

# THE IMPACT OF TEAM MEMBER SATISFACTION ON PROJECT MANAGEMENT SUCCESS

by

#### **MANUEL TOMAS ADRIANO**

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

Master of Technology: Business Administration in Project Management

In the Faculty of Business & Management Sciences

at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Supervisor: Dr Larry E Jowah

Cape Town

Date submitted: November 2018

# **CPUT** copyright information

The dissertation may not be published either in part (in scholarly, scientific or technical journals), or as a whole (as a monograph), unless permission has been obtained from the University.

## **DECLARATION**

I, Manuel Tomas Adriano, declare that the contents of this dissertation represent my own unaided work, and that the dissertation has not previously been submitted for academic examination towards any qualification. Furthermore, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

Date: 20<sup>th</sup> November 2018

#### **ABSTRACT**

The single most critical factor responsible for the success of any project is the human element as this is the point at which projects succeed. Senior technically qualified managers have recorded high failure rates in areas where they have hard skills relevant to the industry. The levels of technical expertise and technology should have facilitated the project execution process and increased the success rate of project management. Contrary to this, the IT industry for instance, has recorded an average 47% failure rates regardless of the fact that IT specialists manage them. Project management has been defined as a unique undertaking limited by time, quality and budget within a prescribed scope. Depending on the type of the project, there is a need for different expertise to operate in the different stages in the life cycle of the project as well as the elements or WBSs of the project. Where people are involved there is bound to be conflicts, and these conflicts need to be managed. Because of the nature of project management, specialists who together comprise of the project team head WBSs. This team originates from different sources, and in the matrix system is comprised of people seconded to the project but whose loyalty remains with their departments. Such teams are therefore comprised of people who may not share the same culture or work ethics, together with the differences in approaching their duties. It becomes the responsibility of the project leader therefore to enable these "secondments" to be satisfied in their new positions so that they can be productive. This research sought out to identify generic requirements to satisfy a team and get the best out of the team.

**KEY WORDS;** Project leadership, team membership, conflict, job satisfaction, performance and effectiveness responsiveness.

# **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

# I wish to thank:

- Dr. Larry E Jowah, my supervisor, mentor and father, for the guidance, mentoring and supporting me at all times.
- Isidro Francisco Adriano, for the encouragement, moral support as well as financial support.
- Cesaltina Tomas Adriano, for the moral support and continuous assistance during hard times.

LIST OF FIGURES	PAGE
Figure 1.1: Project Success Factors Figure 1.2: The Dynamic of Leadership Style in Construction	9 11
Figure 1.3: The path-goal theory	14
Figure 2.1: Matrix Organizations Structure	38
Figure 3.1: Herzberg's Motivation – Hygiene Theory	45
Figure 3.2: Maslow's hierarchy of needs	47
Figure 3.3: Alderfer's theory of motivation	49
Figure 3.4: Comparison of Maslow and Aderfer's Motivation	50
Figure 3.5: McClelland's theory of needs	51
Figure 3.6: Vrooms Expectancy Theory	52
Figure 3.7: House –Path-Goal Theory	54
Figure 3.8: Modified House's Path-Goal Theory	55
Figure 3.9: The Path-Goal Theory of Leadership	56
Figure 5.1: Positions of respondents to the survey	73
Figure 5.2: Number of years served in project teams	74
Figure 5.3: The type of project team members interviewed	75
Figure 5.4: Experienced team leader in the project environment	76
Figure 5.5: Number of teams the respondent had led before	77
Figure 5.6: Degree to which team members seek independence	79
Figure 5.7: Team structure as perceived by respondents	80
Figure 5.8: Importance of congruent personalities in a project team	81
Figure 5.9: The importance of understanding team m embers by the leader	82
Figure 5.10: Team member's expectations for respect of opinion	83
Figure 5.11: Impact of clearly defined goals on team member satisfaction	84
Figure 5.12: Impact of involving team members in the decision making process	ess 85
Figure 5.13: The impact of clear guidelines on job satisfaction of a team men	mber 86
Figure 5.14: Impact of diversity acceptance to the job satisfaction	87
Figure 5.15: Impact of involving team members in the planning stages	88

Figure 5.16: Impact of involving team members outside of areas of expertise	89
Figure 5.17: Impact of mentoring and coaching on team member morale	90
Figure 5.18: The impact of training on job satisfaction and motivation	91
Figure 5.19: Impact of non-interference on the team member	92
Figure 5.20: Impact of being treated as equals on the motivation of team membe	rs93
Figure 5.21: Politicking among Employees	94
Figure 5.22 below shows the perceptions of the team members	95
Figure 5.23: Impact of peer behaviour on team member performance	96
Figure 5.24: Impact of leader who helps in the working out of project requirement	ts97
Figure 5.25: Impact of a transactional leadership style on team member motivation	on98
Figure 5.26: Impact of a transactional leadership on team member motivation	100
Figure 5.27: The Impact of leader's understanding of team on motivation	101
Figure 5.28: Leader's ability to understand members' emotions	102
Figure 5.29: Impact of direct couching and mentoring by project leader	103
Figure 5.30 Impact of leader's understanding of member differences in abilities	104
Figure 5.31: The Impact of slave-driver-leader style on team motivation	105
LIST OF TABLES PAGE	
Table 1.1: Difference between group and team	3
Table 1.2: Supposed benefits of operating in a team	6
Table 1.3: Specific factors that determine project management success	10
Table 1.4: Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation	12
Table 1.5: Differences between project leaders and project managers	13
Table 1.6. Reiss' 16 basic desires that motivate and define our personalities	15
Table 2.1: Classification of the different types of groups	29
Table 2.2: Definitions of team by different authors	30
Table 2.3: The subtle differences between group and team	33

Table 2.4: Generic characteristics of effective teams	35
Table 3.1: Theories of motivation	43
Table 3.2: Examples of push and pull factors	52
Table 3.3: Comparison of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation	57
Table 3.4: Benefits anticipated by intrinsically and extrinsically motivated people	58
Table 3.5: Colella's inputs by motivated individuals	59
Table 3.6: Colella's outputs by motivated individuals	59
Table 3.7: Reinforcement theory	61
Table 4.1 The role of the research design	63
Table 4.2: Potential sources of error in the research design process	64
Table 4.3. Differences between research design and research methodology	65
Table 5.1 Impact of persistent follow-up to ensure compliance	85
Table 5.2 Impact of politics on motivation of team members	93
Table 5.3 Impact of good team discussion meetings on motivation	98
Table 5.4: Seven most important things that can motivate the team members	105
Table 5.5: The 7 common factors that project team members hate	106

#### **CHAPTER 1**

## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Projects are initiated by human beings, designed for human beings and executed by human beings (Meltzoff and Decety, 2003:3). This makes the human element the single most critical aspect in the project execution process from conceptualization to handing over. This means therefore that the life cycle of a project revolves around correct management of the people involved in it. Andrews and Withey (2012:1) posit that human beings are social beings whose functioning is tied with the development of relationships on the basis of which they operate. Depending on the type of the project, there is a need for different expertise to operate in the different stages in the life cycle of the project as well as the elements or WBSs of the project. Liu, Spector and Shi (2007:209-239) posit that where people are involved there is bound to be conflicts, and these conflicts need to be managed. If the conflict is not properly managed, it will destroy the team, disrupt operations of the entire group and derail the process of achieving the set objectives. Improper management of the conflict may spill over to harassment of the team members (Bowling and Beehr, 2006:998-1012) and demotivation the project team. To avoid such occurrences there is a need for effective communication and leadership that finds congruence between the followers and the managers.

The project by its very nature therefore, needs extensive coordination to enable the different aspects to work towards the same objectives. Experts, who together coordinate the execution of the project, thus comprise of the project team members who head different units of the project (Thompson, 2004:533-544). The team is generally supervised by the project leader who coordinates the project activities amongst the divisional leaders, and serves as a link between the team, stakeholders and the senior management. Jowah and Tebele (2012:1-22) admit that projects in a matrix system pose a serious problem for project leaders because of the authority gap resulting from the dual loyalty experienced by the heads of the divisions in the project. In another study, Jowah (2011:49-54) makes reference to the matrix structure as the cause of political interference in the should-be smooth running of a project because of the weakened authority of the manager. This research seeks to determine the circumstances under which the project team operates and how these team members can be motivated and made to function satisfactorily. It is hypothesized that a motivated team will cooperate

and perform effectively and efficiently with the likely result that all the project execution process expectations will be achieved.

## 1.2 BACKGROUND

There is confusion between the use of the words team and group, and it is important to note that though a team is or can be a group, a group is not necessarily a team. The difference between these two may be seen in the definitions of these two, too often used interchangeably in our daily discussions.

**a. A group** is a collection of individuals (two or more) who are connected to each other by social relationships who interact with each other and share similar traits and characteristics (Platow, Grace and Smithson, 2012:5-13).

Collectively they have a sense of unity amongst themselves and show a great degree of interdependence (Forsyth, 2009:68), and these need to identify themselves as members of the group. Groups have some degree of social cohesion that goes beyond a mere collection of individuals who have come together. Seven people who do not know each other meeting at pay-point to pay their bills may not be correctly referred to as a group. Macionis (2010:149) proposes that these group members need to have common motives, have some form of agreed on or understood values with a degree of uniform purpose. Individuals act as group members because they are aware of a "common category of membership" as a concept of self. Groups can be classified as primary or secondary groups depending on their role and interdependence, these will also depend on the extent of the interaction, the goals and tasks, the structure, and the degree of interdependence.

**b.** A team; On the other hand, Forsyth (2006, 20) defines a team as a group of individuals linked together to perform a specific complex task which otherwise may not be done by one individual.

The team will comprise of individuals with interrelated and interdependent subtasks (DeChurch and Mesmer-Magnus, 2010:32-53), the members' have complementary skills, which build up to the requirements for the accomplishment of the objectives set up. The team members generate synergy from the interaction and coordination as each member exert themselves to their best (Kozlowski and Ilgen, 2006: 77–124) and assist those that may be weak. Teams create commitment and enable the group to perform

"greater than the sum total" of the individuals involved in the teamwork. Too often efforts are made to 'develop effective teams' that will be able to perform the tasks in question. Hackman (2002:22) suggested that the effectiveness of teams should not be measured against their performance only, but that consideration should be made on how they help the individual members develop. In another study Finkelstein, Hambrick and Cannella, (2009:124) argue that there is no fixed size (number of people in the team) to which the team should be limited since the size of the team depends on the multiplicity and complexity of the tasks to be performed. Many studies have gone into differentiating groups from teams, and table 1.1 below illustrates the differences between these two wrongly interchanged words.

Table 1.1 Difference between group and team

Group	Team
Leader dominates	Leader facilitates
Leader or boss decides	Members make the decisions
Leader gives assignments	Members know their assignments
Members are accountable as individuals	Members are accountable as a team
Member roles are specific to them	Member roles complement each other
Individuals produce their own products	Members produce results for the team
Members are focused on individual goals	Members meet regularly to discuss
Benefits/losses are faced by individuals	Benefits/losses are ascribed to the team
Members owe it to themselves to	Members owe it to each other to
succeed	succeed A team ends when the goals
The life span for a group is not limited	are achieved

#### Source: own construction

It is important that the distinction between a group and a team be clearly stated since, too often, groups are expected to play team roles when they are not teams. From table 1.1 above, it is clear that group members operate largely as individuals and their efforts may not impact on the effectiveness of the group as a whole. But, team members, because they have the same goal and objectives the result of which is the sum of the different tasks, every effort from the team member impacts on the effort of the other team members. The levels of interdependence are high in teams because they have the same objective and one towards the accomplishment of the same project.

De Church and Mesmer-Magnus (2010: 32–53) make reference to team cognition in their study on how teams function. Team cognition is defined as an "emergent state that

refers to the manner in which the knowledge important to team functioning is organized, represented, and distributed within a team. Team members complement each other, have integrated tasks with each other and learn from each other. Their activities are interdependent, result in a situation where the failure of one means the failure of the whole project.

#### 1.3 TEAM SATISFACTION

Team satisfaction characterizes the overall extent to which members are satisfied with the team and the team's outcomes (Standifer et al, 2015:693-708), such as decisions made by the team, communication among team members, and relationship climate among members of the team. It describes both a positive feeling and an evaluation of the team and its work. Therefore, the concept of team satisfaction is proposed to have both an affective component and a cognitive component.

A meta-analysis from LePine et al. (2008: 273–307) revealed that teamwork processes have positive relationships with team member satisfaction. The input-process- outcome heuristic from McGrath (1964) (mentioned in section 2.1), proposes that inputs such as characteristics of the team's members, tools, technologies and context indirectly influence team's effectiveness (i.e. the outcome), through interdependent activities among team members (i.e. team processes). In line with this rationale, LePine et al. (2008: 273–307) state that teamwork processes help to cultivate perceptions of a satisfying team experience. Nonetheless, they also refer that, while team processes work as mechanisms through which inputs have an impact on outcomes, emergent states might also work as team inputs, mediators or outcomes.

Santos and Passos (2013:363-385) highlighted the relevance of team processes, conflict and shared cognitions concerning team satisfaction. They found that conflict limits the development of team mental models, therefore decreasing satisfaction. Their study shows that it is important that teams develop conflict management skills and know how to use conflict management strategies to avoid conflict in order to feel satisfied. Study results from Jehn (1997:530-557.) also show that relationship conflict is negatively correlated with satisfaction. De Wit et al. (2012: 360-90) in their meta-analysis report that task conflict has a less negative relation with satisfaction than process and relationship conflict.

For instance, disagreements among team members about the content of a task or about

the result of it are less relevant and have a smaller impact on team satisfaction than disagreements about who does what (i.e. delegation of tasks) or disagreements about interpersonal issues, such as team members not getting along with each other due to personality differences or attitudes from their colleagues with which they do not agree with. In fact, in some cases, task conflict may actually have a positive effect on satisfaction since its existence allows for a more critical evaluation of different points of view and well-informed decision-making. However, task conflict may also have a negative impact on team satisfaction when group members interpret their group members' different points of view as a negative assessment of their own capabilities. Therefore, in situations where conflict results in negative group emotions it might be a predictor of team dissatisfaction. In other words, if teams do not feel happy or motivated to work, for instance due to conflicts within the team, they will tend to feel less satisfied with team members, their work and decisions that they make as a team.

#### 1.3.1 Job Satisfaction

Thompson and Phua (2012:275-307) define job satisfaction or employee satisfaction as "how content an individual is with his or her job," or aspects of the job the person is involved in. These are multidimensional psychological responses (Hulin, and Judge (2003:255-276) and include among others, the nature of the work or tasks to be performed together with the nature of supervision. In another research, Kumari, Joshi and Pandey (2014: 2321-5518) noted that job satisfaction measures differ to the extent that they measure the subject's feelings about the job (affective job satisfaction) and or their cognitions about the job (cognitive job satisfaction). Job satisfaction may there make reference to the overall job and how pleased the subject is with the job and the taslks, or there may be aspects of the job that they may not be happy about.

Team satisfaction is the team level concept equivalent to the individual level construct of job satisfaction. There is a broad research on the concept of job satisfaction, which refers to "a pleasant or optimistic emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience" (Locke, 1976;1300). Job satisfaction focuses on affective reactions and the need to maintain happiness (Rich, Lepine and Crawford, 2010; 617-635). It can be influenced by differences in individual personality, but also by perceptions of job characteristics, supervisors, and coworkers (Russell. 2004: 1-33). High levels of

job satisfaction make individuals more willing to carry out behaviors associated with tasks that contribute to organizational effectiveness (Judge, 2001: 67–98).

#### 1.3.2 ADVANTAGES OF TEAMWORK

According to Boker (2005:11), a team is a group of people who are united to achieve a common goal that is too large in scope to be achieved by a single individual. The first important use of a team is therefore that it assists in making possible what may not have been possible with one individual. In practice, each team member attends to an area of specialization that the others do not have. Teamwork is the cooperative effort by members whose achievement of the set objectives is achieved through their interdependence (Gronn, 2002:332). Workplace teams therefore succeed because they have one focus on objectives, possibly clearly defined and well understood (Gary 2004:1), and this complemented by the decision making system where each one of them is involved. The management of the teams therefore becomes of primary importance because of their complex nature; pulling people of different disciplines and making them work towards one objective. This characterizes the project team, specifically when dealing with tasks like the construction of a mall or a large hospital; the "interdisciplinary team" becomes a must. Each aspect of the construction is to be headed by the expert (civil engineer, electrical engineer, architect, quantity surveyor, chief plumber, foreman for bricklayers, chief carpenter, etc). The benefits of this interdisciplinary nature of a project team can be condensed and illustrated in tabular form, as shown in table 2 below.

Table 1.2: Supposed benefits of operating in a team

Interaction	Members interact regularly thereby sharing necessary information and progress reports	
Relationships	Interaction inevitably creates friendship, which will bring about a sense of unity, commitment and a working together towards objectives.	
Effectiveness	Bringing together different skills enables mammoth tasks to be accomplished in much shorter time and resources utilization is maximized.	
Learning	The interaction results in shared experiences, which become the learning point for each member in unrelated disciplines.	

Feedback	Most interdisciplinary grey areas may have answers provided immediately and speed up the process towards achievement of goals
Creativity / innovation	More new knowledge may assist with innovative means of integrating the project operations, as members understand more of their counterparts' operations.
Pre-emption of error	The interaction enables members to learn from each other and avoid errors that may delay the project and make it more costly
Centralized information	Because of the interaction, all the necessary information may be put in the PMO and allow for easy access for any stakeholder
Member ownership	Members feel they have ownership of the project and are most likely to commit themselves more to the organization
Decision making	Ease of making decisions since information is not fragmented but is in one place where all the bits can be pieced together
Job satisfaction	When the complementary skills are pulled together it makes tasks a lot easier for the members, this may lead to job satisfaction.

#### Source; own construction

Working in a team can be very difficult, although it is generally accepted that two heads are better than one. Consequently, there is a demand for more heads and hands to make complex project undertakings. As indicated above, the greater part of the benefit is realized when teams undertake to work together in a multidisciplinary project. By its very nature therefore the interdisciplinary team allows for learning and teaching (Kozlowski and Ilgen, 2006: 77–124), of each other's functions to understand how to cooperate towards the achievement of this one objective, the construction of the mall, for instance. It is necessary that these team members (even though they have their fields of specialization) they still need to coordinate their tasks. This therefore implies the need for a coordinator, who in this case is the project manager, the project leader.

## 1.3.3 THE PROJECT TEAM LEADER

Leadership is an individual's ability to construct a vision for an organization (Kotter, 2001:9) and then be able to motivate people to achieve the vision within a clearly defined strategy. The strategy, the plan or process that will be used to implement the vision is critical element of vision. In concurrence, Jowah (2015:49-67) makes reference to

leadership as one's ability to influence and motivate other people to voluntarily perform certain agreed upon tasks. In view of the complex nature of projects, with the unprecedented presence of the authority gap (Jowah, 2014:1097-1106) in most embedded projects (projects within a larger organization), project management requires contextual approaches, attributes, knowledge and skills. Keller (2006:202) makes special reference to project team leadership as the ability to provide guidance, instruction, direction and leadership to a project team. Such an individual must have the ability to monitor both quantitative and qualitative results to be achieved by the team of which the team leader is a member.

Scouller (2011:26) agrees with this view and prescribes four aspects of effective project team-leadership, namely; (1) a shared goal and vision by the team, (2) clearly outlined activities with measurable deliverables, (3) collective and motivated unity or team spirit, and, (4) attention to individual team members' circumstances. Interdisciplinary projects will require a blend of entrepreneurial and forward thinking leadership (Gelles, 2015:07-17). To effectively manage such a team would therefore entrepreneurial leadership that will galvanize the support of the team members and motivate them into performing these interconnected multi-activities that comprise the project. The reality though is that these teams are characterized by cultural diversity, personality differences, unshared visions or goals, political interference, relationships between team members, self-perceptions, rivalry, loyalty problems, and the handling of the authority gap (Kouzes, 2006:79). Inevitably the leader must be able to steer this diverse team towards achievement of the set objectives within the project square root limits.

## 1.3.4 LEADERSHIP STYLE AND TEAM PERFORMANCE

As alluded to in preceding literature review, there is a relationship between the style of leadership and the performance of the team. Somech (2006:132 – 157) identified six styles of leadership ideal for the management of diverse team, these are;

- Directive style has tight control and demands immediate compliance.
- Visionary style explains "why" and points tem to long-term vision.
- → Affiliative style focuses on harmony and "friendly" team collaboration
- → Participative style encourages employee involvement and engagement
- → Pacesetting style exemplary leadership that sets standards for the team
- Coaching style supports long-term professional development of employees

According to Woods (2005:3-36), the ability of a leader to assume different styles simultaneously may make them better suitable to lead diverse teams. In reality, the most effective leaders use the full array of styles, effective team leaders know when to apply a style for particular tsk and individuals. Martindale (2011: 32–35) postulates that the ability of the leader therefore is measured by their ability to know when to use what style. The dynamics of the team need that flexibility, especially where the team members are seconded to the project for the duration of that project (Jowah, 2014:1097-1106). It should be stated that success also depends on other aspects of the project execution process, this means overall overview of how the organization operates.

Turner and Müller (2005: 49-61) state that it is surprising that literature is quiet on the role played by the project manager in bringing about successful project management. But they submit that from their studies it is clearly indicated that the project manager's leadership style has a direct effect on the successful management of the project. There are many factors responsible for the success of a project execution process, and the human element (leadership factor) cannot be discounted at all. The different factors are illustrated in figure 1.1 below.

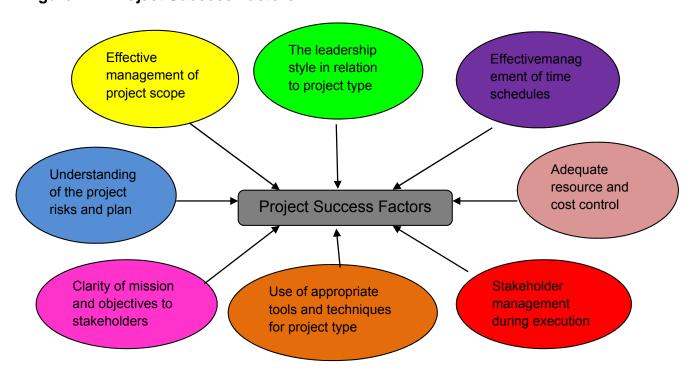


Figure 1.1: Project Success Factors

Source: Adapted from Schwalbe 2006:15 and Cooke-Davies 2001:185-190

The leadership style is the human relations component of project execution allowing leadership to galvanize the support required to complete the tasks. Geoghegan and Dulewicz (2008:58) propose a statistical relationship between a project manager's leadership competencies and project execution success. Geoghegan(2008:58-67) reinforces this position and adds that the execution process is considered successful if stakeholder satisfaction, product success, business and organization benefit, and team development are achieved.

Anantatmula (2010:460-72) established that there were specific factors, which would constitute successful project management, these re listed in table 1.3 below.

Table 1.3: Specific factors that determine project management success

Create clarity in communication	Establish trust,
Define the roles and responsibilities	Facilitate support
Communicate expectations	Manage outcomes
Employ consistent processes.	

# Source: own construction from Anantatmula (2010:460-72)

Burke (2007:330) reckons that the leadership styles used by the project manager may depend on the type of tasks, the type of people comprising the team, the availability of the resources and the urgency for completing the project. But, the underlying factor is the manager's understanding of leadership lies at the base of all this. Studies indicate that different competency profiles and leadership styles will be appropriate for different types of projects and situations (Turner and Müller, 2005:437-448). They identified fifteen leadership dimensions, which were summarized into three main groups, namely; intellectual, managerial, and emotional competencies.

Obiwuru, Okwu, Akpa, and Nwankwere (2011:100) postulate that leadership style in an organization is one of the key factors that play significant role in enhancing or retarding the interest and commitment of the individuals. By inference, individuals are impacted on by the leader's style of management; this would apply to team members equally. Studies continue to show that there is a relationship between the style of the leader and the motivation responses of the subordinates, though Jowah (2014:42) makes reference to implicit theory of followership based on congruency and subordinate expectations.

Depending on how people want to be led, their perceptions of a good project leader affect their attitudes and behaviours (Çetin, Karabay and Efe, 2012:123). Leadership influences followers' attitude and behavior towards the roles they are to play and the extent to which they will exert themselves. Team members are affected, and this emphasizes the need for effective (context relevant) leadership styles that appeal to the employees. In essence therefore leadership should be understood as a social process which enables people to be influenced through interaction with one another leding to change in members' behavior (Ellemers, De Gilder and Haslam, 2004:459). The researchers suggest another classification of leadership styles illustrated in figure 1.2 below.

Manager's Attitude Manager's value of Management Self confidence Trust in his team The Individual Type of the project Personality Individual needs and Complexity project demands Power and control Repetion or unique Innovation Manager's Leadership Style needs Supportive Directive Time perspective Subcontracting Task-oriented Firm's labours Urgency Project Time Participative Subcontractor's workers Achievement of Project objectives

Figure 1.1. The Dynamic of Leadership Style in Construction

Source: Werner, (2011:351).

Leadership has been extensively studied, but no one single definition has yet been put forward. The same has happened with the leadership styles, but it can be concluded that the different leadership styles identified by different researchers can be condensed into transformational and transactional leadership styles as they are widely known. The critical classifications from the above would therefore constitute, namely; directive, supportive, participated and task oriented styles.

#### 1.3.5 MOTIVATION AND TEAM PERFORMANCE

Wigfield, Guthrie, Tonks and Perencevich (2004:299-310) define motivation as a theoretical construct that tries to explain why people behave in a certain way under certain circumstances. A motive is the reason behind a certain act by an individual, or the reason for a particular behavior of an individual. Motivation is the underlying process that initiates, directs, and sustains the individuals in order to satisfy physiological and psychological needs (Matthews, 2000:96). Individuals can be understood in the form of a combination of motives that will direct the individuals towards attainment of certain goals. Many theories have been developed around the motivation concept, and motivation has been classified as extrinsic and intrinsic depending on whether it is external or internal. These intrinsic and extrinsic leadership styles are illustrated in table 1.4 below.

Table 1.4. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLES
INTRINSIC MOTIVATION	An activity is pursued as an end in itself because it is enjoyable and rewarding	A person anonymously donates a large sum of money to a university to fund a scholarship for deserving students.  A child reads several books each week because reading is fun.
EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION	An activity is explored to gain an external reward or to avoid an undesirable consequence.	A person agrees to donate a large some of money to a university for the construction of a building, provided it will bear the family name.  A child reads two books each week to avoid losing television privileges

## Source: Wood and Wood (1996:36)

Given their experiences and understanding, informed by many other factors as listed above, people get motivated or demotivated. The project environment specifically has many factors that may cause demotivation or reduce the possible effects of good leadership. The individualized environment in which the project takes place is equally

essential for motivation of individuals and teams towards performance negatively or positively. The background of the individual (social and economic) and the prevailing circumstances may have a negative or positive bearing on the type of response that the individual will have to motivational forces. This brings us to another dilemma in the management of projects where the trend is towards the use of project leaders as opposed to project managers. The difference between these two is illustrated in table 1.5 below:

Table 1.5. Differences between project leaders and project managers

Project management	Project leaders
Project managers focus on systems	Project leaders focus on people
Project managers are appointed	Project leaders are chosen by team members
Project managers administer	Project leaders innovate
Project managers focus on conforming and maintaining	Project leaders focus on challenging and developing
Project managers have short sighted visions	Project leaders have a long term perspective
Project managers prefer/accept the status quo	Project leaders challenge the status quo
Project managers are risk adverse	Project leaders are risk opportunists
Project managers plan, budget and control.	Project leaders create the future horizon
Project managers develop communication systems	Project leaders are interpersonal in their communication
Project managers focus on organisation structures	Project leaders focus on people
Project managers like problem solving	Project leaders aim to inspire and motivate
Project managers focus on targets and goals	Project leaders focus on creating change
Project managers want to control their project	Project leaders are passionate about the project

Project managers focus internally on the project	Project leaders focus externally on the client, competition, the market and new technology
	3,

Source: Burke, 2007: 263.

