

An Exploration of the Various Power Bases and their Influence on Employee Motivation

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Declaration

I hereby declare that the Research Report submitted for the BCOM Honours in Management degree to The Independent Institute of Education is my own work and has not previously been submitted to another University or Higher Education Institution for degree purposes.

Abstract

In a study conducted more than fifty years ago, French and Raven (1959) established a five-fold typology of power namely, coercive, reward, legitimate, expert and referent power that influences change. Having a motivated workforce is crucial for any organisation as it improves overall efficiency and effectiveness (Varma, 2017). The purpose of this study was firstly, to identify and explore how an employee's motivation can be affected through the various power bases used by a leader and secondly, to identify if employees experience more than one power base in an organisation. A qualitative inductive approach was utilised for this study as the aim was to understand and explore an employee's experience in an organisation and how power influenced their motivation (Nieuwenhuis, 2020a). Three in-depth online interviews were conducted with standardised open-ended questions as it allowed the researcher to obtain their beliefs, opinions and perspectives regarding a certain phenomenon (Strydom & Bezuidenhout, 2014). All three participants had positive motivational experiences in relation to the powers that their managers used namely, referent, expert and legitimate power (French & Raven, 1959). The findings have the possibility to assist managers and leaders in terms of understanding what power motivates or de-motivates employees in an organisation.

Contents

1. Introduction	1
1.1 Contextualisation	1
1.2 Rationale	1
1.3 Problem statement.....	2
1.4 Purpose statement.....	2
1.5 Research question	2
1.6 Research objective	3
2. Literature review.....	4
2.1 Conceptualisation	4
2.2. Theoretical foundation.....	5
2.2.1 Herzberg's two-factor theory.....	5
2.3 Themes	7
2.3.1 Leadership	7
2.3.2 Power, relationships and influence in organisations	8
2.3.3 The bases of power	9
2.3.4 The link between employee motivation and power	12
2.4 Critical assessment	15
3. Research design and methodology	16
3.1 Paradigm.....	16
3.2 Approach and design	17
3.3 Population	18
3.4 Sampling	18
3.5 Data collection method.....	19
3.6 Data analysis method.....	22
4. Findings and interpretation of findings.....	25

4.1 Participants	25
4.2 Thematic analysis	26
4.2.1 Theme 1: Mutual recognition respect.....	26
4.2.2 Theme 2: The association between knowledge sharing and managerial experience	27
4.2.3 Theme 3: Interpersonal relationships and employee performance	29
4.2.4 Theme 4: It's not about the money	30
4.3 Trustworthiness.....	32
5. Conclusion.....	34
5.1 Addressing the research question and objective.....	34
5.2 Implications of findings for future practices	35
5.3 Evaluation of research success and possible future studies.....	36
5.4 Ethical considerations	36
5.4.1 Ethical issues: participants.....	36
5.4.2 Ethical issues: the researcher.....	37
5.5 Limitations.....	38
Reference list.....	40
Appendix A	50
Appendix B	52
Appendix C	53
Appendix D	54
Appendix E	56
Appendix F.....	58

1. Introduction

1.1 Contextualisation

This study focused on identifying the various power bases in an organisation and the impact they have on an employee's motivation (Raven, 1993). In a study conducted more than fifty years ago, French and Raven (1959) examined the resources a leader required to be able to influence change. They established an initial five-fold typology of power which leaders utilised in order to influence change, namely coercive, reward, legitimate, expert and referent power (French & Raven, 1959). In later years, Raven (1993) revised the study and added a sixth form of power, informational power. In order for leaders to be effective, they must be able to influence their subordinates and groups in their organisations (Elias, 2008). Kalimullah (2010) cited by Dobre (2013) suggest that motivated employees align their goals with the organisation and are driven to meet or exceed them. Organisations will struggle or fail to achieve their goals if employees are not satisfied and motivated to fulfil their tasks and duties (Dobre, 2013). There's been numerous studies conducted with regards to leadership and influence in organisations (Peyton, Zigarmi & Fowler, 2018). Politis (2005) conducted a study to identify the impact the five sources of social power would have on knowledge acquisition for employees. The results indicated a positive relationship between expert power and knowledge acquisition and a negative relationship with regards to the use of coercive and referent power (Politis, 2005). Employees' perceptions of the powers used by leaders will serve as a guide towards this qualitative study.

1.2 Rationale

This research is relevant in modern times as organisations are dependent on employees to perform to the best of their ability (Varma, 2017). A motivated employee improves organisational productivity, believes in the vision and allows the business to reach its goals (Dobre, 2013). Varma (2017) stated that motivated employees contribute to achieving organisational objectives such as effectiveness and efficiency, unified direction, commitment, employee retention, utilisation of resources, innovation as well as creativity. Having a motivated workforce is crucial for organisations in competitive industries (Dobre, 2013). Thus, leaders need to consistently monitor

employee work performance in order to identify what they seek to achieve from their jobs (Dobre, 2013). Furthermore, dissatisfied employees may increase absenteeism rates and ultimately leave the organisation to join competitors that offer higher incentives and opportunities for growth (Dobre, 2013). Thus, motivation and job satisfaction play a critical role for organisations operating in a highly competitive environment (Dobre, 2013).

Various scholars have called for more research concerning the relationship between power and levels of motivation (Peyton et al., 2018). Jungert, Koestner, Houliort and Schattke (2013) requested a more in-depth analysis of how intrinsic motivation can be positively influenced through the behaviours of leaders. Very few studies examine the relationship between power and motivation, which motivated the researcher to conduct this study (Peyton et al., 2018).

1.3 Problem statement

Employees have different experiences with regards to the power or powers used by a leader in an organisation (French & Raven, 1959). They may experience a lack of motivation if they work in an environment where the power used by a leader influences them negatively (Dobre, 2013). They struggle to overcome challenges, take no accountability for their mistakes, and do not see the company's vision as their own (Leonard, 2019). Leonard (2019) states that unmotivated employees will do the bare minimum to complete their work-related activities. How leaders utilise power as a resource will determine the motivational outcome for employees (Leonard, 2019).

1.4 Purpose statement

The purpose of this study was to identify and explore how an employee's motivation can be affected through the various power bases used by a leader. The powers used by leaders can be identified through an employee's experience in an organisation and whether an employee performs to avoid punishment (extrinsic motivation) or to gain personal achievement (intrinsic motivation) (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000). Essentially, the aim was to consider the request of Jungert et al. (2013) for a more in-depth understanding of the impact that a leader's use of power has on motivation.

1.5 Research question

What effects would the various power bases have on employee motivation?

Sub-question:

Do employees experience more than one power base in an organisation?

1.6 Research objective

- To explore the impact that a leader's power would have on an employee's motivation.
- To identify if employees experience more than one power base in an organisation.

2. Literature review

2.1 Conceptualisation

Leadership: As previously stated, there are many definitions of leadership (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2017). For the purpose of this study, the researcher deemed Northouse's (2010) definition as appropriate as it encapsulates the essence of leadership. Northouse (2010) states that leadership involves influencing an individual or group willingly to achieve a common purpose.

Soft power: Raven, Schwarzwald and Koslowsky (1998) cited by Pierro, Cicero and Raven (2008) define soft power as a freer approach to compliance, which involves expert, referent, and informational power.

Hard power: Raven et al. (1998) cited by Pierro et al. (2008) by contrast, define hard power as a more aggressive and forced approach to compliance, which involve coercive, reward and legitimate power.

Extrinsic motivation: Ryan and Deci (2000) state that extrinsic motivation is doing a task for the purpose of earning a reward or avoiding punishment, not doing the activity for enjoyment.

Intrinsic motivation: By contrast, intrinsic motivation is performing a task without expecting a reward as the work itself is rewarding and interesting (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Influence: Influence is the result achieved by utilising various power tactics (Raven, 2008). It is a fundamental aspect of leadership and it involves building trustworthy relationships in an effort to change the attitudes, values and beliefs of individuals (Rost, 2008).

2.2. Theoretical foundation

2.2.1 Herzberg's two-factor theory

Frederick Herzberg's two-factor theory is considered the foundation of this study which focuses on motivational sources required to complete work related activities (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959). This theory comprises of motivator factors and hygiene factors which are separated into two categories that affect people's job-related satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg et al. (1959) stated that the factors which lead to job satisfaction and ultimately motivate an employee to superior performance are advancement, work itself, possibility of growth, recognition, responsibility, and achievement. An important aspect to keep in mind is that in the absence of motivators, employees do not necessarily feel dissatisfied, they are rather "not satisfied" (Ann & Blum, 2020). "Not satisfied" employees are still productive however, they do not invest the time and effort as they would have if they were satisfied (Ann & Blum, 2020). Hygiene factors consist of salaries, interpersonal relationships with peers, company policies, subordinates and supervisors, working conditions, status, job security and personal life (Herzberg et al., 1959). These factors do not lead to job satisfaction, instead they prevent employees from experiencing dissatisfaction, they become "not dissatisfied" (Ann & Blum, 2020). In the absence of hygiene factors, there is reduced productivity by employees and will not remain loyal to the company. Herzberg et al. (1959) further suggest that motivator factors are primarily intrinsic and hygiene factors are primarily extrinsic.

