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"Incentivizing Success: Revealing the Power of Motivated Employees in Corporate Triumph"

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INTRODUCTION

This master's thesis investigates the effectiveness of incentive systems in enhancing employee motivation and performance, with a particular focus on the case of “Banca Nazionale del Lavoro” (BNL). Spanning eight distinct chapters, this work aims to explore the extensive domain of incentive systems, starting from their theoretical foundations to the analysis of their practical application within a real-world corporate context.

The first chapter introduces the context and objectives of the study, laying the groundwork for the in-depth investigation that follows. The second chapter will cover the literature review. This section will analyze motivation and its related theories, performance, and how these elements interrelate with one another. Subsequently, the third chapter will examine the structure of the incentive system. This chapter delves into the specific case of BNL, examining how the banking institution implements both monetary and non-monetary incentives to maximize its personnel's output.

The fourth chapter formulates the research question that guides the entire study, aiming to decipher the actual effectiveness of these systems in the workplace. In the fifth chapter, the research methodology will outline the data collection and analysis techniques used. The sixth chapter will continue by presenting the statistical analysis techniques employed.

The results of the analysis are presented in the seventh chapter, providing a critical evaluation of how the collected data responds to the initial hypotheses. Finally, the eighth chapter concludes the thesis by summarizing the main findings and discussing the theoretical and practical implications of the study. This final chapter also aims to propose the best solution when people has to design an incentive system emphasizing the importance of such strategies in the contemporary work landscape.

1. WHY INCENTIVES SYSTEM?

The evolution of human resource management into a prominent discipline has enabled contemporary organizations to acknowledge that employee performance is a fundamental determinant of organizational success (Fadillah, R. B. M. Y. D., & Ismail, B. 2018). Nowadays in contemporary corporate environments, the capacity to stimulate and involve personnel is paramount for achieving success.

In this organizational landscape, the pursuit of employee incentives, particularly in the form of financial rewards, plays a crucial role as a potent motivator (Hameed, A., & Waheed, A. 2011). Employee motivation is "a reflection of the level of energy, commitment, and creativity that a company's workers bring to their jobs" (Shahzadi, I., Javed, A., Pirzada, S. S., Nasreen, S., & Khanam, F. 2014). This indicates that motivated individuals within the workforce are inclined to demonstrate elevated levels of energy, a strong commitment to their professional duties, and proficiency in generating innovative solutions or ideas.

According to Barber and Bertz (2000), incentive systems facilitate organizations in motivating high-potential individuals, thereby fostering elevated levels of performance.

Incentives are instruments designed to affect specific behavioral changes (Hicks, V. A. 2003) by encouraging desired actions. This is why incentive pay, as emphasized by Armstrong (2009), entails compensating employees based on the attainment of specific performance targets to promote improvement. At this point, it becomes apparent that incentive programs revolve around two primary factors: employee motivation and recognition of their achievements.

These programs encompass both financial benefits, such as bonuses, commissions, profit-sharing, and stock options, and non-financial rewards, including promotions, increased vacation time, and training opportunities. While their specific objectives

may vary based on organizational needs, incentive programs commonly share one of the most important goals: a corporate culture based on “performance and excellence” (Katekhaye, D., & Sonawane, A. 2024).

The implementation of incentive programs was undertaken to motivate personnel to enhance performance levels in the workplace. Over the years, various studies in this field have found that recognition and rewards exert a significant impact on employees' perception of their roles and, consequently, their behavior within the organization. As Milkovich (2011) affirms “individuals who are skilled and knowledgeable may find their motivation influenced by incentives that align with their values and preferences”.

1.1 RESEARCH QUESTION

Considering the importance of incentive systems in enhancing employee performance, this thesis posits the central research question: *“How can a strategic incentive system cultivate employee motivation, fostering a direct link to their performance?”*. The question emerges from an understanding that while various forms of compensation and recognition are prevalent, their strategic alignment with corporate objectives remains a complex endeavor.

This inquiry is driven by the critical need to understand how strategically designed and implemented incentive strategies can enhance employee motivation, thereby positively impacting overall organizational performance. Therefore, exploring how effectively designed incentive systems can act as levers of motivation will provide valuable insights into their potential to transform employee engagement and, by extension, organizational performance.

Through rigorous analysis, this thesis aims to demonstrate the effectiveness of incentive systems by illustrating their tangible

impact, initially at the level of motivation and subsequently on behavioral dynamics within the organizational context.

1.2 BNL CASE

The selection of *"Banca Nazionale del Lavoro" (BNL)* as the case study for this research is intentional and stems from its unique and comprehensive incentive system, which provides substantial relevance for analyzing the effects of incentives on employee motivation and, consequently, on corporate success. As a subsidiary of a French banking group (BNP Paribas), BNL has developed a sophisticated blend of direct remuneration and variable bonuses that reflect both the strategic objectives of the organization and the specific needs of its workforce.

BNL's incentive structure includes structural increases in gross annual pay (GAP), which may coincide with career advancements or represent salary increases without a change in rank. This aspect of the system is critical for maintaining competitive salary scales and for recognizing individual merit in a dynamic labor market.

Additionally, BNL administers variable bonuses tied to the achievement of predefined corporate objectives. These objectives vary significantly between departments: in sales networks, they are typically quantitative and directly measurable, such as sales volume, while in back-office functions and central management, they may be more qualitative and subject to personal evaluation. This bifurcation reflects a broader trend in modern organizations to tailor evaluation criteria to specific employee roles.

A distinctive feature of BNL's incentive system is its focus on balancing objective and subjective evaluations, reflecting the growing trend among organizations to personalize performance evaluation systems. Furthermore, Italian legislation provides tax incentives for certain types of welfare-related benefits, such as tuition reimbursement or pension fund contributions, which BNL leverages to enhance the overall well-being of its employees.

BNL's incentive system is not limited to recognizing past or current performance but is also designed to guide and motivate future employee behavior. The implementation of these incentives is crucial for fostering a corporate culture that values both individual performance and contributions to the collective success of the organization.

The study of BNL's incentive strategies provides a valuable opportunity to observe how theories on human resource management and employee motivation can be successfully applied in real-world contexts. This practical analysis helps overcome the limitations of purely theoretical discussions, providing a solid platform for testing the effectiveness of various incentive strategies and refining existing theoretical models. Therefore, the case of BNL not only enhances the understanding of strategic incentive systems but also contributes to broader organizational studies, illustrating how effectively designed incentives can influence employee behavior and organizational outcomes, ultimately becoming a determinant of corporate success.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Increasing employee motivation to achieve corporate goals is a major difficulty in modern enterprises, whether private or public. Workers' personal goals may differ from those of the business, creating a difficulty for collaboration. Recognizing that well-motivated personnel are great assets in pushing organizational operations toward goal attainment, motivation becomes an important consideration.

Organizational management must recognize the value of employee perks as a motivator for achieving goals and remaining competitive (Ayandele and Etim, 2020).

Previous research highlights the significant link between remuneration, incentives, employee behavior, and organizational success. Pritchard et al (1988) conducted the first study on this topic. Their research demonstrated that group-level feedback increased productivity by 50% compared to the baseline, group goal setting led to a 75% increase and the implementation of group incentives saw a 76% improvement over the baseline.

Incentives are classified as significant drivers of employee performance. When an employee receives fair compensation, the organization instils in them the belief that their contributions are valued. Moreover, when the employee knows that their employer prioritizes their well-being and is dedicated to fostering their personal development and growth, they are more motivated to exert greater effort and effectiveness in their work. Sajuyigbe (2013) compares employees to the engines that drive the organizational vehicle, with incentives serving as the initial fuel.

Incentives, whether tangible or intangible, represent the most significant and valuable elements that influence employee job satisfaction (Syeda Ayat-e-Zainab Ali, Maryam Afridi, 2016). To ensure the continuous success of an incentive program, constant monitoring, along with regular evaluations and necessary adjustments, is crucial. The program must be closely aligned with

the organization's goals and values. Ongoing evaluation and constant feedback are essential to keeping the program dynamic and motivating for employees, allowing the identification of both areas of success and opportunities for improvement. The fundamental principle behind incentives is that rewarding a specific action or task increases the likelihood that the individual will engage in that activity in the future.

According to Okoye and Ezejiofor (2013), motivating employees through incentives is both an indicator of efficiency and competitiveness and a measure of an organization's operational effectiveness.

The absence of a dedicated workforce presents an obstacle to achieving a company's stated objectives. Lee's (2015) study demonstrates that financial incentives have a significant impact on the performance of medical personnel, increasing motivation through the provision of such incentives. Basu and Kiernan's (2016) research further confirm that financial incentives can promote positive changes in healthy lifestyles. These studies are closely related to the theme of motivation examined in the present research. Therefore, the analyses conducted in these previous studies have prompted the initiation of the current study.

2.1 EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

The word motivation is derived from the Latin word "movere", which means to move (Kretiner, 1998). Motivation is defined as "those psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction, and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal-oriented" (Mitchell, 1982). Robbins (1993) defined motivation as the "willingness to exert high levels of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need".

Regarding work motivation, Pinder in 1988 provided the following definition: "Work motivation is a set of energetic forces that originate both within and outside an individual, to initiate

work-related behavior and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration" (Pinder,1988).

From a corporate perspective, motivation is a key element that managers leverage to drive and direct employee behavior according to the organization's established plans. Based on this understanding, it can be asserted that corporate leadership can more effectively reap the benefits of having motivated employees when they are aware of the specific reinforcements required to individually motivate their staff.

Everyone is motivated by different factors. In this context, each manager must be able to identify the appropriate levers to stimulate their employees, enabling more precise task assignments and more effective planning of various activities. The challenge here is that motivation is an individual construct, meaning that people can be motivated by a particular combination of factors.

Motivation theories provide a conceptual framework for understanding the factors that drive employees to engage and pursue work-related goals. Although these theories differ in terms of the needs individuals seek to satisfy, they agree that motivation requires three characteristics: the desire to act, the ability to act, and the presence of a goal.

The first contribution to the study of motivation can be traced back to Taylor's work. In the early 1900s, he was the first to advocate for the establishment of a scientific organization of labor. Taylor's economic theory asserted that in the industrial sector, the best results were achieved when each worker was assigned a specific task. Additionally, each task had to be completed within a specific timeframe, and each individual was expected to follow a predetermined set of behaviors (Nelson, 1988).

This approach necessitated breaking down all operations of the production cycle into simpler units of behavior (individual

actions). Organizational managers were tasked with determining, through empirical research, which tasks to assign to each worker, which actions they needed to perform to complete the work according to specific methods and timeframes, and the maximum time required for each action.

The objective was to maximize the rationalization of the work process to ensure the achievement of high labor standards and the ability to accurately predict outcomes. However, the lack of discretion for workers in performing their tasks risked undermining the effectiveness of Taylor's theory, as employees could become demotivated by the continuous repetition of the same operation. In this situation, however, it was believed that the financial incentive provided to workers through wages would serve as a motivating factor. Specifically, if an individual managed to complete their task adequately and on time, they would receive an increase in their base pay (Nelson, 1988).

The belief that only financial incentives impacted motivation was soon refuted. Subsequent studies demonstrated that motivation is not solely tied to economic incentives but can also relate to other factors: public recognition, social status, and personal satisfaction derived from completing a task professionally (Fang et al., 2013).

In the early 1900s, Taylor's theory was widely applied in factories, reshaping labor organization and planning. After World War II, the study of motivation evolved into two main streams. On one side, theories emerged that defined the underlying forces of human behavior (e.g., Maslow, Lawler, and McClelland). On the other hand, process models were developed (e.g., Locke and Latham or Alderfer) that identified a pathway through which motivational forces manifest in real actions.

In recent times, further theories have been developed, with the most prominent being equity theory. In this theory, motivation is assigned to a central role concerning specific organizational variables.

This analysis has described both classical theories and process models, as well as new approaches to the study of motivation that, in recent years, have become increasingly significant for the field of human resources.

1. Need-based theory

This theory seeks to identify the internal factors that stimulate behavior. Needs, as previously defined, are physical or psychological deficiencies that have the potential to stimulate behavior. Additionally, they can be either strong or weak and are heavily influenced by environmental factors. For this reason, human needs vary across time and place.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Abraham Maslow is one of the most important psychologists of the twentieth century. Maslow's theory is based on the premise that human needs are hierarchically ordered (Maslow, 1943; Maslow, 1954). The hierarchy of needs is represented by a pyramid as shown in Figure 1.

Maslow identified five sets of objectives that can be defined as basic needs. At the bottom of the pyramid are physiological needs, which must be met for survival. Higher up are self-actualization needs, which refer to the necessity to achieve the goals an individual has set for themselves on a personal, relational, and social level. The American psychologist also stated that "people, including employees in organizations, are motivated by the desire to achieve or maintain the various conditions upon which these basic satisfactions rest and by some more intellectual desires" (Maslow, 1943).

According to this model, the needs at the base of the pyramid are the first to arise and therefore must be satisfied before others. In contrast, the needs at the higher levels of the pyramid emerge only once the lower-level needs have been fulfilled. This characteristic renders the model hierarchical. Not all needs hold the same importance for the individual. Basic needs, which are necessary

for survival, are considered more important than those related to self-actualization, esteem, affection, and security.

Furthermore, primary or basic needs exhibit low interpersonal variability in terms of how they are satisfied within a given culture. Conversely, secondary needs can be met through methods that vary based on an individual's cultural context.

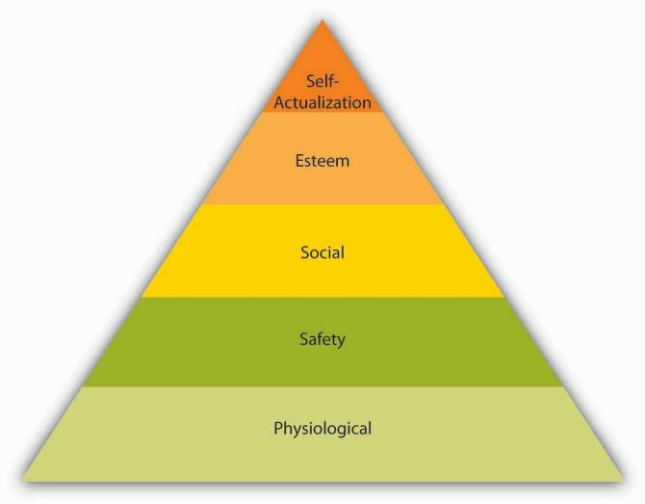

Figure 1. Maslow's Pyramid of Needs, adapted by Bauer, T. and Erdogan, Berrin., 2009. *Organizational Behavior*.

The different needs identified by Maslow are:

a) Physiological Needs

These refer to the need for food, shelter, health care, and reproduction. These are the needs that ensure survival and the continuation of the species.

b) Safety Needs

These relate to the need for protection and belonging to a group. For example, they include the need for individuals to secure a stable life and a job.

c) Love and Belongingness Needs

These refer to the ability to form relationships with others and establish emotional bonds. This category of needs also includes approval and recognition.

d) Esteem Needs

These relate to the need to demonstrate competence and adequacy in various life situations. These needs are typically fulfilled through, for example, professional success or recognition by peers.

e) Self-Actualization Needs

This set of needs represents the highest level of Maslow's hierarchy. They refer to an individual's desire to achieve their goals and objectives. Fulfilling these needs means recognizing one's ability to maximize their potential, accepting oneself, and demonstrating healthy and positive human relationships.

Drawing a parallel with the world of work, Maslow's model suggests that the fundamental needs that should be guaranteed to employees are the provision of adequate wages and the opportunity to perform their tasks with dignity.

The second level of the model represents the need to ensure safety conditions in the workplace. Love and belongingness needs would be satisfied by the opportunity to establish friendly and quality interpersonal relationships at work.

The fourth level refers to the recognition derived from successfully performing one's job. These recognitions can include titles, certifications, promotions, and positive feedback.

Finally, the apex of the pyramid would refer to the guarantee of personal growth and the opportunity to leverage the individual strengths of each employee.

2. Acquired Need Theory

Douglas McClelland's Acquired Needs Theory (1958) has garnered the most support. In his 1961 publication "*The Achieving Society"* (McClelland, 1961), McClelland argues that individuals acquire three types of needs as a result of their life experiences. These needs are the need for achievement, the need for affiliation, and the need for power. All individuals possess a combination of these needs.

- *Need for achievement*

Those with a high need for achievement have a strong desire for success (Kreitner, 1998). A worker who derives great satisfaction from meeting deadlines, generating brilliant ideas, and planning their career trajectory may have a high need for achievement. The need for achievement suggests that motivation and performance vary according to the strength of this need, defined as the desire to accomplish something challenging.

Individuals with a high need for achievement are well-suited to positions like sales, where there are clear objectives, immediate feedback is available, and their efforts frequently lead to success (Harrell & Stahl, 1981; Trevis & Certo, 2005; Turban & Keon, 1993). Due to their success in lower-level roles, people with a high need for achievement are often promoted to higher-level positions (McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982).

However, a high need for achievement has significant drawbacks in management. Management involves getting work done by motivating others. When a salesperson is promoted to sales manager, their job description shifts from active selling to recruiting, motivating, and training salespeople. Individuals with a high need for achievement may view managerial tasks such as coaching, communication, and meeting with subordinates as a waste of time. Additionally, they prefer to do things themselves and may find it difficult to delegate authority. They can become domineering or micromanaging bosses, expecting everyone to dedicate themselves to the work as they do, and expecting subordinates to complete tasks exactly as they are accustomed to doing them (McClelland & Burnham, 1976).

- *Need for affiliation*

Individuals with a high need for affiliation want to be liked and accepted by others. When given the choice, they prefer to interact with others and spend time with friends (Wong & Csikszentmihalyi, 1991). Their emphasis on harmonious

interpersonal relationships can be an advantage in jobs and occupations that require frequent interpersonal interactions, such as social work or teaching. However, in managerial positions, a high need for affiliation can be a disadvantage because these individuals tend to be overly concerned with how others perceive them. As a result, they may struggle with some aspects of managerial work, such as providing employees with critical feedback or disciplining poor performance.

- *Need for power*

Finally, individuals with a high need for power want to influence others and control their environment. The need for power can be destructive to relationships if it takes the form of seeking and using power for personal gain and prestige. However, when expressed in more altruistic forms, such as changing the way things are done to make the work environment more positive or negotiating for more resources for one's department, it tends to lead to positive outcomes. Indeed, the need for power is considered important for effectiveness in managerial and leadership positions (McClelland & Burnham, 1976; Spangler & House, 1991; Spreier, 2006). Moreover, since effective managers must positively influence others, McClelland proposes that top managers have a high need for power and a low need for affiliation (Kreitner, 1998).

McClelland's Acquired Needs Theory has important implications for employee motivation. While individuals with a high need for achievement may respond to goals, those with a high need for affiliation may be motivated by the approval of colleagues and supervisors, while those with a high need for power may prioritize gaining influence over their supervisor or obtaining a position with decision-making authority. When it comes to success in managerial positions, individuals who are aware of the drawbacks of their particular need orientation can take steps to overcome them.

In 1978, McClelland added a fourth type of motivation to the previous three: competence motivation. This type refers to an individual's tendency to complete tasks in the best possible way. This characteristic is particularly relevant in the workplace and is highly sought after in candidates during selection interviews.

3. *Lawler's Expectancy Theory*

Lawler's theory posits that individuals' motivational levels are determined by the combination of three components (Caprara & Cervone, 2003):

a) *Effort*

   This represents the various efforts made to satisfy immediate need.

b) *Performance*

   This refers to the set of actions an individual undertakes to achieve a particular result.

c) *Reward*

   This signifies the benefits or advantages derived from completing a specific task or exhibiting a particular behavior.

These rewards are divided into two types: extrinsic and intrinsic (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Extrinsic rewards refer to external incentives, such as financial benefits or career advancement opportunities. Intrinsic rewards are related to an individual's personality, as one may be motivated simply by completing a task correctly or receiving public recognition for the work done.

Incentives are crucial in Lawler's theory, as they help create a connection between the motivational system and an individual's expectations. This connection is expressed through the following mathematical formula:

$$\textbf{Motivation} = f(E \times P) + (P \times R) + (V \text{ of } R)$$

Where E represents the effort put into a given activity, P is the actual performance achieved, R is the expectations linked to rewards, and V is the value the individual places on the anticipated reward.

According to this theory, motivation is directly proportional to the efforts made and the value attributed to the expected rewards. Additionally, motivation can be enhanced by emphasizing the benefits derived from rewards for effective performance and by creating an expectation system that incentivizes employees to maintain their efforts.

4. Vroom's Motivational Formula

The Canadian psychologist V. Vroom developed a model that explains the forces influencing individual behavior (1964). He identified three fundamental elements: behavioral sequence, reward, and motivation.

Vroom focused specifically on the analysis of motivation, asserting that motivation results from efforts directed toward achieving goals. According to his theory, motivation depends on three factors: valence, expectancy, and instrumentality (Caprara & Cervone, 2003):

a) Valence

This is the subjective assessment of the degree of satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) generated by a particular behavior. It is a variable that depends on personal dispositions and what the individual considers important. Goals with high valence are usually more motivating than those with low valence, as the latter do not significantly influence behavior. In Vroom's formulation, the "value of valence" is crucial. It can be considered positive if it influences motivational levels, or negative if it does not. For this reason, negative valence assumes a value of zero in Vroom's formula.

However, Vroom believes that valence can be increased by aligning activities with individuals' preferences and aptitudes. This can be achieved by leveraging their needs, requirements, and desires.

b) *Expectancy*

This represents the belief that individuals can achieve a goal by engaging in specific behavior. Therefore, a link is created between the level of expectation and the efforts made by the individual.

In this process, the variable of perceived self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) plays a key role. This variable represents an individual's perception of their ability to adopt a behavior. Numerous psychological studies over the years have established that individuals with high levels of self-efficacy are more likely to achieve their goals.

c) *Instrumentality*

This is the relationship between achieving goals and obtaining the expected reward. This variable is linked to the personal belief that specific behavior will lead to a reward. The more desirable the reward, the higher the instrumental value will be.

These three foundational elements explain individual variations in motivational levels. Motivation is expressed through the following mathematical formula:

Motivation = Valence x Expectancy x Instrumentality

According to this formula, maximum motivation levels are achieved through stimulating goals, high expectations, and appropriate rewards. Conversely, if one of these three terms is negative or equal to zero, motivational levels will be low.

5. Goal Setting Theory

Locke and Latham's Goal Setting Theory (2002) is considered the most important concerning work motivation. According to this theory, motivational levels can be explained by analyzing the relationships among three factors: established goals, personal intentions, and professional performance (Avallone, 2011; Caprara & Cervone, 2003).

The theory of goal setting, in particular, assigns a primary role to the assigned goals. These goals influence performance in four ways:

a) *Directing effort and attention*

   This involves focusing an individual's physical and psychological resources on activities aimed at achieving the set goals.

b) *Stimulating action to face challenges*

   The two American psychologists claimed that more difficult goals are more likely to motivate individuals (Avallone, 2011). Graphically, the relationship between goal difficulty and motivation takes the form of an inverted U as shown in Figure 2. In this depiction, the most motivating goals are those of moderate difficulty, as they present a challenge, compared to goals perceived as either too easy or too difficult (Borgogni, 2001).

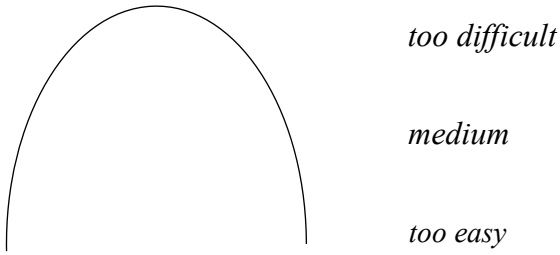

Figure 2

c) *Influencing persistence, determination, and perseverance*

   This theory suggests that goals that need to be achieved within a specific timeframe tend to be more motivating.

d) *Enabling the identification and evaluation of an individual's skills, abilities, and potential*

   When individuals work toward short-term goals, they are more likely to observe others engaged in tasks that require innovative strategies and methodologies for completion.

