motivation for promotion is the driving force in which they attempt to satisfy a goal, need or expectation (Mullins, 2006).

Multiple dimensions of power, influence and authority are well received. French and Raven (1959) distinguish five different kinds of power, influence and authority that one individual can have over another: coercive, reward, legitimate, expert and referent. Coerciveness is the power that emerges from Person B's belief that Person A has the ability to punish him or her. Reward is the power that emerges from Person B's belief that Person A can provide him or her with desired outcomes. Legitimacy is the power that emerges from Person B's perception that Person A has a legitimate right, based on position in the organisation, to influence him or her. Expert power is the power that emerges from Person B's belief that Person A has special knowledge or expertise that Person B needs. Finally, referent power is the power that emerges from Person B's attraction for and desire to be associated with Person A. People may seek power and influence under any one power dimension through an act of promotion.

2.7.3.3 Personal and Job satisfaction

Personal satisfaction is a "subjective evaluation, judgment, or attitude expressed by an individual with respect to the attainment of certain goals or needs based on his level of aspiration or expectation" (Biology online 2005). People seek to

satisfy their own personal needs and desires and that satisfaction could very well be driven through the job that they hold or the job they wish to hold; the job could be the catalyst in which people become satisfied.

Job Satisfaction according to Barrie (2001) is closely linked with personal satisfaction. Barrie (2001) says that "a lack of personal satisfaction is a frequent reason many people speak of when quitting a job". Job satisfaction needs to include an opportunity for growth and development. As people develop new attitudes and skills, their wants, needs and performance will change. People will look towards the organisation to fulfil these new needs. Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, Wright (2006, p. 436) say that job satisfaction is "a pleasurable feeling that results from the perception that one's job fulfils or allows for the fulfilment of one's important [personal] values". Values provide the criteria for judgement and action for individuals; values are personal. People's values shape their understanding of why things are possible or impossible and provide people with a rationale and drive actions (McDermott & Jago, 2005, p. 32).

Cole (2005, pp. 210-211) speaks of people aligning their own personal goals with that of the organisation. As organisations create visions, establish goals and make plans to achieve them, so do employees, whether explicitly or not. This creates, says Cole (2005, p. 210) an aligned organisation where everyone is working towards the same ends and where personal satisfaction and job satisfaction are both important in their own right.

People, to attain personal and job satisfaction may seek promotion "out of their current demise" to that of a job that will fulfil their own personal and job satisfaction needs.

2.7.4 Self-Actualisation

This is the highest level in Maslow's hierarchy of needs. It is the need to fulfil oneself, to grow and use abilities to the fullest and most creative extent. Alderfer's equivalent level is growth needs; the desire for continued personal growth and development (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 2005, pp. 122-123).

Hence Smith's (2007) assumptions of people's desire to seek promotion to acquire a challenge, using a promotion as a stepping stone to greater prospects, to seek excitement and lastly to seek competition have been assigned under this category. All these assumptions are a "challenge to oneself" and will be discussed.

2.7.4.1 Employee's desires for competition, challenges and excitement

Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, Wright (2006, pp. 385 – 385) speak of psychological success of employees. Psychological success in an employee comes from achieving success through goal accomplishment at work. Psychological success is more under the employee's control than the traditional career goals, which were not only influenced by employee effort but were controlled by the availability of positions in the company. What is important is that psychological success is self-determined rather than solely determined through signals the employee receives from the company. This supports McGregor's (1960) theory Y approach to employees where employees want to work and desire to make progress through the organisation. Noe, et al, (2006, p. 385) refers to today's employees as "Generation X" which is often unimpressed with status symbols, wants flexibility in doing job tasks and desires meaning from work that offers a challenge and excitement.

Karatepe, Uludag, Menevis, Hadzimehmedagic, Badar (2006, pp. 547 – 560) found through their research that competitive individuals set higher goals for themselves relative to others and try to accomplish these goals within the work context. Brown, Cron, Slocrum (1998, p. 90) refer to “trait competitiveness” where employees enjoy interpersonal competition and the desire to win and be better than others. Employees that are competitive are likely to spend greater efforts at work than less competitive ones and hence receive rewards through promotional opportunities. These same employees are willing to change career to get ahead.

Karatepe, et al., (2006, p. 560) found that competitiveness influences performance both directly and indirectly. It is understood that employees who are highly competitive focus on winning performance within the organisation and possess the desire to succeed in their own careers.

Cole (2005, p. 294) says that employees like to be “in” on what is happening, not only in their own work area but too in the rest of the organisation. This helps them to feel part of things and builds on loyalty. Cole (2005, p.294) argues that employees’ social, esteem, recognition and growth needs are fuelled and fulfilled when they feel part of an organisation and that employees are inherently excited about helping the organisation achieve its goals; they also see it as challenge.

2.7.4.2 Stepping stone

Tolman (2008, p. 67) speaks of employees especially those with high education, often seeking out work that will be a stepping stone to more responsible work. Mayhew, Mason & Lloyd (2008, p. 78) though, say that people seek temporary

jobs that could be a stepping stone to a higher level job than their current permanent employment. Some employees are willing to take the risk of leaving permanent employment for a temporary job that will present higher responsibility and higher pay. Kolby (2007, p. 458) on the other hand warns that part-time jobs offer very little in terms of career advancement.

Part one concludes the discussion of Smith's (2007) assumptions of why people seek promotion relative to motivational theory. Maslow was chosen as the overarching theory in which to explain these assumptions only because Maslow's theory has become so central to motivational thinking and understanding (Plunkett, Attner & Allen, 2005, p. 44). Smith's (2007) assumptions were slotted under the various motivational categories of Maslow and where Alderfer and McClelland were drawn up to further enhance the understanding of the motivation understudy relative to the Smith's assumption.

Part two moves away from the motivational aspect and into a short discussion on certain fundamentals that could influence promotion decision making. These fundamentals also address what Smith has failed to attend to in his own assumptions of why people seek promotion.

2.8 Part 2 Fundamentals that impact people's desire to seek promotion.

There are five fundamentals that have been considered pertinent and influential for people when seeking promotion. These fundamentals have been included in this chapter as part two to address aspects that either Smith (2007) failed to include in his assumptions, or are considered pertinent and influential in people's decision making to seek promotion. The reasons why these fundamentals were included in this dissertation are discussed beneath each particular heading.

2.9 Self-Confidence

Billsbury (2002, pp. 20-21) speaks of the Peter Principle where it states that "in a hierarchy every employee tends to rise to his/her level of incompetence". What this principle is saying is that people may very well have confidence within but it does not preclude career failure the higher up the organisational hierarchy a person progresses. It is on this base to test and discuss self-confidence and to what extent people believe that they "have it" to negate the Peter Principle.

Luthans and Church (2002) speak about confidence and emphasize that self-confidence is the most pervasive and important aspect in any manager or potential manager's psychological make-up. Luthans and Church (2002, p.1) say "unless people believe that they can produce desired effects and forestall undesired ones by their actions, they have little incentive to act. Whatever other factors may operate as motivators, they are rooted in the core belief that one has the power to produce desired results".

Luthans and Church (2002, p.02) speak about self confidence as a process that "can positively affect human functioning before individuals select their choices and initiate their efforts. People tend to weigh, evaluate, and integrate information about their perceived capabilities. Importantly, this initial stage of the process has little to do with individuals' abilities or resources per se, but rather how they perceive or believe they can use these abilities and resources to accomplish the given task in this context". The same can be said of people having confidence in themselves and whether or not they believe they are able to "do the job" once a promotion is given. If people have the confidence within to do a job that is at a higher level than their current job then they will seek the promotion. If they do not believe in themselves then they will be reluctant to seek the promotion.

2.10 The South African Future

Prins (2008) says that “we live in interesting times. And for many South Africans, that is a worrying thing. Judging by most dinner conversations, the suburban psyche appears to be one of gnawing insecurity over where the country is going politically and economically”. Dixon (2009) says that South Africans are concerned about the political future of their country. “It's what kind of president Zuma will be -- a question that South Africans find surprisingly hard to answer.”

South Africans are concerned about the future; some may be negative and some positive. But the question remains, is concern over South Africa's future influential in the seeking promotional opportunities relative or not?

The two questions in the questionnaire (Appendix 1) posed to respondents tests their belief in the future economic and political situation of South Africa. The reason for these questions is to assess to what degree a persons' “positive” attitude about these factors impact on their desire to seek promotion. A politically and economically viable landscape in South Africa is necessary for future economic growth and job prospects.

2.10.1 The Economic Future

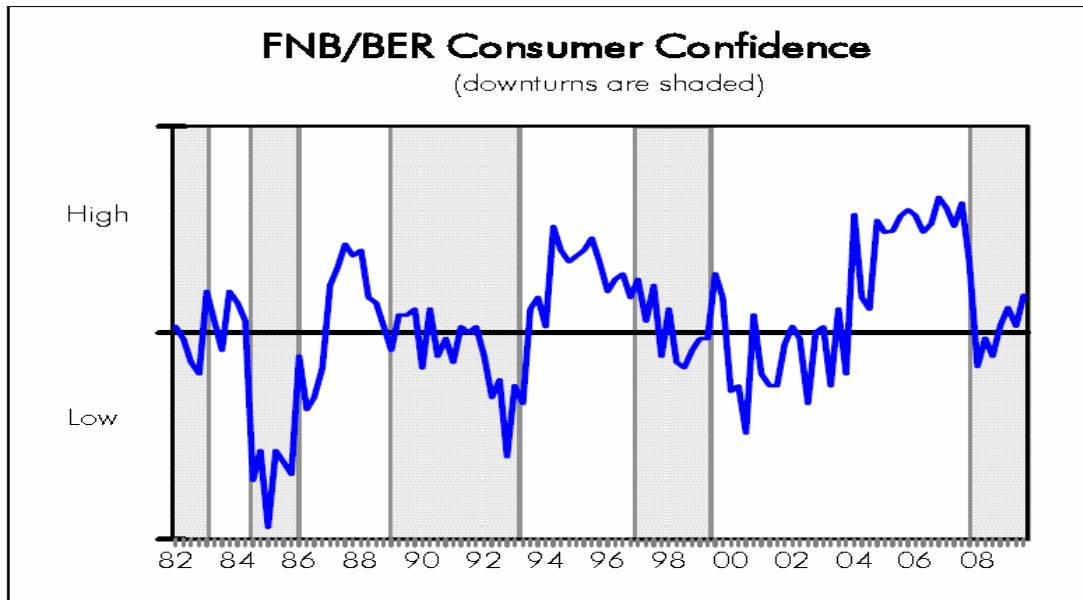
Dixon (2009) says that “when the global economic downturn hit South Africa, investors fled, draining billions of dollars out of the economy almost overnight”. This practice is what helped plunge South Africa into a recession. However, after three quarters of economic contraction, South Africa joins advanced countries in returning to growth (Reuters 2009). But are employees confident on their future job prospects despite seeing the economy rebound?

Phillips & Connell (2003, pp. 46-47) say that to measure employee's confidence that an economy will flourish, one must look at the Consumer Confidence Index. This monthly released key index measures consumer sentiment by surveying people about their confidence in the economy. The questions explore consumer job security and their willingness to spend money. If persons have lower confidence in the economy then their expectations for career progression too will be lower. Rubery, Smith and Flagan (1999, p. 23) say that a downturn in any economy will have a direct impact on consumer and employee confidence with respect to future income and job prospects. Figure 2.2 shows consumer confidence of South Africa since the early 1980's to December 2009.

As figure 2.1 shows, consumer confidence has increased significantly since 2004 matching and exceeding levels last seen in 1994-1995. Near the end of 1995 the confidence levels began to decline where it spent most of its time in the "low quadrant" before edging upwards from 2004. After seeing a drop in 2005, but still in the "high quadrant", consumer confidence hit an all time high from 2006 to 2008 and then subsequently suffered a heavy decline since the world economic crises arrived. Looking at the graph holistically, especially since 1994 with the advent of democracy, South Africans have been more positive about the economy than negative.

This may suggest that employees are positive about the present and future economic benefits and that the economy will bestow better and more job opportunities than the previous three quarters of economic contraction and prior to the years of 1994.

Figure 2.2: Consumer confidence



Source: FNB/BER Consumer Confidence Index (1 December 2009).