Herzberg's two-factor theory is integrated throughout this study for the purpose of identification and validation to the motivational aspects of employees in organisations (Herzberg et al., 1959). French and Raven's (1959) bases of power model provide six conceptual forms of power which is linked to hygiene and motivator factors in Herzberg's two-factor theory. For instance, reward power used by a leader corresponds to salaries (hygiene factors) as well as advancement (motivator factors) (French & Raven, 1959). Legitimate power corresponds to supervision, company policies and working conditions (hygiene factors) due to the legitimate position a leader holds in an organisation and how they influence the working environment (French & Raven, 1959). Coercive power can be linked to job security (hygiene factors) as some leaders make use of threats of retrenchment as a source of influence. Expert, referent

and informational power can be linked to the possibility of growth (motivator factor) as employees will gain valuable knowledge by working for a leader that has expert knowledge in their respective fields as well as someone they can look up to (French & Raven, 1959). Herzberg's two-factor theory guides the researcher throughout the study with regards to interview questions and interpretation of findings (Lundberg, Gudmundson & Andersson, 2009). Employees explaining why they follow their leader and how it affects their motivational levels validate the effectiveness of Herzberg's theory (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Even though Herzberg's theory has made a significant impact in understanding job satisfaction and employee motivation, many have criticised the findings (Ann & Blum, 2020). Furnham, Forde and Ferrari (1999), Parsons and Broadbride (2006) and Wright (1989) argue that Herzberg's theory is committed that job enrichment, such as achievement, responsibility, advancement and recognition are the only factors that could increase job motivation. Pinder (1998) disagrees with this statement, indicating that hygiene factors such as interpersonal relationships, salary and working conditions can also act as motivators. Lundberg et al. (2009) criticise that a problem exists in the variations in data collection methods such as interviews, questionnaires and behavioural observations as it provides different results. Parsons and Broadbride (2006) state that the theory does not take individual differences of needs and values into account when assessing motivational aspects.

2.3 Themes

2.3.1 Leadership

Leadership is a concept that has been contested for decades, various scholars have provided their own idea of what leadership is (Grint, 2005). However, the definitions might be different, there are main themes derived from them, such as characteristics, qualities and traits that make an individual a leader (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). Haslam, Reicher and Platow (2011) state that leadership is not about getting people to do things, it is about getting people to want to do things by shaping their desires, beliefs and priorities. The aim of leadership is essentially to influence, not secure compliance (Haslam et al., 2011). Yukl (2002) motivates that leadership is a process where an individual has the intention to influence another. Yukl (2010) cited by Iszatt-White and Saunders (2017) acknowledges that there is no true definition of leadership, however there is a concept that encapsulates the meaning, which is influence. Northouse (2010) in support of Yukl's (2002) statement indicate that leadership is a process of mutual goal setting where an individual influences a group to willingly achieve a common goal. Rost (1991) cited by Rost (2008) states that leadership is a relationship of influence amongst leaders and followers who aim to achieve significant changes that represent their mutual goals. What is evident from the various definitions is that leadership cannot exist without the ability to influence.

These definitions provide a focus point for this study, as employees in organisations will follow a leader that is able to influence change for the common goal (Northouse, 2010). Leadership in a South African context focuses on the philosophy of "Ubuntu", meaning "I am because we are" and "I can only be a person through others", unlike the Western philosophy where strong individuals and achievers are valued (Pillay, Subban & Govender, 2013). This creates another focus point as South African employee's follow leader's that show values such as, respect for the dignity of others, teamwork, group solidarity, emphasises harmony and interdependence (Pillay et al., 2013). Alvesson's (2011) cited by Iszatt-White & Saunders (2017) definition of leadership is that it exists in a complex world with many different cultures, social contexts and relationships. Thus, depending on where an employee is in the world, in this case South Africa, leadership will carry a different meaning.

2.3.2 Power, relationships and influence in organisations

Kanter (1979) suggests that power is the ability to utilise resources in order to get things done. According to Anderson and Brion (2014: 69), “power is broadly defined as asymmetric control over valued resources”. These resources can range from anything that individuals deem as valuable, such as information, money and authority (Anderson & Brion, 2014). Kanter (1979) states that power is the result of the hierarchical position an individual holds in an organisation, which gives them control over the resources. Yukl (2010) cited by Iszatt-White and Saunders (2017) further states that power is the absolute capacity of an individual to influence the targeted person or persons behaviour, attitude and perceptions at a certain point in time. As can be seen from the various definitions, powerful leaders control resources in order to influence the subordinates that value them.

Linstead, Fulop and Lilley (2004) indicate that power is present whenever there are relationships between individuals, it is present in social life and in organisations. Vince (2014) contributes further by stating that power relationships are inherently social, where parties depend and follow others with higher power than them in order to avoid punishment and obtain rewards. Rost (2008) states that influence is the ability of a leader to foster trusting relationships and collaborative strategies. Notice how influence and relationships are linked in the concept of power, in a sense that power is used to influence change. Various scholars argue that power and leadership can be distinguished from each other, that powerful individuals do not always act like leaders, based on various definitions on leadership (Anderson & Brion, 2014). However, Van Vugt (2006) highlights that leaders usually have more power than their followers based on the control given to them regarding important decisions, information, and processes. Thus, it can be said that people with power are not always leaders, but leadership is about using the power given to them to establish trusting relationships in an effort to influence change.

Kanter (1979) indicates that powerful leaders tend to delegate tasks, reward talented employees, and assist in the growth of followers. Powerlessness on the other hand creates authoritarian rule. Kanter (1979) argues that powerless’ leaders usually develop an ineffective management team and instil dictatorial rules. The consequence of leaders seeing themselves as weak, with a resisting follower base, is them using

more punishing forms of influence (coercion) (Kanter, 1979). The results are employees losing trust in the leader/follower relationship, thus affecting their motivational levels (Kanter, 1979). Dunn (2008) motivates that good leaders do not need to exercise their power, such as coercion.

Researchers in the 21st century are focusing more on the psychology of power, how power affects individuals in organisations, shifting away from studying power that exist in policies, structures and procedures (Anderson & Brion, 2014).

2.3.3 The bases of power

French and Raven's (1959) bases of power model has been consistently applied to various studies regarding the use of power in organisations. Initially, only five forms of power existed namely, expert, referent, reward, legitimate and coercive power (French & Raven, 1959). These five forms of power have remained unchanged until the end of the 20th century (Elias, 2008). Raven (1993) reviewed the five power bases in their 1959 publication and added a sixth form of power, informational power. A leader would make use of these various resources in order to influence and bring about change in an organisation, which was defined as social power (Raven, 2008).

Reward power

According to French and Raven (1959), reward power is the ability of the influencing agent to influence change through the use of incentives. The value that incentives hold differ between individuals, as some prefer a promotion whilst others would prefer paid leave (Raven, 2008). If there is more value placed on the reward provided by the leader, the attitudes of employees would be more positive which could lead to greater acceptance of the change (Raven, 2008).

Coercive power

French and Raven (1959) indicate that coercive power is similar to reward power as it also involves a form of manipulation to achieve the change. Coercive power is a more forced and unethical approach to influence change which involve the use of threats (demotion, termination) if the individual fails to comply (Raven, 2008). Podsakoff and Schriesheim (1985) argue that coercive power has significant negative affects towards working relationships. Both reward and coercive power involve power that leads to socially dependent change, since it is dependent whether a reward will be given

(promotion, paid leave) or threat for non-compliance (dismissal) (Raven, 2008). Furthermore, reward and coercive power require surveillance by the influencing agent, followers will only comply if they believe that the influencing agent is observing them as the agent will then be able to determine whether compliance has occurred or not (Raven, 2008). The downfall with coercive influence is that employees would do just enough work to avoid punishment (Chesebro, 2014). Similarly, rewards are only effective influencing tactics if they are available, once they are removed, compliance will end (Chesebro, 2014). Wilkinson (1979) cited by Blois and Hopkinson (2013) and many other researchers question whether there is a difference between reward and punishment, since withholding a reward may be deemed as punishment and vice versa

Legitimate power

French and Raven (1959) state that legitimate power involves the targeted person accepting influence from the leader, and the target's obligation to comply with demand or request. The authority to influence usually stem from the position that the leader holds in the organisational hierarchy or their job title (Raven, 2008). Richmond and McCroskey (2009) cited by Chesebro (2014) suggest that this power will influence change only at the compliance level, similar to that of reward and coercive power. According to Beetham (1991) cited by Blois and Hopkinson (2013), the main criticism for this power base is that French and Raven failed to make a clear distinction between legitimacy and the concept of power.

Expert power

Expert power is derived from the leader having or perceived to have superior insight and knowledge regarding a particular situation which their followers accept as valid, influencing changed behaviour (Raven, 2008). E.g. recommendations from a doctor would be followed due to their expertise. With expert power, internalisation is possible as the follower will over time internalise the recommendations provided by the expert (Chesebro, 2014).

Referent power

Referent power is based on the perception a follower has of a leader, where there is admiration and respect for their work ethic including their judgement that followers

want to emulate (Raven, 2008). The greater the attraction and identification with the leader, the more effective the referent power will be (French & Raven, 1959). According to Chesebro (2014), referent power establishes healthy working relationships with others, refraining leaders using reward, coercive and legitimate power. Internalisation is also possible with this power base as followers are inspired to perform for their leader and start operating on their own (Chesebro, 2014). Raven (2008) states that legitimate, expert and referent power can lead to socially dependent change with no surveillance necessary.

As can be seen from the various power bases, expert and referent power provide longer and more efficient change in followers and creates healthy working environments. However, at a certain point, legitimate and reward power may be exercised for short-term results (Raven, 2008).