Many managers use both management and leadership in the execution of their duties, consequently management theories have been established (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1996:5). The study of the evolution of management theory helps to understand how managers manage effectively and efficiently (Dos-Santos, Powell and Sarshar, 2002:788-796). From the table 5 above, it is clear that leadership focuses on people and management on tasks, the genius of leadership lies in the way the leaders see and act on the values and motivations of their followers with a constant focus on the objectives. 'The mystique of leadership, be it educational, political, religious or commercial is next to impossible to describe, but wherever it exists, morale flourishes, people pull together toward common goals.'

The path-goal theory states that leadership affects the performance of the followers by clarifying behaviors (paths) that will lead towards desired goals. The theory is essentially an explanation of the preceding theories suggesting that situational factors inform the leadership styles, which in influence followers' perceptions. This is illustrated in figure 1.3 below:

Figure 1.2. The path-goal theory



**Source: Werner (2011:362)** 

The characteristics of the project team members and their environment are considered as factors impacting on how they would want to work. At the same time the project leader

would need to choose a style that will fit into the type of team members that he or she has. This should be understood with the background that the team members are not homogenous and may not be positively responsive to the same style. The project leader then would have to "oscillate" between the different styles to accommodate the different team members. A balance needs to be drawn to enable the satisfaction of all the team members and produce the best out of them. Of critical importance therefore is an understanding of what it is exactly that would generally satisfy the team members to perform well.

#### 1.3.6 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theories

The concept of intrinsic and extrinsic theories speak to the sources of motivation of individuals, and in the same vein the project team members are subject to these theories. Intrinsic motivation is the self-desire or self-drive within the individual to seek to do things or challenge the status (Lowry, Gaskin, and Twyman, 2012:617-671). Such individuals will therefore move to do things out of their own desire without external factors, or at least no visible external factors. Students who are intrinsically motivated are more likely to engage in the task willingly as well as work to improve their skills, which will increase their capabilities. Table 1.6 below makes reference to the 16 basic desires hat motivate us.

Table 1.6. Reiss' 16 basic desires that motivate our actions and define our personalities

Acceptance	The need for approval
Curiosity	The need to learn
Eating	The need for food
Family	The need to raise children
Honor	Loyalty to the traditional values
Idealism	The need for social justice
Independence	The need for individuality
Order	The need for organized system
Physical activity	The need for exercise
Power	The need for influence of will
Romance	The need for sex and for beauty
Saving	The need to collect
Social contact	The need for peer relationships)
Social status	The need for social status
Tranquility	The need to be safe
Vengeance	Strike back and compete

Source: own construction from Reiss' study

Reiss's 16 basic desires as illustrated in table above are the causes for us to try to find situations challenging and we strive to get more. This leads us to learn more and

discover other things, sometimes purely out of anxiety. Somewhat this enables us to want to reach the highest potential ever. Deci and Vansteenkiste (2006:17-34) refer to extrinsic motivation as an activity to attain a desired outcome, this comes from influences outside of the individual. This is generally used in place of intrinsic, examples of which may be rewards for doing or achieving certain performances, or competition for the sake of honour, etc.

#### 1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

An individual human being is a mixture of many things including amongst them their background, culture, perceptions and views about things, aspirations (realistic and unrealistic), economic and social needs, expectations and ambitions, and many other aspects of the life of a human being. A group of these individuals motivated by factors that no other team member may know about are brought together as strangers destined to accomplish set objectives - project at hand. This human being with all these complexities arrives at a workplace and gets to work as a member of a project team, clearly knowing that they have functions to perform. Little information is known about this individual in terms of what motivates them such as extrinsic or intrinsic / pull or push factors, (HF. Lin, 2007:315-332) and this individual meets with other team members in the same conditions. The individuals have their own professional backgrounds and their other interests and individual objectives, not known by the other team members. According to Kozlowski and Bell (2003:) there are four extremely important issues that team members should understand, that will facilitate the interaction among team members and foster an atmosphere of teamwork and trust, these are task or workflow interdependence, contextual creation and constraint, multilevel influences and temporal dynamics.

This study was undertaken to identify generic job satisfaction factors for these diverse project team members who operate in this environment for the duration of the project. The knowledge of which may assist the future team leaders to lead in a way that may lead to job satisfaction by project team members. This study pursued to identify generic team member satisfaction, which impacts on the performance of the project team.

#### 1.5 AIM OF THE STUDY

This study was undertaken to determine, understand as well as find out what the impacts

of team member satisfaction on a project are. Team member satisfaction is when individuals involved in a particular task execution or project, are happy with the environment in which they conduct and do their work, and who they work with, when they are given comprehensive tasks, and they receive clear explanations of the projects that they are assigned to do (Gary, 2004:45), therefore there will always be mutual respect and understanding amongst each other.

This study is important because it will:

- Improve growth and development within the project team members,
- Develop programs that will enhance effectiveness in delivering project outcomes.
- To explore and serve to help project teams that face difficulties when it comes to team co-ordination and working together
- Project teams that strive to have an effective and efficient team as far as projects are concerned.
- To better understand team dynamics and what motivates team members and how to ensure team members are satisfied when executing set projects.
- This study will inculcate and assist project managers to devise strategies and innovative programs that will help sustain a highly motivated project team so that the end result and project outcome is that of expected standard.
- It will add knowledge and contribute to the discussion on team satisfaction and project success.

#### 1.6 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Cooper and Schindler (2001: 95) state that research objectives may address the aim of the investigation, and that objectives can also be used as research questions. In any aspect of work related or business environment, in order to proceed with their daily activities and reach an acceptable level of respect and recognition of what they do, it is only logical that there are set goals and objectives, because without that there is no purpose, there is nothing you can achieve without specific objectives because that is what keeps the human brain moving and working, that is objectives. Meaning one wakes up in the morning and goes to work because you are trying to achieve a set objective or objectives, we strive to accomplish specific goals that we have set out for ourselves so therefore we have expectations of our own.

Following the preceding literature review, it is clear that an individual human being has complexities too difficult to evaluate. However, this study seeks to;

- 1. Find generic factors that bring satisfaction to project team members
- 2. Design a list of common factors that may be used by project leaders to lead project teams effectively.
- 3. To investigate and find out whether team member satisfaction has a role to play in the outcome of a project, whether it is positive or negative.
- 4. To discover the factors that contribute to team member satisfaction
- 5. To analyze and understand the subjective experience of project team members when handling given projects.

#### 1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In this study the following was investigated:

The Central question is: Does team member satisfaction have a positive influence in the project execution process and overall project success?

## Sub questions:

- 1. What are the generic factors that bring satisfaction to project team members?
- 2. If teams practice high levels of teamwork engagement will that make them satisfied?

#### 1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research design has always been incorrectly stated as the research methodology, Jowah (2015:63) makes a clear distinction between the two closely related concepts. The design is the road map, the process that will be followed by this research starting with literature review, identification of study gap, deciding on "what" is to be done, namely; deciding on what the sample would be, what the sample will be used for, what data is to be collected, etc. The research methodology is the how part of the research, namely; how will the sample be selected, how will information be extracted from the

sample, how will the findings be recorded, etc. The following stages will be followed closely, namely; literature review, decision on design, target population will be identified, questionnaire will be constructed, pre-tested and reconstructed (if necessary), interviews will be conducted, there will be reporting on the findings. A mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) approach is planned; this is meant to take advantage of the benefits of both qualitative and quantitative methods.

## 1.8.1 Target population:

The target populations for the research were the 100 project team members from the 20-selected project based Cape Town metropolis organizations that have the ultimate responsibility to run a project. The team members are the first people to tell if they are satisfied or happy with the environment in which they execute the project. It is here assumed that, because they sit with the responsibilities of managing the sub-teams of the project, they should be able to say if they are satisfied in their roles. Their satisfaction would spill over to that of their own divisional teams since they sit with complaints, conflicts, *etc* from the sub-teams as well as the project team of which they are members.

## 1.8.2 Sampling:

Cooper and Schindler (2003: 183) explain that Sampling techniques can be categorized into two parts:

- i) Non Probability sampling Techniques
- ii) Probability sampling techniques

From the 20 selected organizations the researcher used the probability sampling technique, so as to ensure all members of a population have a chance of being selected, to be more specific a combination of random and stratified sampling was used. Where the target population were also divided into subgroups and members were selected randomly from the 20 designated organizations in the Cape Town Metropolis.

## 1.8.3 Sampling selection and method of sampling:

Project based organisations in the Cape Town region were sampled randomly for the interviews – filling in questionnaires. These will be randomly chosen for the distribution of questionnaires within the Cape Town Metropolis. This was done for both convenience and costs to the researcher. Sample size:

Cummings (2004:352:364) suggests that for surveys on senior people at managerial level, 15 managers plus may be ideal to afford a generalisation. For this research, the estimated number of interviewees or respondents filling in the questionnaires will be 100 from a minimum of 20 organisations. Out of 100 selected interviewees only 60 filled out the questionnaires

#### 1.8.4 Data collection method:

Personally, administered questionnaires were used to collect the required data from the respondents. A pilot study with a small group of persons similar to the sample was established with the use of face-to-face survey data collection method. This method was chosen as it is simple and has the highest response rate, respondents need not to be literate and long questions can be used, and the interviewer can assist with issues that are not clear to the respondent.

## **1.8.5** The instrument – the questionnaire:

The questionnaire had structured questions in the first section, and then structured Likert scale statements measuring perceptions, each section was followed by open-ended questions of requests for information. The last section (section 3) had open ended questions only, this was to allow the respondents to express their views. A face-to-face survey data collection method was used deliberately (though expensive and time consuming) because it can assist 20 individuals on the response rate. This also assisted in clarifying any questions or statements that may not have been understood correctly by the interviewees during the answering of the questionnaires.

## 1.8.6 Data analysis:

Descriptive statistics was used to summarize the data obtained, the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was to be used to analyze the collected data, the tool is user friendly, and it would assist in producing results easy to interpret and report on. To collect the primary data and opinions, administered questionnaires were used and the researcher used Excel Spread Sheet to analyze the extracted data from the questionnaires, as it can equally capture the data and translates it to charts, graphs, tables and polygons and is easily accessible. The data was therefore interpreted on a question-by-question basis to provide full information on the findings. The responses were supported by illustrations (graphs, bar charts, pie charts, histograms, etc) illustrating the findings to the survey. Additionally a mixed method approach was incorporated, and explanatory sequential strategy was used so as to help explain and contextualize the findings, which made it easier to describe and report the results, this method also facilitated the data collection process, the researcher managed to help those who had a few challenges filling in the questionnaires.

# 1.8.7 Data reporting:

To avoid missing out on certain aspects of the questionnaire and the responses, the findings were discussed systematically by attending / repeating all the questions asked, and providing an answer for each question asked item by item. The format was therefore in following fashion; Question – brief explanation, and Response – brief explanation to the diagram (response represented diagrammatically) accompanying the response.

## 1.10 Limitations of the study:

- Limited resources and random error is inevitable while using sampling techniques.
- Data was collected through a questionnaire and thus the researcher was dependent on the voluntary cooperation of the respondents.

#### 1.11 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

**Chapter one:** This chapter depicts the introduction of the study with the background information on the literature reviewed with special reference to the different factors that motivate and influence job satisfaction of the absence thereof. Here the problem statement was also outlined, the research design and methodology discussed.

**Chapter two:** group dynamics, group versus team, advantages of teams, theories around teams and the establishing and maintenance of teams in an organization, different types of teams and special emphasis on project teams.

**Chapter three**; An motivation theories (hierarchy of needs, pull and push, goal path theory and other theories that relate to motivation including a detailed study on the intrinsic and extrinsic theories and other theories.

**Chapter four:** Research Design and Methodology; the research design and methodologies used in the research are discussed including the instrument used to gather information.

**Chapter five & six:** Data are analyzed; data interpretation and findings are discussed in the chapter, and the conclusion, recommendations are brought to the fore with emphasis on the benefits of the findings.

#### 1.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The issue of human rights has continued to take center stage in research, and in accordance with the CPUT policy, the researcher allowed all participants to come and join the interviews voluntarily, and informed all of them as to what is to be researched and why, they will be free to opt out in the middle of the research and their identities are protected. The rights of the participants with regard to respect for human dignity, the safeguarding of confidentiality or anonymity, and the right to information will be upheld by the researcher. The researcher will look into the four categories, as discussed by Leedy and Ormrod (2001:101). They further point out that, whenever people are the subject or focus of an investigation the researcher must look closely at the ethical implication of what they are planning to do. They discussed ethical consideration as follows: Protecting from harm, Informed consent, Right to privacy and honesty with professional colleagues.

#### **CHAPTER 2**

#### 2.1. GROUP AND TEAM DYNAMICS

# 2.1.1 Cognitive dissonance amongst individuals

Heider (2013:171) makes reference to many individuals suffering from cognitive dissonance. Cognitive dissonance is the psychological stress that an individual may have when faced by two or more contradictory beliefs, values, perceptions and or ideas at the same time. This may be due to an individuals getting 'new information' which may be contrary to what the individual knows or understands. Schein (2010: 204–207) cited Leon Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance as the process through which individuals go through when they have contradictory experiences from their own, which results in internal inconsistency. The dissonance (inconsistency) experienced results in psychological discomfort, causing the individual to either resent the environment or change to accept the dissonance.

All individuals come to interact with others from a particular background which has its beliefs and values (Heider 2013, 171:394). The extent to which the individual values these, given the type of circumstances around the individual, will determine their response. This contradiction of terms brings about an imbalance, which may cause tension; the individual therefore will seek to move away or to develop processes (Gächter, Daniele and Martin: 2012:953-967) that may assist to bring about consonance. This theory of cognitive dissonance propounded by Leon Firstinger has resulted in extensive research to try and establish the significance of beliefs as components of attitudes (Robins, Caspi and Moffitt, 2000:251-259) on the basis of which the behavior of an individual may be assessed. Individuals therefore spend time trying to harmonize their belief to their individuals; this impacts on the fact that they interact with other people.

The individual chooses whether or not to harmonize the conflict they are experiencing or simply refuse to change. Zhong and Liljenquist (2006:1451-1452) postulate that the impact and the significance of the factors causing this state determines largely the choice that the individual will make to balance or reduce the dissonance. A religious individual may refuse to sacrifice their religious values and beliefs for a job, which may contradict with their faith. Hart (2009:555–588), concurs and suggests that an individual ma make a choice to forgo their beliefs and values. For the individual to change, they

may have to think seriously about the consequences given that they most probably come from a community where they learnt these values and beliefs. In addition to this, is the theory of self-perception(Coppin, Delplanque, Cayeux, Porcherot and Sander, 2010:489-493), which hypothesizes that some of these cognitive dissonance problems can actually be solved due to the self-value the individual has. Possibly because they have seen others succeed and they therefore take these as role models, they therefore emulate the others. All in all, it can be summarized that individuals have different attitudes from each other, even if they come from the same background. But when these different people meet, there has to be a degree of tolerance of each other for them to be able to stay an work together. When these individuals meet in public places, at a church gathering, in a bus, or waiting for a train, they constitute a group or groups.

## 2.1.2 Defining an individual's behavior

Macionis and John (2010:153) describe a group as two people or more who share the same characteristics as they interact with one another and develop a sense of unity and may perform certain tasks together. From the description it is clear that what brings them together is common interests, or the ability to interact and be together. Groups by their nature are characterized by a desire for conformity (Daft, 2010:230) especially were the group members like each other or know each other well. There is a tendency to avoid disharmony, and this is referred to as groupthink, at this stage the need for harmony is considered more important that the reality. There is a tendency to avoid conflict through personal censorship of opinions and the participants may resort to agreeableness (Thompson, 2008:542-548). Such people are sympathetic and generally willing to compromise to the benefit of others. This agrees with the big five personality traits as stated by Barlett, (2012:870-875). Some people are naturally agreeable, or may shift from one personality to another depending on the situation. Another common phenomenon in groups is the concept of escalating commitment (Matsumoto and Juang, 2016:271), where people participate and conform against evidence that the process followed is not correct. Poor or inappropriate decisions are made because participants are not ready for conflict, whereas research has established that mild conflicts result in better decisions as the views of the participants put together are better than an individual's idea.

**Human behavior** is associated with physical actions and emotions that can be seen or observed in an individual, these individuals tend to have personality traits that are

consistent. These traits may change as an individual grows (Barlett an Anderson, 2012:875), it is acknowledged that some of these are actually genetic. In this case, these traits are likely to be unchangeable. Behavior is driven largely by feelings and thoughts, most of whom may have been informed by interaction with other people and experience. An understanding of the individual psyche will assist with understanding the individual beliefs (Lee, 2005:1571-1582), values and attitudes which in turn may be influenced by culture, religion or position.

By implication an individual may show different responses dependent on where they are and whom they are interacting with. Sociologist Cao (2010: 3067–3085.) observed that behavior in general will include some actions which may be illogical since some behavior is directed at certain people for certain circumstances. Throughout the life of an individual, the behavior is affected differently because of factors like genetics, acceptable norms, the fundamental religious beliefs and the attitude. Graziano, Bruce, Sheese and Tobin (2007:565-582) posit that too often people conform to certain rules and end up with a state of cognitive dissonance. Generally there are five types of human behavior which influence the attitude, these are, namely; passive, aggressive, assertive, passive-aggressive, and the alternator, these are discussed briefly below.

A passive behavior allows or accepts whatever the others do without resisting or without an active response. Such people fear rejection by other individuals and they conform to everything and anything even if they are not satisfied – sort of hypocritical.

An aggressive behavior tends to show power and wants to control others and may always strive to get things done their way. They stand for what they believe in without hesitation except where there may be more powerful individuals, but they generally have no regards for the other individual's feelings, values, thoughts and beliefs.

**Assertive behavior** is about standing up for one's rights and expressing one's thoughts, feelings and position appropriately and in an honest and direct way. This kind of behavior shows respect for other people's rights and feelings too.

**Passive-aggressive** is generally when passiveness and aggression are used together (same time) without being clear about the position but somewhat adjusting to the situation as it is. This gives the impression of a passive individual becoming aggressive possibly out of frustration if they fail to get what they want to achieve

**Alternator**, is when passive and aggressive behaviors are alternated, meaning that the individual will use the characteristics of both behaviors (passive and aggressive) when it suits them

During the process of building a team, this is the nature (diversity) and conditions under which the team comes together. When these individuals come together, their differences are generally too wide apart, thus the need for the study of group dynamics – how do you make these people stay in one room, so to speak? This responds to the need for effective context relevant leadership.

## 2.1.3 The Group Effect on Individual Behavior

Crano (2000:68) postulates that the association with or merely the presence of other individuals can influence individual behavior. Studies have shown that some people will perform better in the presence of other people (Platow, Grace and Smithson, 2011) or may be destructed by the presence of other Individuals. In many instances, the decision making process of individuals is influenced by the nature and structure of the group in which they are a member. Sparrowe and Wayne (2001:316-325) identified positive and negative *aspects of* group influence on individual behavior, as can be seen in political activism. The degree of group influence can be ascribed to the group structure, the internal framework defining how members relate to each other. Le Bon and McDougall, (2008: 341-365) defined group structure as a basis of the form of roles, norms, networks and the interrelations of the individuals, which build the group.

Roles would be defined as the willingness for the individuals to behave in a particular way that enables interrelations with other group members to be amicable. Some of the roles that can be identified are leading, task roles, relationships and specific individual roles. The interrelationship develops the norms (unwritten laws) within which the group members relate. Pettigrew and Trop (2006:751-783) make reference to the norms as the informal rules observed by group members, which regulate their behavior. These norms have a very powerful effect on group and individual behavior and expectations, and they bring the identity to the group. There are different types of group norms (Forsyth, 2010:118-122) and these may be classified as; prescriptive, proscriptive, descriptive and injunctive norms.

**Prescriptive Norms:** these refer to the accepted (by the group) and appropriate ways the group members socialize in terms of what the group members should do in certain circumstances.

**Proscriptive Norms:** these are actions or conduct which is considered in appropriate and should not be done by group members in the process of socialization. These behaviors are what is generally considered inappropriate by the other members.

**Descriptive Norms:** describe the common or expected actions that people do in response to any event, in church people would say Amen instead of clapping hands after a sermon by the preacher.

**Injunctive Norms:** these make reference to compulsory actions or responses expected from the group members in response.

On the basis of these norms group members accept and identify with each other as individuals and then together as a group. Some members become closer to each other than with other group members forming internal social networks. The members are linked to each other at various stages in the group (Beal, Cohen, Burke and McLendon, 2003: 989-1004) and the extent to which the group members are linked determines the depth of cohesion or the absence thereof in the group. The extent to which the members are connected may also determine the communication patterns, the values and beliefs and the willingness to remain in a group. Inevitably groups will have status differentials since some will be leaders and others will be followers within the same group.

# 2.1.4 Group dynamics

Carron and Brawley (2000: 89-106) postulate that group dynamics is the study of the way in which individuals and groups interact and respond to the changing of the environment and circumstances around them. Interpersonal relationships are observed from three dimensions of the individuals, namely; inclusion, control, and affection (Van Vugt and Schaller, 2008:1). Groups and group members make adjustments to revolving issues within those three dimensions in order to allow the group to move from one stage to another. By implication therefore, if groups fail to resolve problems around certain issues, they may revert or go back to earlier stages of group development. These lie at

the heart of the individuals (interpersonal underworld) because these group processes are not visible, nor are they content issues.

Lee (2005:1582) makes reference to this as a system of 'psychological processes', which result in the development of behaviors within a social group – intragroup dynamics, or between social group settings – intergroup dynamics. Forsyth (2006, 351-377) concurs and defined group dynamics as a system The study of group dynamics enables observers to understand the decision making systems within the group, and this will help in understanding, for instance racism, mob justice and other group behaviors. The structure of group processes cannot be established by studying the behavior or characteristics of one individual in the group, their character can only be summed up as 'the whole is greater than the sum of its parts.' Group dynamics as a study can be broadly classified into two parts, namely; intragroup dynamics and intergroup dynamics.

Intragroup dynamics (in-group dynamics); there is a state of interdependence between the group members which influences individual attitudes, opinions, beliefs and behaviors as copied from other group members. The boundaries of the group may clarify the extent to which the group dynamics may be studied, if the boundaries are too wide, such as the South African population, it becomes difficult to be specific about the group character and behavior. Essentially what keeps the group together will be the psychological bond cemented by interpersonal attraction (Majchrzak, Jarvenpa, and Hollingshead (2007:147) telling themselves that they are together in the mission. This may account for the group cohesion, which has been linked, to group performance; group cohesion (Crano, 2000, 68–61) is the willingness of the individual group members to stick together. By implication, there are invisible forces that act on individual psyches to remain attracted to the group. Many other theories have been advanced on the study of intragroup dynamics.

Intergroup dynamics is defined as the psychological or behavioral relationship between two or more groups because of similarities in perceptions, opinions, attitudes and or values. Intergroup dynamics can be pro-social (when they join together for a good cause) or may lead to antisocial and conflict ridden leading to intergroup conflict (gangsters in Cape Town fighting each other in the streets). According to, Ellemers and Doosje (2004: 263:279) the intergroup conflict starts from comparisons between the groups (inner group and out-group) in enhancing self-esteem by individual members

and the group at large. This is common amongst racial groupings, political groupings and even religious groupings. Groups are characterized by interaction (verbal, formal and even informal which may range from social groups to task oriented groups), goals (where there are goals to be achieved – striking for service delivery), interdependence and unity. Groups have different types and these have been classified as listed as primary and secondary groups. Some types of groups are identified in the table 7 below.

Table 2.1 Classification of the different types of groups

Peer group	Is comprised of members in the same age group, same social status and may have the same interests. Generally equal to each other.
Clique	Have same interests and generally found in a high school / college and have developed names and rules for themselves.
Club	This is a group of individuals where membership is generally by application, they may be dedicated to particular activities; guides, sports, scouts etc.
Cabal	Cabal members are united in some close design together to promote their private interests; in a church, or other community, usually by intrigue.
Household	This group is formed from members living in the same home, like a family, extended families and their relatives.
Community	A group of people with overlapping commonalities generally close to each other over an extended period.
Gang	Generally an urban group that hangs around together often, known to cause social problems and are known for negative activities – not always.
Mob	A group of people, generally uncoordinated and come together for a particular activity – to watch the arrest of someone – to strict delivery services.
Squad	Generally a small group working together to achieve some objective – it may be a football team, etc.
Dyad	Group of two people and is characterized by the intensity of the interaction since there are no other members involved.
Triad	Group of two people and is characterized by the intensity of the interaction since there are no other members involved. More stable than a dyad.
Team	More like a squad generally involves people with set objectives to achieve and there is a known leader in the group – common in work places and sports.

Source: own construction from literature reviewed

The above table was derived and contructed from literature reviewed such as from (M Easterbrook, VL Vignoles, 2003) and (B Lickel, DL Hamilton, 2001). Except for the dyad and triad, groups can comprise of many people coming in and going out, generally not compulsory. All the same they have to conform to certain norms if they are to stay in, some groupings like gangs are known for forcing allegiance once you have been involved with them.

# **Group Performance**

Although individuals can perform most of the tasks performed in groups, it is known that most people prefer to work with other people (Forsyth, 2006:34).

### Team

A **team** is a group of people who come together with complementary skills in order to conduct a complex task with many interdependent subtasks. Teamwork minimizes the complexity of the tasks involved, specifically a well-constituted team with effective leadership (Verma, 2002:32). There are numerous definitions of what a team is, these are illustrated in table 8 below.

Table 2.2 Definitions of team by different authors

Author	Definition
Gondal and Khan. (2008; 38)	A small group in which team member have a common goal, interdependence roles to play and complementary skills.
Katzenbach and Smith (2005)	A small group of employees with complementary skills who share a common goal, purpose and the approach to which they embrace themselves mutually responsible.
Sudhakar, Farooq and Patnaik (2011; 195)	A group of interpersonal relationships formed to achieve a shared goal.
Sudhakar, et al. (2011; 195)	A group of people who have the same aim and in which their jobs and skills match the other members of the team.

### Source; own construction

From the definitions above, a team is a group of people with shared leadership goals; same purpose for the team, working towards one objective, each member is accountable for their subtask. Smarkusky, (2008:99) says the effort put by each member

brings up the sum total, which should be better than the whole, whatever each member does impacts on the final results. Therefore the performance of the team is judged on the basis of what each member does towards the accomplishment of the project at hand. A deep understanding of team dynamics is essential (Mason and Griffin, 2005:625-652) and the choice of the team members is essential for effective project execution. Together with this, the goals must be clear, team members must have the appropriate competencies. The size of the project is another consideration as that may mean a larger team and many more sub-teams doing varying subtasks.

