CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Worldwide poverty is a complex dimension researched by various researchers (Segalo, 2011:229). It remains a worldwide dilemma, which receives attention in order to improve the well-being of people affected by it (Menyuko, 2011:4). The implementation of various programmes such as IGPs and the sustainable livelihoods approach attempts to reduce poverty. To explore the motivation of women to participate in an IGP, it is necessary to gain information about the background regarding poverty and life circumstances of the women as well as the aspects regarding their behaviour towards the IGP. Therefore, Chapter Two briefly discusses aspects concerning poverty, sustainable livelihoods, culture and IGPs. Moreover, the term motivation and its aspects as outlined in the literature framework (Figure 3) are discussed thoroughly as this is the main focus of this study. The following literature framework (Figure 3) displays how the aspects discussed in this chapter relate to one another.

Figure 3: Theoretical framework of the motivational process: adapted from McClelland, (1985) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2010)
The aspects of motivation applicable to this study are personal motivational factors (intrinsic/internal motivation, unfulfilled needs and aroused motivation) and situational motivational factors (extrinsic/external motivation, and incentives). Goals; culture; tension; income generating projects; sustainable livelihoods and opportunities are discussed according to how they lead the impulse (caused by aroused motivation) to action and behaviour. A summary concludes this chapter, providing the relationship between poverty, sustainable livelihoods, culture, IGPs and motivation.

2.2 Poverty

Poverty which remains a topic of despair is a stark reality in this world. Southern Africa is one of the most deprived regions of the world (Meyiwa & Ngubentombi, 2010:127). However, distinct differences between rich and poor occur within the country whereas various battles against poverty are fought in order to reduce poverty and uplift the deprived (Menyuko, 2011:4; Meyiwa & Ngubentombi, 2010:127).

Poverty is described as a multidimensional problem that involves restricted access to nutrition, health and educational services, causing child mortality the probability of a shortened life and illiteracy (Menyuko, 2011:9). The socio-demographic factors influencing poverty; education; unemployment; the reality of poverty in South Africa; the situation in the NWP and the management of poverty are discussed below.

2.2.1 Demographic aspects influencing poverty

When analysing South Africa’s current situation, it is evident that a discrepancy in the socio-economic status of the population exists (Nelson, 2010:86). Contributing to this is the heterogeneous population, which, according to Nelson (2010:85), is a strong indication that poverty and inequality are evident and the potential economic growth is weak (Landman, 2003:3; Machethe, 2004:11). Okpala and Jonsson (2002:87) emphasised that investors prefer stable economies, and may negatively influence the economic instability of South Africa.

South Africa is classified as an upper middle-income country, but in contrast to similar countries, its distribution of income is highly unequal where 13% of the people live in remarkable wealth and 50% of people live below the breadline (Hoogeveen & Özler, 2006:59; Machethe, 2004:1; Saleson, 2007:1; Stats SA, 2013b:16). South Africa’s economy is mainly dependent on total production of agriculture and minerals, trade and the flow of
investment (Saleson, 2007:1). It was also mentioned in an annual report released in 2008 that although progress regarding poverty reduction was achieved in certain areas such as Limpopo, Northern Cape and Western Cape, still many challenges remain and new ones have arisen (SA Yearbook, 2010:39).

2.2.2 Education

South Africa has huge inequalities in education, health, income distribution and basic infrastructure (Hoogeveen & Özler, 2006:59; Triegaardt, 2007:1). The average literacy and educational levels of the population aged 20 years and older is generally low, as only 18.6 % have grade 12 and 9.1 % of the population have higher education (Nelson, 2010:86). In 2007, the South African national report also revealed that 2.5 million people above the age of 20 years had no education at all (Anon, 2008b:24). Although the percentage of people with no education declined from 19.3 % to 10.3 % between 1996 and 2008 the improvement is still not adequate. During the past years, the education system highlighted several shortcomings, despite the fact that a portion (19 %) of the yearly budget is allocated to education (Nelson, 2010:74). It is speculated in the media that even some councillors are not suitable qualified for their positions as a report issued by the SA Local Government Association disputed that 32 % of councillors could not read or write and five percent had only primary school education (News 24.com, 2008:1). This reveals the implications concerning low education and literacy levels as well as a weak education system, which affects the work force.

2.2.3 Unemployment

The increasing unemployment status in South Africa could possibly contribute to the worsening of poverty (Aliber, 2003:478). Unemployment in South Africa is mainly a chronic problem rather than an acute one (Triegaardt, 2007:5). Despite the economic growth and a rapid expansion of the labour force, unemployment has increased and most probably continue to increase if it is not addressed (Nelson, 2010:89). Nelson (2010:88) affirmed that South Africa's unemployment level was 23.5 % in 2009, which increased to 24 % in 2010 (Stats SA, 2013b:40); only to increase furthermore in 2013 to 25.6 % (Stats SA, 2013b:40).

Thus, the promise made by the government to eliminate poverty in 2014 appears not to be attainable (Nelson, 2010:89). Contributing factors include lack of access to employment, particularly in rural areas, and limited job opportunities for low skilled workers. Many women are deserted at home, unemployed with nothing to do, and experience limited choices to make a living (Segalo, 2011:233). Illegal immigration as a result of ineffective border control,
urbanisation and the low percentage of job opportunities are worsening the scenario (Pillay, 2008:94).