Two additional important variables in goal setting theory are the *attractiveness of the task* and the i*ndividual's belief in their ability to achieve the set goal*. Once again, perceived self-efficacy

regulates the relationship between task organization and performance quality (Caprara & Cervone, 2003).

The two psychologists also outlined the specific characteristics that goals should have to be motivating:

- *High difficulty*
- *Specificity*
- *Short-term deadlines*

This model is particularly useful when performance feedback is provided both during the process and at its conclusion (Borgogni, 2001).

6. Equity Theory

In recent years, numerous psychological studies have highlighted the strong relationship between employees perceived organizational justice and their motivational levels (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004; Avallone, 2011). Indeed, it has been observed in various work environments that employees constantly seek fairness and justice.

Over the years, various studies have contributed to the development of equity theory. The first theory on this topic was Blau's 1964 social exchange theory, which posited that individuals' actions are motivated by the expectation of receiving favorable returns and positive feedback. Similarly, the term “psychological contract” (Rousseau, 1980) coined by Rousseau in 1980, refers to the implicit and mutually shared system of expectations between employees and the organization, which guides individuals' actions within the company.

According to these theoretical perspectives, people’s motivation levels increase when they perceive their relationship with the organization to be balanced, fair, and grounded in trust, mutual respect, and adherence to the norm of reciprocity (include meaning in a footnote).

However, when employees believe they have been wronged, meaning they feel that the organization has violated the

"psychological contract" (Rousseau, 1980) and the norm of reciprocity, they will likely reduce their commitment to the organization.

In 1965, Adams formulated the *"current equity theory"* (Adams, 1965). He focused on the relationship between the input provided by the worker (*effort, dedication, commitment*) and the output provided by the company (*recognition, working conditions, salary*). If the employee perceives a gap between input and output, or notices that others receive greater benefits without justifiable reasons, they will experience a sense of injustice, which will result in reduced motivation and commitment (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004).

The term distributive justice refers to the alignment between employees' efforts and the outcomes they receive, while procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the methods and procedures used to determine who will receive specific outcomes, such as economic benefits, recognition, or promotions.

These two forms of justice can significantly influence individual behavior and deeply affect motivation. Specifically, when a sense of justice prevails, it is much more likely that employees will engage in so-called organizational citizenship behaviors. These are discretionary behaviors not formally tied to one's role within the organization, such as helping colleagues or staying late at work.

On the contrary, the perception of injustice may lead to the adoption of counterproductive workplace behaviors that are potentially harmful to both the organization and colleagues. Such behaviors can include theft, sabotage, absenteeism, or damage to the organizational structure (Trevino & Brown, 2005).

2.1.1 Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation

A key aspect of motivation is that it can vary across individuals. This means that stimuli that is motivating for one person may not be for another. In this case, a clear distinction can be made

between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, or more precisely, between extrinsically and intrinsically motivated behaviors (Cerasoli et al., 2014).

Scholars Deci and Ryan (2000) differentiate motivation into two types:

1) *Extrinsically motivated behaviors*

   Where actions are driven by the promise of a positive reward or the avoidance of a negative stimulus.

2) *Intrinsically motivated behaviors*

   Where actions are driven by the enjoyment of the task itself. In this case, individuals complete an activity solely for the pleasure of doing so, without the need for rewards or punishments.

The research group led by Cerasoli (2014) conducted a meta-analysis, which revealed that the two types of motivation work synergistically, supporting one another.

The analysis also found that when a job involves overly complex, undesirable, or repetitive tasks, financial incentives (extrinsic motivation) provide support for maintaining motivation and performance. Conversely, when tasks are complex and require more concentration and specialized skills, intrinsic motivation proves more effective in predicting performance levels.

Regarding financial incentives, the study observed that when a job is inherently motivating, such incentives lose significance but can still play a role in supporting behavior that is already motivated.

2.2 EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE

As explored in previous sections, employee motivation emerges as a crucial factor in determining their engagement and work commitment. However, motivation is only part of the equation. To fully understand how corporate incentives enhance employee motivation, it is essential to also analyze the concept of employee performance.

Employee performance is measured by what an employee does and does not do. It is assessed based on the quality and quantity of production, attendance, accommodating demeanor, and punctuality.

Job performance is a fundamental organizational variable and often serves as the primary dependent variable when studying the organization of work concerning business outcomes. Murphy (1988) defines it as "the set of behaviors that are relevant to the goals of the organization or the organizational units in which individuals work" (Murphy, 1988). Avallone reported that Murphy also said further asserts that "one of the main objectives of research on organizational management should be to achieve high levels of performance" (Avallone, 2011).

Employee performance is a complex concept that can be divided into several key aspects. At a basic level, there is a distinction between the process aspect, which refers to the behaviors adopted to achieve a desired outcome (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell et al., 1993; Roe, 1999). Behavior refers to the actions people take to perform a job, while the outcome relates to the consequences of the individual's work behavior (Campbell, 1990). In the work context, behavioral effort and expected outcomes are correlated (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), but there is no complete overlap between the two, as the expected outcome is influenced by factors such as motivation and cognitive abilities, rather than behavior alone.

Task performance includes explicit work-related behaviors, such as the core responsibilities assigned as part of the job description. This performance requires higher cognitive abilities and is primarily facilitated by task knowledge (the technical knowledge or principles needed to ensure work performance and the ability to manage multiple tasks), task skill (the application of technical knowledge to successfully perform tasks with little supervision), and work habits (an innate ability to respond to assigned tasks, which either facilitates or hinders performance) (Conway, 1999).

Therefore, the key factors influencing task performance are the ability to do the job and prior experience. In an organizational context, task performance is a contractual agreement between a manager and a subordinate to complete an assigned task. Task performance is divided into two segments: technical-administrative performance and leadership performance. The former includes planning, organizing, and managing daily work through technical skills and business judgment, while the latter involves setting strategic goals, maintaining performance standards, and motivating and directing subordinates (Borman & Brush, 1993).

An individual's ability to adapt and provide necessary support to their work profile in a dynamic situation is defined as adaptive performance (Hesketh & Neal, 1999). Previous studies have found that once a certain level of proficiency in assigned tasks is achieved, employees tend to adapt their attitudes and behaviors to meet the different demands of their work roles (Huang et al., 2014; Pulakos et al., 2000). Effective adaptive performance requires employees to efficiently cope with volatile work circumstances, such as technological transformations, changes in core tasks, and organizational restructuring (Baard, Rench, & Kozlowski, 2014). Technological innovation necessitates employees engage in new learning and adapt to changes efficiently (Griffin, Parker, & Mason, 2010; Hollenbeck, LePine, & Ilgen, 1996). Furthermore, employees must adjust their interpersonal behavior to work successfully with a wide range of colleagues and subordinates. Griffin, Neal, and Parker (2007) emphasized that task competence can enhance task performance, but adaptability and proactivity in one’s work role are crucial for navigating uncertain business environments.

In addition to task performance and adaptability, it is important to consider non-task performance components that contribute to creating a better work environment (Austin & Villanova, 1992; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). These components, defined as

organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) or contextual performance, refer to voluntary employee actions that provide intangible benefits to employers (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Contextual performance is a type of prosocial behavior demonstrated by individuals in the workplace. These behaviors are expected, but not explicitly mentioned in the job description. Brief and Motowidlo (1986) defined prosocial behavior as behavior carried out by an organization member directed toward an individual, group, or organization with which the member interacts while performing their organizational role, and performed with the intention of benefiting the individual, group, or organization.

Many researchers have argued that expected job performance includes two dimensions: task-required work and discretionary work behavior (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Van Dyne & Lepine, 1998). Later psychologists defined contextual performance as helping others adjust to various work roles (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). Bergeron (2007) suggested that contextual performance should encompass multiple "sub-dimensions" such as teamwork, loyalty, and determination.

An engaged employee is believed to work with passion, leading not only to high performance but also to extra-role behaviors (Kahn, 1990). Contextual performance is based on the "feeling and perspective" (Kahn, 1990) the employee has toward their colleagues, defined as "esprit de corps" (team spirit) (Kahn, 1990). This sense of solidarity is strengthened through team spirit, where employees voluntarily and openly share their problems and concerns with others within the organization (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993). Esprit de corps is a powerful effort toward achieving organizational success (Jones et al., 2007; William, Swee-Lim, & Cesar, 2005), and previous research has demonstrated that increased team spirit within an organization leads to better

employee performance and a more satisfying work environment (Alie, Beam, & Carey, 1998; Boyt, Lusch, & Naylor, 2001; Cohen & Bailey, 1999).

Contextual performance includes behaviors such as volunteering for extra work, helping others solve difficult tasks, maintaining enthusiasm at work, cooperating with others when needed, sharing resources and critical information for organizational development, adhering to rules, and supporting organizational decisions for positive change (Coleman & Borman, 2000; Motowidlo & Schmit, 1999). This type of behavior helps to create a stimulating organizational culture and climate, which fosters individual productivity and organizational effectiveness.

Additionally, job performance is closely related to the construct of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is defined as the set of pleasurable feelings associated with work activities. In this case, job performance tends to predict job satisfaction. This means that higher performance levels are often followed by higher levels of personal gratification.

Another variable positively associated with job performance is organizational commitment. Employees who strongly identify with their organization tend to exhibit higher-quality performance.

2.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATION AND PERFORMANCE

In recent years, many authors have investigated the relationship between motivation and performance (Pinder, 2008). Numerous studies have found a positive correlation between these two variables in various organizational contexts. Indeed, high levels of motivation are often linked to better work performance (Kanfer et al., 2008).

Many theoretical models of work performance include motivation as one of the variables influencing it. From this perspective, performance is largely determined by motivation.

Specifically, it can be argued that individual performance results from the combination of two factors: the individual's actual abilities and their level of motivation. This relationship can be summarized by the following formula:

Performance = F(Motivation x Ability)

where *F* stands for function.

According to this mathematical formula, an employee's performance tends to increase in proportion to their motivational levels. Even in the presence of high ability, a minimum level of motivation is necessary to achieve satisfactory performance. Conversely, performance would not be satisfactory even with strong motivation if the individual lacks the necessary skills to complete the task.

An additional model was developed by Levati and Saraò (2003). According to this model, motivation can be compared to a personality trait, which is a behavioral tendency that is always present within the individual. However, as this form of motivation is stable, it would be impossible to directly influence an individual's level of motivation. Therefore, if this perspective is accepted, it would imply that some individuals are inherently motivated, while others are not.

Those considered "motivated" individuals are characterized by high levels of ambition and a strong drive toward achieving results.

3. INCENTIVES SYSTEM AND BNL CASE

Incentive systems are defined as "management processes aimed at facilitating the alignment of objectives" (Capra, 2013). In other words, they are pre-established processes and mechanisms designed to motivate managers and guide them toward expected performances by linking the evaluation of achieved outcomes to a series of rewards that satisfy their needs and goals.

The primary focus of incentive systems is on how performance can be associated with monetary and non-monetary rewards through the use of specific tools and techniques. Another objective of these systems is to attract and retain the most qualified managerial resources (Meloni & Zambon, 2012). For this reason, more qualified staff members, who are more aware of their skills, particularly during the selection phase, are often offered higher rewards than their competitors, or they are offered salaries that vary based on their performance, especially if they remain with the company for an extended period (Merchant, Van Der Stede & Zoni, 2014).

3.1. MONETARY INCENTIVES SYSTEM

Monetary incentives refer to rewards or compensation provided in the form of money to encourage individuals or employees to perform specific actions, achieve certain goals, or improve their performance. Furthermore, monetary incentives are often associated with performance.

There are three main methods for attributing such incentives (Merchant, Van Der Stede & Zoni, 2014):

1. *Performance-related pay increases*

Most companies offer annual pay increases to every member of the organization, primarily adjusting wages to the cost of living. However, when the increase is tied to the achievement of a specific goal, it becomes a merit or performance-based reward. In terms of incentives, this reward holds significant value. It can only be obtained when the required performance is met or when

skills are acquired that ensure higher-level future performance (Merchant, Van Der Stede & Zoni, 2014).

2. Short-term incentives

Many companies use short-term incentives (approximately one year), such as bonuses, commissions, and piece-rate pay, which provide employees with variable compensation, known as "pay for performance" (Merchant, Van Der Stede & Zoni, 2014).

These incentives allow employers to adjust labor costs based on business performance, while employees can earn additional pay based on their work efficiency. These incentives can be attributed to an individual, a team, an organizational unit (e.g., the sales department), or the entire company.

Bonuses can be linked to financial performance (e.g., a percentage of profits from a specific responsibility center) or non-financial performance (e.g., achieving a certain level of customer satisfaction or quality) (Merchant, Van Der Stede & Zoni, 2014).

Piece-rate pay is a form of "variable incentive tied to quantitative data representing the physical output of a task" (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2006).

This incentive rewards individual rather than team performance. However, when compensation is piece-rate based, workers tend to perform the minimum required to earn their reward, limiting opportunities for skill development and problem-solving abilities (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2006).

3. Long-term incentives

These incentives are awarded based on performance over a medium-to-long-term period, particularly to managers or employees considered highly skilled and influential in the company's success (Merchant, Van Der Stede & Zoni, 2014). Long-term incentives serve two purposes (OD&M Consulting, 2011):

a) To reward employees who contribute the most to creating value for the company in the medium-to-long term, improving the corporate climate.
b) To retain top talent by offering incentives tied to seniority, thereby fostering employee loyalty to the company.

The most common form of long-term incentives is stock option plans. These plans grant employees the right to purchase company shares at a specific exercise price, which is the purchase price on the day the shares are acquired (Merchant, Van Der Stede & Zoni, 2014). Stock options are "call options written on company shares (usually publicly traded) and transferred essentially free of charge to top management (i.e., without a premium payment). The options will be exercisable if the strike price is lower than the market price of the shares, allowing the manager to buy and immediately resell the shares at a profit" (Capra, 2013).

Stock option plans have evolved over the years. Initially, they were intended solely for executives. However, nowadays, stock plans are available to employees at almost all organizational levels, allowing broader participation in corporate ownership.

3.1.1 Models of Monetary Incentives System

There are various incentive models, including:

- *Profit sharing*
- *Gain sharing*
- *Team bonus*

Profit Sharing

This term refers to rewards granted based on the profits generated through business performance. In simple terms, profit sharing involves participation in financial outcomes (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2006).

Profit sharing is typically implemented using corporate performance indicators, such as EBITDA or added value, which focus on rewarding employees for overall company success rather than specific activities that increase productivity or efficiency.

The model has both advantages and disadvantages (OD&M Consulting, 2011). The advantages include:

- It encourages employees to align with management's strategic goals, making the entire organization more efficient and oriented toward a common goal (satisfactory company performance), reducing individualistic behavior.
- Rewards granted through profit sharing are part of variable compensation rather than fixed salaries. This allows the company to reduce labor costs during periods of difficulty (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2006).
- It is easy to manage because it is based on performance indicators that are constantly updated and analyzed.
- The incentivizing effect is particularly strong for top management, who can directly influence company performance (OD&M Consulting, 2011).

Disadvantages include (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2006):

- The risk is that the incentivizing power may be insufficient for lower levels of the organizational hierarchy, as rewards are tied to company-wide performance, which may obscure the connection between individual efforts and corporate outcomes.
- It is short-term oriented since profit sharing is based on annual performance indicators.
- Reward payments are deferred, meaning they are made only after performance indicators have been identified and the financial statements have been approved.

Gain Sharing

This term refers to a "reward system based on the performance of a group within a production unit (not company-wide profits), which is not part of the employees' fixed compensation" (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2006).

a) There are two main differences compared to profit sharing. First, gain sharing focuses on unit or group performance, measured by cost control or quality achieved (not profit), providing a more direct link between incentive and outcome.
b) Second, gain-sharing incentives are awarded more frequently and without deferrals.

The advantages of gain sharing include (OD&M Consulting, 2011):

- Strong incentivizing power when cost indicators are controlled by those distributing the incentive.
- Excellent self-funding capability.
- A focus on performance areas where the company faces challenges in terms of cost or quality.

Disadvantages include:

- A limited timeframe, as it is subject to frequent review or necessary adjustments to the cost indicators.
- Rigid formulas for distributing rewards.
- Applicability is limited to cases where costs can be easily contained.

Team Bonus

Team bonuses refer to "performance outcomes achieved by teams subject to the incentivizing system. They are often used in organizations not yet ready to extend incentive systems to the entire workforce and are, therefore, concentrated on specific projects" (OD&M Consulting, 2011). These incentives apply to small teams whose work is measured in terms of physical output (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2006).

The functioning of the team bonus system provides a variable reward based on group performance. This reward can take various forms: financial, productivity-related, quality-focused, meeting deadlines, or customer satisfaction-based.

Every team member receives an equal share of the incentive. However, in some cases, individual members may receive distinct

rewards based on their contribution to the team (OD&M Consulting, 2011).

Team bonuses, like other incentive types, have both advantages and disadvantages. The advantages include (OD&M Consulting, 2011):

- Fostering cohesion and team spirit.
- Promoting self-management, meaning that teams are assigned goals to pursue without specifying how they should be achieved.

Disadvantages include:

- Less competition between individuals. It can be difficult to integrate new members into the team, and pressure on underperforming members can lead to negative outcomes.
- Difficulty in identifying fair parameters to assess group performance (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2006).

3.2 NON-MONETARY INCENTIVES SYSTEM OR CORPORATE WELFARE

The various types and forms of incentives previously analyzed can be used as tools to promote a corporate environment where employees are motivated and incentivized to perform their tasks to the best of their ability, aligning personal interests with corporate interests.

However, the concept of incentives or rewards is broad and diverse, as each employee differs from another due to factors such as cultural background or individual preferences. For this reason, the incentives needed to satisfy, engage, and motivate employees can be numerous and varied. Consequently, it is preferable to use both monetary and other forms of incentives, such as benefits and services provided by the organization to its employees, as mentioned in the previous chapter.

Specifically, certain goods or services should be considered part of compensation, such as mobile phones, company cars, housing, meal vouchers, and other benefits, commonly referred to as fringe

benefits. These benefits can ensure a better quality of life for the employee, both professionally and personally. From this perspective, all initiatives taken by companies to improve employees' lives are of great importance, and together these initiatives form the concept of corporate welfare.

The term "welfare" refers to "a set of interventions and services provided by public institutions, funded through tax revenues, aimed at protecting citizens from conditions of need, covering them from certain risks, improving their quality of life and well-being, ensuring education, healthcare, social assistance, pension schemes, professional training, academic research, support for employment and entrepreneurship, promoting the family, and ensuring a minimum standard of living to fulfill citizens' rights" (Schipani, 2015).

A specific aspect of welfare is corporate welfare, where private entities such as companies implement welfare interventions for their employees (Mallone, 2013). Corporate welfare is a system of non-monetary benefits aimed at enhancing the economic and social well-being of employees and their families. This definition includes both benefits, which are resources allocated by the employer to meet employees' social security and welfare needs, and perquisites, which consist of goods and services provided to employees themselves (Carniol, 2011). Therefore, it is a system that includes both rewards with specific economic value and a range of services useful for meeting employees' needs and improving their well-being. This approach fosters employees' sense of belonging and loyalty to the company, increasing their commitment and, consequently, improving their performance.

Any company intending to implement a corporate welfare system must first clarify the objectives for which the system is designed and implemented. These objectives are twofold (Treu, 2013):

- To improve employee well-being in terms of satisfaction and quality of life in both professional and personal domains. This

can be achieved by balancing private and professional life, ensuring workplace safety, or providing economic assistance in cases of difficulty, such as covering health expenses or education costs for employees' children.

- To increase work productivity and corporate performance. This improvement enhances the company's ability to attract talent, as welfare plans directly impact motivation. This is why corporate welfare is considered another form of incentivization within the corporate environment.

3.2.1 Welfare Policies as an Incentive Mechanism

Corporate welfare is used as a system to incentivize employees in conjunction with the previously illustrated incentive system.

Furthermore, to be effective in terms of motivation and incentivization, welfare plans must meet two conditions. The first condition is that the communication of the plans must be adequate, as is also the case with incentive plans. This means that those designing the plans must clearly explain what the corporate welfare plans consist of and the rationale behind the tools being implemented. The second condition is that welfare policies must genuinely meet employees' needs to be effective.

When these two conditions are met, regardless of how the plans are implemented, the company will not lose the financial resources invested in designing and implementing the entire system. All companies that use welfare policies as an incentive mechanism must adhere to these two conditions.

Currently, an increasing number of companies are adopting these plans for two reasons (Carniol, 2011). The first reason is the growing demand from employees for both monetary and non-monetary goods and services. This demand is closely linked to the economic crisis, which has made it increasingly necessary to provide compensation supplements that reward merit (Richini, 2017).

The second reason is the tax and regulatory benefits that corporate welfare policies offer companies, allowing them to gain many opportunities and advantages when they allocate resources to fund such plans.

Many companies are increasingly adopting a total reward policy, which includes fixed and variable compensation, performance systems, benefits, training and development, and performance management. This approach allows companies to attract and retain talent by motivating employees and guiding their behaviors toward the desired results. This is done to meet employees' expectations by using both monetary incentives, such as salaries and variable pay, and non-monetary incentives, such as benefits and perquisites (Carniol, 2011).

Benefits are "welfare and social security services not immediately accessible to employees, such as pension and insurance plans." Meanwhile, perquisites are "goods and services that employees can use both for personal and professional purposes, such as company cars, mobile phones, meal vouchers, personal credit cards, or training courses" (Gatti & Iannotta, 2014).

The main rewards given to staff may include agreements, company loans, social and healthcare assistance, and income support in the form of scholarships or reimbursements for educational expenses.

All these incentives should be seen as tools for improving business performance because they enhance employee satisfaction. Moreover, incentives are awarded based on a percentage of the achievement of productivity targets assigned to employees and address their needs (Mallone, 2013).

There are also benefits that employees consider ideal for meeting their personal needs. These benefits are diverse (Carniol, 2011):

- *Functional benefits*

  They meet actual or potential needs, such as medical expenses.

- *Instrumental benefits*

  They are used to enhance work availability, such as mobile phones or computers.

The benefits and the objectives for which they can be used are identified in Figure 3.

Objective	Advantages	Tool
Individual Well-being	Fewer absences due to improved physical and mental quality of life	Healthcare, check-ups, prevention programs
Family Well-being	Increased productivity due to fewer personal problems affecting concentration	Death and disability coverage, healthcare for family, childcare, preschools, summer camps, babysitting, elder care, children's education
Optimal Time Management	Increased productivity due to the availability of services in the workplace, allowing more time for work	Legal and tax assistance, telecommuting, mobility (individual and collective transportation)
Social Dimension Management	Improved productivity due to better teamwork and networking within the company	Cultural and recreational initiatives, team-building programs
Economic Well-being	Access to goods and services at advantageous terms due to the company's purchasing power	Company loans, company cars for personal use, agreements with suppliers, external professional training

Figure 3. – (CARNIOL, 2011)

3.3 BNL CASE

3.3.1 Monetary incentives system

BNL, aware of the importance of valuing human capital, has developed a complex incentive system aimed at rewarding both individual and collective performance while ensuring alignment

with the company's long-term strategies. This section will analyze the main monetary incentive tools adopted by BNL, which are designed to promote operational excellence, the acquisition of new clients, and the maintenance of high-quality standards in business activities.

The Remuneration Policies are prepared annually by the Board of Directors with the contribution of the Remuneration Committee, taking into account the guidelines provided by supervisory bodies, the strategic directions of the Bank, and the guidelines of the BNP Paribas Group, in collaboration with the relevant corporate functions (members of the Interfunctional Collegiate Body - OCI), whose primary task is to provide a comprehensive assessment of the Remuneration Policies in terms of consistency with current national and international regulations, the criteria for identifying the so-called "Material Risk Takers" (MRT), and the consistency of incentive systems with the Risk Appetite Framework (RAF) and the bank's risk governance policies.