Informational power

Raven (2008) states that informational power involves an exchange of information between the leader and follower. The follower is given information about a task in such a way that they accept it and behave as recommended by the influencer (Raven, 2008). This is the only power base that can lead to socially independent change where there is no future supervision required (Raven, 2008).

Hard power vs. soft power

Bruins (1997), Raven et al. (1998) and van Knippenberg, Blauw and Vermunt (1999) cited by Pierro et al. (2008) have showcased through sufficient research that the power bases can be characterised as hard or soft power. What distinguishes a power from being hard or soft is the freedom an employee perceives to have in choosing whether to comply or not (Pierro et al., 2008). Hard power such as coercion, legitimate authority and rewards are controlling, coercive and creates unhealthy employee-leader relationships (Pierro et al., 2008). By contrast, informational, expert and referent power are referred to as soft power which lead to greater commitment, empowerment and job satisfaction as employees feel freer to decide whether to accept requests from leaders (Pierro et al., 2008). Thus, using soft power as a means to influence makes sense, it not only builds trust, but motivate followers to go above and beyond the required tasks.

According to Podsakoff and Schriesheim (1985), French and Raven's conceptualisation of power has been included in every survey textbook in the field of organisational behaviour and social psychology. However, many researchers criticised their model due to methodological shortcomings and variations in results obtained from similar studies in the leadership domain (Podsakoff & Schriesheim, 1985). One of those criticisms involve the measure of the French and Raven power bases against the answers given by respondents describing why they adhere to requests from their supervisors (Podsakoff & Schriesheim, 1985). Participants use an attributional referent (why I comply) instead of a behavioural referent (the actions of my supervisor). Thus, data is interpreted as if it was based on the subordinate's perception of supervisory behaviour, but in reality, it is not (Podsakoff & Schriesheim, 1985). Yukl (1981) cited by Podsakoff and Schriesheim (1985) argues that subordinates who are more satisfied are willing to attribute their satisfaction to "socially desirable" power bases used by their supervisors, providing inconclusive evidence due to attributional biases.

2.3.4 The link between employee motivation and power

Geen (1995) cited by Mengel (2008: 111) states that "motivation addresses the initiation, intensity and persistence of human behaviour". Odendaal and Roodt (2001) define organisational motivation as the willingness to exert high levels of effort towards a company's vision. A key to effective leadership is being able to understand and influence the factors that initiate, change, and sustain human behaviour (Mengel, 2008). It can be stated that commitment in the company's direction occurs once an individual can picture themselves in the end result (Odendaal & Roodt, 2001).

Locke and Latham (1990) suggest that specific and challenging goals, achievement, recognition and incentives contribute to the motivational force associated with goal setting. Yukl (2002), in accordance with Locke and Latham (1990) motivate that mutual goal setting along with shared values provide various opportunities for self-actualisation and creates mutual work environments. Bartol and Martin (1998) cited by Dobre (2013) indicate that motivation is a powerful tool that can reinforce employee behaviour. Van den Broeck, Ferris, Chang and Rosen (2016) criticise that very little comparative research has been done with regards to basic psychological needs, not only against other needs but also against constructs from various other motivational

theories. As can be seen from the definitions, motivation is dependent on the needs of the individual and by identifying these needs, organisations can structure their goals to present opportunities for individuals to achieve them.

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are concepts that have been widely studied by motivational theorists, giving rise to various controversial issues regarding what constitutes as intrinsic and extrinsic motives (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Intrinsic motivation

Amabile, Hill, Hennessey and Tighe (1994) state that intrinsic motivation is about engaging in the work for the sake of it, as the work is enriching, self-determination, interesting and in some form satisfying. Ryan and Deci (2000) agree and further state that intrinsic motivation is about performing certain tasks due to the challenge of it, rather than external pressures or rewards. According to Dobre (2013), rewards have the capacity to motivate individuals towards greater performance, particularly in production companies however, the motivation is more short term, and it can deteriorate the attitudes of employees. Ryan and Deci (2000) argue that extrinsic rewards can undermine intrinsic motivation. Deci and Cascio (1972), Amabile, DeJong and Lepper (1976), Koestner, Ryan, Bernieri and Holt (1984) and Reeve and Deci (1996) cited by Ryan and Deci (2000) further state that in conjunction with tangible rewards, threats, deadlines, directives as well as competitive pressures hinder intrinsic motivation due to people perceiving them as controllers of behaviour. As can be seen from reward and coercive power, forcing an individual to change, either withholding rewards or coercing influence, deteriorate employee motivation and work relationships (Raven, 2008). Zuckerman, Porac, Lathin, Smith and Deci (1978) cited by Ryan and Deci (2000) indicate that choice and the opportunity for self-direction, enhances intrinsic motivation as people gain a sense of autonomy. The most important aspect to remember about intrinsic motivation is that it only occurs for activities that the individual deems as interesting, such as the appeal of challenge, novelty or aesthetic value that an activity holds (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Extrinsic motivation

Amabile et al. (1994) by contrast, define extrinsic motivation as the motivation to work based on factors other than the work itself, such as recognition, rewards, and the power over others. Moreover, Kruglanski (1975) and Lepper and Greene (1978) cited

by Pierro et al. (2008) suggest that extrinsic motivation is primarily linked to work performance and a tangible outcome. There is however confusion around the topic of what constitutes as extrinsically motivated work (Ryan & Deci, 2000). E.g. a student working to avoid parental sanctions is extrinsically motivated, whereas a student working based on belief that it would yield greater career advancements is also extrinsically motivated (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Even though the latter involves personal choice, it is still instrumental rather than interest. Thus, it is pertinent that reward power would yield positive results towards influencing an extrinsically motivated employee in an organisation, but it will not be sustainable (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Motivational outcomes as a result of power

The assumption is made that compliance with hard bases of power is linked to utilitarian motives (performing to gain a reward or to avoid punishment) which is clearly extrinsic motivation (Pierro et al., 2008). By contrast, complying with soft power bases would relate to motives that are closer to intrinsic motivation (performing as the work itself is rewarding) (Pierro et al., 2008). Koslowsky and Schwarzwald (2001) and Pierro and Raven (2006) cited by Pierro et al. (2008) suggest that soft power tactics, compared to hard power tactics provide more positive outcomes due to the choice that followers have. Raven (1993) emphasised that personal motivator factors (rewards, recognition, advancement, etc.) would influence both the power chosen by the leader and the willingness to comply by the follower. Whereas Bui, Raven and Schwarzwald (1994), Koslowsky and Schwarzwald (1993) and Schwarzwald and Koslowsky (1999) cited by Pierro et al. (2008) focused more on the factors that influenced the leader to select a certain power, neglecting how followers would respond to the chosen power strategy.

2.4 Critical assessment

To conclude, employees are a critical resource in organisations and maintaining this resource, similar to how a business would take care of its tangible assets, is vital for long-term success (Dobre, 2013). A concept that is heavily focused on throughout this review is motivation as it is the driving force for employees in achieving a company's vision (Odendaal & Roodt, 2001). Thus, employee motivational triggers need to be identified by leaders in order to select the most appropriate power base that would support the needs of employees, whether they are intrinsic (soft power) or extrinsic (hard power) (Pierro et al., 2008). Through the various definitions of leadership provided by scholars, it is clear that effective leaders influence change by shaping the beliefs and goals of employees so that they fit those of the organisation (Yukl, 2002). By making use of the various power bases, influence can be achieved, however for change to be sustainable, expert, referent and informational power (soft power) will be most suitable and it will assist in developing healthy working relationships (Raven, 2008).

3. Research design and methodology

3.1 Paradigm

According to Guba (1990), a paradigm can be defined as a basic set of beliefs that guides action. Nieuwenhuis (2020a) further states that a paradigm can be regarded as a lens through which a researcher interprets reality and what they think about the world. For the purpose of this study, an interpretivist paradigm has been utilised by the researcher as the aim was to describe meaningful social action (du Plooy-Cilliers, 2014). Myers (1997) cited by Kelliher (2005) states that interpretivism is concerned with the uniqueness of a particular situation, where contextual depth is provided. Thanh and Thanh (2015) suggest that the interpretive paradigm provides a complete worldview through the experiences and perceptions of participants. It was the most appropriate paradigm for this study as it aimed to identify the perceptions followers have of their leader's use of various power and how it influences their motivation (Peyton et al., 2018). Willis (2007) indicates that interpretivists seek to understand a certain context, thus reality in the interpretive paradigm is socially constructed. The organisational context of employees has influenced how the researcher viewed and interpreted the knowledge that was gathered (Willis, 2007).

This paradigm was used in order to gain an in-depth understanding of employee experiences in an organisation and how a leader utilises power as a resource for influence (Kelliher, 2005). Willis (2007) further states that interpretive research is more focused on subjective experiences of participants than objective knowledge, arguing that interpretivists value subjectivity, as opposed to a positivist approach where truth and reason is valued. Thus, there were no right or wrong answers that employees gave during interviews. How they view their situation and the type of relationship that exists between them and their leader is subjective, thus it was valued in this study (Nieuwenhuis, 2020a). What the world means to the individual or group being researched is of critical importance in social sciences (Willis, 2007).

Qualitative methods such as case studies, observation and interviews are favoured by interpretivists due to them providing a deeper understanding of how people interpret the world (Willis, 2007). Hence, a qualitative approach has been used with in-depth interviews as part of the data collection process to identify and understand from the employee's perspective what motivated and demotivated them (Willis, 2007).