Economic policies find it difficult to resolve the unemployment issue as there are more job seekers than job opportunities (Triegaardt, 2007:2). It is reported that the number of work seekers of which the majority was female, increased by 30% in the period of 2001 – 2007 (Anon, 2008b:12). It is also estimated that 1.25 million Illegal immigrants in South Africa further negatively impacted on the unemployment status (Anon, 2008b:18; Nelson, 2010:88).

2.2.4 Reality of poverty in South Africa

South Africa currently has a population of 52.98 million people of which 2.5% are Indians/Asians, 9.0% Coloureds, 8.7% Whites and 79.8% Blacks (Stats SA, 2013a:3). It is estimated that 20.5 million people (46%) in South Africa lived in poverty in 2000 (Landman, 2003:5). According to Nelson (2010:86), 57% of all South Africans lived in poverty in 2001, which decreased to 48% in 2008. Nonetheless it increased to 54% in 2010 (Anon, 2010:1; Segalo, 2011:229). These fluctuations in percentages since 2001 indicate that poverty remains a dilemma in South Africa. Literature revealed that unemployment and the concentration of poverty is predominantly high among black Africans (32%), and women (31%) (Anon, 2008b:12; Mokgotho, 2010:5; Triegaardt, 2007:2). Davis (2006:2) also indicates that black people compared to other racial groups lag behind in terms of access to sufficient income. The South African National Report indicated furthermore that high proportions of Black and Coloured learners start secondary education but do not complete it and as mentioned contribute to the unemployment (Anon, 2008b:25).

2.2.5 The situation in the North West Province (NWP)

NWP has a population of 3 597 600 people presenting 6.8% of the total South African population (Stats SA, 2013a:3). Mining, agriculture and manufacturing activities make the highest economic contribution to the provincial output (Davis, 2010:1). However, data revealed that 27.1% of the population in NWP are unemployed, exceeding South Africa’s current unemployment status of 25.6% (Stats SA, 2013b:40). One of the situations in the NWP is a lack of approved human resource development policies, which causes a lack of commitment to skills development within municipalities according to the Local Government Sector Education Training Authority (LGSETA, 2010:2).
According to Aliber (2003:475), there is a strong geographic dimension to the incidence of poverty which predominantly occurs among people who live in rural areas. Sixty five percent of the NWP population resides in rural areas and black people represent 89.8 % of the NWP population (Stats SA, 2011:21). Thus, the majority black people reside in the rural areas in the NWP. It is therefore concluded that poverty among black people in rural areas within the NWP, is a problem. Machethe (2004:1) and Davis (2010:1) also stated that the majority of poor people are found in rural areas where 78 % of those people are likely to be chronically poor and mainly black. For this reason, it is important to focus on these people in reducing poverty.

Lack of education and skills contribute to poverty and in conjunction with insufficient access to employment opportunities, it is possibly the cause of rural poverty (Aliber, 2003:480). After a study had been conducted in the NWP in 2006, Kruger et al. (2006) reported that low levels of education and lack of formal education among female farm dwellers further contribute to limited job opportunities. Stats SA (2011:53) reported that 11.8 % people aged 20 years and above in the NWP, had no schooling at all. Black people have the largest percentage (10 %) of no schooling in South Africa (Stats SA, 2011:54). Thus, the most seriously affected children are those in rural areas whose mothers have no education (Aliber, 2003:475). An estimated 1 062 015 households are situated in the NWP of which 21% are informal dwellings (Stats SA, 2011:63). An estimated 12 % of black African households live in rooms or flats on shared properties and 7.4 % in informal dwellings or shacks (Stats SA, 2011:65). The latter group consists of those people who will most likely tend to suffer from poverty as they do not have a regular source of income.

2.2.6 Managing poverty

Various countries established strategies to reduce poverty (Menyuko, 2011:4). South Africa does not have a comprehensive poverty reduction strategy, but rather have several programmes to reduce poverty (Menyuko, 2011:4). Some programmes, for example social security grants, are utilised to support vulnerable people such as deprived mothers, the elderly (above the age of 60), and disabled individuals (Aliber, 2003:483). The government promotes economically sustainable IGPs within communities, in an attempt to assist communities to escape the trap of poverty and their reliance upon the social security grants (Aliber, 2003:487; Segalo, 2011:230; Triegaardt, 2007:2). Social grants, as such, will not fight poverty and therefore IGPs must be promoted and implemented to resolve poverty in the long term (Meyiwa & Ngubentombi, 2010:135; Triegaardt, 2007:7).
Employment creation through public works and programmes for example as well as establishing a demand for products or services will contribute to a decrease in poverty (Aliber, 2003:487; Trieghaardt, 2007:1). Sustainable livelihoods are thus important for IGPs and interventions, which should not be neglected. Before IGPs are discussed, sustainable livelihoods and the culture of these people who experience poverty need to be discussed first in order to understand their state of affairs.

2.3 Sustainable livelihoods

'The Sustainable Livelihood Approach' is described as the most dominant approach used by main international agencies to implement development interventions (Kadozo, 2009:6; Morse et al., 2009:4). The 'Sustainable Livelihood Approach' is defined in relation to its capability to improve a communal entities assets and abilities in the appearance of unexpected actions and pressures over time (Morse et al., 2009:3). There are five major assets recommended as being important to livelihood, for example, natural, human, economic or financial, physical, and social capital (Kadozo, 2009:44; Morse et al., 2009:5). The sustainable livelihood approach takes cognisance of the fact that the poor cannot offer assets such as cash or other savings, but they can offer assets such as labour, knowledge and skills, their kinship ties and friends as well as the natural assets around them (Kadozo, 2009:7). Therefore, the building block, 'human capital', which includes skills, knowledge, labour, good health and physical capability, is the asset considered in this study, which is linked with motivation and therefore the individual's behaviour within the sustainable livelihoods approach. Literature (Lemke et al., 2009:195) revealed that although female-headed households have less access to earned income, they tend to take better care of the well-being of household members. They also have better food security and therefore the article emphasises that the role of women's access to resources and power relations within households for sustainable livelihoods, is important. Several other cultural aspects also influence the sustainable livelihoods approach in households, thus affecting the general well-being of the household and consequently the community.