The governance framework involves the Internal Control and Risk Committee, the Remuneration Committee, and the Board of Statutory Auditors, with specific reference to their consultative and propositional roles regarding compensation for the Heads of Corporate Control Functions and/or other MRTs identified annually in compliance with current regulations.

Once approved by the BNL General Assembly, the BNL Group's remuneration policies are adopted and adapted to the realities of its companies and applied, in line with the proportionality principle defined by the Bank of Italy, by the main companies of the BNL Group through approval by their respective Boards of Directors and/or Assemblies.

The Compensation Review process incorporates the principles of the Risk Appetite Framework (RAF) by providing:

- Access "gates" for the payment of variable remuneration tools and differentiated minimum thresholds for each business line, with specific reference to the Performance and Quality Bonus.
- Remuneration mechanisms designed to ensure the pursuit of clients' best interests.
- An annual evaluation process, based on compliance and risk criteria, for Senior Manager Positions and individuals identified as "Material Risk Takers (MRT)" [1].

The overall consistency of the Risk Appetite Framework (RAF) indicators and the indicators underlying the remuneration and incentive systems is assessed with the involvement of the Interfunctional Collegiate Body, which provides specific advice for each area under its jurisdiction.

This process begins with defining the Remuneration Policies and the remuneration tools. Based on the Bank's results, certified by the Finance Area, the available amount for the variable component (Bonus Pool) is determined, along with the ceiling for each remuneration tool and each Division.

The effectiveness of the process is strongly linked to the shared understanding and clear communication of the guiding principles, objectives, and guidelines for each remuneration tool. In this sense, the role of the HR Partner is crucial as the guarantor of the correct application of these principles, as is the role of Managers, who are fully responsible for selecting the employees to be

[1] MRT: MRTs (Material Risk Takers) at BNL are employees identified as significant in terms of corporate risk, meaning those who, due to their functions or responsibilities, can have a substantial impact on the bank's risk profile. These individuals hold key roles within the organization and are subject to specific regulations regarding variable remuneration, which must be aligned with the objectives of sustainability and risk management (BNL Pillar 3, 2023).

rewarded and must, in turn, have a clear understanding of these principles and provide appropriate feedback to the employees.

The Remuneration Policies specify the overall results:

a) Act as the driver for the economic recognition of performance. The variable component of remuneration may be reduced to zero in the case of performance below expectations or negative results. This ensures that individual performance is concretely linked to the results of the resources and/or the team coordinated.
b) Must be risk-weighted and should create long-term value for the company and shareholders through:

- The use of balanced and adequate levels of capital and liquidity concerning the activities undertaken.
- Alignment with the Bank's overall strategic vision, emphasizing medium- and long-term performance.
- Individual results create value not only within the individual's unit or business line but across the entire company.
- Mechanisms for paying the variable component of remuneration that include deferring a portion of the incentive over time for higher levels of the so-called "Material Risk Takers" (MRT), conditioning it on company performance parameters.
- The possible inclusion of a pre-defined maximum bonus during the hiring process, linked to individual and company performance for one year only.

Additionally, BNL adheres to principles of gender neutrality and non-discrimination. The goal is to ensure equality among employees, and specifically within remuneration policies, to guarantee that equal pay is provided for equal work. This remuneration policy, aimed at reducing the gender pay gap, is implemented through specific guidelines to be adopted during the annual compensation review process or when career development paths are being considered.

The approach to overall compensation includes a balanced set of fixed and variable, monetary and non-monetary tools. Each tool is designed to specifically impact employee motivation and retention. A common element across all tools is the qualitative assessment conducted by the hierarchical manager, which aims to ensure meritocracy and selectivity by evaluating employees' behaviors to expected distinctive behaviors, commercial behaviors, and compliance with Compliance rules.

Fixed remuneration is used to differentiate employees based on their roles, skills, contributions to company results, and adherence to Group values. It should generally be used to reward employees who:

- Have a remuneration position below the internal and market practices (role benchmark).
- Have taken on roles with greater responsibility and/or have engaged in functional mobility.
- Exhibit high levels of potential growth.

The significant weight of the fixed component within the overall remuneration package serves to reduce excessive risk-taking behavior and discourage short-term initiatives that may jeopardize medium- and long-term value creation. Career advancements, salary increases, and other allowances related to the fixed component affect fixed remuneration.

Variable remuneration is used to recognize achieved results by evaluating the employee’s performance both quantitatively and qualitatively, differentiating and selecting the "top performers."

a) Performance-related incentives:

- *Performance and Quality Bonus and special initiatives*

  This incentive is intended for specific roles and is based on the achievement of quantitative and qualitative objectives, with particular attention to compliance and financial security regulations. It aims to promote operational excellence in line with the company's risk and compliance policies.

- *Private Client Portfolio Enhancement Plan*

  This plan is for Private Bankers, intending to incentivize the acquisition of new clients and assets within the first 18 months of employment. The plan includes deferred compensation, conditioned on achieving specific targets, with a maximum cap on the total bonus to ensure economic sustainability.

- *Bonus and Top-up*

  This discretionary bonus is intended for managerial, or staff roles not covered by the Performance and Quality Bonus. It rewards exceptional performance, with the amount determined based on the manager's qualitative assessment. It is a flexible tool for recognizing individual contributions in cases of extraordinary merit.

b) Retention-related incentives:

- *Group Sustainability and Incentive Scheme (GSIS) / Contingent Sustainable and International Scheme (CSIS)*

  These incentive programs primarily target executives and key personnel within the BNP Paribas Group, including Material Risk Takers (MRT), those with a significant impact on business risk. These plans promote the adoption of long-term strategies with a strong focus on environmental, social, and governance (ESG) objectives. Bonus payments are deferred and contingent upon achieving specific corporate performance and sustainability targets, aligned with the Group's strategic vision of balancing economic growth with social responsibility.

c) Other monetary incentives:

- *Non-compete agreements*

  This is an agreement between BNL and the employee, governed by Article 2125 of the Civil Code, in which the employee agrees, in exchange for financial compensation, not to engage in competitive activities with the bank, either independently or for others, after leaving the company. In the

event of a breach, the employee must repay the compensation received and pay a predetermined penalty.

- *Stability agreements*

  This agreement aims to ensure the retention of highly skilled employees for a set period. In exchange for financial compensation, the employee agrees not to terminate their contract prematurely. If the employee breaks the agreement and resigns before the deadline, a penalty and compensation for damages suffered by the company are imposed.

- *Bonus Buy-out*

  This is a specific incentive for new hires, designed to compensate for any bonuses lost due to the termination of their previous employment. This tool ensures that new employees do not suffer financial losses when transitioning to BNL, enhancing the company's attractiveness to high-profile individuals from other organizations.

3.3.2 Non-monetary incentives system

In this context, BNL has developed a comprehensive welfare plan that includes a wide range of services and benefits aimed not only at supporting the physical and mental well-being of employees but also at promoting the balance between work and private life. The corporate welfare program is integrated with compensation and incentive policies, providing employees with a complete package of measures ranging from supplementary healthcare to flexible working arrangements, to create a stimulating work environment that aligns with the needs and expectations of the workforce. This section provides a detailed analysis of the key welfare initiatives adopted by BNL and their impact on employees' quality of work life.

- *Work-Life Balance Initiatives*

  BNL has implemented a comprehensive set of policies aimed at improving work-life balance, such as extended paternity leave, flexible working hours, and the introduction of time banks for employees. These initiatives help employees

manage their personal and professional lives more effectively, creating a supportive and flexible work environment.

- *Career Development and Training*

  BNL emphasizes professional growth through continuous learning opportunities, offering a variety of training programs that focus on upskilling and leadership development. These programs aim to enhance the professional capabilities of employees and are critical in fostering motivation through personal development and career progression.

- *Health and Well-being Services*

  BNL provides a range of services focused on employee well-being, including access to on-site gyms, health clinics, and childcare facilities. Additionally, wellness programs and preventive health measures contribute significantly to maintaining a healthy work environment.

- *Diversity and Inclusion Programs*

  BNL is committed to promoting diversity and inclusion within its workforce. Programs such as “Inclusion Days” and mentorship initiatives for female empowerment ensure that all employees feel valued, regardless of their background, and help create a more inclusive workplace.

- *Recognition and Appreciation*

  The focus on recognizing employees’ contributions through formal recognition programs and career advancement opportunities serves as another important non-monetary incentive. Employees are acknowledged for their achievements, fostering a sense of accomplishment and belonging.

4. RESEARCH QUESTION, OBJECTIVES, AND HYPOTHESIS

4.1. RESEARCH QUESTION

Employee motivation and its impact on work performance have become central issues in the fields of occupational psychology and human resource management. In recent decades, the introduction of new organizational models has rendered motivation a crucial topic, not only for ensuring productivity but also for securing the long-term sustainability of the workplace environment. Companies are increasingly focused on understanding and developing incentive systems that go beyond merely rewarding immediate performance, aiming to foster a deeper and more lasting engagement among employees.

Within this context, the research question guiding this study is: *"How can a strategic incentive system cultivate employee motivation, fostering a direct link to their performance?"*.

The significance of this question is underscored by research demonstrating that well-designed incentive systems can have a direct and significant impact on employee motivation. In fact "carefully structured and coherent incentive systems not only improve employee motivation but also enhance their commitment to the organization, ultimately leading to better work performance".

This reflects the need to create mechanisms that go beyond mere economic compensation, encompassing recognition, opportunities for professional growth, and other non-monetary incentives that contribute to fostering a rewarding and motivating work environment.

4.2. OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this study focus on exploring the effectiveness of strategic incentive systems in enhancing employee motivation and, consequently, their work performance. Specifically, the main objective is to analyze whether and how different forms of

incentives (monetary and non-monetary) influence employees' levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. According to the UNDP (2023), "non-monetary incentives, such as public recognition or personal growth opportunities, can be as effective as monetary ones in improving intrinsic motivation" (UNDP, 2023) this suggests that a well-balanced incentive system should consider not only material rewards but also those that enhance the employee's sense of value within the organization.

4.3. HYPOTHESIS

The hypotheses developed to test this relationship are structured around two main areas.

The first hypothesis posits that a well-structured incentive system can significantly increase employee motivation. According to the null hypothesis (H0), such a system would not have a significant impact, whereas the alternative hypothesis (H1) suggests that there is a substantial increase in motivation through the use of incentives. This hypothesis is based on empirical evidence indicating that workers who perceive a fair and aligned reward for their efforts tend to be more motivated, as shown by numerous studies in human resources.

The second hypothesis focuses on the relationship between motivation and work performance. According to the null hypothesis (H0), there is no significant correlation between these two variables, while the alternative hypothesis (H1) states that an increase in motivation is positively correlated with improved work performance. Jenkins et al. (1998) demonstrated that "performance-based incentive systems significantly enhance employee performance, especially when perceived as fair and transparent" (Jenkins et al. 1998). This suggests that motivation, once fueled by well-designed incentives, can translate into greater commitment and superior work results.

4.4. RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY

The relevance of this study lies in its potential contribution to the ongoing debate on the role of motivation in the workplace and the

mechanisms companies can adopt to enhance it. In a constantly evolving work environment, where employee turnover is increasingly frequent and competition to attract and retain talent is high, understanding how incentive systems can be used to boost motivation and performance is of critical importance.

This study aims to fill a gap in the literature by providing quantitative data that demonstrates the extent to which strategically designed incentive systems can have tangible effects on worker motivation and performance. Moreover, the comparative analysis of different types of incentives will allow for an evaluation of the relative effectiveness of each, offering practical guidance for managers and human resource professionals.

5. METHODOLOGY

The methodological section is the core of quantitative research, as it outlines the logical and operational path through which data are collected, analyzed, and interpreted. In the context of this study, the methodology is designed to empirically test the previously formulated hypotheses, specifically examining how a strategic incentive system can influence employee motivation and how the latter correlates with their work performance.

5.1. RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

The research design adopted in this study is a cross-sectional quantitative approach, which involves collecting data at a single point in time through a structured questionnaire. This approach allows for the examination of relationships between key variables (incentive system, employee motivation, and work performance) within a specific population, without tracking changes over time. The quantitative design is ideal for testing well-defined hypotheses and identifying statistical correlations between variables, thus providing objective and easily generalizable results.

- *Sampling*

  The sample for this research was selected using a stratified sampling technique. Participants were divided based on demographic and professional variables, including gender, age, corporate role (managerial, specialist, and other), Gross Annual Salary (GAS), and work tenure. This stratification ensured that all groups were adequately represented, allowing for a comparison of perceptions and the impact of incentives across different organizational levels.

- *Questionnaire Administration*

  Data collection was carried out via a structured questionnaire developed using Qualtrics, an online survey platform. Participants received a link via email to access the questionnaire, ensuring anonymous and confidential

participation. The questionnaire was completed over two weeks, during which employees had the flexibility to complete it at their convenience.

- *Questionnaire Structure*

  The questionnaire consisted of several sections. The first part collected demographic and work-related information (gender, age, GAS, seniority, and role). The second part assessed participants' perceptions of the corporate incentive system using a 5-point Likert scale. The questions were designed to measure both intrinsic motivation (satisfaction, personal growth) and extrinsic motivation (financial rewards, external recognition). Finally, the third part measured work performance, asking participants to self-assess their ability to meet goals and maintain a high level of productivity.

- *Data Quality Control*

  Before distributing the questionnaire, a pilot phase was conducted with a small group of employees to ensure that the questions were clear and free from ambiguity. Additionally, to avoid incomplete responses, the questionnaire was designed so that participants were required to answer all key questions before submission.

5.2. PARTICIPANTS

The participant sample was selected to ensure representation of the corporate context chosen for the study. Specifically, participants were employees from various functions and organizational levels, allowing for a diverse range of experiences and perceptions regarding the incentive system. Selection was conducted using stratified sampling to ensure adequate representation for data analysis.

47The variables selected for participant sampling include gender, age, Gross Annual Salary (GAS), seniority, and corporate role.

- *Gender* was included as an important factor to explore potential differences in responses to incentives between men

and women. Previous research suggests that men and women may react differently to monetary and non-monetary incentives. For example, women tend to place greater value on social recognition and work-life balance opportunities, while men may be more oriented toward monetary or career-related rewards. Therefore, the participant selection ensured a balanced representation of both genders, allowing for meaningful comparisons of the results.

- *Age* was another crucial variable in the sample selection, as younger employees may be more interested in incentives offering professional growth and skill development opportunities, while older employees may prefer incentives tied to security and financial stability, such as pension plans or health-related benefits. This approach allows for the examination of whether there are differences in motivational factors based on participants' age, as shown in previous studies.
- *Gross Annual Salary (GAS)* was considered to understand how salary levels influence the perception of incentives. Employees with a lower GAS may be more sensitive to monetary incentives, as such rewards can directly impact their financial well-being. Conversely, employees with a higher GAS may be more motivated by non-economic incentives, such as career advancement opportunities or stock options. This categorization allows for the exploration of how incentive systems should be tailored to meet the different economic needs of employees.
- *Work tenure* was included as an additional variable, as employees with more experience may be motivated by incentives related to loyalty and long-term stability, such as special leave or pension benefits, while employees with less seniority may be more attracted to promotion and professional growth opportunities. This aspect allows for the identification

of how expectations and motivational priorities shift as work experience increases.

- *Role.* Finally, participants were divided into three main role categories: managerial roles, specialist roles, and other roles. Managers who are responsible for supervising and coordinating teams tend to be incentivized by rewards tied to the overall performance of the company and the achievement of objectives. Specialists, with specific technical skills, respond better to incentives that reward the achievement of goals related to their professional or technical competencies. Finally, operational or support staff, such as administrative or logistics personnel, may be more motivated by incentives tied to daily productivity and the quality of the work performed.

5.3 MEASURES (Questionnaire Description)

The questionnaire administered for this research was developed through the Qualtrics platform and was designed to gather data on employee perceptions regarding the company's incentive system, their work motivation, and their work performance.

The questionnaire is structured into sections aimed at measuring key variables, such as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and self-assessed performance.

To measure participants' perceptions, many of the questions in the questionnaire use a 5-point Likert scale. The Likert scale is a widely used tool in social research to assess the degree of agreement or disagreement with a series of statements. In this study, the Likert scale consists of the following options:

1. *Strongly disagree*
2. *Disagree*
3. *Neutral*
4. *Agree*
5. *Strongly agree*

The use of the Likert scale allows for the conversion of subjective opinions into quantitative data, facilitating statistical analysis.

Each participant expresses their level of agreement with statements related to their motivation, perceptions of incentives, and work performance. The choice to use a 5-point scale stems from the need to offer participants a sufficiently wide range of options to express nuanced opinions without introducing excessive complexity in the responses. Previous studies (DeVellis, 2016) highlight how a 5-point scale is adequate for capturing psychological variables without sacrificing clarity in responses.

The questionnaire is divided into four main sections, each with a specific focus: *General Information, Motivation, Work Performance, and Feedback and Improvement.*

- *Section 1: General Information*

This section collects demographic data and general information about participants, such as gender, age, income, and work tenure, which are essential for segmenting the sample and better understanding the context in which employees operate.

Q1| Gender (options: Male, Female, Non-binary/Third gender, prefer not to say).

Q2 | Age (open field).

Q3 | Gross Annual Salary range (from “Less than €20,000” to “€70,000 and over”).

Q4 | How long have you worked at this company? (from “Less than 1 year” to “More than 10 years”).

Q5 | What is your current role? (options: Managerial, Specialist, Other).

These questions provide useful information for analyzing responses based on the demographic and professional characteristics of the participants.

- *Section 2: Motivation*

This section aims to investigate employees' primary sources of motivation and how they perceive their work in terms of gratification, growth, and alignment with their personal values.

Q6 | Do you enjoy this job? (Likert scale from "Absolutely not" to "Absolutely yes").

Q7 | Do you find joy in doing this job? (Likert scale from "Absolutely no" to "Absolutely yes").

Q8 | Did you choose this job because it allows you to achieve your life goals? (Likert scale).

Q9 | Does this job fulfill your career plans? (Likert scale).

Q10 | Does this job align with your personal values? (Likert scale).

Q11 | Do you feel you need to be the best at your job to be considered a "winner"? (Likert scale).

Q12 | Is your job your life, and you cannot afford to fail? (Likert scale).

Q13 | Does your reputation depend on your job? (Likert scale).

Q14 | Does this job guarantee you a certain standard of living? (Likert scale).

Q15 | Does this job allow you to earn a lot of money? (Likert scale).

Q16 | Do you do this job for the salary? (Likert scale).

Q17 | Do you think the current incentive system motivates you to improve your work performance? (Likert scale).

Q18 | Which types of incentives motivate you the most? (multiple options: financial incentives, recognition, professional growth opportunities, improvement in working conditions).

This section allows for the analysis of factors related to employees' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and for determining how the incentive system influences these factors.

- *Section 3: Work Performance*

This section evaluates participants' perceptions of their work performance and that of their colleagues and supervisors.

Q19 | How do you rate your work performance over the past year? (scale from “Extremely negative” to “Extremely positive”).

Q20 | How do you rate the overall work performance of your colleagues? (similar scale).

Q21 | How do you rate the performance of your supervisors? (similar scale).

This section helps explore the subjective perception of work performance and how it may be linked to existing incentive systems.

- *Section 4: Feedback and Improvement*

The final part of the questionnaire focuses on gathering feedback from employees regarding the corporate incentive system and their perceptions of the performance evaluation and feedback process.

Q22 | Do you receive regular feedback on your work and performance? (Likert scale: from “Never” to “Always”).

Q23 | What suggestions would you give to improve the company's incentive system? (open-ended field for free responses).

6. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS TECHNIQUE

The statistical analysis employed in this research relies on the use of bivariate correlation, a fundamental tool for exploring the linear relationship between two quantitative variables. Specifically, Pearson's correlation was applied to assess the strength and direction of the relationships between employee motivation and their job performance.

6.1 DEFINITION OF BIVARIATE CORRELATION

Bivariate correlation is a statistical technique that measures the degree to which two variables are associated with one another. The Pearson correlation coefficient (r) expresses this association on a scale ranging from -1 to +1:

- A value of +1 indicates a perfect positive correlation: as one variable increases, the other increases proportionally.
- A value of -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation: as one variable increases, the other decreases proportionally.
- A value of 0 indicates no linear correlation between the two variables.

According to Cohen (1988), Pearson's ρ values can be interpreted as follows:

- *0.10 to 0.29*: Weak correlation.
- *0.30 to 0.49*: Moderate correlation.
- *0.50 and above*: Strong correlation.

Bivariate correlation was selected for its ability to provide detailed and direct information about linear relationships between variables, making it an effective method for testing the research hypotheses (Field, 2013).

6.2 APPLICATION OF BIVARIATE CORRELATION

In the context of this study, two categories of variables were analyzed based on the research hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1 (H1):

- *Independent Variable*: Perception of the incentive system (Q17).
- *Dependent Variables*: Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of employees (Q6-Q16).

Hypothesis 2 (H2):

- *Independent Variables*: Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of employees (Q6-Q16)
- *Dependent Variables*: Job performance (Q19-Q21)

6.3 INTERPRETATION OF PEARSON'S CORRELATION COEFFIENT

Pearson's correlation coefficient is calculated by dividing the covariance between the two variables by the product of their standard deviations. The mathematical formula for Pearson's correlation is:

$$r = \frac{\sum(X_i - X)(Y_i - Y)}{\sqrt{\sum(X_i - X)^2 \sum(Y_i - Y)^2}}$$

Where X_i and Y_i represent the two variables of interest, and X and Y are the means of the respective variables. This coefficient provides crucial information regarding both the strength and direction of the relationship between the two variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

6.4 STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE

To determine whether the correlation results are statistically significant, the p-value was used. In line with statistical literature, a p-value of < 0.05 was considered significant (Cohen, 1988). This indicates that the probability of the observed correlation occurring by chance is less than 5%. In cases of stronger correlations, a more stringent threshold of $p < 0.01$ was applied, indicating less than a 1% probability that the relationship observed was due to chance.

7. RESULTS

7.1 SCALE RELIABILITY

The reliability of the scales used in the questionnaire was assessed through Cronbach's Alpha, an index that measures the internal consistency of the items composing each scale. Cronbach's Alpha values range from 0 to 1, with values closer to 1 indicating a higher degree of internal consistency among the scale items.

From a statistical perspective, values of $\alpha \geq 0.7$ are considered to indicate good reliability, whereas lower values might suggest that the items in the scale do not consistently measure the same construct. In this research, the scales used were designed to measure various dimensions of motivation and work performance.

The following table reports the Cronbach's Alpha values for the scales used:

SCALE	α (Cronbach's Alpha)
Intrinsic Motivation	0.85
Extrinsic Motivation	0.80
Incentive System	0.78
Work Performance	0.82

Interpretation of Results:

- *Intrinsic Motivation ($\alpha = 0.85$):* the scale measuring intrinsic motivation achieved a very high Cronbach's Alpha value, indicating that the items related to this dimension are highly consistent. This means that participants responded similarly to items assessing their personal engagement and sense of satisfaction at work.
- *Extrinsic Motivation ($\alpha = 0.80$):* the scale measuring extrinsic motivation also demonstrated good reliability. This result suggests that the questions regarding external incentives, such as compensation or recognition, are well correlated.
- *Incentive System ($\alpha = 0.78$):* the Cronbach's Alpha value for the scale assessing the perception of the incentive system was 0.78, confirming the consistency of the questions related to

the perceived effectiveness of organizational incentives in motivating employees.

- *Work Performance (α = 0.82):* The work performance scale showed a good level of reliability, indicating that the questions related to self-assessment of productivity and goal achievement by participants were internally consistent.