Interpretivists seek to understand the phenomena through the experiences of others however, the researcher's personal knowledge, values, beliefs and experience filtered what was understood, in the case of this study it determined what is motivation for an employee and the role that power plays (Nieuwenhuis, 2020a).

3.2 Approach and design

A qualitative approach has been used for the purpose of this study (Nieuwenhuis, 2020a). Strydom and Bezuidenhout (2014) state that qualitative studies focus on the subjective experiences and meanings related to a specific phenomenon. Neuman (2011) suggests that qualitative researchers aim to capture meaningful details in a social setting in order to convey the views and feelings of individuals or groups. Qualitative researchers provide a 'thick description' of subjective experiences, where the focus is on how individuals interact and behave in their environment (Neuman, 2011). Thus, the researcher used a qualitative approach as the aim was to understand and explore an employee's experience in an organisation and how power influences their motivation (Nieuwenhuis, 2020a). This research study was exploratory in nature (Nieuwenhuis, 2020a). Stebbins (2001) states that researchers explore when there is little to no knowledge about a specific phenomenon. Thus, the objective for a qualitative exploratory researcher was to unearth key issues such as power bases in order to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon (motivation) (Stebbins, 2001). According to Nieuwenhuis (2020a), exploratory studies are usually based on an inductive approach, working towards generating a theory rather than using an established one to create a set of hypotheses. However, the purest inductive design is grounded theory, which is developing a theory grounded in data that is systematically gathered and evaluated (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Thus, for the purpose of this study, an inductive approach has been used due to the exploratory question of understanding a phenomenon, rather than stating a set of hypotheses to test a theory (Elliot & Timulak, 2007). Although a theory (Herzberg's two-factor theory) has guided the researcher to answer the research questions and achieve the objectives, the theory has not been used to prove a statement as the data collection process included questions regarding the experiences of employees to identify meaning, thus not entirely about motivation (Stebbins, 2001).

A phenomenological design has been utilised for this study. According to Nieuwenhuis (2020a), phenomenological studies focus on the meaning that experiences hold for participants, what it means to them and how it can be described. Thus, the focus was how employees experience the workplace and make sense of it (Nieuwenhuis, 2020a). Seeing the world through the eyes of employees in organisations has truly provided meaning to this study.

This study has been conducted based on the ontological position. The ontological position states that interpretivists see the world as fluid as it constantly changes when people's perceptions change (du Plooy-Cilliers, 2014). With regards to ontology, reality is thus subjective and created through human interaction, and in the case of this study, it was leader/employee relationships (du Plooy-Cilliers, 2014). These relationships can change when new managers are introduced in organisations.

3.3 Population

Wiid and Diggins (2013) cited by Pascoe (2014) state that a population is the entire group of individuals or objects that will be utilised for data collection.

Target population: Employees working under supervision in any organisation within Kwazulu-Natal.

Accessible population: any employee working in Durban or in the Durban suburbs that is available for interviewing (Pascoe, 2014).

Population parameters:

- *Nature:* People
- *Size:* Employees working in Durban or Durban suburbs
- *Unique characteristics:* Must be working for someone and not self-employed

3.4 Sampling

Unit of analysis: Employees (individuals) who work under the supervision of a manager.

A sample can be defined as a subset of a population that is deemed representative of the population (Pascoe, 2014). The sample size for the purpose of this study was three. The number of elements (people) required for a qualitative study is usually much lower than that of a quantitative study but it should still be able to describe the

phenomenon and answer the research questions (Pascoe, 2014). The sample size for this study was small enough in order to gain rich and accurate information (Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). Romney, Weller and Batchelder (1986) cited by Nieuwenhuis (2020b) support this statement, indicating that samples as small as four individuals can produce extremely accurate information. Data saturation assisted in determining the sample size that adequately explained the phenomenon (Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). Morse (1994) cited by Nieuwenhuis (2020b) provides guidelines in terms of sample sizes, suggesting that a phenomenological study should include at least six participants. However, Patton (1990) argues that there are no actual rules for determining the sample size in qualitative studies as it depends on what the researcher wants to know, the purpose and what would be useful.

Non-probability Sampling has been utilised for this research study. As stated by Pascoe (2014: 137), "Non-probability sampling is used when it is nearly impossible to determine who the entire population is or when it is difficult to gain access to the entire population". Furthermore, non-probability sampling methods are mostly used in qualitative studies as the aim is not statistical generalisation (Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). Thus, the researcher deemed it appropriate to use non-probability sampling due to the difficulty of accessing the entire population.

Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling method that was used for this study. This method has been utilised as the participants were known to the researcher and the researcher was able to gain quick access to them, as the name suggests (Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). The researcher is situated in Umhlanga, a Durban suburb and the employees that were interviewed were known by the researcher and work in Durban or in the Durban suburbs (Nieuwenhuis, 2020b).

The recruitment method that has been used for this study was the people that are known by the researcher, hence convenience sampling (Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). However, they were contacted telephonically over WhatsApp (messaging service) to set interview dates. Consent forms were sent and received over email.

3.5 Data collection method

In-depth interviews were conducted for the purpose of this study (Strydom & Bezuidenhout, 2014). Strydom and Bezuidenhout (2014) state that in-depth interviews are a qualitative data collection tool that allows the researcher to ask questions to

participants with the purpose of obtaining their beliefs, opinions and perspectives regarding a certain phenomenon. This method was beneficial for this study as it allowed the researcher to observe non-verbal reactions, receive detailed information, opportunities for clarification as well as flexibility (Strydom & Bezuidenhout, 2014). The in-depth interviews assisted the researcher in obtaining the beliefs, views, opinions, experience, and perspectives of participants in relation to the powers that their managers used (French & Raven, 1959). In response to the COVID-19 (coronavirus) pandemic, face-to-face interviews were replaced with online video calls (Zoom), due to the lockdown regulations implemented by the South African government as well as the health and safety precautions that were taken to minimise contact between individuals (South African Government, 2020). However, non-verbal reactions were still observable as it was conducted over a video call, allowing the interviewer to observe facial reactions. What proved to be beneficial for this method was that the video interviews were recorded, allowing the researcher to analyse the interview in much more depth than it would have been over a voice recording.

The researcher asked a set of standardised open-ended questions during the in-depth interviews which provided information that assisted the data analysis process, in terms of comparing the experience, views and opinions of other participants in a workplace (Strydom & Bezuidenhout, 2014). This interview method takes the form of a conversation, with follow-up questions that allowed the researcher to explore the participants beliefs and attitudes toward a specific phenomenon, in this case, motivation (Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). The same set of open-ended questions were asked to all participants. Each participant answered the set of open-ended questions with the longest interview being thirty-minutes and the other two averaged at eighteen-minutes.

Fortunately, the researcher did not encounter any ethical issues when the interviews were carried out, providing consistency to the whole process. However, the researcher has encountered connectivity issues with the second participant being interviewed, increasing the time of the interview significantly, but the actual conversation time was thirty-minutes. The first interview was conducted during 'load shedding', implemented by Eskom to reduce electricity consumption (Eskom, 2020). The researcher ensured that interviews were recorded on a primary and a secondary source to minimise disruption.

The researcher followed the six in-depth interview stages presented by Legard, Keegan and Ward (2003).

Firstly, the participants arrived at the location where the interviews were conducted (Legard et al., 2003). Due to various restrictions, interviews were conducted over online video calls. Before formal interview questions were asked, the researcher had informal conversations with all participants, establishing trusting relationships.

Secondly, the researcher controlled the interview and ensured that all participants were relaxed (Legard et al., 2003). Formalities, such as confidentiality and permissions were discussed with each participant before the formal interview questions were asked. Participants were informed that they are not obligated to participate. All participants signed consent forms prior to the interviews.

Thirdly, when all the formalities were done, the interview began (Legard et al., 2003). The researcher started each interview by asking all the participants their age, area of residence and duration of employment, appropriate to the research population, which provided opportunities for follow-up questions.

Fourthly, general principles were described that helped shape the interview (Legard et al., 2003). Questions involving motivators, feelings and overall experiences were asked by the researcher which allowed the participants to express deeper meaning and thoughts on the subject matter (Legard et al., 2003).

Fifthly, the interview was concluded, and final questions were asked (Legard et al., 2003). The researcher signalled in each interview whenever the last question was asked, stating “lastly”. Following all the main questions, the researcher asked a final question for each participant, “is there anything else you would like to add?”. Even though no participants provided additional information to this question, it was still necessary to ask as vital information might not have been mentioned by the participants.

Finally, the researcher switched off the recording device and expressed gratitude (Legard et al., 2003). At the end of each interview, the researcher expressed his gratitude by stating, “thank you for your time and effort”. The researcher also reassured confidentiality and how the data will be utilised.

3.6 Data analysis method

Following the data collection process, the recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim by the researcher. Poland (1995) cited by Halcomb and Davidson (2006) defines verbatim transcription as a word-for-word reproduction of verbal data, where the words written is precise to that of a recording, including non-verbal cues (silences) as well as emotions (laughs). This transcribing method was used for this study as it brought the researcher closer to the data from interviews, proving beneficial as this study follows a phenomenological design (Halcomb & Davidson, 2006).