2.4 Culture

As contemplated previously in section 2.2.5, poverty is high among black people in the rural areas within the NWP. Therefore, particulars about their culture pertaining to this study are explored, and also because they are potential participants of IGPs in general. Results of five studies carried out on IGPs already established in the NWP revealed that the majority of the participants are Setswana speaking women (Botha, 2005; Du Plessis, 2004; Matenge, 2007;
Niesing, 2012; Van Niekerk, 2006). The majority (63.4 %) ethnic group found in the NWP is the Tswana culture (Stats SA, 2011:23). Thus, the following discussion focuses on the Tswana culture, in particular, among women.

2.4.1 Religion

The Tswana culture believes in a distant opaque upper being Modimo. These days most Tswana people are Christians although they call the Christian God Modimo as well (Van der Wiel, 2012:45). They believe that the spirit or soul of dead people (which they call ancestors) continue to live and hold power over living people (Van der Wiel, 2012:45). Thus, they have regular ceremonies, which include the encounters with these ancestors, Badimo, which are the most prominent part of the Tswana religion (Erasmus, 1970:282). This “connection” with the ancestors is what the Tswana strive for, since they believe that the ancestors help them to live virtuously and truthfully (Erasmus, 1970:282). They also believe that the ancestors intrude into their lives unpleasantly if they do not obey them (Erasmus, 1970:282; Van der Wiel, 2012:45).

Tswanas who have heard the message of the Christian world view, accepted it and will admit that there is a God, but will still practise their worship ceremonies towards Modimo and not God, because they fear living without the Modimo rituals (Erasmus, 1970:306). Their tradition has changed as time has passed and they believe that to send their children to school to be educated and to learn about the Bible is more important (Van der Wiel, 2012:71). An interesting fact regarding their religion is that they view education as being of a higher rank than their religion. Education to them is the future and life (Erasmus, 1970:309; Van der Wiel, 2012:53). Thus, it is likely that they might rather spend time and money on education rather than religion.

2.4.2 Marriage

Polygamy marriages are common and the polygamist acts as a communal binding factor (Erasmus, 1970:52; Nkomazana, 2006:266). It is also a symbol of manhood and reveals wealth but the women are highly dependent on the men (Nkomazana, 2006:266; Segalo, 2011:229). Conflict in these polygamist households is common and the women strive for independence (Segalo, 2011:229). Polygamy was acceptable in the past but it appears that they started to rebel against marriage and chose to live with a partner rather than marry when the law regarding the role of women in the business world, was launched in the 1900s (Erasmus, 2002:19; Segalo, 2011:229; Van der Wiel, 2012:41). A study conducted by
Erasmus (2002:19) about the marriage perspective of unmarried women revealed that the role of the Tswana wife had changed during the years. During the 1700s they had to cook, clean, give birth to babies and look after them, whereas now, they have right to also practise a career (Erasmus, 2002:19). In this study, Erasmus (2002:23) found that some women prefer not to get married because they do not want to get divorced or they perceive the majority of Tswana-men as being abusive and untrustworthy and as those who practise adultery (Nkomazana, 2006:272).

In the Tswana culture, the men have to pay “bogadi” also known as “lobola” to the family of the woman whom he wants to marry (Erasmus, 2002:34, Van der Wiel, 2012:41). “Bogadi” compensates in the form of cattle or money, but mostly money. The higher the woman’s education the greater the “bogadi” that is requested (Erasmus, 2002:35). The results furthermore indicate that they are not earnest in maintaining this tradition, but also believe that it should not be forgotten. It appears that their culture is adopting a more western lifestyle (Erasmus, 2002:52, Van der Wiel, 2012:41).

Having children is a very important aspect to both women and men, especially having a boy, but a marriage without children is seen as a curse (Nkomazana, 2006:276). The Tswana women are hardworking and their traditional role is to attend to the household chores such as the washing and cleaning as well as the preparation of the food such as mealie meal or sorghum porridge, for the families. They also make beer from the sorghum and mealies, because drinking beer forms part of their culture (Van der Wiel, 2012:23).

2.4.3 Socio-economic life

Wealth of the Tswana people is central to the cattle, in particular the number of cows that they own (Erasmus, 1970:49). The profit-motive does not feature in their economic life, and they do not have any concern about their future economic status (Erasmus, 1970:48). According to the results found in the study conducted by Erasmus (1970:60), the Tswana receive income mainly from temporary labour as domestic workers, cattle trading, and agricultural activities. Women are generally dependent on their husbands or other male relatives to support them (Nkomazana, 2006:266). Since Tswana women are dependent on their partners, but indicated rebellion towards marriage, they might have developed a longing for independence; which might be a reason to participate in IGPs in order to become self-sufficient.
2.5 Income generating projects (IGPs)

The Government supports IGPs already established in South Africa or Civil Society structures in order to support deprived people to meet their basic needs (Menyuko, 2011:4). Results in Menyuko’s (2011:4) study revealed that there are factors that motivate people to join and remain in the IGPs, such as moral support amongst the members.