Longman and Mullins (2005:78) assert that poor project management skills affect the project team performance, there is a need for appropriate knowledge, skills and experience in a team. According to Muraca (2007:16) there are factors that impact on the performance of the team, namely; characteristics of the team, characteristics of the project, characteristics of the members, team conflicts and conflict management. Team leader's performance and experience in dealing with uncertainly and problems will positively influence the team's performance (Srivastava, Bartol and Locke, 2006:1239-1251). Conflict is another source of factors that impact on the performance of a team (Huckman, Staats and Upton. 2009; 85-100), conflict can be caused by individual 31ndividu, social pressure within the team, interdependence in teams and resource sharing.

The greatest enemy of teams would be the leadership that may fail to embrace the diversity of the teams (Thamhain,1988, 823-846) and instead show partiality. The self-conscious theory (Happé and Francesca 2003: 134–144) stipulates that people will try to change behavior to suit the situation or to be accommodated. Largely dependent on the power distance and their perception of whom they are exactly, may influence the behavior and reduce conflicts but accommodate behavior that might be against their values. In projects where the desired results are not achieved, the failure of the project may be a result, not of technology used, product being developed, different time zones telecommunication in case of software teams, but to look at the inter cultural issues that the team experienced during the project.

One other element of contention resulting in the failure of the team to perform can be the climate and culture of the organization concerned (Griffin, *et al.* 2005; 197). The organizational environment is strongly related to organizational productivity. The organizational climate is one big predictor of performance and there is an important link

between the organizational culture and team performance. The organizational culture consists of groups of shared values (Thamhain, 2004; 533-544) and principles that direct or guide the team member's behavior, project priorities, activities and also group decisions.

The external environment may also be a contributor to team performance (Webber, 2008; 72-81) like; design factors, group psychological traits and internal and external processes. The organization's competitors also may play a part in impacting the project team performance. The project team performance is affected by many factors outside of the control of the team on which these factors impact. Effective team leadership is therefore critical (Shenhar, 2004, 569-578) to bring together the team amidst all these factors.

A team is not just a group of people, it is a group with a mission, and necessarily should have members with complementary skills who will coordinate the operations of the different interdependent subtasks. McFadzean, (2002:41) posits that teams maximize their strength and minimize their weaknesses by helping each other. The strong sense of commitment to achieve a task creates the synergy that the teams need to perform. It can be said that the team enables individual development as different people with different tasks depend on each other's functions.

The project team is a different structure altogether, and by definition a project is a temporary endeavor undertaken to create a unique product or service (Burke, 2007:17). From this definition every project has a start and end date and is unique from other products of a similar nature. According to Young (2013:13), the project has cleared defined objectives and limited by time, costs and quality. Therefore a team with the proper quality of skills (Mantrel, Meredith, Scott & Sutton, 2006:44) will reduce the difficulty in the complexity of the project under execution. For this reason, a team in projects needs appropriate skills, effective communication, mutual trust, cooperation, collaboration and high quality decisions.

The inability to build a more cross functional team by identify the capabilities of the members (Russel, Kodama & Robinson (2009:2), together with the inability to assist weak team members causes big problem in project execution. The more diverse the team is, the more it is likely to provide the requisite skills (Webber, 2002, 201-214) since people in the teamwork independently. The working relationships among the project

team members affect both the individual and the team's productivity. Therefore, teamwork is a critical factor for project success and developing effective project teams is one of the prime responsibilities of the project manager (Heagney, 2012:33).

Project success depends largely on the level of cohesion amongst the team members as they overlap each other to bring the project to a successful end (Maclean and Maseti, 2016:306-321). The information about team members is best sourced from the team members themselves instead of looking for external members for reference. Hierstetter (2009:2) suggests dealing with the team directly and not treating the team as just another group. Therefore an understanding of individual members assists the leader in attending to any potential conflicts and bringing about synergy amongst the team members.

### **Group versus team**

Emanating from the definitions given above, it is clear that the line between group and team is thin and difficult to separate. However, these two show marked differences between them, and some of those subtle differences are shown in table 10 below.

Table 2.3. The subtle differences between group and team

GROUP	TEAM
Has a large number trying to carry out a focused action	Has small number with leader and clear purpose
Individuals forming a unit for a reason or cause	Collection of individuals for a cause that needs competition
Individuals are largely independent of each other	Members work interdependently for a given cause
Members may belong to the same department	Members may not work in the same department
They can have the same skills and work towards their interest	They have complementary skills for them to succeed
Leader generally dominates and gives direction to the group	Generally the leader facilitates the process
The leader sets the pace and will conduct the meeting	Members are involved in the decision making process
Leader usually assigns work to the members	Disbursement of tasks is done together by the team

Generally informal and work independent of each other	More formal and are interdependent in their operations
Members tend to focus on themselves more	Team works together and shares the outcome
The group may have objectives but not defined	Team generally has clearly defined deliverables
There may be no sense of ownership except for the leader	Members generally feel a sense of ownership
Easy to distrust other members because they do not understand their role	Trust seems to increase with understanding of each other
There may be no need for specific skills within a group	There will be specific needs from team members
Members work in an unstructured environment	The environment is structured with clear roles
Members act as individuals in whatever they do	Members act as a cohesive unit with accountability

## Source: own construction from literature by Jim Sisson, 2013

The table above clearly states the differences between groups and teams, and it should be noted that teams are groups of a particular category. Teams are groups but groups are not necessarily teams.

#### 2.1.5 Characteristics of Effective Teams

Michan and Rodger (2000:201-208) define the team as a group of people with a full set of complementary skills required to complete a task. The team member operates with high degree of interdependence, shared authority and the member is responsible for self-management towards a common goal, shared rewards and are accountable for the collective performance. Slack, Chambers and Johnston: (2009:5) say that: a team becomes more than iust a collection of people when а strong sense of mutual commitment creates synergy amongst them, thus generating performance greater than the sum of the performance of its individual members. There is always a chance that things might go wrong but recognizing that things will sometimes go wrong is not the same as ignoring or accepting it as inevitable. Extensive research on the effectiveness of a team has not solved the problem of performance of the teams, but has identified generic characteristics common to effective / successful teams (Meyer (2002:60), compared to ineffective teams. The generic characteristics of an effective team are listed in the table 2.4 below.

**Table 7 Generic characteristics of effective teams** 

Clear Purpose	Clearly defined vision, mission, and goals.	
Informality-	Informal, comfortable, relaxed climate	
Participation	Everyone is encouraged to participate and contribute	
Listening	Team Members use effective listening techniques	
Civilized Disagreement	Team Members are comfortable with conflict	
Consensus Decisions	Open discussion of ideas and agreement by consensus	
Open Communication	Team Members' freedom of expression; no hidden agendas	
Clear Roles and Assignments	Roles clearly defined for each member	
Shared Leadership	Leadership roles shift depending upon circumstances	
External Relations	Team Members develop outside relationships	
Focus on tasks	Team Members focus on tasks, goals and processes	
Self-Assessment	Self- evaluation is done regularly by members	
Commitment	Team Members really believe in the task	
Motivation	Team Members are energized about the task	
Skill Diversity	Mix of multi-disciplines [professionals] in the team	
Urgency	The execution of the project is made urgent	
Trust	There is trust amongst the team members	
Celebration	Recognize team and individual successes	

Source: own construction from literature by Meier (2008:1)

The characteristics in the table 9 above are common amongst good performing teams; it is vital to know this since many organizations are moving towards management-by-projects. The use of task-oriented teams is increasingly the norm in the industry thus putting pressure on the academics to try to understand more about team dynamics. Fortune Magazine executives (1000 of them – 58%) indicated that employees would be working on project teams more frequently in the future. Cross-functional teams are being used increasingly in new product development. Cross-functional teams, as defined by Rahman and Kumaraswamy, (2007:25), are teams comprised of members representing the internal and external groups. Situational influences (Byrd & Luthy 2010:13) are documented as important for team effectiveness, this includes; task flexibility, low task interdependence, and the need for formal performance measures. Effective organizations recognize that teams are crucial to solving issues and problems facing the organization (Summers, 2005:201).

Team leaders need to 36 individuals each individual's knowledge and skill base so that the individuals can be assigned tasks that utilize these skills effectively. Less likely to be understood is that the individuals on any team possess a wide variety of personality traits. Summers (2005:203) postulates that one key to helping teams function more effectively is to acknowledge those individual personalities and use them to the team's advantage. The confidence that individual members have on their team mates (Sole and Edmondson (2002:17-34), if aided by a supportive structure that permits open communication, members can undertake frequent discussions, debates and extensive communications necessary to resolve many of the technological and functional challenges that arise in the development of new technologies.

## The size of the team and performance

There is a debate on what should be the ideal size of a team, but it should be considered that the size of the team depends largely on the tasks to be performed. The size of the team will inevitably affect the team processes and by derivation, their outcomes. Team size and team composition affect team processes and team outcomes. The optimal size of a team has been debated between 5 – 12 members in a team (McFadzean, 2002:463-476). The performance of a team is considered to be a function of the size of the team and the tasks that are to be performed. The effectiveness thereof could not be measured

accurately without considering variables like the personalities of the individuals, group size, work norms, status relationships, and group structure. The cohesion of the group is a function of the extent to which the team is homogenous or heterogeneous, the more heterogeneous the group the higher the potential for conflict.

# The Project Team

There are different types of teams (Morgeson, <u>DeRue and Karam</u> ( 2009:39) namely; advisory teams, action teams, sports teams, virtual teams and project teams crossfunctional teams, self-directed teams, permanent teams, temporary teams, The critical difference between these teams and the project team is the fact that the project team is established for a given period. This team is commonly found embedded in large organizations with functional departments that second their personnel to the project for the duration of the execution of the project. This team is generally found in matrix organizations with a specific structure as illustrated below in figure 2.1 below.

Managing
Director

HRM

Civil Electrical Finance
Engineer Engineer

Finance

Project Engineering Engineering

**Figure 2.1: Matrix Organizations Structure** 

**Source: Jowah, 2014:23** 

Manager

In this structure, the managing director has four departmental heads reporting to him, these are; the human resources manager, the civil engineer, the electrical engineer and the finance manager. Each one of them has subordinates who are involved in a company project, they are 'donated' to the project from their department. As a result, each employee has two bosses they report to; the project manager who has no authority over them and the functional manager, who they are not working under during the project but has authority over them. The people seconded to the project have a problem of dual

Personne

loyalty because they are permanently employed in their department, and make themselves available for the project. In certain instances they are at the same level or even senior to the project manager, meaning that the project manager does not have direct authority over them (Duygulu and Ciraklar, 2008:96). The project manager or leader has an authority gap and has to resort to other methods for him / her to be able to get the resources and cooperation from other departments in the organization. By default these people are expected to work as a team, and they generally have diverse talents (since the members come from different disciplines), which are meant to be complementary to each other.

## Team cognition

Team cognition is the "emergent state" referring to the way in which knowledge that is deemed essential for the effective functioning of the team is organized, represented and communicated to the team members. DeChurch and Mesmer-Magnus (2010:32-53) suggest that this "emergent state" does manifest itself in two ways, namely; compositional emergence and compilation emergence.

- 1. Compositional emergence when an individual's cognition is equal or similar in form and function to that of the team.
- 2. Compilation emergence when there is a greater degree of synergy among members of the team resulting in greater synergy in the team.

Team cognition is comprised of; the task related models informed by knowledge of the major duties to be performed by the team and the team-related models, which relate to interactions and interdependence among the team members. These are expected to enable the team to perform well and effectively.

#### **Team Performance**

Water, Ahaus and Rozier (2008; 499) postulated that the way a team is structured impacts on each team member's contribution and the way they interact as team members impacts on their performance. Training the project team members on the skills and traits that they lack can improve performance, but generally in projects the selected or recruited team members bring their skills. Kozlowski and Ilgen. (2006; 77) assert that the ability of the members to interact and communicate with each other improves the quality of the team and may lead to effective team performance. Trust amongst the

members is known to impact positively on project team performance (Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp and Gilson, 2008; 410-476) as this improves communication and allows for team members covering for each other where a member may be weak. Employing high caliber professionals is not a guarantee for team success (Mach and Baruch, 2015; 464 – 486) especially where there is no trust among and the focus on their differences instead of their tasks. Team members' characteristics are particularly influential on the team interaction with each other and outcomes. Greater trust and interaction is more necessary where the project teams are diverse in composition (Horwitz and Horwitz, 2007; 987-1015) since the differences may impact on proper communication.

It is possible for team members coming from different cultural backgrounds to have noticeable differences (Kirkman and Shapiro, 2005; 33-67), but it is up to the individuals to focus on group aims and goals and not on the differences. Team members take trust as a motivation factor and it impacts on their ability to improve on performance (Beal, Cohen, and Burke, 2007; 606-632) because builds dependability. Mach, Dolan and Tzafrir (2010; 771-794) echoe the same sentiments and assert that trust increases the team's positive attitude (working together) or ability of the team to come together as a team. The absence of trust will inevitably reduce the level of interaction and consequently the willingness to work together or to cover for each other.

### **Team Cohesiveness**

This is the extent to which the team members are attracted to the team and the extent of their desire to stay in the team (Webber, 2008:72-81). These group members (team members) are characterized by their commitment to group activities, regularity in attending meetings, and celebrate when the team is successful. The levels of member interaction are generally high and thereby members get to know each other well (Mason and Griffin, 2005:625-652), consequently they confide in each other. Besides, these individuals share the desire to achieve the goals – shared goals and objectives; hence they get excited in each other's company. Cohesive teams develop personal attraction to each other which may lead to the development of same attitudes towards achievement of the tasks. The excitement of being a member of the team will inevitably impact positively on both the morale and the subsequent increase in performance. The presence of high morale in a highly cohesive team (Taggar and Ellis, 2007:105-120) is as a result of interaction and communication amongst the members, a conducive team

climate, leading to continued membership of the team, which leads to loyalty to the team and the participation of members in decision making.

The relationship between management and the workers is still important for the team to perform even though cohesiveness may be high. When the team members feel that there is no support from management, productivity is known to have waned (Coffman and Gonzalez-Molina, 2002:87-92). As alluded to before, the organizational structure affects the functioning of even the very best of performers in the organization. Hence the climate and the culture of an organization need to be appropriate for effective participation of all the elements of the organization as they work towards achievement of the organizational objectives. Team cohesiveness brings about an understanding amongst the members, which leads to the development of acceptable norms within the group. Consequently they will interact in a particular way, and have certain standards expected by different members as a code of conduct.

A project team is somewhat unique in the sense that the management systems in projects are not like the traditional management systems where the leader has authority. The project leader / team coordinator has no authority over the people he/she is dealing with. Thus the leader depends largely on other departments for the resources (human or material resources), this causes dual loyalty by the project team members.

The project manager has to develop a different type of leadership therefore to enable to keep the team together. A project team can further be divided into sub-teams. An example is at a large construction site the heads of the Work Breakdown Structures (WBS) may constitute the team that is headed directly by the project manager. But the leaders of the WBSs will form teams for their tasks or WHS. The interdependence nature of the team should assist in creating synergy for the whole structure since there is the practice of collective responsibilities for the final product.

Because projects are temporary in their nature, it may be difficult for the practitioners to keep up the moral halfway through the project when they know that the project will come to an end. The unrest begins with people looking around for new opportunities, or, they may be moving back to their respective departments. The greatest question emanating from this is; how can the leader keep the team motivated in the midst of all these concerns?

## **Chapter Summary**

As alluded to in the preceding literature team cognition and motivation brings about the much needed synergy for teams. The ability of a manager to build and maintain that synergy and motivation amongst the members of the team, makes working together a pleasure. It may be hypothesised that since motivated teams have higher performance levels, they may equally have high job satisfaction levels. These will therefore be manifested in the way the team members will cooperate and support each other, thereby enable the members to perform their tasks more effectively and efficiently. The knowledge of the tasks makes team cognition more intense and may make interaction of the members more valuable and encouraging. Not forgetting that the task structure and the team organogram will add on to the synergy needed by the team for effective performance. And this can be consolidated by training and assisting of one another by the team members, this brings together more skilling and empowerment of the team members. An effective team will also help in bridging the diverse characteristics of the members with increased interaction and cooperation. Generally the levels of trust go up and more harmonised operations may become the norm and followed by increased interdependency amongst team members. This will inevitably impact on narrowing the cultural gap and reducing operational and cultural conflicts as the members increasingly understand and trust each other. New norms and standards are developed and there is a general perception that loyalty to the team operational and relational expectations brings the group together as a family. A motivated team will tend to stay together, work together and perform together with all members overlapping and helping each other.

#### **CHAPTER 3**

#### 3.1 MOTIVATION THEORIES

This work uses the theory of planned behavior to motivate team members of a project. It illustrates that the singular behavior is influenced by "attitude, subjective norms, and the observed behavioral mechanism". It influences individual attention to work as a team and to be motivated (Amabile, 1997:39-58).

The Theory of Planned Behavior involves three items, namely:

- Attitude towards a situation: is the individual positive or negative feeling involved in a specific behavior.
- Subjective norms: it is an individual's awareness of what people think significant to them about a specific behavior at their workplace.
- Perceived behavioral control: it refers to an individual's ability to handle difficult behavioural shocks that may impact on performance.

According to Herath and Rao (2009:154-165) the theory of planed behavior stipulates that team member's attitude can impact the behavioral intention and motivate people to work as a team. Therefore, this builds a positive determination towards a team's satisfaction. If a team is not motivated and not satisfied, there will be a marked reduction in team performance (Bang and Ross, 2009:61-77). At the individual level, if an individual is satisfied and has a positive belief in the organization and team, the organizational objectives can be met with comparative ease (Luthans, 2002:26).

#### What is Motivation?

Motivation is the inner power or energy that pushes one toward performing a certain action. Motivation strengthens the ambition, increases initiative and gives direction, courage (Herath and Rao, 2009:332), energy and the persistence to follow one's goals. Motivation is known to be generally strong, when one has a vision, a clear mental image of a certain situation or achievement, faith in ones abilities and also a strong desire to materialize it. In this case motivation pushes one forward, toward taking action and turning the vision to reality. Motivating forces can be positive, as in impelling one to reach a certain goal. Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (2011:60) state that you can be positively motivated about going to work because you like your colleagues and the work you are doing. You may also be negatively motivated because you have bills to pay and you would not dare not to show up. There is internal motivation, or push. You

can be internally motivated to go to work because it makes you feel useful and creative. According to Webster and Watson (2002:264), it is important to note importance of the theories on motivation, namely; X and Y theories discussed in table 3.1 below.

**Table 3.1 Theories of motivation** 

THEORY X	THEORY Y	
People in this case team members require close supervision	Team members want to work independently	
Tend to avoid responsibilities	Team members seek Responsibility	
They avoid work and are not self motivated	They are motivated by self-fulfillment or achievement	
Their main desire is money	They naturally want to do work	
They need to be persuaded to perform	They strive to perform and have drive	

# Source: McGregor(1960)

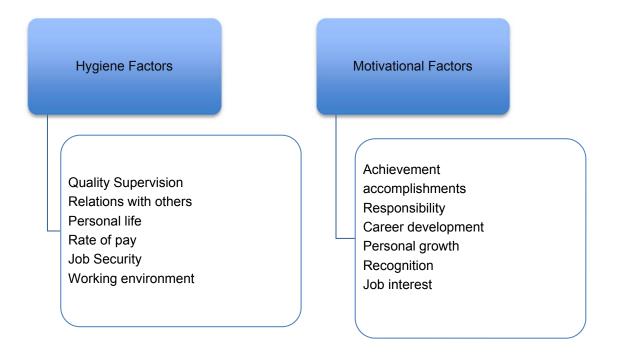
This theory delineates two diverse types of workers and how they may be guided or managed, the moment individuals start to focus on their personal ambitions and selfish goals, they begin to detest work, they become demotivated and require some form of persuasion in order to do their required job or task this is theory X. RE Kopelman, DJ Prottas, AL Davis, (2008:255-271), Theory Y presumes that people are congenitally motivated which leads them to do their best at all times without the expectation of being compensated, these people usually enjoy working. This Theory is very easy to understand, it is important because it helps project leaders focus on their thoughts on the different ways in which team members relate to and carry out work or tasks, but McGregor's methodology was flawed because the X and Y Theory work on a lot of assumptions which make it hard to rely on the theory. This theory is of pivotal value to this study as it helps identify and determine the interests of different types of team members.

### 3.1.1 Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory

This theory; while implementing the project team development process, considers the fact that there are various factors that have an influence on satisfaction in the place of work. These factors can be classified as either hygiene factors or motivational factors.

Steers and Mowday (2004:379-387) mention that the presence of hygiene factors does not automatically ensure the satisfaction of team members even though their absence causes an immediate negative impact on their satisfaction. Examples of hygiene factors include the remuneration, in relation to quantity, working conditions; whether there are private offices or cubicles, sanitation etc. Lundberg and Gudmundson (2009:890-899) emphasize that the motivational factors will instill and motivate members to perform as expected. However, these factors alone will not cause an effect on the attitudes of employees; the hygiene factors must be in place. Examples of motivational factors may be accomplishments, self —enhancement and self-actualization. These have been categorically referred to as the hygiene and motivational factors which focus on other aspects of the individual and how these affect motivation of these individuals. It is understood that people would respond differently to these factors. These Hezberg's hygiene and motivational theories are illustrated in figure 3.1 below.

Figure 3.1 Herzberg's Motivation – Hygiene Theory



### Source: adapted from Herzberg (1966: 10)

The theory establishes relationship between personal issues that relate to the employee and their impact on the 44 individuals of the employee. An employee who is satisfied with his or her line manager's performance may feel comfortable to exert themselves.

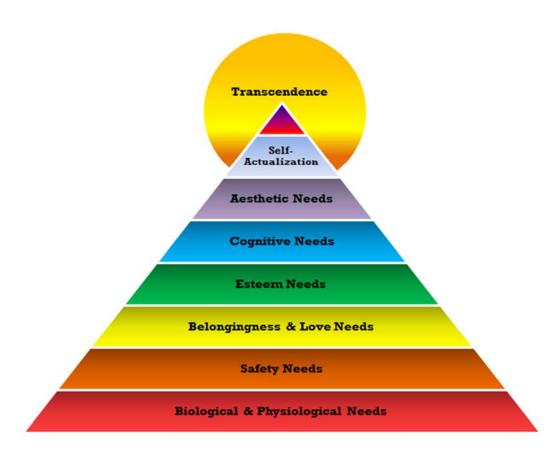
This should be complemented by salary considered adequate by the employee with which leads the employee to feel secured and in a conducive environment. These elements of the employee's personal life are considered to result in a motivated employee who sees themselves as achieving their life goals, developing their career and getting more interested in their job. The interest in the job improves the employee's performance and the likelihood of a loyal and cooperative team member who will seek to excel. This theory failed to use a comprehensive measure to assess satisfaction; an employee may find his/her job satisfactory despite the fact that he/she may dislike part of his/her job, hence it concludes that there are certain factors in the workplace that can cause job satisfaction and a separate set of factors that can cause dissatisfaction. This theory is of use to this study as it helps depict different factors that contribute to team satisfaction.

## 3.1.2 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

This theory instills and states that everyone has basic needs and these needs must be met before moving on to the next higher level of needs (Huitt, 2004:15). The content theory is the earliest theory, which states that motivation is a result of an individual wanting to satisfy needs the individual has. The theories state that the presence of a need that is perceived to be important results in the motivation of an individual to work hard to achieve the needs. Pritchard and Ashwood (2008:6) define motivation as a process an individual will use to allocate energy towards the performance of activities that will maximize the satisfaction of the individual's needs. The most prominent authors of the needs theories are Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's two-factor theory.

The illustration below (figure 3.2) depicts the hierarchy of needs as proposed by Maslow. The theory suggests that the motivation of an individual follows a hierarchy starting with basic requirements and developing to higher needs hence the name hierarchy of needs. This theory is essential to this study, because it helps determine the needs that ensure team member satisfaction. The needs are stated to start with biological and physiological needs, to safety needs, belonging and love needs, esteem needs, cognitive needs, aesthetic needs, and self-actualization is the climax of the hierarchy of the needs. Other studies have disagreed with certain aspects of this hierarchy, but the theory has remained largely useful for most practical purposes. This is illustrated below in the form of a triangle in figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: Maslow's hierarchy of needs



Maslow's Hierarchy Of Needs Pyramid

Source: Maslow and Lewis, 1987:14.

This theory is based on Maslow's believe in the goodness of man and that they have an inner drive to want to excel and always aspire to get better. The hierarch of needs developed by Maslow (Deci and Vansteenkiste, 2004:17-34) consists of five classes of hierarchy listed as, namely; physiological needs (hunger, thirst, sleep, etc.), safety needs (security, shelter and health), social needs (love and friendship), self-esteem (recognition, achievement) and self-actualization. It postulated that these levels are to be satisfied in succession with one leading to the other until the final need of self-actualization.

• The first or lowest level is the physiological level which has to be met first as it focuses on the basic needs that every individual requires in order to function normally. This category covers the need for sleep, water, nutrition and clothing.

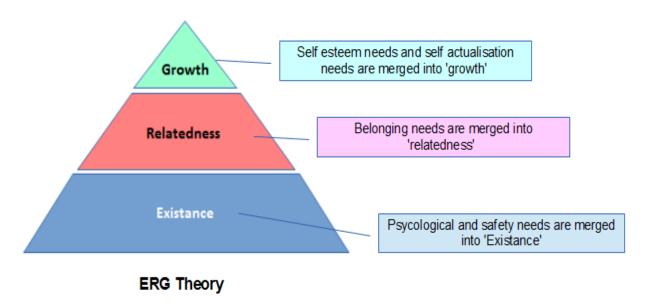
- The next level is security and safety. This affects the behavior of individuals due
  to the fact that once all physiological needs are met, the individual feels the need
  to exercise control in their lives. Some of the needs covered in this level are
  financial security, health and being able to work in an environment where they
  are not constantly exposed to risks of injuries or accidents states Mcleod
  (2007:12).
- The third level focuses on the social needs of an individual. People are driven by their need to feel loved and accepted, as well as their desire to belong or be part of a team. These needs can be satisfied if the individual is able to form friendships and other relationships with people and be a part of a community and social groups Poston (2009:52) delineates.
- The fourth level is called esteem and as the name suggests; it highlights the individual's need to feel appreciated and respected. In any type of set up people feel the need to contribute; to have their efforts recognized and valued is of great importance to the individual. Such aspects need to be considered during the implementation of the project team development process.
- The highest level in the hierarchy is called self-actualization and this may be the
  most complex need to meet. This level is centered on the individual's need to
  make full use of his talents, skills and qualifications. Individuals have the desire
  to live, work and achieve their full potential says Zalenski & Raspa (2006:11201127)

This theory is important because it motivates individuals to move from fundamental needs towards higher needs, providing a clear map for personal growth. But the theory assumes that all people experience these needs in the same order, failing to recognize cultural and individual differences. In collective societies, for example, social needs may be considered more important than physiological needs.