A thematic analysis has been utilised for this study as it allowed the researcher to identify patterns of themes in data gathered from in-depth interviews. Nowell, Norris, White and Moules (2017) suggest that it can also be used as a translator for those speaking the languages of qualitative and quantitative analysis. This analysis was beneficial for the researcher and the study as it provided different perspectives of participants as well as summarising key features of large data sets (Nowell et al., 2017). This method also provided the researcher with contrasting views in terms of what motivated the participants, as two of the three participants had positive motivational experiences based on the fact of having a job and the growth opportunities thereof, linking it to the purpose of the study (Herzberg et al., 1959). Braun and Clarke (2006) state that it is a method that can be used to identify, analyse, organise, describe and report themes discovered in the data set.

The raw data collected from in-depth interviews were analysed based on an inductive approach, which can be linked to the thematic analysis (Thomas, 2006). According to Thomas (2006), the aim of an inductive approach is to allow research findings to emerge as themes from raw data without structured methods, specifically for qualitative research. Thus, this approach was appropriate for this study as the researcher was unaware of what the findings would be (Thomas, 2006). The categories that were developed encapsulated the raw data which formed key themes.

A thematic analysis includes the following steps (Nowell et al., 2017).

1. Familiarise with the data
2. Generating initial codes
3. Search for patterns or themes
4. Review themes

5. Define and name themes
6. Produce report

The *first* step was familiarising with the data, which was achieved by the researcher immersing with the data in order to familiarise the depth and breadth of the information (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The researcher actively re-read each transcription with a focus of identifying any relevant meaning. Notes were made on the side of each transcript to signal patterns.

The *second* step was about producing initial codes from the data that has been scrutinised (Braun & Clarke, 2006). According to Morse and Richards (2002) cited by Nowell et al. (2017), researchers will move away from the scattered data to the development of ideas about what the data portrays. During the coding process, the researcher highlighted important sections of the data set and attached labels to index them whenever they were related to a theme (King, 2004). A “good code” is described by Boyatzis (1998) cited by Nowell et al. (2017) as one that expresses the qualitative richness of a specific phenomenon. The researcher followed the two-step method of open and axial coding to identify the most basic units of meaning from the raw data (Blair, 2015). Blair (2015) describes open coding as a means of attaching a summary word or sentence to sections of the transcribed interviews in order to draw out meaning. The researcher analysed each data set and attached meanings to relevant sections of data. There was an average of 53 codes for the two interviews that averaged eighteen minutes, where the longest interview of thirty minutes had 93 codes. The most popular codes identified were ‘experience’, ‘knowledge’, ‘feeling of belonging’ and ‘friendship’. Scott and Medaugh (2017) define axial coding as a follow-up process from open coding, where large amounts of coded data are categorised in order to identify relationships between codes. Relationships amongst codes were identified by the researcher and grouped within categories. E.g. ‘personal gain’, ‘gained knowledge’ and ‘continuous learning’ was grouped into a single axial code.

The researcher proceeded to the *third* step which involved categorising the different codes into potential themes, analysing how different codes can be combined to form a single theme (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The researcher numbered each code and grouped them into different word documents, which made it easier to reapply codes to similar data segments. ‘Interpersonal relationships’ was one of the themes that

emerged from two of the three participants as they clearly discussed how their relationships with their managers improved their work performance, where the other participant provided contrasting views.

The *fourth* step involved refining the themes that have been allocated for the codes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Refinement consists of identifying themes that do not possess the necessary data to be considered a legitimate theme (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Reviewing involves two levels, reviewing whether the extracts for each theme form a logical pattern and considering the validity of individual themes according to the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The researcher analysed the logical patterns for each theme and identified any additional codes that were later grouped into existing themes. Themes such as 'organisational structure and culture' and 'support and professionalism' was grouped into 'personal relationships' and 'knowledge sharing' respectively.

The researcher moved on to step *five* when there was an adequate map of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The aim of this step was to define and refine the themes that were presented in the final thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The researcher wrote a detailed analysis for each individual theme and identified the story of each theme and how they fit in the overall story (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The researcher also provided concise and clear names for each theme that would give an immediate indication to the reader of what the theme entails (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The final themes included, 'Mutual recognition respect', 'The association between knowledge sharing and managerial experience', 'Interpersonal relationships and employee performance' and 'It's not about the money'.

The *sixth* and final step of the analysis was producing the report after all the themes were finalised (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The purpose of the thematic analysis was to convey a complicated story in such a way that the reader will grasp the potential of the analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Ensuring that the analysis provided a clear and interesting story, the researcher included examples which supplemented the explanation (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Each theme was supported with scholarly definitions to provide academic richness. The themes were also linked to the two-factor theory of Herzberg et al. (1959) and the bases of power model of French and Raven (1959).

4. Findings and interpretation of findings

4.1 Participants

Three participants were interviewed for the purpose of this study and their names, company names as well as their physical address will not be shared in terms of confidentiality. Participant A, Jack (Pseudonym) is a 22-year old white male, residing in the city of Durban. He is currently working as a cricket coach at a coaching company. He has been working at the company for two years. He previously coached at a high school for two years.

Participant B, Ryan (Pseudonym) is a 22-year old white male, residing in Amanzimtoti, a Durban suburb. He is currently working as a category space planner for a retail company. He has been working at the company for seven months. He previously worked at a promotion company for three years and as an assistant cutter at a warehouse for two months.

Participant C, John (Pseudonym) is a 22-year old white male, residing in Durban North. He is currently working as a waiter and delivery man for a restaurant. He has been working at the restaurant for one year and nine months. He previously worked as a soccer coach for two years.

4.2 Thematic analysis

From the thematic analysis, four themes appeared. Noteworthy data emerged from the analysis with emphasis on aspects relating to the research question. The four themes are mutual recognition respect, the association between knowledge sharing and managerial experience, interpersonal relationships and employee performance and it's not about the money.

4.2.1 Theme 1: Mutual recognition respect

All three participants felt that being valued as an individual in an organisation and treated as equal improved their self-esteem significantly, which resulted in higher performance levels. Clarke and Mahadi (2017) define mutual recognition respect as individuals being recognised as autonomous moral agents with integrity that demands equal and fair treatment. Jack stated the following in relation to mutual recognition respect:

“Just to be treated with respect for my knowledge and don’t like, not to be undermined. So, never treat me like ‘I know more’ just because... Like, he thinks I’m young or something like that. So, uh, I like a relationship where I’m given the respect that’s due because, I know that I’ve played high levels of cricket, I’ve got the experience I need to coach... A certain level of cricket. So, just the respect from the employer is a vital one for me”.

Managers seldom treat employees as if they are less worthy in an organisation due to the position they hold (Reina, Rogers, Peterson, Byron & Hom, 2018). As can be seen from Jack’s response is that there are no special requirements to being treated however, being treated equally and respected for their knowledge and abilities makes a difference. Liden and Maslyn (1998) state that professional respect is respect for an individual’s capabilities. Ryan provided a similar response:

“Absolutely, and that’s a big one for an employee because, one putting in a lot of hard work. Um, and that work being identified and appreciated... Is a massive accomplishment, I would say. Not only, well, internally and emotionally for the employee. It’s more like a driving factor for the employee”.

Ryan’s response can be linked to the statement of Clarke and Mahadi (2017), suggesting that employees would be driven to achieve more if they are appreciated

for their efforts, which coincides with the degree of respect shown by their managers. John provided a different perspective:

“If I’m getting treated badly, I’m going to sort of treat my job badly. Definitely depends on the managers attitude towards me, whether I do the job exceptionally”.

What John essentially means is that being valued determines his work performance, in a sense that respect and recognition forms the overarching foundation of workplace treatment. Clarke and Mahadi (2017) mention that individuals who are recognised and respected become motivated to serve and satisfy the needs of the other party.

Mutual recognition respect links to the two-factor theory of Herzberg et al. (1959), particularly recognition as a factor that leads to job satisfaction and ultimately motivates employees to improved job performance. What is evident from John’s experience is that it contradicts with the statement provided by Ann and Blum (2020), suggesting that the absence of motivators would not make employees dissatisfied. It is clear that John would suffer reduced performance if those motivators are absent, specifically recognition as he would treat his job badly. With regards to French and Raven’s (1959) bases of power, referent power is clearly evident in this theme as the participants admire their manager’s work ethic which includes values, respect and recognition.

4.2.2 Theme 2: The association between knowledge sharing and managerial experience

A theme that further emerged from the analysis is the association between knowledge sharing and managerial experience. Participants, Jack and Ryan perceived to be experiencing higher levels of knowledge acquisition in relation to the experience of their managers. Their managers have twenty-eight and thirteen years-experience respectively, whereas John’s manager only has three years-experience. However, John showcased similar benefits to that of Jack and Ryan irrespective of the difference in the number of years-experience. As stated by Bartol and Srivastava (2002), there has not yet been an agreement between scholars for a definition of knowledge sharing however, knowledge is facts, ideas, information and expertise when if shared,

organisational productivity improves. Jack shared his experience of knowledge sharing, stating:

“The fact that he included us in decision making, it made me feel a part of the organisation and a part of decisions that are important and vital for the organisation in its daily running. It’s very informative. Um, I would think that I’ve learned a lot, um, coaching under him”.

A noteworthy aspect from Jack’s response is that experienced managers tend to include employees in decision making processes as they know they would gain valuable knowledge from it, as Dong, Bartol, Zhang and Li (2017) mentioned it would improve organisational performance. Ryan explains that inclusion broadens the view and understanding of what can be achieved from the manager’s experience in different roles, stating:

“And he has been in different job positions within the company. So, he understands... Different sides to the company and um... what each job requires in different fields of the company... So, he was able to give me insight. Um, from different fields and different perspectives.”

