

**MOTIVATION IN SHARING ECONOMY-BASED SERVICE TRIADS: CASE OF  
UBER OPERATIONS IN NAIROBI, KENYA**

**BY**

**HELLEN I. MUTOGO**

**A RESEARCH PROJECT SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS IN  
PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF  
MASTER OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION,  
THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI.**

**NOVEMBER 2021**

## DECLARATION

I declare that this is my original work and has not been presented to any institution for the award of any degree.

**Hellen I. Mutogoh**

**D61/20323/2019**

Signature  Date 16/11/2021.

This proposal has been submitted with approval from:

**Dr. Wainaina Githii**

Lecturer, Department of Management Science


The University of Nairobi.

Signature  Date 17-11-2021

**Michael Chirchir**

Lecturer, Department of Management Science

The University of Nairobi.

Signature  Date 18/11/2021.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

To my supervisor, Dr. Wainaina Githii for putting a lot of time, thought and effort on this study and challenging me to dig deeper.

To my current employer, Project Concern International (PCI) for providing the much-needed time and conducive environment to undertake this study.

Finally, to my family for always being there.

## **DEDICATION**

To my mentor, Brenda Wandera Gache, for always pushing me to be the best that I can be.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>DECLARATION.....</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....</b>	<b>iii</b>
<b>DEDICATION.....</b>	<b>iv</b>
<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS .....</b>	<b>v</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES .....</b>	<b>viii</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES .....</b>	<b>ix</b>
<b>ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS.....</b>	<b>x</b>
<b>ABSTRACT.....</b>	<b>xi</b>
<b>CHAPTER ONE .....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1    Background of the Study.....	1
1.1.1 Motivation .....	2
1.1.2 Motivation in Modern Operations .....	3
1.1.3 Sharing Economy-Based Service Triads .....	6
1.1.4 Uber Technologies Inc.....	7
1.2    Research Problem.....	9
1.3    Research Objective.....	10
1.4    Value of the Study.....	10
<b>CHAPTER TWO .....</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>LITERATURE REVIEW .....</b>	<b>12</b>
2.1    Introduction .....	12
2.2    Theoretical Review .....	12
2.2.1 The Unified Service Theory .....	12
2.2.2 Herzberg’s Two-factor Theory .....	13
2.3    Motivation Factors in SESTs .....	14
2.4    Motivation from the Organizational Side of the Triad.....	14
2.4.1 The Remuneration and Reward System .....	14

2.4.2 Training and Development Opportunities .....	15
2.4.3 The Working Environment.....	16
2.5 Motivation from the Customer Side of the Triad.....	17
2.5.1 The Feedback System.....	17
2.5.2 Fair Treatment .....	18
2.5.3 Trust.....	19
2.6 Empirical Review .....	20
2.7 Summary of the Literature Review .....	24
2.8 The Conceptual Framework .....	28
<b>CHAPTER THREE .....</b>	<b>29</b>
<b>RESEARCH METHODOLOGY .....</b>	<b>29</b>
3.1 Introduction .....	29
3.2 Research Design.....	29
3.3 The Population and Sample Size.....	29
3.4 Sampling Technique.....	29
3.5 Data Collection.....	30
3.6 Data Analysis .....	31
<b>CHAPTER FOUR.....</b>	<b>32</b>
<b>DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION .....</b>	<b>32</b>
4.1 Introduction .....	32
4.2 Demographic Information.....	32
4.2.1 Age, Gender and Education.....	32
4.2.2 Years Worked for Uber and Average Hours Worked per Day.....	33
4.2.3 Type of vehicle .....	33
4.2.4 Income Sources and the Main Household Income Earner .....	34
4.2.5 Rating.....	34

4.3 Distribution of the Responses .....	35
4.3.1 The Remuneration and Reward System .....	35
4.3.2 The Training and Development Opportunities .....	36
4.3.3 The Working Environment.....	37
4.3.4 The Feedback System.....	38
4.3.5 Fair Treatment .....	39
4.3.6 Trust.....	40
4.4 Correlation Between the Dependent and the Independent variables.....	41
4.4.1 Motivation and the Remuneration and Reward System .....	41
4.4.2 Motivation and the Training and Development Opportunities.....	42
4.4.3 Motivation and the Working Environment.....	43
4.4.4 Motivation and the Feedback System.....	43
4.4.5 Motivation and Fair Treatment.....	44
4.8.2 Motivation and Trust .....	45
4.5 Discussion .....	46
<b>CHAPTER FIVE .....</b>	<b>49</b>
<b>SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....</b>	<b>49</b>
5.1 Introduction .....	49
5.2 Summary .....	49
5.3 Conclusion.....	49
5.4 Recommendations .....	50
5.5 Limitations of the study.....	51
5.6 Suggestions for Further Research .....	51
<b>REFERENCES.....</b>	<b>52</b>
<b>QUESTIONNAIRE.....</b>	<b>66</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Summary of the Literature Review.....	25
Table 3.1: The Sample Distribution.....	30
Table 4.1: Education Level.....	33
Table 4.2: Type of Vehicle .....	34
Table 4.3: Income Services.....	34
Table 4.4: Drivers' Rating .....	35
Table 4.5: Correlation Between the Demographic Variables .....	35
Table 4.6: Correlation Between Motivation and the Reward and Remuneration System	42
Table 4.7: Correlation Between Motivation and Training and Development Opportunities .....	42
Table 4.8: Correlation Between Motivation and the Working Environment.....	43
Table 4.9: Correlation Between Motivation and Fair Treatment.....	45
Table 4.10: Correlation Between Motivation and Trust .....	46



## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: The Conceptual Framework .....	28
Figure 4.1: Age .....	33
Figure 4.2: Average Hours Worked per Day .....	33
Figure 4.3: Years Worked for Uber .....	33
Figure 4.4: Distribution of Responses for the Remuneration and Reward System .....	36
Figure 4.5: Distribution of Responses for the Training and Development Opportunities	37
Figure 4.6: Distribution of Responses on the Working Environment .....	38
Figure 4.7: Distribution of Responses on the Feedback System .....	39
Figure 4.8: Distribution of Responses on Fair Treatment.....	40
Figure 4.9: Distribution of Responses on Trust .....	41

## **ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

<b>BOM</b>	Behavioral Operations Management
<b>CC</b>	Collaborative Consumption
<b>OM</b>	Operations Management
<b>P2P</b>	Peer to Peer
<b>PWC</b>	PricewaterhouseCoopers
<b>SE</b>	Sharing Economy
<b>SEST</b>	Sharing Economy-based Service Triad
<b>SOM</b>	Service Operations Management
<b>Uber</b>	Uber Technologies Inc
<b>UST</b>	Unified Service Theory
<b>WIBA</b>	Work Injury Benefits Act

## **ABSTRACT**

With the continuous rise of the sharing economy and its sub-components such as the ‘gig’ economy and Sharing Economy-based Service Triads, offering indirect services to the customers through a third party has become the norm for many operations. This has some implications, both on the general service provision and key operational aspects such as how to motivate the service suppliers and who is responsible for that. This study sought to understand the motivation of the service suppliers from a triadic perspective of employer-service supplier-customer rather than the traditional employer-employee perspective. A cross-sectional descriptive design was used, and data was collected using self-administered online questionnaires on the Open Data Kit platform. 50 Uber drivers in Nairobi were interviewed where a response rate of 100% was achieved. Measures of central tendency and dispersion were used to analyze the demographic data while the correlation between motivation and organizational as well as customer related factors was determined using both logistic and linear regressions.

The findings showed that Uber has done relatively well in motivating its drivers from the organizational perspective. The drivers were generally contented with the remuneration and reward system as well as the training and development opportunities. The drivers’ working environment though was found to be both physically and mentally straining, but they seemed not to mind it much probably because they self-determined how long and where to work. On the other hand, the findings showed that Uber has not focused as much on motivating its drivers from the customer-related side. Sexual harassment, verbal and physical abuse, discrimination, subjective feedback system, and lack of trust between the customers and drivers were reported. There was clear positive correlation between motivation and reward and remuneration system from the organizational side as well as feedback system and trust from the customer-related side. On the other hand, training and development opportunities, work environment, as well as fair treatment were found to not be significantly correlated to the drivers’ motivation.

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background of the Study

New trends in the economy have rendered business unusual in modern operations. Sharing economy (SE), for instance, has disrupted the definition of employees and re-structured supply chains all over the world. The duality of production, the triadic relationship structure and the gig economy factor in the sharing economy has revolutionized how the employees are treated, assigned tasks, and controlled by operations. It is becoming increasingly clear therefore, that new behavioral techniques such as re-defined motivation are required in managing these modern operations (Molobi et al, 2020; Čambalíková, 2021). Cognizant of the fact that their survival and sustainability hinges on a motivated human resource, operations have come to the realization that employees are their most crucial asset. The biggest challenge though is that motivation is a fluid concept, which evolves continuously subject to the trends in the economy. As such, operations often times grapple with keeping up with these new trends that require a total paradigm shift in how they handle their prized assets, the employees (Aleksić et al, 2019).

Uber, acclaimed as one of the most successful innovations under the sharing economy, is a good example of a modern operation that is struggling with employee motivation. Despite the initial exponential growth that catapulted the SE giant to its Initial Public Offer (IPO) in 2019, Uber's successes have on several occasions been marred by the drivers' disgruntlement. This is evidenced by the several court cases regarding the drivers' treatment, complains on physical wellness, concerns about the remuneration structure, the dissatisfaction with the feedback system amongst many other issues (CEOC, 2015). The challenge for Uber is that due to the triadic nature of its service provision model, some aspects of employee motivation, such as the feedback system, are to a large extent dependent on the customers (Uber, 2021). The question therefore arises, will Uber be more dexterous in handling its drivers if it perceives and models their motivation as a function of both the operation and customers? This study seeks to answer this question by trying to understand the motivation of employees or service providers in a Sharing Economy-based Service Triad (SEST) such as Uber.

The study is anchored in two main theories: Herzberg's two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1959) and the Unified Service Theory (UST) (Sampson, 2001). Herzberg's two factor theory explains both the intrinsic and extrinsic factors which influence employees' motivation in any workplace. The Unified Service Theory explains the co-production that is present -and the role played by each player- in a triadic structure. Combined, the two theories provided a basis for figuring out which factors would most likely affect the employees' motivation in SESTs from both the operation and customers.

### **1.1.1 Motivation**

Motivation is the process that drives an individual's intensity, direction, and persistence towards attaining a particular objective (Odendaal & Roodt, 2003). For operations, this entails rallying employees' focus, passion, and involvement towards achieving operational objectives. The motivation process consists of three steps that are related to behavior: first, stimulating the energy that drives individual's behavior, then directing the individuals to choose the desired behavior and finally sustaining the individual's behavior until the objective has been attained (Govender & Parumasur, 2010).

Motivating employees is critical for the optimal performance and goals attainment of any operation. Employees who are highly motivated invest their best time and energy into their work, they trust their supervisors and management, and can be relied on to make the best decisions as representatives of the organization, which contributes to the overall productivity and growth of the operation (Chaudhary & Sharma, 2012).

Motivation is one of the concepts that is used to explain individual's decision-making process. Motivation and stress are especially important because they form the foundation for the other concepts in Behavioural Operations Management (BOM), that is, they influence the perceptions and mental models of individuals which then influence individual biases which finally help to form the heuristics of an individual, whether a service receiver or a service supplier. The collective behaviours of individuals over time form the societal norms (Eckerd & Bendoly, 2015).

The concept of motivation has greatly evolved over the years. During the Scientific Management era, extrinsic reinforcement was considered ideal. Positive reinforcements

such as monetary considerations and rewards were used to push productivity and negative reinforcement were used to punish non-performers. This view changed during the Human Relations Movement, spearheaded by Hawthorne, where social relations were considered important motivating factors for employees. During this movement, factors such as the work environment, the relationship with managers and other employees, and the alignment of personal and team goals were considered ideal. The Human Resources Movement then followed which postulated that the employees were already pre-motivated and it was upon the organization to provide conditions where they would meet both individual and organizational goals (Elding, 2005).

Like many other important aspects of human behaviour, the motivation concept was oversimplified in traditional OM models, which regarded them in an almost linear perspective but modern operations management concepts such as BOM attempt to incorporate psychological considerations such as cognitive psychology, social psychology and organizational behaviour in understanding what drives the employees and their decision-making process (Loch, 2007; Gino & Pisano, 2008).

Modern behavioral researchers such as Hellriegel et al (1998) and Vecchio (2000) have gone a step further to examine the interplay between motivation and stress resulting in the behavioral hill or inverted U theory. Motivators have a range of multiple effects on people, which can be termed as 'bipolar' such that when one increases the other decreases and performance increases if and only if the positive effects outweigh the negative. At some point though, at the peak, additional motivation acts as a demotivator and performance starts to decline. According to Williams (2010), a sport behaviorist, behavior can be incited and directed towards a balanced or optimal state. In the instance where the incitement is either too low or too high, motivation and therefore performance declines (Eckerd & Bendoly, 2015).

### **1.1.2 Motivation in Modern Operations**

Until recently, operational management literature may have not given weight to the effect of human behavior (Loch & Wu, 2007; Bendoly et al, 2015) and considered it secondary to operations systems and processes. People were involved in the management and day to day running of the operating systems but were assumed to be fully rational and their

functions considered to be merely an optimization of the economic value measures for the organizations (Giannoccaro, 2013).

Traditional Operations Management (OM) focused on facilitating tools and techniques that would help decision makers with tactical operational decisions, but it neglected the behavioural results that come with the decision biases determined by individual and group levels of motivation (Nagarajan and Sošić, 2008). It is increasingly becoming evident though that despite having the tools and techniques availed to them, decision makers usually pursue the most satisfactory results according to individual and societal preferences. That is why modern scholars introduced the modern concept of Behavioural Operations Management (BOM), including motivation, as an amendment to traditional OM to optimize research and make operations management practices much better (Croson et al, 2013; Thaler, 2016).

Loch and Wu (2007) observed that people have a significant effect on how operating systems work, and therefore for the transformation process to be fully optimized, human behavior, especially motivation, should be considered in operations management. Indeed, it was discovered that the success of operations management theories and the implementation of management tools and techniques for any operation process relies on the understanding of human behavior and what aspects stimulate certain behaviors.

The research on contemporary behavioral concepts such as motivation has further been necessitated by today's operations understanding of the need for customer focus, for both internal customers - the employees, and external customers - the buyers of goods and services. Customer focus entails motivating the employees and buyers to increase their productivity and choose the operation's goods or services over their competitors. In a bid to become more competitive and ensure long-term sustainability, operations are continually having to listen to the customer's voice, that is, their expectations, ideas, criticism – whether positive or negative. The customer's voice is a key element during the design, production and delivery of both goods and services for any modern organization; the aim is to minimize the gap between customers' expectations, usually shaped by societal inclinations, and what the organization delivers (Sharabi, 2015).

This is especially true for the new economies with new trends in operations such as sharing economy (SE), which entails a paradigm shift in the service operations model and supply chain management. Unlike the traditional operations where the employees - including management – were separated from the customers, that is, they produced while the customers consumed; the sharing economy model allows the customers access to the production process right from inception to distribution, making them co-producers. This results to a phenomenon known as *duality of co-production* where the customers are both the service providers and service receivers (Field et al, 2018). The model is also slightly different for Sharing Economy Service Triads (SESTs) where the operation minimizes or cuts all interactions with the customer and uses an intermediary, the service supplier, to engage and provide goods or services to the customers (Li & Choi, 2009).

This poses a couple of challenges for contemporary operations in SEs and SESTs. First, they are not able to apply the time-tested traditional operational strategies for controlling demand and supply because both come from the same pool. Secondly, they rely on service suppliers (who can also be viewed as their customers/employees) to provide services to other customers. SEs and SESTs are not directly involved in the hiring, training, developing, appraising, rewarding and other management aspects of a bigger percent of their ‘employees’. The operations, therefore, must work with a continuously varying pool of people who are not only looking for financial benefits but also emotional and psychological stimulation (Field et al, 2018).