These results confirm that the scales used in the questionnaire are reliable, and participants provided consistent responses across the different dimensions examined.

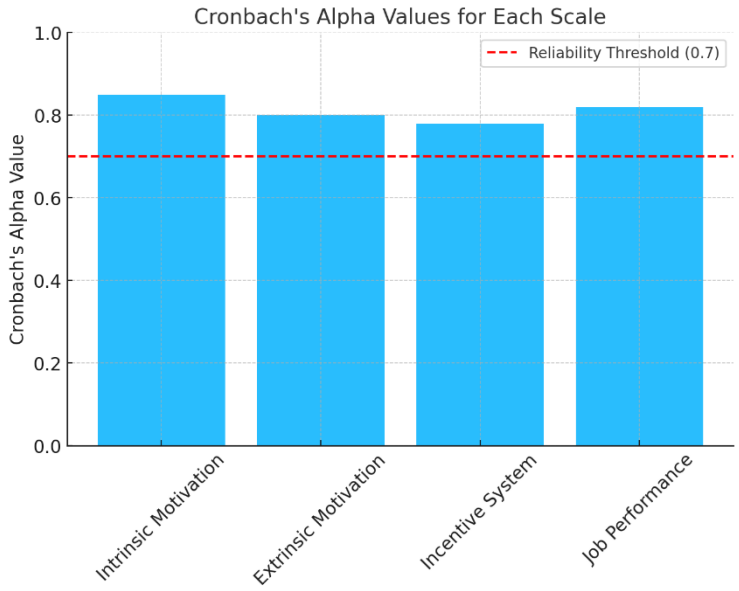

Figure 1: Bar Chart of Cronbach's Alpha Values for Each Scale

7.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

This section presents descriptive statistics related to the demographic characteristics of the sample, consisting of 46 BNL' employees.

The sample size varies between 45 and 46 because some respondents may have skipped or left certain questions unanswered, leading to missing data for specific variables. As a result, the total number of valid responses differs for each analysis depending on the completeness of the data for the variables being correlated.

The main variables analyzed include age, gender, Gross Annual Salary (GAS), work tenure, sex, and company role. These variables provide an overview of the socio-demographic and professional characteristics of the survey participants.

The variables analyzed in this study can be divided into two main categories:

- *Quantitative variables* are numerical variables that can be measured and compared, such as age, GAS, and work tenure. These variables are described using mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum values.
- *Qualitative variables* are categorical variables that indicate a classification or group, such as gender or company role. For these variables, frequencies (number of participants) and percentages are used to describe their distribution.

7.2.1 Sample Characteristics

- *Number of participants*: 46
- *Gender distribution*: 60% male and 40% female.
- *Mean age*: 35 years (SD = 7.8), with a minimum of 24 years and a maximum of 55 years.
- *Gross Annual Salary (GAS)*: the average GAS is €35,000 with a standard deviation of €12,500.
- *Work tenure*: the average work tenure is 5.2 years, with a minimum of 1 year and a maximum of 15 years.
- *Company role*: participants are distributed among managerial, specialist, and other operational roles.

7.2.2 Variable Analysis

The following tables present a detailed summary of the demographic and professional variables in the sample. These tables display the quantitative variables' means, standard deviations, and minimum, and maximum values, such as age, work tenure, and Gross Annual Salary (GAS). Additionally, the tables illustrate the distribution of participants according to qualitative variables like gender and company role. These data

offer an initial overview of the sample and provide a fundamental basis for subsequent analyses.

- *Quantitative variables*

VARIABLES	Average	SD[2]	Min	Max
Age	35	7.8	24	55
Work tenure	5.2	3.4	1	15
GAS	35.000	12.500	20.000	70.000

- *Qualitative variables*

VARIABLES	CATEGORY	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
GENDER	Male	29	60%
	Female	19	40%
ROLE	Managerial	15	31%
	Specialist	20	42%
	Other	13	27%

In addition to the tables that report descriptive statistics, the following charts provide a visual representation of the main demographic variables in the sample. These charts allow an immediate observation of the distribution of key variables, such as age, gender, Gross Annual Salary (GAS), work tenure, and company role. Visualizing the data in the form of charts makes it easier to discern patterns and differences within the sample.

- *Distribution by Gender*

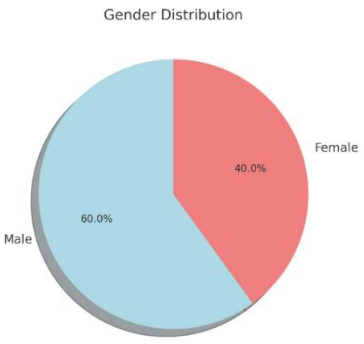

Chart 1: Pie chart of gender distribution

This pie chart represents the gender distribution of the participants. The chart shows that 60% of participants are male (represented in blue), while 40% are female (represented in pink).

[2]*Standard deviation or SD is a measure of the dispersion of data from the mean. It indicates how much, on average, the data values differ from the mean itself.*

The sample includes a predominance of male participants compared to females. However, both percentages are relatively balanced, allowing for the analysis of differences in the perception of motivation and performance across genders.

- *Distribution of Participants' Age*

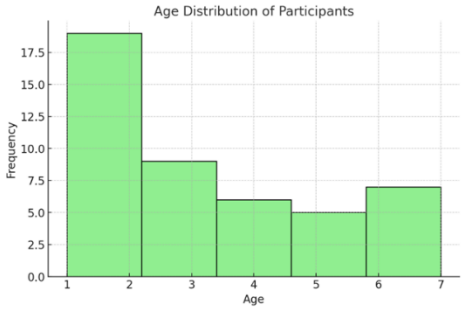

Chart 2: Histogram of participants' age distribution

The histogram shows the distribution of participants' ages, divided into five groups. Most participants fall within the age range of 30 to 40 years, suggesting that the sample primarily consists of middle-aged workers. There are participants both younger (around 24 years) and older (up to 55 years), offering a good diversity of age within the sample. This variability may influence perceptions of incentives and job performance, with younger employees potentially more oriented toward professional growth and older ones more focused on stability.

- *Distribution of Gross Annual Salary (GAS)*

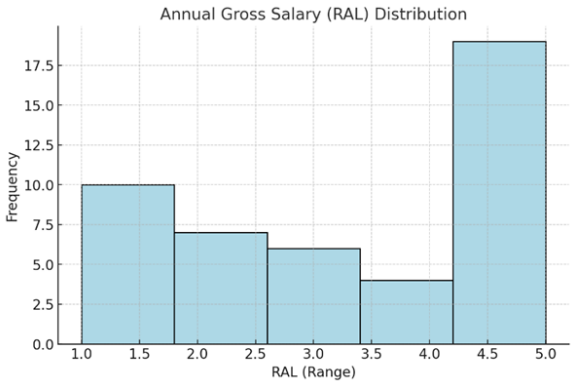

Chart 3: Histogram of GAS distribution

This histogram shows the distribution of participants' Gross Annual Salary (GAS), grouped into five salary categories. Most participants earn between €30,000 and €50,000, with some

earning significantly less or more. The distribution demonstrates a good representation of various income brackets. Employees with lower salaries are more sensitive to economic incentives, while those with higher salaries are more attracted to non-monetary incentives, such as career advancement opportunities or company benefits.

- *Distribution of Work Tenure*

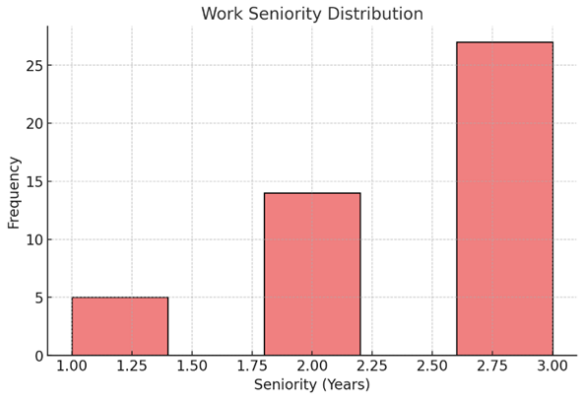

Chart 4: Histogram of work tenure distribution

The histogram shows the distribution of participants' work tenure, grouped into five tenure ranges. Most participants have a work tenure of 5 years or less, with a small number of employees having worked for more than 10 years. This suggests that the sample is predominantly composed of employees with medium levels of work experience within the company. Employees with shorter tenures are more interested in incentives related to professional growth, while those with longer tenures may be more attracted to incentives related to stability and job security.

- *Distribution by Role*

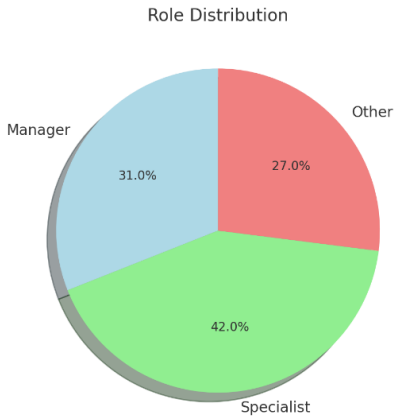

Chart 5: Pie chart of role distribution

The pie chart above shows the distribution of participants by role. The categories considered are:

a) *Managers*: representing 31% of participants.
b) *Specialists*: representing 42% of participants.
c) *Other*: representing 27% of participants (operational or administrative roles).

Most participants, approximately 42%, hold specialist roles, while 31% hold managerial positions. Around 27% of participants are employed in other roles, such as operational or support positions. This role diversification allows for a more in-depth analysis of how motivation and job performance vary based on professional responsibilities and growth opportunities within the organization.

7.3 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

The correlation analysis was conducted using Pearson's[3]correlation coefficient to determine the strength and direction of the relationships between the independent variables (incentive system and motivation) and the dependent variables (motivation and job performance). Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) can range from -1 (perfect negative correlation) to +1 (perfect positive correlation), with 0 indicating no correlation.

- *Hypothesis 1: The incentive system significantly influences employee motivation.*
  a) *Independent Variable*: "Incentive System (Q17)"
  b) *Dependent Variables*: "Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Q6-Q16)"

The correlation analysis revealed a significant relationship between the incentive system (Q17) and motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic). The results are presented below:

[3] The Pearson correlation coefficient is a statistical measure used to determine the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two quantitative variables.

a) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q6 (Job Enjoyment)

Correlations

		Q17	Q6
Q17	Pearson Correlation	1	,538**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<,001
	N	46	46
Q6	Pearson Correlation	,538**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001	
	N	46	46

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q17 and Q6 is 0.538. This indicates a moderate and positive correlation between the two variables.

The *P-Value* is less than 0.001, meaning that the correlation is highly statistically significant. The significance is marked with "**", indicating that the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level ($p < 0.01$), suggesting it is highly unlikely that this correlation occurred by chance.

The value of 0.538 indicates a moderately positive relationship between employees' perception of the incentive system's effectiveness and their intrinsic enjoyment of their work. In other words, employees who find the incentive system motivating are, on average, more likely to report a higher level of job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation. Improving the perceived effectiveness of the incentive system can not only enhance employees' performance but also increase their intrinsic motivation and enjoyment in the workplace.

The P-Value also supports the hypothesis that a perceived motivating incentive system is linked to higher levels of intrinsic motivation (enjoyment in the job).

b) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q7 (Job Fun)

Correlations

		Q17	Q7
Q17	Pearson Correlation	1	,611**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<,001
	N	46	46
Q7	Pearson Correlation	,611**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001	
	N	46	46

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q17 and Q7 is 0.611. This indicates a strong positive correlation between the two variables.

The *P-Value* is less than 0.001, which means that the correlation is highly statistically significant. The level of significance is marked with "**", indicating that the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level ($p < 0.01$), confirming that it is highly unlikely for this result to have occurred by chance.

The correlation value of 0.611 indicates a strong positive relationship between employees' perception of the effectiveness of the incentive system (Q17) and their intrinsic motivation, specifically their level of fun and enjoyment in their job (Q7). Employees who find the incentive system motivating are much more likely to report that they find their work enjoyable and fun. In fact, as the correlation is strong, it is likely that employees who perceive the positive incentive system also derive more fun and satisfaction from their work.

The P-Value shows that this result is highly statistically significant, meaning the relationship between the two variables is not likely to be due to chance.

c) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler)

Correlations

		Q17	Q8
Q17	Pearson Correlation	1	,326*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,027
	N	46	46
Q8	Pearson Correlation	,326*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,027	
	N	46	46

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficien*t between Q17 and Q8 is 0.326. This indicates a moderate and positive correlation between the two variables.

The *P-Value* is 0.027, meaning that the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. This is marked with an "*", indicating that there is a less than 5% probability that the correlation is due to chance.

The correlation value of 0.326 suggests a moderate positive relationship between employees' perception of the incentive system's effectiveness (Q17) and their motivation to choose the job because it aligns with their life goals (Q8). This means that employees who feel motivated by the current incentive system are more likely to have chosen their job because they see it as a way to achieve personal life goals. This implies that external motivators, such as incentives, may not only improve work performance but also reinforce an employee's intrinsic connection to their job, particularly in terms of aligning it with their long-term aspirations.

With a P-Value of 0.027, this result is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. This provides evidence that the relationship between these two variables is not due to random chance and is likely meaningful.

d) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q9 (Career Satisfaction)

Correlations

		Q17	Q9
Q17	Pearson Correlation	1	,358*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,014
	N	46	46
Q9	Pearson Correlation	,358*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,014	
	N	46	46

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficie*nt between Q17 and Q9 is 0.358. This indicates a moderate and positive correlation between these two variables.

The *P-Value* is 0.014, which means the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. The significance is marked with an "*", indicating there is less than a 5% probability that the correlation is due to chance ($p < 0.05$).

The correlation value of 0.358 suggests a moderate positive relationship between employees' perception of the incentive system's effectiveness (Q17) and the extent to which the job meets their career plans (Q9). This means that employees who view the incentive system as motivating are more likely to feel that their current job aligns with their career goals. Moreover, this implies that external motivators, such as incentives, may not only improve work performance but also help employees view their job as a key part of their long-term career progression

With a P-Value of 0.014, this result is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. This provides strong evidence that the relationship between these two variables is meaningful and not due to random chance.

e) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q10 (Personal Values Alignment)

Correlations

		Q17	Q10
Q17	Pearson Correlation	1	,517**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<,001
	N	46	46
Q10	Pearson Correlation	,517**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001	
	N	46	46

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficie*nt between Q17 and Q10 is 0.517. This indicates a moderate to strong positive correlation between these two variables.

The *P-Value* is less than 0.001, indicating that the correlation is highly statistically significant. The significance is marked with "**", showing that the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level ($p < 0.01$). This means there is a very low chance that this result is due to random variation.

The correlation value of 0.517 indicates a moderate to strong positive relationship between employees' perception of the incentive system (Q17) and the alignment of the job with their values (Q10). In other words, employees who see the incentive system as motivating also tend to feel that their job aligns well with their values. In this case, an effective incentive system may contribute not only to better work performance but also to a stronger alignment between employees' work and their personal beliefs and values.

With a P-Value of <0.001, this result is highly statistically significant, meaning that it is very unlikely the correlation is due to random chance.

f) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q11 (Work-Related Competition)

Correlations

		Q17	Q11
Q17	Pearson Correlation	1	,218
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,145
	N	46	46
Q11	Pearson Correlation	,218	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,145	
	N	46	46

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q17 and Q11 is 0.218. This indicates a weak positive correlation between these two variables.

The *P-Value* is 0.145, which is not statistically significant at the 0.05 level. This means that we cannot confidently say that the relationship between these two variables is meaningful. There is a higher chance that the observed correlation is due to random chance.

The correlation value of 0.218 suggests a weak positive relationship between employees' perceptions of the incentive system (Q17) and their belief that they need to excel at their jobs to be considered a winner (Q11). However, the weak strength of the correlation suggests that this relationship is not strong enough to be meaningful. This suggests that the motivation provided by the incentive system may not be closely linked to employees' drive to outperform others.

The P-Value of 0.145 means that this correlation is not statistically significant. Thus, we cannot confidently conclude that there is a real relationship between these two variables based on this dataset.

g) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q12 (Fear of Failure in Job)

Correlations

		Q17	Q12
Q17	Pearson Correlation	1	,243
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,104
	N	46	46
Q12	Pearson Correlation	,243	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,104	
	N	46	46

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q17 and Q12 is 0.243. This indicates a weak positive correlation between these two variables.

The *P-Value* is 0.104, which is not statistically significant at the 0.05 level. This means that there is not enough statistical evidence to suggest that the correlation between these two variables is meaningful. The observed relationship could be due to random chance.

The value of 0.243 suggests a weak positive relationship between employees' perception of the incentive system (Q17) and the belief that their job is central to their life and failure is not an option (Q12). However, the weak strength of the correlation indicates that this relationship is not strong. This implies that the current incentive system may not be strongly related to how much employees associate their job with their identity or fear of failure.

With a p-value of 0.104, the correlation is not statistically significant. This means that we cannot confidently conclude that there is a real relationship between these two variables based on this data.

h) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q13 (Job-Dependent Reputation)

Correlations

		Q17	Q13
Q17	Pearson Correlation	1	,312*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,035
	N	46	46
Q13	Pearson Correlation	,312*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,035	
	N	46	46

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q17 and Q13 is 0.312. This indicates a moderate positive correlation between these two variables.

The *P-Value* is 0.035, meaning that the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. The significance is marked with an "*", indicating that there is a less than 5% probability that the observed correlation is due to chance ($p < 0.05$).

The correlation value of 0.312 suggests a moderate positive relationship between employees' perception of the incentive system (Q17) and their belief that their reputation is tied to their work performance (Q13). This implies that employees who feel motivated by the incentive system are more likely to believe that their work plays an important role in shaping their reputation. External motivators provided by the incentive system may contribute to a sense of accountability, where employees feel that their reputation and success are closely tied to how well they perform their jobs.

With a P-Value of 0.035, the result is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. This supports the idea that the relationship between these two variables is meaningful and not due to random variation.

i) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living)

Correlations

		Q17	Q14
Q17	Pearson Correlation	1	,374*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,010
	N	46	46
Q14	Pearson Correlation	,374*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,010	
	N	46	46

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q17 and Q14 is 0.374. This indicates a moderate positive correlation between these two variables.

The *P-Value* is 0.010, meaning that the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. The significance is marked with an "*", indicating that there is a less than 5% probability that the observed correlation is due to chance ($p < 0.05$).

The correlation value of 0.374 indicates a moderate positive relationship between employees' perception of the incentive system (Q17) and their belief that their job guarantees them a certain standard of living (Q14). This suggests that employees who feel motivated by the incentive system are more likely to believe that their job provides them with financial stability. In this case, external motivators, such as incentives, may not only improve work performance but also positively influence employees' financial perceptions of their job, linking motivation to financial security.

With a p-value of 0.010, this result is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. This implies that the relationship between these two variables is meaningful and unlikely to be due to random variation.

j) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q15 (High Earnings Potential)

Correlations

		Q17	Q15
Q17	Pearson Correlation	1	,399**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,007
	N	46	45
Q15	Pearson Correlation	,399**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,007	
	N	45	45

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q17 and Q15 is 0.399. This indicates a moderate positive correlation between these two variables.

The *P-Value* is 0.007, meaning that the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.01 level. The significance is marked with "**", indicating that there is less than a 1% probability that the observed correlation is due to random chance ($p < 0.01$).

The correlation value of 0.399 suggests a moderate positive relationship between employees' perception of the incentive system (Q17) and the belief that their job allows them to earn a lot of money (Q15). This implies that employees who feel motivated by the incentive system are more likely to believe that their job is financially rewarding. This highlights the role of financial incentives as a motivating factor for employees' work performance, reinforcing the importance of linking incentives to perceived financial benefits.

With a P-Value of 0.007, this result is statistically significant at the 0.01 level. This means that the relationship between these two variables is meaningful and unlikely to have occurred by chance.

k) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q16 (Salary-Driven Work)

Correlations

		Q17	Q16
Q17	Pearson Correlation	1	,114
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,452
	N	46	46
Q16	Pearson Correlation	,114	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,452	
	N	46	46

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q17 and Q16 is 0.114. This indicates a very weak positive correlation between these two variables.

The *P-Value* is 0.452, which is not statistically significant at the 0.05 level. The high P-Value indicates that there is a high probability that the observed correlation is due to chance, and we cannot confidently assert that there is a meaningful relationship between these two variables.

The correlation value of 0.114 suggests a very weak and practically negligible positive relationship between employees' perception of the incentive system (Q17) and the belief that they are motivated primarily by salary (Q16). This weak relationship suggests that the perception of motivation by the incentive system is not strongly linked to employees working mainly for the salary. The current incentive system might not be seen as directly tied to salary motivation, or that other factors may play a more significant role in motivating employees.

With a P-Value of 0.452, this result is not statistically significant. The lack of significance implies that the observed correlation is likely due to random chance and not a meaningful relationship.

- *Hypothesis 2: Motivation is correlated with work performance.*
  a) *Independent Variables*: "Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Q6-Q16)"
  b) *Dependent Variables*: "Work performance (Q19-Q21)"

The analysis of the correlations between motivation and work performance demonstrates that motivation, particularly intrinsic motivation, is strongly correlated with the perception of one's job performance. The results are presented below:

a) Q6 (Job Enjoyment) and Q19 (Self-Evaluation of Job Performance)

Correlations

		Q6	Q19
Q6	Pearson Correlation	1	,590**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<,001
	N	46	45
Q19	Pearson Correlation	,590**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001	
	N	45	45

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q6 and Q19 is 0.590. This indicates a moderate to strong positive correlation between the enjoyment of one's job (Q6) and the self-evaluation of job performance (Q19).

The *P-Value* is less than 0.001, indicating that the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.01 level (99% confidence). This means that the likelihood of this correlation occurring by random chance is extremely low, and it is confidently asserted that there is a meaningful relationship between these two variables. This suggests that there is a less than 1 in 1000 chance that the observed relationship is due to random variation in the data.

The analysis reveals a statistically significant positive relationship between job enjoyment (Q6) and self-evaluated job performance (Q19). The moderate to strong correlation suggests that employees who report higher levels of intrinsic motivation, specifically enjoying their work, are more likely to perceive themselves as performing well in their jobs. These findings suggest that organizations aiming to improve performance should consider fostering work environments that enhance job satisfaction and enjoyment.

The significance of this correlation, as indicated by the P-Value < 0.001, strongly suggests that fostering intrinsic motivation, like job enjoyment, could be a critical strategy for improving employees perceived and actual performance in the workplace.

b) *Q6 (Job Enjoyment) and Q20 (Perceived Opportunities for Professional Growth)*

Correlations

		Q6	Q20
Q6	Pearson Correlation	1	,464**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,001
	N	46	45
Q20	Pearson Correlation	,464**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,001	
	N	45	45

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q6 (job enjoyment) and Q20 (perceived opportunities for professional growth) is 0.464. This indicates a moderate positive correlation between job enjoyment and the perception that the job offers professional growth opportunities.

The *P-Value* is 0.001, which is statistically significant at the 0.01 level (99% confidence). This means that the likelihood of this correlation occurring by random chance is extremely low. So it is

possible to confidently assert that there is a meaningful and significant relationship between the two variable.

The analysis reveals a statistically significant positive relationship between the two variables. The moderate correlation suggests that employees who report higher levels of intrinsic motivation, such as enjoying their work, are more likely to perceive their job as offering meaningful opportunities for career development and growth. Organizations aiming to promote professional growth, and development should consider strategies to enhance job satisfaction and make work more enjoyable. Creating such environments can help employees see their work as not only enjoyable but also as a key factor in their personal and professional development, leading to positive work outcomes and increased employee retention.