### 3.1.3 Alderfer's erg Theory

According to Huitt (2004:1) This theory is quite similar to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, but it is displayed in the form of a pyramid with its lowest level described as existence, the middle level described as relatedness, and higher level described as growth. Figure 7 illustrates Alderfer's theory. It is important that team members have an understanding of the Alderfer's erg Theory, so as to have a sense of connectedness, growth and personal development hence leading to team satisfaction. This is illustrated in figure 3.3 below.

Figure 3.3. Alderfer's theory of motivation



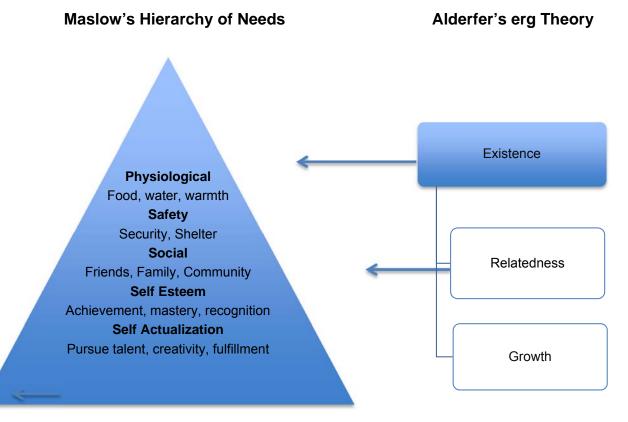
Source: Alderfer, 1969. 142-175

Arnolds and Boshoff (2002:697-719) reckon that existence refers to the physiological and security levels, relatedness refers to acceptance, and growth refers to the esteem and self-actualization levels in Maslow's theory:

- Existence: These needs are satisfied by basic but essential factors such as air, food, water, salary, and working environment.
- Relatedness: These are the needs that are satisfied by social and interpersonal relationships.
- Growth: These needs are satisfied when someone makes creative and productive contributions.

Alderfer and Maslow's theories of motivation and needs have been contested (Leung and Tong, 2004:313), the theories are considered to be lacking verification and certification as well as support from other related theories. According to Ryan and Deci, (2001:6), these theories of needs are simple and can be easily expressed as ideas and thoughts of human well-being and their behavior. Below in figure 3.4 is a comparison of the theories by Maslow and Alderfer.

Figure 3.4: Comparison of Maslow and Aderfer's Motivation theories



Source: Adapted from A. Maslow (1943, 1954)

In a sense, Alderfer's pyramid was a re-clarification or re-phrasing of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Alderfer's ERG Theory condenses Maslow's five human needs into three categories: existence, relatedness and growth. Include all material and physiological desires, (e.g., food, water, air, clothing, safety etc.

## 3.1.4 McClelland's theory of needs

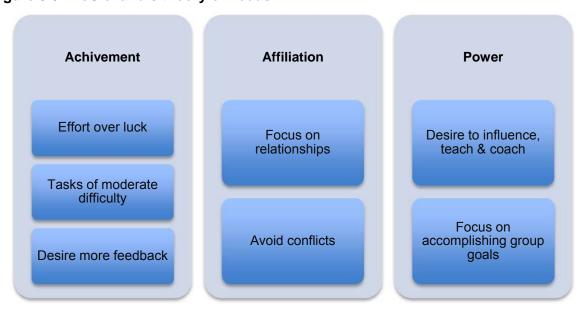
This theory is also known as the achievement theory and it states that members of a team or group are driven by different factors that have ultimately been grouped into three dominant needs (Royle & Hall, 2012:21-42);

- Power; characteristic of individuals who want to influence and organize others and tend to encourage other members, they often enjoy recognition, competition and winning.
- Achievement; characteristic of goal oriented individuals bent on mastering a specific role, situation or task. These people prefer working on not so difficult tasks and are aversive to failure and risk.
- Affiliation; characteristic of relationship-oriented people who seek continually to

create and maintain social relationships. They enjoy being part of groups or teams and often seek acceptance and a feeling of belonging.

Identification of the category of team members assists tremendously in the allocation of duties and responsibilities if the individuals are expected to be motivated (Ramlall, 2004:52-63). This theory is illustrated in figure 3.5 below.

Figure 3.5: McClelland's theory of needs



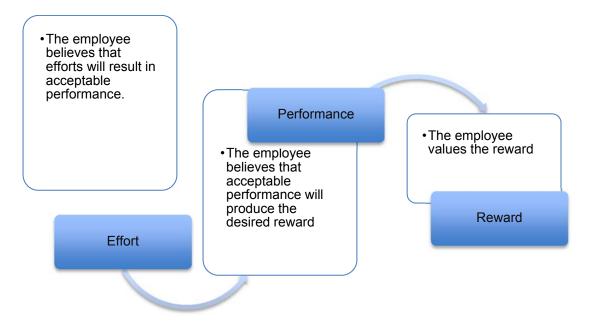
**Source: McClelland(1967:** 56–70)

The theory postulates that an employee will feel motivated if the balance in the three elements, namely; achievement, affiliation and power are met. Achievement – motivation is seen as coming from the ability to accomplish the tasks, if they are considered achievable (moderate difficulty). The success on these tasks boosts the employee's need to put effort as a means of achieving the desired goals. Affiliation – an individual with good relationships with other employees feels appreciated and recognized, this in turn boosts the morale of the worker. Where good relationships thrive, conflicts re few, meaning that there is little distraction on the focus on the tasks and the relationships. Power is the ability to influence – thus if an employee has the capacity to influence others, this may motivate them to assist other team members towards achievements of the group / team goals. That on its own is motivating and impacts on the team performance. This theory is essential for this study as it helps depict team member's satisfaction through the three elements: Achievement, Affiliation and Power.

## 3.1.5 Vroom's Expectancy Theory

According to McMenemy and Lee (2007:788), Vroom's expectancy theory is based on the assumption that the individual understands that a certain effort will amount to an expected outcome. This is motivating because the employee knows that with a little more effort performance may be enhanced leading to rewards that may be considered positive by the employee. This theory is illustrated in figure 10 below. The Vroom's expectancy theory will definitely motivate team members to perform as it will help encourage members to work towards an expected positive outcome or reward, this increases and improves team morale and overall success, satisfaction. This is illustrated in figure 3.6 below.

Figure 3.6: Vrooms Expectancy Theory



## Source: McMenemy & Lee (2007:796)

The theory postulates that effort leads to better performance, and that there is a reward for every good performance shown by the employee. This is "front side" of the transactional style of leadership; the manager uses the carrot and stick method to get employees to perform. If the reward is valued by the employee, it leads to the exert more effort for them to get the desired reward, this leads to performance by the individual. In instances where the reward may not be of any significant meaning, then the employee may only put more effort because they may want to satisfy an ego that says they can perform the task.

A motivated team member would generally be a satisfied employee, since, as alluded to above, the job environment and good member relationships are motivating on their own. Team cohesion can therefore be another element of the building blocks leading to member satisfaction, and eventually team satisfaction. It can be pointed out that team member-to-member trust may also assist in bringing about positive attitudes amongst the members. This will inevitably result in team loyalty, team expectation and team commitment, the presence of which produces team behavioral outcomes such as reduction in conflicts, reduction in member absenteeism and low labor turnover.

Feng, Yongjuan and Wang (2009:1373-1382) state that certain conditions enable the team members to be motivated and also enhance team unity, these are;

- If team members believe that their work is acceptable (valuable) they excel in their performance (Batt and Appelbaum, 2013:29 / Strubler and York, 2007:670-695).
- The characteristics of the tasks (autonomy, task meaningfulness and feedback) are positively connected to member satisfaction (Feng, Yongjuan and Wang 2009:1382).

## 3.1.6 Push and Pull Theory

Another theory constantly made reference to is the push and pull theory of motivation (Kirkwood, 2009:346-364). These push or pull employees or individuals to do certain things in response to these factors. Push factors – such as pain may drive someone away from a situation or motivate someone to go and look for treatment. Pull factor – such as the presence of employment opportunities in one country and not the other resulting in people becoming economic refugees. These are illustrated in table 3.2 below:

Table 8 Examples of push and pull factors

PUSH FACTORS	PULL FACTORS
Unemployment	Potential for employment
Lack of Safety	A safer atmosphere and friends/ Family
Lack of services	Better service provision
Poverty and Isolation	Greater wealth
Crop failure	Fertile land, less risk of natural hazards
Drought	Good food supplies

War, Civil unrest and Hazards	Political security
vvar, orvir arricot arra rrazardo	1 Shillour Society

## Source: Developed from Uysal's and Crompton (1977-1993)

Some people, or at least most of these theories are largely based on the same principle, the quest to satisfy a need. Whilst not all employees (or individuals for that matter) will be pulled or pushed in the same way to the same extent, it is acceptable that people perform certain tasks or do certain activities as a result of the push and or pull factors associated with their condition / circumstances.

# 3.1.7 Path-Goal Theory:

Jaramillo, Grisaffe and Chonko (2009:351-365) suggest that the Path-Goal Theory, assists in determining the appropriate leadership style with the sole objective of motivating employees to perform. Feyerherm and Rice (2002:343-362) concur and add that the objective of the theory, apart from motivating the subordinates may strengthen the performance of the participant. The theory postulates extend to the strengthening and empowerment of the subordinate beyond mere motivation to perform. The theory is diagrammatically illustrated in figure 3.7 below, this shows the 4 major aspects of the theory and the subsequent subdivisions. Note the difference on the focus between this theory and that of the preceding theories.

**Employee** Contingencies Experience Leader **Leader Behaviors Effectiveness**  Directive Employee Motivation Supportive Employee Participative Satisfaction Achievement-oriented Leader Acceptance **Environmental** Contingencies Task Structure Team Dynamics

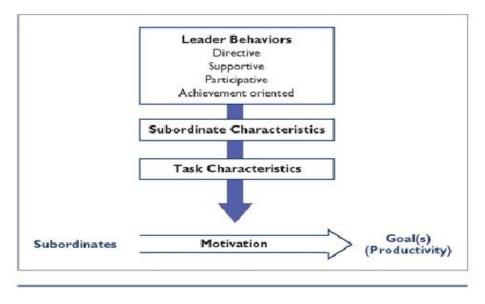
Figure 3.7 House -Path-Goal Theory

Source: House, 1971:1-97

The path–goal theory alternatively referred to as the path–goal theory of leader effectiveness, as a model is a leadership theory. The initial theory was developed in 1971 and was later revised in 1996. The theory places the onus of subordinate motivation on the leader and the leadership style exhibited, thus subordinate satisfaction and motivation leading to performance depend on leadership (House, 1971:1-97). The revised version introduces the tasks and the skills of the subordinate as an important component in the motivation process, depending on the level of the subordinate (House and Antonakis, 1996: 323-352). This is also explained as instrumental leadership, referring to the degree to which the subordinate is prepared to follow a leader (the path). This was also influenced by the expectancy theory as alluded to above. The modified model is illustrated in figure 3. 8 below.

Figure 3.8 Modified House's Path-Goal Theory





Source: (House and Antonakis, 1996: 323-352).

More work was done, and much more may still be going on in refining the model, with the result that another addition was made to the initial modification. In 2014, Antonakis and House (2014:746) made yet another modification to the theory and model and

included among others that the leader should have the ability to adjust to the situation and the tasks to be performed. Path-Goal Theory states that the leader is responsible for providing followers with the information, support, or other resources necessary to **achieve their goals**. This is illustrated in the figure (3.9) below.

Path-Goal Theory of Leadership eader Behaviors Directive Supportive **Participative** Achievement Oriented Environmental Characteristics Characteristics Perceived Ability Task Structure Locus of Control Work Group Subordinates' Motivation to Perform

Figure 3. 9 The Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

# Source: Antonakis and House, (2014:746).

"The term 'path-goal' denotes that a leader must illuminate the path to the goal and explain how to make the journey successfully to the followers. This means the leader must take charge and clarify the activities, the direction and all operational issues necessary to accomplish the tasks. The acceptability of the leader can be measured by the participation, involvement and performance of the subordinates. This may also assist in reducing the conflicts and possible dysfunctional behaviours commensurate with a team disgruntled subordinates. This suggests that there should be a need for different styles of leadership at different times and to different individuals in the team.

++Log in to http://edu-article.blogspot.com

#### 3.2 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Theories

Other researchers have classified the motivation theory as being essentially intrinsic and extrinsic (Ryan and Patrick, 2009:107-124) factors that enable people to get motivated. Vansteenkiste and Deci (2006:858) argue that it is wrong to classify motivation as a unitary phenomenon that simply varies from little to a lot of motivation. Understanding the difference between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and their origins will assist in leading a team (comprising of extrinsically and intrinsically motivated) fosters each of the different types and allows for effective management of the team. Some of the tasks to be performed are not interesting and may be difficult and heavy and thus make take a lot of pain to motivate a subordinate. Vallerand (2007:78) says that knowing how to promote more active and volitional forms of extrinsic motivation becomes an essential strategy for successful motivation. Intrinsic motivation exists in the relation between individuals and activities. People are intrinsically motivated for some activities and not others, and not everyone is intrinsically motivated for any particular task.

**Intrinsic Motivation**; Reiss (2002:2) asserts that intrinsic motivation exists from the inside of the individual caused by the possibility that the task may be interesting and not difficult to do. To a degree all motivation is informed by the presence of a reward, be it tangible or as simple as recognition. According to Ryan and Deci (2001:141-166), we speak of intrinsically interesting activities when in reality it simply refers to that individuals find to be interesting. There is considerable practical utility in focusing on task properties and their potential intrinsic interest (Roca and Gagné, 2008:1585-1604)), as it leads toward improved task design or selection to enhance motivation.

Research on environmental effects on intrinsic motivation emphasizes autonomy versus control rather than competence. Carraça (2012:1) discuss that several studies have shown that autonomy-supportive teachers catalyze in their students greater intrinsic motivation, curiosity, and the desire for challenge. Ryan & Deci (2000:205) state that intrinsic motivation is clearly an important type of motivation, most of the activities people do are not, strictly speaking, intrinsically motivated.

**Extrinsic Motivation**; Oudeyer & Kaplan (2009:6), unlike some perspectives that view extrinsically motivated behavior as invariantly not autonomous, suggest that extrinsic motivation varies greatly in the degree to which it is autonomous. Reiss (2002:60) suggests that motivation cannot be treated as a unitary. Vansteenkiste and Sheldon

(2006:46) postulate that extrinsic motivation is external motivation based on external stimuli that may create the need for satisfaction. Moore (2011:2) reckons that extrinsically motivated behaviors are executed because they are instrumental to some separable consequence. Internalization and integration are the processes through which extrinsically motivated behaviors become more self-determined. The differences between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are displayed (table 3. 3) below.

Table 3.3 Comparison of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation

INTRINSIC MOTIVATION	EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION
Comes from within a person	Comes from outside forces
Feel a sense of responsibility	Feels it will ensure their position or status
Achieves something for its own sake	Tries to achieve a higher position, pay or status
Connect the activity with their self-esteem	Done for recognition from superior
Enjoys working on the assignment	Value rewards or awards for performance
Tries to achieve growth as an individual	Outside forces controls life

## Source: own construction

The intrinsically motivated individual would imagine himself or herself owning and driving their own car, whereas the extrinsically motivated imagines being a passenger in a car they don't own. The influence on employees' psychology that motivates them internally to perform, higher inborn desire to work, perform higher compared to psychological impact created by organization managers, good management practices (Latham and Pinder, 2005:485-516). It should be stated that the response to this stimuli is not altogether predictable (Cobb-Clark and Schurer, 2012:11-15) because the individuals concerned also have different circumstances around them. These circumstances may range from the personality traits (the Big 5 personality traits – namely; openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism), the economic circumstances of the subordinate (Srivastava, John, Gosling, and Potter, 2003:1041-1053), the cultural dictates and the congruence with the leadership given the above. In between will be those who may not clearly fit into these classifications, these are referred to as adaptable, moderate and may be reasonable. They may change their personalities dependent on their circumstances, and may be difficult to predict in terms

of what can motivate them to perform or to satisfaction (Roberts and Mroczek, 2008:31-35). The rewards sought by these two individuals (intrinsically and extrinsically motivated people) are illustrated in the table 3.4 below. These should be understood as a guide considering that people have different social constructs from which they come from and the age group (Fleeson, 2001:1011-1027).

Table 3.4: Benefits anticipated by intrinsically and extrinsically motivated people

Intrinsic Motivation	Extrinsic Motivation
Learning and growth opportunity	Salary
Social contact and status	Bonus/Perks
Curiosity	Organized activities
Respect and Honor	Promotion/Grades
	Punishment/Layoffs

**Source:** Wood and Wood,(1996:36)

The nature of intrinsic motivation is portrayed as one that is largely initiated and more centred on the individual without prompting from other sources. They are usually the type of individuals that may become innovative and venture into the unknown too often without much consideration. It can be hypothesized that based on the above in the table, the intrinsically motivated tend to be more of leaders than managers. Such people are likely to create problems when dealing with managers who want to maintain status quo – only use the tested, tried and approved. The extrinsically motivated seem to be your typical manager who does not want to "break rank" with tradition.

## 3.2.1 Equity Theory:

According to Bakker and Schaufeli (2000:4), the equity theory helps explain why pay and conditions alone do not determine motivation. When people feel fairly or advantageously treated they are more likely to be motivated; when they feel unfairly treated they are highly prone to feelings of disaffection and demotivation. Ball (2012:4) also states that Employees seek to maintain equity between the inputs that they bring to a job and the outcomes typical inputs include time, effort, loyalty, hard work, commitment, ability, adaptability and flexibility. Colella (2001:100-116) posits that people judge the fairness of their work situation by comparing the inputs that they

contribute to the outputs that they receive from their job. Table 3.5 below indicates the inputs that are generally contributed by the individuals.

Table 3.59 Colella's inputs by motivated individuals

Skills and experience	• Effort	Loyalty
Personal sacrifice	• Trust	Working hours
Patience	Tolerance	Flexibility
Enthusiasm	Support of others	

Source: own construction from Colella (2001:100-116).

These inputs seem to be derived from the character of an individual, which may easily be attributed to upbringing (culture, religion, tradition or inherently part of the Big 5). These can be aligned to intrinsic motivation and the ability of an individual to get on to be what they want to be without any "pull" to the individual. Colella also notes that there are outputs expected from the inputs, and these are tabled (table 3.6) below.

Table 3.610. Colella's outputs by motivated individuals

Financial, reward and benefits	Praise	Recognition
Sense of achievement	Status	Reputation
Responsibility	Respect	Trust
Security	Personal development	

Source: own construction from Colella (2001:100-116).

The outputs are characteristic of the extrinsic motivation experienced by those responding to the pull effect – attracted to external stimuli. The higher the seeming difference between the inputs and outputs, the greater the demotivation.

### 3.2.2 Goal-Setting Theory:

Commitment to goals and the energy and productivity resulting from this depends on the nature of the goal – specific and demanding goals (Locke, 2002:81) leading to greater results than easy or vague goals. As participating in the setting of the goals, individuals need feedback on how well they have performed. Empirical research

supports the proposition that goals that are both specific and challenging are more motivational than vague goals or goals that are relatively easy to achieve (York, O'Neil and Sarasvathy, 2014:64). The goal setting theory states that when the goals to be achieved are set at a higher standard, employees are motivated to perform better and put in maximum effort (Yemm, 2013:13).

The critical factor is goal commitment, which simply means that the more dedicated the individual is to achieving the goal, the more they will be motivated to exert effort toward goal accomplishment. Goals are known to affect individual performance through four mechanisms (Gollwitzer and Sheeran, 2006:69-119). Goals direct action and effort toward goal-related activities and away from unrelated activities and challenging goals lead to higher employee effort than easy goals.

## 3.2.3 Expectancy theory:

Isaac, Zerbe & Pitt (2001:212-226) state that this model is generally known as expectancy theory but is sometimes referred to as VIE theory (valence, instrumentality, and expectancy) respectively. These authors classify expectancy theory as a process theory of motivation because it emphasizes individual perceptions of the environment and subsequent interactions (Isaac, Zerbe and Pitt, 2001:18) arising as a consequence of personal expectations. In concurrence, Champion (2008:29) stipulates that Vrooms Expectancy theory states that an individual will act in a certain way based on the expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual. However, if the employee believes the company will not promote from within, then the employee has low instrumentality, and the employee will not be motivated to perform better (Naylor, Pritchard and Ilgen (2013:14). This theory's limitation is that it is idealistic because quite a few individuals perceive high degree correlation between performance and rewards, the it is important because it is based on self-interest individual who want to achieve maximum satisfaction and who want to minimize dissatisfaction.

## 3.2.4 Reinforcement Theory:

Wood and Wood (2005:315) suggest that fixed interval schedules of reinforcement occur when desired behaviors are reinforced. A fixed interval schedule of reinforcement does not appear to be a particularly strong way to elicit desired behavior, and behavior learned in this way may be subject to rapid extinction. Hamner and Luthans (2015:114) concur and reckon that the fixed ratio schedule of reinforcement applies the reinforced

after a set number of occurrences of the desired behaviors. Finally, the variable ratio reinforcement schedule applies the reinforced after a number of desired behaviors have occurred (Golembiewski, 2000:97). The reinforcement theory is popular for certain aspects of the motivation, like the rest of the other theories of motivation, it can be concluded that it has its strengths and weaknesses. Table 3.7 below explains the way it would work in practice.

**Table 3.7 Reinforcement theory** 

	Reinforcement	Punishment
Positive	Something is added to increase the likelihood a behavior will occur	Something is added to decrease the likelihood a behavior will occur
Negative	Something (unpleasant) is removed to increase the likelihood a behavior will occur	, ,

# Source: Developed from FS Kellers(1969)

This theory portrays individuals as primarily reacting to environmental stimuli rather than as initiating behavior based on imaginative or creative thought, it downplays the role of cognition in human behavior. This theory builds confidence and helps employees have a more pleasurable experience at work and avoid negativity such frustration, anger, anxiety and depression.

### 3.3 Application of Motivational Concepts

According to Rynes, Gerhart & Parks (2005:571-600) Linking Employee Involvement Programs and Motivation Theories Many motivational theories can be linked with employee involvement programs. Theory Y of motivation shows consistency with participative management while in case of hygiene theory; employee involvement programs could provide employees with intrinsic motivation by increasing opportunities for growth, responsibility, and involvement in the work itself. Beer, Cannon & Baron (2004:3-48) stipulate that these programs (sometimes referred to as pay-for-performance or at-risk pay plans), provide some or all of the work forces compensation based on employee performance or on the performance of a team. Springer & Pane (2012:367-390) reckon that In Variable Pay Programs a portion of employees pay is

based on some individual and/or organizational measure of performance. Skill-based pay refers to a pay system in which pay increases are linked to the number or depth of skills an employee acquires and applies. This helps in the development of broader and deeper skills among the workforce (Armstrong and Murlis, 2007:46).

#### 3.4 Conclusion

As alluded to earlier in the chapter, a team member as an individual has his / her own prototypes about what constitutes good work performance. The motivation varies inevitably with the individual concerned, making some to be cooperative followers while others continuously may want to leader. These different personalities have to adjust to the circumstances given the tasks to be performed and the personalities and skills of other team members. The study of motivation here seeks to try to establish what makes other people tick where others withdraw, and identifying generic factors that may be necessary to bring about satisfaction of the team members. As stated in the preceding literature, a satisfied workforce is known for increase in performance and hence productivity.

A project has serious limitations, which call for above average performance to be able to meet the iron triangle, and of cause the square root. The preceding theories related largely, and all of them seek to establish what can be done to motivate the team member. The ability to motivate all the team members may have to come from use of multiple leadership styles relevant to both the tasks to be performed and the personalities of the different individuals. It can therefore be hypothesized that effect team leaders need to develop the skill of using "62 individualized" styles to meet the different "motivators" of the team members.

Overall all the above theories have few similarities and many differences, the differences are apparent when analyzing the characteristics of each theory. However, they all share a common factor, which is beneficial for this study, each theory of motivation is dependent upon the management to institute the motivational factor and improve team morale so as to improve overall team performance. The Project lead will have to create an atmosphere of motivation because workers, team members will not self motivate. Project leads will have to ensure all team members are motivated and in condition to execute tasks.

#### **CHAPTER 4**

#### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

## 4.1 Research design

Research design is the structure of the research to be undertaken to solve a problem or answer a research question. It is a series of logical decision-making process where choices have to be made to be aligned with the purpose of the study. It is essentially the road map (Jowah, 2016, 72) involving a series of activities that will identify what is to be done. The design assists in checking and minimizing potential errors in the research undertaking and encompasses foundations of measurement, the tools for the measurement and the sampling of the population under study. Because it is a project, it is also impacted on by the requirements of the iron triangle (time, quality and budget) and needs to be completed within a specified time frame, produce the findings of an acceptable standard and within affordable costs. By definition, research design is a detailed plan to be followed to get respondents or objects from whence we will get the required research data or information. It is the structure of what you will need to collect, measure and analyze research data from the research population.

Based on the statement of research objectives, the research project has to answer questions like; what should be researched? What is the scope of the research? What is the testable hypothesis we seek to investigate? Answering these questions adequately will lead to the next stage, the decision on the best research design. The plan details the choices that have to be made in the process of conducting the research. Table 4.1 below lists what the research design seeks to do.

Table 4.1: The role of the research design

Allocate the scarce resources,	States the numbers or groups, and
How samples will be drawn, and	What the sample will be used for, or
The size of the sample to be drawn,	What is to be extracted from the sample

Source; own construction

Following on Maxwell's (2012:195) suggestions the essentials for the research design considered were, namely; the design was a time based activity, based on the research question, the design guided the selection of activities to be followed and helped outline the procedures that were followed. The design informed on the type of answers required from the investigation, the tools and techniques, the sample and size that was used to gather the data. This also included the concepts of the study to be measured and guided on the type of answers required. It was accepted that errors could be made, therefore the design was properly constructed to reduce preventable research errors. Vis pointed out common errors listed in table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2: Potential sources of error in the research design process

Sources of error	Planning errors	Collection errors	Analytical errors	Reporting errors
Description	These relate to the set up of the design to collect information	Collection of information, mostly caused by ill structures	Inappropriate analysis of the collected data. Or manipulation of data	Incorrect interpretation of the findings or reading them incorrectly
Factors that create error	Misspecified problem and faulty research design	Invalid and unreliable measurement procedures	Inappropriate techniques used for analysis	Inadequate info about the population under study
Strategies to reduce error	Develop well thought out proposal	Careful execution f the research design	Justify the methods used to process the data	Unbiased and knowledgeable reviewers

**Source: Modified from Davis (1996:124)** 

Careful consideration was made to void the errors that could ensure from deciding on an inappropriate design, researchers always have different views about what research design is best. Descriptive research was selected (though more complex) since the research warranted more formalized and structured research questions. Much is known about the population, the phenomenon and the variables were clearly identified and defined. Both qualitative and quantitative designs were used to capitlise on their respective strengths.