Lee et al (2015) theorized that the modern operations in SEs and SESTs should employ motivational mechanisms that create sufficient intrinsic and extrinsic value of the services for the people involved. Motivation is a very crucial concept in the SEs and SESTs where the service suppliers, the equivalent of traditional employees, are the ultimate customers because they are both the producers and receivers of the goods and services; this coupled with the availability of rapidly changing and continuously flowing information where customers’ attitudes, preferences and expectations shift from time to time – necessitates the need to frequently study and update the motivation techniques applied by operations.



### **1.1.3 Sharing Economy-Based Service Triads**

The sharing economy (SE) is an innovative economic model with peer to peer (P2P) activities such as sourcing, providing, and sharing access to goods and services which is done on an online platform. The rise of SE has been catapulted by several factors including: technological advancement, changing attitudes especially by millennials towards ownership of assets, need for social connection, pursuits to optimize value across the supply chain etcetera (Mingming, 2007).

Sharing economy is often interchangeably referred using adjacent notions such as collaborative consumption (CC), gig economy, on-demand economy, peer-to-peer based sharing, renting economy, and connected consumption. These notions are not necessarily similar in the elements of the economy that they concern but they overlap in terms of modelling and execution. The term ‘Sharing Economy’ is often used to refer to all the above notions as they are, in one way or another (Nábrádi & Kovács, 2020).

The sharing industry has grown tremendously in the past 10 years especially in the sectors of transport and accommodation represented by Uber and Airbnb respectively. A 2014 PWC press release estimated the total industry’s revenues to be about USD 15 billion in 2013 with an expected exponential growth in revenues to USD 335 billion by 2025. The leading firms, Uber and Airbnb were each valued at USD 62.5 billion and USD 25.5 billion in 2015 respectively.

Despite the huge successes, this industry has been prone to multiple challenges ranging from safety concerns, online fraud, riots and protests by the ‘employees’, loss of goodwill, disgruntlement by the displaced traditional players, competition, regulation concerns by the government, amongst many other issues (Federal Trade Commission, 2016). Uber, being the largest player in the industry has been hardest hit by these challenges translating into a loss of USD 1 billion in the first quarter of 2019 and an additional USD 5 billion by mid-2019. Other unexpected challenges such as the COVID-19 pandemic has had a huge impact on the SE industry as well. For instance, a Nasdaq article in April 2020 stated that Uber had withdrawn its financial outlook, warning that due to the uncertainties brought about by the pandemic, its losses were likely to “widen by USD 1.9 billion to USD 2.2 billion due to impairment charges”.

Service triads, on the other hand are operations where service provision is outsourced such that the customers are directly served by the service company instead of the service producers (Li & Choi, 2009). Two types of service triads have been proposed: *tertius gaudens*, also referred to as the structural hole, whereby an intermediary brings together two actors who are disconnected while maintaining control over them as the broker (Burt, 1992); *tertius iungen*; closure triad, on the other hand, is whereby the intermediary brings directly together two disconnected actors completely such that the customers and service suppliers are able to directly connect and transact with each other with minimal interruption (Obstfeld, 2005; Pathak et al., 2014).

Unlike the original service triad concepts where the customers were directly served by the service providers, in SEST there are two levels; the service supplier or platform gives services to the customer directly, and the service platform simultaneously offers services to the service supplier and customer (Li et al, 2019). In this case, there is duality of co-production where the service supplier is both a customer and a producer of the services. A good example of SEST is Uber.

#### **1.1.4 Uber Technologies Inc**

Acclaimed as one of the most successful operations under SE and one of the most influential disruptive innovation, Uber is a publicly traded transport company which offers a variety of services such a ride hailing, P2P ride sharing, food delivery and basically other mobility options using motorbikes. It is headquartered in San Francisco, USA, but covers over 63 countries and 478 metropolitan areas worldwide.

The company was started in 2009 and had grown to attract over 110 million users in the world within just 10 years, its net worth rising to \$82 billion by 2019 (Uber, 2019). In its home country, the United States of America, Uber enjoys over 67% of the market share for ride sharing and 24% for food delivery. A huge part of its success can be attributed to its disruptive model where it connects passengers to the drivers on its platform, offering rides that are priced based on the dynamic pricing model where the cost of a ride is dependent on the supply and demand forces in play at that point in time. It has also been consistent in its innovation quest over the years by constantly increasing its portfolio geographically and product-wise. Services such as UberAir and Uber Eats are examples of this (Uber, 2019).

Being a pioneer in this field, it can be said that Uber has had clear advantages over its competitors but has had to also face and address many of these challenges, the biggest one being on the changing landscape and customers' needs over the years. Other followers cropping up in the market - such as Didi, Lyft, Curb, Grab, Ola Cabs as well as the local Bolt, Mondo Ride, ShareCAB, Little cabs amongst others - has forced Uber to continuously improve its own products and reputation to retain its market share (Min et al, 2006). For instance, in China, 'Didi' has more resources and is currently the largest ride-sharing group with Uber following at a distant second. Uber has had to apply aggressive strategies to retain and grow its market share to the point that it is making losses to a tune of \$1 billion a year (Financial Times, 2019).

Uber's biggest challenge has been the handling of their drivers. Uber drivers have criticized the compensation model which shortchanges them when discounts and subsidies are offered to the clients. They have also faulted their being categorized as independent contractors yet Uber's rules and 'involvement in every aspect of operations' qualifies them as 'employees' of the organization. Another complaint is that the incentives are manipulated so that the drivers must work longer hours to attain them. Additionally, the rating system is also subject to the consumer's moods and therefore sometimes inaccurate; finally, their security during rides is not guaranteed since the customers are not vetted and they have also been violent targets by traditional drivers who regard them as unfair competition (CEOC, 2015).

Other Uber challenges include safety concerns by passengers during rides. There have been incidences of sexual harassments, theft, allegations of mistreatment and lack of professionalism by the drivers, as well as having to pay for cancelled rides. Furthermore, Uber's reputation has been deteriorating in the last couple of years. This has been brought about by price fixing allegations coupled with other issues such as aggressive handling of competitors, tax evasion, as well as user privacy and data breaches. Finally, the company has had regulatory issues with different governments. This includes allegations of using offshore accounts to reduce its tax liability, evading operations on law enforcement, and lack of cooperation with regulatory authorities to develop laws that will optimally govern the industry (Federal Trade Commission, 2016).

As expected for any operation, these kinds of internal and external challenges are bound to have a demotivating effect on the ‘employees’ or service providers. There have been multiple protests by drivers, some of whom have filed legal cases against Uber, others have switched over to the competitors either fully or partially, and many of the new drivers leave the platform before completing the first 25 rides (Grothaus, 2017).

## **1.2 Research Problem**

The concept of motivation has continuously changed over the years to reflect the trends in workplaces. What has remained unchanged is that all theories of motivation attempted to address the three important variables of the work situation: the characteristics of the individual, the job, and the work environment (Steers, 1987). Over the years, several scholars have come up with different models for motivation, some integrative and others formulating separate constructs for each aspect of motivation. This mentality is supported by Loch (2007) who suggested that “we should not restrict Behavioral OM to one methodological approach, we should strive for both modeling (theory) and empirical methods (experimental and others)” (Loch, 2007, p. 8)

Loch’s view is important because with new innovations in operations management such as the sharing economy and service triads, the phenomena of duality of co-production has blurred the definition of an employee. Unlike in traditional OM where employees were direct service providers to the customers; in SESTs, the ‘employees’ are both customers of the platform and service suppliers to other customers of the company through the platform (Li et al, 2019).

For instance, Uber has not only revolutionized labor issues and how employees are viewed but has also brought about a new form of employment which has resulted in the intensification of work, de-skilling and re-skilling, the flexibility and new control of work (Gloss et al, 2016). This on-demand labor is more flexible but also more demanding on the drivers because in as much as they are working for Uber, they also work for the customer during the rides, and as such. As such, they need to build and maintain their digital reputation so that they can get better ratings and more rides in future (Gloss et al, 2016). This new triadic structure has also brought about challenges for the drivers or service suppliers such as demotivating compensation models, long working hours, subjective

ratings by customers, safety concerns, very high turnover rates, a lot of court cases amongst others. As such, it is clear that the traditional techniques for motivating and retaining this new breed of ‘employees’ might not be as effective using the motivation view adopted traditional operations (Field et al, 2018).

A lot of research has been done by authors such as Asim (2013), Lin (2007), Zeglat (2007), Van Wingerden and Van der Stoep (2018) on motivating of employees and its relation performance, commitment, knowledge sharing with others etcetera; but none has been done so far to understand motivation of this new breed of ‘employees’ in an operational triad. New trends emerging in workplaces such as ‘on-demand’ labour coupled with co-duality of production and tighter control by the operation’s ‘invisible hand’ necessitate research on motivation that will capture the factors that would speak to both sides of the service suppliers in a triadic relationship (Norlander et al. 2021). This study therefore seeks to answer the question: what motivates service suppliers in a Sharing Economy-Based Service Triad?

### **1.3 Research Objective**

The general objective of this study to understand the motivation of employees or service providers in a Sharing Economy-Based Service Triad, focusing specifically on Uber’s operation in Kenya. The specific objectives are:

- i. To establish the organizational factors that motivate service suppliers in a SEST.
- ii. To establish the customer-related factors that motivate service suppliers in a SEST.
- iii. To find out the relationship between motivation and each of the organizational as well as customer-related factors established above.

### **1.4 Value of the Study**

To the scholars, this study will provide a good background for academic research. It will contribute empirical literature to the BOM field which is still quite new and offer grounds for further research especially in motivating employees in disruptive industries. For Uber and its competitors, the study will provide actionable insights that can be used to address the present challenges that they are experiencing with their drivers as well as offer ideas in

anticipating and mitigating future issues especially relating to behavioral aspects of their operations.

To the Kenyan government, the study is an opportunity to appreciate the fact that the sharing economy has an evolving nature that requires a flexible regulatory approach to allow adaptation to new and potentially unforeseen disruptive innovations and situations. This study and subsequent ones should contribute to the revision of relevant laws such as Employment Act, Labor Relations Act, WIBA amongst others.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter provides a review of literature relevant to the study as presented by other scholars and researchers. It highlights the theories that provide the basis of the study and reviews the variables under consideration. The chapter also highlights empirical works on motivation especially for SEs and SESTs particularly looking at the findings, the recommendations, the gaps and how they were addressed. The conceptual framework and the summary of the literature review are also presented in the chapter.

#### **2.2 Theoretical Review**

The study will be guided by two main theories: The Unified Service Theory (Sampson, 2001) and Herzberg's two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1959). The Unified Service Theory is the main theory as it addresses duality of production in which is common and differentiates modern operations such as SEs and SESTs from traditional operations. Herzberg's two factor theory is also important since it highlights both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors which are crucial for any operation.

##### **2.2.1 The Unified Service Theory**

Conjectured by Sampson (2001), the Unified Service Theory (UST) states that customer input is not only necessary but also a sufficient contribution in defining and differentiating service production from non-service production processes. In service production, customers generally provide significant input into the production processes while in non-service productions, a group of customers contribute ideas to the design of the product, but the individual customer's role is merely reduced to selecting and consuming the output in question. UST highlights the co-production between the customers and the operation, emphasizes the customers' inputs during the production process and champions for some win-win strategic trade-offs for both parties. The theory unifies other models and theories pertaining to quality, strategy, capacity management, supply and demand management etcetera in service industries (Scotts & Craig, 2006; Sampson & Froehle, 2006).

The major foundation for UST is that customers are involved in the production processes as both suppliers of inputs such as ideas, assets, or information and as suppliers of labor. As such, the role of customers in service industries has been expanded to accommodate their dual functions, as service suppliers and service receivers resulting in a bidirectional service supply chain structure (Fitzsimmons & Fitzsimmons, 2006). To a large extent, issues of quality, capacity and demand management in service industries rely on the customer. These variables are often hard to manage because customers' inputs and expectations are usually subjective depending on their moods, training, experiences, communication skills, financial capability amongst others (Scotts & Craig, 2006). This therefore complicates how operations can motivate this group of service suppliers.

### **2.2.2 Herzberg's Two-factor Theory**

It was developed by Herzberg (1959) after conducting research to find out the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity. He postulated that there are two groups of factors which can either promote or hinder job satisfaction. First, there are motivator factors which are intrinsic to the job and if present, lead to job satisfaction. These are factors which are related to the job itself such as the content of the work, levels of responsibility, job advancement, achievements, recognition, and rewards etcetera. Secondly, there are hygiene factors which are extrinsic to the job, that is, they relate to the environment within which the job is performed. According to Herzberg (1959), if present, these factors are not necessarily a source of job satisfaction but if absent, they could lead to dissatisfaction. Examples include work relationships, remuneration, supervision styles, fringe benefits, physical working conditions, status within the organization and the organization's policies and administration.

Hygiene factors are basic requirements for employees to perform their jobs while motivator factors push the employees to perform better, achieve high targets and become committed to the organization. As such, the two factors are interdependent for optimal job satisfaction, motivation, and performance. In his thesis, Elding (2005) postulated that hygiene factors are similar to the physiological, safety and social needs in Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory while motivator factors are similar to the self-esteem and self-actualization needs.



As such, evaluating the intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics and to what extent they contribute towards the job satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the employees is very crucial for any organization, whether traditional or in the sharing economy.

### **2.3 Motivation Factors in SESTs**

Motivation in SESTs is different from traditional operations as they are to a large extent online or digital in nature. The digital connectivity in these operations has rendered normal office work interaction minimal or unnecessary (Digitalist Magazine, 2018). Additionally, the co-duality of production and the triadic structure that exists in SESTs requires that the employees be motivated from two dimensions: as service providers and service receivers (Digitalist Magazine, 2018; Arvidsson, 2018). As such, the major motivation in SESTs should be two-sided covering both the employee or service supplier from both the organization and customer sides.

From the organization side, motivation is determined by factors such as the remuneration and reward system, the training and development opportunities, and the working environment. From the customer end, motivation is spurred by aspects such as the feedback system, fair treatment, trust, amongst others (Buda, 2017; Grybaitė & Stankeviciene, 2016; Sijabat, 2019; Ekabu, 2018).

### **2.4 Motivation from the Organizational Side of the Triad**

Many studies have linked motivation of employees to the organization's productivity, customer satisfaction and employee loyalty. Operations have increasingly realized that human resources are a key asset and central to their performance and have, as a result, purposed to increase their levels of motivation (Adi, 2000; Rothberg, 2005). The same is true for every operation, including those in SEs and SESTs as they also depend on employees for sustainability. The factors that promote motivation from the operation-side are the remuneration and reward system, training and development opportunities, and the working environment.

#### **2.4.1 The Remuneration and Reward System**

Remuneration is the total income that one earns for work done. It can be a one-off payment or a series of payments which is determined by the agreed upon rules (Ojelelye, 2017). It

is a parameter that is used to measure if the time and effort that one puts into a particular task is worth it and has the potential of binding an employee to a particular organization or speeding up their intention to leave (Bhatti, 2007; Bergiel et al, 2011). For most employees, the remuneration structure is the single most important factor that determines whether one will take the job and stay with the company or leave (Ramlall, 2013).

The reward system refers to the prizes, monetary and non-monetary, given to the employees based on their productivity and performance evaluation (Dessler, 2007). The employees would be awarded for reaching a particular level of production or for providing exemplary service within or surpassing the target. The remuneration and reward system are used by operations to attract and retain the best workforce (Babić & Lukić, 2008)

In traditional operations, the remuneration and reward package included a whole range of options from monetary to non-monetary. Direct monetary options include the basic salary and bonuses while indirect non-monetary options include pension, health insurance, transport allowance, housing allowance, paid-for education, paid holidays, paid leave days amongst others (Satka, 2019). Rational potential employees always assess both the monetary and non-monetary benefits before deciding on whether the job is a good fit or not (Goldhaber et al, 2007)

In contemporary operations such as SEs and SESTs, the service provision structure is digitalized and provided ‘on-demand’ – also known as the ‘gig economy’. The remuneration for these contemporary operations is done per hourly basis or per completed task. A large percentage of the remuneration is direct and monetary and other indirect benefits such as medical insurance, pension and house insurance are non-existent (Economic Policy Institute, 2018). One can argue that other benefits such as flexibility and work autonomy compensate for the non-existing indirect benefits, but studies have shown that gig employees want other contemporary benefits such as the tailored financial wellness benefit (Manji, 2020).