2.10.2 The Political Future

Cronje (2009) says that South Africans are the most unequal income group in the world. Inequality between black South Africans is as great a political risk factor for South Africa as inequality between race groups. It is often repeated in South Africa that inequality between race groups poses a threat to South Africa's political stability. Some political parties have used such inter-racial inequality as a scare tactic. The undertone to some of their analyses of inequality is that 'the blacks' will wreak revenge on 'the whites' if the latter do not ensure that the former get a greater stake in the economy. Lately some black business groups, most notably the Black Management Forum, have joined the refrain. Doubtless the risks inherent in South Africa's level of inequality are real. However, it is by no means certain that the risks are restricted to inter-racial inequality. Intra-racial inequality is just as likely to destabilize the country.

Kesselman, Krieger, Joseph, Basu, Abrahamian (2009, p. 363) speak about four main challenges to South Africa's political leadership as being HIV-AIDS, unemployment, social inequality, and maintaining democracy. Even with the mass availability of HIV-AIDS medication, millions will still die. Every year half a million students leave high school without graduating. When these same people enter the labour market without skills, they ensure that unemployment will remain at high levels for a long time. There exists extreme social inequality that could very well reduce support for democracy and open up opportunities for populist authoritarian politics. However, there is still hope for South Africa's political future. South Africans began their democracy with a relatively diversified economy and quite strong political institutions. Government has tried to reduce hardship, and support for the political system is widespread.

2.11 Acquire more skills

The opportunity to learn and use skills motivates many employees. Organisations can provide growth opportunities through offering employees the ability to up-skill, multi-skill or cross-skill. If opportunities are available, many an employee will seek training courses to acquire skills to obtain higher level vacancies. Some employees may also seek promotion without the relative skill so as to acquire the new skill in the higher position (Cole 2005, p. 298).

Bateman and Snell (2009, pp. 422- 423) speak about career development and promotions. If employees feel that they have "hit a glass ceiling" in their current organisation, they will migrate to higher positions in other organisations. Here they will obtain new skill as well as satisfy their desire for career growth.

2.12 Junior staff's potential

Are employees only motivated to fulfil their own desires, or do they seek promotion so as to allow the junior staff the opportunity to progress in their careers as well? Or do people who seek promotion know that the only way they can achieve that promotion is to develop the people underneath them? Maxwell (2006, p. 09) says that no one takes a journey alone and that people depend upon others constantly to move one toward a destination. People cannot succeed without the help of others. Maxwell (2006, p.10) further says that the most successful person is the one who equips others around and beneath them.

2.13 Conclusion

This chapter was made up of two parts. The first part began a discussion on Smith's (2007) assumptions about why people seek promotion and then moved into a discussion of motivation. Motivation is instrumental in understanding why people seek promotion. The definition on motivation laid the base for the introduction of various motivational theorists such as Maslow, Alderfer and McClelland. These three theories were compared against each other where commonalities were found. As Maslow's theory is the most recognized and accepted, and because there are commonalities and agreement by the three motivational theorists, Maslow's hierarchy of needs was used as the overarching motivational theory. Within this hierarchy, Smith's (2007) assumptions were discussed with Alderfer and McClelland as support to further add clarity to why people are motivated to seek promotion.

Part two concluded the chapter with a discussion of certain fundamentals that were not covered by Smith (2007). These fundamentals were chosen to be included in this dissertation as these are the "common dinner table" discussions that take place within South Africa. Many South Africans are concerned about the

future political and economic dimensions that will play themselves out in the years ahead. These fundamentals were discussed to see if they will impact on people's desire to seek promotion.

The next chapter is research methodology. The chapter explains how the research in obtaining data of what motivates people to seek promotion was carried out. The population and sample will be examined and how the sample was obtained through the use of a research instrument. The questionnaire and its subsequent advantages and disadvantages will be discussed as this was the instrument of choice that was used to collect data.

CHAPTER 3

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter was an in-depth discussion on motivation and Smith's (2007) assumptions on why people seek to be promoted. The chapter also discussed various fundamentals that may affect the decisions made of people seeking promotion.

Research methodology is used in this study to answer the objectives as outlined in Chapter 1 and to answer the problem statement: "Why do people seek promotion". The research instrument was constructed to pose questions into the statement and then seek answers from respondents so as to analyse data and draw suitable conclusions. To understand how the data was collected and how it was analysed, the research design instrument employed will be discussed.

3.2 Research Design

This section will explain the overall approach taken to find answers to why people seek promotion. To answer this question an exploratory method was used. Graziano and Raulin (2004, p. 02) address this exploratory method by defining the scientific approach. This is where science seeks new knowledge through research to answer questions. The authors establish that scientific research is a process of formulating specific questions and then finding answers to understand a process better; or to come to answers of such questions. Science then is a process of inquiry; a particular way of thinking. The research design is the blueprint for fulfilling objectives and answering research questions (Cooper & Schindler, 2006 (a), p. 71).

3.2.1 The Qualitative and Quantitative divide

This dissertation was based on quantitative research as opposed to qualitative research. The reasons for this choice are detailed below by way of explaining the differences between the two.

3.2.1.1 Qualitative analysis

Qualitative analysis is classified as data that is non-numerical or data that has not been quantified through the use of conceptualization based on meanings expressed through words (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2003). This study has not used a qualitative approach to collect and analyze data. No interviews or focus groups were used to collect data. Instead the questionnaire was used to collect numerical data that was processed into statistical form.

3.2.1.2 Quantitative Analysis

Bryman and Bell (2007, p. 28) say that quantitative research is a strategy of the quantification of the collection and analysis of data. Saunders *et al.* (2003, p. 45) offers a definition by saying that quantitative data is numerical data. It has been quantified through the analysis of such data by the use of diagrams and statistics. In this research project the questionnaire was formulated on the quantitative form of data collection and analysis. All answers to questions were based on numerical selection instead of words. The data generated from the sample is subject to statistical techniques so inference can be made on the broader population. Bryman and Bell (2007, p. 180) explain that the need to sample is one that is almost invariably encountered in quantitative research.

3.3 The research instrument and the questionnaire

A research instrument is something that is used to gather data to analyze and is integral in the design of the research undertaken. It can range from questionnaires to laboratory experiments or even psychological tests (Hofstee, 2006, p. 116). A self-completion questionnaire was used as the research instrument to gather data. The data was thereafter analyzed and conclusions drawn of why people seek to be promoted. The self-completion questionnaire was conducive to this study as it enabled quick and relatively easy collection of data from respondents in a non-threatening way (Coldwell & Herbst, 2004, p. 48). For this purpose other instruments such as interviews, focus groups and the like were purposely ignored.

3.3.1 The self-completion questionnaire

The self-completion questionnaire was used as the research instrument. Bryman & Bell (2007, pp. 240-241) explain the self-completion questionnaire is a method where respondents answer questions by completing the questionnaire themselves. The questionnaire that was used can be seen in appendix 1.

Coldwell & Herbst (2004, p. 48) along with Bryman & Bell (2007, p. 242) offer a discussion on the self-completion questionnaire as a mode of data collection by highlighting the strengths of the questionnaire as well as its inherent weaknesses:

The self-completion questionnaire can be completed anonymously. In this dissertation, respondents were issued with the questionnaire and were informed of their privacy and confidentiality. Respondents were free to answer questions as they saw fit with no threat of reprisal. Although privacy is guaranteed through this mode, it does limit the amount of information gathered. The researcher is

unable to probe for additional information from the respondent and is also unsure whether or not the respondent completely understood the question at hand; the researcher cannot prompt the respondent to seek for understanding. Neither the respondent nor the researcher can request further elaboration on a question or answer if there is a lack of understanding on either the question or the answer given. This could result in skewed data collection.

The questionnaire is relatively inexpensive to administer. Approximately half of the data-collected was from respondents completing the questionnaire on paper. The respondents were approached and were asked to complete the questionnaire in their own time. Apart from the paper and toner used to print the questionnaire no monies were spent. However, limited expense was incurred when using the internet site "survey monkey" as a mode to collect data electronically. The questionnaire offers a "cheaper mode" of data collection, but comes with other challenges that the researcher has to face. Sometimes the researcher can never be sure if the targeted group of people actually answered the question. Non-targeted people may answer the questionnaire that could very well skew the results. This becomes more of a problem in online surveys such as survey monkey that was used.

The questionnaire can easily be administered to many people. With the advent of electronic communication such as email and the internet, it is far easier and quicker to send out the questionnaire to many people. As the electronic age increases the scope of people reached it does not mean that the response rate will be high. One of the problems cited with a self-completion questionnaire is the lower response rate. People often cite lack of time or even disinterest as a reason for not answering a questionnaire.

Increased data collection is the desire of many a researcher. More data collected leads to improved confidence levels with more accurate inferences been made on

a population. As the self-completion questionnaire can be sent out to many people and is quicker to administer and complete, the data collected is more than what would be collected from methods such as interviews and the like. Although more data can be collected, there is always a concern that the questions posed to respondents may lead them to boredom or see them as not being pertinent to their needs or interests.

The self-completion questionnaire poses definite advantages and disadvantages. As with all methods of data-collection there will always be limitations. These limitations will always be bourn in mind when the researcher chooses the mode of data collection. The self-completion questionnaire was the preferred instrument of choice to collect data for this dissertation.

In an effort to overcome most of the negatives with regards to the self-completion questionnaire as explored above, it was decided to pose closed based questions to respondents. A discussion on open versus closed questions is offered below.

3.3.2 Open and closed questions

Open questions are those questions in which no options for responses are given, as many responses are possible. Closed questions on the other hand are those questions with only a yes/no possibility for a response; or those questions based on a numerical ranking scale (Solutions, 2008). The questionnaire for this research project used the concept of closed questions. As with the self-completion questionnaire, open and closed questions have their positive aspects and drawbacks.

Bryman and Bell (2007, pp. 259-262) offer a discussion on the positive and negative aspects of open and closed questions:

Open questions give respondents the freedom to answer questions in their own unique way and at their own leisure. Unlike with closed questions, respondents can think about an answer instead of selecting from a box of answers that has already been prepared for them. Already made answers through closed questions can sway the thought patterns and heavily influence the answer of the question. Respondents, through open questions, are free to answer in their own terms. They are not forced to select an answer as opposed to closed questions. The respondents can take their time in answering a question where some thought has been put behind it. The respondent's answer is not in anyway swayed by closed questions where the answer has already been prepared for them by way of an answer selection.

Respondents completing a questionnaire based on open questions can allow for unusual responses and better still, responses into the research that the researcher did not even contemplate. The answers to the open questions could quite easily "sway" the research into another direction. This would not be true should closed questions be used where the questions suggest certain kinds of answers to respondents.

Although open questions allow respondents to tap into their own knowledge reservoir and contemplate the meaning of a question, they are excessively time consuming to complete. Completing a questionnaire consisting of open based questions takes immense effort on behalf of the respondent. Closed questions offer a "yes or no" answer, or in the case of this dissertation, a numerical selection only. This definitely speeds up the process and improves the chance of a respondent actually completing the questionnaire and then returning it.

Open questions can and do offer a broader range of answers. But with this range of answers comes the time consuming task of the researcher having to “code all the answers” and to segregate them into categories. This is only if the researcher received an adequate percentage of return of the questionnaire issued due to the problems as discussed above. For this reason and the reason of time, as well as to enhance the ability to compare answers and quickly and easily draw conclusions, it was decided to use closed questions in the questionnaire for this dissertation.

3.4 Methodology

Keeping with the questionnaire as the research instrument, it will be discussed how the questionnaire was designed, what was the purpose of the questionnaire, how the questions were put together, and importantly the validity of the questionnaire. The chapter will then conclude with a discussion on the differences between qualitative & quantitative research, sample size, using probability sampling and generalizations to the broader population.

3.4.1 The Questionnaire: Design & purpose

The questions for the questionnaire were obtained from Smith’s assumptions (2007, p. 428) as well as through certain fundamentals that have been regarded as pertinent for finding out what motivates people to seek promotion. Additional questions were brought in such as gender, job type and age to test for comparability and correlations. Questions on the perceptions of the South African economy as well as the political stability of the country were also posed. This was to test for parallels between people’s optimism/pessimism in relation to their desires for promotion and do they see themselves as been generally secure in

South Africa. The factors that create security or insecurity in South Africa relate to the future political situation, economic situation and crime.

All the questions in the self-completion questionnaire were phrased in a simple and easy to understand way. This was done to reduce the possibility of misunderstanding the question and the way to answer. Similar questions were not grouped together. Questions were purposefully ungrouped to prevent a respondent's perception of the "next" question and then already formulating an answer in his/her head.