According to Van Wyk (2011:1), motivation is the most extensively researched matter in an organisational context. However, IGPs are different when compared to organisations, but function virtually within the same manner. IGPs have to generate income to maintain sustainability with the assistance of facilitators, while organisations have already achieved success without facilitators. Thus, there is a need to investigate motivation as a matter pertinent to IGPs, because sustainability is fundamental to success. A study conducted by Segalo (2011:232) revealed that IGPs exert a good influence on the participants since their view of themselves and what they can achieve are renewed by gaining financial independence. Being part of a IGP brought the members to a place where they could think of their possible selves, which enabled them to develop their potential (Segalo, 2011:232). Support and appreciation from family members could serve as a motivation for the women to strive to achieve more (Segalo, 2011:233). The women want to make a difference in their families, whereby they aim to reach out to the community to encourage more women to become part of the IGP (Segalo, 2011:233). A study carried out on IGPs at Makotse revealed that the sustainability of the IGPs is negatively influenced by the lack of commitment among the participants (Mokgotho, 2010:56).

In Menyuko’s (2011:71) study, it was revealed that the participants in the IGP in Attridgeville were motivated to join the IGP by their desire to make use of their available time, to earn an additional income, and to develop skills. Personal development as well as opportunities to establish supportive relationships among themselves motivated the participants to remain in the IGP (Menyuko, 2011:71). Burkey (1993:136) argued that the first principle of group formation, such as IGPs, is that the poor must come together to work for their own good, whereby the motivation should be imposed from outside, although the people must themselves also understand that gathering together will benefit them.

2.6 Motivation is a process

The word motivation originated from the Latin word movere which means “to move” (Goldsmith, 2005:89; Jansson-Boyd, 2010:115). Thus to move towards a goal or other
desired outcomes is referred to as motivation within individuals (Goldsmith, 2005:89). This motivation within individuals is a powerful drive, which leads to action/behaviour based on a stimulus or need (Shiffman & Kanuk, 2010:106). When directed towards an object that reduces tension, it becomes a motive (George, 2010:113). A drive formed through an unfulfilled need creates tension, whereby the individual attempts to reduce or eliminate this tension through action/behaviour which results in some type of reward when the need is fulfilled (George, 2010:113; Goldsmith, 2005:89; Shanks, 2006:24; Solomon, 2009:154).

In brief, motivation is the process that leads people to behave as they do (Jansson-Boyd, 2010:115; Solomon, 2009:154). Motivation also refers to perseverance, vision, and sustained energy (Goldsmith, 2005:89; Jansson-Boyd, 2010:115). Motivation is a process and can be described as a constant flow of behaviour as well as a driving force behind specific behaviour (Goldsmith, 2005:89; Petri & Govern, 2004:3). Solomon (2009:154) and Jansson-Boyd (2010:115) describe motivation as the process that directs people to act the way they do. Motivation is complex and dynamic as the behaviour of people changes in reaction to life experiences while diverse responses occur under similar circumstances (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:111; Van Wyk, 2011:117). It is necessary to comprehend the motivational factors as similar things do not motivate people at the same time, for the same reasons, or with the same force (Dwivedula et al., 2007:4; Van Wyk, 2011:13). Therefore an approach to motivate a group of people in general, for example a presentation by a motivational speaker, will not result in a motivational unity amongst workers mainly because people are motivated individually within the motivational context (Van Wyk, 2011:2). Psychologists have studied human motivation widely and multiple theories about what motivates people have been derived (Shanks, 2006:25).

Everyone is motivated by something; however, the predicament is "that something" which is referred to, may not be directed towards the task at hand (Shanks, 2006:32). Jordaan and Jordaan (2000:570) maintain that an aspect of the motivational concepts pertains to the causes of human behaviour, and these causes are associated with a "why" question. As applied to this study, the question that can be asked is why some female farm dwellers participate in the IGP while others do not. In order to understand the behaviour of those in poor communities it would be beneficial to gain insight into aspects that motivate people in a community and their behaviour in terms of an IGP.
2.6.1 Situational motivational factors: Extrinsic motivation

Situational motivational factors, for example demands and incentives, occur outside the person and can be grouped as extrinsic or external motivation (McClelland, 1985:176). Furthermore, situations in the environment influence motivational behaviour. Extrinsic motivation arises when aspects such as credits, earnings and prestige, affect motivation (Van Wyk, 2011:16). Extrinsic motivation is also portrayed as the aspiration to act to attain or expect an external incentive of some kind such as money or additional benefits (Jansson-Boyd, 2010:118; Wright, 2006:211). The reinforcement theory underlies external factors and their part in understanding human motivation (Jansson-Boyd, 2010:120). Shanks (2006:24) states that the reinforcement theory includes four aspects of which two are related to desirable behaviours and two address undesirable behaviour. The first two mentioned are positive reinforcement (compels action that rewards desirable behaviours) and avoidance learning (compels action that rewards behaviour which avoids undesirable behaviours). While the last two aspects mentioned are punishment (includes actions intended to decrease undesirable behaviour by generating negative consequences for the individual) and extinction (which signifies the elimination of positive rewards for undesirable behaviours) (Jansson-Boyd, 2010:120; Shanks, 2006:24). An example of the reinforcement theory is the merit and demerit system, which rewards desirable behaviour and penalises undesirable behaviour in the organisational context (Shanks, 2006:24). Children in particular behave mostly in reaction to extrinsic factors to fulfil a specific task (Petri & Govern, 2004:358; Wright, 2006:211). Children will mostly complete a task only if they can obtain positive outcomes, and this behaviour is still present in some adults. Thus, it might be that some women participate in IGPs regularly only if they obtain positive outcomes or incentives.