#### **2.4.2 Training and Development Opportunities**

Though a function of Human Resources, training and development is extremely crucial for the productivity of any operation (Elnaga & Imran, 2013; Nassazi, 2013). Professional

training and development involve impacting the employees with necessary skills, expertise, and knowledge to carry out their tasks effectively (OECD, 2009). It involves both working on the employees' weaknesses and building up their strengths through formal training or coaching. Training aims at filling the short-term gaps while development aims at building the long-term capacity of the operation in terms of skill set, attitude, and productivity of the employees (Origo & Nzonzo, 2011).

Traditional operations are increasingly spending more on training and developing their employees using different styles, which can be on-the-job or off-the-job. On-the-job training examples include mentoring, coaching, apprenticeship, job rotation, understudy etcetera. Off-the-job training include lecturers, seminars, simulations amongst others (Walters & Rodriguez, 2017). Contemporary operations such as SEs and SESTs look at training and development differently. The 'employees', being contracted service suppliers as well as customers of the platform, are expected to show up well equipped for the job at hand. In fact, operations such as Uber took a step further to charge the 'service suppliers' as much as \$65 for training courses on city navigation and providing professional services (Forbes, 2014). The question is whether this is suitable and sustainable and whether it hinders or promotes the productivity of its service suppliers.

### **2.4.3 The Working Environment**

These are circumstances within which a job is performed. The conditions can be different depending on the job type and can range from very comfortable to extremely difficult. Difficult circumstances can be brought about; first, by external conditions such as weather conditions, pollution, the cleanliness of the work environment, and other interferences; secondly, by individual factors such as age, gender, health status, sitting posture etcetera; and thirdly, organizational related conditions such as the schedule, working hours, the work pace, shifts, physical strain amongst others (Bakotic & Babic, 2013). Comfortable working conditions enhance productivity amongst employees while difficult conditions are likely to hinder optimal performance unless properly monitored and mitigated.

Other work conditions include safety against personal injury by work equipment as well as harassment and violent attacks to the employees. Employees need to feel safe to perform their duties. Optimal social interactions with the management and other colleagues are also

key in promoting good working environments for employees (Eurofound & International Labor Organization, 2019).

In traditional operations, the organizations are expected to provide an optimal working environment for their employees. In Kenya for instance, the Work Injury Benefits Act (WIBA) requires the workstations to be inspected before the company can operate in the premises; this is in addition to fire inspections by the county government to ensure the security of the workers. The Employment Act specifies the maximum number of hours that an employee is expected to work in a day, in addition to minimum leave days per year assigned to the employees (WIBA, 2007; The Employment Act, 2007)

Regulation regarding the work environment for contemporary operations such as SEs and SESTs has been long due. There have been numerous debates on whether Uber drivers should be employees or contractors. According to their agreement with Uber, they are viewed as independent contractors, but Wambaa (2018) suggested that the Kenyan laws, as they are currently, are insufficient to determine whether they are employees or contractors for Uber. As such, it is difficult to protect them and improve their working environment using the existing laws. As such, individual drivers determine the conditions of their working environment such as hours worked, schedules, shifts and hygiene.

## **2.5 Motivation from the Customer Side of the Triad**

Due to the structure of SESTs, some of the functions that were traditionally subject to the management of the organization have been shifted to the customer such as providing feedback and task assignment up to some level. Therefore, knowingly, or unknowingly, some aspects of motivating the service suppliers falls on the customers (Obstfeld, 2005; Pathak et al., 2014).

### **2.5.1 The Feedback System**

Feedback is the provision of information to an individual regarding their performance mostly to improve their productivity. It informs the individuals where they are at in terms of their own targets, the team's goals, and the organization's objectives. It also provides them insights on how their colleagues, customers and the management view them (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Ashford & Cummings, 1983).

In traditional operations, feedback usually comes from management, where the manager and employee have a sit-down to discuss achieved versus set targets, strengths, weakness, plus some constructive criticisms (Blanchard & Johnson, 2015). The type of feedback provided could be outcome or process feedback. Outcome feedback pertains the results of performance or level of productivity while process feedback pertains to how one does their job. Depending on the operation's feedback system, the feedback source could be single-source (from management, subordinates, or horizontal colleagues) or multisource – from two or more sources (Geister et al, 2006).

In SESTs, since most interactions are between the service supplier and the customer, a lot of feedback on performance often originates from the customer. Uber for instance has a rating system where a customer rates the driver based on the trip's experience. When one gives lower ratings, the Uber app prompts the customer to provide additional feedback to back it up. Similarly, higher ratings have options of compliments which can be chosen to accompany the rating. The ratings are averaged for the previous 500 rides and the average rating of the driver can be viewed by the customers when they request a ride (Uber, 2021). Though anonymous and sort of somehow standardized, the ratings are still quite subjective and dependent on the customers' moods, feelings, and individual perceptions at the time of the ride. Uber introduced the binary system to counter this, whereby the drivers can also rate the customers based on the trip experience (The Guardian, 2019). The question is whether this has been successful in promoting objective feedback provision.

### **2.5.2 Fair Treatment**

Treatment is the way one deals with or behaves toward someone or something (Cambridge Dictionary). For employees, this involves how they are treated by the management, their colleagues, and the customers in general. Unfair treatment is a major contributor to lackluster performance and employee turnover in most operations across the world (Hassan, 2021). Most labor laws around the world recognize the operations' prerogative to hire, fire, demote, lay-off, lay-down and set the terms of service for their employees; but they also protect the employees' human rights (Abun et al, 2020). In Kenya, the Employment Act provides regulations on fair treatment of employees such as protection against discrimination (against race, tribe, color, disability etc.), sexual harassment, child,

and youth labor, forced wages, amongst others. Fair employee treatment is very crucial in enhancing their trust in the operation and ensuring their longevity in the job (Choi, 2011; Kim & Rubianty, 2011; Rubin, 2011).

Respect in the workplace is paramount as it is a human law. The humanity principle demands that operations do not treat employees as a means to an end but an end in themselves (Dillon, 2018). Caring for employees involves show of empathy to their well-being and helping them to be better versions of themselves (Smith, 2020).

In traditional operations, fair treatment would be the sole responsibility of the management (Noddings, 1984 & 2002) but in contemporary organizations some aspects of fair treatment lie with the customers because of the nature of interactions. Uber has provided guidelines on fair treatment such as regulations on physical contact, sexual assault, and misconduct, threatening and rude behavior, unwanted contact, discrimination amongst others (Uber, 2021). The problem arise in the enforcement of these rules since Uber management does not enforce the rules but expect the customers and the local governments to enforce them. The question then arises on whether the drivers (service suppliers) are getting fair treatment in the course of their work.

### **2.5.3 Trust**

Trust is one's perception about others and the decision to act, behave and engage the other party dependent on the formed perception. Trust is crucial for an operation's success as it influences the interaction amongst employees, interactions with customers as well as employees' turnover rates (Annamalai et al, 2010). Trust enables transactions between businesses, operations, employees and even customers with the belief that the other party will act accordingly and ethically (Owoyele, 2017). Covey (2006) postulates that operations that have high trust earn their shareholders three-times more than operations with low trust.

In traditional operations, trust was viewed from the employee and management perspective. That is, the management would foster trust by ensuring that their employees had job security, certainty, autonomy, flexibility, and purpose to carry out their individual and team tasks effectively. This would in turn bolster cooperation amongst colleagues and

management thus promoting intrinsic motivation. Studies have shown that trust between employees and their customers foster positive engagement and build the employee-customer bond (Gilson et al, 2005; Okello & Gilson, 2015).

In contemporary operations such as SEs and SESTs, despite the tight control by the management, there is minimal interaction between the management and the service suppliers thus shifting the importance of trust between service suppliers and customers. These operations require the sharing of one's property or time with a stranger which opens one to unprecedented risk (Tussyadiah, 2015; Botsman & Rogers 2010). According to Olson (2013), trust is the most cited hindrance to participating in SEs and SESTs because of mistrust amongst the strangers in the transactions in addition to concerns on privacy. Trust is positively correlated to perceived benefits from and the willingness to participate in the platform but is negatively correlated to the perceived risks. A 2019 Uber report estimated that over 6,000 people were assaulted in 2017 and 2018, about 45% of these were Uber riders. Incidences like these erode trust amongst the Uber drivers and their customers and this can hinder the drivers' motivation (Vox, 2019).

## **2.6 Empirical Review**

While Sharing Economy is a new concept which has been established in the past decade, the Sharing Economy-based service triads is an even newer concept which was first introduced by Li et al (2019). As such, there is no existing research work on motivation in the sharing economy-based service triads but similar studies on motivation in the sharing economy or motivation in collaborative services have been done presenting varied conclusions which have been reviewed for the purpose of this study. The literature has been summarized in Table 2.1.

Schiel (2015) conducted a study on what motivates consumers to participate in the CC schemes in Germany. The study was explorative and quantitative in nature targeting 600 respondents. The author used structure-based testing technique as well as calculated the measures of central tendency such as mean, median and mode. According to the findings, participants in collaborative consumption schemes are driven by economic, ecological, and social motivations. It was also found out that respondents who did not have a sharing history differed significantly in terms of demographic attributes and personal values. The

author, therefore agreed with earlier work by Marchand et al (2010) who postulated that self-interest motives might reduce the levels of consumption of a given product while eco- and social altruistic motives can lead to more attraction to the products that are environmentally and socially sound. This is because the attitudinal implications of one's behaviors may require an additional cognitive step which most individuals are unlikely to take. As such, Schiel (2015) recommended that self-interest motives should receive greater recognition when it comes to motivating consumers to participate in collaborative schemes.

Lin and Lo (2016) did a study on motivation for the usage of the social commerce website in the sharing economy in Taiwan. The authors used Z to determine whether each motivation factor for using the social commerce website was significant and to examine the preferential differences for each factor. The researchers were inspired Herzberg's two-factor theory hence assuming that e-retailers' motives to increase consumer motivation for using their platform is similar to that of traditional organizations encouraging their employees to work harder. They concluded that there are over 45 factors that influence consumer motivations for using platforms like Airbnb; these factors become more apparent if classified into the motivation and hygiene factors across each stage of the EKB.

Benoit et al (2017) reviewed the motives for participation in the triadic framework for CCs, focusing on the motives, activities, resources, and capabilities of the involved actors, that is, the customer, the service provider, and the platform provider. The authors used literature-based framework to identify the actors in the triad, what motivates them to participate in the collaborative consumption triad, the activities that they perform and the resources that they need to perform the activities. They found out that the service suppliers are motivated by factors such as economic benefits, entrepreneurial freedom, and social motivates; while their most crucial resources are their reputation, trustworthiness, and the assets such as their cars for Uber and houses for AirBnB. Customers are motivated by economic motives, hedonic value, social motives, risk reduction and environmental motives; and the platform providers by economic gains, innovation and building working relationships.

Buda (2017) conducted a study on the attitudes and motivations of consumers in SE in Hungary. The author sort to understand what motivates to use sharing based services and



what differentiates the attitude of those who have used the services from those who had not. Two studies were carried out, the first involved eighteen in-depth and two focused group discussions while the second one was an online survey with 452 respondents of whom 150 had experienced sharing-based services. Cluster analysis was used to analyze the attitudes of the users in the sharing economy. The findings show that people who use the sharing economy services are mostly flexible, extroverted and environmentally friendly. Furthermore, it categorizes the users into four groups, based on their motivations: first are those chasing good experiences, second are those motivated by the economic benefits, third are those that are environmentally sensitive and finally are the occasional users looking for attractive offers.

Mayasari and Haryanto (2018) sort to investigate the factors that motivate collaborative consumption in the era of SE. The findings of the study showed that the economic aspect is the biggest motivating factor for both the service receiver and service provider to engage in a sharing economy. Other reasons include utility reasons which depends on whether the product fulfils an individual's needs; social reasons which implies the social rewards earned from using the sharing economy; emotional reasons which are the positive feelings induced from the sharing economy experience which influence the users' future choices; and finally, the ecological aspect refers to the users' motives to reduce the exhaustion of resources and enhance environmental sustainability.

In their working paper, Berger et al (2018) sought to profile the Uber drivers in London, by observing their wellbeing and establishing the state of their overall job satisfaction. The findings show that most Uber driving was not a last resort for the drivers – with most leaving other 'lucrative' positions for Uber driving. Most of the drivers are from disadvantaged families who immigrated to the UK from other low- and mid-income countries. As such, despite Uber driving being a low paying job compared to other jobs, the drivers reported a higher level of satisfaction and wellbeing, attributable to the job flexibility, but higher levels of anxiety and stress. The authors further emphasized the importance of non-monetary factors when determining the welfare of employees in the gig economy.

In their study to investigate why people participate in the SE, Lee et al (2018) focused on the inhibiting and motivating factors specifically for Uber. The authors highlighted several factors such as perceived and benefits, trust in- and qualities of the platform as the major motivating or inhibiting factors for participating in SE platforms. While the four factors were equally important, the authors postulated that perceived benefits and quality of the platform positively influenced users' trust in and the willingness to participate while perceived risks negatively influenced their trust and willingness to participate in the platform.

Pettica-Harris et al (2018) wrote an article that explored the motivations and experiences of the Canadian Uber drivers. Findings show that Uber drivers can be potentially grouped into three categories; the first group consisted of part time drivers on a transition period to other jobs. This group is motivated by the ease of joining Uber and the stress-free gig. They considered driving for Uber as a paying hobby and gave a sense that they could leave any time. The second group is the full-time nonprofessional drivers who are more motivated by the economic benefits of driving for Uber and joined as a last resort after losing their jobs or not finding any other job alternatives. For this group, driving for Uber was their sole source of income and as a result had fewer complaints regarding the gig. The last group is the full-time professional drivers who joined Uber due to 'keep up with the changing landscape', alleviate competition and to escape the exploitative nature of traditional taxi driving. This group was motivated and appreciative of the flexible nature of Uber driving both in terms of the fees charged and the schedule.

In their research article focused on establishing factors that affect the users' intention to take part in collaborative consumption, Matar and Aoun (2019) found out that economic factors are more important and given priority when choosing to engage in the SE. Other factors that determine the acceptance of the SE include social relations, reliance on new technology, as well as the safety component and trust in the platform. The study also found out that in Lebanon, both men and women use the sharing economy equally, this a contrast to international data which postulates participation divide due to socio-demographic alignments (Andreotti et al. 2017).

Sijabat (2019) researched factors that affect individuals' decision to use ride sharing platforms in Indonesia. The author found out that economic factors are dominant in influencing individuals' decision to participate in ride sharing, followed by technological factors (86% of respondents), then environmental factors (48% of respondents) and lastly social factors (36% of respondents). The study further showed that gender and age are not significant in motivating individuals to use the ride sharing platforms.

Norlander et al (2021) sought to understand the effects of technological supervision of gig workers and whether the platforms altered the gig workers' motivation and their perception of organizational control. Results showed that while Uber drivers are more controlled by the organization, their intrinsic motivation and work satisfaction did not vary from that of ordinary taxi drivers. Findings further show that in gig economies, the service providers interacted more freely with the customers but did not have a tight bond with their colleagues as in traditional operations.

## **2.7 Summary of the Literature Review**

Table 2.1 below provides a summary of the literature review. It shows previous empirical studies done on motivation in SEs and SESTs; mainly focusing on the methodologies used, the findings, the gaps and how the study plans to address them.