The questionnaire used employed a numeric rating scale as put forward by Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill (2003, p. 297). Their tool was more suitable than even the attitude scales put forward by Welman and Kruger (1999, p. 155). Respondents to this study were asked to rate their responses from 1 – 10. The responses offered a number, which could be considered a piece of statistical data. Weiers (2008, p. 7) said a statistic was a measured characteristic of the sample. Quantitative variables, Weiers (2008, p. 8) said, enabled researchers to determine how much of something was possessed not just whether it is possessed, making use of continuous variables (Weiers, 2008, p. 9). In an ordinal scale, numbers represent greater than or less than measurements, such as preferences or rankings. The study goes further than that and uses an interval scale which not only includes a greater than and less than relationship, but also has a unit of measurement that allows an observer to say how much more or less one object possesses than another. (Weiers 2008, p. 10). In an interval scale the unit of measurement is arbitrary. Multiples of measured values are not meaningful. For example, a ranking of two is not twice that of a ranking of one.

Hair, Babin, Money, Samuel (2003, p. 159) said numerical scales had numbers as response options rather than verbal descriptions. "The numbers correspond with categories (response options)," (Hair *et al* 2003, p. 160). Numerical scales were frequently used to measure behavioural intentions, such as the intention to buy,

likelihood of seeking additional information or probability of investing. "Scales that measure behavioural components of an individual's attitude ask about a respondent's likelihood or intention to perform some future action," Hair *et al* said. This approach was considered acceptable (Hair *et al* 2003). A Likert scale asking respondents to manoeuvre between strongly agree or strongly disagree, or a five point scale, could have been used (Leedy and Ormrod 2005, p. 186; Bryman and Cramer 2005, p. 68). However, a 10 point numeric rating was employed instead in this study so as to record the finer shades of respondent opinion that Saunders *et al* (2003, p. 297) advocated.

3.4.2 Validity & Reliability

Salkind (2007, p. 319) introduces the concept of validity and reliability in a simple form by saying that if a test can do whatever it does over and over again then it is reliable. If the same test does what it is supposed to do, then it has validity. The same concept applies to the self-completion questionnaire of this dissertation. The questionnaire is the testing instrument and it must show both reliability and validity.

Thietart (2001, p. 197) speaks of construct validity as being relevant to the social sciences where research often draws on one or several abstract concepts that are not always directly observable. Salkind (2007, p. 317) defines construct validity as "when you want to know if a test measures some underlying psychological construct". Babbie (2009, p. 153) says that validity refers to the extent in which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration. Validity means that "we are actually measuring what we say we are measuring; it also refers to the degree in which our test or other measuring device is truly measuring what we intended it to measure".

Pallant (2007, p. 95) says that one of the most commonly used indicators of internal consistency for reliability is Cronbach’s alpha co-efficient. Ideally, the Cronbach alpha coefficient of a scale should be above 0.7. Both validity and reliability will be referred to again in Chapter 5.

3.4.3 Population and the sample

The population is all businesses in South Africa. According to the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (2009, p. 9) 1,083 million people hold managerial positions, 3,913 million people hold administrative jobs (including professionals) and 1,207 million are factory machine operators (herein referred to as Factory Staff).

3.4.3.1 Sample

Stratified random sampling was used to collect data for this dissertation. Williams, Sweeny, Anderson (2009, p. 288) say that stratified random sampling is the division of the population into groups called strata, such that each element in the population belongs to only one strata. The targeted strata of respondents were those persons in management, administration and factory type jobs. Every attempt was made to get as close to 33.33 % response per job category to ensure a representative sample to generalize to the broader employee population. Table 3.1 illustrates the percentage of respondents per job category.

Table 3.1: Respondents per job category

Job Type	No. Respondents	Percentage
Management	54	43.9%
Administrative	36	29.27%
Factory staff	33	26.83%

Management makes up the majority of the respondents followed by administrative and factory employees. This is considered a fairly representative sample.

3.4.3.2 Sample Size

Roscoe (1975 cited in Sekaran 1992, p. 253) suggests that “sample sizes larger than 30 and less than 500 are appropriate for most research”. It was on this basis that approximately 300 respondents were targeted. The respondents were sent email requesting that the on-line survey be completed. Respondents that did not have internet connection were also personally given the questionnaire on paper in which to complete. A total of 62 respondents completed the survey online followed by 61 that completed the survey via the paper questionnaire. The online questionnaire was “forced” in that respondents had to answer a question before moving onto the next; hence all questions were answered. When it came to the paper questionnaire the “forced” approach could not be followed. Some questions were not answered. Where this occurred it was identified as a “no answer” in the statistical package SPSS. Table 3.2 shows the response rate.

Table 3.2: Population Samples

Desired Respondents	300	Percentage Complete
Attempted survey but did not complete	7	2.33%
Total No. respondents who completed questionnaire	123	41%

The desired number of respondents was 300 but only 123 completed the questionnaire. This equated to a 41% success rate and 2.33% of the

respondents targeted failed to complete the survey. The balance of 177 respondents were either not reached or showed no interest at all in completing the survey.

3.4.4 Online survey

To facilitate quicker response and to collect larger amounts of data, online survey collection services were used. The questionnaire was set-up on SurveyMonkey.com where respondents were sent an email with a hyperlink. Respondents were asked to click the hyperlink that took them into the questionnaire web page on the internet. The respondent could then answer the questions that followed. A forced answer question was implemented where the respondent had to answer a question before going onto the next one. This approach was taken for the following reasons:

- Respondents may inadvertently skip questions. This may be because of the indifference of appearance of each successive question so when glancing over them respondents may tend to skip the questions.
- Due to time constraints respondents may rush through the questionnaire and inadvertently miss questions.
- All questions had to be answered to improve the accuracy of the data collected so that better inferences could be drawn.

3.4.5 Generalizability

Bryman & Bell (2007, p. 169) speak about generalizability in probability sampling in that a researcher is concerned about been able to conclude that the findings can be inferred to the broader population. Stratified sampling was used to collecting data. But it is extremely difficult to follow this technique completely when respondents either fail or refuse to answer the questionnaire, or cannot be located. The targeted sample may not necessarily be conducive to following the stratified sampling technique. However, all effort was made to do this. "Some people will refuse to participate, and others will be difficult, if not impossible to find. Thus no matter how careful we are in replacing those who refuse or are never located, sampling error is likely to rise" (Cooper & Schindler (b), 2006, p. 413). Therefore, although it is difficult and sampling error can arise, the sample obtained can be generalized to the broader population.

3.5 Conclusion

The questionnaire as the research instrument used collected all the primary data. All questions were closed ones, mainly to keep the data collection simple. A suitable sample size was selected and as far as possible probability sampling was used. It must be noted that collection of data based on stratified random sampling is more difficult than what the theory suggests. It is just simply impossible to collect all data from randomly selected respondents, so the focus was attempting to keep an equal balance between the three job categories of respondents.

The next chapter analyzes the data collected through descriptive and inferential statistics. Not all questions have been subject to statistical analysis, only those that directly address the objectives of this dissertation.

CHAPTER 4

Data Analysis

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 dealt with research methodology, the research design and how the data was collected. This chapter takes the data and organises it into descriptive and inferential statistics. Hence this chapter is made up of two parts. The purpose of this chapter is to make sense of the data and to answer research objectives. Graphs and tables are the primary modes of explaining the data but are also supported through written explanation.

4.2 Descriptive Analysis

Lind, Marchal and Wathen (2008, p. 06) say that descriptive analysis is the methods of organizing, summarizing, and presenting data in an informative way. In this section the data collected will be described through the use of descriptive statistics such as graphs, frequency distribution, standard deviations and tables. Before going into the analysis, descriptive statistical techniques will be discussed.

4.2.1 Descriptive Statistical Techniques

The various statistical techniques that have been applied in this section are:

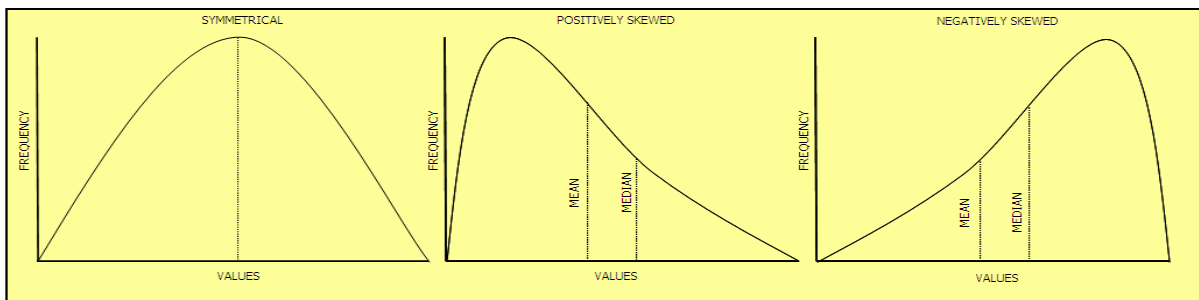
4.2.1.1 Frequency Distribution

Lind, Marchal and Wathen (2008, p. 22) say that a frequency distribution is a grouping of data into mutually exclusive classes showing the number of observations in each class. A frequency distribution has been conducted for each pertinent question as discussed below. It allows for easy translation of where the number of observations lies against the continuum presented to the respondents per question.

4.2.2 Skewness

Lind, Marchal and Wathen (2008, pp. 113) say that an important characteristic of data is the shape. There are three shapes that are commonly observed. See Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: Diagrams of various skewness types



Source: Adapted from Lind, Marchal and Wathen, *Statistical Techniques in Business and Economics* 13th Edition, p. 114. New York: McGraw-Hill Irwin

4.2.2.1 Symmetric

A set of observations is deemed symmetric when the mean and median are equal and the data values are evenly spread around these values. This is illustrated in figure 4.1 above; the first graph.

4.2.2.2 Positively skewed

Wegner (2001, p. 69) says that a positively skewed distribution is characterised by a few relatively large observations. Lind, Marchal and Wathen (2008, p. 113) elaborate that by saying in this case the median is greater than the mean.

4.2.2.3 Negatively skewed

As viewed in figure 4.1 on the left and explained by Wegner (2001, p. 69), a negatively skewed distribution is characterised by a few relatively small observations. Lind, Marchal and Wathen (2008, p. 113) elaborate that by saying in this case the median is smaller than the mean.

Lind, Marchal and Wathen (2008, p. 113) say that Pearson's co-efficient of skewness equation can be used to calculate the skewness of data and is based on the difference between the mean and the median. This equation was used as a measure to determine skewness of the data for each selected question. The authors point out that coefficient of skewness can range from -3 to 3. A value near -3 indicates considerable negative skewness, such as -2.50. A value closer to 3 such as 1.60 indicates moderate positive skewness. In this dissertation, and using this explanation as a base, the skewness of the data will be discussed.

4.2.3 Cross Tabulation

Cross tabulation has been used to describe the relationship between the question under review and the "job category". Bryman and Bell (2007, p. 267) say that cross tabulation or contingency tables are like frequency tables but it allows two

variables to be simultaneously analysed so that the relationship between the two variables can be examined.

4.2.4 The areas in which the data fall

The data has been categorised into three parts. The first is the graphic illustration of where the respondents fall per job type. The second is where the respondents fall per gender and the third is age category. See figure 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4 respectively.

Figure 4.2: Data categorised per job type

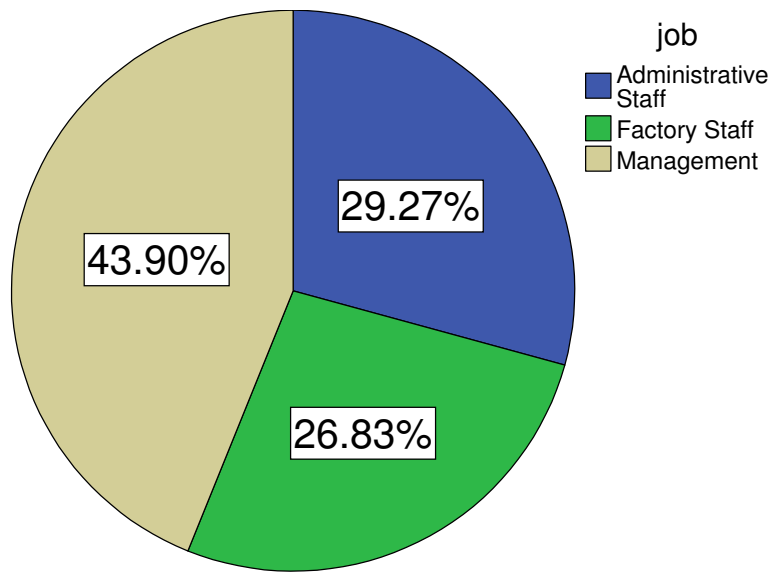


Figure 4.2: Pie Chart of job category

Figure 4.2 graphically demonstrates where the data falls per job category. Management makes up 43.90% of respondents followed by administrative staff with 29.27% and then factory staff with 26.83%.