The difference between Jack and Ryan’s experience is that Jack was actually included in decision-making processes that would prove to be vital, especially from a knowledge acquisition perspective. John’s knowledge sharing experience was more situational as his manager would provide him with a solution rather than an explanation or integration, as John mentioned:

“Situations that I haven’t faced before, um, he’s definitely, probably faced them. I would always go to him if I’m stuck with anything and he’ll, he’ll give me an answer”.

What can be drawn from John’s statement is that the more experienced a manager is, the more likely they would include employees in decision making processes as well as other perspectives as they acknowledge the benefits that knowledge sharing entails.

The association between knowledge sharing and managerial experience links to the two-factor theory of Herzberg et al. (1959), particularly the possibility of growth which is one of the motivators of the theory. This relation is based on the possibility of growth that can be achieved when employees receive knowledge from experienced

managers, resulting in them growing in the organisation and individually. French and Raven's (1959) bases of power, specifically expert power can be linked to the participant's managers due to them having exceptional managerial experience and knowledge. The knowledge that they share would be regarded as valid, influencing their behaviour (French & Raven, 1959).

4.2.3 Theme 3: Interpersonal relationships and employee performance

Another theme that emerged from the analysis is interpersonal work relationships and employee performance as all three participants felt that they have a personal connection with their managers, which resulted in improved motivation and overall performance, particularly Jack and John (participant A & C). Muhammad, Toryila and Saanyol (2018) defined interpersonal relationships as a strong association between individuals who work in the same organisation together. As can be seen from Jack's experience, a friendship between manager and employee established over time:

"Two-three months in, we started forming, um more friendship... Um, cause to be honest I have played against him... Um, with sport [Laughs], prior to the employment. But yeah so it just progressed into more of a friendship and... Um, like our conversations would more and more progress to be informal. Um, so he allowed me to be a lot more flexible. Um, as being compared to like a formal job".

Formal and strict organisations tend to restrict employee movement, hindering them from achieving their full potential. Muhammad et al. (2018) mentioned that friendships at work improves the attitudes of employees such as job commitment, job satisfaction and overall support. Jack's manager provides flexibility and freedom of movement in order for the team to function to the best of their ability as there is a strong connection between employee and manager. Ryan's relationship with his manager is more formal, however it is still supportive in nature as can be seen from a friendship:

"But he will always get back to me and he will always be helpful. Uh, and assist where he can. Yes, so, I would say it's considered a good relationship... And uh... It's a positive one as well. There's a, I want to say a positive working atmosphere in the offices amongst employees, including the manager."

A manager that establishes a connection with his employees results in a culture that is driven to achieve more as they can relate themselves to the person overseeing their actions (Reina et al., 2018). John's experience supports this statement as he perceives the friendship as mutual in terms of performance, stating:

"He is a friend and so he is my manager of course and I, I do want to make him happy. Um, but I don't want him to have to carry my weight around the restaurant. I want to obviously do my job well so he can do well. That's why I go the extra mile".

What is evident from John's statement is that an interpersonal relationship would motivate employees to perform better as they know it affects the managers results towards achieving organisational goals.

Interpersonal relationships and employee performance encapsulate employee motivation derived from relationships within a workplace which can be linked to Herzberg's et al. (1959) two-factor theory, particularly interpersonal relationships with peers as a hygiene factor. Ann and Blum (2020) motivate that hygiene factors would not lead to job satisfaction, however the absence of them would reduce employee productivity and loyalty. Furthermore, this theme also links to French and Raven's (1959) bases of power, specifically referent power, as Chesebro (2014) mentions that referent power would allow managers to establish healthy working relationships with others.

4.2.4 Theme 4: It's not about the money

It's not about the money means that employees are not only motivated based on monetary aspects, such as salaries and bonuses, essentially extrinsic motivation as stated by Amabile et al. (1994), but on the sheer fact of having a job and being exposed to more opportunities for growth. Thus, this theme is directly related to intrinsic motivation, defined by Amabile et al. (1994) as motivation that is about engaging in work processes for the sake of it. All three participants felt that they valued the work more than additional benefits as it is what they wanted to achieve in the first place. Jack clearly explains from his perspective what truly motivated him:

"I would always try to do a little bit extra, just cause, I was motivated to give my all and it felt like I was a part of the organisation".

What is evident from Jack's response is that he works harder just because he is part of the organisation and what it stands for. Employees would go further than completing their normal daily tasks as they are motivated to show their worth and justify why they are the right people for the job, as they previously did to earn their position (Dobre, 2013). Dobre (2013) motivated that rewards have the capacity to influence greater performance, however the motivation would only be short term. Ryan's perspective supports this statement, indicating that rewards still provide a degree of motivation, but it is not the primary source:

"Personal gain on that is, is massive. Besides the organisational hierarchy climb. Being a part of something bigger. Obviously, the reward in the form of a salary is, plays a big part of it, um... But I want to say for most, for the most part it is the team and the people that you work with".

An aspect that also emerged from Ryan's response is the culture of the organisation and how it increases the job satisfaction of employees, together with the position that they hold. It is also clear that salaries are part of an employee's employment package, thus it is accepted as a basic condition (Baker, Jensen & Murphy, 1988). Baker et al. (1988) argue that an organisation which establishes a money hungry culture will only produce people chasing money, lowering intrinsic interest. John's experience differs from Jack and Ryan as he felt that his motivation has not increased from the work itself, stating:

"I wouldn't say it has improved. I think it stayed the same because I wanted the job, originally. The motivation has stayed the same throughout the whole time I, I worked there".

John's response contradicts the statement of Amabile et al. (1994), regarding intrinsic motivation. However, he does mention that he experienced motivation since he joined the restaurant. The only difference is that it has not improved.

This theme can be linked to intrinsic motivation as discussed in the introduction, as it involves motivation that is derived from work due to it being enriching, interesting and satisfying (Amabile et al., 1994). It also links to Herzberg's et al. (1959) two-factor theory, particularly the work itself as a motivator factor that could lead to job satisfaction, ultimately motivating employees towards superior performance. It is evident that their managers used legitimate power from French and Raven's (1959)

bases of power as there is an organisational hierarchy based on the position they hold within the organisation, obligating them to adhere to the tasks established by management.

4.3 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness ensures that the research findings is understood as legitimate by both the researcher and the public (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Lincoln and Guba (1985) provide various criteria in order to parallel the validity and reliability of quantitative studies, which is credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

Credibility: Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest that credibility is equivalent to internal validity in quantitative research. As stated by Lincoln and Guba (1985), credibility is the accuracy with regards to the interpretation of the data gathered from participants. It is concerned with the truth behind the interpretation (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). The researcher ensured that the data provided by the participants is accurately analysed and concluded, free from bias (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Member check has been utilised by the researcher which is to discuss the data interpretations and conclusions with those whom the interviews were conducted (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This significantly improved the credibility as the respondents confirmed the truth from their perspective (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Transferability: Korstjens and Moser (2018) define transferability as the degree to which the results of the study can be transferred to similar circumstances and provide similar results. The focus point is applicability (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). It allows for generalisation within a similar approach however, only for a case-to-case transfer, not to generalise for the wider population as it is a qualitative study (Nowell et al., 2017). The individuals or sites that will transfer the findings will be unknown to the researcher (Nowell et al., 2017). The researcher has ensured that a thick description of the research process and participants were provided to allow the reader to decide whether the findings can be transferred to their own situation (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). The description includes, the context of the study, population size and parameters, sample, sample size, sampling method and data-collection method used as well as changes to the interviewing process due to changing circumstances (Korstjens & Moser, 2018).

Dependability: Lincoln and Guba (1985) define dependability as a transparent integration between the data collection method, the analysis of the data and the

reporting of the findings. Tobin and Begley (2004) suggest that dependability can be achieved by ensuring that the research process is logical, traceable and documented. Similar to reliability in quantitative studies, emphasis is placed on consistency (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). The strategy that the researcher utilised to ensure dependability is an audit trail (Tobin & Begley, 2004). The audit trail will provide readers with evidence regarding the theoretical and methodological decisions made by the researcher (Nowell et al., 2017). The researcher has kept records of raw data as well as a reflexive journal which supported the reporting process (Nowell et al., 2017).

Confirmability: Confirmability can be compared to objectivity in quantitative studies (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to Tobin and Begley (2004), confirmability is concerned with the legitimacy of the interpretations, ensuring that the findings are clearly based on the data. Lincoln and Guba (1989) cited by Nowell et al. (2017) state that confirmability is established when all-of-the above-mentioned criteria is achieved. The researcher has demonstrated confirmability through clear and detailed reporting on the research processes, ensuring that a future researcher would obtain similar results if the process is to be repeated (Shenton, 2004). This will allow future readers to measure the extent to which proper research practices have been followed (Shenton, 2004).