**Table 1: Summary of the Literature Review**

<b>Author</b>	<b>Focus of Study</b>	<b>Methodology</b>	<b>Findings</b>	<b>Research Gaps</b>	<b>Address of gaps</b>
Schiel (2015)	What motivates consumers to participate in the CC schemes.	Structure-based testing technique	Participants in CC schemes are driven by economic, ecological, and social motivations	Findings were not representative of the who CC population, only the millennials	Research will ensure the findings are representative of all the age-groups of the population under study.
Lin and Lo (2016)	Motivation for the usage of the social commerce website in the sharing economy in Taiwan	Z testing	Motivation factors become more apparent if classified into the motivation and hygiene factors across each stage of the EKB	The study was carried out in Taiwan. It is not sufficient to make inferences about Uber drivers in Kenya.	Research will be conducted in Kenya.
Benoit et al (2017)	Motives for participation in the triadic framework for CCs.	Literature-based framework	The customer, service provider and platform are motivated by different factors and require different resources and capabilities to participate in a CC	It only reviews literature. No primary data was collected and analyzed.	Research will collect and analyze primary data and augment that with secondary data.
Buda (2017)	The attitudes and motivations of consumers in SE in Hungary	Cluster analysis	Sharing economy users are motivated by either good experiences, economic benefits, environmental concerns, or attractive prices.	A large portion of the sample, 81%, consisted of university graduates	Research will ensure the sample is representative of the population under study.

Mayasari and Haryanto (2018)	Factors that motivate CC in the era of SE.	Qualitative data was analyzed using coding.	Economic aspect is the biggest motivating factor. Other include utility reasons, social reasons, emotional reasons, and ecological aspects.	The study only focused on consumers of CC platforms.	Research will focus on the service providers who are also customers to the platforms.
Berger et al (2018)	The happiness and wellbeing of Uber drivers.	Statistical analysis	Uber drivers display a higher level of satisfaction and wellbeing compared other jobs, but higher levels of anxiety and stress.	The study was carried out in the United Kingdom, a first world country. It is expected that the findings are not representative in a 3 <sup>rd</sup> world country like Kenya	The context of the research will be Nairobi, Kenya.
Lee et al (2018)	The empirical study of Uber to understand why People Participate in the SE	Structural equation modeling (SEM) technique	Perceived benefits and quality of the platform positively correlated while perceived risks negatively correlated to users' trust and willingness to participate in the sharing economy.	The findings were not context-specific and therefore not representative of the population under study.	Research will include more context-specific variables.
Pettica-Harris et al (2018)	Exploring the motivators and experiences of the Canadian Uber drivers.	Inductive and iterative technique	The motivation for drivers to join Uber varied depending on their categorization, that is, part time, full time nonprofessional and full-time professional drivers.	The study did not look at the dual function of service providers and how this affects their motivators.	Research will focus on the motivators of the service providers from the perspective of their role in the triadic structure.
Matar and	Motivation of the SE users in	Structural Equation Modelling	The economic aspect is the most important factor. Others include social relations,	The study focused on the whole SE in	The research will focus on a lean segment of the SE

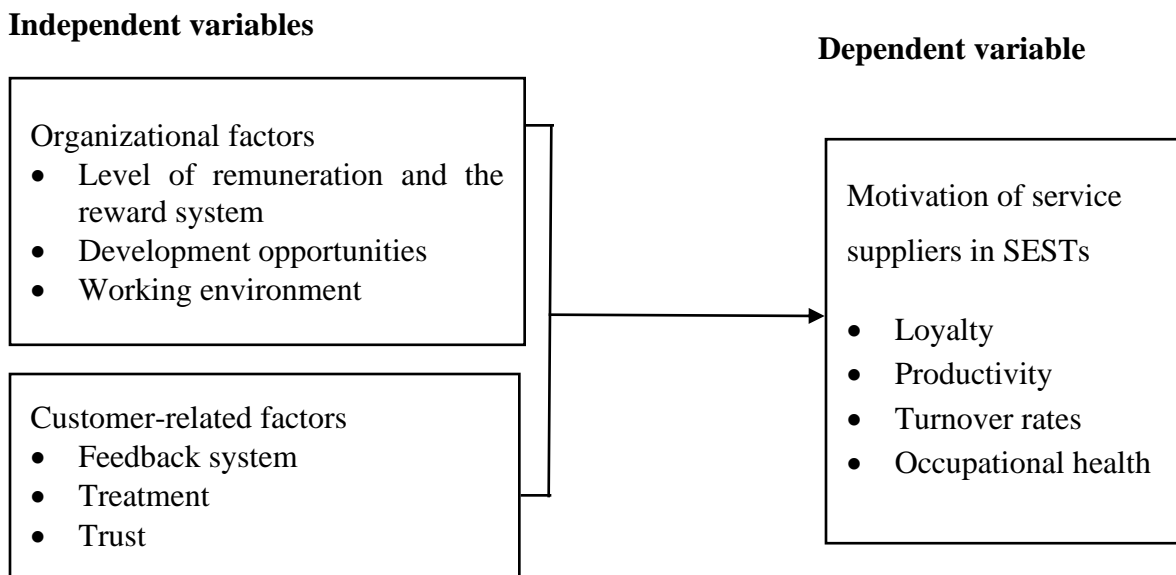
Aoun (2019)	the Middle East		reliance on technology, safety, and trust in the platform. Gender and age are not significant motivation factors in SE.	Lebanon, making the scope too wide.	i.e., motivation of the service providers.
Sijabat (2019)	Factors that affect individuals' decision to use ride sharing platforms.	No model specified	Economic factors are dominant in influencing individuals' decision followed by technological factors (86% of respondents), then environmental factors (48% of respondents) and lastly social factors (36% of respondents).	The survey results were not validated in multiple samples	The research's sample will be a demographic representation of the Uber drivers in Nairobi, Kenya.
Norlander et al (2021)	How the control and motivation of gig workers such as Uber drivers, differ from traditional workers.	'Full cycle' methodology	Uber drivers, whether Uber X or Uber Black, are more controlled by the organization than their counterparts in traditional taxis but they enjoy their jobs more while their levels of motivation are equal	The sample was drawn from two different populations, that is, UberX and normal taxi drivers	The sample of the research will be drawn from one distinct population, that is, the Uber drivers in Nairobi, Kenya.

**Source: Researcher (2021)**

## 2.8 The Conceptual Framework

The study seeks to analyze motivation in sharing economy-based service triads, specifically looking at Uber drivers in Kenya. Motivated service suppliers in SESTs are the dependent variable, organizational factors such as the remuneration and reward systems, training and development opportunities, the working environment; as well as customers related factors such as feedback systems, fair treatment, and trust are the independent variables as outlined in figure 2.1 below.

**Figure 1: The Conceptual Framework**



**Source: Researcher (2021)**

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter describes research methods that will be applied in conducting this study. It states the research design, population of the study, sample size, data collection and the procedure through which data will be analyzed.

#### **3.2 Research Design**

The study will use descriptive research design specifically using the cross-sectional survey design. This design technique makes it easier to apply the findings of the survey to the entire population under study (Babbie, 2010). The descriptive research design will be suitable as it will help to describe, explore, and discover the aspect of motivation in Sharing Economy-based Service Triads (Dulock, 1993)

#### **3.3 The Population and Sample Size**

The population of the study are Uber drivers in Nairobi, Kenya. There are approximately 12,000 Uber drivers spread across Nairobi and Mombasa cities in Kenya (The National Broadcasting Company, 2020). Calculated at 95% confidence interval, the sample size for the study will be 50 Uber drivers. A confidence interval of 95% assures that the results of the study will be closer to the population mean and a sample size of 50 is large enough to avoid biases while providing meaningful insights for the study. A sample of 50 is also manageable for the researcher while avoiding issues of saturation and diminishing returns and provides the minimally required number of cases for conducting a binary logistics regression analysis (Gill et al, 2010; Hair et al, 2010; Burns & Burns, 2008; Kleinbaum & Klein, 2010; Taherdoost, 2016).

#### **3.4 Sampling Technique**

A two-tier sampling technique will be used. First, stratified sampling will be employed to assign a portion of the sample to each of the major areas within the Nairobi Metropolitan Region. According to the 2019 population and housing census of Kenya, there are 5 major areas within the Nairobi Metropolitan region, namely: core Nairobi, the Northern metro, the North-Eastern metro, the Southern metro and the Eastern metro. Since the data on the



distribution of the Uber drivers across the Nairobi metropolitan region is not available, the Kenya’s 2019 population data will be used to estimate the distribution of Uber drivers across these areas. The major assumption in case this will be that the distribution of Uber drivers in these areas is directly proportional to the citizens’ population. Secondly, random sampling will be used to identify the interviewees in each of the areas based on the calculations in Table 3.1 below.

**Table 2: The Sample Distribution**

<b>Area</b>	<b>Population (2019 Census)</b>	<b>Sample</b>
Core Nairobi	4,397,073	21
Northern metro	2,417,735	12
North-Eastern metro	1,056,640	5
Southern metro	1,107,296	5
Eastern metro	1,421,932	7
<b>Total</b>	<b>10,400,676</b>	<b>50</b>

**Source: The Kenya Population and Housing Census (2019); Researcher (2021)**

### **3.5 Data Collection**

This research will rely on primary data which will be obtained via structured questionnaires. This method was selected as it is highly reliable and allows for close repeated responses should the study be carried out again (Bryman & Bell, 2018). The questions will be digitized on the Open Data Kit platform and a link shared with potential interviewees. The responses will then later be exported to the analysis platform. The digitizing of the data collection process saves time that would have wasted during data entry and minimizes transcription, transposition, formatting errors amongst others.

The questionnaire will be divided into eight sections. Section one will focus on collecting the Uber drivers’ demographic data while section two to eight will use 5-point Likert scales to collect data on the remuneration and reward systems, training and development opportunities, work environment, feedback systems, trust, fair treatment, and levels of motivation amongst the drivers.

### 3.6 Data Analysis

Quantitative data, especially from the first section on demography, will be cleaned, categorized, then analyzed using measures of central tendency and dispersion such as mean, standard deviation, percentages, ranges etcetera. Different charts and graphs will then be used to present the information.

For the Likert scale data, the mode and median responses will be calculated, and the distribution of the responses displayed on bar graphs using percentages. Additionally, and for comparison purposes, both the binary logistic regression and the normal linear regression analyses will be applied on the data. For binary logistic regression, the 5-scale responses for each independent variable will first be collapsed down into two nominal categories 0 and 1, each representing the opposite side of the scale (Sweet & Martin, 2011; Hosmer & Lemeshow, 2000; Hair et al, 2010). For normal linear regression, the data will be executed as is. For example, the correlation between motivation and each independent variable will be analyzed using the formulas as follows:

- i. Using binary logistics regression analysis

$$P_{motivated_{IV}} = \frac{e^{a+B_iX_i}}{1 + e^{a+B_iX_i}}$$

- ii. Using normal regression analysis.

$$P_{Motivated_{IV}} = a + \beta_i X_i + \varepsilon$$

Where, IV refers to independent variable, and

$X_i$  represent the coded nominal Likert-scale responses for each independent variable and other selected demographic variables such as age.

$B_i$  represent the regression coefficients.

$\varepsilon$  is the error term

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter contains the analysis of the data collected, the findings and finally interpretation of the findings. This section represents results on the data sought on motivation of Uber drivers in Nairobi from both the customer and organization sides of the triadic structure. The study was guided by three objectives: to establish the organizational factors that determine motivation in a SEST, to establish customer-related factors that motivate service suppliers in a SEST and to find out the relationship between motivation and the factors established in above

#### **Response Rate**

In this study, 50 Uber drivers were randomly selected and sent a questionnaire link. A response rate of 100% was achieved, that is, all 50 of the targeted drivers fully filled the questionnaires in a manner that was usable for the study.

#### **4.2 Demographic Information**

The study sought to examine background information of the respondents in terms of gender, age, level of education, current rating on the app, number of years worked for Uber, type of vehicle driven by the respondents, the average number of hours worked in a day, whether they had other income sources and whether they were the main income earners for their families. The intended purpose for this information was to build a profile of an Uber driver in Nairobi and establish if and how this contributes to the drivers' motivation.

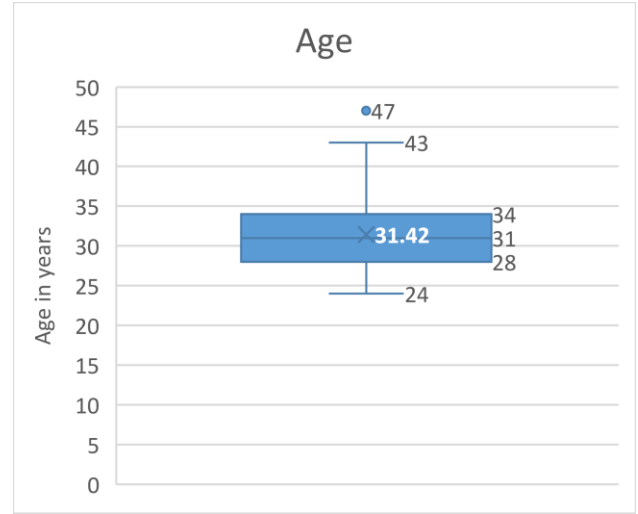
##### **4.2.1 Age, Gender and Education**

The mean age of the respondents was 31.4 years. A majority of them were aged between 28 and 34 years of age. A majority of them, 90%, were men while women were only 10% of the respondents. Those with either primary or secondary education were 64% with the rest possessed college certificates or university degrees. The women drivers were more educated than their male counterparts – all of them had at least a college certificate.

**Table 3: Education Level**

Education level	Females	Males
College certificate	8%	18%
Primary school	0%	18%
Secondary school	0%	46%
University degree	2%	8%
Total	10%	90%

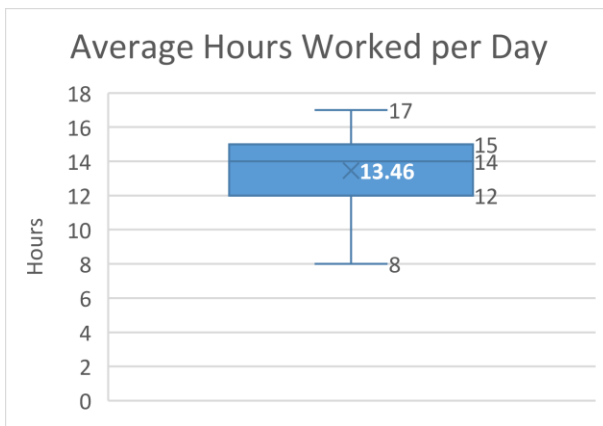
**Figure 2: Age**



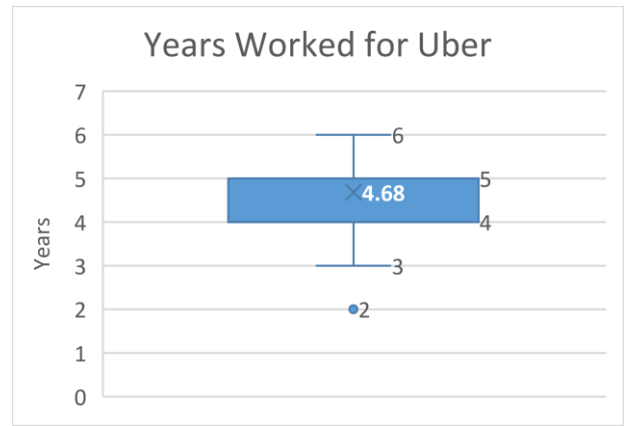
**4.2.2 Years Worked for Uber and Average Hours Worked per Day**

The respondents have worked for Uber for an average of 4.7 years, a good number, 22%, reported to have worked for the operation since it was introduced in Kenya in 2015. The drivers work an average of 13.5 hours every day. The minimum time cited was 8 hours while the maximum was 17 hours a day, a majority of them working between 12 and 15 hours every day.

**Figure 3: Average Hours Worked per Day**



**Figure 4: Years Worked for Uber**



**4.2.3 Type of vehicle**

The most common vehicle used in Uber Chapchap driven by 48% of the drivers, followed by UberX, driven by 38% of the drivers and lastly Boda, driven by 14% of the drivers.

There is no clear relationship between either the type of vehicle and the number of years worked for Uber, or the type of vehicle and the average hours worked per day.