The p-value of 0.001 further confirms the strength of this correlation. It tells us that the probability of obtaining such a correlation by pure chance is only 0.1%, which is highly unlikely. Therefore, the relationship between enjoying the job and seeing it as a platform for professional growth is highly significant. There is strong evidence to suggest that employees who derive pleasure from their work are more likely to feel that their job offers growth opportunities.

c) *Q6 (Job Enjoyment) and Q21 (Personal and Professional Satisfaction)*

Correlations

		Q6	Q21
Q6	Pearson Correlation	1	,174
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,247
	N	46	46
Q21	Pearson Correlation	,174	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,247	
	N	46	46

The *Pearson correlation coeffi*cient between Q6 (job enjoyment) and Q21 (personal and professional satisfaction) is 0.174. This indicates a weak positive correlation between job enjoyment and perceived personal and professional satisfaction.

The *P-Value* is 0.247, which is not statistically significant at the conventional 0.05 level. This indicates a 24.7% probability that the correlation occurred by random chance.

Therefore, we cannot reject the null hypothesis, and this correlation may be due to random variation.

The Pearson correlation coefficient suggests a slightly positive association, but the P-Value indicates this correlation is not statistically significant. So, there is not sufficient evidence to conclude that there is a meaningful relationship between the two variables.

This suggests that in this sample, job enjoyment does not have a meaningful impact on perceived satisfaction in personal and professional life.

d) Q7 (Job Fun) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)

Correlations

		Q7	Q19
Q7	Pearson Correlation	1	,571**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<,001
	N	46	45
Q19	Pearson Correlation	,571**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001	
	N	45	45

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q7 and Q19 is 0.571. This indicates a moderate to strong positive correlation between satisfaction with colleagues' support (Q7) and the self-evaluation of job performance (Q19).

The *P-Value* is less than 0.001, indicating that the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.01 level (99% confidence). This

means the probability that this correlation is due to chance is extremely low, confirming the existence of a significant relationship between these two variables.

The moderate to strong correlation suggests that employees who feel more supported by their colleagues are likely to assess their job performance more positively. Employees who feel supported by their peers are more likely to perceive themselves as performing well

Given that the P-Value is < 0.001, we reject the null hypothesis, indicating that there is only a 0.1% chance that the observed correlation occurred randomly. Therefore, the relationship between colleague support and job performance can be confidently asserted as meaningful.

e) *Q7 (Job Fun) and Q20 (Perceived Opportunities for Professional Growth)*

Correlations

		Q7	Q20
Q7	Pearson Correlation	1	,523**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<,001
	N	46	45
Q20	Pearson Correlation	,523**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001	
	N	45	45

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q7 and Q20 is 0.523. This indicates a moderate positive correlation between satisfaction with colleagues' support (Q7) and how often an employee exceeds basic duties (Q20).

The *P-Value* is less than 0.001, indicating that the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.01 level (99% confidence). This means the probability that this correlation occurred by random chance is very low, confirming the existence of a meaningful relationship between these two variables.

The moderate correlation suggests that employees who feel more supported by their colleagues are more likely to engage in discretionary behavior that goes beyond the basic requirements of their role. Employees who receive strong peer support tend to engage more in voluntary efforts that contribute to the success of their team and organization, reinforcing the value of fostering a supportive workplace culture.

Since the P-Value is < 0.001, the null hypothesis is rejected indicating that there is only a 0.1% chance that the observed correlation is due to random chance. Thus, the relationship between colleague support and discretionary work behavior is significant and reliable.

f) Q7 (Job Fun) and Q21 (Personal and Professional Satisfaction)

Correlations

		Q7	Q21
Q7	Pearson Correlation	1	,266
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,074
	N	46	46
Q21	Pearson Correlation	,266	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,074	
	N	46	46

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q7 and Q21 is 0.266. This indicates a weak positive correlation between satisfaction with colleagues' support (Q7) and the self-assessment of contribution to team success (Q21).

The *P-Value* is 0.074, which means the correlation is not statistically significant at the conventional 0.05 level (5% significance). While there is a slight positive correlation, we cannot confidently claim that this relationship is significant given the p-value exceeds 0.05.

The analysis shows a weak positive correlation between colleague support and perceived contribution to team success.

Although employees who report feeling supported by their colleagues tend to rate their contributions more favorably, the relationship is not statistically significant. This suggests that other factors may play a more substantial role in determining how employees perceive their contributions to team success.

The p-value of 0.074 suggests a 7.4% probability that the observed correlation occurred by random chance. Since this value is above the 0.05 threshold, the null hypothesis isn't rejected, and thus, the relationship between colleague support and self-perceived team contribution is not statistically significant.

g) *Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)*

Correlations

		Q8	Q19
Q8	Pearson Correlation	1	,521**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<,001
	N	46	45
Q19	Pearson Correlation	,521**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001	
	N	45	45

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q8 and Q19 is 0.521. This indicates a moderate to strong positive correlation between work engagement (Q8) and self-evaluation of job performance (Q19).

The *P-Value* is less than 0.001, indicating that the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.01 level (99% confidence). This means there is a very low probability that the observed correlation occurred by chance, allowing us to confidently assert that a meaningful relationship exists between work engagement and job performance.

The moderate to strong correlation suggests that employees who feel more engaged in their work are likely to perceive themselves as performing better in their roles. Employees who are more

engaged in their work are likely to perceive themselves as more effective and productive in their roles.

With a P-Value < 0.001, this result is highly statistically significant, meaning there is less than a 0.1% probability that the observed correlation occurred by random chance. The null hypothesis is rejected, confirming that engagement with work is positively associated with job performance.

h) Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler) and Q20 (Perceived Opportunities for Professional Growth)

Correlations

		Q8	Q20
Q8	Pearson Correlation	1	,422**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,004
	N	46	45
Q20	Pearson Correlation	,422**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,004	
	N	45	45

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q8 and Q20 is 0.422. This indicates a moderate positive correlation between work engagement (Q8) and the perceived ability to meet work objectives (Q20).

The *P-Value* is 0.004, which is less than 0.01, indicating that the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.01 level (99% confidence). This means that the probability of this correlation occurring by random chance is very low, so a meaningful relationship exists between work engagement and the perceived ability to meet objectives.

The moderate correlation suggests that employees who feel more engaged in their work are more likely to perceive themselves as capable of meeting their work objectives. The results suggest that intrinsic motivation, specifically engagement with work, is

positively associated with employees' perceived ability to meet work objectives. This underscores the importance of fostering engagement in the workplace as it can lead to better self-evaluations of work performance and the capacity to achieve goals.

With a p-value of 0.004, this result is statistically significant, meaning that there is only a 0.4% chance that the observed correlation occurred by random chance.

i) Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler) and Q21 (Personal and Professional Satisfaction)

Correlations

		Q8	Q21
Q8	Pearson Correlation	1	,124
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,412
	N	46	46
Q21	Pearson Correlation	,124	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,412	
	N	46	46

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q8 and Q21 is 0.124. This indicates a weak positive correlation between work engagement (Q8) and self-perception of work quality (Q21).

The *P-Value* is 0.412, which is greater than the common significance level of 0.05. This indicates that the correlation is not statistically significant, meaning that it is not possible to confidently claim that there is a meaningful relationship between these two variables.

The analysis reveals a very weak positive relationship between work engagement (Q8) and perceived work quality (Q21), with a correlation coefficient of 0.124. However, this relationship is not statistically significant, as the p-value of 0.412 exceeds the typical threshold for significance (0.05). So it is impossible to confirm that an increase in work engagement leads to a noticeable

improvement in employees' perceived work quality. in this sample, engagement with work does not have a clear impact on how employees perceive the quality of their work. These findings imply that other factors may play a more crucial role in determining perceived work quality,

With a P-Value of 0.412, the probability that the observed correlation occurred by random chance is quite high (around 41.2%). Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected, and the correlation between work engagement and perceived work quality cannot be considered statistically significant.

j) Q9 (Career Satisfaction) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)

Correlations

		Q9	Q19
Q9	Pearson Correlation	1	,535**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<,001
	N	46	45
Q19	Pearson Correlation	,535**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001	
	N	45	45

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q9 and Q19 is 0.535. This indicates a moderate positive correlation between finding the job rewarding (Q9) and the self-evaluation of job performance (Q19).

The *P-Value* is less than 0.001, which indicates that the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.01 level (99% confidence). This suggests that the likelihood of this correlation occurring by random chance is extremely low. So, it asserts that there is a meaningful relationship between feeling rewarded at work and self-evaluated job performance.

A correlation coefficient of 0.535 suggests that employees who perceive their job as rewarding tend to also evaluate their

performance positively. This finding implies that intrinsic motivation, specifically the sense of being rewarded at work, can have a significant impact on how employees perceive their performance.

With a P-Value of less than 0.001, the probability that this correlation occurred by random chance is very low. As a result, the null hypothesis is rejected and confidently claims that there is a significant correlation between the perception of job reward and the self-evaluation of performance.

k) Q9 (Career Satisfaction) and Q20 (Perceived Opportunities for Professional Growth)

Correlations

		Q9	Q20
Q9	Pearson Correlation	1	,338*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,023
	N	46	45
Q20	Pearson Correlation	,338*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,023	
	N	45	45

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q9 and Q20 is 0.338. This indicates a moderate positive correlation between the perception of job reward (Q9) and satisfaction with work outcomes (Q20). This suggests that employees who perceive their jobs as rewarding are likely to experience higher levels of satisfaction with their performance and work results. Organizations focusing on increasing the employees' sense of reward may see improvements in their satisfaction with their own performance and work outcomes.

The *P-Value* is 0.023, which indicates that the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. This means that there is a less than 5% likelihood that the correlation occurred by chance.

So, it suggests a meaningful relationship between job reward and satisfaction with job outcomes.

l) Q9 (Career Satisfaction) and Q21 (Personal and Professional Satisfaction)

Correlations

		Q9	Q21
Q9	Pearson Correlation	1	,324*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,028
	N	46	46
Q21	Pearson Correlation	,324*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,028	
	N	46	46

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q9 and Q21 is 0.324. This indicates a moderate positive correlation between the perception of job reward (Q9) and the self-assessment of work performance (Q21). This suggests that employees who view their job as rewarding are more likely to assess their work performance positively.

The *P-Value* is 0.028, which indicates that the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. This suggests a low probability (2.8%) that the correlation occurred by chance, providing confidence that there is a meaningful relationship between job reward and self-assessed job performance. The null hypothesis of no relationship is rejected and there is a meaningful connection between these two variables.

The moderate positive correlation between finding the job rewarding and the self-assessment of overall job performance indicates that employees who feel intrinsically motivated by the rewards of their job are more likely to rate their performance favorably. Moreover, fostering a work environment where

employees perceive intrinsic rewards could lead to enhanced self-perception of work performance.

m) Q10 (Personal Values Alignment) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)

Correlations

		Q10	Q19
Q10	Pearson Correlation	1	,557**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<,001
	N	46	45
Q19	Pearson Correlation	,557**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001	
	N	45	45

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q10 and Q19 is 0.557. This suggests a moderate to strong positive correlation between personal satisfaction with recognition (Q10) and self-evaluation of job performance (Q19).

The *P-Value* is less than 0.001, indicating that the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.01 level. This means there is a very low probability (less than 0.1%) that the correlation occurred by random chance. Moreover, it is possible to assert that there is a meaningful relationship between these two variables.

The correlation coefficient of 0.557 indicates that employees who report higher levels of satisfaction with the recognition they receive also tend to view their job performance more favorably. Organizations that focus on providing meaningful recognition to employees could see an improvement in how employees perceive their work outcomes, potentially enhancing overall performance.

n) Q10 (Personal Values Alignment) and Q20 (Perceived Opportunities for Professional Growth)

Correlations

		Q10	Q20
Q10	Pearson Correlation	1	,324*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,030
	N	46	45
Q20	Pearson Correlation	,324*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,030	
	N	45	45

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q10 and Q20 is 0.324. This indicates a weak to moderate positive correlation between satisfaction with recognition (Q10) and how others evaluate job performance (Q20). While the correlation is relatively weak to moderate, it suggests that employees who report higher levels of satisfaction with the recognition they receive are more likely to be rated positively by others regarding their job performance. This finding suggests that extrinsic motivation, in the form of recognition and satisfaction with it, is not only linked to how employees perceive their performance but also to how others evaluate their performance. Organizations should consider the role of recognition in improving not only employees' self-assessment but also the assessments provided by peers, supervisors, or colleagues.

The *P-Value* is 0.030, meaning the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. This indicates that the correlation is unlikely to have occurred by chance (less than 5% probability), so there is a meaningful relationship between these two variables.

o) *Q10 (Personal Values Alignment) and Q21 (Personal and Professional Satisfaction)*

Correlations

		Q10	Q21
Q10	Pearson Correlation	1	,112
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,458
	N	46	46
Q21	Pearson Correlation	,112	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,458	
	N	46	46

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q10 and Q21 is 0.112. This indicates a very weak positive correlation between satisfaction with recognition (Q10) and the perception of one's work quality (Q21). The strength of this correlation suggests that the two variables are only weakly related. This finding suggests that, in this data set, satisfaction with recognition does not appear to strongly influence how employees perceive the quality of their work.

This high *P-Value* indicates a high probability (around 45.8%) that the observed correlation occurred by chance. As a result, it is not possible to assert that there is a meaningful relationship between these two variables. Moreover, the relationship between these variables is not statistically significant.

p) *Q11 (Work-Related Competition) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)*

Correlations

		Q11	Q19
Q11	Pearson Correlation	1	,192
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,207
	N	46	45
Q19	Pearson Correlation	,192	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,207	
	N	45	45

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q11 and Q19 is 0.192. This indicates a weak positive correlation between feeling motivated by organizational goals (Q11) and self-evaluated job performance (Q19). Motivation derived from organizational goals does not have a strong or meaningful impact on how employees perceive their job performance in this sample.

The *P-Value* is 0.207, meaning the correlation is not statistically significant at conventional levels (e.g., 0.05 or 0.01). This relatively high p-value indicates a 20.7% probability that the observed correlation is due to chances. The relationship between feeling motivated by organizational goals and self-evaluated job performance is not statistically significant in this dataset. It is impossible to reject the null hypothesis because there is no correlation between the two variables, meaning the observed correlation may be due to chance.

q) Q11 (Work-Related Competition) and Q20 (Perceived Opportunities for Professional Growth)

Correlations

		Q11	Q20
Q11	Pearson Correlation	1	,212
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,162
	N	46	45
Q20	Pearson Correlation	,212	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,162	
	N	45	45

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q11 and Q20 is 0.212. This indicates a weak positive correlation between the motivation derived from the organization's goals (Q11) and the self-evaluation of job performance (Q20). At this point, it is impossible to claim that motivation from organizational goals significantly impacts self-evaluation of job performance.

The *P-Value* for this correlation is 0.162, which is above the common significance threshold of 0.05. This means the correlation is not statistically significant at either the 0.05 or 0.01 levels. So, the correlation could have occurred due to random chances, and it is not possible to state that there is a meaningful relationship between these variables. Moreover, since the P-Value is greater than 0.05, it is not possible to reject the null hypothesis, meaning the observed correlation could be due to chance.

r) *Q11 (Work-Related Competition) and Q21 (Personal and Professional Satisfaction)*

Correlations

		Q11	Q21
Q11	Pearson Correlation	1	,210
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,162
	N	46	46
Q21	Pearson Correlation	,210	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,162	
	N	46	46

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q11 and Q21 is 0.210. This indicates a weak positive correlation between motivation derived from organizational goals (Q11) and self-reported job performance (Q21). So, an increase in motivation derived from the organization's goals is associated with only a slight increase in perceived job performance.

The *P-Value* for this correlation is 0.162, meaning the correlation is not statistically significant. With a p-value greater than 0.05, we cannot reject the null hypothesis. This means that the observed correlation could have occurred by chance, and it is impossible to confidently assert that there is a meaningful relationship between these two variables.

This finding suggests that organizations aiming to enhance job performance should consider a more holistic approach to

motivation, rather than solely focusing on aligning employees with organizational goals.

s) *Q12 (Fear of Failure in Job) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)*

Correlations

		Q12	Q19
Q12	Pearson Correlation	1	,103
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,501
	N	46	45
Q19	Pearson Correlation	,103	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,501	
	N	45	45

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between the motivation factor represented by Q12 and self-reported job performance (Q19) is positive. However, the strength of the correlation is meager, meaning that there is almost no linear relationship between these two variables.

The P-*Value* is 0.501. This indicates that the correlation is not statistically significant, meaning we cannot confidently say that the observed correlation is different from zero. Essentially, the weak correlation observed could easily have occurred by random chance.

This result implies that the type of motivation captured by Q12 does not have a meaningful impact on employees' self-evaluated job performance. The weak correlation and lack of significance suggest that other factors, possibly other types of motivation or external influences, may play a more substantial role in shaping how employees perceive their performance. Moreover, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

t) *Q12 (Fear of Failure in Job) and Q20 (Perceived Opportunities for Professional Growth)*

Correlations

		Q12	Q20
Q12	Pearson Correlation	1	,205
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,178
	N	46	45
Q20	Pearson Correlation	,205	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,178	
	N	45	45

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between the motivation factor represented by Q12 and self-reported job performance (Q20). However, the relationship is weak, implying that changes in Q12 are not strongly associated with changes in Q20.

The *P-Value* is 0.178. It is greater than the commonly used significance thresholds (0.05 or 0.01).

This suggests that the correlation is not statistically significant, meaning the observed relationship could be due to random chance. Moreover, there is not a meaningful connection between these two variables.

The null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

u) *Q12 (Fear of Failure in Job) and Q21 (Personal and Professional Satisfaction)*

Correlations

		Q12	Q21
Q12	Pearson Correlation	1	,182
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,225
	N	46	46
Q21	Pearson Correlation	,182	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,225	
	N	46	46

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q12 and Q21 is 0.182. This indicates a very weak positive correlation between these two variables. The association is so weak that it can be considered negligible, meaning that an increase in Q12 is only minimally associated with an increase in Q21. So other factors beyond motivation might be influencing the perception of job performance in this context

The *P-Value* of 0.225 implies that the correlation is not statistically significant, meaning the observed association between Q12 and Q21 could likely be due to random chance rather than a true relationship between the variables.

This result implies that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, meaning that the observed correlation is likely due to chance, and there is no strong relationship between Q12 and Q21.

v) Q13 (Job-Dependent Reputation) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)

Correlations

		Q13	Q19
Q13	Pearson Correlation	1	,314*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,036
	N	46	45
Q19	Pearson Correlation	,314*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,036	
	N	45	45

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q13 and Q19 is 0.314. This indicates a moderate positive correlation between the two variables. It suggests that as motivation (Q13) increases, self-perceived job performance (Q19) also increases, though the relationship is not very strong. Although the correlation is not strong, it is moderate, indicating that as respondents report higher

levels of motivation, they are more likely to perceive themselves as performing better in their jobs.

The *P-Value* indicates that the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.05 level, meaning there is less than a 5% chance that the observed correlation is due to random variation. So, there is a meaningful relationship between the two variables.

The null hypothesis can be rejected as the P-Value of 0.036 indicates that the observed correlation is unlikely to be due to chance. Moreover, this finding suggests that motivation is a meaningful predictor of self-assessed job performance, although the strength of the relationship is moderate. Organizations aiming to improve performance outcomes should consider ways to enhance employee motivation, as it appears to have a measurable impact on how employees evaluate their performance.

w) *Q13 (Job-Dependent Reputation) and Q20 (Perceived Opportunities for Professional Growth)*

Correlations

		Q13	Q20
Q13	Pearson Correlation	1	,300*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,045
	N	46	45
Q20	Pearson Correlation	,300*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,045	
	N	45	45

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q13 and Q20 is 0.300. This indicates a moderate positive correlation between the two variables. As motivation increases, there is a tendency for self-assessed productivity to increase, though the relationship is not very strong.

The *P-Value* is 0.045. It is below the standard significance threshold of 0.05. This indicates that the correlation is statistically

significant at 0.05. The relationship observed between these two variables is unlikely to have occurred by random chance.

The null hypothesis is rejected as the P-Value of 0.045 indicates that the observed correlation is statistically significant. This finding implies that motivation is a relevant factor in influencing self-assessed productivity. While the correlation is not strong, it is enough to suggest that motivated employees tend to perceive themselves as more productive. This result emphasizes the importance of enhancing motivation in the workplace to positively influence productivity levels.

x) *Q13 (Job-Dependent Reputation) and Q21 (Personal and Professional Satisfaction)*

Correlations

		Q13	Q21
Q13	Pearson Correlation	1	,172
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,253
	N	46	46
Q21	Pearson Correlation	,172	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,253	
	N	46	46

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q13 and Q21 is 0.172. This indicates a very weak positive correlation between the two variables. The correlation suggests that as motivation increases, there might be a slight increase in work efficiency, but the relationship is weak.

The *P-Value* is 0.253. This indicates that the correlation is not statistically significant. So, it is evident that the relationship between these two variables occurs by chance.

This result means that it is impossible to assert that motivation has a direct influence on work efficiency. Moreover, this finding indicates that there is no meaningful correlation between Q13 and Q21.

The null hypothesis cannot be rejected, as the P-Value of 0.253 suggests that the observed correlation may have occurred by chance.

y) Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)

Correlations

		Q14	Q19
Q14	Pearson Correlation	1	,562**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<,001
	N	46	45
Q19	Pearson Correlation	,562**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001	
	N	45	45

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q14 and Q19 is 0.562. This indicates a moderate to strong positive correlation between the two variables. As the value of Q14 increases, there is a notable increase in how respondents evaluate their job performance. This implies that changes in the factors associated with Q14 are likely to influence how employees perceive their job performance.

The *P-Value* is less than 0.001, which is highly statistically significant. This means that the probability of this correlation occurring by chance is extremely low. So, it is possible to assert that the observed relationship between these two variables is not random and is likely meaningful.

z) *Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living) and Q20 (Perceived Opportunities for Professional Growth)*

Correlations

		Q14	Q20
Q14	Pearson Correlation	1	,345*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,020
	N	46	45
Q20	Pearson Correlation	,345*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,020	
	N	45	45

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q14 and Q20 is 0.345. This indicates a moderate positive correlation between the two variables. Moreover, this suggests that as the factor measured by Q14 increases, there is a moderate tendency for the factor measured by Q20 to also increase.

The *P-Value* is 0.020, which is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. This means that the probability of this correlation occurring by random chance is low.

Therefore, the null hypothesis can be rejected and there is likely a meaningful relationship between these two variables.

aa) *Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living) and Q21 (Personal and Professional Satisfaction)*

Correlations

		Q14	Q21
Q14	Pearson Correlation	1	,338*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,022
	N	46	46
Q21	Pearson Correlation	,338*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,022	
	N	46	46

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q14 and Q21 is 0.338. This indicates a moderate positive correlation between the two variables. So as the value of Q14 increases, there is a mild tendency for the value of Q21 to increase as well.

The *P-Value* is 0.022, which is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. This means that the probability of this correlation occurring by chance is low, allowing us to reject the null hypothesis and affirm a meaningful relationship between these two variables.

If an organization focused on improving the factors associated with Q14, such as boosting employee motivation or improving job-related factors, it could lead to better outcomes measured by Q21, like increased job performance or satisfaction.

bb) Q15 (High Earnings Potential) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)

Correlations

		Q15	Q19
Q15	Pearson Correlation	1	,448**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,002
	N	45	44
Q19	Pearson Correlation	,448**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,002	
	N	44	45

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q15 and Q19 is 0.448. This indicates a moderate positive correlation between the two variables. So as the value of Q15 increases, the value of Q19 tends to increase as well. The correlation is mild, meaning the relationship is noticeable but not extremely strong.

The *P-Value* associated with this correlation is 0.002. This means the correlation is statistically significant at the 0.01 level (99% confidence). There is a very low probability that this correlation

occurred by random chance. The relationship between the two variables is meaningful.