5. Conclusion

5.1 Addressing the research question and objective

The research problem led to the researcher establishing a set of objectives that would assist in answering the research question and sub-question

1. What effects would the various power bases have on employee motivation?

All three participants had positive motivational experiences in relation to the powers that their managers used. There were three power bases identified in the analysis namely, referent, expert, and legitimate power (French & Raven, 1959). There was a clear indication that referent power resulted in job satisfaction, increasing motivational levels overall. The participants valued recognition and had a personal connection with their managers, specifically Jack and John, which resulted in them being motivated to improved performance (Herzberg et al., 1959). The participants experienced increased motivation from the expert power that their managers utilised as they shared their knowledge with them, allowing them to grow within the organisation and individually (Dobre, 2013). There was also a positive link between employee motivational levels and legitimate power as they felt that having a position within the organisation motivated them to improved performance, opposed to John who did not experience increased motivation (Herzberg et al., 1959). The most noteworthy result from this study is that participants Jack and John (A & C), experienced increased levels of motivation from the relationships they have with their managers, contradicting Herzberg's et al. (1959) two-factor theory. The theory suggested that interpersonal relationships with peers would not lead to job satisfaction and increased motivation however, it is clear that Jack and John experienced quite the opposite, being more motivated. Thus, from the analysis, referent power has the most positive impact on an employee's motivation.

2. Do employees experience more than one power base in an organisation?

From the thematic analysis, it is evident that the participants experienced more than one power base used by their managers (French & Raven, 1959). Firstly, referent power was utilised by all the managers of the participants as they admired and respected their work ethic and values, establishing healthy working relationships (French & Raven, 1959). Secondly, expert power emerged from the analysis as the participants stated that their managers had experience and knowledge in their

respective lines of work, where knowledge was acquired and integrated by participants. Finally, legitimate power was used by all the managers of the participants as they occupied a legitimate position in the organisation 'manager' which provided them with authority, obligating the participants to comply with demands or requests (French & Raven, 1959).

What is important to note about the results are that they cannot be generalised to the wider population, as other employees may experience other sources of power from their managers, which would decrease their motivation significantly, with reference to coercive power (French & Raven, 1959).

5.2 Implications of findings for future practices

There are various implications that the findings have for future practices. Firstly, the findings indicated that being valued as an individual in an organisation and treated as equal improves employee self-esteem significantly, which results in higher performance levels (Clarke & Mahadi, 2017). Managers and leaders of an organisation can make use of this information to guide them in terms of employee treatment that leads to optimal performance. Secondly, the findings also illustrated that two of the three participants experienced higher levels of knowledge acquisition in relation to the experience that their managers had (Bartol & Srivastava, 2002). From an employee's perspective, it can assist them in identifying the right organisation where they would benefit the most in terms of knowledge acquisition. Thirdly, the findings showcased that interpersonal work relationships improved employee performance as they want to go the 'extra mile' due to the friendships they have (Muhammad et al., 2018). From an organisational perspective, having appropriate socialising initiatives might improve overall cohesion within a company. Finally, the findings stipulate that money is not the main motivator for employees (Amabile et al., 1994). Having a job and more growth opportunities are what they value the most. Companies might use this information to adapt their reward systems by providing education and training initiatives as a means of reward.

This study will provide minimal contribution to the leadership body of knowledge as it only included three participants, rendering the results simplistic. However, the participants work in different industries which gives an indication to what can be expected for future employees and managers. The findings also have the possibility

to improve the understanding of the powers that motivate and how it can be utilised for optimal performance (French & Raven, 1959).

5.3 Evaluation of research success and possible future studies

The research can be considered successful in the following ways. The research questions and objectives of this study has been answered and achieved as the researcher was able to identify the various power bases that the participant's experienced namely, referent, expert and legitimate power and how they positively influenced the motivation of the employees (French & Raven, 1959). From a qualitative/interpretive perspective, meaningful details were captured by the researcher during the in-depth interviews, specifically the participant's experiences, perspectives, views and beliefs of motivation and their manager's conduct (Neuman, 2011). The research was also successful in addressing the request of Jungert et al. (2013) for a more in-depth analysis of how intrinsic motivation can be positively influenced through the behaviours of leaders. This is based on the findings and how the participants expressed clear positive views in relation to the position they hold within an organisation, linking it to intrinsic motivation (Amabile et al., 1994).

The findings also revealed a positive relationship between knowledge acquisition and the amount of industry experience that the relevant managers had. However, it is difficult to determine whether knowledge acquisition is solely dependent on the experience of a manager as other variables influence the process. Thus, further research will be required to identify whether the sources of power can be linked to the experience of managers, as those in this study all produced favourable outcomes, even though John's manager only had three years-experience.

5.4 Ethical considerations

5.4.1 Ethical issues: participants

Informed consent: The participants were informed of their participation in the research project, the type of questions that were going to be asked and how the data will be used (Louw, 2014). An interview only commenced once the participant has signed the consent form. The researcher did not force any participant to take part in the research and clearly communicated that they can leave the interview at any time.

Confidentiality: The participants' identities has been kept confidential, meaning the information gathered is only known by the researcher, supervisor and moderator (Louw, 2014). The participants' names, company names and physical address will not be shared with any other entity. For the purpose of confidentiality, pseudonyms were given to the participants to protect their identities.

Dealing with sensitive information: This study revealed sensitive information regarding the attitude of an employee towards their employer which is protected by the researcher (Louw, 2014). The researcher ensures that the employers of the participants are denied access to the information gathered from the online in-depth interviews if they request it.

Assumption of privacy: Data collection commenced on an online communications platform. Thus, the researcher created a private space with a request-to-join encryption that protected the interview from any unknown sources (Roberts, Smith & Pollock, 2008).

5.4.2 Ethical issues: the researcher

Falsifying information: The researcher ensured that the data gathered has not been fabricated or changed (Louw, 2014). Ethical and adequate steps were followed by the researcher regarding the process of data collection and analysis to reduce the probability of ethical dilemmas (Louw, 2014).

Distorting results: The researcher did not distort the findings of the study by refraining from emphasising certain aspects (Louw, 2014). The research proved to be successful in terms of answering the research questions and achieving the objectives. However, if the results indicated otherwise, it would still be undistorted (Louw, 2014).

Bias: The researcher has ensured that the data collection process as well as the analysis were free from bias (Louw, 2014). The participants were known to the researcher as the convenience sampling method was utilised, which increased the risk of bias (Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). However, the researcher remained unbiased throughout the study by strictly following the steps included in the data collection and analysis processes.

Misusing information: The data collected from participants were only used by the researcher for its intended purpose in the study (Louw, 2014). The researcher did not use the data to gain from external sources.

5.5 Limitations

Enslin (2014) states that limitations are constraints in the research study that is out of the researcher's control. However, the researcher has taken the required steps to mitigate the limitations.

Time: The researcher encountered time limitations as it was required that the data collection process be concluded within one month (Enslin, 2014). Thus, the researcher ensured that the data collection process was finalised within one month by planning the meetings with employees at least three weeks before interview dates.

Shifts in conditions: With the COVID-19 (coronavirus) pandemic affecting life at a global scale, the researcher was unable to conduct face-to-face in-depth interviews with participants (WHO, 2020). Thus, it was stated by the researcher that face-to-face interviews were replaced with online interviews through video call (Zoom application).

Accessibility: Furthermore, the COVID-19 pandemic forced the South African government to implement lockdown regulations, restricting travel and social engagement, especially face-to-face conversations (South African Government, 2020). Thus, the researcher was limited with access, hence an alternative and safer method has been considered, online interviews (Enslin, 2014).

Sample size: Due to the time constraint of the overall research project (9 months) and data collection process (1 month), the researcher was unable to conduct online in-depth interviews with more than three participants. As previously stated, Patton (1990) argued that there are no actual rules for determining the sample size in qualitative studies as it depends on what the researcher wants to know, the purpose and what would be useful. Thus, three participants were sufficient in achieving the research objectives and answering the research questions.

Load shedding: The first online in-depth interview was conducted during load shedding implemented by Eskom (2020), as power systems were constrained which limited the supply of electricity throughout South Africa. The researcher ensured that interviews were recorded on a primary and a secondary source to minimise disruption. External

power supplies and internet were available, allowing interviews to continue through the blackout.

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Appendix A



CONSENT FORM TEMPLATE

Explanatory information sheet and consent form for participants
To whom it may concern, My name is Daniel Enslin and I am a student at Varsity College Durban North. I am currently conducting research under the supervision of Sally Fisher about the impact that a leader's power would have on an employee's motivation. I hope that this research will enhance our understanding of motivation and the type of power that motivates or de-motivates employees in an organisation. I would like to invite you to participate in my study. In order to explain to you what your participation in my study will involve, I have formulated questions that I will try to fully answer so that you can make an informed decision about whether or not to participate. If you have any additional questions that you feel are not addressed or explained in this information sheet, please do not hesitate to ask me for more information. Once you have read and understood all the information contained in this sheet and are willing to participate, please complete and sign the consent form below.
What will I be doing if I participate in your study?
I would like to invite you to participate in this research because you can provide valuable information that would assist in answering my research question. If you decide to participate in this research, I would like to ask you questions regarding your experience as an employee working for your current manager and how your motivation has been influenced through the experience. You can decide whether or not to participate in this research. If you decide to participate, you can choose to withdraw at any time or to decide not to answer particular interview questions.
Are there any risks/ or discomforts involved in participating in this study?
Whether or not you decide to participate in this research, there will be no negative impact on you. There are no direct risks or benefits to you if you participate in this study. You might, however, indirectly find that it is helpful to talk about your personal experience. If you find at any stage that you are not comfortable with the line of questioning, you may withdraw or refrain from participating.
Do I have to participate in the study?
• Your inclusion in this study is completely voluntary; • If you do not wish to participate in this study, you have every right not to do so; • Even if you agree to participate in this study, you may withdraw at any time without having to provide an explanation for your decision.
Will my identity be protected?