**Table 4: Type of Vehicle**

Type of vehicle	Count	Percentage
Boda	7	14%
Uber chapchap	24	48%
UberX	19	38%
<b>Total</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>100%</b>

#### 4.2.4 Income Sources and the Main Household Income Earner

At least 40% of the respondents reported to having other income sources apart from Uber driving, with half of them not being the main income earners for their households. The other 60% depended wholly on Uber driving, with a majority of them being sole providers for their households. There was no notable correlation between age and being the main income earner for the household; but there was a positive correlation of 0.4 between age and having other sources of income.

**Table 5: Income Services**

Has other income sources?	Main Income Earner?		Total
	No	Yes	
<b>No</b>	2	28	60%
<b>Yes</b>	10	10	40%
<b>Total</b>	24%	76%	100%

#### 4.2.5 Rating

The average rating for the respondents was 3.56, with a majority of the drivers, 78%, ranging between 3 and 4 stars - which is generally considered okay. There was a significant positive correlation between rating and age, rating and years worked for Uber, as well as rating and education. There also existed a positive correlation between the rating and type of vehicle, but it was not quite as significant as the other variables. Hours worked, on the

other hand, had zero correlation with the rating. Female drivers generally had a higher rating than their male counterparts.

**Table 6: Drivers' Rating**

<b>Rating</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>2</b>	4	8%
<b>3</b>	21	42%
<b>4</b>	18	36%
<b>5</b>	7	14%
<b>Total</b>	50	100%

**Table 7: Correlation Between the Demographic Variables**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Correlation Coefficient</b>
Rating and age	0.60
Rating and years worked for Uber	0.55
Rating and education	0.51
Rating and type of vehicle	0.36
Rating and gender	0.26
Rating and hours worked per day	0.023

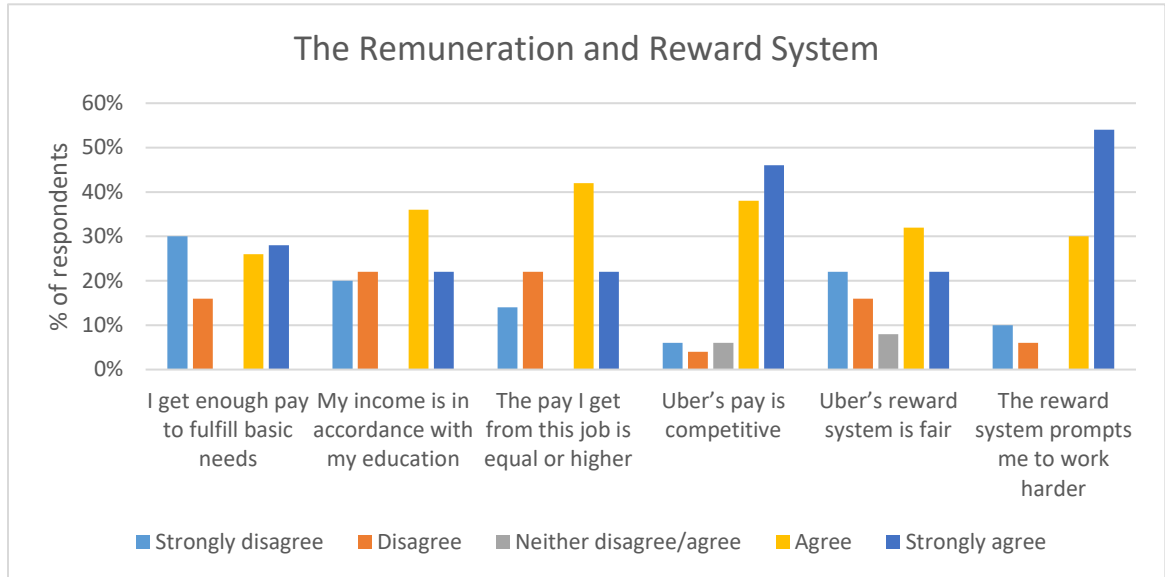
### **4.3 Distribution of the Responses**

#### **4.3.1 The Remuneration and Reward System**

There were mixed feelings regarding whether the drivers got enough pay to fulfill their basic needs; 30% strongly disagreed, 16% disagreed, 26% agreed and 28% strongly agreed. As for whether the drivers' income matched their level of education, 58% either just agreed or agreed strongly. Evidence suggests that the higher the education level of the drivers, the more they felt that their income was not in accordance with their education. Amongst all the drivers, 64% either agreed or strongly agreed that the income that they get from Uber driving was equal or higher than their peers in the same business, 22% disagreed while 14% strongly disagreed with this statement.

A significant majority of the drivers, 84%, felt that Uber’s pay was competitive which encouraged them to stay in the business. Only 10% disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement; the other 6% neither agreed nor disagreed. More than half of the drivers, 54%, felt that Uber’s reward system was fair and a significant majority of them, 84%, were prompted by the same reward system to work harder so as to earn more.

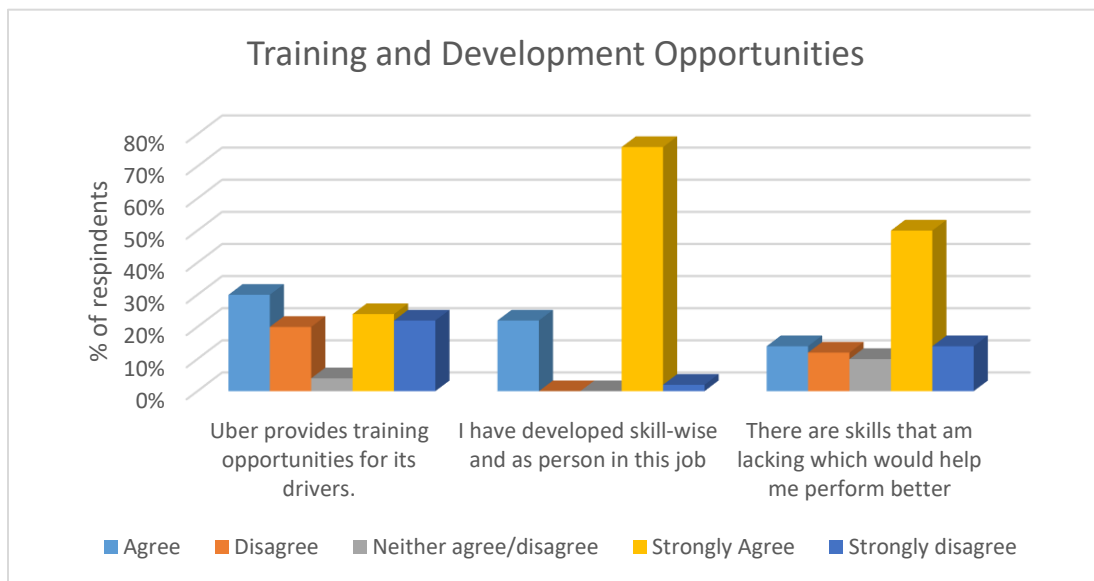
**Figure 5: Distribution of Responses for the Remuneration and Reward System**



### 4.3.2 The Training and Development Opportunities

There were also mixed feelings regarding whether Uber provides training opportunities for its drivers; while 54% agreed or strongly agreed on the opportunities, a significant number of the drivers, 44%, either disagreed or strongly disagreed with this sentiment. There was no correlation between the agreement or disagreement to this statement with either the current rating or the number of years worked for Uber. Additionally, 98% of the respondents were of the opinion that they have grown skill-wise and as a person in the course of Uber driving; though 64% of the drivers felt that there were skills that they lacked which would have helped them perform their job even better. This is especially true for drivers who had lower ratings of 2 or 3 stars.

**Figure 6: Distribution of Responses for the Training and Development Opportunities**

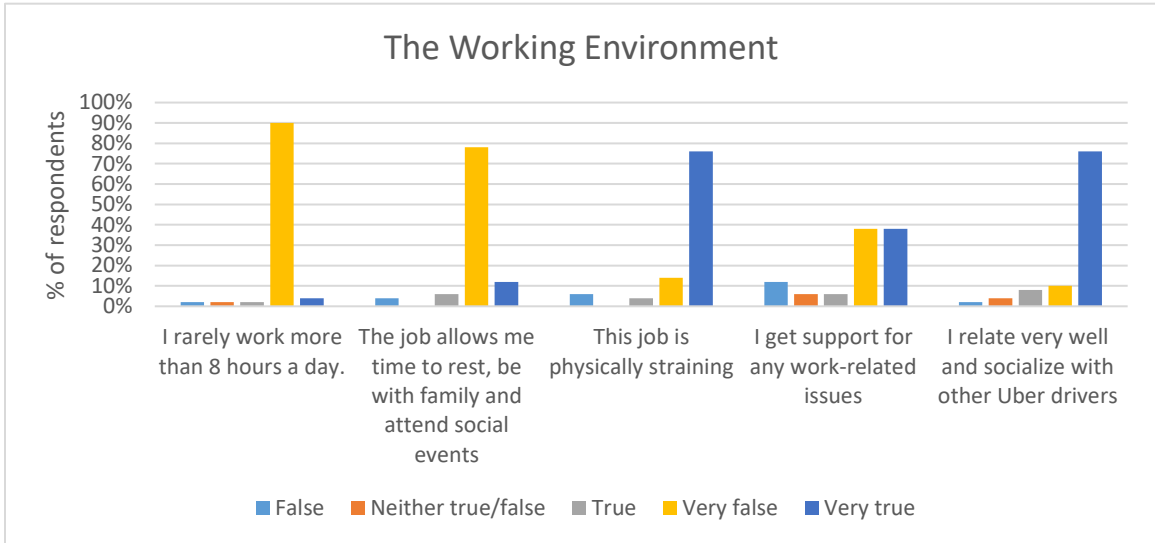


### 4.3.3 The Working Environment

A majority of the drivers, 92%, worked for more than 8 hours every day. In fact, they worked an average of 13.5 hours a day. A few of them, about 6%, said they worked less than 8 hours every day. About 82% reported to not having time for rest, to be with family and friends or attend other important social events. A clear majority, 80%, felt that the job was physically straining; with 6% disagreeing and 14% strongly disagreeing with this statement. On socializing at work, 84% said that they related very well and occasionally socialized with their colleagues. On the other hand, the respondents were divided on whether they got support when they faced work-related issues; 50% reported to getting help, 44% said that they do not get help at all, while 6% were undecided. There was very low correlation between getting help and other variables such as rating, years worked for Uber and average hours worked per day.



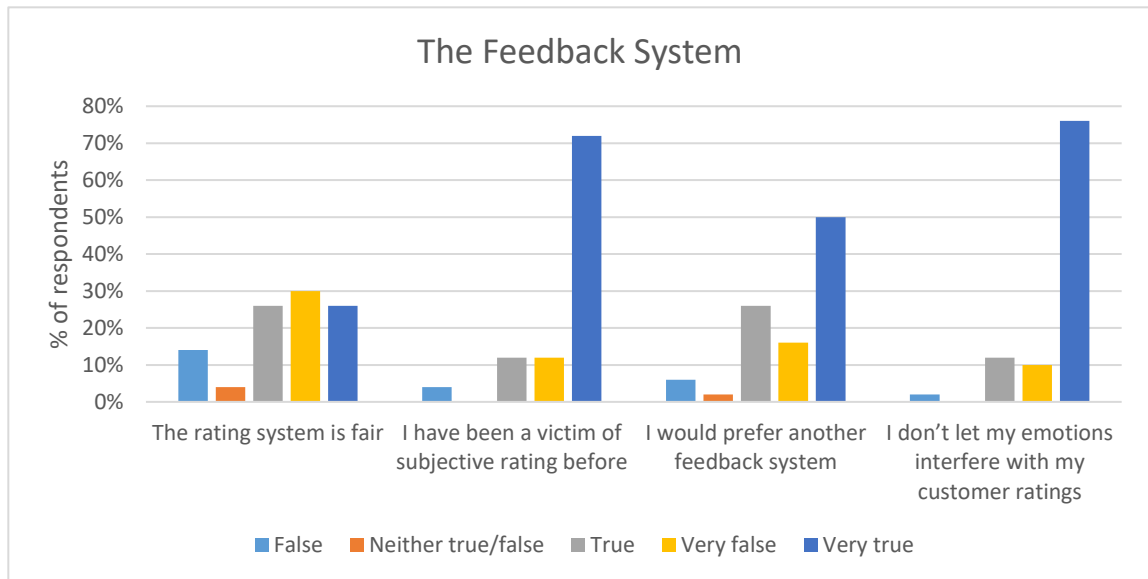
**Figure 7: Distribution of Responses on the Working Environment**



#### 4.3.4 The Feedback System

On whether the rating system was fair, 30% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 14% disagreed, 26% strongly agreed, 4% were undecided and 26% agreed. The correlation between rating and the responses on the fairness of the rating system was 0.47; suggesting that the drivers were not likely to feel that the feedback system was fair despite having higher ratings. 84% of the respondents had been victims of subjective rating before from their customers, while 16% had not experienced it. Asked whether they would prefer another feedback system, 76% of the drivers - regardless of whether they thought the current system was fair or not – answered in the affirmative while 22% were contented with the existing one. A significant majority of the drivers, 88%, felt that they are often objective and do not let emotions interfere with the rating of their customers.

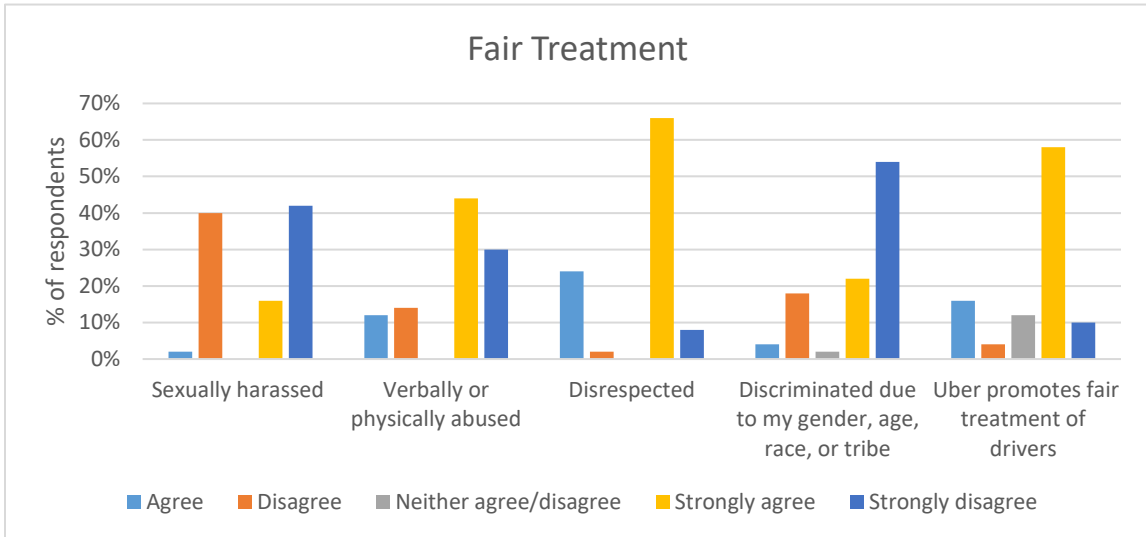
**Figure 8: Distribution of Responses on the Feedback System**



#### 4.3.5 Fair Treatment

Nine of all the respondents reported to have been sexually abused before; this consisted of 60% of all the female respondents and about 13% of all the male respondents. Those who had either been physically or verbally abused by their customers consisted of 56% of all the respondents. Physical and verbal abuse was also prevalent amongst the female drivers where at least 60% had experienced abuse. Additionally, 24% of the drivers had been discriminated due to their gender, age, race, or tribe by a customer before, which was also prevalent amongst the female drivers. On the contrary, male drivers were more likely to be disrespected by their customers than their female counterparts, that is, 90% of the male and 80% of the female drivers reported some instance of disrespect. Despite all this, the general feeling amongst the drivers was that Uber promotes fair treatment of the drivers as reported by 74% of the respondents.