Figure 4.3: Data categorised per gender type

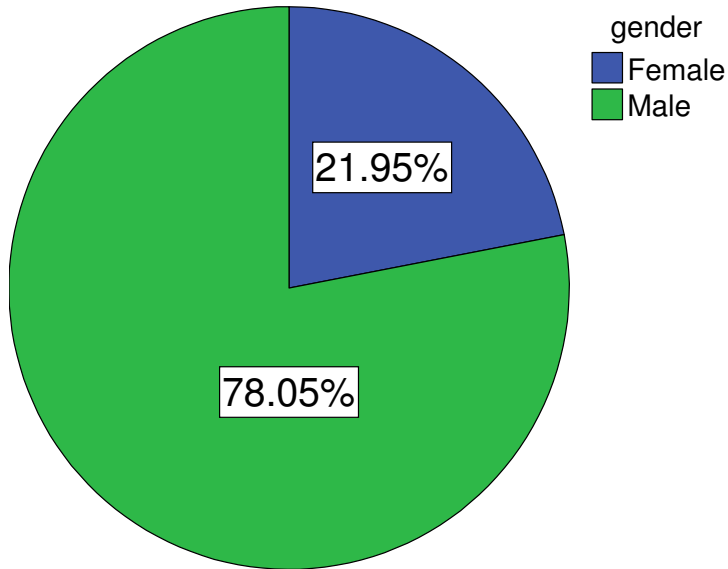


Figure 4.3: Pie chart of gender category

Figure 4.3 shows that male respondents made up 78%. Female respondents made up almost 22%. Every attempt was made to balance the data collection to end up with equal male and female respondents. However this proved impractical and difficult to do.

Figure 4.4: Data categorised per age category.

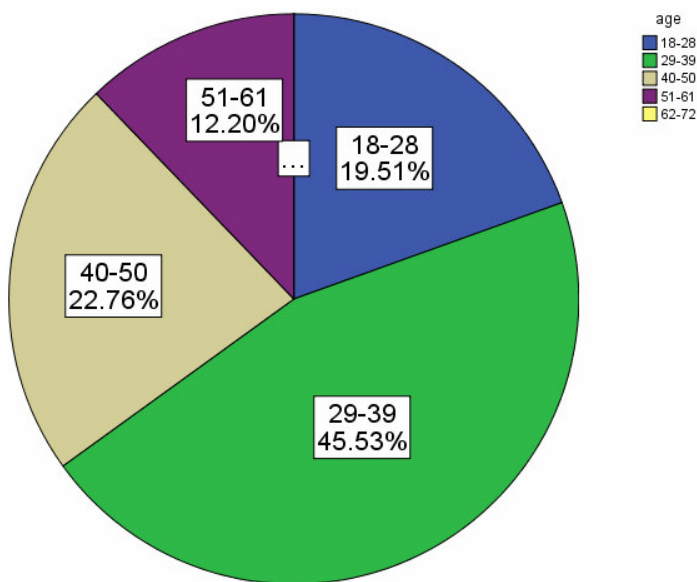


Figure 4.4 displays the category of ages of respondents. Notice that the age category "29-39" makes up 45.53% of the total respondents. A very low percentage of the "51-61" age category of 12.20% participated in the survey.

4.2.5 Comparison of means

The means between two variables are compared in tables 4.1 and 4.2. Table 4.1 compares the means of the variable "job type" categories to the variable of people seek promotion to "benefit the employer". Table 4.2 compares the means of the variable "gender" categories to the variable of people seek promotion to "benefit the employer".

Table 4.1: Comparison of means (Job Type, Employer Success)

Job		Employer Success
Management	Mean	6.83
	N	54
Administrative	Mean	8.08
	N	36
Factory Staff	Mean	9.21
	N	33
Total	Mean	7.84
	N	123

Under the variable column of Employer success the highest mean value is 9.21 for the factory staff, followed by administrative with 8.08 and finishing with 6.83 for management. It is clear that factory staff, with their high mean value, seek promotion so as to benefit their employer. Still with a relatively high mean value, administrative staff, although less so than factory staff, seek promotion to benefit their employer. A noticeable factor here is that management, with a

mean value of 6.83 displayed low levels of motivation to seek promotion that would benefit the employer.

Table 4.2: Comparison of means (Gender, Employer Success)

Gender		Employer Success
Male	Mean	8.21
	N	96
Female	Mean	6.52
	N	27
Total	Mean	7.84
	N	123

Table 4.2 shows two clear differences in mean values between males and females for the variable of employer success. Males, with a mean value of 8.21 have stronger desires to seek promotion to benefit the employer than females with a lower mean value of 6.52.

4.2.6 Cross Tabulation

Cross Tabulation was conducted on: job and gender category see table 4.3; on age and gender category see table 4.4; and on age and job category see table 4.5.

Table 4.3: Gender & Job Cross Tabulation

			job			Total
			Administrative Staff	Factory Staff	Management	Total staff
gender	Female	Count	11	3	13	27
		% within gender	40.7%	11.1%	48.1%	100.0%
		% within job	30.6%	9.1%	24.1%	22.0%
		% of Total	8.9%	2.4%	10.6%	22.0%
	Male	Count	25	30	41	96
		% within gender	26.0%	31.3%	42.7%	100.0%
		% within job	69.4%	90.9%	75.9%	78.0%
		% of Total	20.3%	24.4%	33.3%	78.0%

Table 4.3 shows the percentages of gender to job category. Females within the gender category account for 40.7% holding administrative positions followed by 11.1% as factory staff and 48.1% in Management. Males on the other hand account for 26% in administrative posts, 31.3% as factory staff and then 42.7% in Management. Within the job category, Females account for 30.6% as opposed to males of 69.4% for Administrative posts. Under factory staff, females hold 9.1% where males make up 90.9% of positions. Management is dominated by males again by having 75.9% followed by 24.1% for females.

Table 4.4: Age & Gender Cross Tabulation

			age				Total
			18-28	29-39	40-50	51-61	Total
gender	Male	Count	16	44	25	11	96
		% within gender	16.7%	45.8%	26.0%	11.5%	100.0%
		% within age	66.7%	78.6%	89.3%	73.3%	78.0%
		% of Total	13.0%	35.8%	20.3%	8.9%	78.0%
	Female	Count	8	12	3	4	27
		% within gender	29.6%	44.4%	11.1%	14.8%	100.0%
		% within age	33.3%	21.4%	10.7%	26.7%	22.0%
		% of Total	6.5%	9.8%	2.4%	3.3%	22.0%

Table 4.4 shows the percentage of gender to age category. The age category "29-39" is the category in which the majority of respondents fall; that is 45.5%. Within this category, males make up 35.8% where females make up the balance of 9.8%. In all age categories, males exceed female totals. Notice that females, within their own gender, dominate with 44.4% within the age band of "29-39". This is different for males. Males dominate within their own gender at 89.3% in the "40-50" age band.

Table 4.5: Age & Job type Cross Tabulation

			age				Total
			18-28	29-39	40-50	51-61	
job	Management	Count	3	18	20	13	54
		% within job	5.6%	33.3%	37.0%	24.1%	100.0%
		% within age	12.5%	32.1%	71.4%	86.7%	43.9%
		% of Total	2.4%	14.6%	16.3%	10.6%	43.9%
	Administrative	Count	10	21	4	1	36
		% within job	27.8%	58.3%	11.1%	2.8%	100.0%
		% within age	41.7%	37.5%	14.3%	6.7%	29.3%
		% of Total	8.1%	17.1%	3.3%	.8%	29.3%
	Factory Staff	Count	11	17	4	1	33
		% within job	33.3%	51.5%	12.1%	3.0%	100.0%
		% within age	45.8%	30.4%	14.3%	6.7%	26.8%
		% of Total	8.9%	13.8%	3.3%	.8%	26.8%

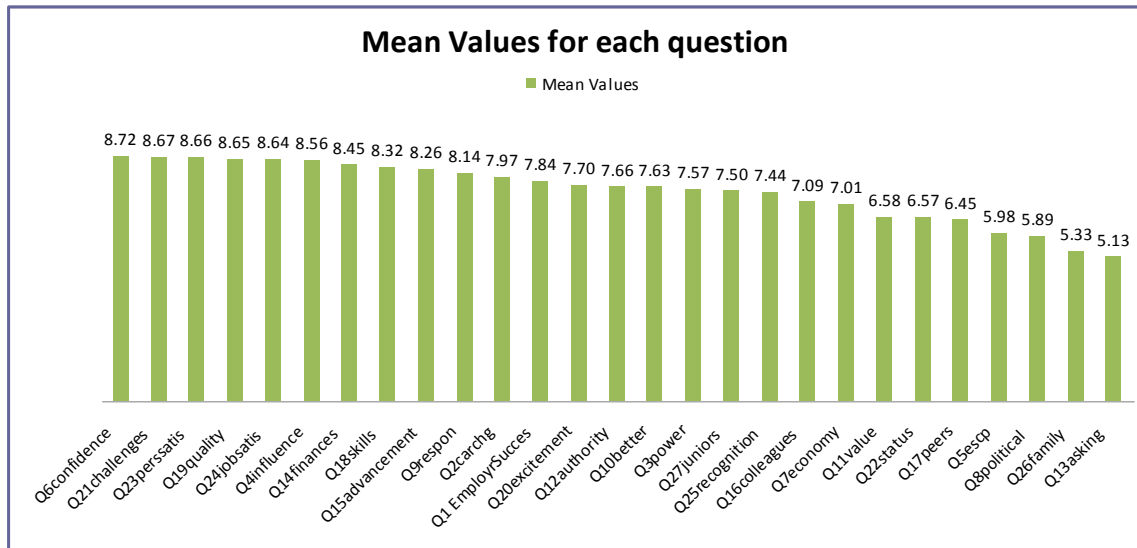
Table 4.5 shows the percentage of age to job type. The age category for "40-50" under Management job type is 16.3%; 17.1% of administrative job type is under the age category of "29-39"; and for factory staff the majority of respondents fall under the "29-39" age category with 13.8%. It is clear to see that management are older than factory and administrative employees.

4.2.7 In answering the objectives

The objectives of this dissertation will guide the discussion of the statistical results presented in this chapter.

All 27 variables were ranked in importance according to the mean. Figure 4.5 graphically illustrates from the most important to the least significant motivators and factors that drive people to seek promotion. Appendix 1 can be used to refer to the full question when looking at the variables in the graph.

Figure 4.5: Questions ranked according to mean values.



Notice that the variable of “people seeking promotion without asking themselves why” is ranked last, where ranked first is “people having confidence in themselves as managers”. The median rank is “people seek promotion to acquire more excitement”.

Questions that are considered pertinent and that contribute to addressing the objectives of why people seek promotion will be statistically analysed. The chosen questions will be subject to statistical descriptions of frequency tables, skewness and range. The questions are:

4.2.7.1 Question 1: To what extent do you seek promotion so as to help your employer become more successful?

Table 4.6: Employer success – Descriptive Statistics

N	Valid	123
Mean		7.84
Skewness		-1.134
Range		9

Table 4.7: Employer success – Frequency table

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	2	1.6	1.6	1.6
	2	3	2.4	2.4	4.1
	3	6	4.9	4.9	8.9
	4	2	1.6	1.6	10.6
	5	12	9.8	9.8	20.3
	6	2	1.6	1.6	22.0
	7	14	11.4	11.4	33.3
	8	19	15.4	15.4	48.8
	9	22	17.9	17.9	66.7
	10	41	33.3	33.3	100.0
	Total	123	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.6 shows the mean value of 7.84, the skewness of -1.134 and the range of 9. The skewness is moderately negatively skewed as the respondents chose mostly higher values as indicated by the mean value of 7.84. Looking at the frequency table 4.7, two thirds of respondents chose values 8 and higher with 20.30% of the respondents choosing the lower values from 1 to 5. The range of variation is 9 where respondents chose values from 1 through to 10. Respondents showed favourable support for choosing promotion to benefit the employer.