#### 4.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Welman and Kruger (2004:64) postulate that research methodology is the how part of the research, namely; how will the sample be selected, how will information be extracted from the sample, how will the findings be recorded, etc. The following stages were followed closely, namely; literature review, decision on design, target population will be identified, questionnaire will be constructed, pre-tested and reconstructed (if necessary), interviews will be conducted, there will be reporting on the findings. Because research methodology is methodical execution or implementation of the research plan as in the research design, the questions to be answered were, namely; how will we collect the data [interviews, observation, mailing, literature review and were the data collection methods to be structured and to what extent [closed or open-ended questions? This also considered who was going to ask the questions, what training was required? The differences between the research design and research methodology s depicted by Jowah (2016:71) are illustrated in table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3. Differences between research design and research methodology

Research design	Research methodology
Strategic master plan	Operational or execution plan
Emphasizes the road to be walked	Emphasizes how the walking is done
Emphasis on what results are expected	Emphasis on tools/techniques for results
Guided by research problem / question	Guided by the tasks and work packages
Focuses on rationality of research	Focuses on procedures and processes
Focuses on the "what should be done?"	Focuses on "how should it be done?"

Source: Jowah, 2016:71

These phrases are used interchangeably in research literature, but it is important that the difference be made known. The research methodology is derived from the stipulates of the research design, in a sense the research methodology is a part / portion of the research design. It is the research design in operation seeking to implement correctly the master plan to meet the desired objectives. This plan involved the selection of the most appropriate research methodology (do we do surveys, experiments, look for

secondary data, or do we use observation), how the methodology will, and how the sampling was to be done. How will the data be collected and how will it be analyzed? How will the findings be reported and in what format should they be?

#### 4.2.1 Target population

Target population is a group of specific population elements that are applicable to the research. The target population for the research was the 20 designated project based organizations in the Cape town metropolis and the project team members who had the ultimate responsibility to run the projects. For this study the target population was individuals involved in team coordination, teamwork and project executing personnel.

#### 4.2.2 Sampling:

Cooper and Schindler (2003:183) explain that Sampling techniques can be categorized into two parts:

- i) Non Probability sampling Techniques
- ii) Probability sampling techniques

From the 20 selected organizations the researcher used the probability sampling technique, so as to ensure all members of a population had a chance of being selected, to be more specific a combination of random and stratified sampling was used. Where the target population were also divided into subgroups and members were selected randomly from the 20 designated organizations in the Cape Town Metropolis.

#### 4.2.3 Sampling selection and method of sampling

Twenty (20) project based organizations within the Cape Metropolis were randomly selected and an average of 5 team members per organization were randomly sampled, largely to do with convenience and availability of the project team members. The cost element was also considered in determining the number of companies to be included in the exercise.

#### 4.2.4 Sample size

There is the cost element as it would be too expensive for a larger sample, and generally there are always less managers than there are general employees in any organisation. One hundred (100) project team members were interviewed for this survey, this number was considered adequate enough to allow for generalisations.

#### 4.2.5 Data collection method

Personally, administered questionnaires were used to collect the required data from the respondents. Primary data collection method was considered in place of secondary data, which may have been derived from literature review. The researcher did not come across any existing literature specifically on this study; as such the most ideal method chosen was to undertake primary research.

This method was chosen as it is simple and has the highest response rate, respondents need not to be literate and long questions can be used, and the interviewer can assist with issues that are not clear to the respondent. A mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) approach was planned; this is meant to take advantage of the benefits of both qualitative and quantitative methods, such as providing strengths that offset the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative research, in this study the researcher used sequential explanatory design, which gives priority to the quantitative data collected so as to help explain and contextualize the findings, which made it easier to describe and report the results, this method also facilitated the data collection process, the researcher managed to help those who had a few challenges filling in the questionnaires.

In order to study the impact of team member satisfaction on project management success, it was only convenient that the participants had an understanding as well as experience and knowledge of project execution specifically in team involvement thus making the research process much easier to conduct.

Although the research design can be very complex and takes more time and resources to complete all the data collection process, it is helpful to a certain extent. According to Gorard, 2007:1, Mixed methods is wrong, not because methods should be kept separate but because they should not have been divided at the outset. Gorard, 2005:162, went on to say "Considering the inappropriateness of the qualitative and quantitative paradigms and the category of mixed methods, we advocate the development of a research community where all methods have a role and a key place in the full research cycle from the generation of ideas to the rigorous testing of theories for amelioration, Gorard further said in order to achieve this we call for the death of mixed methods, and the rebirth of plain research as a craft. And according to Keetie and Laura. (2015) Mixed

methods may have firmly established itself as a valuable contribution to development studies, but it still lacks credibility in many areas of academia

#### 4.2.6 Data collection instrument – the questionnaire

The questionnaire had structured questions in the first section, and then structured Likert scale statements measuring perceptions, each section is followed by open-ended questions of requests for information. The last section (section 3) consisted of open-ended questions only to allow the respondents to express their views. A face-to-face survey data collection method was used deliberately (though expensive and time consuming) because it assisted in maximizing on the response rate. This also assisted in clarifying questions or statements that was not understood correctly by the interviewees during the answering of the questionnaires.

#### 4.2.7 Data processing:

Editing; information gathered during the data collection process also contained answers that lacked uniformity, the data collected through the questionnaires had some answers that were not ticked and others even left unanswered, some questions were also not answered appropriately so the researcher had to modify the errors and re-arrange them.

#### 4.2.8 Reliability and Validity

Validity is also considered within the context of this study, Coolican, 2014:109 describes validity as an investigation that can be generalized beyond the exact experimental context. Mckibbin (2005:5) posits that reliability concerns the extent of which an experiment, test or any measuring procedure yields the same results on repeated trials and validity is the extent to which any measuring instrument measures what it is intended to measure. Likert scales have been evaluated in terms of reliability and validity. Analyzing the data obtained from the respondents on the questionnaire and interpreting the primary data trough excel spreadsheet in order to deliver accurate results and findings.

A pretest for reliability and validity of the questionnaire questions was done, the researcher compared the answers given by the respondents from one pretest with answers from another pretest, and the survey questions validity was determined by how well it measured the concepts it was intended to measurez.

#### 4.2.9 Data analysis

Once the measuring instrument is recognized; it is important to analyze the data that will be gathered. According to Rabiee (2004:655-660) data analysis is the interaction between researchers and data. In this study, grounded theory for data analysis is used to analyze the data collected in this study. Data Analysis is the main source of success of the grounded theory method. Pawson, Greenhalgh & <a href="Harvey">Harvey</a> (2005:21-34) reckons that Grounded theory is implemented without fixed ideas and one, which grounds theory in realism, The ideas that are stated repeatedly in primary and secondary sources of data will be documented for the theory structure.

The data and information gathered from the Questionnaires are analyzed. The findings or results obtained was then correlated and compared to similar research studies conducted by other researchers in order to determine where the research stands or fits in and whether it is feasible. As mentioned, the database will be attained using Questionnaires.

According to Welman and Kruger (2004:194) data is examined by method of statistical techniques keeping in mind the variables and their effects. With the end goal of this research data will be broke down by making utilization of descriptive statistics Welman and Kruger (1999-16) delineates descriptive statistics empowers the researcher to display gathered data in a consistent and sorted out structure.

Descriptive statistics was used to summaries the data obtained and the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used, the program is user friendly and brings about good diagrams that are easy to explain. Correlations and cross-tabulations were used to establish the relationships; the project managers and project team members were asked to respond to the questionnaires. If the researcher had problems procuring SPSS Program, Excel Spread Sheet would be used as it can equally capture the data and translate it to charts, graphs, tables and polygons. The data was therefore interpreted on a question-by-question basis to provide full information on the findings.

The data that was identified with the measuring instrument was compressed by method for graphical representations and tabulations.

#### 4.2.10 Data interpretation and reporting

To avoid missing out on certain aspects of the questionnaire and the responses, the findings was discussed systematically by attending / repeating all the questions asked,

and providing an answer for each question asked item by item. The format was therefore in this fashion; Question – brief explanation, and Response – brief explanation to the diagram (response represented diagrammatically) accompanying the response. The data was interpreted and illustrated through chart diagrams, which gave concrete results and leading or deriving to an acceptable conclusion for the study.

#### 4.3 CONCLUSION

An element of research that is critical to the results and conclusions made is the researcher's decision on the design and methodology to be used. Based on what kind of information and the use thereof, the research design chosen and the research method used as stated above were considered most appropriate for the survey. Another indispensible element of the result, leaning strongly on reliability and validity of the findings is the identification of the appropriate population and decision on how to sample the population for study. The population had to be relevant to the study, and only those individuals involved in team structures were relevant to the study. Great care was taken to identify project teams and the members involved in these team processes. To avoid concentration of data gathering in a few people who may have identical problems and experiences, the random and stratified sampling was used to make the population more representative. The questionnaire as a data gathering tool was critical, s such it had to be tested before it was used. Statistician was requested to assist with the validity and reliability of this instrument before it was taken to the field for the survey. Overly, the researcher is satisfied that all necessary steps and processes were meticulously executed to bring about the findings in the following chapter.

#### **CHAPTER 5**

#### 5.1 RESULTS, FINDINGS AND INTERPRETTION OF DATA

The research findings discussed here have been set up in particular sequence to avoid missing out on any data and information as responded to by the target population. The questionnaire had three sections (Section A., Section B and Section C), and each section had a set of questions seeking for particular information. Section A was interested in the biography, primarily trying to identify and qualify each respondent to avoid including data from people that did not qualify. Section B used the Likert scale and allowed the respondents to express their perceptions bout certain aspects of the team dynamics derived from the preceding literature on the subject. This structured scale helped in getting more information on how the respondents feel bout the specific factors. Section C was entirely open-ended, allowing the respondents to state whatever might have been omitted in the preceding aspects of the scale. The findings therefore are reported in the format; every question (s it appeared in the questionnaire) is asked and the response from the participants follows under Response. The response is supported by illustrations (graphs, bar charts, pie charts, histograms, etc) illustrating the findings to the survey.

#### **5.2 SECTION A**

Question 1: What is your position in the organization? This question was intended to decide on the relevance of the respondent; hence it was necessary to ask for information on the role played by the respondent in the organization.

**Response**; The different classes of respondents are recorded in the pie chart below (figure 5.1), together with the percentages or frequencies. The respondents had to be people who were part of project teams. Provision was made for anyone else who was not in the designated list, and space provided for him or her to specify his or her position in the organization.

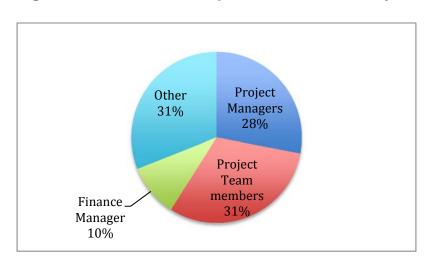


Figure 5.1 Positions of respondents to the survey

Looking at the respondents, 10% were finance managers, 28% were project managers, 31% were normal project team members, and the remaining 31% was recorded as "others". The 31% marked as "others" were people whose titles were not listed in the questionnaire, but it was verified that they had been involved in a project, hence they have been part of a project team before.

### Question 2: If other, please specify;

In this question, there was an option to specify what their position in the organization was if the respondents ticked "other" in question one, then they had an opportunity to specify what position they carried in the organization. But it was known that they have all been involved in a project team, one way or another.

# Question 3: How long have you been a project team member directly involved with project management in whatever capacity?

The intention was to identify or determine the period in which each respondent had been involved in project task execution, it is important to know how long each person has been involved. This will assist in getting to know how many people have experienced team conflicts and all the other issues that arise in a project team setting, and what keeps them motivated and satisfied.

**Response**; The length of period an individual has served allows for an understanding of possible experience during which an individual may be able to know what works and what does not. This experience also allows for an added advantage in that the

subordinate may have worked under or with different managers that may have potrayed different styles of leadership. This would inevitably give an opportunity to see what motivates and what doesn't motivate the subordinates. The respondents had an interesting mix, the statistics is provided in figure 5.2 below.

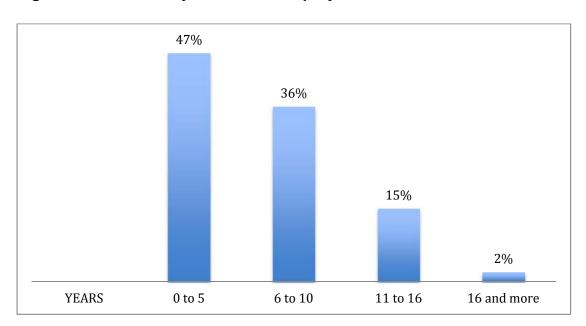


Figure 5.2 Number of years served in project teams

Source: own construction – data analyzed from survey for this study

From the above chart, it is seen that from the 60 respondents, 47% have been involved in project execution, ranging from 0 to 5 years, 36% have been active between the ranges of 6 to 10 years. While a small number of 15% had been involved between 11 to 16 years, and the remaining 2% with more than 16 years of experience.

Question 4: How did you get to be a team member in the particular project you are involved in now? The question intended to understand if people were handpicked (because they had talent) or they were inevitably members of the team because they were in charge of a Work Breakdown Structure (WBS) or otherwise.

**Response**; It was expected that most team members were involved by virtue of their positions in the project structure. Some positions are inherently compulsory must-haves in the project team, depending on the nature of the project. Some people may have been attached as trainees depending on company policy and their human resources development structure. In the prevailing circumstances in the country, people may have been placed as affirmative action appointments to meet government quotas. The respondents expressed their answers as illustrated in the figure 5.3 below.

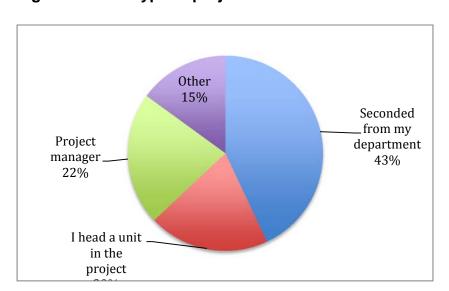


Figure 5.3: The type of project team members interviewed

The respondents seconded from their departments to be members of the team were 43%, these evidently come from functional departments and have dual loyalty, 22% were project managers, and with 23% coming from or working as unit heads (possibly a WBS) and 15% as "other".

#### Question 5: If other, please specify;

This question sought to identify the likelihood of other team members who were involved in the team without being seconded from the department, without being the head of a unit or project manager. Some may be placed there as "handyman" to assist with any other operational issues or merely to represent the other stakeholders for the project.

**Response**; Even though 15% of the respondents indicated that they fell into the other category, none of them specified their position / function in the project team.

# Question 6: Have you ever been a head of a team (Sub Committee, WBS leader, etc) where you had to deal with team member satisfaction?

A follow up question somewhat to the last two above, the question sought to identify team members who may have played leadership roles where it was necessary for them to work to motivate team members to perform. The motivation of team members has been identified as essential since the success of project execution is determined by the ability of the manager and the team to complete their operations within the triple constraints and project square root.

**Response**; Team members who played or had played the role of team leader were expected to understand both sides of the team motivation (leading and following). Those with leading experience were expected to know the pain of working to motivate a team to perform and meet project schedules and senior management expectations on project completion dates. Figure 5.4 below explains the findings.

40 35 30 25 20 Percentages 15 10 5 0 Never Not directly Directly other but yes involved

Figure 5.4 Experienced team leader in the project environment

Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

The Chart above shows how each respondent answered the question of whether they had been heads of a team where they had to deal with team member satisfaction and from the 60 respondents, 34% have never been head of a team, 31% were not directly but yes and 35% were directly involved and had experience in leadership roles.

#### Question 7: If other, please specify;

In this question, similar to Question 2 and 5, there was an option to specify if the respondents ticked: other" in question 6. No respondents that ticked on this option.

#### Question 8: How many teams have you been involved in?

Again, experience was sought for given the importance of exposure to the ability of the respondents to understand the effort required to motivate team members. Working in different teams meant exposure to many types of leadership and followership styles including personalities. This was expected to allow for extended understanding of some of the problems encountered in the leadership of a diverse team. Most teams of whom have followers with different objectives from each other, even though they are expected to work towards the achievement of the same organisational goals. The respondents

were required to indicate on the questionnaire using the frequency range used of "0-5, 6-10, 11-16 and beyond 16 years".

**Response;** while it is not rule of the thumb, but it is expected that the more times respondents had led a team, the better they would understand what it takes to motivate them. The responses are illustrated in figure 5.5 below.

22%

| 7% 5%
| Number of 0 - 5 6 to 10 11 to 16 16 + Teams

Figure 5.5: Number of teams the respondent had led before

### Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

The bar chart above indicates that 67% of the respondents had led between 0-5 teams, while 22% of the respondents have led 6 to 10 teams, furthermore 7% of the overall respondents had experience in leading between 11 to 16 teams and only 5% had led more than 16 teams. The percentage of respondents who have led more teams kept declining.

# Question 9: Is there anything you want to say pertaining to the above, please list that below in bullet form.

This question was primarily to identify any other aspects of this study that may have been omitted by the researcher. Too often some respondents would indicate some important aspects of a study that may have been omitted by the researcher. This assists in the construction of future studies, or in identifying aspects generally considered unimportant by the researcher when the practitioners may put much value on these.

**Response**; It is quite interesting that none of the respondents had any comments or suggestions to add on to this. It is always puzzling when this happens as the reasons why no one points out any thing since it is not clear whether there was nothing to write or for some other reasons that is not supplied by the respondents.

#### 5.2.1 SECTION B

#### Section Title: CORRECT FIT INTO THE TEAM; I get satisfied when;

The Likert scale was introduced for the section this sought to assist in understanding the perceptions of the respondents about what would satisfy them and thereby motivate them to perform better. The response was based on a 1 to 5 scale, with:

- 1 = strongly disagree,
- 2 = disagree,
- 3 = neutral (no opinion),
- 4 = agree and
- 5 = strongly agree.

The statements had to be ranked on the scale as perceived by the respondent and these put together would indicate the perceptions of the respondents in relation to the particular sentiment. The statements were a continuation of the sentence / phrase – I get satisfied when;

#### Statement 1: Team members leave each one to focus on their expertise;

This gives the impression of an individual who may want to work without interference from team members. This would possibly assist in measuring the extent to which functioning as a team may disrupt and demotivate other team members. On the other hand, the working together as a team involves knowing what the other person is doing and thereby overlapping for each other and integrating the tasks since they build into one project at the end.

**Response**; To an extent this statement assisted in helping the researcher to understand if the respondents or the practitioners in general understood what a team was and how it would need to function. The way the team works may also be an indication of the type of leader, the type of tasks by the practitioners and the extent to which these should be coordinated or are actually coordinated. The function of the project manager would be expected to assist in the flow of communization, supply of resources in time, and the general directing of the operations through integrating the functions of the project execution process. All these should take place within the context of an efficiently and

effectively motivated team if project execution is to be successful. The responses are recorded in the figure (5.6) below.

Team members leave each one to focus on the expertise

1.Strongly disagree

5. Strongly agree 27%

3. Neutral 23%

Figure 5.63 Degree to which team members seek independence from each other

#### Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

27%

There was a general consensus that 54% (27% strongly agree and 27% agree) agreed with the statement. This indicated that team members would generally prefer to do their "own thing" without other members getting involved. Strongly disagreeing was (3%) and disagree (20%) when put together amounts to 23% disagreeing with the statement; this is equal to the number of respondents who were Neutral (23%). It can therefore be generalized that team members are satisfied when they are left to perform on their own.

#### Statement 2: Team member selection must be reflective of project needs;

Some team members may be seconded for political reasons, as a way of getting rid of people not wanted by managers (in the case of matrix organizations) and purely because a department has to be represented in the project team. In most matrix (if not all) the project manager has no say on who joins the team, the personnel are given to the project by functional managers.

**Response;** matrix organizations are complicated in their operations, since, more often than not, the project leader does not have the right to choose people to work with. The project manager is given / told who they will work with, too often without clearly defined functions and responsibilities. An employee with a poor working relationship with a

functional manager may be given to a project as a way of the functional manager letting go what he/she may not want to work with. The response is in figure 5.7

Team selection must be reflective of the project

1. Strongly needs
2. Disagree
5%
3. Neutral
12%

4. Agree
52%

Figure 5.74 Team structure as perceived by respondents

#### Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

A total of 82% of the respondents agreed (52% agreed and 30% strongly agreed) with the statement, and 12% neutral, and 5% of the respondents disagreeing while 1% strongly disagreed) making a total of 6% of the respondents disagreeing with the statement. It can be generalized that 'Team selection must be reflective of the project needs' may actually make the team members happy and satisfied.

#### Statement 3: There must be congruency between the personality types;

There is a great need for people who are amenable to each other or prepared to accommodate each other to be in the team. The assumption made here is that such a team will mean reduced conflicts and increased cooperation. The reality though is that most people meet for the first time in the team, and their diversities may be glaring and yet they need to work together.

**Respondents**; Not all people (team members) can live in an environment full of diversity, in this case different perceptions about certain things. The different personalities tend to clash or lead to others being more cooperative and agreeable than others. The concern therefore is how team members working towards the same objectives would perceive this, the project manager's ability to lead and motivate a team is questioned here, figure 5.8 shows the responses from participants.

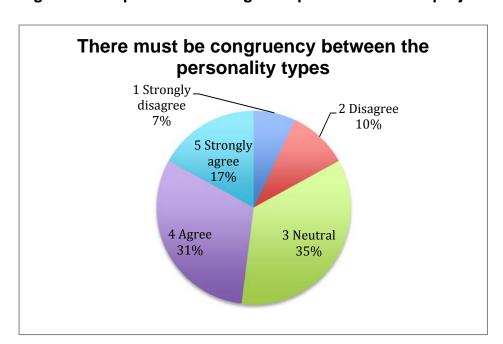


Figure 5.8: Importance of congruent personalities in a project team

The most unusual occurrence is the level of ambivalence at 35%, rather too high as that is more than  $^{1}/_{3}$  of the respondents. A total of 48% (17% strongly agree and 31% agreed) agreed that there is a need for congruency between the different personality types of the team members, just below 50% and may not be used for generalization. The remaining 17% (10% disagreed and 7% strongly disagreed) don't think there is a need for the congruency between personality types in a team.

#### Statement 4: The project leader understands the project and the team members;

The statement speaks to the ability of the project leader to the way the leader will deal with members. An understanding of the different members and their personalities may assist in the management of conflicts, and the general motivation of the subordinates. In as much as it is difficult to understand an individual to the extent of predicting their behavior, it is important that the manager has a certain level of knowledge about the subordinates.

**Response:** Managing a team effectively is one thing, but motivating the team members is yet another element of effective leadership. The importance of being understood by the leader is another form of being acknowledged by the leadership. The respondents' perceptions about the importance of this are illustrated in figure 5.9 below.



Figure 5: the importance of understanding team members by the leader

An overwhelming 73% (35% strongly agree and 38% agreed) that they are motivated when the project leader understands the different team members. 22% of the respondents have a neutral opinion, while only 5% disagree with the statement and 0% strongly disagree. It can therefore be generalized that it is important when leaders understand the project and team members.

# Statement 5: If I am treated with respect and the views are constructively scrutinized;

this speaks to the sense of usefulness by a team member, Every individual wants to be heard, and when they are listened to they feel that they are honored and have some value. A team member, who feels that their contribution is valued, may want to participate more in the execution of the projects that is satisfying and encouraging.

**Response:** Most team member conflicts emanate from the perception that other team members may be considered more important than others. If this becomes the perception, it brings about antagonism and completion amongst the team members. Conflicts of this nature generally disrupt operations, lower the morale of the practitioners and affect the job satisfaction levels among the employees and the leadership. **Figure 5.10** below expresses diagrammatically the thinking amongst team members in a project.

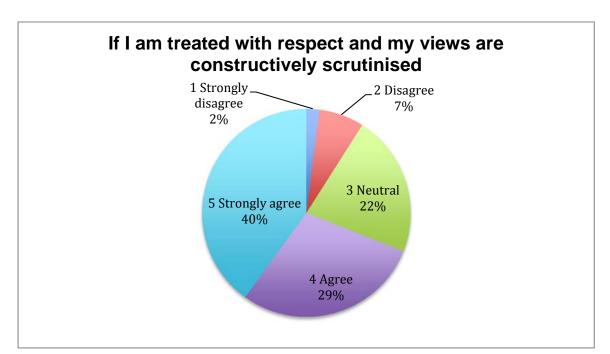


Figure 5.10: Team member's expectations for respect of opinion

A total of 69% of the respondents (40% strongly agreed and 29% agreed) are of the view that if they are treated with respect and their views constructively scrutinized, that would motivate them. 22% of the responses were neutral, while with 9% (7% disagreed and 2% strongly disagreed) as the dissenting voice. It can be generalized that being respected and one's views being considered seriously motivates the team member to perform.

#### 5.2.2 Section C

Title: COLLABORATION IN THE TEAM, I am happy when;

**Statement 6: When the goals are clearly communicated and everyone buys into them.** The clarity of goals is expected to make it easier for an employee at any level to be able to plan and decide on effective processes that will bring about the desired results. It is better still if the team member shares the vision with the team at large enabling them to develop a synergy to work towards deliverables.

**Response**; Communication is expected to make tasks easier to break up into smaller units and thus comprehend them better, when goals and tasks are better understood that makes it easier for participants to want to decide on appropriate methods of execution, the respondents' views are illustrated in figure 5.10.

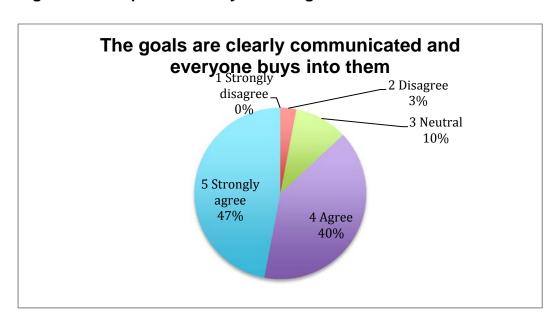


Figure 5.11: Impact of clearly defined goals on team member satisfaction

The respondents were of the view that clearly communicated goals are strong motivating factors, a total of 87% agreeing, with 47% strongly agreeing and 40% agreeing. 10% neutral responses, with 3% disagreeing and none (0%) strongly disagreeing. It can be generalized that when goals are clearly communicated and everyone buys into them the team becomes motivated and satisfied.

### Statement 7: Get everyone involved in decision-making;

The assumption made by using this statement is that if an individual is involved in the decision making process that will reduce possible conflicts and disgruntlement amongst the team members. Unfortunately the reality is that some people (personality traits) will not be actively involved in the processes, waiting to patiently follow or only criticize what others have come up with in other instances the project leader might be domineering or some personality in the team might always want to make the decisions.

**Response**; It is assumed that people participating in the decision making process contribute to the decision making process. The people who get involved in the making of the decision will tend to understand the processes and or the operations well resulting in meaningful contributions to the execution processes. As such, people commit themselves to the decisions taken and if their views were included in the decision, they may feel like they own the process and or the decisions made. The feelings of the respondents on these issues as recorded from the survey are illustrated in figure 5.11.

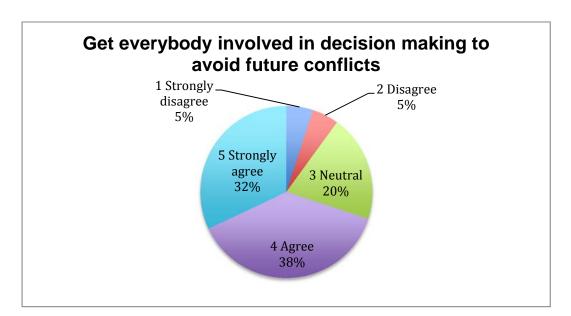


Figure 5.12:6 Impact of involving team members in the decision making process

Out of the 60 respondents 32% strongly agree, 38% agreed, 20% neutral, 5% disagreed and 5% strongly disagreed with the statement 'Get everybody involved in decision making to avoid disagreements, combining the percentages (70%, more than half of the respondents affirmed to that statement.). It can be generalized therefore that if people are involved in the making decisions they won up to the project and any possible consequences.