The moderate positive correlation between high earning potential (Q15) and self-evaluated job performance (Q19) indicates that employees who believe they have a higher potential for earnings tend to rate their job performance more favorably. This may imply that employees' expectations about their financial growth or salary prospects could play a role in how they perceive their performance in the workplace.

cc) Q15 (High Earnings Potential) and Q20 (Perceived Opportunities for Professional Growth)

Correlations

		Q15	Q20
Q15	Pearson Correlation	1	,181
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,240
	N	45	44
Q20	Pearson Correlation	,181	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,240	
	N	44	45

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q15 (high earning potential) and Q20 is 0.181. This indicates a very weak positive correlation between perceived high earning potential and the factor measured by Q20. So, the correlation between these variables is minimal.

The *P-Value* is 0.24. This means that the correlation is not statistically significant. It is impossible to confidently say that the observed relationship between high earning potential and Q20 is meaningful, as the likelihood of this result occurring by random chance is relatively high (24%). Moreover, it is also impossible to reject the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between these two variables.

dd) Q15 (High Earnings Potential) and Q21 (Personal and Professional Satisfaction)

Correlations

		Q15	Q21
Q15	Pearson Correlation	1	,218
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,149
	N	45	45
Q21	Pearson Correlation	,218	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,149	
	N	45	46

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q15 (high earning potential) and Q21 (personal and professional satisfaction) is 0.218. This indicates a weak positive correlation between high earning potential and personal and professional satisfaction.

The *P-Value* is 0.149. It is greater than 0.05, indicating that the correlation is not statistically significant.

This means the null hypothesis is not rejected, and the observed correlation may have occurred by chance.

This result suggests that based on the current data, high earning potential does not appear to have a meaningful impact on personal and professional satisfaction.

ee) Q16 (Salary-Driven Work) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)

Correlations

		Q16	Q19
Q16	Pearson Correlation	1	-,200
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,187
	N	46	45
Q19	Pearson Correlation	-,200	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,187	
	N	45	45

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q16 and Q19 is -0.200. This indicates a weak negative correlation between these two variables. A negative correlation suggests that as the factor measured by Q16 increases, the factor measured by Q19 decreases. The data does not support the existence of a real, meaningful correlation between these two variables.

The *P-Value* is 0.187, which is greater than 0.05, indicating that the correlation is not statistically significant. This means that it is impossible to reject the null hypothesis, and the observed weak negative correlation may have occurred by chance.

ff) Q16 (Salary-Driven Work) and Q20 (Perceived Opportunities for Professional Growth)

Correlations

		Q16	Q20
Q16	Pearson Correlation	1	-,260
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,084
	N	46	45
Q20	Pearson Correlation	-,260	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,084	
	N	45	45

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q16 and Q20 is -0.260. This suggests a weak negative correlation. A negative correlation implies that as salary-driven work increases, the perception of opportunities for professional growth tends to decrease, albeit this relationship is weak.

The *P-Value* for this correlation is 0.084. This indicates that the correlation is not statistically significant at the 5% level. Therefore, the relationship between the observed variables is not meaningful.

While the data suggests a weak negative association between salary-driven work and perceived opportunities for professional growth, this relationship is not statistically significant in this

sample. It could be that in this context, salary-driven work is not strongly tied to perceptions of professional growth, or there may be other underlying factors influencing this relationship.

gg) Q16 (Salary-Driven Work) and Q21 (Personal and Professional Satisfaction)

Correlations

		Q16	Q21
Q16	Pearson Correlation	1	-,098
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,516
	N	46	46
Q21	Pearson Correlation	-,098	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,516	
	N	46	46

The *Pearson correlation coefficient* between Q16 and Q21 is -0.098. This indicates a very weak negative correlation. So as the focus on salary-driven work increases, there is a slight tendency for personal and professional satisfaction to decrease, though this relationship is weak.

The *P-Value* associated with this correlation is 0.516, which is well above the standard significance level of 0.05. This means that the correlation is not statistically significant, indicating that the observed correlation is likely due to random variation and does not reflect a meaningful relationship between the two variables. Since the P-Value is greater than 0.05, it is impossible to reject the null hypothesis.

This result implies that focusing on salary as a motivator does not appear to have a strong impact, either positively or negatively, on an individual's overall satisfaction with their personal and professional life.

In this context, prioritizing salary in one's work does not have a noticeable effect on their overall satisfaction with their personal and professional life.

7.4 GROUP COMPARISON

In this section, an analysis is conducted to examine how levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation vary according to different socio-demographic variables: *gender, age group, gross annual salary (GAS), years of work experience, and role.* The objective is to explore differences between groups by using descriptive statistics and graphs to highlight the key findings.

7.4.1 Gender Comparison

Before calculating correlations, gender was coded as a numerical variable (1 = male, 2 = female). Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were already numerical variables.

- *Intrinsic Motivation*

a) Q1 (Gender) and Q6 (Job Enjoyment)

Correlations

		Q1	Q6
Q1	Pearson Correlation	1	-,239
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,109
	N	46	46
Q6	Pearson Correlation	-,239	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,109	
	N	46	46

There is a weak negative correlation between gender and the enjoyment of the job. The negative sign indicates that males may report slightly more enjoyment than females, but the correlation is weak and not statistically significant because the P-Value (0.109) is greater than the typical threshold of 0.05. This suggests that gender is not strongly related to how much someone enjoys their job.

b) Q1 (Gender) and Q7 (Job Fun)

Correlations

		Q1	Q7
Q1	Pearson Correlation	1	-,260
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,081
	N	46	46
Q7	Pearson Correlation	-,260	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,081	
	N	46	46

There is a weak negative correlation between gender and joy in doing the job, with a slightly stronger correlation compared to Q6. Again, the negative correlation suggests males may experience slightly more joy in their work than females. However, the P-Value (0.081) is above 0.05, meaning the result is not statistically significant. Therefore, this weak correlation could be due to random chance.

c) Q1 (Gender) and Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler)

Correlations

		Q1	Q8
Q1	Pearson Correlation	1	-,139
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,358
	N	46	46
Q8	Pearson Correlation	-,139	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,358	
	N	46	46

The correlation between gender and whether the job helps achieve life goals is very weak (-0.139), and the P-Value (0.358) is well above 0.05, indicating this relationship is not statistically significant. Gender seems to have little to no relationship with the perception that the job helps achieve life goals.

d) *Q1 (Gender) and Q9 (Career Satisfaction)*

Correlations

		Q1	Q9
Q1	Pearson Correlation	1	-,231
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,123
	N	46	46
Q9	Pearson Correlation	-,231	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,123	
	N	46	46

There is a weak negative correlation (-0.231) between gender and the fulfillment of career plans through the job. While males may feel their job fulfills their career plans slightly more than females, the P-Value (0.123) shows that this result is not statistically significant, so we cannot confidently assert that gender influences perceptions of career fulfillment.

e) *Q1 (Gender) and Q10 (Personal Values Alignment)*

Correlations

		Q1	Q10
Q1	Pearson Correlation	1	-,029
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,846
	N	46	46
Q10	Pearson Correlation	-,029	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,846	
	N	46	46

There is virtually no correlation (-0.029) between gender and whether the job aligns with personal values. The P-Value is very high (0.846), indicating this result is far from being statistically significant. Gender does not appear to have any meaningful relationship with the perception that the job aligns with personal values.

- *Extrinsic Motivation*

a) *Q1 (Gender) and Q11 (Work-Related Competition)*

Correlations

		Q1	Q11
Q1	Pearson Correlation	1	,030
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,843
	N	46	46
Q11	Pearson Correlation	,030	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,843	
	N	46	46

There is a very weak positive correlation between gender and the perception of needing to be the best at the job to feel like a winner. Since the P-Value is very high (0.843), the result is not statistically significant. This indicates that gender does not influence how respondents feel about needing to be the best to be considered a "winner".

b) *Q1 (Gender) and Q12 (Fear of Failure in Job)*

Correlations

		Q1	Q12
Q1	Pearson Correlation	1	-,052
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,729
	N	46	46
Q12	Pearson Correlation	-,052	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,729	
	N	46	46

The negative correlation is very weak (-0.052), and the P-Value (0.729) suggests that this result is far from significant. Gender does not seem to play any role in whether respondents feel that their job is their life, and they cannot afford to fail.

c) Q1 (Gender) and Q13 (Job-Dependent Reputation)

Correlations

		Q1	Q13
Q1	Pearson Correlation	1	,247
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,098
	N	46	46
Q13	Pearson Correlation	,247	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,098	
	N	46	46

There is a weak positive correlation between gender and the belief that reputation depends on the job (0.247), but it is not statistically significant (0.098). This suggests that there may be a weak relationship, but it is not strong enough to draw meaningful conclusions.

d) Q1 (Gender) and Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living)

Correlations

		Q1	Q14
Q1	Pearson Correlation	1	-,212
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,158
	N	46	46
Q14	Pearson Correlation	-,212	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,158	
	N	46	46

There is a weak negative correlation (-0.212) between gender and the belief that the job guarantees a certain standard of living. However, the P-Value (0.158) indicates this result is not statistically significant, meaning gender is unlikely to strongly influence this perception.

e) Q1 (Gender) and Q15 (High Earnings Potential)

Correlations

		Q1	Q15
Q1	Pearson Correlation	1	-,233
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,124
	N	46	45
Q15	Pearson Correlation	-,233	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,124	
	N	45	45

The weak negative correlation (-0.233) suggests males might believe slightly more than females that their job allows them to earn a lot of money. However, the P-Value (0.124) indicates this result is not statistically significant, so we cannot conclude that gender has a meaningful impact on this perception.

f) Q1 (Gender) and Q16 (Salary-Driven Work)

Correlations

		Q1	Q16
Q1	Pearson Correlation	1	-,318*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,031
	N	46	46
Q16	Pearson Correlation	-,318*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,031	
	N	46	46

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

There is a moderate negative correlation (-0.318) between gender and whether the job is done primarily for the salary. The P-Value of 0.031 indicates that this correlation is statistically significant at the 0.05 level. This suggests that males are more likely to do the job for the salary compared to females, and this relationship is statistically significant.

7.4.2 Age Group Comparison

Age groups were categorized to examine the relationship between different age ranges and levels of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation:

a) *24-34 years* = 1

b) *35-44 years* = 2

c) *45- 55 years* = 3

d) *over 56*= 4

This simplified division into three categories allows for easier analysis of how income affects motivation levels.

- *Intrinsic Motivation*

a) Q2 (Age) and Q6 (Job Enjoyment)

Correlations

		Q2	Q6
Q2	Pearson Correlation	1	,053
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,727
	N	46	46
Q6	Pearson Correlation	,053	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,727	
	N	46	46

There is a very weak positive correlation between Age and Job Enjoyment, but it is not statistically significant. The P-Value (0.727) is much larger than 0.05, meaning this result could have occurred by chance.

Age does not appear to be a meaningful factor in influencing how much someone enjoys their job

b) Q2 (Age) and Q7 (Job Fun)

Correlations

		Q2	Q7
Q2	Pearson Correlation	1	-,003
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,983
	N	46	46
Q7	Pearson Correlation	-,003	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,983	
	N	46	46

The correlation between Age and finding joy in the job is almost zero (-0.003), and the P-Value (0.983) indicates it is not statistically significant. There is no meaningful relationship between these two variables.

c) Q2 (Age) and Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler)

Correlations

		Q2	Q8
Q2	Pearson Correlation	1	-,048
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,751
	N	46	46
Q8	Pearson Correlation	-,048	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,751	
	N	46	46

The correlation is very weakly negative (-0.048) and not statistically significant (0.751). There is no meaningful relationship between age and the belief that the job aligns with one's life goals.

d) Q2 (Age) and Q9 (Career Satisfaction)

Correlations

		Q2	Q9
Q2	Pearson Correlation	1	-,089
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,558
	N	46	46
Q9	Pearson Correlation	-,089	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,558	
	N	46	46

This correlation is also weakly negative (-0.089) and not statistically significant (0.558). There is no significant relationship between age and the perception that the job fulfills career plans.

e) Q2 (Age) and Q10 (Personal Values Alignment)

Correlations

		Q2	Q10
Q2	Pearson Correlation	1	,102
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,502
	N	46	46
Q10	Pearson Correlation	,102	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,502	
	N	46	46

There is a weak positive correlation (0.102) between age and the belief that the job aligns with personal values, but this correlation is not statistically significant (0.502). Age does not seem to play a role in determining how well the job aligns with personal values.

- *Extrinsic Motivation*

a) Q2 (Age) and Q11 (Work-Related Competition)

Correlations

		Q2	Q11
Q2	Pearson Correlation	1	-,287
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,053
	N	46	46
Q11	Pearson Correlation	-,287	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,053	
	N	46	46

There is a moderate negative correlation between Age and Q11, with a Pearson correlation of -0.287. The P-Value (0.053) is close to the significance threshold of 0.05, but it is not significant, meaning we cannot be fully confident that this relationship is not due to chance. This suggests that older participants tend to slightly disagree with statements related to Q11, but this trend is not statistically strong.

b) Q2 (Age) and Q12 (Fear of Failure in Job)

Correlations

		Q2	Q12
Q2	Pearson Correlation	1	-,067
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,660
	N	46	46
Q12	Pearson Correlation	-,067	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,660	
	N	46	46

The correlation between Age and Fear of Failure in Job (Q12) is very weak (-0.067) and not statistically significant (0.660). This suggests there is no meaningful relationship between age and fear of failure at work

c) Q2 (Age) and Q13 (Job-Dependent Reputation)

Correlations

		Q2	Q13
Q2	Pearson Correlation	1	-,190
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,205
	N	46	46
Q13	Pearson Correlation	-,190	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,205	
	N	46	46

The correlation between Age and Job-Dependent Reputation (Q13) is weak and negative (-0.190), indicating that older individuals may feel slightly less reliant on their jobs for their reputation, but this is not a significant relationship (0.205).

d) Q2 (Age) and Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living)

Correlations

		Q2	Q14
Q2	Pearson Correlation	1	,252
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,092
	N	46	46
Q14	Pearson Correlation	,252	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,092	
	N	46	46

The correlation between Age and Job as a Standard of Living (Q14) is weakly positive (0.252). The P-Value (0.092) is above the significance threshold, indicating this correlation is not statistically significant. It suggests a slight tendency for older individuals to see their job as contributing to their standard of living, but the relationship is not strong enough to be considered meaningful.

e) Q2 (Age) and Q15 (High Earnings Potential)

Correlations

		Q2	Q15
Q2	Pearson Correlation	1	,125
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,413
	N	46	45
Q15	Pearson Correlation	,125	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,413	
	N	45	45

The correlation between Age and High Earnings Potential (Q15) is very weak (0.125) and not statistically significant (0.413). This indicates that there is no substantial relationship between age and how participants view the earnings potential of their jobs.

f) Q2 (Age) and Q16 (Salary-Driven Work)

Correlations

		Q2	Q16
Q2	Pearson Correlation	1	,336*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,022
	N	46	46
Q16	Pearson Correlation	,336*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,022	
	N	46	46

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The correlation between Age and Salary-Driven Work (Q16) is moderate and positive (0.336), and this relationship is statistically significant (0.022). This suggests that older participants are more likely to see their work as salary-driven, meaning age is associated with a greater focus on salary as a motivator.

7.4.3 Gross Annual Salary (GAS) Comparison

For correlation analysis, GAS was divided into three categories:

a) < *29.999 euros* = 1

b) *30.000-49.999 euros* = 2

c) > *50.000 euros* = 3

This simplified division into three categories allows for easier analysis of how income affects motivation levels.

- *Intrinsic Motivation*

a) Q3 (GAS) and Q6 (Job Enjoyment)

Correlations

		Q3	Q6
Q3	Pearson Correlation	1	,403**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,006
	N	46	46
Q6	Pearson Correlation	,403**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,006	
	N	46	46

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

There is a moderate positive correlation between Gross Annual Salary and Job Enjoyment (0.403), and this relationship is statistically significant (0.006). This suggests that individuals with higher salaries tend to enjoy their jobs more.

b) *Q3 (GAS) and Q7 (Job Fun)*

Correlations

		Q3	Q7
Q3	Pearson Correlation	1	,312*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,035
	N	46	46
Q7	Pearson Correlation	,312*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,035	
	N	46	46

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

There is a weak to moderate positive correlation between Gross Annual Salary and Joy in Doing the Job (0.312), and this relationship is statistically significant (0.035). This indicates that individuals with higher salaries find more joy in doing their job, though the strength of the relationship is not as strong as with job enjoyment (Q6).

c) Q3 (GAS) and Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler)

Correlations

		Q3	Q8
Q3	Pearson Correlation	1	,284
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,056
	N	46	46
Q8	Pearson Correlation	,284	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,056	
	N	46	46

The correlation between Gross Annual Salary and Achieving Life Goals through Job is weak (0.284) and not statistically significant (0.056). This suggests that salary may have a slight influence on whether individuals see their job as a means to achieve life goals, but the relationship is not strong enough to be considered significant.

d) Q3 (GAS) and Q9 (Career Satisfaction)

Correlations

		Q3	Q9
Q3	Pearson Correlation	1	,262
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,078
	N	46	46
Q9	Pearson Correlation	,262	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,078	
	N	46	46

There is a weak positive correlation between Gross Annual Salary and Job Fulfilling Career Plans (0.262), but this relationship is not statistically significant (0.078). While there is a slight tendency for higher salary earners to feel that their job fulfills their career plans, the correlation is not strong enough to be considered significant.

e) Q3 (GAS) and Q10 (Personal Values Alignment)

Correlations

		Q3	Q10
Q3	Pearson Correlation	1	,400**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,006
	N	46	46
Q10	Pearson Correlation	,400**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,006	
	N	46	46

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

There is a moderate positive correlation between Gross Annual Salary and Job Aligning with Personal Values (0.400), and this relationship is statistically significant (0.006). This suggests that individuals with higher salaries are more likely to feel that their job aligns with their values.

- *Extrinsic Motivation*

a) Q3 (GAS) and Q11 (Work-Related Competition)

Correlations

		Q3	Q11
Q3	Pearson Correlation	1	,232
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,121
	N	46	46
Q11	Pearson Correlation	,232	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,121	
	N	46	46

There is a weak positive correlation between Gross Annual Salary and Work-Related Competition (0.232). However, this

relationship is not statistically significant (0.121), indicating no strong evidence that salary impacts how competitive someone feels at work.

b) Q3 (GAS) and Q12 (Fear of Failure in Job)

Correlations

		Q3	Q12
Q3	Pearson Correlation	1	,268
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,072
	N	46	46
Q12	Pearson Correlation	,268	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,072	
	N	46	46

There is a weak to moderate positive correlation between Gross Annual Salary and Fear of Failure in Job (0.268). However, the P-Value (0.072) shows that the relationship is not statistically significant, though it approaches significance.

c) *Q3 (GAS) and Q13 (Job-Dependent Reputation)*

Correlations

		Q3	Q13
Q3	Pearson Correlation	1	,267
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,073
	N	46	46
Q13	Pearson Correlation	,267	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,073	
	N	46	46

There is a weak positive correlation between Gross Annual Salary and Job-Dependent Reputation (0.267). However, like Q12, the relationship is not statistically significant (0.073), though it comes close to being significant.

d) *Q3 (GAS) and Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living)*

Correlations

		Q3	Q14
Q3	Pearson Correlation	1	,593**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<,001
	N	46	46
Q14	Pearson Correlation	,593**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001	
	N	46	46

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

There is a strong positive correlation between Gross Annual Salary and Job as a Standard of Living (0.593), and this relationship is statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). This suggests that higher salaries are strongly associated with perceiving the job as a means to maintain or achieve a certain standard of living.

e) Q3 (GAS) and Q15 (High Earnings Potential)

Correlations

		Q3	Q15
Q3	Pearson Correlation	1	,475**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		<,001
	N	46	45
Q15	Pearson Correlation	,475**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<,001	
	N	45	45

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

There is a moderate to strong positive correlation between Gross Annual Salary and High Earnings Potential (0.475), and this relationship is statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). This indicates that individuals with higher salaries are likely to perceive their jobs as having high earnings potential.

f) Q3 (GAS) and Q16 (Salary-Driven Work)

Correlations

		Q3	Q16
Q3	Pearson Correlation	1	,064
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,672
	N	46	46
Q16	Pearson Correlation	,064	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,672	
	N	46	46

There is a very weak and non-significant correlation between Gross Annual Salary and Salary-Driven Work (0.064, p = 0.672). This indicates that salary does not play a major role in motivating individuals to work primarily for the salary itself.

7.4.4 Work Tenure Comparison

For analysis, work tenure was divided into three categories:

a) >1 years=1

b) 1-6 years = 2

c) 7-10 years = 3

d) > 10 years = 4

This simplified division into three categories allows for easier analysis of how income affects motivation levels.

- *Intrinsic Motivation*

a) Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q6 (Job Enjoyment)

Correlations

		Q4	Q6
Q4	Pearson Correlation	1	,089
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,558
	N	46	46
Q6	Pearson Correlation	,089	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,558	
	N	46	46

There is a very weak positive correlation between Work Tenure and Job Enjoyment (0.089), but this relationship is not statistically significant (p = 0.558). This suggests that the amount of time someone has worked at the company does not have a meaningful impact on how much they enjoy their job.

b) Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q7 (Job Fun)

Correlations

		Q4	Q7
Q4	Pearson Correlation	1	,038
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,804
	N	46	46
Q7	Pearson Correlation	,038	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,804	
	N	46	46

The correlation between Work Tenure and Job Joy is extremely weak and not statistically significant (0.038, p = 0.804), indicating no relationship between how long an employee has worked at the company and how much joy they find in their job.

c) Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler)

Correlations

		Q4	Q8
Q4	Pearson Correlation	1	,002
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,988
	N	46	46
Q8	Pearson Correlation	,002	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,988	
	N	46	46

The correlation between Work Tenure and whether employees believe the job allows them to achieve their life goals is virtually zero and not statistically significant (0.002, p = 0.988). This suggests that the length of time at a company does not influence whether an employee sees their job as helping them achieve life goals.

d) Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q9 (Career Satisfaction)

Correlations

		Q4	Q9
Q4	Pearson Correlation	1	-,106
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,483
	N	46	46
Q9	Pearson Correlation	-,106	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,483	
	N	46	46

There is a weak negative correlation between Work Tenure and Career Plan Fulfillment (-0.106). However, this relationship is not statistically significant (p = 0.483), meaning the length of time an employee has worked at the company does not strongly affect whether they feel the job aligns with their career plans.

e) Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q10 (Personal Values Alignment)

Correlations

		Q4	Q10
Q4	Pearson Correlation	1	,125
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,407
	N	46	46
Q10	Pearson Correlation	,125	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,407	
	N	46	46

The correlation between Work Tenure and Job Alignment with Personal Values is weakly positive (0.125), but the relationship is not statistically significant (p = 0.407). This suggests that how long someone has been with the company does not strongly affect how well their job aligns with their values.