4.2.7.2 **Question 6:** To what extent do you have confidence in yourself as a manager?

Table 4.8: Confidence – Descriptive Statistics

N	Valid	123
Mean		8.72
Skewness		-1.772
Range		8

Table 4.9: Confidence – Frequency tables

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	2	2	1.6	1.6	1.6
	5	2	1.6	1.6	3.3
	6	5	4.1	4.1	7.3
	7	13	10.6	10.6	17.9
	8	22	17.9	17.9	35.8
	9	29	23.6	23.6	59.3
	10	50	40.7	40.7	100.0
	Total	123	100.0	100.0	

It is interesting to note as per table 4.9, that 82.20% of respondents chose values 8 and above giving a mean value of 8.72 as per table 4.8. No respondents chose 1 as a value and only two respondents chose values lower than 5. The range and skewness as depicted in table 4.8 show values of 8 and -1.772 respectively. The range shows that there is a spread of the data, yet the skewness is a little more moderately negatively skewed towards the higher values as depicted in the frequency table 4.9. Respondents showed a high regard in their confidence levels in managing.

4.2.7.3 Question 7: To what extent are you confident that the South African economy will flourish?

Table 4.10: SA Economy – Descriptive Statistics

N	Valid	123
Mean		7.01
Skewness		-.337
Range		9

Table 4.11: SA Economy – Frequency Table

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	2	1.6	1.6	1.6
	2	1	.8	.8	2.4
	3	5	4.1	4.1	6.5
	4	6	4.9	4.9	11.4
	5	22	17.9	17.9	29.3
	6	16	13.0	13.0	42.3
	7	14	11.4	11.4	53.7
	8	24	19.5	19.5	73.2
	9	7	5.7	5.7	78.9
	10	26	21.1	21.1	100.0
	Total	123	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.10 illustrates a mean value of 7.01 (which is considered strong) and a skewness value that is symmetrical; that is very close to zero. The frequency table 4.11 shows an accumulation of data around the values 5 to 7 with 42.30% of respondents choosing these values. Respondents choosing values 4 and fewer, amounts to 11.40% and those choosing values 8, 9 and 10 amounts to 46.30%. The data shows that almost half of the respondents are positive about the economy in the future, 40% are neutral and 11.40% are pessimistic.

4.2.7.4 Question 8: To what extent are you confident that the South Africa political situation will be stable for the remaining years that you will be employed?

Table 4.12: SA Political – Descriptive Statistics

N	Valid	123
Mean		5.89
Skewness		-.017
Range		9

Table 4.13: SA Political – Frequency table

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	3	2.4	2.4	2.4
	2	7	5.7	5.7	8.1
	3	9	7.3	7.3	15.4
	4	13	10.6	10.6	26.0
	5	29	23.6	23.6	49.6
	6	12	9.8	9.8	59.3
	7	15	12.2	12.2	71.5
	8	18	14.6	14.6	86.2
	9	8	6.5	6.5	92.7
	10	9	7.3	7.3	100.0
	Total	123	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.12 shows an average mean value of 5.89 and skewness very close to zero which shows that the data is symmetrical; that is data lays almost equally on either side of the mean. This is illustrated through table 4.13 where 44% of the respondents chose values 4, 5 and 6 and shows that they feel “neutral” in the matter. Respondents choosing values 8 and above amount to 28.40% and those selecting values 3 and fewer amount to 15%. There is a general agreement that the respondents are neither optimistic nor pessimistic about the future of the political landscape of the country.

4.2.7.5 Question 10: How quick would you be to move out of your present employment to a better position?

Table 4.14: Better position – Descriptive Statistics

N	Valid	123
Mean		7.63
Skewness		-1.034
Range		9

Table 4.15: Better Position – Frequency table

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	6	4.9	4.9	4.9
	2	4	3.3	3.3	8.1
	3	4	3.3	3.3	11.4
	4	4	3.3	3.3	14.6
	5	12	9.8	9.8	24.4
	6	5	4.1	4.1	28.5
	7	10	8.1	8.1	36.6
	8	13	10.6	10.6	47.2
	9	17	13.8	13.8	61.0
	10	48	39.0	39.0	100.0
	Total	123	100.0	100.0	

The frequency table 4.15 shows that 71.50% of respondents selected values 8 and up with the value 10 taking 39%. With a relatively high mean of 7.63 and moderate negative skewness as shown in table 4.14, people are eager to leave their current employ for a higher position elsewhere.

4.2.7.6 **Question 14:** To what extent does a desire for financial gain drive you to seek promotion?

Table 4.16: Financial Gain – Descriptive Statistics

N	Valid	123
Mean		8.45
Skewness		-1.614
Range		9

Table 4.17: Financial Gain – Frequency Table

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	1	.8	.8	.8
	2	2	1.6	1.6	2.4
	4	2	1.6	1.6	4.1
	5	5	4.1	4.1	8.1
	6	6	4.9	4.9	13.0
	7	13	10.6	10.6	23.6
	8	20	16.3	16.3	39.8
	9	26	21.1	21.1	61.0
	10	48	39.0	39.0	100.0
	Total	123	100.0	100.0	

With moderate skewness at -1.614 and a high mean value of 8.45 as shown in table 4.16, people seek promotion for financial gain. There is a strong leaning towards the higher values that were selected for this question. This is further explained through the frequency table 4.17 where 60% of respondents chose the values 10 and 9 and only 8% chose values 5 and less. Between values 6 and 8, represents 31.8% of respondents who selected these numbers. The evidence is in favour of people seeking promotion for financial gain.

4.2.7.7 **Question 16:** To what extent does a competitive desire to outperform your colleagues drive you to seek promotion?

Table 4.18: Competitive desire – Descriptive Statistics

N	Valid	123
Mean		7.09
Skewness		-.849
Range		9

Table 4.19: Competitive desire – Frequency Table

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1	6	4.9	4.9	4.9
2	6	4.9	4.9	9.8
3	4	3.3	3.3	13.0
4	3	2.4	2.4	15.4
5	10	8.1	8.1	23.6
6	12	9.8	9.8	33.3
7	19	15.4	15.4	48.8
8	18	14.6	14.6	63.4
9	19	15.4	15.4	78.9
10	26	21.1	21.1	100.0
Total	123	100.0	100.0	

The respondents, in table 4.18, chose a mean value of 7.09 and a negative skewness of 0.849 that is almost symmetrical. The higher percentage values as shown in table 4.19 occur from 7 and above with the higher value of 21.10 occurring at the value of 10. The range is shows that the data is spread from values 1 to 10. The data shows that people are competitive and wish to outperform their colleagues to some extent through an act of promotion.

4.2.7.8 Question 19: To what extent does a perceived quality of life drive you to seek promotion?

Table 4.20: Quality of life – Descriptive Statistics

N	Valid	123
Mean		8.65
Skewness		-2.119
Range		9

Table 4.21: Quality of life – Frequency Table

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	3	2.4	2.4	2.4
	3	2	1.6	1.6	4.1
	4	1	.8	.8	4.9
	5	4	3.3	3.3	8.1
	6	4	3.3	3.3	11.4
	7	8	6.5	6.5	17.9
	8	15	12.2	12.2	30.1
	9	29	23.6	23.6	53.7
	10	57	46.3	46.3	100.0
	Total	123	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.20 shows that respondents feel very strongly about this question as the mean sits at a very high 8.65 and the skewness is a very strong -2.119; meaning that the data leans heavily towards the higher values. The frequency table 4.21 clearly shows that 46.3% of respondents chose the value 10 where from values 8 and above they make up 82%. People strongly perceive that a better quality of life will be obtained through a promotion.

4.2.7.9 Question 23: To what extent does the search for personal satisfaction drive you to seek promotion?

Table 4.22: Personal Satisfaction – Descriptive Statistics

N	Valid	123
Mean		8.66
Skewness		-2.347
Range		9

Table 4.23: Personal Satisfaction – Frequency Table

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1	2	1.6	1.6	1.6
2	1	.8	.8	2.4
3	1	.8	.8	3.3
4	1	.8	.8	4.1
5	1	.8	.8	4.9
6	4	3.3	3.3	8.1
7	9	7.3	7.3	15.4
8	20	16.3	16.3	31.7
9	38	30.9	30.9	62.6
10	46	37.4	37.4	100.0
Total	123	100.0	100.0	

It is clear from table 4.22 with a mean value of 8.66 and a very strong negative skewness of 2.347 (that shows the data leaning heavily towards the higher values), that people seek promotion for personal satisfaction. The same can be seen here as in question 19 as per table 4.23 where 37% of the respondents chose the value 10 and 85% chose the values 8 and up. Only 4.8% chose values 5 and below for this question. The data is strong that people seek promotion for personal satisfaction.

4.2.7.10 Question 26: To what extent did your family links contribute to your promotion?

Table 4.24: Family Links – Descriptive Statistics

N	Valid	123
Mean		5.33
Skewness		.009
Range		9

Table 4.25: Family Links – Frequency table

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1	43	35.0	35.0	35.0
2	4	3.3	3.3	38.2
3	4	3.3	3.3	41.5
4	4	3.3	3.3	44.7
5	6	4.9	4.9	49.6
6	7	5.7	5.7	55.3
7	5	4.1	4.1	59.3
8	11	8.9	8.9	68.3
9	9	7.3	7.3	75.6
10	30	24.4	24.4	100.0
Total	123	100.0	100.0	

Skewness, as illustrated in table 4.24, is effectively zero, the data is symmetrical. The mean is 5.33. What is interesting to note, as per table 4.25, is that 35% of the respondents chose the lowest value of 1 where 24.4% chose the highest value of 10 where 40% rested in-between these values. The data shows from values 5 and less that 49.80% of respondents do not consider family ties as being a motivator, where 50.20% do. The data is split half; the respondents indicate that they are somewhat uncertain about this.

4.2.7.11 **Question 27:** To what extent do you seek promotion so as to help junior staff realise their potential?

Table 4.26: Junior Staff – Descriptive Statistics

N	Valid	123
Mean		7.50
Skewness		-1.068
Range		9

Table 4.27: Junior Staff – Frequency Table

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	6	4.9	4.9	4.9
	2	3	2.4	2.4	7.3
	3	5	4.1	4.1	11.4
	4	4	3.3	3.3	14.6
	5	8	6.5	6.5	21.1
	6	8	6.5	6.5	27.6
	7	10	8.1	8.1	35.8
	8	26	21.1	21.1	56.9
	9	17	13.8	13.8	70.7
	10	36	29.3	29.3	100.0
	Total	123	100.0	100.0	

Values 8, 9 and 10 make up 64.20% of respondent's selection as shown in table 4.27. The mean value as shown in table 4.26 comes out at 7.50 which is high.

Respondents show a clear agreement that they seek promotion so as to help their junior staff reach their potential.

4.3 Inferential Statistics

Lind, Marchal and Wathen (2008, pp. 06-07) say that inferential statistics is finding something about a population from a sample.

4.3.1 Correlation

Correlation is the first statistical technique that is introduced under inferential statistics. It has been brought into this dissertation to ascertain whether or not some variables will have an impact on another and if such variables will influence a person's desire to seek promotion.

Pallant (2007, p. 126) says that correlation analysis (r) is used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables. Lind, Wathen and Marchal (2008, p. 460) says that a correlation coefficient of -1.00 or +1.00 indicates perfect correlation. Cohen (1988, pp. 79-81) says that to interpret values of correlation strength, the table 4.28 should be used as guidelines:

Table 4.28: Correlation strength guideline

Small effect	$r = .10$ to $.29$
Medium effect	$r = .30$ to $.49$
Large effect	$r = .50$ to 1.0

4.3.1.1 The Fundamentals

The concept of certain fundamentals that impact on people's desire to seek promotion was spoken about in Chapter 2 of this dissertation. The fundamentals

were discussed to assess their importance on influencing people's desire to seek promotion. Correlation has been specifically applied to two "fundamental" variables introduced in chapter 2, namely: the confidence of respondents on the future of the economy and the political situation of South Africa. Table 4.29 shows the correlation values between the two.

Table 4.29: Correlation: Political & Economic Future

		economy	political
economy	Pearson Correlation	1	.677
	N	123	123
political	Pearson Correlation	.677	1
	N	123	123

Table 4.29 shows a correlation value as 0.677, which in referring to table 4.28, shows a large effect. The respondent's belief in the economic future of the country is correlated to the political future of the country. The two variables will have an almost equal impact upon each other. If there is a negative perception about the political future, so too will there be a negative perception of the economic future of the country as well.