**Statement 8: Persistent follow-up on goals to ensure compliance.** The team members head units whose work is integrated with the deliverables from other WBSs to form the complete project. The quality of the end product is undoubtedly the sum total of the different tasks from the different WBSs, thus following through to ensure compliance becomes an imperative.

Response; The expectation to the statement was that all quality conscious team members would be comfortable with follow-ups to ensure compliance. This would enable the team member's tasks to be congruent to those of other team members and avoid reworks, which may cause cost overruns. But cognizance should be made of the differences in the levels of maturity between the practitioners and their relationship with the project leader. Experienced or technically skilled people may resent what they may perceive to be "micro-management" if they think that they know their way around. The respondents had this to say as shown in table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1 Impact of persistent follow-up to ensure compliance

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
2%	13%	8%	49%	28%

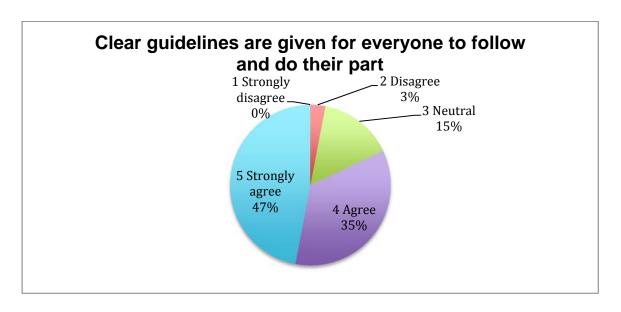
A total of 77% of respondents (28% strongly agreed and 49% agreed) affirm that persistent follow up to ensure compliance actually brings satisfaction and motivation to team members. Only 15% disagree and 8% neutral responses. It can be generalized therefore that persistent follow up is actually a motivating factor for team members..

### Statement 9: Clear guidelines are given for everyone to follow and do their part:

The clarity on goals to be performed assists in making task duplication, which may result in team member conflicts especially where the tasks are closely related. It makes it a lot easier to performance management team members when the tasks are clearly defined.

**Response**; This gives the impression of a micro-managed environment, but such is the nature of projects since there are different tasks to be performed and combined into one finished product. The opinions of the respondents are diagrammatically represented in figure 5.12 below:

Figure 5.13: The impact of clear guidelines on job satisfaction of a team member.



A total of 82% (47% strongly agreed and 35% agreed) that provision of clear guidelines and clearly defined tasks does positively impact on satisfaction and enhance performance of team members. Only 3% disagreed, while 15 % of the respondents have neutral opinion to the statement. It can therefore be generalized that clear guidelines and task allocation will motivate team members to perform.

### Statement 10: If diversity is accepted and no ethnocentrism is applied;

The work environment is increasing and becoming diverse by race, language, age and education, the likelihood of special treatment for other people to the exclusion of others along the lines of this diversity are highly probable. The South African environment also has the apartheid past which has not been correctly dispensed with, this has consistently led to ethnocentrisms.

**Response**; As long as an individual feels discriminated against, they will always feel that they are not acceptable; they are intruders and may not share ownership of the project with the rest of the team members. There are becoming highly magnified, resulting in a disgruntled team member. Figure. 5.13 below portrays the views of the respondents.

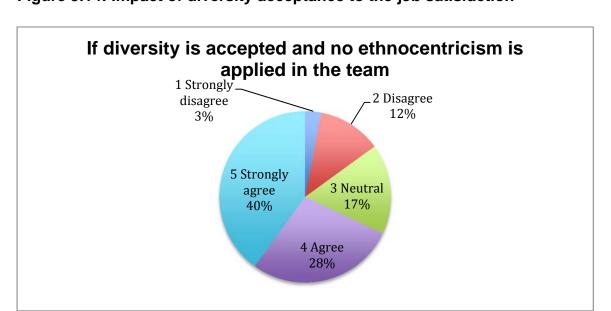


Figure 5.14: Impact of diversity acceptance to the job satisfaction

A total of 68% of the respondents (40% strongly agreed and 28% agreed) that the absence of discrimination on the basis of the differences of the participants (gender, race, language, ethnicity, age, education) may lead to motivated staff compliment. While 17% of the respondents were neutral, 15% disagreed with the statement. It can be generalized that the acceptance of the diversity of the people in a team and the treatment of racial groupings equally actually plays a pivotal role in the improvement of team performance and enhancement.

#### Section Title: PROSPECTS FOR PROGRESS – I get satisfied if;

Statement 11: I am given a chance to take part in the planning and decision making for the project. Taking part in the planning implies getting to participate in the outlining of what should be done, when, how and who should do it. Whether it is a strategic or tactical level there is always the sense of "I was involved or this is my idea too" which promotes ownership and accountability.

**Response**; Planning involves deciding on the course to be taken by an operation, and inevitably leads to a full understanding of all the issues involved. Thus, anyone involved in the planning, unless otherwise their ideas are ignored, feels the responsibility and ownership of the project. Figure 5.14 below expresses the opinion of the respondents on this issue.

I am given to take part in planning and decision making for the project

1 Strongly disagree 3%

5 Strongly agree 1 17%

4 Agree 38%

Figure 5.15: Impact of involving team members in the planning stages

A total of 77% of the respondents (39% strongly agreed and 38% agreed) and are convinced that getting involved in the planning and decision-making is a motivating factor for enhanced performance and satisfaction, 17% of the respondents had neutral opinions, the remaining 6% disagree. We can therefore generalize that getting team member's to participate in the planning process leads to both job satisfaction and good performance.

#### Statement 12: I get involved in work concerning my area of expertise.

Team members, specifically those leading WBSs are generally specialized in those special tasks. Would there be any interest in one getting involved in deliberations on operations to do with areas outside of one's expertise.

**Response**; Some people are curious about the activities of teammates and may always want to understand more, whereas some people are not interested in learning anything or dealing with things outside of their comfort zone. The respondents' opinions about this are illustrated in figure 5.15 below:

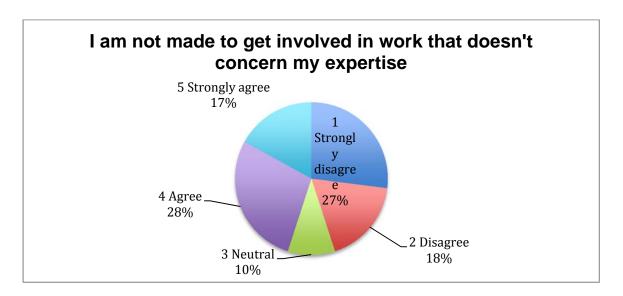


Figure 5.16: Impact of involving team members outside of areas of expertise

Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

Only 45% of the respondents (28% agreed and 17% strongly agreed) affirmed to the statement above. While 45% of the respondents disagree (18% disagreed and 27% strongly disagreed) with the statement. And lastly 10% are neutral, and this leaves no room for generalization.

#### Statement 13: I am assisted in areas where I am weak;

Passably, not everyone has all the knowledge and ability; we complement each other and cover up for each other where we are weak. The development of an individual is largely due to their ability to expand into hitherto unknown areas and learning from others and through others.

**Response**; The first strength is actually the ability for an individual to accept that they are weak in certain identifiable areas, that acknowledgement immediately puts someone in a position where they want to learn more or correct their weakness. The respondents in this survey had their own views, which are recorded in figure 5.16 below:

I am couched and mentored in areas where I am

weak and need help

1 Strongly
disagree
2%

5 Strongly
agree
35%

4 Agree
40%

Figure 5.17: Impact of mentoring and coaching on team member morale

#### Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

A total of 75% respondents (40% agree and 35% strongly agree), and consider being couched and mentored in areas where they are weak on. The number disagreeing is small at a total of 8%, and with neutral respondents at 17%. It remains unclear why some people would not know whether couching and mentoring has an effect on their motivation. It can be generalized without hesitation that respondents feel that couching and mentoring are motivating factors. Presumably these (couching and mentoring) have two possible effects, namely; they bring about closeness between the mentee and the mentor, and these may be perceiving as empowering to the subordinates.

### Statement 14: Getting training will enhance the capacity and performance.

Training is expected to capacitate the trainee, and as such may lead to motivation if the training is relevant to the tasks to be performed. Too often training is provided to people who may never need to use the skills that they are trained on.

**Response**; Many team members do have aspects of their tasks that may need upskilling, especially where their work has to be integrated into the work of other WBS leaders who may have different skills. Dependent on the attitude of the team member, some team members may want to grow in the organization and thereby try to get as much breadth in the project execution through training. The response to this is illustrated in figure 5.18 below:

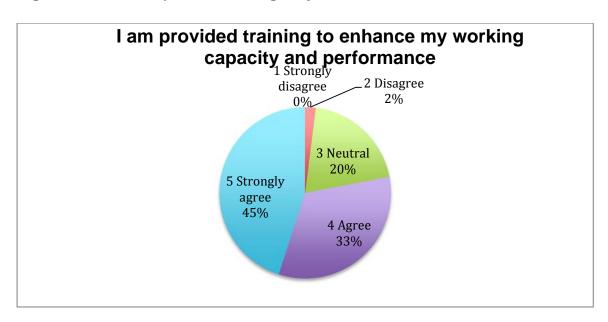


Figure 5.18: The impact of training on job satisfaction and motivation

Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

45% of the respondents strongly agree and 33% agree (total of 78%) perceive training as a motivator, 20% have neutral opinion, while 2% disagreeing and none strongly disagreeing. It can be generalized that training enhances performance, motivates and can lead to job satisfaction.

# Statement 15: I am left to develop myself without interference or help from anyone;

Some employees may not want to be "helped" especially where they may think they are knowledgeable, or where they don't like and distrust the people trying to help. Some may have to do with the tasks or even the type of leadership shown by those who should be assisting in the process.

**Response**; Too often the acceptance of "interference" may have to do with the relations between the interacting parties. On the other hand the appearance of a colleague or project leader may be considered interference only where there is distrust amongst them. The response is recorded in table figure 5.19 below:

I am left to develop myself without interference or help from anyone

5 Strongly agree
15%

4 Agree
28%
2 Disagree
17%

Figure 5.19: Impact of non-interference on the team member

Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

Of particular interest is the sudden increase on the ambivalent respondents scoring 28% which is more than a  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the respondents. Those agreeing with the statement are at a total of 43% with those disagreeing at a total of 29%, comparable to the number neutral. No generalization can be made since none of the responses total 50% or more.

#### Section Title: WORKING RELATIONSHIPS WITH PEERS

Statement 16: I am satisfied when we work together as equals at work. This may be making reference to the unequal treatment by project leaders, specifically where there is racial or gender diversity. It should be noted here that the racial past of the South African industry is still intact, and most people are employed largely as affirmative action appointments, they are treated as such. There is discrimination frequently cited by engineering graduates of UOTs (Universities of technology) suggesting that they are looked down upon by the system. .

**Response**; The temptation is to show favoritism according to the language group, race, gender, level of education, place of education and many other factors of diversity. This can be experienced largely in meetings in terms of the acceptance of other people's ideas, or in the allocation of tasks. Too often the way an individual's task is scrutinized may be a cause for concern, specifically so where prejudice is practiced on the basis of stereotyping. The response is illustrated in figure 5.20 below.

I am satisfied when we work together as equals at work

1 Strongly disagree
12%
2 Disagree
17%
4 Agree
20%
3 Neutral
15%

Figure 5.20: Impact of being treated as equals on the motivation of team members.

### Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

56% of the respondents (36% strongly agreed and 20% agreed) are of the view that equality is a motivating factor, contrary to expectations. The percentage of respondents disagreeing is high at 29%, while 15% are neutral. It can be generalized that more people prefer to be treated as equals; the expectation was that more respondents would have agreed with a significant percentage.

#### Statement 17: I don't bother if people politick as long as they perform;

Politics is essentially fighting for the control of resources, and this is common in projects embedded in large organizations. The team members and practitioners brought into the project team are generally seconded from the functional departments, and thus have dual loyalty. Politics becomes the norm in the execution of the project.

**Response**; Effective project managers take advantage of politicking and negotiations to get the resources and support that they need. The opinion of the respondents is recorded in table 5.20 below.

Table 5.2 Impact of politics on motivation of team members;

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
17%	20%	27%	23%	13%

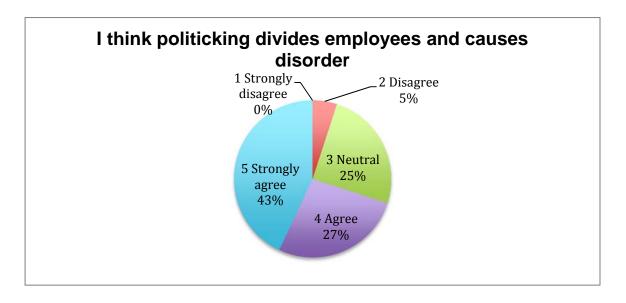
A total of 37% of the respondents indicated that they disagreed with the opinion that they do not bother about politicking, indicating that they are affected. On the other hand a total of 36% agreed that they are not affected by politicking, the closeness of these figures is of interest. Neutral sits at 27% high, more than ½ of the respondents.

#### Statement 18: I think politicking divides employees.

There is a general tendency of individuals to take sides when organizational politics is practiced, but it is unavoidable at times. One would suggest that the type of politics and the way it is executed may be a factor in dividing people.

**Response**; The practitioners are better informed about the effects of the "fighting" for the control of resources common in many organizations. The intentions for the scramble for the resources might actually be noble in that they are meant to meet organizational objectives. It is only fair to evaluate their responses as recorded in figure 5.20 below.

Figure 5.21: 7Politicking among Employees



A total of 70% (43% strongly agreed and 27% agreed) agree with the assertion that politicking divides workers, this might result in disruption of operations. Neutral stands at 25% which is exactly ¼ of the respondents, this is unacceptably high. And only 5% of the respondents disagreed with the assertion above. It can therefore be generalized that politicking is perceived to be a source of conflict amongst team members, which in turn may cause demotivation and low job satisfaction.

#### Statement 19: Poor team spirit discourages me from performing;

Team spirit would most probably be a result of good leadership and good inter-team relationships. If that team spirit is not available amongst the members, there is a likelihood that people may not cover up for each other, which is the fundamental basis for good team performance.

**Response**; When reference is made about low team spirit, one cannot afford not to imagine individuals doing their own thing without liaising with other task leaders. The project is divided into sections the sum total of which constitutes the complete project product. Sharing the same vision and working towards the same objectives becomes imperative as indicated in Figure 5.22

The poor team spirit discourages me from over performing

1 Strongly disagree 7%

2 Disagree 13%

3 Neutral 24%

4 Agree 31%

Figure 5.22 below shows the perceptions of the team members.

Another high score of ambivalence (Neutral) at 24% (just under ¼ of the respondents), with a total of 56% (31% agreeing and 25% strongly agreeing) accepting that the assertion is correct. While 20% of the respondents (13% disagreed and 7% strongly disagreed) with the statement. It can be generalized that low team spirit affects team member performance.

#### Statement 20: "My performance is not affected by people at my level"

This suggested that this team member possibly knows what to do and has confidence in themselves, with a bit of stubbornness too. The behavior of peers would therefore not impact on the team member's behavior and performance. This calls for someone with a strong personality and possibly well connected politically at senior management level. A sense of "I am protected" seems to be displayed in this.

**Response**; People at my level would mean the peers and possibly the project leader is also included. This may be indication of a strong personality, possibly with years of experience or high levels of self-confidence. Figure 5.23 shows what the respondents felt about this assertion:

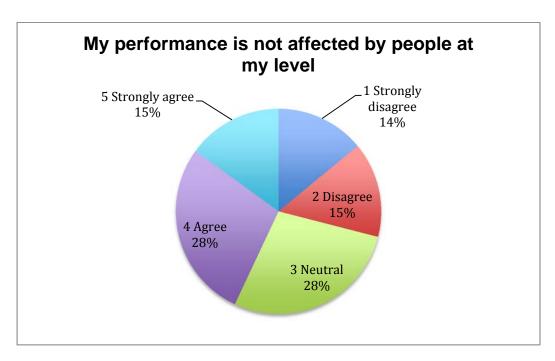


Figure 5.23: Impact of peer behavior on team member performance

Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

Neutral responses is high at 28% (more than ¼ of the respondents), those agreeing totaled a mere 43% (15% strongly agreed and 28% agreed). A total of 29% (15%

disagreed and 14% strongly disagreed) shared a different view suggesting that their performance is affected. There is no generalization to be made in this result.

#### Section Title: LEADERSHIP STYLE – I satisfied with / by;

# Statement 21: I am satisfied by a leader who gets involved in working out project requirement;

There are different types of people depending of cause on their personalities and possibly experience and competency. A well seasoned technician, for instance, may prefer a leader who allows them to work uninterrupted, or with the minimum possible interaction with the leader. On the other hand, a less competent and less confident practitioner may feel better when they work together with the leader.

**Response**; This section may indirectly assist in establishing what kind of people are generally made team members. A high degree of confidence may mean maturity and experience of the respondent. Figure 5.24 below illustrates the findings from the survey.

A leader who gets me involved in working out project requirements

1 Strongly 2 Disagree 9%

disagree 3%

3 Neutral 21%

Figure 5.24: Impact of leader who helps in the working out of project requirements

Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

A total of 67% of the respondents (48% strongly agreed and 19% agreed) agree that they are motivated by the presence and the activities of a leader who gets the team member involved in the working out of the project requirements. Neutral is reasonably low at just above  $\frac{1}{5}$  (21%) of the respondents. Only 12% disagreed allowing the generalization, that a leader who gets involved in working out project requirements is accepted as motivating team members.

4 Agree 19%

## Statement 22: I like a leader who works out everything and then explains it to me properly.

This would be a typical transactional type of leader who will clearly work out everything believing that the employee may make mistakes. It is established in research that certain calibers of employees (new comers, less confident, less competent, etc) prefer their work to be clearly defined.

**Response:** Some team members may prefer rather to streamline for themselves what is required, in the form of general guidelines. As stated above, most competent and experienced team members know what is to be done and do not need to be micromanaged. Figure 5.25 below illustrates the findings.

A leader who works out everything and then explains it to me properly

1 Strongly
disagree
5 Strongly agree
15%

4 Agree
32%
3 Neutral
34%

Figure 5.25: Impact of a transactional leadership style on team member motivation

Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

47% of the respondents (15% strongly agreed and 32% agreed) affirmed and prefer a transactional leader; Neutral is disturbingly high at 34% (more than  $^{1}/_{3}$  of the respondents) with those disagreeing at a total of 19%. Those in agreement are just below  $^{1}/_{2}$ , it is not possible to generalize on this issue.

## Statement 23: A leader who can facilitate team discussions fairly and effectively motivates me.

The ability of a leader or a chairperson to effectively facilitate a team or group meetings cannot be over emphasized. It is in these meetings that views are exchanged and decisions impacting on the operations are conducted. Suppression of other views may

alienate some enthusiastic team members leading them to withdraw from active participation.

**Response:** The quality of a discussion is determined by numerous factors, primarily the ability of the chairperson to afford all participants a fair chance to express their views. Together with this should be the preparedness of other team members to allow for views, sometimes different from theirs. It is important that the discussions be used to educate other members from other WBSs about the tasks, problems, lessons learnt, and risk management plans and programs in other task-units, as all these activities impact on the success of the project execution process. The respondents' views are expressed diagrammatically in table 5.3 below.

Table 5.3 Impact of good team discussion meetings on motivation

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
0%	0%	20%	43%	37%

#### Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

The respondents came out strong at 80% (37% agreed and 43% strongly agreed) in support of the assertion. A clear indication that team members have contributions to make and they can only do that when the correct platform is afforded to them. Apart from the neutral at 20% ( $^{1}/_{5}$  of the respondents), there are no dissenting voices or views on this issue. It therefore can be generalized without any reservations that effective facilitation of team discussions is a strong motivator.

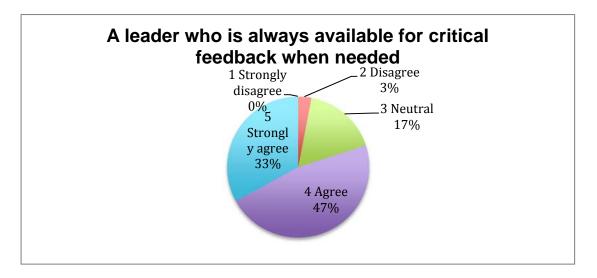
## Statement 25: I am motivated by a leader who is always available for critical feedback when needed.

One of the greatest concerns by most subordinates is the time it takes for leadership to respond to concerns. Responsiveness, as it is constantly referred to as a measure of the effectiveness of a leader.

**Response**; When a subordinate, in this case a team member has a concern, and informs the leadership, the expectation is immediate response. It is not always possible to give immediate response, but there should be a reasonable time within which the feedback should be given. It should be stated that the extent of the urgency depends on

the nature of the problem, without forgetting the temperament of the team leader also. The response to this is recorded in figure 5.26 below;

Figure 5.26: Impact of a transactional leadership style on team member motivation



Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

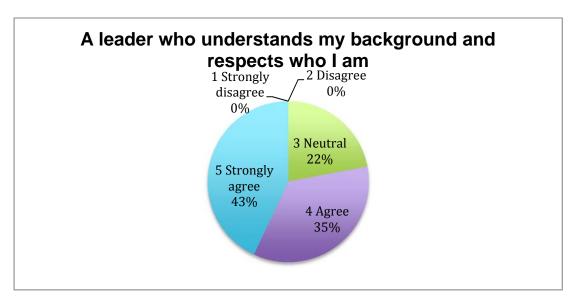
The respondents consider the availability of a leader a strong motivator at 80% (47% agreed and 33% strongly agreed) meaning team leaders should be available for critical feedback. Neutral stands at 17%, while only 3% disagreeing and 0% strongly disagreeing. It can be generalized without reservation that responsiveness is a critical element of team motivation.

#### Section Title: LEADERSHIP PROTOTYPE

Statement 26: I am happy with a leader who understands my background and respects who I am. It is an established fact that every individual has a background, which can be informed by one or many factors. Some of the common factors will be racial grouping, political past, religion, gender, level of education, type of skill and competence, and of cause experience.

**Response:** In view of these differences of individuals, the team may never be homogenous creating different expectations. Every team member has their own expectation of the type of leadership and indeed relationship they will have with the peers. Of primary importance, and there is a need for each team member to be accepted as they are and appreciated for what they can contribute. Figure 5.27 below illustrates the views of the respondents.

Figure 5.27 The Impact of leader's understanding of team members on motivation



A total of 78% of the respondents (35% agreeing and 43% strongly agreeing) acknowledge that being understood as individuals is critical to their motivation to perform. Neutral still remains fairly high at 22% (above 1/5 of respondents) with no dissenting voices. It can be generalized that being understood from their own perspective is of vital importance in their performance.

## Statement 27: I am happy with a leader who is aware of team members' emotions and assists the members.

Different people respond differently to the same stimuli, and it is important for the project leader to understand that. It is equally important for the leader to have high levels of emotional intelligence to allow for correct and balanced leadership of the team. It cannot be discounted that some people may simply be difficult to manage if they have other intentions or have personalized certain issues. Finding the balance calls for a leader with high levels of emotional intelligence and patience with some of the subordinates given their personalities. Followers need to be equally schooled to the fact that leaders are human beings too, and may only take so much, especially where there is a whole team of diverse people to manage and lead.

**Response:** As alluded to the above, people are different in many ways including in their temperament, some are more easily excited than others. It should be accepted that it takes a great skill to manage to understand people's emotions and treat them differently according to their emotions. Emotional intelligence therefore becomes critical for the

others awareness and self-awareness of the project leader and other team members without neglecting the requirements and objectives of the organisation. Figure 5.28 illustrates the views of the members.

A leader who is aware of team members emotions and assists the members

1 Strongly 2 Disagree 2%

3 Neutral 20%

3 Neutral 20%

4 Agree 40%

Figure 5.28 Leader's ability to understand members' emotions

### Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

75% of the respondents (40% agreeing and 35%strongly agreeing) that understanding of team members' emotions is essential, Possibly, they feel understood, appreciated and are thus bound to feel that they belong to the team and hence their motivated. Neutral continues to hover around with 20%, and a total of 5% (2% disagreeing and 3% strongly disagreeing) have opposing opinions. It can be generalized that understanding of individual members' emotions is a motivating factor for team member performance and overall project success.

# Statement 28: I am happy with a leader, who takes the pain to coach and mentor those that are weak,

This may be referring to those who are fairly new or with less experience, but we never stop learning and every project is unique. This section is making reference to the direct involvement of the leader as opposed to the previous points, which spoke to the principles in general.

**Response**; Admittedly every time an individual realizes their inadequacy they may want to redress that deficiency, but not all people. The leader has to deal with those that always have the other person to blame for their failures, and never themselves. That is a typical Blame Everyone Else (BEE) syndrome. When the leader gets personally involved in this couching and mentoring, it may be perceived as a sign of care and a way of developing the team member. The figure 5.29 below expresses the views of the responding team members.

A leader who takes the time to coach and mentor those that are weak

1 Strongly disagree 2%

2 Disagree 8%

3 Neutral 20%

4 Agree 35%

Figure 5.29: Impact of direct couching and mentoring by project leader.

Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

35% agreed to the above statement and 35% strongly agree totaling to 70% who agree, which will allow for generalization, therefore it is essential for leader's to coach and to mentor as it is a motivating factor contributing towards project success. While 10% of the respondents disagree and 20% neutral.

# Statement 29: I am happy with a leader who understands that team members have different abilities;

The greatest problem with many leaders is thinking that everyone should perform to the same standard. Apart from abilities depending on the skills that people have, there are equally different abilities amongst people with the same qualification.

**Response**; There are many factors determining the capabilities and competencies of people in both work and social life. It is imperative that leaders understand that some people are better abled than others, and this is the critical point for leadership when assigning duties. The difference in abilities should never be allowed to be exploited by those generally lazy and prepared to do the least possible for them not to be fired. The manager must be able to both understand the differences in the abilities but reward good performance. The opinions of the respondents are illustrated in figure 5.30 below.

A leader who understands that team members
have different abilities

1 Strongly
disagree
0%

5 Strongly agree
30%

4 Agree
45%

Figure 5.30 Impact of leader's understanding of member differences in abilities

Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

The above statement received very high responses of respondents agreeing, a total of 75% (45% agreed and 30% strongly agreed). Therefore we can generalize that it is essential for leader to understand that people's abilities are different, this would inevitably enable the leader to treat team members with respect. 18% of the respondents with neutral opinions and 7% disagreed, while none strongly disagreeing. It can be generalized that the ability of the leader to understand the differences in the abilities of the team members is motivating on its own.

# Statement 30: I am happy with a leader who is a slave driver and gets everything out of the team members;

The project environment works under restricted time, budget and quality within the stipulated scope of the deliverables. It can be envisaged therefore that a slave driver may be able to work to meet the basics of successful project management.