Extrinsic rewards are optimal if they are precise, given directly after decent work performance, if the receiver appreciates them, and if they are reasonable (Goldsmith, 2005:90). Extrinsic rewards relate to external environmental factors such as money, promotions, and other forms of reward (Goldsmith, 2005:89; Shanks, 2006:24). Hence, there is a multitude of external rewards which might serve as incentives to increase efficiency; earning a wage is at the top of the list (Shanks, 2006:30). Financial and non-financial incentives associated with salary, occupation-life stability and vocation development correspond with each other (Dwivedula et al., 2007:24). Financial rewards may thus constitute a strong external motivational factor and has to be used wisely.

Money motivates people. Rewards motivate only up to a point when it is not sufficiently superior, otherwise it becomes a de-motivator. However, if the reward is too superior it also
seems to be a de-motivator, because when money is expected, it is no longer a motivator (Shanks, 2006:32). Dwivedula et al. (2006:8) assert financial rewards are a leading aspect, which encourages people to be loyal to their occupation. Furthermore, it is important to motivate team performance with monetary and non-monetary rewards (Dwivedula et al., 2007:9). In contradiction to the aforesaid, compensation and benefits are rated by employees as the least important of ten motivating factors that keep them loyal to their companies (Shanks, 2006:32). Hertzberg’s two-factor theory also classified aspects such as wages, benefits, job security and working conditions as non-contributing factors of motivation (Van Wyk, 2011:27). Furthermore participants in a study carried out by Deci (as mentioned by Jansson-Boyd; 2010:118) who were not paid to perform a specific task spent more time on it than those participants who were paid. Jansson-Boyd (2010:118) also stated that people who maintain their behaviours are motivated intrinsically and those who tend not to maintain their behaviours for as long a period, are motivated extrinsically through financial rewards.

Monetary incentives, given according to one’s performance, provide even-handed rewards to people who work harder than those who do not because they enhance the self-efficacy of the workers. Consequently, this leads to extrinsic motivation of team members and improves team performance (Dwivedula et al., 2007:16, 21; Jansson-Boyd, 2010:118). The key problem of individuals, which emerged in the study of Dwivedula et al., (2006:6) about motivation, stemmed from goal clarity, nature of work, and financial and non-financial rewards. Goldsmith (2005:90) also explained that individuals should receive awards suitable to their uniqueness because individuals vary in their responses to extrinsic rewards (Dwivedula, et al., 2006:4). Thus, if a general reward such as financial reward is given, it must be kept in mind that the person’s reaction will not be the same as desired, unless it is applied according to the individual’s performance. Although Jordaan and Jordaan (2000:582) affirmed that, the need for self-actualisation is equivalent to the optimal functioning of all people, no matter what their individual potential are. Therefore, it will be wise to link or relate a reward to the need for self-actualisation, as Maslow believed that this need is what links all the other needs together (Jordaan & Jordaan, 2000:582).

2.6.2 Incentives

Incentives are psychologically arousing stable characteristics of the environment or person-environment interactions, which draw people to them (positive incentives), or push them away from them (negative incentives) and which does not connect to time or place (McClelland, 1985:181). Thus, incentives exert an influence on the arousal of motivation,
which then causes tension. Incentives according to the Oxford advanced learner's dictionary (2005:752) are those things that persuade one to do something. Incentives vary from money to work autonomy and are also tangible (rewards in some form of public attention) or intangible (intrinsic by nature such as feeling good about oneself) (Al Jishi, 2009:25; Jansson-Boyd, 2010:123).

Dwivedula et al. (2006:8) stated three aspects that encourage motivation: nature of work, incentives, and communication. Similar aspects may not motivate individuals, but rather unique aspects such as family, school, hobbies, or other interests (Shanks, 2006:25). There are many types of incentives and it is difficult to disagree that people do want to be rewarded in an appealing manner (Al Jishi, 2009:25; Launchfire, 2008:2). Van Wyk (2011:53) listed 13 main factors from the nine theories that had an impact on employee motivation; first on the list is leadership and second, rewards. Seven out of the nine theories mentioned rewards as being a motivational factor.

Al Jishi (2009:25) affirmed that improvement of recruitment, retention, motivation and performance, are attained through a monetary incentive approach, which is most often used. Conversely, McClelland (1985:182) stated that money as an incentive is misleadingly tangible. Furthermore, salary is said to be a hygiene factor and not a motivator although literature stated that hygiene factors cannot motivate people, but if salaries are not adequately provided, it might lead to frustration (Van Wyk 2011:110). Thus, Launchfire (2008:3) maintains that cash is an exception when it comes to incentives since 72% of respondents chose cash as their preferred incentive. Launchfire (2008:2) also describes six approaches to motivate people, and the first approach is: "Use play and win to strengthen call to action". Thus, it can be stated that money is by far the best incentive as this professional company (who researched the best ways to motivate consumers) uses cash incentives to draw people and that cash as an incentive always works. Therefore, financial and non-financial incentives are also important to foster motivation and team performance. Financial incentives comprise direct or indirect compensation such as salary, bonuses, insurance, merit pay, grants, loans and education reimbursement (Al Jishi, 2009:25).