Table 4.30 compares the mean values of political and economic futures to gender. The difference between the mean values of gender to both the economy and political futures are very small. There is very little difference in feelings about the economy and the political future between genders.

Table 4.30: Mean comparison.

gender		economy	political
Male	Mean	7.14	5.91
	N	96	96
Female	Mean	6.56	5.81
	N	27	27
Total	Mean	7.01	5.89
	N	123	123

4.3.1.2 Satisfaction

Personal and Job satisfaction achieved mean scores that placed them in the top five of ranked variables as illustrated in figure 4.5. Table 4.31 shows the correlation values of these two variables.

Table 4.31: Correlation: Job & Personal Satisfaction

		perssatis	jobsatis
perssatis	Pearson Correlation	1	.760
	N	123	123
jobsatis	Pearson Correlation	.760	1
	N	123	123

Table 4.31 shows a correlation value of 0.760, which in referring to table 4.28, shows a very strong correlation. The large effect value shows that people who seek a promotion for job satisfaction do so as well for personal satisfaction. The respondents view job satisfaction and personal satisfaction as complementary.

Table 4.32 shows the comparisons of means between gender to personal and job satisfaction. Looking at personal satisfaction with a mean of 8.66, there is very little difference of the means between the male and female gender. Both genders feel the same about personal satisfaction. In comparing the same with job satisfaction that has a total mean of 8.64, again the means between the two genders are almost the same. This concludes that there is very little difference between gender when it comes to promotion for personal and job satisfaction.

Table 4.32: Mean comparison

gender		perssatis	jobsatis
Male	Mean	8.73	8.69
	N	96	96
Female	Mean	8.41	8.48
	N	27	27
Total	Mean	8.66	8.64
	N	123	123

4.3.2 Independent Samples T-Test

Pallant (2007, p. 232) says that an independent-samples t-test is used to compare the mean score, on some continuous variable, for two different groups of subjects. As confidence was ranked the highest variable, the t-test will be used on confidence and gender.

4.3.2.1 Confidence and gender

Table 4.33 shows the group statistics of gender and confidence. Out of the 123 respondents who completed the questionnaire, males accounted for 96 where females accounted for 27. The mean scores were 8.91 and 8.04 respectively. Based on the mean scores, males tend to see themselves as having higher confidence than females.

Table 4.33: Group statistics of confidence and gender

gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
confidence	Male	96	8.91	1.422	.145
	Female	27	8.04	1.765	.340

Table 4.34: Independent samples test table

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower
.518	.473	2.656	121	.009	.869	.327	.221	1.517

In the table 4.34, the column "Sig. (2-tailed)" shows the value 0.009 meaning that there is a significant difference in the mean scores on the dependent variable "confidence" for male and female. At a confidence level of 95%:

- The mean difference of confidence between male and female is 0.869.
- The interval difference is 0.221 (upper) and 1.517 (lower) that shows a large difference in the means between female and male.

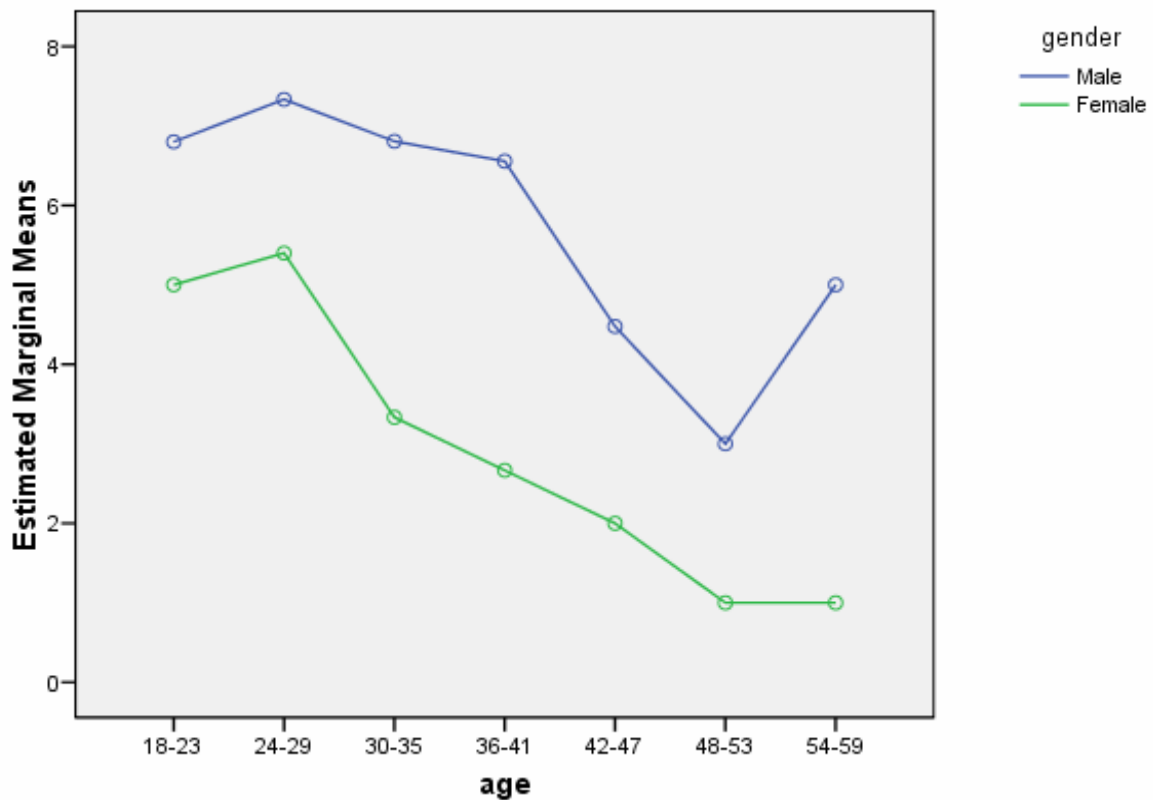
4.3.3 Internal drivers

Two questions were asked of respondents to test their internal, "in-built" drivers that may be a catalyst for seeking promotion. A question was asked if the respondents seek promotion because of family ties, and the second question was if the respondent seeks promotion without even asking themselves why. Both variables will be assessed and compared against age and gender using a profile plot via the "two-way between groups ANOVA approach".

4.3.3.1 Family ties

Figure 4.6 shows the "estimated marginal means of family". It clearly illustrates those males in their years 42 and fewer rate "seeking promotion based on family ties" fairly highly as shown on the y-axis of Estimated Marginal Means. Comparing the same to the female gender, their lower rating of the variable occurs earlier than their male counterparts from 30 and less. In both instances the desire to seek promotion based on family ties decreases as people get older. Of particular note in this analysis is that males are more often influenced by family ties than females.

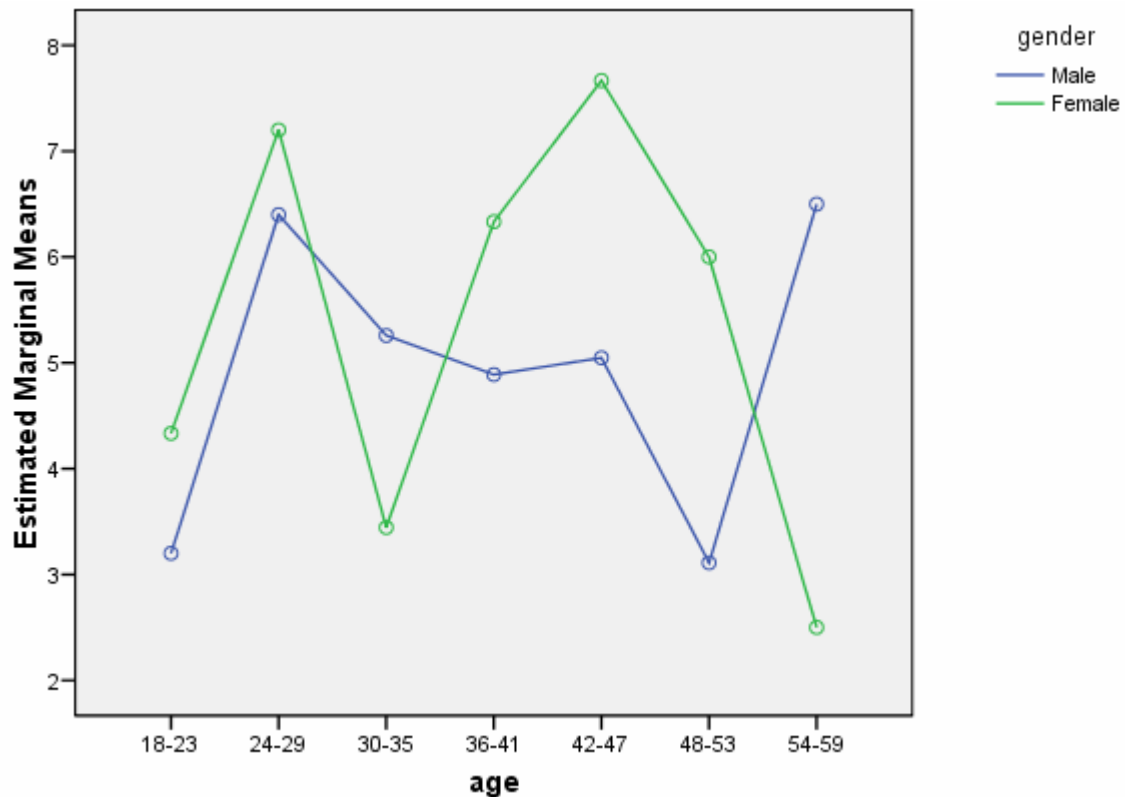
Figure 4.6: Estimated Marginal means of Family



4.3.3.2 Without asking why

Figure 4.7 shows the “estimated marginal means of asking”. This figure is somewhat different than figure 4.6 where gender did not cross each other at any point. In this instance females in the age group 30-35 do not seek promotion without asking themselves why where in the age group 42-47 they do seek promotion without asking themselves why. Males in the age category 48-53 do not seek promotion without asking themselves why yet in the age category 54-59 males do seek promotion without asking themselves why. Where there is commonality between the genders, both do not seek promotion without asking themselves why. In this instance, and when people are younger, there are definite reasons or goals of why people seek promotion.

Figure 4.7: Estimated Marginal means of asking



4.4 Conclusion

This chapter explored the data of the research findings from the research questionnaire. The chapter was broken into two parts of statistical analyses. Part one was the describing of the data followed by part two with subjecting the data to inferential statistics. The data explored the areas as covered by the objectives of this dissertation.

The first part of this chapter explored the data through descriptive statistics. The data was subject to pie charting where respondent's data was classified into categories of age, gender and job type. The chapter then moved into the comparison of means of job type, gender and employer success. Cross tabulation was applied to age and gender as well as age and cross tabulation. Thereafter

the first part of the chapter was concluded with the ranking of means of each variable with an in-depth statistical discussion on each variable.

The second part of this chapter then began a discussion of the data through the use of inferential statistics. Fundamental variables were subject to correlation statistics and then the independent samples t-test was introduced. The internal drivers of why people seek promotion such as "family ties" and "without knowing why" were subject to the two-way ANOVA approach. This concluded the chapter.

Chapter 5 will be a discussion and conclusion that will address the objectives of this dissertation.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion and conclusion

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 was the presentation of data where specific questions were analysed. These questions were not chosen randomly but instead a filtering technique was used as a mechanism to answer the objectives outlined in Chapter 1 of this dissertation.

This concluding chapter will address the objectives of this dissertation so that a succinct conclusion of why people seek promotion can be drawn. It will start with a discussion where the objectives will be addressed, and then recommendations made from findings generated in chapter 4 and will conclude with suggestions for further research.

5.2 Discussion

Each objective will be addressed through a discussion of each:

5.2.1 To test, from a range of possibilities, as identified in the literature and shaped by the problem statement, what motivates people to seek promotion and to place in rank order the factors that drive people to seek promotion.

This objective was approached through the ranking of the variables by their mean values. Figure 4.5 graphically showed the mean rankings. The variables that were ranked from highest to lowest according to their mean values are:

Question 6: To what extent do you have confidence in yourself as a manager? This question received a mean value of 8.72.

Question 21: To what extent does a desire for new challenges drive you to seek promotion? This question received a mean value of 8.67.