I promise to protect your identity. I will not use your name in any research summaries to come out of this research and I will also make sure that any other details are disguised so that nobody will be able to identify you. I would like to ask your permission to record the interviews, but only my supervisor, I and possibly a professional transcriber (who will sign a confidentiality agreement) will have access to these recordings. Nobody else, including anybody at Varsity College Durban North, will have access to your interview information. I would like to use quotes when I discuss the findings

of the research, but I will not use any recognisable information in these quotes that can be linked to you.

What will happen to the information that participants provide?

Once I have finished all interviews, I will write summaries to be included in my research report, which is a requirement to complete my IIE Bachelor of Commerce Honours in Management. You may ask me to send you a summary of the research if you are interested in the final outcome of the study.

What happens if I have more questions about the study?

Please feel free to contact me or my supervisor should you have any questions or concerns about this research, or if there is anything you need to know before you decide whether or not to participate.

You should not agree to participate unless you are completely comfortable with the procedures followed.

My contact details are as follows:
Daniel Enslin

The contact details of my supervisor are as follows:
Sally Fisher

Appendix B



Consent form for participants	
I, _____, agree to participate in the research conducted by Daniel Enslin about the impact that a leader's power would have on an employee's motivation.	
This research has been explained to me and I understand what participation in this research will involve. I understand that:	
• I agree to be interviewed for this research.	
• My confidentiality will be ensured. My name and personal details will be kept private.	
• My participation in this research is voluntary and I have the right to withdraw from the research at any time. There will be no repercussions should I choose to withdraw from the research.	
• I may choose not to answer any of the questions that are asked during the research interview.	
• I may be quoted directly when the research is published, but my identity will be protected.	
Signature	Date

Appendix C



CONSENT FORM FOR AUDIO OR VIDEO RECORDING

Consent form for participants	
I, _____, agree to allow Daniel Enslin to audio record my interviews as part of the research about the impact that a leader's power would have on an employee's motivation. This research has been explained to me and I understand what participation in this research will involve. I understand that: • My confidentiality will be ensured. My name and personal details will be kept private. • The recordings will be stored in a password-protected file on the researcher's computer. • Only the researcher, the researcher's supervisor and possibly a transcriber (who will sign a confidentiality agreement) will have access to these recordings.	
Signature	Date

Appendix D

In-Depth Interview - Questions

Background Questions

1. What is your age?
2. In which Durban suburb or area do you live?
3. How long have you been working for your current company?

Main Questions

4. Describe to me what your relationship with your manager is like?
5. Can you tell me about an experience at work with your manager that was really or positive or negative?
6. What are the most important factors for you in the way that you want to be treated by your employer?

7. Does the way your manager treat you motivate or demotivate you at work?

Please expand (Follow-up) or (Check if this is what he/she meant)

8. What are the reasons, if any for complying with the objectives given by your manager?

In other words, you comply because he or she is your supervisor, or are there more reasons? (Follow-Up)

9. When work needs to be done, how does your manager gain cooperation from you?

10. How does he/she ask you to do a task? and does he/she give you an explanation to why it needs to be done?

11. How would you describe the experience working for your manager?

12. How has your motivation changed since you've been working for your manager?

Explain a bit more (Follow-up)

Closing Questions

Thank you for your time and effort. Your identity will remain confidential and will not be shared with any other entity.

13. Is there anything else you would like to add?

How did you feel about that? (Follow-up)

Appendix E



11 August 2020

Student name: Daniel Enslin

Student number: 17001341

Campus: Varsity College Durban North

Re: Approval of HBCM Proposal and Ethics Clearance

HONOURS ETHICAL CLEARANCE LETTER

Your research proposal and the ethical implications of your proposed research topic were reviewed by your supervisor and the campus research panel, a subcommittee of The Independent Institute of Education's Research and Postgraduate Studies Committee.

Your research proposal posed no significant ethical concerns and your supporting documents and instruments are in order to proceed. We hereby provide you with permission to proceed with your research.

In the event of you deciding to change your research methodology in any way, kindly consult your supervisor to ensure all ethical considerations are adhered to and pose no risk to any participant or party involved. A revised ethical clearance letter will be issued.

We wish you all the best with your research!

**GENERAL CONDITIONS TO BE FULFILLED IN RELATION
TO RESEARCH**

Permission is granted to proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met and may be withdrawn should any of these conditions be flouted.

Please note: The panel has not considered the merits, accuracy or ethical soundness of the research. The only merits examined are the use of The IIE as a sample.

Permission is granted subject to the following conditions:

1. The researcher(s) will need to obtain informed consent in writing from all of the participants in his/ her sample if the study is not anonymous.
2. The researcher(s) will need to obtain Gatekeeper approval/permission letter/s and have handed this to the supervisor for verifying.
3. The researcher(s) may only use the data collected for research purposes and in no other way.
4. Photographs of human subjects may only be taken if relevant to the research, informed consent was obtained, and even with informed consent, the photographs may not be published on any online platforms.
5. The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his/her own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies, transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices visited for supplying such resources.
6. No names or identifying information of participants may be used within the research and the research must be voluntary.
7. Please make it clear that the information will not be used punitively in any way and participants may in no way be counselled/advised based on this.

Supervisor: Ms Sally Fisher

Campus Postgraduate Coordinator (CPC):

Dr Razia Khan

Appendix F

TITLE: An exploration of the various power bases and their influence on employee motivation

Research Purpose/ Objective	Primary Research Question	Research Rationale	Seminal Authors/ Sources	Literature Review – Conceptual Framework	Paradigm	Approach	Data Collection Method(s)	Ethics	Key Findings	Recommendations
The purpose of this study was to identify and explore how an employee's motivation can be affected through the various power bases used by a leader (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000).	What effects would the various power bases have on employee motivation?	This research is relevant in modern times as organisations are dependent on employees to perform to the best of their ability (Varma, 2017). Jungert et al. (2013) requested a more in-depth analysis of how intrinsic motivation can be positively influenced through the behaviours of leaders	French and Raven (1959) – Bases of power model Herzberg et al. (1959) - The Motivation to Work Podsakoff and Schriesheim, (1985) - Field studies of French and Raven's bases of power	Theme 1: Leadership Theme 2: Power, relationships and influence Theme 3: The bases of power Theme 4: Employee motivation and the influence of power	Paradigm Interpretivism Ontology This study has been conducted based on the ontological position With regards to ontology, reality is thus subjective and created through human interaction, and in the case of this study, it was leader/employee relationships (du Plooy-Cilliers, 2014)	Approach – Qualitative, Inductive Design – Phenomenology Nature – Exploratory Population <u>Target population:</u> Employees working under supervision in any organisation within Kwazulu-Natal. <u>Accessible population:</u> Any employee working in Durban or in the Durban suburbs that is available for interviewing (Pascoe, 2014).	<u>In-depth interviews</u> were carried out for the purpose of this study as the aim was to gain a better understanding of the participants experience and their views in the workplace under certain conditions of power (Strydom & Bezuidenhout, 2014). Face-to-face interviews were replaced with online video calls (Zoom) The researcher asked a set of	<u>Informed consent:</u> Informed of their participation <u>Confidentiality:</u> Participants identities will be kept confidential <u>Dealing with sensitive information:</u> Will be protected <u>Assumption of privacy:</u> Protected by a password (Roberts, Smith & Pollock, 2008). <u>Falsifying information</u> Data will not be fabricated <u>Distorting results</u> Refraining from emphasising	All three participants had positive motivational experiences in relation to the powers that their managers used. From the thematic analysis, it is evident that the participants experienced more than one power base used by their managers. Namely, referent, expert and legitimate power (French & Raven, 1959).	Further research will be required to identify whether the sources of power can be linked to the experience of managers, as those in this study all produced favourable outcomes, even though John's manager only had three years-experience

							standardised open-ended questions during the online in- depth interviews	certain aspects Bias free from bias Misusing information Used for its intended purpose only		
Research Problem	Secondary Questions/ Hypotheses/ Objectives	Key Concepts	Key Theories				Sampling	Data Analysis Method(s)	Limitations	Key Contribution
Employee s have different experiences with regards to the power used by a leader in an organisation. They may experience a lack of motivation if they work in an environment where the power used by a leader influences them negatively	Do employees experience more than one power base in an organisation ?	<u>Leadership</u> <u>Soft power</u> <u>Hard power</u> <u>Extrinsic Motivation</u> <u>Intrinsic motivation</u> <u>Influence</u>	Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (Herzberg et al., 1959).				Probability or non-probability <u>Non-Probability Sampling</u> Sampling method <u>Convenience Sampling</u> is the method that was used as the elements were known by the researcher and the researcher was able to gain quick access to them (Nieuwenhuis, 2020b). Sample Size 3	Unit of Analysis Employees (individuals) Data Analysis Method(s) A <u>thematic analysis</u> was used as it identified patterns of themes in data (Nowell et al., 2017). Transcribing Method Verbatim Approach Inductive	<u>Time</u> : the data collection process will need to be concluded within one month (Enslin, 2014) <u>Shifts in conditions</u> : COVID-19 pandemic affecting life at a global scale <u>Accessibility</u> lockdown regulations	The findings have the possibility to improve the understanding of the powers that motivate and how it can be utilised for optimal performance (French & Raven, 1959). The results might contribute to the request of Jungert et al. (2013) for a more in-depth understanding of intrinsic motivation and how it can be influenced