An incentive is not a system with a windfall strategy, but rather a process where behaviour is strengthened to attain goals and assemble standards (Al Jishi, 2009:25). The level of motivation and compliance to act might be increased by incentives, but it remains the employee's decision whether to take action or not (Shanks, 2006:25). Therefore, supervisors should not force a person to act, but rather provide various types of incentives in an effort to influence workers (Shanks, 2006:24). Thus, it is vital for an IGP to have a respectable
communication structure (Dwivedula et al., 2007:9). Furthermore the roles of both supervisors and participants within an IGP need to be understood to ensure that incentives as part of the motivational process are effective.

2.6.3 Personal motivational factors: Intrinsic motivation

Intrinsic motivation occurs when people operate according to intrinsically motivated behaviours because they want to, not for the reason that they expect incentives or attempt to avoid penalties (Petri & Govern, 2004:359). Innovative reasons as well as the internal need for ability and independence are initiated by intrinsic motivation (Goldsmith 2005:89). Aroused motivation is a personal motivational aspect, which ascends inside the individual (McClelland, 1985:176). Therefore, intrinsic motivation has to do with the self.

For the purposes of this study, it is necessary to discuss intrinsic motivation briefly by means of the influence incentives have on intrinsic motivation, which affects behaviour (Petri & Govern, 2004:359). For example, when an individual enjoys reading, but receives payment to read, their desire to read might actually be undermined rather than enhanced. This occurs because individuals might choose their behaviours according to reward possibilities such as money, rather than their preferences (Jansson-Boyd, 2010:118; Petri and Govern, 2004:359). Consequently, it does not satisfy the real need within the individual which is the need for independence (Maslow's fifth level of self-actualisation) and not the need for money (Petri & Govern, 2004:359; Van Wyk, 2011:17). Most individuals assume that people in general are driven more by extrinsic incentives than intrinsic motivation, but this assumption has been proven to be false (Shanks, 2006:32).

Harry Harlow conducted an experiment in 1972, which revealed that by performing a task out of the satisfaction and enjoyment of it is what caused the task to be completed successfully. Thus, he said that the performance of the task is an intrinsic reward when enjoyed; therefore, enjoyment of the task becomes its own incentive (Pink, 2010:4).

It was mentioned earlier that people who maintain their behaviours are motivated intrinsically and those who tend not to maintain their behaviours for such a long time are motivated extrinsically through financial rewards (Jansson-Boyd, 2010:118). Nonetheless, payment might lure people to the task, but it seems to be unknown if payment would maintain sustainability. McClelland (1985:227) stated that when the need for food arises, hunger should be the drive that leads to better performance, not the presence of food incentives. Hence, intrinsic motivation might be the key for sustainability rather than extrinsic motivation.
for example monetary reward. Thus, it would be wise for the focus to be directed on intrinsic motivational factors together with monetary rewards for workers in order to motivate them accordingly to ensure sustainability.

2.6.4 Unfulfilled needs

Each human being has various needs at some point in their daily lives (George, 2010:128). A number of needs are elementary to sustaining life and can be classified into biological needs, which are inborn, and social needs, which are acquired (George, 2010:160; McClelland, 1985:177; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:106). Biological needs consist of needs for air, water, food, shelter, clothing, and sex; these are vital needs as they are crucial to life while the acquired needs are learned through life experiences (George, 2010:160; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:106). These acquired or secondary needs exert a very powerful influence on people and result from the individual's subjective physiological state and from their relationships with others (George, 2010:161; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:106). A need becomes a motive when it is aroused to a sufficient level of intensity to cause a person to act (George, 2010:128).

Schiffman and Kanuk (2010:106) clarify that the heart of human motivation originates with unconscious needs or drives, especially biological and sexual drives. Moreover, unfulfilled needs cause tension, which is the powerful vigour within individuals which lead them to act; this is referred to as motivation within individuals (George, 2010:158). Attempts have been made to capture the core of human motivation throughout the years by establishing various theories of motivation (Van Wyk, 2011:16). Each theory classifies those aspects that they reason are essential in clarifying how individuals are motivated (Van Wyk, 2011:16). However, the greatest theories of motivation include Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Alderfer's theory of motivation, Hertzberg's two-factor theory and McClelland's learned needs theory (Van Wyk, 2011:16). There are nine theories about motivation but for the purpose of this study, the foremost-acknowledged theory, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, is discussed (Al Jishi, 2009:8; Franken, 2002:15; George, 2010:128; McClelland, 1985:175; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:115; Van Wyk, 2011:17).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs progresses from the lowest, subsistence-level needs to the highest level of self-awareness and actualisation (Al Jishi, 2009:8; George, 2010:128; Van Wyk, 2011:17). Maslow believed that within every individual there exists a hierarchy of five levels of needs and that each level of need must be satisfied before an individual pursues the next higher level of needs (Al Jishi, 2009:8; George, 2010:128; Van Wyk, 2011:17).
These five levels of needs, according to Maslow, are physiological needs (essential to sustain life), safety needs, social needs (social interaction with others), esteem needs (respect and achievement) and self-actualisation needs (truth and wisdom) (Al Jishi, 2009:8; George, 2010:128; Shanks, 2006:26; Van Wyk, 2011:17).

![Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Diagram](image)

**Figure 4: Maslow's hierarchy of needs: adapted from Schiffman and Kanuk (2010)**

According to Maslow, physiological needs are primary when they are constantly unfulfilled. Therefore, if the physiological needs, that is, food, water, air and sleep are not first met, then all the other needs will not be experienced nor constitute a source of motivation (Al Jishi, 2009:8; George, 2010:161; Jordaan & Jordaan, 2000:581; Van Wyk, 2011:17). People will be concerned about safety needs only when their physiological needs have been met (Franken, 2002:15; Jansson-Boyd, 2010:119). Safety needs are satisfied after physiological needs. These safety needs are concerned with not only physical safety but also include, schedule, stability, order, control and familiarity with one's life and environment (George, 2010:161; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:117). Social needs include affection, acceptance, love and belonging. People seek affectionate relationships with one another and are motivated by belongingness and love for their relatives (Jansson-Boyd, 2010:119; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:118). Needs for affiliation are applicable to products and services that are consumed in
groups with minimum isolation, such as team sports, bars, and shopping malls (George, 2010:160).

Egoistic needs appear after social needs are relatively fulfilled and can obtain an inward or outward point of reference, or both (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:118). Inwardly aimed, ego needs imitate an individual’s need for respect of others, self-acceptance, self-esteem, achievement, self-determination, and satisfaction with good work performance (Jansson-Boyd, 2010:120; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:118; Van Wyk, 2011:20). Outwardly directed ego needs have to do with material possessions and consist of the needs for prestige, status, and acknowledgment from others (Jansson-Boyd, 2010:120; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:118). Maslow believed that it is rare for some people to manage to progress towards the fifth level of self-actualisation, as ego needs are seldom completely satisfied (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:118; Wright, 2006:209). This need refers to an individual’s aspiration to fulfil their own potential (Jansson-Boyd, 2010:120). Various people also express this need in diverse customs (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:118).

Motives or needs can have a positive or negative direction (Wright, 2006:211). People may feel a driving force (needs, wants or desires) which draws them to objects or situations; or people may experience a driving force pushing them away (fears, or aversions) from certain aspects (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:107). Maslow’s theory declares that frustration (unfulfilled needs) motivates behaviour rather than satisfaction (fulfilled needs) (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:119). This frustration may constitute drives such as primary-thrust, hunger; or secondary drives, desire for money, pride, etcetera (George, 2010:113).

Furthermore, people who live in a compound and extremely diverse environments experience several opportunities for need arousal, but if their environment is deprived, fewer needs are stimulated (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2009:94). This explains why the lives of people in underdeveloped countries are affected diversely through the television, as it exposes them to different lifestyles and luxurious products that they would not otherwise notice. It also stimulates needs and desires, for which they do not have access to the means to fulfil them. Thus, it creates frustration among these people with less money or education and may result in behaviour of defence mechanisms such as robbery or rebellion (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2009:94).
2.6.5 Aroused motivation

Aroused motivation occurs when behaviour emerges in order to satisfy the motive disposition caused by demands together with incentives, which is relevant to the motive (McClelland, 1985:185). The vigour that compels behaviour also relates to the arousal of motivation (Van Wyk, 2011:14). George (2010:158) and Schiffman and Kanuk (2010:114) stated that motive arousal is what really invigorates behaviour and needs arise at any instance when they are stimulated by an individual’s physiological state, emotions, thoughts, situations, or outside environment. The majority of an individual’s particular needs is latent and remains hidden for extensive periods (George, 2010:158; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:114).

There are four types of aroused motivation, for example, physiological, emotional, cognitive, and situational arousal (George, 2010:159; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:114). Physiological arousal occurs when deprivation of any bodily need such as food, water and other life sustaining necessities activates the need for it, for example stomach cramps activate the need for food (George, 2010:159; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:114). Most of the physiological cues are unintentional and often arouse some related needs. For example, a person may prepare food, but realise that there is no salt and will then make a note to purchase or borrow salt. Sigmund Freud assumed that the psychological forces that shape the behaviour of people are largely unconscious, and that a person cannot fully understand his or her own motivation (George, 2010:159). Emotional arousal occurs when one’s daydream results in the stimulation of latent needs and cognitive arousal occurs when thoughts lead to a cognitive alertness of needs (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:114). Situational arousal occurs when a specific circumstance triggers arousal as the situation draws awareness to an existing physical state; for example, seeing an advertisement of Coca Cola®™ unexpectedly makes one conscious of being thirsty (George, 2010:159).

2.6.6 Goals

Goals are the results that are desired through motivated behaviour and therefore all behaviour is focused on goals (McClelland, 1985:191; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:107). Individuals are the source of their individual values and position goals in order to choose resources or actions that they consider will assist them in attaining their desired goals (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:108; Van Wyk, 2011:14).
Various barriers such as personal (depression), physical (broken leg) or social environment (heavy rain) may prevent attainment of a goal, which causes frustration (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:114). When goals are not achieved, frustration occurs which then once more leads to unfulfilled needs. Therefore goals together with needs are mutually supporting, neither exist in the absence of the other, because specific goals are intentionally chosen in order to fulfil numerous needs (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:108,113).

Goals are similar to needs in the manner of being negative or positive. When behaviour is directed towards a goal, it is a positive goal (approach object) and when behaviour is directed away from the goal it is a negative goal (avoidance object) (McClelland, 1985:176; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:108). Most researchers refer to approach and avoidance goals as pure goals, because both are the result of motivated behaviour (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:108). McClelland (1985:227) stated that setting goals with the purpose of the highest actualisation needs contributes to motivation, rather than a lure payment (Van Wyk, 2011:27).