**Response**; People have a way of looking at their tasks, their environments and too often the way they perceive treatment. A slave driver may not be appreciated in certain quarters where the practitioners feel that they know what to do and do not want to be driven as senseless irresponsible people. The response to this statement is illustrated in figure 5.31 below.

A leader who is a slave driver and gets everything out of the team members

5 Strongly agree
18%

1 Strongly disagree
23%
2 Disagree
25%
3 Neutral
17%

Figure 5.31: The Impact of slave-driver-leader style on team motivation

Source: Data analyzed from survey for this study (own construction)

48% of the respondents disagree (25% disagreeing and 23% strongly disagreeing), on the other hand 35% agree (17% agreed and 18% strongly agreed) with 17% neutral. No generalization can be made on this statement. It may be necessary to close this section by indicating that managing people has its own complexities and has no one size-fits-all approach. To the extent that the tasks are different, the people managed are different, the circumstances are never the same, and managers bring in their own baggage and perceptions about effective leadership – it is not easy to satisfy every subordinate at work.

#### **SECTION C**

This was an open-ended section, and here the respondents aired their views and opinions on specific aspects of team member job satisfaction and motivation. From each one of the sets of answers, the 10 most frequent suggestions are listed in their order of frequency. The rest of the answers and assertions that may have not been said more

frequently but caught the attention of the researcher were also included in paragraph form. The Open-ended questions asked are listed in their original order below.

## Request 1; List seven things that you think would enable you to be motivated and satisfied in your position as a project team member.

The idea was to solicit from the respondents (team members) aspects of team management, which may not always be mentioned and yet would make a difference to team satisfaction and efficiency.

**Response**; This would relate to certain things or behavior's that could encourage, facilitate or promote the working of a project team as perceived by the individual members. The 7 most frequently identified needs for improving and motivating team members are listed in table 24 below in descending order; the most frequent first.

Table 5.4 Seven most important things that can motivate the team members

NO	SUGGESTION	ELABORATION
1	Proper communication	Lack of proper communication, delays on responding to complaints and response to requests for adequate materials and equipment's for projects are some of the most common problems team members have to contend with.
2	Rewards	A deep feeling that the members are not adequately rewarded, no clarity was given or implied as to what exactly was expected as a reward.
3	Conducive work environment	Resources should be allocated on time and requests should be promptly responded to enable the team members to perform their duties. Favoritism and special treatment of other team members discouraged performance. Support of leadership was deemed necessary but is not always available.
4	Remuneration	
5	Recognition	The performance is not always acknowledged and other team members' contributions are ignored without discussing them, too often credit is given to wrong people leading to discouragement of the originators of the ideas.
6	Accountability	Team members including the project leadership and the senior management must take responsibility for most problems causing project management failure. Senior management gets credit for project management success and yet never accepts the blame when projects fail, always blaming it on the project team.

7	Transparency	A lot of the processes are kept away from team members
		with a few members forming an inner circle that is used to make final decisions on project team meetings.

Source: Collected from research on project team satisfaction survey

## Request 2; List in point form 5 very important things that discourage your performance in the project-team.

As much as there are suggestions meant to assist with making the team members happy, it was deemed necessary to identify specific things that the team members disliked.

**Response**; The researcher selected the seven most common factor and listed them in tabular form (table 5.5) below to highlight certain factors that team members hate about the project team environment in which they work every day. These would inevitably come from their experience over the years of working with projects and in project teams.

Table 11 The 7 common factors that project team member's hate

NO	SUGGESTION	Brief elaboration
1	Jealousy	Team members compete for recognition, there is always a fight for recognition, and there is hatred when other team members present great ideas.
2	Dishonesty	
3	Poor work environment	The environment is not always friendly; team members are not treated equally, with other people getting preferential treatment. There is no consideration for other team members' opinions, values, beliefs and everything is ethnocentric.
4	Poor communicati on	Information comes through the grape vine, sometimes other team members have all the information before project team meetings, and others get the information for the first time in meetings, poor communication.
5	Unclear objectives	Too often the objectives are not well communicated, too often it is not clear.
6	Exclusion from decisions	Too often issues are brought to the project team meetings when the solution has been decided on. Numerous times, the solution is already being implemented and yet team members would have contributed if they had been approached.
7	Problem with procurement	Material never arrives on time and as such projects are constantly re-scheduled or postponed.

Source: Collected from research on project team satisfaction survey

This open-ended section of the questionnaire purposely intended to include issues that might have been omitted in the foregoing questions. Much of the suggestions had been discussed, albeit in a structured and restricted manner thereby limiting the amount of information. The functioning of the team involves many complications, and the dynamics thereof are complicated and sometimes demanding. Yet the diversity of the team is generally the source of the synergy the team needs to come together to improve team performance.

#### **CONCLUSION -**

Team dynamics remains an exclusively interesting study, and given the generally diverse nature of a team, it remains a complicated area of study. Whilst generalizations can be made, as has been the case in the findings in chapter 5 above, it can be deduced that team member satisfaction in this context has a positive impact on project success, although it is accepted that these may not always apply universally. Therefore, the aspirations for generic list of motivating factors for project team members should be accepted as not being exclusive. This will depend largely on the prevailing culture of the environment, the organization and the nature of the project. Construction project team may have different demands from an events project team because of the difference in the breadth of the qualifications of people in the team. It can be hypothesized that the breadth of technical variations may be much wider in construction or aeronautical projects that it would be in world cup project team or an expedition to the Antarctica.

#### **CHAPTER 6**

#### SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The objective of the research was essentially to understand and investigate the possibility of deciding on generic factors that could be used to motivate team members. Extensive literature review around this subject (what is a team, team dynamics, and what is required to form team) was reviewed on the basis of which the problem statement was constructed, the research design and methodology selected, and the research question developed. Statistician to enable to improve on reliability and validity reviewed the instrument that was used for the purpose of gathering information. The findings therefore I deemed to have followed the ideal process for a research, and these findings recorded in the previous chapter are thus summarized here and conclusions and recommendations made.

#### **6.2 SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS**

The findings as recorded in chapter 5 are summarized and the generalisations are highlighted as the findings of the research. Conclusions are made and recommendations suggested where they are seen fit, it should be understood that different people may have different interpretations of the findings. What is suggested here is the position of the researcher considering that the researcher has been involved in all aspects of this research from the beginning to the end. The findings and summaries will follow the pattern used in chapter 5, this is meant to avoid leaving out any important aspects of the research that may need to be highlighted.

#### 6.2.1 SECTION A

In all, the respondents were all involved as project team members in different capacities; this assisted in giving a wide variety of opinions about the functioning of the team, and the team member expectations in general. The length of service of team members varied remarkably from 0-16 years with most of the team members recording 0-5 years at 47% of those responding. This may be primarily because of the sudden growth in project-based industries with young graduates assuming positions of responsibility. 35% of these respondents had between 6-10 years' experience. There is an interesting mixture of project managers, heads of units and the people seconded (43%) from functional units, this may be indicative of professionals of sorts participating in projects

that are in matrix structure. A portion of these respondents (66%) claimed to have headed a team before or were currently heading teams. This was considered important, as they would have a better understanding of the team dynamics from the *team-head* perspective. Of these, 67% had headed teams for a period 0-5 years, though considered fairly small, but it is concluded that they my have had adequate exposure.

#### 6.2.2 SECTION B

This Likert scale section was divided into subsections, the findings recorded here will primarily be of significance in research with the conclusions and recommendations included together.

**Conclusion 1**; The large showing of 82% of the respondents suggesting that team structure is a strong starting point for the project team leader as the presence of expects reduces stress on the part of the project leader. **Recommendations**; It is recommended that the project leader should insist on getting a well-structured team with appropriate and relevant people in the positions. Where possible, the project leader should be involved in the selection of project-team-members. Failure to do so may result in extra work for the project leader, reworks or cost overruns and other unnecessary inconveniences.

**Conclusion 2**; It is concluded (73% in favor) that it is important that the project leader must of necessity understand the different team members individuals. **Recommendation**; it is important that the project manager be trained in the understanding and accepting of different personalities to be able to work effectively with a team.

**Conclusion 3**; team members must be treated with respect and their views must be accepted and constructively scrutinized if they are to be motivated (69%). **Recommendations**; The impact of good management of the team will go further than merely getting good people into the team, those people need to be listened to. Project leaders need to be trained into developing listening skills and balancing contributions from divergent sources. Every contribution adds to the whole and makes the difference.

**Conclusion 4**; If goals are clearly communicated and everyone buys into them there is a very high chance of getting a motivated team (87% showing). Motivated team is productive and cooperative lessening the burden of the project leader and improving on project completion within the iron triangle. **Recommendations**; the project leader must

develop or help develop a clear communication system and personally communicate the goals and objectives, not only to the team, but organization wide.

**Conclusion 5**; Involving team members in decision-making issues round the project execution processes motives them (70%). Motivated tem members may be satisfied by their jobs and consequently perform better. **Recommendations**; The project leader should bring in tem members when decisions re to be made on operational issues. It does two things for the team members; develops them in their career in projects and motives them to perform.

**Conclusion 6**; Persistently following-up on goals (77%) will ensure compliance, it is important that the goals be clearly communicated to the team members. This will allow, not only understanding of the goals, but give room for any questions that my rise in the minds of the operators. **Recommendations**; The project leader may need to constantly discuss the objectives with tem members or rotate responsibilities of discussing the goals and objectives among the team members. This will allow them to understand them better and possibly buy into them.

**Conclusion 7**; Clear guidelines should be given to everyone to follow and do their part (82%). The respondents conclusively perceive this s important, hence the score s it removes any doubts as to a team member or a unit's tasks and responsibilities are. **Recommendations**; **form** of transactional leadership format may be necessary in that the team member and his subordinates need to know in no uncertain terms what they are expected to deliver.

**Conclusion 8**; A team member who is couched and mentored will be motivated and will perform better (75%). **Recommendation**; Couching and mentoring will allow for development and help redress weak areas that a team member may have. The project leader should constantly identify weak areas amongst the team members (and even among other employees) and couch them as part of career development.

**Conclusion 9**; Getting training will enhance the capacity and performance of team members (78%) since training is intended to capacitate the trainees to perform better. **Recommendations**; Training needs should be identified on a regular basis and training should be regular to both motivate and develop the workforce. It should not be training for the sake of training, but it must relate to the needs and tasks to be performed.

**Conclusion 10**; Avoid politicking involving the team members because they believe that it divides the workers (70%) the team members included. **Recommendations**; Whilst it may be necessary to do some politics in the organization, it may not always be healthy; the project leader must not be involved in dividing the team he needs to accomplish his objectives.

**Conclusion 11:** A leader must be able to facilitate team discussions (80%) fairly and effectively. The views are exchanged in these meetings and decisions are taken which impact on the success or failure of the process. **Recommendations:** If necessary, project leaders should have training on how to effectively facilitate a meeting and get the best out of the participants. Too often valuable information or suggestions are lost because the facilitating of the meeting does not allow for certain views.

**Conclusion 12:** Team members are motivated by leaders who are available for critical feedback when needed (80%); **Recommendations**; It is recommended that the project leader develop an effective feedback response plan to avoid waiting for too long before attending to crisis. This will help reduce possible risks, motivate operators and keep the process within schedule.

**Conclusion 13**; Team members are happy with a leader who understands their background (78%) and respects them for who they are. **Recommendations**; The project leaders must take the pain to understand their team members as that allows them to accommodate and correct them without hurting their feelings.

**Conclusion 14**; It is important for a project leader to understand the emotions of their team members (75%). This borders on high levels of emotional intelligence, which is generally rare amongst most leaders. **Recommendations:** The team leader needs training on the understanding of people's emotions and how to accommodate such people who in this case will be team members.

**Conclusion 15**; Team members are happy with leaders that understand the different capabilities of team members (75%). This understanding assists in identifying areas for improvement for the team members and also creates an opportunity to motivate the team members. **Recommendations**; The project team leader needs to assess at regular times, specifically when there are new appointments, the abilities, competencies, etc. of the personnel in order to assist with career developing and empowerment.

The last part of the research had an opportunity for the respondents to air their views on these issues considering that there are practitioners and may have other issues to discuss. In an open-ended format they listed numerous other factors to be considered, among whom are; poor communication, conducive work environment, the remuneration packages, recognition of the contributions of the team members, accountability of the leadership and the transparency in the execution of duties.

Together with this, the respondents indicated that they hate being left out from decision-making processes that affect them and their work, the poor work environment, the absence of clear objectives, and delays in supplies for operations. This study helped understand the subjective experience of project team members when handling given projects and Identifying important benchmarks of great team performance.

#### 6.3 SUMMARY

The conclusions discussed above are those where the respondent scored or indicated 70% and above, these were catalogued as important and may be considered as generic. These 15 conclusions are presented here as the findings of the research in relation to the quest for generic factors that can motivate a project team. It is therefore concluded that these items are of paramount importance for any project team-leader to be effective and overall it is apparent from the research that the majority of the respondents believe that team member satisfaction has a positive impact on the project success. This finding assists in understanding team dynamics, which comprise of the motivating forces to the performance of a team. These factors influence the direction that the team behavior will portray and impact on the performance levels of the team. The presence of the leader confirms the acknowledgement that there is a need for someone who will guide the processes.

The processes will inevitably include among other things, managing the flow of resources needed, coordination of efforts from different task teams, establish roles, responsibilities, goals and objectives for the project team. As noted from the research, it is equally important that there be ground rules to govern the meeting times, processes, procedures and decision making processes that involve all or relevant team members. Conflict resolution principles and policies need to be clearly stated to the team members to promote transparency and build trust among the members.

#### 6.4 Recommendation for further research:

As mentioned in Chapter 5, team dynamics remains an exclusively interesting study, therefore, it is recommended that this study be repeated in the future to allow for comparative analysis studies and further interpretations, and given the generally diverse nature of a team, it remains a complicated area of study. Whilst generalizations can be made, as has been the case in the findings in chapter 5 above, it can be deduced that team member satisfaction in this context has a positive impact on project success, although it is accepted that these may not always apply universally. Therefore, the aspirations for generic list of motivating factors for project team members should be accepted as not being exclusive.

- 1. Amabile, T.M., 1997. Motivating creativity in organizations: On doing what you love
- 2. Anantatmula, V. and Thomas, M., 2010. Managing global projects: A structured approach for better performance. *Project Management Journal*, *41*(2), 60-72. and loving what you do. *California management review*, *40*(1), .39-58.
- 3. Andrews, F.M. and Withey, S.B., 2012. *Social indicators of well-being: Americans'* perceptions of life quality. Springer Science & Business Media.
- 4. Antonakis, J.; House, RJ. (2014). "Instrumental leadership: Measurement and extension of transformational–transactional leadership theory". The Leadership Quarterly. **25** (4): 746.
- 5. Anvuur, A.M. and Kumaraswamy, M.M., 2007. Conceptual model of partnering and alliancing. *Journal of Construction Engineering and Management*, 133(3), .225-234
- 6. Araújo, L. and Guerrini, F.M., 2013, September. Reference Model for Operation and Reconfiguration of a Network for Subway Construction. In *Working Conference on Virtual Enterprises* (211-219). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- 7. Armstrong, M. and Murlis, H., 2007. Reward management: A handbook of remuneration strategy and practice. Kogan Page Publishers.
- 8. Arnolds, C.A. and Boshoff, C., 2002. Compensation, esteem valence and job performance: an empirical assessment of Alderfer's ERG theory. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(4), 697-719.
- 9. Bagozzi, R.P., 1994. Measurement in marketing research: Basic principles of questionnaire design. *Principles of marketing research*, *1*, 1-49.
- 10. Bakker, A.B., Schaufeli, W.B., Demerouti, E., Janssen, P.P., Van Der Hulst, R. and Brouwer, J., 2000. Using equity theory to examine the difference between burnout and depression.
- 11. Bang, H. and Ross, S.D., 2009. Volunteer motivation and satisfaction. *Journal of Venue and Event Management*, *1*(1), 61-77.
- **12.** Barlett, C.P. and Anderson, C.A., 2012. Direct and indirect relations between the Big 5 personality traits and aggressive and violent behavior. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *52*(8), 870-875.
- 13. Batt, R. and Appelbaum, E., 2013. The impact of financialization on management and employment outcomes.
- 14. Beal, D.J., Cohen, R.R., Burke, M.J. and McLendon, C.L., 2003. Cohesion and performance in groups: a meta-analytic clarification of construct relations. *Journal of applied psychology*, 88(6), 989.

- 15. Beer, M., Cannon, M.D., Baron, J.N., Dailey, P.R., Gerhart, B., Heneman, H.G., Kochan, T., Ledford, G.E. and Locke, E.A., 2004. Promise and peril in implementing pay-for-performance. *Human resource management*, *43*(1), 3-48.
- 16. Benge, C.L., Onwuegbuzie, A.J. and Robbins, M.E., 2012. A model for presenting threats to legitimation at the planning and interpretation phases in the quantitative, qualitative, and mixed research components of a dissertation. *International Journal of Education*, *4*(4), 65-124.
- 17. Bowling, N.A. and Beehr, T.A., 2006. Workplace harassment from the victim's perspective: a theoretical model and meta-analysis.
- 18. Brannick, M.T., Salas, E. and Prince, C.W. eds., 1997. *Team performance assessment and measurement: Theory, methods, and applications*. Psychology Press.
- **19.** Brick, J.M. and Kalton, G., 1996. Handling missing data in survey research. *Statistical methods in medical research*, *5*(3), 215-238.
- 20. Bunderson, J.S. and Sutcliffe, K.M., 2002. Comparing alternative conceptualizations of functional diversity in management teams: Process and performance effects. *Academy of management journal*, *45*(5), 875-893.
- **21.** Burke, C.S., Sims, D.E., Lazzara, E.H. and Salas, E., 2007. Trust in leadership: A multi-level review and integration. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *18*(6), 606-632.
- 22. Byrd, J.T. and Luthy, M.R., 2010. Improving group dynamics: Creating a team charter. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*, *14*(1), 13.
- **23.** Cao, L., 2010. In-depth behavior understanding and use: the behavior informatics approach. *Information Sciences*, *180*(17), 3067-3085.
- 24. Cappato, R., Calkins, H., Chen, S.A., Davies, W., Iesaka, Y., Kalman, J., Kim, Y.H., Klein, G., Packer, D. and Skanes, A., 2005. Worldwide survey on the methods, efficacy, and safety of catheter ablation for human atrial fibrillation. *Circulation*, 111(9), 1100-1105.
- **25.** Carron, A.V. and Brawley, L.R., 2000. Cohesion conceptual and measurement issues. *Small Group Research*, *31*(1), 89-106.
- 26. Çetin, M., Karabay, M.E. and Efe, M.N., 2012. The Effects of Leadership Styles and the Communication Competency of Bank Managers on the Employee's Job Satisfaction: The Case of Turkish Banks. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 58, 227-235.
- 27. Champion, M.R., 2008. Creating engagement: The use of Expectancy Theory in corporate customer service teams. ProQuest.
- **28.** Chang, I., Liu, C.C. and Chen, K., 2014. The push, pull and mooring effects in virtual migration for social networking sites. *Information Systems Journal*, *24*(4), 323-346.
- **29.** Cherry, K., 2009. Leadership Theories. *Administrative Professionals Week*, 1-20.
- 30. Chong, E., 2007. Role balance and team development: A study of team role characteristics underlying high and low performing teams. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, 8(3), 202
- 31. Cobb-Clark DA, Schurer S (2012). "The stability of big-five personality traits". Economics Letters. 115 (2): 11–15.
- **32.** Coetzee, C. and Van Niekerk, D., 2012. Tracking the evolution of the disaster management cycle: A general system theory approach. *Jàmbá: Journal of Disaster Risk Studies*, *4*(1), .9.
- 33. Coffman, C., Gonzalez-Molina, G. and Gopal, A., 2002. Follow this path: How the world's greatest organizations drive growth by unleashing human potential. Business Plus.

- 34. Colella, A., 2001. Coworker distributive fairness judgments of the workplace accommodation of employees with disabilities. *Academy of Management Review*, 26(1), 100-116.
- 35. Cooke-Davies, T.J., 2001. Towards improved project management practice: Uncovering the evidence for effective practices through empirical research. Universal-Publishers
- 36. Cooper, P.S. and SCHINDLER, D., 2001. 2003. Business Research Methods.
- **37.** Coppin, G., Delplanque, S., Cayeux, I., Porcherot, C. and Sander, D., 2010. I'm No Longer Torn After Choice How Explicit Choices Implicitly Shape Preferences of Odors. *Psychological Science*.
- 38. Crano, W.D., 2000. Milestones in the psychological analysis of social influence. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 4*(1), 68.
- 39. Cummings, J.N., 2004. Work groups, structural diversity, and knowledge sharing in a global organization. *Management science*, *50*(3), 352-364.
- 40. Daft, R.L., 2010. The executive and the elephant: A leader's guide for building inner excellence. John Wiley & Sons.
- **41.** De Meyer, A., Loch, C.H. and Pich, M.T., 2002. Managing project uncertainty: from variation to chaos. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, *43*(2), 60.
- 42. DeChurch, L.A. and Mesmer-Magnus, J.R., 2010. The cognitive underpinnings of effective teamwork: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*(1), 32.
- 43. Deci, E. L.; Vansteenkiste, M. (2004). "Self-determination theory and basic need satisfaction: Understanding human development in positive psychology". *Ricerche di Psichologia.* **27**: 17–34.
- 44. Dos Santos, A., Powell, J.A. and Sarshar, M., 2002. Evolution of management theory: the case of production management in construction. *Management Decision*, 40(8), 788-796.
- 45. Duygulu, E. and Ciraklar, N., 2008. Team effectiveness and leadership roles
- **46.** Eagly, A.H. and Wood, W., 1991. Explaining sex differences in social behavior: A meta-analytic perspective. *Personality and social psychology bulletin*, *17*(3), 306-315.
- 47. Ellemers, N., De Gilder, D. and Haslam, S.A., 2004. Motivating individuals and groups at work: A social identity perspective on leadership and group performance. *Academy of Management review*, 29(3), 459-478.
- 48. Feyerherm, A.E. and Rice, C.L., 2002. Emotional intelligence and team performance: The good, the bad and the ugly. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 10(4), 343-362.
- 49. Finkelstein, S., Hambrick, D.C. and Cannella, A.A., 2009. *Strategic leadership: Theory and research on executives, top management teams, and boards*. Oxford University Press, USA.
- 50. Fleeson W (2001). "Towards a structure- and process-integrated view of personality: Traits as density distributions of states". Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. 80 (6): 1011–1027
- 51. Forsyth, D.R., 2006. Group dynamics Belmont. CA: Thomson Higher Education.
- 52. Forsyth, D.R., 2009. Group dynamics. Cengage Learning.
- **53.** Fouché, C.B. and Delport, C.S.L., 2002. The place of theory and the literature review in the qualitative approach to research. *Research at grass roots*, *3*.
- 54. Fung, H.P., 2014. Relationships among Team Trust, Team Cohesion, Team Satisfaction, Team Effectiveness and Project Performance as Perceived by Project Managers in Malaysia. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 8(8), 205-216.

- 55. Fung, H.P., 2014. Relationships between leadership roles and project team effectiveness as perceived by project managers in Malaysia. *Journal of Empirical Studies*, *1*(1), 1-22.
- 56. Gächter, S., Nosenzo, D., Renner, E. and Sefton, M., 2012. Who makes a good leader? cooperativeness, optimism, and leading-by-example. *Economic Inquiry*, 50(4), 953-967.
- 57. Gagné, M. and Deci, E.L., 2005. Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational behavior*, 26(4), 331-362.
- **58.** Gary, L. (2004) *Teams that Click*, Boston: Harvard Business School Press, Osterwalder, A., Pigneur, Y. and Tucci, C.L., 2005. Clarifying business models: Origins, present, and future of the concept. *Communications of the association for Information Systems*, *16*(1),1.
- **59.** Gelles, David (2015) "At Zappos, Pushing Shoes and a Vision". *The New York Times*..7-17. CHANGE, D.S.T., People, Work and Organizations.
- 60. Geoghegan, L. and Dulewicz, V., 2008. Do project managers' leadership competencies contribute to project success?. *Project Management Journal*, *39*(4), 58-67.
- **61.** Gido, J. and Clements, J.P., 2014. *Successful project management*. Nelson Education.
- 62. Gilley, A., Gilley, J.W., McConnell, C.W. and Veliquette, A., 2010. The competencies used by effective managers to build teams: An empirical study. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, *12*(1), 29-45.
- 63. Golembiewski, R.T., 2000. Handbook of organizational behavior, revised and expanded. CRC Press.
- 64. Gollwitzer, P.M. and Sheeran, P., 2006. Implementation intentions and goal achievement: A meta-analysis of effects and processes. *Advances in experimental social psychology*, *38*, 69-119.
- 65. Gondal, A.M. and Khan, A., 2008. Impact of team empowerment on team performance: case of the telecommunications industry in Islamabad. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, *4*(5), 138-146
- 66. Graziano, W.G., Bruce, J., Sheese, B.E. and Tobin, R.M., 2007. Attraction, personality, and prejudice: liking none of the people most of the time. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *93*(4),565.
- **67.** Groenewald, T., 2004. A phenomenological research design illustrated. *International journal of qualitative methods*, *3*(1), 42-55.
- 68. Gronn, P., 2002. Distributed leadership as a unit of analysis. *The leadership quarterly*, *13*(4), 423-451.
- 69. Guide, A., 2001. Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK® GUIDE). In *Project Management Institute*.
- 70. Hackman, J.R., 2002. *Leading teams: Setting the stage for great performances*. Harvard Business Press.
- 71. HAMNER, C., LUTHANS, F. and KRIETNER, R., 2015. Operant Behavior And Organizational Behavior Modification. *Organizational Behavior 1: Essential Theories of Motivation and Leadership*, 114.
- 72. Happé, F., 2003. Theory of mind and the self. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1001(1), 134-144.
- 73. Hart, W., Albarracín, D., Eagly, A.H., Brechan, I., Lindberg, M.J. and Merrill, L., 2009. Feeling validated versus being correct: a meta-analysis of selective exposure to information. *Psychological bulletin*, 135(4),555.
- **74.** Heagney, J., 2012. *Fundamentals of project management*. AMACOM Div American Mgmt Assn.