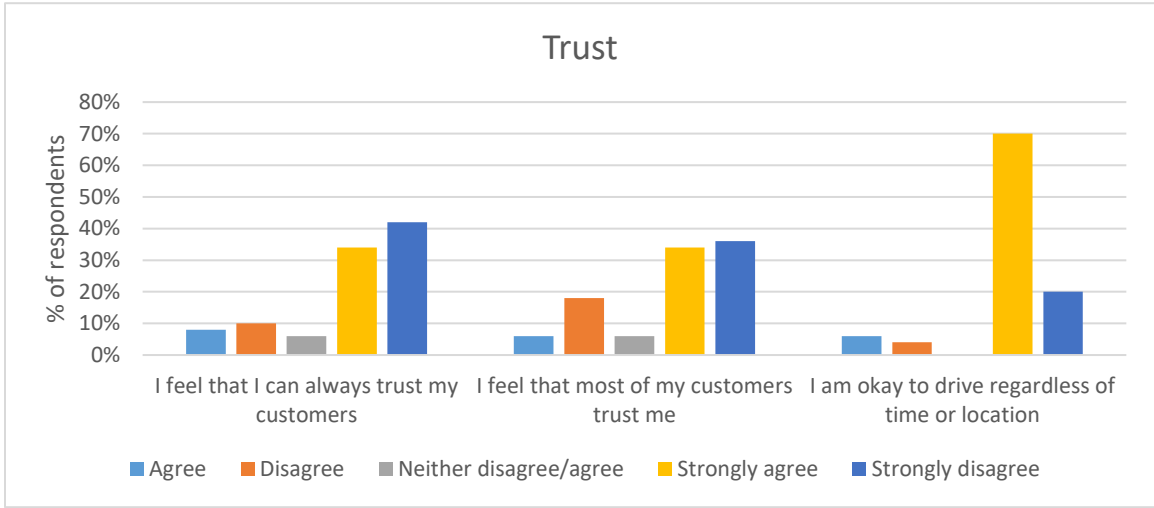
**Figure 9: Distribution of Responses on Fair Treatment**



#### 4.3.6 Trust

Asked whether they trusted their customers, 52% of the Uber drivers answered in the negative, 42% answered in the affirmative while 6% were uncertain. On the other hand, 54% of the drivers felt that their customers did not trust them, 40% felt that their customers trusted them while 6% were not sure. Despite the distrust on both sides, 76% of the drivers were comfortable to drive their customers regardless of time of the day or location of the ride. The correlation between gender and being comfortable driving the customers was -0.05, which suggested that the statement was mostly true for male drivers, but the difference was very insignificant.

**Figure 10: Distribution of Responses on Trust**



#### 4.4 Correlation Between the Dependent and the Independent variables

##### 4.4.1 Motivation and the Remuneration and Reward System

Using the logistic regression model and a cut-off of 0.5, the success rate of the model was 74%. The Chi-square test on the model returned a p-value of 0.02 showing that the logistic regression model was a good fit for testing the correlation between the variables. With a positive co-efficient of 1.8 and an alpha of 0.02, the correlation test between the remuneration and reward system and motivation was found to be significant.

$$Motivation = 0.15 - 0.12 * age + 0.75 * years\ worked + 1.8 * R \ \& \ R \ system$$

Comparatively, using the linear regression model, a p-value of 0.73 was found against the alpha of 0.05, suggesting that the linear regression model was not a good fit for the data. Furthermore, The co-efficient for the remuneration and reward system variable was -0.02 and the p-value for the significant test was 0.88, suggesting that the correlation between the variable and motivation, at least for Uber drivers, was insignificant.

**Table 8: Correlation Between Motivation and the Reward and Remuneration System**

	Logistic Regression			Linear Regression		
	coeff	std err	p-value	coeff	std err	p-value
Intercept	0.151	2.233	0.946	4.191	1.457	0.006
Age	-0.128	0.081	0.116	-0.046	0.048	0.343
Years worked for Uber	0.753	0.400	0.050	0.216	0.232	0.357
R & R System	1.805	0.794	0.023	-0.022	0.139	0.876

#### 4.4.2 Motivation and the Training and Development Opportunities

Using the logistic regression model, the model had a success rate of 70% and a p-value of 0.04 against the alpha 0.05 showing that the model was a good fit for the data. On the other hand, the training and development opportunities variable had a co-efficient of 0.70 but a p-value of 0.43 in the correlation test showing that even though there was a positive correlation between the variable and motivation, it was not significant.

$$\text{Motivation} = -0.89 * \text{age} + 0.76 * \text{years worked} + 0.7 * \text{T \& D opportunities}$$

Comparatively, the results using the linear regression model showed that it was not a good fit for the data. As for the correlation between training and development opportunities and motivation, a p-value of 0.12 and a co-efficient of 0.29 was found showing a non-significant correlation between the two variables.

**Table 9: Correlation Between Motivation and Training and Development Opportunities**

	Logistic Regression			Linear Regression		
	coeff	std err	p-value	coeff	std err	p-value
Intercept	-0.894	2.422	0.712	2.706	1.676	0.113
Age	-0.074	0.075	0.321	-0.034	0.047	0.475
Years worked	0.761	0.364	0.036	0.177	0.226	0.438
T & D Opps	0.704	0.899	0.433	0.293	0.183	0.116

#### 4.4.3 Motivation and the Working Environment

The logistic regression model had a success rate of 72% and a p-value of 0.04 showing that the model was good fit for the data. The p-value for age, years worked for Uber and the work environment were 0.39, 0.04 and 0.78 respectively showing that only the number of years worked for Uber had a significant correlation with motivation while the other two were insignificant. The co-efficient for work environment was 0.21. The results suggest that even though the drivers found the actual aspect of driving physically straining, it did not really affect their motivation levels. One can argue that the negative aspects of the physical strain were somehow balanced by obvious the camaraderie amongst the drivers.

$$\text{Motivation} = -0.28 - 0.07 * \text{age} + 0.77 * \text{years worked} + 0.21 * \text{working environment}$$

Comparatively, linear regression model was not a good fit for the data as the results returned a p-value of 0.69. The p-value for the three variables: age, years worked for Uber and the working environment returned p-values greater than 0.05 and co-efficient of less than 0.3.

**Table 10: Correlation Between Motivation and the Working Environment**

	Logistic Regression			Linear Regression		
	coeff	std err	p-value	coeff	std err	p-value
Intercept	-0.276	2.261	0.903	4.310	1.479	0.005
Age	-0.071	0.082	0.386	-0.059	0.054	0.286
Years worked	0.758	0.363	0.037	0.227	0.233	0.334
Working envi.	0.211	0.742	0.776	0.056	0.125	0.653

#### 4.4.4 Motivation and the Feedback System

The success rate of the binary logistic model was 76% at a cut-off of 0.5. The p-value was 0.047 showing that the model was good fit for the data. The p-values for age, years worked for Uber and the feedback system were 0.19, 0.02 and 0.02 respectively showing that motivation had a significant correlation with years worked for Uber and the feedback system but a non-significant correlation with the age of the drivers. The co-efficient for the

feedback system was 1.70 further confirming that the feedback system was a very strong contributor to the motivation of the drivers.

$$Motivation = -1.33 + 0.10 * age + 0.92 * years\ worked + 1.69 * feedback$$

As for the linear regression model, a p-value of 0.26 was found showing that the model was not a good fit for the data. Additionally, age, years worked for Uber and the feedback system had p-values of 0.22, 0.22 and 0.10 respectively showing that the correlation between motivation and these variables was insignificant.

**Table 11: Correlation Between Motivation and the Feedback System**

	Logistic Regression			Linear Regression		
	coeff	std err	p-value	coeff	std err	p-value
Intercept	-1.339	2.413	0.579	2.678	1.661	0.114
Age	-0.104	0.080	0.194	-0.059	0.047	0.218
Years worked for Uber	0.921	0.409	0.024	0.286	0.229	0.217
Feedback	1.690	1.376	0.019	0.386	0.231	0.102

#### 4.4.5 Motivation and Fair Treatment

The success rate of the binary logistic model was 74% at a cut-off rate of 0.5. The p-value was 0.047 against the alpha of 0.05 confirming that the model was a good fit for the data. As for the independent variables age, years worked for Uber and fair treatment, their p-values were 0.27, 0.04 and 0.93 showing that only years worked for Uber had a significant correlation with motivation. These results suggest that even though some drivers had experienced sexual harassment, verbal and physical abuse, disrespect and discrimination, they did not consider it an important factor in their motivation.

$$Motivation = 0.09 - 0.08 * age + 0.76 * years\ worked + 0.16 * fair\ treatment$$

As for the linear regression model, a p-value of 0.72 was found against an alpha of 0.05 showing that model was not a good fit was the data. The independent variables of age,

years worked for Uber and fair treatment had p-values of 0.32, 0.37 and 0.80 showing a very insignificant correlation with motivation.

**Table 12: Correlation Between Motivation and Fair Treatment**

	Logistic Regression			Linear Regression		
	coeff	std err	p-value	coeff	std err	p-value
Intercept	0.087	2.687	0.974	4.536	2.076	0.034
Age	-0.083	0.076	0.274	-0.051	0.050	0.318
Years worked for Uber	0.759	0.365	0.038	0.210	0.231	0.369
Fair treatment	-0.158	1.686	0.925	-0.073	0.293	0.803

#### 4.8.2 Motivation and Trust

The success rate for the binary logistic model at a cut-off of 0.5, was 72%. The p-value was 0.02 against the alpha 0.05 showing that the model was a good fit for the data. The p-values for the independent variables of age, years worked for Uber and trust were 0.45, 0.12 and 0.03. Additionally, the co-efficient for trust was 3.02 clearly showing that the correlation between motivation and trust was very significant.

$$\text{Motivation} = -1.77 - 0.06 * \text{age} + 0.61 * \text{years worked} + 3.02 * \text{trust}$$

The linear regression model returned a p-value of 0.73 in the ANOVA test, showing that model was not a good fit for the data. The p-values for the independent variables of age, years worked for Uber and trust were 0.34, 0.39 and 0.91, suggesting that the correlation between motivation and the three variables was insignificant.



**Table 13: Correlation Between Motivation and Trust**

	Logistic Regression			Linear Regression		
	coeff	std err	p-value	coeff	std err	p-value
Intercept	-1.769	2.465	0.473	4.089	1.571	0.012
Age	-0.061	0.081	0.452	-0.046	0.048	0.339
Years worked for Uber	0.615	0.393	0.117	0.207	0.236	0.386
Trust	3.027	1.408	0.032	0.025	0.213	0.906

**4.5 Discussion**

The first objective of the study was to determine organizational factors that motivate service suppliers in a SEST. Findings showed that while Uber was doing relatively well in its remuneration and reward system as well as providing training and development opportunities, it fell short in providing a good working environment for its drivers. With the exception of university graduates, most respondents reported that the remuneration and reward system prompted them to work harder, and they earned more than their peers in the same business. Similarly, they seemed contented with the training and development opportunities availed by Uber but those with lower ratings felt that there were skills which they lacked that if trained on, would help them perform better. On the other hand, Uber driving is a very physically straining job and barely allowed the drivers time for other social activities. The drivers were also unlikely to get help or support when work issues arose, but they countered this by relating very well and supporting each other when necessary.

The second objective was to establish the customer-related factors that motivate service suppliers in a SEST. Findings showed that the customer-related factors were a huge impediment to the drivers' motivation. The feedback system was often subjective, unfair treatment was common and there was serious lack of trust between the drivers and the customers. A majority of the drivers reported to being victims of subjective rating on occasion and would prefer another feedback system. Additionally, a good number of them had experienced sexually harassment, physical or verbal abuse, disrespect or discrimination in the hands of their customers. The unfair treatment was especially more

rampant amongst the female drivers than their male counterparts, which can explain why they are very few female drivers in Kenya. As for trust, at least 50% of the Uber drivers felt that they could not trust their customers and vice versa. Despite the drivers reporting that they were comfortable driving their customers to any location at any given time, the lack of trust could explain their very small presence in the ‘unsafe’ areas or neighborhoods in Nairobi.

The third objective was to find out the relationship between motivation and each individual organizational or customer-related factor. Despite all the factors being important, the drivers did not perceive the training and development opportunities, the working environment and fair treatment as significant contributors to their motivation. The most significant factors for the drivers’ motivation were the remuneration and reward system, the feedback system and trust. It is important to note that these three significant factors directly affected their earnings and safety.

The direct correlation between motivation and the reward and remuneration system implied that a fair, competitive system that allowed the service suppliers to earn equal or a bit more than their counterparts and enabled them to afford their basic needs was a huge motivator. In fact, results show that the drivers were not opposed to working extra hours as long their efforts matched the remuneration. Furthermore, though bothered by the unfair treatment especially by their customers, this did not impede their decision to drive Uber as long as the income was good. There was also a positive correlation between feedback and motivation, that is, the more the drivers perceived the feedback system to be fair and objective, the more motivated they were in their tasks. The customer’s feedback is important as it determines how many rides a driver gets and therefore the final income. Additionally, there was a significant positive correlation between trust and motivation. The more the drivers felt like they could trust and be trusted by their customers, the more likely they were to be motivated.

Other demographic variables such as gender, education, rating, type of vehicle, additional income sources and age did not significantly affect the motivation of the drivers; but the number of years worked for Uber almost always turned out to be significant in the correlation equations. The more years the driver worked for Uber, the more likely they

were to be motivated. It can be argued that more years worked for Uber alluded to more experience which sharpened their skill set, helped them navigate the working environment and learnt how to engage with their customers and diffuse some challenging situations, hence its significance.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents a summary of the findings, conclusions as well as recommendations of the study. It also highlights the limitations of the study and provides suggestions for further research.

#### **5.2 Summary**

The study focused on motivation of the service suppliers in SESTs from a triadic structure perspective. The objectives of the study were: to establish the organizational factors that motivate service suppliers in a SEST; to establish the customer-related factors that motivate service suppliers in a SEST; and to find out the relationship between motivation and the organizational as well as the customer-related factors. Data was collected from Uber drivers in Nairobi, Kenya. A two-tier sampling technique was used to select the respondents; first a stratified sampling to assign respondents geographically, followed by random sampling to select the 50 respondents. Open Data Kit was used to collect data and a response rate of 100% was achieved. Findings showed that the respondents were mostly male, aged between 28 to 34 years, who have worked for Uber for an average of 4.6 years, with most having either primary or secondary education.

The reward and remuneration system from the organizational side as well as the feedback system and trust from the customer-related side were found to be significant contributors to the drivers' motivation. On the other hand, training and development opportunities, the work environment as well as fair treatment were found to be correlated to the drivers' motivation but not at a significant level.

#### **5.3 Conclusion**

From the study, it was clear that Uber has focused on the motivation of its service suppliers from the traditional perspective of the employer-employee relationship. As such, it has addressed the motivation of its service suppliers relatively well from the organizational side on issues such as their remuneration and their training and development. On the flip side, there has been minimum focus in equally strengthening the motivation of the service

suppliers from the customer perspective. A lot of the concern-raising issues such as sexual harassment, verbal and physical abuse, discrimination, subjective feedback system, and lack of trust between the customers and the drivers were all customer-facing factors. Considering that the service suppliers, or in this case the drivers, interact more with the customers than the organization on a day-to-day basis, these customer-related concerns can easily trigger work dissatisfaction, high turnover rates, and lack of interest by potential female drivers who are often the victims.

#### **5.4 Recommendations**

Uber and other operations in SESTs need to rethink how to motivate their drivers on issues that are customer-facing. For instance, Uber can improve its feedback and driver rating system by incorporating some automatic factual entries that would add weight to the drivers' overall rating. Examples include: did the driver arrive to pick the customer within the suggested time by the app? Did the driver take the best route possible for the customer? Did the driver drop the customer at the destination within the estimated time? Did the driver reach out to the customer first when the ride was requested? How many cancelled rides does the driver have in a given period? All this information can be easily and automatically collected from the app before, during and after the ride, and then the weighted average of these entries together with the customer's feedback can then be used to determine the driver's rating.