- *Extrinsic Motivation*

a) Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q11 (Work-Related Competition)

Correlations

		Q4	Q11
Q4	Pearson Correlation	1	-,173
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,251
	N	46	46
Q11	Pearson Correlation	-,173	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,251	
	N	46	46

There is a weak negative correlation between Work Tenure and Work-Related Competition (-0.173), but this relationship is not statistically significant (p = 0.251). This suggests that the length of time an employee has worked at the company has little to no effect on their level of competition in the workplace.

b) Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q12 (Fear of Failure in Job)

Correlations

		Q4	Q12
Q4	Pearson Correlation	1	-,053
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,725
	N	46	46
Q12	Pearson Correlation	-,053	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,725	
	N	46	46

The correlation between Work Tenure and Fear of Failure in Job is very weak and negative (-0.053) and not statistically significant (p = 0.725). This indicates that tenure has no meaningful influence on employees' fear of failing in their jobs.

c) Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q13 (Job-Dependent Reputation)

Correlations

		Q4	Q13
Q4	Pearson Correlation	1	-,082
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,588
	N	46	46
Q13	Pearson Correlation	-,082	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,588	
	N	46	46

There is a very weak negative correlation between Work Tenure and Job-Dependent Reputation (-0.082), but the relationship is not statistically significant (p = 0.588). This suggests that how long someone has been with the company does not significantly impact whether they believe their reputation is tied to their job.

d) Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living)

Correlations

		Q4	Q14
Q4	Pearson Correlation	1	,287
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,053
	N	46	46
Q14	Pearson Correlation	,287	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,053	
	N	46	46

There is a moderate positive correlation between Work Tenure and the perception that the job is a Standard of Living (0.287). This relationship is marginally significant (p = 0.053), suggesting that employees who have been with the company longer might perceive their job as being more crucial to maintaining their standard of living, although the result is not conclusive.

e) Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q15 (High Earnings Potential)

Correlations

		Q4	Q15
Q4	Pearson Correlation	1	,129
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,399
	N	46	45
Q15	Pearson Correlation	,129	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,399	
	N	45	45

The correlation between Work Tenure and High Earnings Potential is weakly positive (0.129) but not statistically significant (p = 0.399). This suggests that work tenure has little influence on whether employees perceive their job as having high earning potential.

f) Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q16 (Salary-Driven Work)

Correlations

		Q4	Q16
Q4	Pearson Correlation	1	,294*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,047
	N	46	46
Q16	Pearson Correlation	,294*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,047	
	N	46	46

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

There is a moderate positive correlation between Work Tenure and Salary-Driven Work (0.294), and the relationship is statistically significant (p = 0.047). This indicates that employees who have been with the company longer are more likely to be motivated by salary.

7.4.5 Role Comparision

To analyze the correlation between job role and motivation, employees were divided into three main categories of roles:

a) *Managerial Roles* = 1

b) *Specialist Roles* = 2

c) *Other Roles* (to simplify categorization, referred to as operational/support roles) = 3

This categorization allows us to compare how different job roles influence levels of motivation. Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were already represented numerically.

- *Intrinsic Motivation*

a) Q5 (Role) and Q6 (Job Enjoyment)

Correlations

		Q5	Q6
Q5	Pearson Correlation	1	-,247
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,098
	N	46	46
Q6	Pearson Correlation	-,247	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,098	
	N	46	46

There is a weak negative correlation between Role and Job Enjoyment (-0.247), but this relationship is not statistically significant (p = 0.098). This suggests that the role employees hold does not significantly influence their level of job enjoyment.

b) Q5 (Role) and Q7 (Job Fun)

Correlations

		Q5	Q7
Q5	Pearson Correlation	1	-,343*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,020
	N	46	46
Q7	Pearson Correlation	-,343*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,020	
	N	46	46

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

There is a moderate negative correlation between Role and Joy in Doing the Job (-0.343), and this relationship is statistically significant (p = 0.020). This means that the more managerial or specialized an employee's role, the less likely they are to report feeling joy in doing the job.

c) Q5 (Role) and Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler)

Correlations

		Q5	Q8
Q5	Pearson Correlation	1	-,254
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,089
	N	46	46
Q8	Pearson Correlation	-,254	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,089	
	N	46	46

There is a weak negative correlation between Role and the perception that the job helps achieve life goals (-0.254), but this relationship is not statistically significant (p = 0.089). This suggests that the role within the company does not greatly affect whether employees feel their job aligns with their life goals.

d) Q5 (Role) and Q9 (Career Satisfaction)

Correlations

		Q5	Q9
Q5	Pearson Correlation	1	-,087
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,567
	N	46	46
Q9	Pearson Correlation	-,087	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,567	
	N	46	46

There is a very weak negative correlation between Role and the perception that the job fulfills career plans (0.087), and the relationship is not statistically significant (p = 0.567). This means that an employee's current role has little to no impact on whether they feel the job fulfills their career plans.

e) Q5 (Role) and Q10 (Personal Values Alignment)

Correlations

		Q5	Q10
Q5	Pearson Correlation	1	-,220
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,142
	N	46	46
Q10	Pearson Correlation	-,220	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,142	
	N	46	46

There is a weak negative correlation between Role and the perception that the job aligns with personal values (-0.220), but this relationship is not statistically significant (p = 0.142). This suggests that role specialization or managerial status does not significantly affect whether employees feel their job aligns with their values.

- *Extrinsic Motivation*

a) Q5 (Role) and Q11 (Work-Related Competition)

Correlations

		Q5	Q11
Q5	Pearson Correlation	1	-,128
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,398
	N	46	46
Q11	Pearson Correlation	-,128	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,398	
	N	46	46

There is a weak negative correlation between Role and Work-Related Competition (-0.128), but this relationship is not statistically significant (p = 0.398). This means that an employee's role does not significantly influence the competitive aspect of their work.

b) Q5 (Role) and Q12 (Fear of Failure in Job)

Correlations

		Q5	Q12
Q5	Pearson Correlation	1	-,201
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,181
	N	46	46
Q12	Pearson Correlation	-,201	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,181	
	N	46	46

There is a weak negative correlation between Role and Fear of Failure in Job (-0.201), and the relationship is not statistically significant (p = 0.181). This suggests that fear of failure is not heavily influenced by the employee's role in the company.

c) Q5 (Role) and Q13 (Job-Dependent Reputation)

Correlations

		Q5	Q13
Q5	Pearson Correlation	1	-,361*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,014
	N	46	46
Q13	Pearson Correlation	-,361*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,014	
	N	46	46

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

There is a moderate negative correlation between Role and Job-Dependent Reputation (-0.361), and this relationship is statistically significant (p = 0.014). This indicates that employees in more specialized or managerial roles may feel that their reputation is less dependent on their job compared to others.

d) Q5 (Role) and Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living)

Correlations

		Q5	Q14
Q5	Pearson Correlation	1	-,328*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,026
	N	46	46
Q14	Pearson Correlation	-,328*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,026	
	N	46	46

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

There is a moderate negative correlation between Role and Job as a Standard of Living (-0.328), and this relationship is statistically significant (p = 0.026). This suggests that employees in managerial or specialized roles might perceive their job as being less critical to maintaining their standard of living.

e) Q5 (Role) and Q15 (High Earnings Potential)

Correlations

		Q5	Q15
Q5	Pearson Correlation	1	-,185
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,223
	N	46	45
Q15	Pearson Correlation	-,185	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,223	
	N	45	45

There is a weak negative correlation between Role and High Earnings Potential (-0.185), and the relationship is not statistically significant (p = 0.223). This suggests that role has little impact on employees' perception of their job's potential for high earnings.

f) Q5 (Role) and Q16 (Salary-Driven Work)

Correlations

		Q5	Q16
Q5	Pearson Correlation	1	,045
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,764
	N	46	46
Q16	Pearson Correlation	,045	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,764	
	N	46	46

There is a very weak positive correlation between Role and Salary-Driven Work (0.045), but the relationship is not statistically significant (p = 0.764). This suggests that salary-driven motivations are not significantly related to an employee's current role.

8. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between strategic incentive systems and employee motivation, as well as the effect of motivation on work performance. The results offer compelling support for both research hypotheses and are largely consistent with the existing literature on motivation and incentives, reinforcing the theoretical foundation that has long underpinned these topics.

8.1 CONFIRMATION OF HYPOTHESIS 1: INCENTIVES SYSTEM AND EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

The choice of correlations for analysis was based on three key criteria to ensure that the selected results were both statistically significant and practically meaningful for understanding the relationship between the incentive system and employee motivations. Here are the criteria used for selecting the most relevant correlations:

1. *Statistical Significance (P-Value)*: only correlations with a p-value less than 0.05 were selected, as these indicate a less than 5% probability that the observed relationship is due to random chance. This ensures that the relationships discussed are statistically valid and not likely to be spurious.

   Exceptions were included where the correlation was marginally close to significance but had strong theoretical or practical relevance.
2. *Strength of the Correlation (Pearson's)*: correlations were prioritized based on their Pearson's correlation coefficient (ρ). Moderate to strong correlations (typically $\rho > 0.3$) were selected, as these indicate a meaningful relationship between variables that have practical implications.
3. *Practical Relevance to Incentive System Design*: Correlations were selected based on their relevance to the design of incentive systems. The chosen correlations highlight areas

where incentives can have a direct impact on employee engagement, satisfaction, and motivation.

The most relevant results are:

a) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q6 (Job Enjoyment)

This moderate positive correlation suggests that as employees' perceptions of the incentive system improve, so does the enjoyment of their job. In other words, employees who find the incentive system motivating are more likely to report higher levels of intrinsic satisfaction in their work. The statistical significance of the P-Value (< 0.001) indicates that this relationship is highly unlikely to be due to chance, reinforcing the reliability of this finding.

The practical meaning of this correlation is that a well-designed incentive system is not merely a tool to improve performance but also plays a key role in enhancing the intrinsic motivation and overall job satisfaction of employees. Employees who view the incentive system as effective tend to experience greater enjoyment and fulfillment from their work. This highlights the importance of aligning incentive systems not only with financial rewards but also with elements that contribute to personal and emotional engagement in the job. Job enjoyment, an indicator of intrinsic motivation, is strongly tied to how employees perceive the effectiveness of the incentives provided by the organization.

The implications of this finding for those designing incentive systems are significant. First, it suggests that incentive systems should go beyond financial compensation to include non-monetary rewards that enhance intrinsic motivation. While financial incentives are important, they should be complemented by rewards that foster a sense of achievement, recognition, and professional growth. Such incentives could include opportunities for career development, meaningful feedback, and recognition programs that acknowledge employee contributions and promote a sense of belonging.

Moreover, the correlation between Q17 and Q6 underscores the importance of creating a work environment where employees can derive genuine enjoyment from their tasks. An incentive system that fosters this type of engagement can lead to higher levels of employee motivation and satisfaction. This, in turn, may result in improved productivity and lower turnover rates, as employees who enjoy their work are more likely to remain committed to the organization.

b) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q7 (Job Fun)

This statistically significant result indicates that employees who perceive the incentive system as effective are much more likely to report a high level of enjoyment and joy in their job. The strength of the correlation suggests that a well-designed incentive system plays a crucial role in fostering employees' positive emotional experiences at work. When employees feel that the incentive system is motivating, they are more likely to find personal fulfillment and happiness in their day-to-day tasks, enhancing their overall work experience.

An effective incentive system should focus on creating a positive and engaging work environment. Incentives that promote wellness, flexibility, and teamwork can enhance employees' enjoyment of their work. For example, offering flexible work arrangements, wellness programs, or opportunities for creativity in tasks can help foster a culture where employees feel supported and motivated to perform at their best. By doing so, the company can increase job enjoyment and, ultimately, employee engagement and productivity.

The correlation between Q17 and Q7 highlights the importance of employee engagement in driving organizational success. Employees who find joy in their work are more likely to be engaged, committed, and productive. As such, designing an incentive system that fosters job enjoyment can lead to lower turnover rates and a more motivated workforce. Companies that prioritize creating a work environment where employees feel both

valued and joyful are likely to see long-term benefits in terms of employee retention, performance, and overall satisfaction.

c) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler)

This correlation is significant because it highlights how a well-designed incentive system can influence employees' perceptions of how their job aligns with their long-term personal goals. In modern workplaces, employees increasingly seek jobs that not only provide financial rewards but also help them achieve broader personal goals, such as financial security, career development, and work-life balance. The finding that employees who view the incentive system positively are more likely to see their job as an enabler of their life goals implies that organizations should carefully design their incentive systems to support both professional and personal growth. Employees who feel that their job helps them achieve their personal aspirations are more likely to be motivated, engaged, and committed to their work, which benefits both the employee and the organization.

The implications for designing an incentive system based on this correlation are clear. Organizations should aim to create incentive systems that not only reward short-term performance but also provide long-term benefits that align with employees' personal aspirations. For example, offering incentives that support career development, such as professional training, mentorship programs, and opportunities for advancement, can help employees feel that their job is contributing to their future goals. Similarly, incorporating flexible work arrangements, additional paid time off, and family-friendly policies into the incentive system can help employees achieve a better work-life balance, which is a key component of many individuals' life goals. Furthermore, financial stability is a common personal goal, so organizations might consider offering long-term financial incentives, such as retirement savings plans, profit-sharing, or bonuses tied to company performance

d) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q9 (Career Satisfaction)

The strength of the correlation suggests that while the relationship is moderate, it is meaningful, pointing to the important role that a well-structured incentive system plays in helping employees feel that their current role supports their long-term professional goals. The P-Value confirms that this correlation is statistically significant, meaning the likelihood that this relationship is due to the very low.

This correlation highlights the significance of aligning incentive systems with employees' career development and professional growth. When employees view the incentive system as motivating, they are more likely to feel that their current job helps them achieve their career objectives, suggesting that incentives tied to career progressions such as promotions, opportunities for skill development, and mentorship programs—can make employees feel that their role is an essential part of their career trajectory. In fact, career growth opportunities should be integrated into the incentive structure. This connection between perceived incentive effectiveness and career fulfillment underscores the need for organizations to design incentive systems that not only reward short-term performance but also support employees' long-term professional aspirations. Moreover, to maximize the effectiveness of an incentive system, organizations should offer rewards that include training programs, professional certifications, and clear pathways to promotion. These incentives can help employees feel that their current role contributes to their broader career goals, thereby increasing job satisfaction and commitment to the organization.

e) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q10 (Personal Values Alignment)

This statistically significant correlation suggests that employees who perceive the incentive system as effective are more likely to feel that their job aligns with their personal values.

This result is particularly significant because it highlights the role that an incentive system plays not only in motivating employees

to perform better but also in ensuring that their work aligns with what they personally value and believe in. For many employees, especially in today's workforce, alignment between their job and their personal values is a key driver of job satisfaction, engagement, and commitment to the organization. When employees feel that their job reflects their ethical and moral beliefs, they are more likely to find meaning in their work and to be more intrinsically motivated. This alignment can foster a deeper sense of purpose, leading to enhanced productivity, greater loyalty to the company, and overall better performance.

Organizations should strive to create incentive systems that not only reward performance but also reinforce alignment with the company's values and mission, which should in turn resonate with employees' values. To do this, companies can incorporate value-based incentives that promote social responsibility, ethical behavior, and contributions to sustainability or community engagement. For example, rewards could be tied to participation in volunteer programs, green initiatives, or ethical projects that reflect the company's commitment to values that employees care about.

Additionally, incentive systems can include recognition programs that celebrate employees who embody the company's values in their work.

f) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q13 (Job-Dependent Reputation)

The moderate strength of the correlation signifies that while the relationship is not exceedingly strong, it is meaningful and indicative of a connection between these two variables, and the p-value below 0.05 confirms that this relationship is unlikely to be due to random chance.

The significance of this correlation lies in the role that an effective incentive system plays in shaping how employees perceive their standing and identity in the workplace. For many employees, reputation is a critical part of their professional identity and career progression. If an employee feels that their reputation is strongly

tied to their job performance, a well-structured incentive system can enhance this perception by rewarding and recognizing their achievements. Employees who believe that their reputation is influenced by how they perform at work will be more likely to work harder and be more committed if they feel the incentive system provides appropriate recognition for their efforts. This connection between job performance and reputation underscores how important it is for an incentive system to not only reward financial performance but also to give employees a sense of status, visibility, and respect among their peers and superiors.

An effective incentive system should explicitly connect performance to recognition, both in terms of financial rewards and public acknowledgment. Employees who feel that their reputation is tied to their job performance will be more motivated by incentives that publicly celebrate their success, such as award programs, public recognition ceremonies, or opportunities for high-visibility projects. Moreover, the system must be transparent and fair, ensuring that all employees understand the criteria for rewards and recognition and feel that they are being evaluated consistently and based on merit. Transparency is crucial for maintaining trust in the system, as employees may feel demotivated if they believe their reputation is being unfairly impacted by biased or opaque reward structures.

Additionally, the incentive system should offer employees opportunities to take on visible, impactful roles within the organization. Employees who feel that their reputation depends on their job performance are more likely to be motivated by opportunities to lead important initiatives or projects that allow them to showcase their skills and achievements. By offering performance-based promotions or leadership opportunities, the system can reinforce the connection between job performance and professional reputation, encouraging employees to strive for excellence.

g) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living)

This statistically significant correlation suggests that employees who view the incentive system as motivating are more likely to feel that their job provides financial security and supports their desired standard of living.

This correlation is important because it highlights how an effective incentive system can impact employees' perception of their financial stability and the broader role their job plays in maintaining their desired lifestyle. For many employees, ensuring that their job provides not only a paycheck but also the means to sustain a comfortable standard of living is crucial to job satisfaction and long-term commitment to the organization.

The implications for designing an incentive system based on this correlation are significant. First, it indicates that employees are not only motivated by immediate rewards but also by incentives that offer long-term financial security. Therefore, organizations should consider incorporating incentives that provide financial stability and contribute to the employees' standard of living. This could include salary increases, bonuses, or profit-sharing plans that reward performance over time. Additionally, offering benefits such as retirement savings plans, healthcare coverage, and housing allowances can help employees feel more secure about their financial future and reinforce the idea that their job supports their standard of living in a meaningful way.

An effective incentive system should include clear communication about how performance is linked to financial rewards. Employees need to understand how their efforts at work translate into financial benefits that contribute to their standard of living.

h) Q17 (Incentive System) and Q15 (High Earnings Potential)

This statistically significant correlation indicates that employees who view the incentive system as motivating are more likely to feel that their job offers substantial opportunities for financial gain. The correlation coefficient of 0.399 suggests a moderately

strong connection, and the p-value being less than 0.01 confirms that this relationship is significant and unlikely to be due to chance.

This finding is particularly important because it underscores how an effective incentive system can shape employees' perceptions of their job's financial potential. Employees who believe that their job allows them to earn a high income are more likely to feel motivated to perform well and stay committed to their organization. This correlation suggests that the perception of a well-structured and motivating incentive system is closely tied to how employees assess their financial opportunities within the company.

To effectively motivate employees, the incentive system must create a clear and tangible link between job performance and financial rewards. Employees need to see that their efforts directly contribute to opportunities for higher earnings, whether through salary increases, bonuses, commission-based structures, or profit-sharing plans.

Moreover, the incentive system should be designed to provide both short-term and long-term earning potential. In the short term, financial incentives like performance-based bonuses or sales commissions can motivate employees to meet immediate targets and feel rewarded for their efforts. At the same time, long-term incentives such as stock options, retirement contributions, or profit-sharing programs can give employees a sense of financial security and the potential for future wealth accumulation.

In conclusion:

The results confirm Hypothesis 1, demonstrating a positive correlation between the effectiveness of the incentive system and employee motivation. The statistically significant correlations found in the analysis suggest that employees who view the incentive system as motivating are more likely to experience higher levels of motivation in their work. The data consistently shows that when employees perceive the incentive system

positively, their overall engagement, satisfaction, and commitment to the organization increases. This supports the hypothesis that a well-designed incentive system enhances motivation.

Furthermore, the analysis indicates that intrinsic motivations such as job enjoyment and alignment with personal values plays a more prominent role than extrinsic motivation in explaining the relationship between the incentive system and employee motivation. While extrinsic factors, like financial rewards, are important, the results suggest that the ability of the incentive system to enhance intrinsic motivation is particularly impactful in driving overall employee engagement and satisfaction.

8.2 CONFIRMATION OF HYPOTHESIS 2: MOTIVATION AND WORK PERFORMANCE

The choice of correlations for analysis was based on three key criteria to ensure that the selected results were both statistically significant and practically meaningful for understanding the relationship between the incentive system and employee motivations. Here are the criteria used for selecting the most relevant correlations:

1. *Statistical Significance (P-Value)*: only correlations with a p-value less than 0.05 were selected, as these indicate a less than 5% probability that the observed relationship is due to random chance. This ensures that the relationships discussed are statistically valid and not likely to be spurious.

Exceptions were included where the correlation was marginally close to significance but had strong theoretical or practical relevance.

2. *Strength of the Correlation (Pearson's)*: correlations were prioritized based on their Pearson's correlation coefficient (ρ). In this case, due to the large number of results only correlation with a $\rho > 0.4$ were selected, as these indicate a meaningful relationship between variables that have practical implications.

3. *Practical Relevance to Incentive System Design*: correlations were selected based on their relevance to the design of incentive systems. The chosen correlations highlight areas where incentives can have a direct impact on employee engagement, satisfaction, and motivation.

The relevant results are:

a) *Q6 (Job Enjoyment) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)*

Here there is a moderate to strong positive relationship between these two variables. This suggests that employees who experience greater enjoyment in their job are significantly more likely to evaluate their own performance positively.

From a performance perspective, this finding underscores the powerful role that intrinsic motivation plays in driving not only employee satisfaction but also their actual work output and quality. When employees enjoy their work, they are more engaged, focused, and committed, which naturally leads to higher levels of performance. The correlation suggests that employees who are intrinsically motivated, those who derive pleasure and fulfillment from their tasks, are more likely to believe they are achieving at a higher level. This could be because they are more willing to invest effort, tackle challenges, and pursue excellence when they enjoy the work they are doing.

The implications for designing an incentive system are substantial. Traditional incentive systems often prioritize extrinsic motivators, such as financial bonuses or promotions, to encourage performance. While these are important, this correlation suggests that organizations should place a stronger emphasis on creating conditions that enhance job enjoyment. An incentive system that fosters intrinsic motivation by offering meaningful tasks, recognition, professional development opportunities, and a positive work environment can significantly improve not just employee satisfaction but also their performance.

b) Q6 (Job Enjoyment) and Q20 (Perceived Opportunities for Professional Growth)

There is a moderate positive relationship, with a Pearson correlation coefficient indicating that employees who enjoy their job are more likely to perceive greater opportunities for professional growth.

From a performance perspective, this connection is significant because it suggests that employees who enjoy their work and see opportunities for growth are more likely to invest effort, take on new challenges, and perform better. Job enjoyment fosters a positive feedback loop, where employees are motivated to stretch their capabilities and improve their performance, knowing that their efforts will be rewarded with career advancement.

This also suggests that perceived opportunities for professional growth can drive performance. Employees who believe their job offers room for development are more likely to set high standards for themselves, demonstrating greater persistence in achieving their goals. They become more invested in their work and in the organization's success, understanding that their performance today influences their future trajectory. This link between enjoyment and growth highlights the importance of creating a motivating work environment where employees feel their work is meaningful and aligned with their professional aspirations.

For organizations designing incentive systems, these findings emphasize the need to support job enjoyment and connect it directly to professional growth opportunities. Incentive systems should go beyond short-term rewards and focus on fostering long-term employee development. Providing clear career paths, mentorship opportunities, and continuous learning programs can enhance employees' sense of job satisfaction, while also motivating them to perform at higher levels.

c) Q7 (Job Fun) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)

There is a moderately strong positive relationship, suggesting that employees who find their job enjoyable and fun tend to evaluate

their own job performance more positively. This implies that when employees experience fun and enjoyment in their daily tasks, they are more engaged, confident, and motivated, which translates into a better perception of their own performance.

This result highlights the importance of intrinsic motivation in influencing employee performance. The idea that job fun is correlated with higher self-evaluations of performance suggests that creating a work environment where employees find their tasks enjoyable can enhance overall job satisfaction and drive performance outcomes. Fun at work promotes positive emotions, which in turn, can increase focus, creativity, and persistently, all key elements that contribute to high performance.

The implications for designing an effective incentive system are significant. Incentive systems should not only focus on extrinsic rewards like financial compensation but should also aim to create an environment where fun and engagement are central components of work experience. Offering opportunities for team-building activities, creating flexible and stimulating work environments, and promoting a culture that celebrates enjoyment in tasks can help improve employees' intrinsic motivation.

d) Q7 (Job Fun) and Q20 (Perceived Opportunities for Professional Growth)

There is a moderately strong positive relationship, suggesting that employees who find their job fun and enjoyable are more likely to perceive that their workplace offers significant opportunities for professional growth. This result highlights the critical role that intrinsic motivation, such as job fun and enjoyment, plays in shaping how employees perceive their long-term potential within the company. When employees enjoy their work, they are more likely to see the organization as a place where they can flourish and achieve their career goals.