- 75. Heider, F., 2013. *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. Psychology Press.
- 76. Hellriegel, D. and Slocum Jr, J.W., 1996. Management, South Western College Publishing. *Ohio*, *US A*.
- 77. Herath, T. and Rao, H.R., 2009. Encouraging information security behaviors in organizations: Role of penalties, pressures and perceived effectiveness. *Decision Support Systems*, *47*(2), 154-165.
- 78. Herzberg, F., Mausner, B. and Snyderman, B.B., 2011. *The motivation to work* (Vol. 1). Transaction publishers.
- 79. Horwitz, S.K. and Horwitz, I.B., 2007. The effects of team diversity on team outcomes: A meta-analytic review of team demography. *Journal of management*, 33(6), 987-1015.
- 80. <u>House, R. J.</u> and Mitchell, T.R. (1974). "Path-goal theory of leadership". Journal of Contemporary Business. **3**: I-97.
- 81. <u>House, Robert J.</u> (1996). "Path-goal theory of leadership: Lessons, legacy, and a reformulated theory". Leadership Quarterly. **7** (3): 323–352.
- 82. Huckman, R.S., Staats, B.R. and Upton, D.M., 2009. Team familiarity, role experience, and performance: Evidence from Indian software services. *Management science*, *55*(1), 85-100.
- 83. Huitt, W., 2004. Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Educational psychology interactive.
- 84. Hulin, C.L. and Judge, T.A., 2003. Job attitudes. *Handbook of psychology*.
- 85. Isaac, R.G., Zerbe, W.J. and Pitt, D.C., 2001. Leadership and motivation: The effective application of expectancy theory. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 212-226.
- 86. Ivankova, N.V., Creswell, J.W. and Plano Clark, V.L., 2007. Foundations and approaches to mixed methods research. *First steps in research. Pretoria: Van Schaik*, 253-282.
- 87. J Kotter, What leaders really do, Harvard business review, 2001:9
- **88.** Jacques, P.H., Garger, J. and Thomas, M., 2007. Assessing leader behaviors in project managers. *Management Research News*, *31*(1), 4-11.
- 89. Jain, A.K., 2012. Moderating effect of impression management on the relationship of emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, 13(2), 86.
- 90. Jaramillo, F., Grisaffe, D.B., Chonko, L.B. and Roberts, J.A., 2009. Examining the impact of servant leadership on salesperson's turnover intention. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 29(4), 351-365.
- 91. Jowah, L.E. 2016. The impact of leadership styles on effective project execution.
- 92. Jowah, L.E., 2014. Politics and project execution: how organisational politics impact the effectiveness of project managers: the government's dilemma.
- 93. Jowah, L.E., 2015. Manager's Perception Of What Constitutes Good Management, Which Should Enhance Productivity In Institutions Of Higher, Learning. *European Journal of Business and Innovation Research*, *3*(5), 49-67.
- 94. Katzenbach, J.R. and Smith, D.K., 2005. The discipline of teams. *Harvard Business Review*, *83*(7), 162
- 95. Keller, R.T., 2006. Transformational leadership, initiating structure, and substitutes for leadership: a longitudinal study of research and development project team performance. *Journal of applied psychology*, *91*(1), 202.
- 96. Kerzner, H.R., 2013. *Project management: a systems approach to planning, scheduling, and controlling.* John Wiley & Sons.
- **97.** Kerzner, H.R., 2013. *Project management: a systems approach to planning, scheduling, and controlling.* John Wiley & Sons.
- **98.** Kirkman, B.L. and Shapiro, D.L., 2005. The impact of cultural value diversity on multicultural team performance. *Advances in international management*, *18*, 33-67.

- 99. Kirkwood, J., 2009. Motivational factors in a push-pull theory of entrepreneurship. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, *24*(5), 346-364.
- 100. Kopelman, R.E., Prottas, D.J. and Davis, A.L., 2008. Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Y: Toward a construct-valid measure. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 255-271.
- 101. Kotter, J.P., 2001. What leaders really do (85-96). Harvard Business School Publishing Corporation
- 102. Kouzes, J.M. and Posner, B.Z., 2006. *The leadership challenge* (Vol. 3). John Wiley & Sons.
- 103. Kozlowski, S.W. and Ilgen, D.R., 2006. Enhancing the effectiveness of work groups and teams. *Psychological science in the public interest*, 7(3), 77-124.
- 104. Kumari, G., Joshi, G. and Pandey, K.M., 2014. Analysis of Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction of the Employees in Public and Private Sector. *International Journal of Trends in Economics Management & Technology (IJTEMT)*, 3(1).
- **105.** Kuoppala, J., Lamminpää, A., Liira, J. and Vainio, H., 2008. Leadership, job wellbeing, and health effects—a systematic review and a meta-analysis. *Journal of occupational and environmental medicine*, *50*(8), 904-915.
- 106. Latham, G.P. and Pinder, C.C., 2005. Work motivation theory and research at the dawn of the twenty-first century. *Annu. Rev. Psychol.*, *56*, 485-516.
- 107. Le Bon, G., McDougall, W. and Freud, S. 2008, Group dynamics explained.
- **108.** Lee, K. and Ashton, M.C., 2005. Psychopathy, Machiavellianism, and narcissism in the Five-Factor Model and the HEXACO model of personality structure. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *38*(7), 1571-1582.
- 109. Lee, S., 2007. Vroom's expectancy theory and the public library customer motivation model. *Library Review*, *56*(9), 788-796.
- 110. Leedy, P.D. and Ormrod, J.E., 2001. Practical research: Planning and design . New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- **111.** Lei, D.T., 1997. Competence-building, technology fusion and competitive advantage: the key roles of organisational learning and strategic alliances. *International Journal of Technology Management*, *14*(2-4), 208-237.
- 112. Leung, K. and Tong, K.K., 2004. Justice across cultures: A three-stage model for intercultural negotiation. *The handbook of negotiation and culture*, 313.
- 113. Li, F., Li, Y. and Wang, E., 2009. Task characteristics and team performance: The mediating effect of team member satisfaction. *Social Behavior and Personality:* an international journal, 37(10),1373-1382.
- 114. Liu, C., Spector, P.E. and Shi, L., 2007. Cross-national job stress: a quantitative and qualitative study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28(2), 209-239.
- 115. Locke, E.A. and Latham, G.P., 2002. Building a practically useful theory of goal setting and task motivation: A 35-year odyssey. *American psychologist*, *57*(9), 705.
- 116. Longman, A. and Mullins, J., 2005. The rational project manager: a thinking team's guide to getting work done. John Wiley & Sons.
- 117. Lowry, P.B., Gaskin, J. Twyman, N., Hammer, B. and Roberts, T., 2012. Taking 'fun and games' seriously: Proposing the hedonic-motivation system adoption model (HMSAM). *Journal of the Association for Information Systems*, 14(11), 617-671
- **118.** Lu, J.W. and Beamish, P.W., 2004. International diversification and firm performance: The S-curve hypothesis. *Academy of management journal*, *47*(4), 598-609.
- 119. Lundberg, C., Gudmundson, A. and Andersson, T.D., 2009. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of work motivation tested empirically on seasonal workers in hospitality and tourism. *Tourism management*, *30*(6), 890-899.

- 120. Luthans, F., 2002. Positive organizational behavior: Developing and managing psychological strengths. *The Academy of Management Executive*, *16*(1), 57-72.
- 121. Mach, M. and Baruch, Y., 2015. Team performance in cross cultural project teams: The moderated mediation role of consensus, heterogeneity, faultlines and trust. *Cross Cultural Management*, 22(3), 464-486.
- 122. Mach, M., Dolan, S. and Tzafrir, S., 2010. The differential effect of team members' trust on team performance: The mediation role of team cohesion. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83(3), 771-794.
- 123. Macionis, Gerber, John, Linda (2010). Sociology 7th Canadian Ed. Toronto, Ontario: Pearson Canada Inc..149.
- **124.** Maclean, S. and Maseti, B., 2016. Implementation of a performance management development system: the case of the provincial planning and treasury department in the Eastern Cape, South Africa. *Journal of Public Administration*, *52*(2), 306-321.
- 125. Majchrzak, A., Jarvenpaa, S.L. and Hollingshead, A.B., 2007. Coordinating expertise among emergent groups responding to disasters. *Organization science*, *18*(1), 147-16
- **126.** Mantel, S.J., Meredith, J.R., Shafer, S.M. and Sutton, M.M., 2006. *Core Concepts*. John Wiley & Sons..
- 127. Martindale, N., 2011. Leadership styles: How to handle the different personas. *Strategic Communication Management*, *15*(8), 32-35.
- 128. Maslow, A. and Lewis, K.J., 1987. Maslow's hierarchy of needs. *Salenger Incorporated*,14
- 129. Mason, C.M. and Griffin, M.A., 2005. Group Task Satisfaction The Group's Shared Attitude to its Task and Work Environment. *Group & Organization Management*, 30(6), 625-652.
- 130. Mathieu, J., Maynard, M.T., Rapp, T. and Gilson, L., 2008. Team effectiveness 1997-2007: A review of recent advancements and a glimpse into the future. *Journal of management*, 34(3), 410-47
- **131.** Matsumoto, D. and Juang, L., 2016. *Culture and psychology*. Nelson Education.Squire, C., 2000. *Culture in psychology*. Psychology Press.
- 132. Matthews, G., 2000. Human performance: Cognition, stress, and individual differences. Psychology Press
- 133. Maxwell, J.A., 2012. Qualitative research design: An interactive approach: An interactive approach. Sage.
- 134. McFadzean, E., 2002. Developing and supporting creative problem-solving teams: Part 1–a conceptual model. *Management Decision*, *40*(5), 463-475
- 135. Meltziff, Andrew N. 2003, and Jean Decety. "What imitation tells us about social cognition: a rapprocjement between developmental psychology and cognitive neuroscience. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 358(1431, 491-500
- 136. Michan, S. and Rodger, S., 2000. Characteristics of effective teams: a literature review. *Australian Health Review*, *23*(3), 201-208.
- 137. Morgeson, F.P., DeRue, D.S. and Karam, E.P., 2009. Leadership in teams: A functional approach to understanding leadership structures and processes. *Journal of management*.
- 138. Müller, R. and Turner, R., 2010. Leadership competency profiles of successful project managers. *International Journal of Project Management*, *28*(5), 437-448.
- 139. Muraca, F.R., 2007. An Integrated Approach to Building. *NURSING HOMES-WASHINGTON THEN CLEVELAND-*, *56*(6), 16.

- **140.** Muthusamy, S.K. and Palanisamy, R., 2004. Leveraging cognition for competitive advantage: a knowledge-based strategy process. *Journal of information & Knowledge management*, *3*(03), 259-272.
- 141. Naylor, J.C., Pritchard, R.D. and Ilgen, D.R., 2013. *A theory of behavior in organizations*. Academic Press.
- 142. Nguyen, N.T., Seers, A. and Hartman, N.S., 2008. Putting a good face on impression management: Team citizenship and team satisfaction. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, *9*(2), 148.
- 143. Obiwuru, T.C., Okwu, A.T., Akpa, V.O. and Nwankwere, I.A., 2011. Effects of leadership style on organizational performance: A survey of selected small scale enterprises in Ikosi-Ketu council development area of Lagos State, Nigeria. *Australian Journal of Business and Management Research*, 1(7), 100.
- 144. Oudeyer, P.Y. and Kaplan, F., 2009. What is intrinsic motivation? a typology of computational approaches. *Frontiers in neurorobotics*, *1*, 6.
- 145. Pawson, R., Greenhalgh, T., Harvey, G. and Walshe, K., 2005. Realist review—a new method of systematic review designed for complex policy interventions. *Journal of health services research & policy*, *10*(suppl 1), .21-34.
- 146. Payton, S.C. and Hierstetter, B.S., 2006. Nine Technology Insertion programs that can speed acquisition. *Defense At And L*, 35(1), 10.
- 147. Pettigrew, T.F. and Tropp, L.R., 2006. A meta-analytic test of intergroup contact theory. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *90*(5), 751.
- 148. Platow, M.J., Grace, D.M. and Smithson, M.J., 2012. Examining the Preconditions for Psychological Group Membership Perceived Social Interdependence as the Outcome of Self-Categorization. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, *3*(1), 5-13.
- **149.** Porcherot, C., Delplanque, S., Raviot-Derrien, S., Le Calvé, B., Chrea, C., Gaudreau, N. and Cayeux, I., 2010. How do you feel when you smell this? Optimization of a verbal measurement of odor-elicited emotions. *Food Quality and Preference*, *21*(8), 938-947.
- 150. Pritchard,R & Ashwood, E. (2008). Managing Motivation. New York: Taylor & Francis Group. 6
- 151. Rabiee, F., 2004. Focus-group interview and data analysis. *Proceedings of the nutrition society*, 63(04), 655-660.
- 152. Ramlall, S., 2004. A review of employee motivation theories and their implications for employee retention within organizations. *Journal of American Academy of Business*, *5*(1/2), 52-63.
- 153. Reeves, S., MacMillan, K. and Van Soeren, M., 2010. Leadership of interprofessional health and social care teams: a socio-historical analysis. *Journal of nursing management*, 18(3), 258-264.Bowling, N. A., & Beehr, T. A. (2006). Workplace harassment from the victim's perspective: A theoretical model and meta-analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 91(5), 998-1012. (Boker)

#### **REFERENCES**

- 154. Reiss, S., 2002. Who am I?: 16 basic desires that motivate our actions define our persona. Penguin.
- 155. Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A., and Crawford, E. R. 2010. "Job Engagement: Antecedents and Effects on Job Performance," Academy of Management Journal (53:3), 617-635.
- **156.** Riquelme, H. and Rickards, T., 1992. Hybrid conjoint analysis: An estimation probe in new venture decisions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *7*(6), 505-518.

- 157. Roberts BW, Mroczek D (February 2008). "Personality Trait Change in Adulthood". Current Directions in Psychological Science. 17 (1): 31–35
- 158. Robins, R.W., Caspi, A. and Moffitt, T.E., 2000. Two personalities, one relationship: both partners' personality traits shape the quality of their relationship. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *79*(2), 251.
- 159. Roca, J.C. and Gagné, M., 2008. Understanding e-learning continuance intention in the workplace: A self-determination theory perspective. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *24*(4), 1585-1604.
- 160. Royle, M.T. and Hall, A.T., 2012. The relationship between McClelland's theory of needs, feeling individually accountable, and informal accountability for others. International Journal of Management and Marketing Research, 5(1), 21-42.
- Ryan, R.M. and Deci, E.L., 2000. Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American psychologist*, 55(1), 68.
- 162. Ryan, R.M. and Deci, E.L., 2001. On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Annual review of psychology*, 52(1),141-166.
- 163. Ryan, R.M. and Patrick, H., 2009. Self-determination theory and physical. *Hellenic Journal of Psychology*, *6*, 107-124.
- 164. Rynes, S.L., Gerhart, B. and Parks, L., 2005. Personnel psychology: Performance evaluation and pay for performance. *Annu. Rev. Psychol.*, *56*, 571-600.
- 165. Santos, C. M. and Ana Margarida Passos, A. M. (2013) "Team mental models, relationship conflict and effectiveness over time", Team Performance Management, Vol. 19 Issue: 7/8, 363-385,
- 166. Schein, E.H., 2010. *Organizational culture and leadership* (Vol. 2). John Wiley & Sons.
- 167. Scouller, J., 2011. The three levels of leadership: How to develop your leadership presence, knowhow, and skill. Management Books.
- 168. Sekaran, U. and Bougie, R., 2003. Research methodology for business.
- **169.** Sharafi, A., Karimi, F. and Aslani, F., Investigating the Degree of Correspondence between the Implemented Roles of Academic Staff of The Educational Group of Isfahan University and Belbin's Team Roles Theory.
- **170.** Shenhar, A.J. and Dvir, D., 2007. *Reinventing project management: the diamond approach to successful growth and innovation*. Harvard Business Review Press.
- 171. Shenhar, A.J., 2004. Strategic Project Leadership® Toward a strategic approach to project management. *R&D Management*, *34*(5), 569-578.
- 172. Simsarian Webber, S., 2002. Leadership and trust facilitating cross-functional team success. *Journal of management development*, *21*(3), 201-214.
- 173. Slack, N., Chambers, S. and Johnston, R., 2009. *Operations and process management: principles and practice for strategic impact*. Pearson Education.
- 174. Smith III, H., Smarkusky, D. and Corrigall, E., 2008. Defining projects to integrate evolving team fundamentals and project management skills. *Journal of Information Systems Education*, *19*(1), 99.
- 175. Sole, D. and Edmondson, A., 2002. Situated knowledge and learning in dispersed teams. *British journal of management*, *13*(S2), S17-S34.
- 176. Somech, A., 2006. The effects of leadership style and team process on performance and innovation in functionally heterogeneous teams. *Journal of management*, 32(1), 132-157.

- 177. Sparrowe, R.T., Liden, R.C., Wayne, S.J. and Kraimer, M.L., 2001. Social networks and the performance of individuals and groups. *Academy of management journal*, *44*(2), pp.316-325.
- 178. Spears, R., Ellemers, N. and Doosje, B., 2005. Let me count the ways in which I respect thee: Does competence compensate or compromise lack of liking from the group?. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *35*(2), 263-279.
- 179. Spero, J.E.E. and Hart, J.A., 2009. *The politics of international economic relations*. Cengage Learning.
- **180.** Springer, M.G., Pane, J.F., Le, V.N., McCaffrey, D.F., Burns, S.F., Hamilton, L.S. and Stecher, B., 2012. Team Pay for Performance Experimental Evidence From the Round Rock Pilot Project on Team Incentives. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, *34*(4), 367-390.
- 181. Srivastava S, John OP, Gosling SD, Potter J (May 2003). "Development of personality in early and middle adulthood: set like plaster or persistent change?". Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. 84 (5): 1041–53.
- 182. Srivastava, A., Bartol, K.M. and Locke, E.A., 2006. Empowering leadership in management teams: Effects on knowledge sharing, efficacy, and performance. *Academy of management journal*, 49(6), 1239-1251.
- 183. Standage, M., Duda, J.L. and Ntoumanis, N., 2003. A model of contextual motivation in physical education: Using constructs from self-determination and achievement goal theories to predict physical activity intentions. *Journal of educational psychology*, *95*(1), 97.
- 184. Steers, R.M., Mowday, R.T. and Shapiro, D.L., 2004. Introduction to special topic forum: The future of work motivation theory. *The Academy of Management Review*, 29(3), 379-387.
- 185. Strubler, D.C. and York, K.M., 2007. An exploratory study of the team characteristics model using organizational teams. *Small Group Research*, *38*(6), 670-695.
- 186. Sudhakar, G.P., Farooq, A. and Patnaik, S., 2012. Measuring productivity of software development teams
- 187. Summers, D.C., 2005. Quality management: Creating and sustaining organizational effectiveness. Pearson Prentice Hall.
- 188. Taggar, S. and Ellis, R., 2007. The role of leaders in shaping formal team norms. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(2), 105-120.
- 189. Teasley, R., Kodama, F. and Robinson, R., 2009. Do collectivist teams matter? Effects of project group context and interdependence on innovative capabilities. *Journal of International Business Research*, *8*(1), 1.
- 190. Teasley, R., Kodama, F. and Robinson, R., 2009. Do collectivist teams matter? Effects of project group context and interdependence on innovative capabilities. *Journal of International Business Research*, 8(1), 1.
- 191. Tebele, P.S. and Jowah, L.E., 2014. Investigation On Project Leadership Styles Which Influence Project Success. *World*, 1(1), 1-22.
- 192. Teixeira, P.J., Carraça, E.V., Markland, D., Silva, M.N. and Ryan, R.M., 2012. Exercise, physical activity, and self-determination theory: a systematic review. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity*, *9*(1), 1.
- 193. Thamhain, H.J., 1988. *Team building in project management* ( 823-846). John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- 194. Thamhain, H.J., 2004. Linkages of project environment to performance: lessons for team leadership. *International Journal of Project Management*, 22(7), pp.533-544.
- 195. Thompson, E.R. and Phua, F.T., 2012. A brief index of affective job satisfaction. *Group & Organization Management*, *37*(3), 275-307.

- 196. Thompson, E.R., 2008. Development and validation of an international English big-five mini-markers. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *45*(6), 542-548.
- 197. Thompson, L.L. and Wilson, E.R., 2015. Creativity in Teams. *Emerging Trends in the Social and Behavioral Sciences: An Interdisciplinary, Searchable, and Linkable Resource.*
- 198. Tompa, E., Trevithick, S. and McLeod, C., 2007. Systematic review of the prevention incentives of insurance and regulatory mechanisms for occupational health and safety. *Scandinavian journal of work, environment & health*, 85-95.
- **199.** Torres, E.N., 2016. Guest interactions and the formation of memorable experiences: an ethnography. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(10).
- 200. Turner, J.E. and Schallert, D.L., 2001. Expectancy–value relationships of shame reactions and shame resiliency. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *93*(2), 320.
- 201. Turner, J.R. and Müller, R., 2005, June. The project manager's leadership style as a success factor on projects: A literature review. Project Management Institute.
- 202. Vallerand, R.J., 2007. A hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for sport and physical activity.
- 203. Van Vugt, M. and Schaller, M., 2008. Evolutionary approaches to group dynamics: An introduction. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 12(1), 1.
- 204. Vande Water, H. Keeds Ahaus and Robert Rozier, Team roals, team balance and performance; Journal of management development. 2008
- 205. Vansteenkiste, M. and Sheldon, K.M., 2006. There's nothing more practical than a good theory: Integrating motivational interviewing and self-determination theory. *British journal of clinical psychology*, *45*(1), 63-82
- 206. Vansteenkiste, M., Neyrinck, B., Niemiec, C.P., Soenens, B., Witte, H. and Broeck, A., 2007. On the relations among work value orientations, psychological need satisfaction and job outcomes: A self-determination theory approach. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 80(2), 251-277.
- 207. Venkatesh, V., 2000. Determinants of perceived ease of use: Integrating control, intrinsic motivation, and emotion into the technology acceptance model. *Information systems research*, 11(4), 342-365.
- 208. Verma, V.K. 2002 The Human Aspect Of Project Management Volume Three: Managing The Project Team, Published by Project Management Institute.
- 209. Webber, S.S., 2008. Blending service provider–client project teams to achieve client trust: Implications for project team trust, cohesion, and performance. *Project Management Journal*, 39(2), 72-81..
- 210. Webster, J. and Watson, R.T., 2002. Analyzing the past to prepare for the future: Writing a literature review. *MIS quarterly*, pp.xiii-xxiii.
- 211. Webster, M., definitions-caste report a problem.
- 212. Werner, J.M. and DeSimone, R.L., 2011. *Human resource development*. Cengage Learning
- 213. Wigfield, A., Guthrie, J.T., Tonks, S. and Perencevich, K.C., 2004. Children's motivation for reading: Domain specificity and instructional influences. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *97*(6), 299-310.
- 214. Wood, E.G., Wood, S.E. and Boyd, D., 2005. The World Of Psychology, 5/E.
- 215. Yemm, G., 2013. FT Essential Guide to Leading Your Team ePub eBook: How to Set Goals, Measure Performance and Reward Talent. Pearson UK.
- **216.** York, J.G., O'Neil, I. and Sarasvathy, S., 2014. Selective incentives, entrepreneurship, and identity: toward a behavioral theory of collective action. In

- Alliance for Research on Corporate Sustainability Conference, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.
- 217. Young, T.L., 2013. Successful project management (Vol. 52). Kogan Page Publishers.
- 218. Zalenski, R.J. and Raspa, R., 2006. Maslow's hierarchy of needs: a framework for achieving human potential in hospice. *Journal of palliative medicine*, *9*(5), 1120-1127
- 219. Zhong, C.B. and Liljenquist, K., 2006. Washing away your sins: Threatened morality and physical cleansing. *Science*, *313*(5792), 1451-1452.

### **QUESTIONNAIRE**

An evaluation on the impact of team member satisfaction on the project management process

No information will be passed on to any authorities, you are safe and protected. Participating in the survey is a voluntary exercise – you are not compelled in any form or way to participate. Should you decide to stop / withdraw from this at any stage in the process, you are allowed to. You may omit sections you are not comfortable answering. Thank you for participation

### **SECTION A: BIOGRAPHY**

1.	What is your position in the organisation? Please use box below for you	ır
	response.	

Project team member	r Project manager	Finance manager	Other
2. If other, please sp	pecify		
3. How long have yo	ou been a project tea	am member- whatev	er capacity?
0-5 years	6-10 years	11 – 16 years	16 ears plus
• 4. How did you get	to be a team membe	er in this project you	u are in now?
Seconded from my department	I head a unit in the project	I am the project manager	Other
6. Have you ever be	specifyen a head of a team	[sub-committee, W	
Never been	Not directly but yes	Directly involved	Other
7. If other, please s <sub>l</sub> 8. In all how many t		e you been involved	in?
0-5 teams	6-10 teams	11-16 teams	16+ teams
9. Is there anything  •	you want to add - p	lease list that below	in bullet form.
•			
•			
•			
•			

### **SECTION B**

The following questions are not quantifiable and a Likert scale is used to measure / understand the respondents' perceptions. Please tick in the relevant box, the scale is 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral / indifferent, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree.

	gly disagree, $2 = disagree$ , $3 = neutral / indifferent$ , $4 = agree$ and $5 = s$ Statements					
	An evaluation on the impact of team member satisfaction on the project management process.	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
	CORRECT FIT INTO THE TEAM; I get satisfied when	0	0	0	0	0
1.	Team members leave each one to focus on their expertise	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Team selection must be reflective of the project needs	1	2	3	4	5
3.	There must be congruency between the personality types	1	2	3	4	5
4.	When the project leader understands the project and the team members	1	2	3	4	5
5.	If I am treated with respect and my views are constructively scrutinised	1	2	3	4	5
	COLLABORATION IN THE TEAM; I am happy when	0	0	0	0	0
6.	The goals are clearly communicated and everyone buys into them	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Get everybody involved in decision making to avoid future conflicts	1	2	3	4	5
8.	If there is persistently followed-up to the goals to ensure compliance	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Clear guidelines are given for everyone to follow and do their part	1	2	3	4	5
10.	If diversity is accepted and no ethnocentricism is applied in the team	1	2	3	4	5
	PROSPECTS FOR PROGRESS – I get satisfied if;					
11	I am given to take part in project planning and decision making	1	2	3	4	5
12	I am not given work that doesn't concern my expertise	1	2	3	4	5
13	I am couched and mentored in areas where I am weak and need help	1	2	3	4	5
14	I am given training to enhance my working capacity and performance	1	2	3	4	5
15	I am left to develop myself without interference or help from anyone	1	2	3	4	5
	WORKING RELATIONSHIPS WITH PEERS	1	2	3	4	5
	1				Ì	

16	I am satisfied when we work together as equals at work	1	2	3	4	5
17	I don't bother if people politick as long as they perform	1	2	3	4	5
18	I think politicking divides employees and causes disorder	1	2	3	4	5
19	The poor team spirit discourages me from over performing	1	2	3	4	5
20	My performance is not affected by people at my level	1	2	3	4	5
	LEADERSHIP STYLE- I get satisfied with / by;	0	0	0	0	0
21	A leader who gets me involved in working out project requirements					
22	A leader who works out everything and then explains it to me properly	1	2	3	4	5
23	A leader that leaves me to do what I want to do and how I want to it	1	2	3	4	5
24	A leader that can facilitate team discussions effectively and fairly	1	2	3	4	5
25	A leader who is always available for critical feedback when needed	1	2	3	4	5
26	A leader who develops the team and the individual team members	1	2	3	4	5
	LEADERSHIP PROTOTYPE	1	2	3	4	5
27	A leader who understands my background and respects who I am	1	2	3	4	5
28	A leader who is aware of team members' emotions and assists them	1	2	3	4	5
29	A leader who takes the pain to couch and mentor those that are weak	1	2	3	4	5
	A leader who understands that team members have different abilities	1	2	3	4	5
30	A slave-driver-leader and gets everything out of the team members	1	2	3	4	5

## **SECTION C**

1.	List below in point form 7 very important things which would get you satisfied if they we put in place to get you satisfied as a team member.
1	
2	
3	
	.4
	5

<i>1</i>
2. List below in point form 5 very important things which make you not to get satisfied in the project teams that you've worked in.
1
2
3
4
5
6
7

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THE SURVEY