Increasing trust between the drivers and customers can be achieved using technology. For instance, Uber should consider asking the drivers and customers to provide additional personal information that can then be used to determine and guarantee the trustworthiness of both the customers and drivers. Examples of the additional information include full names, national identity number, official address, age, gender, next of kin, criminal records, if any etcetera. Then using smart or intelligent devices, the information does not necessarily have to be shared with the other party; one just has to ascertain their identity using facial recognition, thump print, voice recognition, or One Time passcodes (OTPs) which then prompts the system to verify their identity and trustworthiness before the trip commences. To encourage more customers and drivers to participate and provide their information,

Uber can create premium accounts for the customers for preferential treatment and offer the drivers premium rates for providing trusted services.

Fair treatment can be improved by encouraging prompt reporting on any verbal, physical or sexual abuse, as well as discrimination. Reports should be comprehensively investigated by the internal team with support from the government and policing unit. The guilty parties, drivers or customers, should be immediately denied access to the app and blacklisted. The information should also be shared with other criminal investigation departments so as to warn the general public against such persons.

### **5.5 Limitations of the study**

Some respondents were not able to use the ODK tool on their own. As such, the help of a research assistant was necessitated to help the drivers to translate, interpret and enter the data on the online questionnaire. It is possible that during the translation, interpretation, and data entry, some responses were misunderstood or misrepresented.

### **5.6 Suggestions for Further Research**

This being one of the pioneer studies on the motivation of service suppliers from a triadic perspective, further studies can be done on the same or a similar topic using different methodologies, larger samples sizes and alternative analytical tools so as to beef up literature on the topic.

Additionally, the study focused on Uber drivers in Nairobi, Uber can commission future studies to focus on other cities in the world to ascertain whether the findings are consistent and provide customized recommendations for the operation.

## REFERENCES

- Adi, D.Y. (2000). *Motivation as a Means of Effective Staff Productivity in the Public Sector: A Case Study of Nigerian Immigration Service, Borno State of Nigeria*. Unpublished MPA Thesis. School University of Maiduguri Nigeria.
- Ahmed, S., & Burki, S. (2017). Empirical Analysis of Ride Sharing Applications in Karachi. *International Journal of Experiential Learning & Case Studies*, 2: 2 (December 2017) pp. 40-49
- Aleksić, M., Jerotijević, G., & Jerotijević, Z. (2019). *Modern approaches to employee motivation*. *Ekonomika*. 65. 121-133. 10.5937/ekonomika1902121A.
- Andreotti, A., Anselmi, G., Eichhorn T., Hoffmann C.P. and Micheli M. (2017). *Participation in the Sharing Economy*.
- Annamalai, T., Abdullah, A.G.K., & Alasidiyeen, N. J. (2010). The Mediating Effects of Perceived Organizational Support on the Relationships between Organizational Justice, Trust and Performance Appraisal in Malaysian Secondary Schools. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 13 (4), 623-632.
- Arvidsson, A. (2018). *Value and virtue in the sharing economy*. *The Sociological Review* 66 (2): 289–301, <https://doi.org/10.1177/0038026118758531>.
- Ashford, S.J., & Cummings, L.L. (1983). Feedback as an individual resource: personal strategies of creating information. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, Page 32, 370–398.
- Asim, M. (2013). Impact of Motivation on Employee Performance with Effect of Training: Specific to Education Sector of Pakistan. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, Volume 3, Issue 9, September 2013 1 ISSN 2250-3153
- Babić, M., and Lukić, Z. (2008). *Management - theory, functions, institutional aspects and corporate governance*. Banja Luka: Ekonomski fakultet

- Balachandran, I., Hamzah I., (2017). The influence of customer satisfaction on ride-sharing services in Malaysia. *International Journal of Accounting & Business Management*, Vol. 5 (No.2), 2017 ISSN: 2289-4519.
- Beltran, N.J., De Jesus, R., Alipio, L.R., Maynite, E., Clemente, C., Gonzales, NR., & Silagan, N.J. (2018). *The untapped impact: Struggles and subsequent condition of Metro Manila taxi industry amid operations of Transport Network Companies*. <https://doi.org/10.1051/mateconf/201927201033>.
- Bendoly, E., van Wezel, W., & Bachrach, D.G. (2015). *The handbook of behavioral operations management: Social and psychological dynamics in production and service settings*. Oxford University Press.
- Benoit, S., Bakerb, T.L., Boltonc, R.N., Gruberd, T., Kandampullye J. (2017). A triadic framework for collaborative consumption (CC): Motives, activities and resources & capabilities of actors. *Journal of Business Research*.
- Berger, T., Frey B.C., Levin G., Danda R.S. (2018). *Uber Happy? Work and Wellbeing in the ‘Gig Economy*. Oxford Martin School, University of Oxford; School of Economics.
- Bergiel, B.E., Nguyen, V.Q., Clenney, B.F., Taylor, G.S., (2009). *Human resource Practice* (11<sup>th</sup> ed), London: Kogan Page Limited
- Bhatti, S. (2007). Human resource management. A competitive advantage. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations* 42(4), 746-751
- Blanchard, K., & Johnson S. (2015). *The New One-Minute Manager*. First edition, William Morrow & company. New York.
- Bloomberg. (2013, June 11). *Uber’s Other Legal Mess: Drivers Sue Over Missing Tips*. <http://www.bloomberg.com/bw/articles/2013-08-29/ubers-other-legal-mess-drivers-sue-over-missing-tips>.
- Bong, M. (1996). Problems in Academic Motivation Research and Advantages and Disadvantages of Their Solutions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, Vol. 21, No.2: 149-165



- Botsman, R., & Rogers R. (2011). *What's Mine is Yours: The Rise of Collaborative Consumption*. New York, NY: Harper Business.
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2018). *Business Research Methods*. Fifth Edition. Oxford University Press.
- Burns, R.B., & Burns, R.A. (2008). *Business research methods and statistics using SPSS*. Sage Publishing LTD.
- Burt, R.S. (1992). *Structural Holes: The Social Structure of Competition*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge MA.
- Čambalíková, A. (2021). *Modern trends in business management in the light of globalization*. SHS Web of Conferences. 92. 02009. 10.1051/shsconf/20219202009.
- CEOC. (2015). *Uber Technologies Inc.: Managing Opportunities and Challenges*. <http://harbert.auburn.edu>
- Chaudhary, N., and Sharma, B. (2012). Impact of Employee Motivation on Performance. *International Journal of Business Trends and Technology*- volume2 Issue4- 2012
- Chin, M. (2017, November 14). *Uber finally shows upfront pricing, following in Lyft's footsteps*. Mshable.com. <https://mashable.com/2017/11/14/uber-introduces-upfront-pricing/>
- Choi, S. (2011). *Organizational Justice and Employee Work Attitudes: The Federal Case*. *American Review of Public Administration*, 41, 185-204
- Covey, S. (2006). *Speed of Trust*. <https://www.scribd.com/book/225123601/The-SPEED-of-Trust-The-One-Thing-that-Changes-Everything>
- Croson, R., Schultz, K., Siemsen, E. and Yeo, M.L. (2013). Behavioral operations: the state of the field. *Journal of Operations Management*, Vol. 31 Nos 1-2, pp. 1-5
- Dessler, G., (2007). *Fundamentals of Human Resource Management*. Beograd: Data Status.

- Digitalist Magazine. (2018, April 26). *The evolution of today's next-generation sharing economy businesses*.
- Dillon, R.S. (2018). *Respect*. *Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy*. <https://plato.stanford.edu/entries/respect/#KanAccResForPer>.
- Dulock, H.L. (1993). Research Design: Descriptive Research. *Journal of Pediatric Oncology Nursing*, 10(4):154-157. doi:10.1177/104345429301000406
- Eckerd, S., & Bendoly, E. (2015). *The Study of Behavioral Operations*, In E. Bendoly, W. van Wezel, & D. G. Bachrach (Eds.), *The Handbook of Behavioral Operations Management* (pp. 3–23). Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199357215.003.0001>
- Economic Policy Institute, (2018, May 15), *Uber and the labor market: Uber drivers' compensation, wages, and the scale of Uber and the gig economy*. <https://www.epi.org/publication/uber-and-the-labor-market-uber-drivers-compensation-wages-and-the-scale-of-uber-and-the-gig-economy/>
- Ekabu, P.K. (2018). *Motivation factors and turnover intentions for teachers in public secondary schools in Meru county, Kenya*. The University of Nairobi
- Elding, D. (2005). *Modelling Employee Motivation and Performance*. A thesis for School of Manufacturing & Mechanical Engineering the University of Birmingham.
- Elnaga, A., & Imran, A. (2013). The Effect of Training on Employee Performance. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 5(4), 137-147.
- Eurofound and International Labor Organization. (2019). *Working conditions in a global perspective*, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, and International Labor Organization, Geneva
- Federal Trade Commission. (2016). *The 'Sharing' Economy Issues Facing Platforms, Participants & Regulators*. A Staff Report

- Field, J.M., Victorino, L., Buell, R.W., Dixon, M.J., Goldstein, S.M., Menor, L.J., Pullman, M.E., Roth, A.V., Secchi, E., and Zhang, J.J. (2018). *Service Operations: What's Next?* Management Faculty Publications. Paper 367.
- Financial Times. (2015, September 9). *Uber and Didi in \$1bn China incentives*. <https://www.ft.com/content/e85cc5fa-5473-11e5-8642-453585f2cfd>
- Fitzsimmons, J.A., & Fitzsimmons, M.J. (2001). *Service Management: Operations, Strategy, and Information Technology*. McGraw-Hill, New York
- Forbes. (2014, October 8). *Uber Skimps on Driver Training, Then Charges Drivers \$65 For Basic Driver Skills Course*. <https://www.forbes.com/sites/ellenhuet/2014/10/08/uber-skimps-on-driver-training-then-charges-drivers-65-for-basic-driver-skills-course/?sh=2152442122b4>
- Geister, S., Konradt, U., & Hertel, G. (2006). *Effects of Process Feedback on Motivation, Satisfaction, and Performance in Virtual Teams*. *Small Group Research*. 37. 459-489. 10.1177/1046496406292337.
- Giannoccaro, I., (2013). *Complex systems methodologies for behavioral research in operations management: NK fitness landscape*. In I. Giannoccaro (Ed.), *Behavioral issues in operations management: New trends in design, management, and methodologies*, London, UK: Springer-Verlag.
- Gill, J., Johnson, P., & Clark, M. (2010). *Research Methods for Managers*. SAGE Publications
- Gilson, L., Palmer, N., Schneider, H. (2005). *Trust and health worker performance: exploring a conceptual framework using South African evidence*. *Soc Sci Med*. 2005;61(7):1418–29.
- Gino, F., & Pisano, G. (2006). Behavioral operations. *Working Paper, Harvard Business School*.

- Gloss, M., Mcgregor, M., Brown, B. (2016). *Designing for Labour: Uber and the On-Demand Mobile Workforce*. ISBN 978-1-4503-3362-7, DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1145/2858036.2858476>
- Goldhaber, D., Gross, B., & Player, A. (2007). Are public schools really losing their best? Assessing the career transitions of teachers and their implications for the quality of teacher workforce. *CALDER working paper 12*. Washington DC: *The Urban Institute*.
- Govender, S., & Parumasur, S.B. (2010). The relationship between employee motivation and job involvement, *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 13(3), 237–253. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajems.v13i3.102>
- Grothaus, M. (2017). *Uber is using psychological tricks to manipulate its drivers*”, *Fast Company*. <https://www.fastcompany.com/4033686/uber-is-using-psychological-tricks-to-manipulate-its-drivers>.
- Gupta, A., Gupta, A., Singh, S., & Surana, V. (2019). Factors affecting adoption of food delivery apps. *International Journal of Advanced Research*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.21474/IJAR01/9871>
- Hackman, J.R. & Oldham, G.R. (1974). *The job diagnostic survey: An instrument for the diagnosis of jobs and the evaluation of job redesign projects*. Department of Administrative Sciences: Yale University.
- Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., & Anderson, R. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis*, 7th Edition.: Pearson Prentice Hall
- Hassan, S., (2012), “Does Fair Treatment in the Workplace Matter? An Assessment of Organizational fairness and Employee Outcome in Government”, *The American Review of Public Administration*, XX (X), pp. 1-9.
- Hellriegel, D., Slocum, J.W., & Woodman, R.W. (1998). *Organizational behavior 2*, (8th ed.), Cincinnati, OH: South-Western College Publishing.

- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., Snyderman B.B. (1959). *The Motivation to Work*, (2nd ed.), New York: John Wiley. ISBN 0471373893.
- Hoffman, B. (2015). *Motivation for Learning and Performance*, Academic Press, San Diego, CA.
- Hosmer, D., & Lemeshow, S. (2000). *Applied logistic regression*. Second Edition: John Wiley and Sons, Inc
- <https://www.uber.com/legal/terms/ke/> on 22nd January 2018.
- Isaksen, J. (2000). Constructing Meaning Despite the Drudgery of Repetitive Work. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, 40(3), 84-107.
- Katz, R. (2013). Motivating Technical Professionals Today. *IEEE Engineering Management Review*, Vol. 41, No. 1, March 2013, pp. 28–38
- Kim, S.E., & Rubianty D. (2011). *Perceived fairness of Performance Appraisals in Federal Government: Does It Matter?* Review of Public Personnel Administration, 31, 329-348
- Kleinbaum, D., & Klein M. (2010). *Logistic regression: A self-learning text*. 3rd Edition, Springer.
- Kluger, N.A., & DeNisi A. (1996). The Effects of Feedback Interventions on Performance: A Historical Review, a Meta-Analysis, and a Preliminary Feedback Intervention Theory. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 119, No. 2, 254-284.
- Lam, C.T., & Liu, M. (2017). *Demand and Consumer Surplus in the On-demand Economy: the Case of Ride Sharing*. <https://ide.mit.edu/sites/default/files/publications/SSRN-id2997190.pdf>
- Lee, M., Verma, R. and Roth, A.V. (2015). Understanding customer value in technology enabled services: a numerical taxonomy based on usage and utility. *Service Science*, Vol. 7 No. 3, pp. 227-248.
- Lee, Z.W.Y., Chan T.K.H., Cheung C.M.K. (2018). *Why people participate in the sharing economy: an empirical investigation of Uber*, Internet research., 28 (3). 829-850.