Question 23: To what extent does the search for personal satisfaction drive you to seek promotion? This question received a mean value of 8.66.

Question 19: To what extent does a perceived quality of life drive you to seek promotion? This question received a mean value of 8.65.

Question 24: To what extent does the quest for job satisfaction drive you to seek promotion? This question received a mean value of 8.64.

Question 4: To what extent do you want influence at the work place? This question received a mean value of 8.56.

Question 14: To what extent does a desire for financial gain drive you to seek promotion? This question received a mean value of 8.45.

Question 18: To what extent does the desire to acquire even more marketable skills drive you to seek promotion? This question received a mean value of 8.32.

Question 15: To what extent do you seek promotion because one promotion could lead to even more advancement? This question received a mean value of 8.26.

Question 9: To what extent do you seek promotion so as to take on more responsibility? This question received a mean value of 8.14.

Question 2: To what extent are you prepared to change career to rise up the management ranks. This question received a mean value of 7.97.

Question 1: To what extent do you seek promotion so as to help your employer become more successful? This question received a mean value of 7.84.

Question 20: To what extent does a desire for more excitement at the workplace drive you to seek promotion at work? This question received a mean value of 7.70.

Question 12: To what extent do you want authority at the work place? This question received a mean value of 7.66.

Question 10: How quick would you be to move out of your present employment to a better position? This question received a mean value of 7.63.

Question 3: To what extent do you wish to have power at the workplace? This question received a mean value of 7.57.

Question 27: To what extent do you seek promotion so as to help junior staff realise their potential? This question received a mean value of 7.50.

Question 25: To what extent does the desire for recognition drive you to seek promotion? This question received a mean value of 7.44.

Question 16: To what extent does a competitive desire to out perform your colleagues drive you to seek promotion? This question received a mean value of 7.09.

Question 7: To what extent are you confident that the South African economy will flourish? This question received a mean value of 7.01.

Question 11: To what extent does your present employer understand how valuable you are to the organisation? This question received a mean value of 6.58.

Question 22: To what extent does desire for more status drive you to seek promotion? This question received a mean value of 6.57.

Question 17: To what extent does the desire to be elevated above peers drive you to seek promotion? This question received a mean value of 6.45.

Question 5: To what extent did you seek promotion to escape from a bad working environment? This question received a mean value of 5.98.

Question 8: To what extent are you confident that the South Africa political situation will be stable for the remaining years that you will be employed? This question received a mean value of 5.89.

Question 26: To what extent did your family links contribute to your promotion? This question received a mean value of 5.33.

Question 13: To what extent do you seek promotion without even asking yourself why? This question received a mean value of 5.13.

The variable that ranked first was people having confidence within as being a manager or aspiring to take on managerial posts. People believe that they have the inherent abilities to be a manager and believe in themselves as the prelude to seeking promotion. The fact that these people have so much confidence in themselves authenticates the results of data obtained from the questionnaire for the questions that followed suit. If it were not for people having so much confidence then the desire for a challenge, which is the second ranked variable, would not closely trail confidence. The variable of challenge fulfils the "self-actualisation" need as proposed by Maslow. This is the highest need in Maslow's hierarchy where people seek more self-fulfilment. Those who do not have confidence will not seek a challenge through promotion. Confidence positively affects the choices that people will make when seeking a promotion.

The trailing three questions after the variable "challenge", revolved around the "self-esteem" needs of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Personal satisfaction, job satisfaction and a better quality of life were the variables that made up the top five reasons why people seek promotion. People see promotion as a gateway to improve their own lives and to give them the pleasure of personal and job satisfaction; hence a sense of meaning and accomplishment in life and the meeting of "self-esteem" needs.

In keeping with self-esteem needs, the variables of status, recognition, power, authority, responsibility and influence were ranked 22nd, 18th, 16th, 14th, 10th and 6th respectively; fairly well dispersed within the ranking. This shows that people do not seek these needs as priority as suggested by Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Ranked at a lower of position of 21 is the variable of "value" where people believe that they are valued by their organisation. This variable is important for people to feel part of an organisation as it effects organisational productivity. Those employees with low self-esteem will never progress higher up Maslow's hierarchy of needs, and hence may become demoralised. It is obvious that people do not feel valued within their places of work. This could be a strong motivator to seek out a promotion to escape from the position that they are in to a position where they will be valued.

In fulfilling the first step in Maslow's hierarchy of needs, which is safety needs, came financial gain. The act of seeking promotion for financial gain was ranked seventh out of the 27 variables. Although not part of the top five, it is ranked highly and forms part of peoples' collective ideals that motivates them to seek promotion. It can be considered as a "reward" for obtaining a job higher in responsibility, accountability and responsibility.

Ranked a little higher than half-way is the variable of "employer success" and ranked second to last is the variable "family ties"; both falling under Maslow's social needs. Not making the top ten but with a high mean value of 7.84 people seek promotion to benefit the employer. This can be considered good work ethic, but people place self-fulfilling needs higher than the needs of others. This is true for seeking promotion to benefit juniors that is ranked 17th; people placed financial gain higher than meeting the needs of others. With a mean value of 5.33 is the variable of people seeking promotion due to family links. With a low ranking, people are not influenced by this variable and are instead motivated by other means in seeking a promotion.

People are clearly motivated to seek promotion to obtain more skills and as a stepping stone for further advancement. These two variables are supported through Maslow's final motivating step; that is, self-actualisation. People are motivated to seek promotion to acquire more skills and to use promotion as a stepping stone for even more advancement – all to achieve the highest ranking in Maslow's needs level.

Two variables of "better" and "escape" both deal with people leaving their present employ in search of something better or more lucrative elsewhere. People seeking promotion in another organisation for a better position elsewhere was ranked 15th. Those people seeking a promotion to escape diminished industry conditions was ranked 24th. In both cases the results show that people are reluctant to leave their present employ for a better position elsewhere and would rather attempt to survive through the diminished industry conditions.

Ranked last is the question of whether people seek promotion without asking themselves why. People as illustrated through the data analysis are motivated to achieve goals and objectives as well as fulfil their personal desires. People know what they want and do not necessarily seek promotion without knowing why they do so.

5.2.2 To gauge the extent to which employees seek promotion so as to benefit themselves, their colleagues and or the employer.

People are motivated to seek promotion primarily to satisfy their innate desires and are somewhat selfish in their goals. People ranked challenges, personal satisfaction, quality of life, job satisfaction and influence just after confidence. Although these desires are good to chase after, people regard themselves more important than looking after the interests of their employer, colleagues or their

juniors. People seek promotion primarily to benefit themselves; but this needs to be expounded.

Factory personnel, who occupy the lower rungs of the organisational hierarchy, are very much in favour of seeking promotion to benefit the employer. Administrative personnel, who generally occupy higher levels in the organisational hierarchy and are considered to have a higher "status" than factory personnel, also seek promotion to benefit the employer. Although less so than factory personnel benefiting the employer and helping the employer achieve success is important to administrative staff. The same cannot be said for management staff. Management personnel are less enthusiastic to seek promotion to benefit the employer. There may very well be countless reasons behind this but one can only surmise that in the higher positions that they hold, and because the lower level needs of Maslow's hierarchy have been fulfilled by the time one reaches management, people start to look towards "self-actualisation". Factory personnel and administrative personnel are more focussed on securing the safety needs and social needs before aspiring to the "self" components of Maslow's hierarchy; hence are more focussed on benefiting others before themselves in the act of securing promotion.

Looking past the job type into exploring gender it has been found that males tend to be more willing to satisfy employer success than do females. This could very well be because of the social emphasis that is placed on males to be the bread winners and to provide for their families. A successful employer could lead to even greater opportunities in the future. Males could very well seek promotion to benefit the employer in the hope that that promotion could be a stepping stone to more promotions in the future and hence become better providers for their families.

5.2.3 To test if employees seek promotion so as to consciously meet internal drivers or if they are responding instinctively by seeking promotion.

Of all variables tested, it has been found that people do not react instinctively when seeking promotion. This is supported by the last ranked variable of "asking"; people mostly do not look for promotion without asking themselves why. They tend to be more analytical and objective minded and motivated as illustrated by the top 5 ranked variables according to means (Figure 4.5).

On the other hand, people are more motivated to seek promotion based on internal drivers. Internal drivers can be segmented into steps as explained by Maslow's hierarchy of needs. People are motivated to fulfil these steps in the needs ladder. By people seeking challenges, personal & job satisfaction, a better quality of life, to obtain influence and additional finance, demonstrates that people are driven to satisfy their innate needs, their desires and wants.

5.2.4 To assess the flexibility of employees in securing promotion.

The analysis of data has shown that people have various objectives in mind in which they want to secure through promotion. Such objectives are to seek a challenging position, achieve satisfaction from the job and to enjoy a better quality of life. The data has also shown that people want to earn a higher salary, to obtain more skills and to have influence upon others. They also desire excitement, recognition and higher levels of responsibility. But the data shows that people stop short of acquiring these objectives through the low rankings of the variable "better"; people do not wish to leave their current employ to take on a higher position elsewhere. The same can be said for the variable "escape";

people would rather stay in a career with diminished industry conditions than to seek a promotion from outside their organisations.

People then tend to be inflexible in securing positions outside of their current employer and more flexible when seeking promotions from within their current company. People would rather stay in their same company than risk going into the unknown even if there are benefits elsewhere.

The data evidence and summary of findings from Chapter 4 highlights step three of Maslow's hierarchy of needs model. The hierarchical stages of motivation as proposed by Maslow (Mullins 2006, p. 480) says that after safety and love needs have been satisfied, people are motivated by esteem needs; that is egotistical needs. This is supported through the data analysis and the top 5 questions ranked by respondents. It also lays the basis for the progression towards, what Maslow described as self-actualisation needs. Instrumental orientation has been supported by clearly showing that people seek promotion for their own means and not for others.

5.3 Recommendations

Through the analysis of Smith's assumptions (2007) and running a discussion alongside motivational theory, and with the collection of data, knowledge has been acquired on what motivates people to seek promotion. The information obtained can be used by managers in organisations in understanding what drives people to seek promotion. The rank of means in figure 4.4 can be used as a vital instrument in making recommendations from the results found in this dissertation such as:

- The ranked means should guide the human resources department in identifying those persons who display the top 5 or 6 motives for seeking promotion. These persons should then be put onto management training courses for further development. It is those persons who exude confidence, willing to take on new challenges, are interested in personal satisfaction, seek a better quality of life, and wish to improve their own job satisfaction and desire to have influence at the work place that should be considered for promotion opportunities. The top five or six questions can be used to identify persons for promotion.
- The results of this dissertation should be used to appreciate the mismatch between what an organisation thinks what people want in a career versus what they actually want as outlined in this dissertation. Too often companies surmise the desires of people in seeking promotion and ignore the real issues of why people seek promotion. Companies should understand these real motives and make an effort to secure the right individual for promotion.
- The human resources department should bare in mind the factors that drive people to seek promotion. The department, through line managers, should assess employees on a continuous basis that demonstrate the traits as ranked in Figure 4.5 so as to identify those who which to improve their career.
- The future of the South African economy was ranked 20th with a mean score of 7.01. People feel positive about the economy in the future and feel secure about it. People will base their careers on this and seek jobs to which they see will lead to a prosperous future.
- As personal and job satisfaction are ranked 3rd and 5th respectively where the political situation and the economy are ranked low shows that people are more concerned about themselves than they are about the country. People

wish to progress to aide their personal endeavours regardless of the political or economic situation of the country. Companies should not be intimidated by political or economic situations as people are not concerned about these issues in securing higher positions.

- Companies should not focus on offering the best salary in comparison to competitors. People seek more favourable factors in work than finances that ranked 7th. Companies should offer jobs that will fulfil the need for challenge, personal satisfaction and job satisfaction.

5.4 Reliability & Validity

All the variables were tested for reliability using Cronbach’s alpha co-efficient. Table 5.1 shows that the alpha coefficient is above 0.7 which is shows good reliability.

Table 5.1: Reliability statistic

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items
.880	.879

The validity of the study is confirmed through the support of motivational theories upon the results of the variables tested. Most variables, according to the rank of means in figure 4.5, fit into the various steps of Maslow’s hierarchy of means suggesting that people do step through the hierarchy as suggested by Maslow.

5.5 Limitations of study

Apart from the limitations addressed at the beginning of this chapter, further limitations with regard to the study are discussed.