2.6.7 Action/Behaviour

Action or behaviour takes place when an individual avoids the fundamentals of conscious thought while responding to a stimulus (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:114). Behaviour will take place when sufficient motivation is present; also, behaviour will not take place if motivation is absent (Petri & Govern, 2004:17). One of the assumptions which motivation theorists begin with is that there is a reason for specific behaviours and their goals are to identify these reasons in order to discern what causes behaviour (Franken, 2002:3). Furthermore, it was discovered by the majority of theorists that human behaviour can be clarified on the fundamentals of learning standards (Franken, 2002:3).

To establish and direct behaviour, a concept named motivation is used to portray forces, which act on or inside individuals. The comprehension and prediction of behaviour has been improved by this concept of motivation (Petri & Govern, 2004:16). Individuals behave in a suitable manner, which they believe will reduce tension to satisfy their needs. The selection of repeated behaviour and elected goals depends greatly on individual thinking and learning (George, 2010:158). Schiffman and Kanuk (2010:114) also agree by stating that experiences concerning specific needs are reasoned and altered into attitudes and perspectives which influence actions or behaviour to satisfy these specific needs. An individual is likely to choose a suitable behaviour that will fulfil more than one need (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:113).
Action takes place when a need is aroused to a sufficient level of intensity, which becomes too high to ignore (George, 2010:128). It is thus difficult to find a reason for motives apart from behaviour as individuals with the same needs may choose different goals and individuals with different needs may choose the same goal (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:114).

According to Franken (2002:3), a distinction can be drawn between two types of causes of behaviours namely approach and avoidant. During approach behaviour, individuals tend to do things because they are longing for something (go to the store and buy food to ease hunger pains). During avoidant behaviour, people do things to avoid something (do not eat certain foods for the fear of getting sick) (Franken, 2002:3).

Ideology is one of the many aspects that influence behaviour. Ideology, according to the Oxford advanced learner’s dictionary (2005:740), is a set of beliefs, especially one held by a particular group that influences the way people behave. Thus, the beliefs within a community will exert an influence on an individual’s behaviour. Behaviour or action is also determined by habits or skills and expectations or values (McClelland, 1985:338). Furthermore, opportunities within the environment also influence behaviour (McClelland, 1985:506). Opportunities such as IGPs may exert an influence on approach or avoidance behaviour.

2.6.8 Feedback/Results

As mentioned earlier, motivation is a process rather than an end state. This becomes clear when it is realised that needs and goals change and grow, for example, individuals develop new goals when the current goals are completed. If the new goals cannot be attained, then endeavours are continued in order to attain the old goals or alternate goals are raised. Some reasons why goals or needs are not met or satisfied is that various needs are never fully satisfied; needs persistently demand continuous satisfaction; new and higher-order needs emerge when basic needs are satisfied; and when goals are met new and higher goals are set (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:111). When individuals reach the feedback stage of the motivational process, they evaluate whether the need was successfully satisfied.

2.6.9 Conclusion

Pink (2010:205) illustrated that reward systems do work, but it also found that extrinsic rewards do not last long and can also defeat creativity in the work place. Hence, Pink (2010:205) suggested that behaviour which focuses on the external rewards that an activity brings, must transform into behaviour which focuses on the inherent satisfaction of the
activity itself. Individuals are not only born with this behaviour that focuses on the inherent satisfaction but can also be learned, which improves life quality (Pink, 2010:207).

Researchers over time have relied on a combination of various research techniques in identifying the power and occurrence of various motives, because motives are theoretical constructs which cannot be tangibly observed (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010:111). Therefore, there is no particular process that can be regarded as a trustworthy directory.

Among the 13 key factors listed in Van Wyk’s (2011:53) study, which influence motivation, leadership is the top factor that was mentioned and supported by all the nine theories of motivation. Therefore a trustworthy and respectful leader who leads by example, is needed to motivate people. The second factor on the said listed is monetary rewards (Van Wyk, 2011:53). Hence, a reward system, according to the literature, is important as Al Jishi (2009:25) also states that sufficient and reasonable rewards are essential to guarantee motivated and skilled workers (Al Jishi, 2009:25). Opportunities such as professional development and career improvement will ensure that individuals gain new skills (Al Jishi, 2009:25). This may also positively influence the behaviour of individuals within an IGP. The knowledge attained throughout this literature study must now be integrated with the findings of the data in order to identify the income-generating woman’s motivational factors and a socio-demographic profile of the workers who regularly participate in the IGP needs to be compiled.

2.7 Summary

The link between poverty, sustainable livelihoods, culture, IGPs and motivation can now be drawn. As poverty is a conceptual issue in South Africa, there are many programmes and approaches which attempt to fight poverty. Two of the various approaches are sustainable livelihoods and IGPs, which are discussed in this chapter. According to the literature, poverty is found mostly among rural black people in the NWP. The majority of these people stem from the Tswana culture; hence, the Tswana culture was discussed in greater detail in an effort to explore how their culture also influences their daily choices and behaviour. It was found that in the Tswana culture they strive for their connection with the “Medimo” (ancestors), who seemingly help them to live a better life. They also easily accept Christianity beliefs, but do not halt ancestral rituals. The women’s outlook towards marriage has also changed over the years, which has encouraged them to rather live together as a substitute for marriage.
These people do not possess many resources or assets to contribute towards making IGPs successful, but what they do have is human capital such as the ability to provide labour and skills, which form part of the sustainable livelihoods approach. Motivation constitutes part of the individual's desire for knowledge and skills. Motivation is described as the process which leads people to behave the way they do. Thus, this literature review focused mainly on aspects related to the motivation of women to participate in IGPs in order to explore why they participate in IGPs regularly or irregularly in order to define ways to improve their contribution to successful sustainable IGPs.