- Li, D., Liu, G., Jia, F., & Sun, H. (2019). Sharing economy–based service triads: Towards an integrated framework and a research agenda. *Journal of cleaner production*.
- Li, M., Choi, T.Y. (2009). Triads in services outsourcing: bridge, bridge decay and bridge transfer. *J. Supply Chain Management*. 45, 27e39.
- Lin, H.F. (2007). Effects of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation on employee knowledge sharing intentions. *Journal of Information Science*, <https://doi.org/10.1177/0165551506068174>
- Lin, S.W, & Lo, Louis Y.S., (2016). *Motivation for using the social commerce website in the sharing economy: a two-factor theory perspective*, PACIS 2016 Proceedings. 108. <http://aisel.aisnet.org/pacis2016/108>
- Loch, C.H., & Wu, Y. (2007). *Behavioral Operations Management, Foundations and Trends in Technology, Information and Operations Management*, Vol. 1, No. 3 (2005) 121–232
- Maina. S.M. (2012). *Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methods Simplified*, Nairobi, Frajopa Printers Mall
- Manji, L. (2020, January 29). *Changing Employee Benefits in a Modern Gig Economy*. Senior Programme Manager - Nesta Challenges.
- Marchand, A., Walter, S., & Cooper, T. (2010). *Beyond Abundance: Self-Interest Motives for Sustainable Consumption in Relation to Product Perception and Preferences*, *Sustainability*, 2, 1431–1447.
- Matar, L., & Aoun G. (2019). Motivation of the sharing economy users in the middle east: the case of Lebanon. *Journal of Internet and e-Business Studies*, Vol. 2019 (2019), Article ID 539198, 9 pages, ISSN: 2169-0391 DOI: 10.5171/2019.539198
- McAfee, A. & Brynjolfsson, E. (2017). *Machine, Platform, Crowd: Harnessing Our Digital Future*, W.W. Norton & Co., New York NY

- Min, S., Kalwani, M.U., & Robinson, W.T. (2006). Market Pioneer and Early Follower Survival Risks: A Contingency Analysis of Really New Versus Incrementally New Product-Market. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 70, (January 2006), pp.15-33.
- Mingming, C., (2007). *Sharing economy: A review and agenda for future research*. University of Technology Sydney, UTS Business School, Ultimo, NSW 2007, Australia
- Molobi, L., Kabiraj, S., & Siddik, N.A. (2020). *Behavioral intention factors influencing sharing economy innovations: An exploratory research of Uber in South Africa*. Indian Institute of management, DOI: 10.1177/0972622520963253
- Myasari, L., & Haryanto C.H. (2018). Motivational factors of collaborative consumption in the era of sharing economy. *International Journal of Business*.
- Nábrádi, A., & Kovács, T.Z. (2020). *Types of platforms based collaborative economy and Its potential areas in agribusiness*. WBJAERD, Vol. 2, No. 1
- Nagarajan, M., & Sošić, G. (2008). Game-theoretic analysis of cooperation among supply chain agents: review and extensions. *European Journal of Operational Research*, Vol. 187 No. 3, pp. 719-745.
- Nasdaq. (2020, April 16). *Guidance Due to COVID-19 Impact*”, RTTNews.com. <https://www.nasdaq.com/articles/uber-withdraws-fy20-guidance-due-to-covid-19-impact-2020-04-16>.
- Nassazi, N. (2013). *Effects of training on employee performance: Evidence from Uganda*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation), University of Applied Sciences, Vassa, Finland
- Noddings, N. (1984). *Caring, a feminine approach to ethics & moral education*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Noddings, N., (2002). *Starting at Home: Caring and social policy*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

- Obstfeld, O. (2005). *Social networks, the tertius iungens orientation, and involvement in innovation*. *Adm. Sci. Q.* 50, 100e130.
- Odendaal, A., & Roodt G. (2003). *Basic motivation concepts*, in S.P. Robbins, A. Odendaal & G. Roodt. (2003). *Organizational behavior: global and Southern African perspectives*. Pearson Education: South Africa: 130–149. O'DRISCOLL, M.P.
- Ojeleye, Y. (2017). The Impact of Remuneration on Employees' Performance: A Study of Abdul Gusau Polytechnic, Talata-Mafara and State College of Education Maru, Zamfara State. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review (Nigerian Chapter)*. 4. 10.12816/0037554
- Okello, D.R.O., & Gilson L. (2015). *Exploring the influence of trust relationships on motivation in the health sector: a systematic review*. *Human resources for health*.
- Olson, K. (2013). *National Study Quantifies Reality of the “Sharing Economy” Movement*. [http://www.campbell-mithun.com/678\\_national-study-quantifiesreality-of-the-sharing-economy-movement](http://www.campbell-mithun.com/678_national-study-quantifiesreality-of-the-sharing-economy-movement).
- Overgoor, J., Wulczyn, E., & Potts C. (2012). *Trust propagation with mixed-effects models*. in Breslin J.G., Ellison N.B., Shanahan J.G., & Tufekci Z., (eds), *Proceedings of the Sixth International AAAI Conference on Weblogs and Social Media*, The AAAI Press.
- Oweyele, S. (2017). *Factors influencing employee motivation and its impact on employee performance*, Centria University of Applied Sciences.
- Pathak, S.D., Wu, Z., & Johnston, D. (2014). Toward a structural view of co-opetition in supply networks. *Journal of Operational Management*, 32, 254e267.
- Peter, N., Nenad, J., Arup, V., & Svetlozar, N. (2021). The effects of technological supervision on gig workers: organizational control and motivation of Uber, taxi, and limousine drivers. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, DOI:10.1080/09585192.2020.1867614



- Pettica-Harris, A., deGama N., & Ravishankar, M.N. (2018). *Postcapitalist precarious work and those in the 'drivers' seat: Exploring the motivations and lived experiences of Uber drivers in Canada*, Organization 2020, Vol. 27(1) 36–59
- PricewaterhouseCoopers. (2014, August 15). *Five Key Sharing Economy Sectors Could Generate £9 Billion of UK Revenues by 2025* [Press release]. [http://pwc.blogs.com/press\\_room/2014/08/five-key-sharing-economy-sectors-could-generate-9-billion-of-uk-revenues-by-2025.html](http://pwc.blogs.com/press_room/2014/08/five-key-sharing-economy-sectors-could-generate-9-billion-of-uk-revenues-by-2025.html).
- Quinones, A., & Augustine A. (2015). *Technology and Trust: How the Sharing Economy is Changing Consumer Behavior*. U.S. Banking Watch, 19 November 2015
- Ramlall, S. (2003). *Organizational Application. Managing Employee Retention as a Strategy for Increasing Organizational Competitiveness*. Applied H.R.M. Research, 8(2), 63-72
- Ramya, N., & Dr. Mohamed A.S.A. (2016). Factors affecting consumer buying behavior, *International Journal of Applied Research*.
- Rothberg, G. (2005). Fourth Quarter. The Role of Idea in the Managers Workplace: Theory and Practice. *Pakistan Management Review*, XLII, 4, 48-73
- Rubin, E.V. (2011). *Exploring the Links Between Procedural Fairness and Union Membership in Federal Government*. Review of Public Personnel Administration, 31, 128-142
- Sampson, S.E. (2001). *Understanding Service Businesses: Applying Principles of the Unified Service Theory*. John Wiley & Sons, New York.
- Sampson, S.E., & Froehle, C.M. (2006). *Foundations and implications of a proposed unified services theory*. Production and Operations Management, Vol. 15, No. 2, pp.329–343
- Satka, E. (2019). *The impact of remuneration on employee performance in the trading company*. Agricultural University of Tirana.

- Schiel, F. (2015). *The Phenomenon of the Sharing Economy in Germany: Consumer Motivations for Participating in Collaborative Consumption Schemes*. University of Twente, Berlin.
- Schor, J. (2014). *Debating the sharing economy*. <https://www.greattransition.org/publication/debating-the-sharing-economy>.
- Scott, S., & Craig, F. (2006). Foundations and Implications of a Proposed Unified Services Theory. *Production and Operations Management*. 15. 329 - 343. 10.1111/j.1937-5956.2006.tb00248. x.
- Sharabi, M. (2015). *Customer Focus*, in Su Mi Dahlggaard-Park (Ed.) *Encyclopedia of Quality and the Service Economy*, Sage Pub. (pp. 114-118)
- Sijabat, R. (2019). Sharing economy: a study on the factors influencing users' motivation to use ride sharing platforms. *DeReMa Jurnal Manajemen* Vol. 14 No. 1, May 2019.
- Singh, M. & Singh, U. (2012). *Research Methods in Education*, New Delhi, University Science Press.
- Slack, N., Chambers S., & Johnston R. (2010). *Operations management*. 6th edition. United Kingdom: Pearson Education Limited
- Smith, M.K. (2020)., *The Ethics of Care and Education*. <https://infed.org/mobi/nel-noddings-the-ethics-of-care-and-education/>
- Steers, R. (1987). *Motivation and Work Behaviour*. London: McGraw Hill
- Sundararajan, A. (2016). *The Sharing Economy: The End of Employment and the Rise of Crowd Capitalism*, MIT Press, Boston MA.
- Sweet, S., & Martin, K. (2011). *Data analysis with SPSS: A first course in applied statistics*. 4th Edition.: Pearson publisher
- Taherdoost, H. (2016). Sampling Methods in Research Methodology; How to Choose a Sampling Technique for Research. *International Journal of Advance Research in Management*, 5(2), 18-27.

- Thaler, R.H. (2016). Behavioral economics: past, present, and future. *American Economic Review*, Vol. 106 No. 7, pp. 1577-1600.
- The Employment Act (2007)
- The Guardian. (2019, June 1). *Uber to ban riders with low ratings: will you pass the test?*  
<https://www.theguardian.com/technology/2019/may/31/uber-to-ban-riders-with-low-ratings>
- Kenya Population and Housing Census. (2019). *Volume I: Population by County and Sub-County*. knbs.or.ke. Retrieved 7 November 2019.
- The National Broadcasting Company. (2020, November 30). *Uber made big promises in Kenya. Drivers say it's ruined their lives.*  
<https://www.nbcnews.com/news/world/uber-made-big-promises-kenya-drivers-say-it-s-ruined-n1247964>
- The Work Injury Benefits Act (2007)
- Tussyadiah, I.P. (2015). *An Exploratory Study on Drivers and Deterrents of Collaborative Consumption in Travel*. *Information & Communication Technologies in Tourism 2015*, pp. 817–83
- Uber Website. (2021). *How star ratings work.*  
<https://www.uber.com/us/en/drive/basics/how-ratings-work/#:~:text=The%20Uber%20platform%20features%20a,500%20ratings%20from%20your%20riders.>
- Van Wingerden, J., Van der Stoep, J. (2018). *The motivational potential of meaningful work: Relationships with strengths use, work engagement, and performance*. *PLoS ONE* 13(6): e0197599. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0197599>
- Vecchio, R. P. (2000). *Organizational behavior core concepts*. (4th ed.). Fort Worth, TX: The Dryden Press.

- Vox. (2019, December 7). *It's not just passengers being assaulted in Ubers. Drivers are at risk, too.* <https://www.vox.com/2019/12/7/20998646/uber-safety-report-sexual-assault-lyft-caSEs>
- Walters, K., & Rodriguez, J. (2017). *The Importance of Training and Development in Employee Performance and Evaluation.*
- Wambaa, I.W. (2018). *An analysis of uber drivers' employment Status in accordance with the Kenyan Labor Law.* Strathmore University Law School
- Williams, J. (2010). *Arousal-Performance Relationships in Applied sport psychology: Personal growth to peak performance.* (6th ed., p. 229). Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Zervas, G., Proserpio D., & Byers J. (2015). A first look at online reputation on Airbnb, where every stay is above average', *SSRN Electronic Journal*, [http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstra1938ct\\_id=2554500](http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstra1938ct_id=2554500).

# QUESTIONNAIRE

## Instructions to interviewees

*This survey is being undertaken courtesy of the University of Nairobi as fulfillment of a Master of Business Administration degree requirement. The study aims to understand what motivates Uber drivers who, unlike in traditional organizations, are both service providers and customers of Uber Inc.*

*The interview will take about 30 minutes and the answers you provide will be completely anonymous. There are no direct benefits to participating in the survey, but your answers will provide insights for Uber and other ride-sharing companies to formulate better motivation policies for their drivers. It is okay if you don't want to participate in this survey or don't like to answer specific questions, without any consequences. Your answers and participation will have no effect on your job at any point, therefore we will appreciate your honest answers to the best of your ability. You may also decide to stop the survey at any time.*

## Section 1: Demographic and general information

ID	Question	Response	Code
1.1	Gender	Male Female	1 2
1.2	What is your age?	Numeric	
1.3	What is your highest level of education	Primary school Secondary school College certificate University degree	1 2 3 4
1.4	How many years have you worked for Uber	Number	
1.5	What is your current rating on the Uber app?	Number	
1.6	Which type of vehicle used for Uber	Uber chapchap UberX Boda	1 2 3
1.7	In average, how many hours do you work in a day	Number	
1.8	Do you have any other sources of income apart from being an Uber driver?	Yes No	1 0
1.9	Are you the main income earner for your family?	Yes No	1 2

## Section 2: The remuneration and reward system

*Instructions: Please indicate the extent to you agree or disagree with the following*

ID	The remuneration and reward system	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree/disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
2.1	I get enough pay to fulfill basic needs	1	2	3	4	5
2.2	I feel that my income is in accordance with my education,	1	2	3	4	5
2.3	The pay I get from this job is equal or higher than my peers in the same business	1	2	3	4	5
2.4	Uber's pay is competitive which encourages me to stay	1	2	3	4	5
2.5	Uber's reward system is fair	1	2	3	4	5
2.6	The reward system prompts me to work harder					

## Section 3: Training and development opportunities

*Instructions: Please indicate the extent to you agree or disagree with the following job?*

ID	T & D opportunities	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree/disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
3.1	Uber provides training opportunities for its drivers.	1	2	3	4	5
3.2	I feel that I have developed skill-wise and as person in this job	1	2	3	4	5

3.3	There are skills that am lacking which would help me perform better	1	2	3	4	5
-----	---	---	---	---	---	---

#### Section 4: The working environment

*Instructions: Please indicate to what extent the following statements are true or false.*

ID	The working environment	Very false	False	Neither true/false	True	Very true
4.1	I rarely work more than 8 hours a day.	1	2	3	4	5
4.2	The job allows me time to rest and be with my family and friends as well as attend other important social events.	1	2	3	4	5
4.3	This job is physically straining	1	2	3	4	5
4.4	I get support for any work-related issues that may arise	1	2	3	4	5
4.5	I relate very well with other Uber drivers, and we get to socialize occasionally	1	2	3	4	5

#### Section 5: The feedback system

*Instructions: Please indicate to what extent the following are statements are true or false.*

ID	The feedback system	Very False	False	Neither true/false	True	Very True
5.1	The rating by customers is fair	1	2	3	4	5
5.2	I have been a victim of subjective rating before	1	2	3	4	5
5.3	I would prefer another feedback system than what we have currently	1	2	3	4	5
5.4	I don't let my emotions interfere with my customer ratings	1	2	3	4	5

## Section 6: Fair treatment

*Instructions: Please indicate the extent to you agree or disagree with the following*

ID	Fair treatment	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither true/false	Agree	Strongly Agree
6.1	I have been sexually harassed by customer before	1	2	3	4	5
6.2	I have been verbally or physically abused by a customer before	1	2	3	4	5
6.3	I have been disrespected by a customer before	1	2	3	4	5
6.4	I have been discriminated due to my gender, age, race, tribe by a customer before	1	2	3	4	5
6.5	I feel that Uber promotes fair treatment of drivers	1	2	3	4	5

## Section 7: Trust

*Instructions: Please indicate the extent to you agree or disagree with the following*

ID	Trust	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither true/false	Agree	Strongly Agree
7.1	I feel that I can always trust my customers	1	2	3	4	5
7.2	I feel that most of my customers trust me	1	2	3	4	5
7.3	I am comfortable to drive/ride my customers regardless of time of the day or location	1	2	3	4	5
7.4	My current driver rating on the app is fair and objective	1	2	3	4	5



## Section 8: Level of motivation

*Instructions: Please indicate the extent to you agree or disagree with the following*

ID	Trust	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither true/false	Agree	Strongly Agree
8.1	I am more attached to Uber than other ride-sharing companies	1	2	3	4	5
8.2	I highly recommend Uber driving to anyone looking for work	1	2	3	4	5
8.3	I feel that my output matches my effort and input	1	2	3	4	5
8.4	I rarely work overtime	1	2	3	4	5
8.5	I would choose driving for Uber over any other equally paying job	1	2	3	4	5
8.6	I am likely to be still working for Uber in the next 6 months.	1	2	3	4	5
8.7	I experience frequent back aches	1	2	3	4	5
8.8	I get time exercise at least once a week	1	2	3	4	5

*Statement 1: This marks the end of the interview. Thank you very much for your time, have a great day.*

## MOTIVATION UBER DRIVERS

### ORIGINALITY REPORT

11%	10%	3%	4%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

OK  
08/11/2021

### PRIMARY SOURCES

1	erepository.uonbi.ac.ke Internet Source	2%
2	ir-library.ku.ac.ke Internet Source	1%
3	erepository.uonbi.ac.ke:8080 Internet Source	1%
4	hdl.handle.net Internet Source	1%
5	www.tandfonline.com Internet Source	1%
6	Erepository.uonbi.ac.ke Internet Source	<1%
7	repository.out.ac.tz Internet Source	<1%
8	Submitted to Kenyatta University Student Paper	<1%
9	pdfs.semanticscholar.org Internet Source	<1%

10	aisel.aisnet.org Internet Source	<1%
----	-------------------------------------	-----

11	ir.kabarak.ac.ke	<1%
----	------------------	-----