Question 13 asked the question of the respondent if he/she wanted promotion without even asking themselves why. This question should in fact have been the first question as after the respondent answered 12 questions they were effectively given "the answers" to the reason of seeking promotion. If question 13 became question 1 then would the results have been different of this question?

5.6 Future Research

Suggestions for future research have been segmented into two categories.

5.6.1 Demographics

Promotion desires may be somewhat different with persons who occupy senior roles to those who operate machines at the factory level. Living standards too may very well dictate different approaches to seeking promotion. Future study should be conducted with a more focussed demographic approach. At first instance managers alone need be tested in two areas:

- The reasons why the manager accepted a promotion and,
- If the manager in his/her promoted role has had their initial desires fulfilled prior to that promotion and was it what he/she expected.

5.6.2 Methods

The study took on a predominant quantitative approach where respondents could not elaborate further on their reasons for selecting the values that they answered per question. Future study should take on a mixed research design approach where quantitative and qualitative analyses are used to extract data and create new knowledge. Structured interviews should initially be carried out and from there a the questionnaire designed.

5.7 Conclusion

This dissertation concludes with a discussion on the results found through research and study. As was said in the beginning of this dissertation, very little literature is available on the topic of why people seek promotion, until now. This dissertation has extensively added to new knowledge that should be used by managers and human resource practitioners with the organisational context.

This chapter discussed the findings through empirical research and discussed the recommendations on what to do with these findings. Further research suggestions have concluded this chapter. Although extensive work has been done in defining why people seek promotion at work, more work is still needed to further clarify and broaden the understanding of why people seek to be promoted.

6 Bibliography

Anderson, D., Sweeney, D., Williams, T. (2009). *Statistics for Business and Economics*. 10th Edition. USA: Thomson-Southwestern.

Babbie, E. (2009). *The practice of social research*. 12th edition. USA: Wadsworth.

Barrie, E. (2001). *Job Satisfaction*. [Online] Canada, http://www.omafra.gov.on.ca/english/livestock/swine/facts/info_pm_jobsatis.htm [Accessed 8 December 2009].

Bateman, T., Snell, S. (2009). *Management. Leading and collaborating in a competitive world*. 8th Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Billsbury, J. (2002). *The effective manager. Perspectives and illustrations*. California: Sage Publications.

Biology online. (2005). *Personal Satisfaction*. [Online] (Updated 3 Oct 2005). Available at: http://www.biology-online.org/dictionary/Personal_satisfaction [Accessed 8 December 2009].

Brown, S. P., Cron, W. L., & Slocum, J. W., Jr. (1998). Effects of trait competitiveness and perceived intra-organizational competition on salesperson goal setting and performance. *Journal of Marketing*, 62, 88–98.

Bryman, B., & Bell, E. (2007). *Business Research Methods*. 2nd Edition. New York: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A and Cramer, D. (2005). *Quantitative data analysis with SPSS 12 and 13*. Routledge, London.

Buckingham, M., & Coffman, C. (1999). *First, break all the rules. What the world's greatest managers do differently*. New York: Simon and Schuster.

Carson, P., Griffeth, W., & Steel, P. (1994). Promotion and employee turnover: Critique, meta-analysis and implications. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, Vol 8, No.4.

Chope, R., Consoli, A. (no date). Multicultural Family Influence in Career decision making. [Online] American Counselling Association. Available at: <http://www.counseling.org/Resources>. [Accessed 12 Dec. 09].

Cohen, J. W. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural analysis*. 2nd Edition. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Coldwell, D., & Herbst, F. (2004). *Business Research*. Cape Town: Juta and Co. Ltd.

Cole, K. (2005). *Management. Theory and Practice*. 3rd Edition. Australia: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2006 (a)). *Marketing Research*. New York: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

Cooper, D., & Schindler, P. (2006 (b)). *Marketing Research*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Cooper, D., & Schindler, S. (2006 (c)). *Marketing Research*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Cronje, F. (2009). Inequality a great political risk – SAIRR. [Online]. Available at: <http://www.politicsweb.co.za/politicsweb/view/politicsweb/en/page71654?oid=154500&sn=Detail>. [Accessed 19 December 2009].

Dixon, Robyn. (2009). With Zuma a shoo-in, South Africa worries. Los Angeles Times, [internet] 29 April. Available at: <http://articles.latimes.com/2009/apr/22/world/fg-zuma-election22>. [Accessed 06 January 2010].

DuBrin, A. J. (a) (2005). Fundamentals of Organizational Behaviour. 3rd Edition. Canada: Thompson South-Western.

DuBrin, A.J. (b) (2003). Essentials of Management. 6th Edition. Canada: Thompson South-Western.

Finkelstein, S. (1992). Power in top management teams: Dimensions, measurement, and validation. Academy of Management Journal, 35, pp. 505-538.

FNB/BER Consumer Confidence Index. (2009). (Economics Publication). (Published 1 December 2009). Available at: www.fnb.co.za/economics. [Accessed 19 December 2009].

French, J. R. P, & Raven, B. (1959). The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright (Ed.), Studies in social power: pp. 150-167. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Institute for Social Research.

George, & Jones. (2006). Contemporary Management. Creating value in organisations. 4th Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Gill, J. (2000). CEOs Listen Up: Nice Guys Can Finish First. [Online] Business Week. Available at: http://www.businessweek.com/careers/content/sep2000/ca20000927_766.htm [Accessed 13 Dec. 09].

Grant, R. (2005). Contempory strategy analysis. 5th Edition. Australia: Blackwell Publishing.

- Graziano, A., & Raulin, M. (2004). *Research Methodology. A process of enquiry.* 5th Edition. USA: Pearson Education Group.
- Griffin, R. (2008). *Management.* 9th Edition. Boston: Houghton Mufflin Company.
- Grossman, B., Dr. (2009). *Keeping Good Employees: Money as an Internal Motivator.* [Online] Retention Connection. Available at: http://www.retentionconnection.com/article_keeping_good_employees.html [Accessed 9 December 2009].
- Hair, J.F., Babin. B., Money, A.H. and Samuel, P. (2003). *Essentials of business research methods.* New Jersey: Wiley International edition.
- Hellriegel, D., Jackson, S., Slocrum, J., Staude, G., Amos, T., Klopper, H., et al. (2007). *Management.* 2nd South African Edition. CapeTown: Oxford South Africa.
- Hofstee, E. (2006). *Constructing a good dissertation.* Johannesburg: EPE.
- House, R. J. (1988). *Power and personality in complex organizations.* In B. M.
- Salkind, N. (2007). *Statistics for people who think they hate statistics. The Excel edition.* London: Sage publications.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. 2003. *Research methods for business students.* Prentice Hall Financial Times. Third edition. Harlow.
- Karatepe, M., Uludag, O., Menevis, I., Hadzimehmedagic, L., Baddar, L. (2006). *The effects of selected individual characteristics on frontline employee performance and job satisfaction.* *Journal of Tourism Management*, 27, 547-560.
- Kesselman, M., Krieger, J., Joseph, W., Basu, A., Abrahamian, E. (2009). *Introduction to comparative politics. Brief Edition.* USA: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt Publishing.

Knights, D., Willmot, H. (1999). *Management Lives. Power and Identity in Work Organisations*. England: Sage Publications.

Kolby, J. (2007). *Master the LSAT Ebook*. USA: Nova Press

Latham, G. (2007). *Work Motivation. History, Theory, Research, and Practice*. London: Sage Publications.

Lind, D., Marchal, W., Wathen, S. (2008). *Statistical Techniques in Business and Economics 13th Edition*. New York: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

Leedy. P. D. and Ormrod. J. E. (2005). *Practical Research. Planning and Design*. 8th Edition. International Edition Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall New Jersey.

Lester, S., Kickul, J., & Bergman, T. (2007). Managing employee perceptions of the psychological contract over time: the role of the employer social accounts and contract fulfilment. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour* , Vol. 28, pp 191-208.

Luthans, F., Church, A. (2002). Positive organisational behaviour: Developing and managing psychological strengths. *Academy of Management Executive Journal*, 16, 1.

Maxwell, J. (2006). *The four pillars of leadership*. Cape Town: Struik Christian Books.

Mayhew, K., Mason, G., Lloyd, C. (2008). *Low-wage work in the United Kingdom*. United Kingdom: Barnes & Nobel.

McGregor, D. (1960). *The Human Side of Enterprise*. New York: Publisher unknown.

Mullins, L. (2006). *Management and Organisational Behaviour*. 7th Edition. England: Prentice Hall.

Nel, P., Gerber, P., Van Dyk, P., Haasbroek, G., Schultz, H., Sono, T. (2001). Human Resources Management. 5th Edition. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

McDermott, I., Jago, W. (2005). The Coaching Bible. The essential handbook. London: Judy Piatkus Limited.

Noe, R. A., Hollenbeck, J. R., Gerhart, B., & Wright, P. M. (2006). Human Resource Management. New York: McGraw Hill.

Pallant, J. (2007). SPSS Survival Manual. New York: McGraw Hill.

Phillips, J., Connell, A. (2003). Managing Employee Retention. A strategic accountability approach. USA: Franklin Covey.

Plunkett, W., Attner, R., Allen, G. (2005). Management. Meeting and exceeding customer expectations. USA: Thompson South-Western.

Prins, N. (2008). South Africa today: the best or worst of times? Mail & Guardian Online [internet]. September 2008. Available at:
<http://www.thoughtleader.co.za/nickyprins/2008/09/26/south-africa-today-the-best-or-worst-of-times/>. [Accessed 06 January 2010].

Ratzburg, W, (n.d). Motivating Organisational members. [Online]. Available at:
<http://jam3c.tripod.com/id8.html>. [Accessed 4 January 2010].

Reuters. (2009). Engineering News Online. SA exits recession as factories rebound. [Online] (Updated 24 November 2009). Available at:
<http://www.engineeringnews.co.za/article/safrica-exits-recession-q3-gdp-up-09-2009-11-24>. [Accessed 19 Dec. 09].

Rubery, J., Smith, M., Fagan, C. (1999). Women's Employment in Europe. Trends and Prospectus. Great Britain: Routledge.

- Rue, L., & Byars, L. (2003). Management. Skills and application. 10th Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2003). Research Methods for Business Students. 3rd edition. Harlow: Pearson Education Ltd.
- Schermerhorn, J., Hunt, J., Osborn, R. (2005). Organizational Behaviour. 9th Edition. USA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Sekaran, U. (1992). Research Methods for Business: A Skill-building Approach. New Jersey: Wiley.
- Shackleton, V. (1995). Business leadership. London: Routledge.
- Smit, P.J., Cornje, GJ. (2002). Management Principles. A contemporary edition for Africa. 3rd Edition. Cape Town: Juta.
- Smith, M. (2007). Fundamentals of management. London: McGraw-Hill.
- Solutions, F. I. (2008). SurveyBounty. Retrieved June 14, 2009, from SurveyBounty: surveybounty.com/articles/marketing-glossary.html
- Statistics South Africa (2009). Quarterly Labour Force Survey. [Internet] South Africa. (Published quarter 4, 2009). Available at: <http://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/statsdownload.asp?PPN=P0211&SCH=4579> [Accessed 5 Mar. 10].
- Stocker, G. (2006). Avoiding the corporate death spiral : recognising and eliminating the signs of decline. USA: William A. Tony
- Wegner, T. (2001). Applied Business Statistics. Methods and Applications. Kenwyn: Juta & Co. Ltd.
- Tang Li-Ping, T. (1992). The meaning of money revisited. Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 13, pp. 192-202.

Taylor, J., Harris, M., Taylor, S. (2007). Parents have their say...About their College-Age Childrens career decisions. [Online] www.jobweb.com. [Accessed 12 December 2009].

Thietart, R et al (2001). Doing Management Research. A Comprehensive guide. London: Sage Publications.

Tolman, Mary H. (2008). Positions of Responsibility in Department Stores and Other Retail Selling Organizations. United Kingdom: Alibris Publishers.

Tschohl, J. (a) (2009). Is money a motivator? No! [Online] Minneapolis, MN. 24-7 Press Release. Available at <http://www.24-7pressrelease.com/press-release/is-money-a-motivator-no-83144.php>. [Accessed 9 December 2009].

Tschohl, J. (b) (2007). Achieving excellence through customer service. 5th Edition. Minneapolis: Best Sellers Publishing.

Weiers, R.M. (2008). Introduction to Business statistics. Sixth edition. International student edition. Thompson, Mason.

Welman, J.C. and Kruger, S.J. (1999). Research methodology for the business and administrative science. Oxford University Press. Oxford.