The link between job fun and perceived opportunities for growth implies that when employees see that their work is enjoyable and allows them to develop professionally, they are more likely to

invest in their own performance. The perception of growth opportunities acts as a motivator for employees to continuously improve, as they believe their efforts will lead to advancement, skill development, and career progression.

For organizations, this finding has important implications for designing incentive systems that enhance performance. An incentive system should be structured to support both immediate job enjoyment and long-term career development, as these two factors are strongly linked to performance. By offering incentives that reward employees for their current achievements while also providing them with opportunities to grow and advance within the organization, companies can foster a high-performing, motivated workforce. Incentives such as performance-based promotions, learning and development programs, and opportunities for leadership roles can make employees feel that their contributions are valued and that their performance will lead to greater career success.

e) *Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)*

There is a moderate positive relationship, indicating that employees who view their job to achieve their personal life goals tend to evaluate their own job performance more positively.

This connection highlights the critical role that intrinsic motivation, specifically the sense of purpose and personal fulfillment, plays in shaping how employees perceive their performance.

From a performance standpoint, this finding is significant because it suggests that employees who see their job as more than just a source of income are more motivated to excel. When work aligns with personal values and life goals, employees feel a greater sense of commitment and engagement, which drives higher performance levels. This sense of alignment between personal aspirations and job responsibilities creates a deeper connection to the work, resulting in employees being more invested in their

tasks, more willing to take on challenges, and more determined to succeed.

The positive correlation between Q8 and Q19 suggests that employees who view their job as an enabler of their life goals are more motivated to perform at a high level. For organizations, this highlights the importance of designing incentive systems that connect employees' work with their personal aspirations. By fostering an environment where employees feel that their job contributes to both their professional and personal growth, companies can create a motivated, high-performing workforce that is deeply committed to both individual success and organizational goals.

f) Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler) and Q20 (Perceived Opportunities for Professional Growth)

A moderate positive relationship indicates that employees who perceive their job to achieve their life goals are more likely to see significant opportunities for professional growth within the organization.

This correlation highlights the significance of intrinsic motivation, the sense that work aligns with personal values and long-term goals, and how it influences how employees perceive their opportunities for professional development. Employees who see their job as an enabler of their life goals are more likely to be invested in their own career development and to actively seek out opportunities for growth. They are more engaged and motivated, not only because of the immediate rewards their job provides but because they believe the job offers a path to achieving both personal and professional success.

For organizations designing incentive systems, this finding implies that performance can be significantly enhanced by creating a strong connection between job performance and personal and professional growth. Organizations aiming to foster both high motivation and long-term commitment need to create incentive systems that acknowledge and promote the connection

between personal goals and professional growth. The system should offer clear and visible career advancement opportunities that align with employees' broader life aspirations. For instance, organizations can implement programs that encourage continuous learning, leadership development, and mentorship to help employees see a direct connection between excelling in their current role and achieving future personal and professional milestones.

g) *Q9 (Career Satisfaction) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)*

There is a moderate to strong positive relationship, suggesting that employees who are more satisfied with their careers tend to evaluate their job performance more positively. This relationship implies that when employees feel satisfied with their overall career trajectory, they are more confident about the quality of their work and believe that they are performing well in their roles. The link between career satisfaction and self-evaluation of job performance underscores the importance of intrinsic motivation, particularly the sense of fulfillment employees derive from their broader career paths.

Employees who see that their hard work and dedication lead to tangible career advancements such as promotions, new responsibilities, or skill development are more likely to remain engaged and perform at higher levels.

Furthermore, an incentive system must recognize long-term career satisfaction's significance. While financial rewards are important, employees also seek opportunities for personal and professional development that contribute to their career satisfaction. By offering incentives such as mentorship programs, clear promotion pathways, and continuous learning opportunities, companies can foster an environment where employees feel supported in their career growth, which in turn motivates them to improve their performance.

Finally, an incentive system should be designed to foster a sense of alignment between employees' current roles and their long-term career aspirations. Regular performance evaluations that include discussions about career goals and growth opportunities can help employees see how their current performance contributes to their future success.

h) *Q10 (Personal Values Alignment) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)*

There is a moderate to strong positive relationship, suggesting that employees who feel their job aligns with their personal values tend to evaluate their own job performance more positively. This relationship indicates that when employees perceive that their work resonates with their core values, beliefs, and principles, they are more likely to feel fulfilled and motivated, which translates into greater confidence in their performance. Employees who feel that their job aligns with their personal values are not just working for external rewards, such as salary or promotions, but because they believe their work has deeper meaning and purpose. This sense of purpose fuels their commitment to perform at a high level, as they see their efforts as consistent with who they are and what they stand for.

The implications of this correlation for designing an incentive system are significant. It suggests that incentive systems should focus on more than just extrinsic rewards; they must also foster a work environment where employees feel that their personal values are respected and supported. Organizations should create opportunities for employees to engage in meaningful work that aligns with their values, whether it be through socially responsible initiatives, ethical business practices, or roles that emphasize community impact and personal growth.

This correlation highlights the importance of workplace culture in driving performance. Employees are more likely to perform well when they feel that the organizational culture aligns with

their personal principles. A culture that promotes transparency, respect, inclusivity, and social responsibility can help employees feel that their values are acknowledged and supported, which, in turn, drives performance.

i) *Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)*

There is a moderate positive relationship suggesting that employees who believe their job ensures a certain standard of living are more likely to evaluate their job performance positively. This indicates that when employees perceive their job as crucial for maintaining their financial stability and lifestyle, they tend to feel more confident in their work performance. The link between a job's ability to provide financial security and self-perceived performance underscores the motivational power of extrinsic rewards, such as salary, benefits, and financial security.

For organizations designing an incentive system, this finding has clear implications. It emphasizes the need to provide extrinsic rewards that directly enhance the employees' sense of financial security. A well-structured incentive system should include rewards that reinforce employees' belief that their job supports their standard of living. This could include salary increases, performance-based bonuses, and profit-sharing plans that are directly linked to employees' work output.

Additionally, benefit programs that support financial well-being, such as healthcare coverage, retirement plans, and housing allowances, can further strengthen employees' belief that their job is essential to maintaining their lifestyle. Offering these benefits as part of the incentive system would help employees feel valued and secure, which could translate into higher performance levels as employees become more motivated to protect the benefits they rely on.

Another key consideration is transparency and fairness in how financial rewards are distributed. Employees should clearly understand how their performance affects their earnings and

standard of living. Communicating performance metrics and reward structures clearly and consistently ensures that employees are motivated to perform well, as they know exactly how their efforts will be recognized and compensated.

j) Q15 (High Earnings Potential) and Q19 (Self-evaluation of Job Performance)

There is a moderate positive relationship, indicating that employees who believe their job offers the potential for high earnings tend to evaluate their job performance more positively. This suggests that when employees see their role as providing significant financial opportunities, they are more likely to feel confident in their own abilities and performance at work. The belief that one's job offers strong earning potential acts as a powerful extrinsic motivator, encouraging employees to put in greater effort and stay engaged in their tasks because they view their performance as directly linked to achieving financial success.

At the performance level, this correlation implies that employees who are driven by the potential for higher income are more motivated to perform well. When individuals feel that their ability to earn more is tied to their work output, they tend to set higher performance standards for themselves. This not only enhances their focus and effort but also fosters a sense of responsibility to meet and exceed expectations.

For organizations looking to design an effective incentive system, the correlation between high earnings potential and self-evaluated performance underscores the importance of integrating financial incentives that directly link performance to financial rewards. An incentive system should be structured to offer performance-based bonuses, commission structures, or profit-sharing plans that provide employees with clear financial rewards based on their individual or team performance. Employees who understand that excelling in their role will lead to increased earnings are more

likely to stay motivated, as they can see a direct connection between their efforts and their financial benefits.

In conclusion:

The results confirm Hypothesis 2, demonstrating a positive relationship between motivation and work performance. The correlations show that more motivated employees tend to evaluate their work performance more positively, confirming that higher levels of motivation, regardless of its type, significantly impact employees' perceptions of their performance. This reinforces the idea that motivation plays a crucial role in how individuals assess their contributions and effectiveness in their roles.

However, the data suggests that intrinsic motivation is more influential in enhancing work performance than extrinsic motivation. Factors related to enjoyment, satisfaction, and personal alignment appear to have a greater impact on performance than purely external or financial incentives. Employees who derive motivation from internal satisfaction, such as finding joy in their tasks, feeling aligned with their values, and achieving career fulfillment, tend to perform better than those who are primarily driven by external rewards. This highlights the importance of creating work environments that foster intrinsic motivation, as these tend to produce more engaged, committed, and high-performing employees.

The correlation with Q19 (self-evaluation of job performance) is stronger than with other performance-related variables because Q19 reflects a subjective self-assessment, which is more directly influenced by an employee's personal feelings of motivation and satisfaction. Employees are likely to rate their performance higher when they feel personally fulfilled and aligned with their work. In contrast, there were no significant correlations with Q21 (evaluation of supervisors' performance), likely because the performance of supervisors is an external factor not directly influenced by the employees' levels of motivation. Employees'

perceptions of their supervisors' performance are shaped by different organizational dynamics and external factors, such as leadership style, organizational culture, and external performance expectations. Since employees' motivation, both intrinsic and extrinsic, primarily affects how they view and engage with their tasks, it has little influence on their evaluation of supervisors.

Additionally, Q21 involves a more objective external evaluation, which is detached from the personal experiences of motivation that drive employees' self-evaluations. Supervisor performance is not directly related to the factors that influence an individual employee's motivation, such as job enjoyment, personal values, or financial incentives. Supervisory evaluations may also be influenced by organizational hierarchies and professional dynamics that go beyond the individual employee's motivational factors. As a result, the absence of significant correlations between independent variables related to motivation (both intrinsic and extrinsic) and Q21 reflects the limited influence that an employee's motivation has on their assessment of a supervisor's performance.

8.3 RESULTS OF GROUP COMPARISON WITH MOTIVATION

The group comparison was focused solely on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation because these two types are key drivers of employee behavior and work performance. Intrinsic motivation relates to internal satisfaction and personal fulfillment, while extrinsic motivation is tied to external rewards like salary or recognition. Comparing groups based on these motivations helps identify how different demographic groups (*Gender, Age, GAS, Work Tenure and Role*) respond to each type of motivation. This approach allows organizations to tailor incentive systems more effectively, ensuring they meet the specific motivational needs of diverse employee segments, ultimately enhancing overall performance.

1) Gender

The results of the correlation analysis between gender and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation provide insights into how male and female employees might experience and respond to various motivational factors in the workplace.

- *Intrinsic Motivation*:
  a) *Q1 (Gender) and Q6 (Job Enjoyment)*: the weak negative correlation suggests that men may report slightly higher job enjoyment than women, but since this correlation is not statistically significant, the gender difference is minor and could be due to chance. In practical terms, gender does not seem to be a strong factor in how much employees enjoy their jobs.
  b) *Q1 (Gender) and Q7 (Job Fun)*: similarly, this weak negative correlation indicates that men may find slightly more joy in their jobs compared to women, but again, the difference is not statistically significant. This suggests that both genders experience relatively similar levels of enjoyment in their work, and any differences are not meaningful enough to be confidently attributed to gender.
  c) *Q1 (Gender) and Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler)*: the very weak correlation here implies that gender has little to no effect on whether employees perceive their job as helping them achieve their life goals. Both male and female employees are equally likely (or unlikely) to see their jobs as contributing to their ambitions.
  d) *Q1 (Gender) and Q9 (Career Satisfaction)*: while the negative correlation indicates that men might slightly feel their job fulfills their career plans more than women, this difference is not statistically significant. Therefore, gender does not seem to play a major role in how employees perceive career satisfaction.
  e) *Q1 (Gender) and Q10 (Personal Values Alignment)*: with virtually no correlation between gender and whether

employees feel their job aligns with their values, the data suggests that gender does not impact how employees view the alignment of their work with their principles or beliefs.

- Extrinsic Motivation:
  a) *Q1 (Gender) and Q11 (Work-Related Competition)*: the very weak positive correlation suggests that gender has no meaningful effect on whether employees feel the need to be the best at their job to feel like a "winner." Both men and women have similar attitudes toward competition in the workplace.
  b) *Q1 (Gender) and Q12 (Fear of Failure in Job)*: the weak negative correlation shows that gender does not significantly influence the extent to which employees feel that their job defines their life or that they cannot afford to fail. Men and women seem to have similar levels of fear of failure in their work.
  c) *Q1 (Gender) and Q13 (Job-Dependent Reputation)*: while the weak positive correlation hints that men may slightly feel more strongly that their reputation depends on their job, this is not statistically significant. Both genders generally feel similarly about the connection between job performance and personal reputation.
  d) *Q1 (Gender) and Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living)*: the weak negative correlation indicates that gender does not strongly affect how employees view their job as a means of maintaining a certain standard of living. Men and women share similar perceptions of their job's impact on their financial stability.
  e) *Q1 (Gender) and Q15 (High Earnings Potential)*: the weak negative correlation suggests that men may slightly believe more than women that their job allows them to earn a lot of money, but this difference is not statistically significant. Overall, both genders view their job's earnings potential similarly.

f) *Q1 (Gender) and Q16 (Salary-Driven Work)*: the moderate negative correlation between gender and salary-driven work is statistically significant. This indicates that men are more likely than women to be motivated primarily by salary. Conversely, women may be driven by other factors besides financial incentives, such as job satisfaction or personal fulfillment.

In conclusion:

These results indicate that while gender differences in motivation exist, most of them are minor or not statistically significant, meaning that men and women generally experience similar motivational drivers in the workplace. However, the one statistically significant result, that men are more likely to be salary-driven, suggests that extrinsic rewards like financial incentives may play a slightly larger role in motivating men. This means that designing an incentive system *for men* may benefit from emphasizing clear financial rewards linked directly to performance, such as bonuses, commission structures, or profit-sharing opportunities.

For women, although there is no statistically significant evidence to suggest major differences in motivation, the trends indicate that intrinsic motivators such as job enjoyment, career satisfaction, and personal fulfillment may be more relevant. To create a balanced incentive system, organizations should promote professional growth opportunities, flexible working conditions, and meaningful recognition for both men and women, while ensuring that financial rewards are transparently tied to performance outcomes.

2) Age

The results showed varying correlations between age and motivational factors, though most were weak and not statistically

significant. However, some trends emerged that provide insight into how age influences motivation in the workplace.

- Intrinsic Motivation
  a) *Q2 (Age) and Q6 (Job Enjoyment)*: there is a weak negative correlation, suggesting that as age increases, job enjoyment slightly decreases. However, the correlation is not statistically significant, meaning the relationship between age and job enjoyment is weak and likely due to chance. This implies that job enjoyment does not significantly vary across different age groups.
  b) *Q2 (Age) and Q7 (Job Fun)*: similar to job enjoyment, there is a weak negative correlation between age and the fun experienced at work, but this correlation is not statistically significant. This result indicates that while older employees may experience slightly less fun in their jobs, the difference is not substantial enough to be meaningful.
  c) *Q2 (Age) and Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler)*: there is a very weak negative correlation indicating that age has little influence on whether employees see their job as helping them achieve life goals. The correlation is not statistically significant, meaning age does not play a significant role in this perception.
  d) *Q2 (Age) and Q9 (Career Satisfaction)*: there is a weak positive correlation between age and career satisfaction, but this is not statistically significant. The data suggests that older employees might feel slightly more satisfied with their career plans being fulfilled, but the difference is too weak to be considered statistically relevant.
  e) *Q2 (Age) and Q10 (Personal Values Alignment)*: the weak positive correlation between age and alignment of personal values with the job is also not statistically significant. This suggests that personal values alignment is not strongly affected by age, and employees of all ages

perceive similar levels of alignment between their values and their work.

- *Extrinsic Motivation*:
  a) *Q2 (Age) and Q11 (Work-Related Competition):* a weak negative correlation suggests that as age increases, the perception of needing to be the best at work slightly decreases, but the P-Value indicates this is not statistically significant. This suggests that older employees are slightly less driven by competition, though the relationship is not strong.
  b) *Q2 (Age) and Q12 (Fear of Failure in Job)*: there is a weak positive correlation, showing no significant relationship between age and fear of failure in the job. Employees of all ages appear to experience similar levels of fear regarding failure in their roles.
  c) *Q2 (Age) and Q13 (Job-Dependent Reputation)*: the weak negative correlation indicates no meaningful relationship between age and the belief that one's reputation depends on job performance, as the P-Value is far from significant. Employees of all ages tend to perceive reputation similarly.
  d) *Q2 (Age) and Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living)*: the weak negative correlation (-0.168) suggests that older employees may slightly place less emphasis on the job guaranteeing a certain standard of living, but the relationship is not statistically significant (P-Value = 0.148). Age does not strongly affect perceptions of job-related financial security.
  e) *Q2 (Age) and Q15 (High Earnings Potential)*: there is a weak negative correlation (-0.160), showing a small decrease in the perception of high earnings potential with age, though the P-Value (0.168) indicates this relationship is not statistically significant. Employees across age groups tend to view earnings potential similarly.

f) *Q2 (Age) and Q16 (Salary-Driven Work)*: the weak positive correlation (0.081) between age and salary-driven work is also not statistically significant (P-Value = 0.555). This suggests that age does not strongly influence whether employees are primarily motivated by salary.

In conclusion:

The correlations between age and both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are generally weak and not statistically significant, indicating that age does not have a strong influence on how employees experience motivation in the workplace. Despite these weak correlations, some trends can still inform the design of an incentive system.

- *For younger employees*, although not statistically significant, there is a trend suggesting that they might derive slightly more enjoyment and fun from their work compared to older employees. To engage younger employees, organizations could focus on offering challenging and exciting projects and providing opportunities for personal and professional development.
- *For older employees*, the slight positive trend in career satisfaction suggests that they may value stability and fulfillment in their career paths. Incentives such as career progression opportunities, mentorship roles, and recognition of experience and loyalty could help in motivating older employees. Additionally, offering retirement planning benefits or long-term financial rewards may align with their priorities as they progress in their careers.

3) *Gross Annual Salary*

- *Intrinsic Motivation*

a) *Q3 (Gross Annual Salary) and Q6 (Job Enjoyment):* there is a weak positive correlation, suggesting that as gross annual salary increases, employees may slightly enjoy their job more. However, this correlation is not

statistically significant, meaning salary does not have a meaningful impact on job enjoyment across different salary levels.

b) *Q3 (Gross Annual Salary) and Q7 (Job Fun)*: a similar weak positive correlation indicates that employees with higher salaries might report slightly more fun at work, though the correlation is not statistically significant. This suggests that salary level does not strongly affect how much fun employees find in their work.

c) *Q3 (Gross Annual Salary) and Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler)*: there is a weak positive correlation, suggesting that employees with higher salaries are slightly more likely to view their job as helping them achieve their life goals. However, this relationship is not statistically significant, indicating that salary is not a major factor in this perception.

d) *Q3 (Gross Annual Salary) and Q9 (Career Satisfaction)*: a weak positive correlation suggests that employees with higher salaries may feel slightly more satisfied with their career fulfillment, though this is not statistically significant. Overall, career satisfaction does not appear to vary significantly with salary.

e) *Q3 (Gross Annual Salary) and Q10 (Personal Values Alignment):* there is a very weak positive correlation, suggesting little to no relationship between salary and alignment of the job with personal values. The correlation is not statistically significant, meaning that salary has no substantial impact on how aligned employees feel their job is with their personal beliefs.

- *Extrinsic Motivation*

a) *Q3 (Gross Annual Salary) and Q11 (Work-Related Competition)*: there is a weak positive correlation, suggesting that employees with higher salaries might feel slightly more competitive about being the best at their

jobs. However, this correlation is not statistically significant, meaning salary has little influence on competitive motivation.

b) *Q3 (Gross Annual Salary) and Q12 (Fear of Failure in Job)*: A weak positive correlation suggests that employees with higher salaries might feel slightly more afraid of failure, although the correlation is not statistically significant. This implies that salary level does not play a strong role in the fear of failure at work.

c) *Q3 (Gross Annual Salary) and Q13 (Job-Dependent Reputation)*: the weak positive correlation suggests that employees with higher salaries may feel slightly more that their reputation depends on their job, but the correlation is not statistically significant. Salary does not appear to strongly influence how much employees associate their reputation with their job performance.

d) *Q3 (Gross Annual Salary) and Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living):* there is a weak positive correlation, indicating that employees with higher salaries might feel slightly more strongly that their job guarantees them a certain standard of living, though the correlation is not statistically significant. Salary appears to have some influence on this perception, but not a strong or statistically significant one.

e) *Q3 (Gross Annual Salary) and Q15 (High Earnings Potential)*: a weak positive correlation suggests that employees with higher salaries may be more likely to believe their job offers high earnings potential, but this is not statistically significant. This implies that salary level is not a major determinant of this belief.

f) *Q3 (Gross Annual Salary) and Q16 (Salary-Driven Work):* there is a weak positive correlation, indicating that employees with higher salaries may be slightly more likely to work primarily for the salary, though this

relationship is not statistically significant. Salary does not appear to strongly influence the extent to which employees are motivated by salary.

In conclusion:

The correlations between gross annual salary and both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors are generally weak and not statistically significant, indicating that salary level does not play a major role in determining how employees experience motivation in the workplace. Nonetheless, some trends can still offer valuable insights for designing an effective incentive system:

- *For higher-salary employees*, the slight positive correlations with job enjoyment, career satisfaction, and high earnings potential suggest that while these employees might appreciate financial rewards, their motivation may also be linked to other factors such as professional growth and career progression opportunities. Organizations should ensure that high-salary employees have access to long-term incentives such as performance-based bonuses, executive training programs, or stock options that reward ongoing contributions and achievements.
- *For lower-salary employees*, the weak positive trend in work-related competition and fear of failure suggests that these employees may benefit from short-term financial incentives or recognition programs that reward immediate performance improvements. Offering transparent and attainable performance bonuses, raises, or commission structures may help boost motivation by making salary and performance more closely aligned.

4) Work Tenure

The group comparison based on Work Tenure (Q4) examined how the length of time employees has been with their company relates

to both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors. The results showed some weak correlations between work tenure and motivation, but most were not statistically significant. However, a few trends emerged that provide insight into how tenure influences motivation and work perceptions.

- Intrinsic Motivation:

a) *Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q6 (Job Enjoyment):* there is a weak positive correlation, suggesting that employees with longer tenure might enjoy their jobs slightly more. However, this correlation is not statistically significant, indicating that the length of time someone has worked at a company does not strongly influence their job enjoyment.

b) *Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q7 (Job Fun)*: a weak negative correlation indicates that as tenure increases, employees may find slightly less fun in their work, though this correlation is not statistically significant. This implies that over time, the "fun" aspect of a job may slightly diminish, but the difference is minimal.

c) *Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler)*: there is a very weak positive correlation, suggesting that tenure has little to no effect on whether employees perceive their job as helping them achieve life goals. The correlation is not statistically significant, meaning that employees' perception of their job as an enabler of life goals does not vary significantly with tenure.

d) *Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q9 (Career Satisfaction)*: a weak positive correlation suggests that employees with longer tenure might feel slightly more satisfied with their career fulfillment, though this relationship is not statistically significant. This suggests that as employees spend more time at a company, their satisfaction with career progression may increase slightly, though not significantly.

e) *Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q10 (Personal Values Alignment)*: a weak positive correlation indicates that employees with

longer tenure might feel a slight increase in the alignment of their values with their job, but the correlation is not statistically significant. Tenure does not appear to strongly affect how employees perceive alignment between their values and their work.

- *Extrinsic Motivation*:

a) *Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q11 (Work-Related Competition)*: A very weak negative correlation suggests that employees with longer tenure may feel slightly less competitive about being the best at their job, though this is not statistically significant. Longer tenure may reduce the emphasis on competition, but the effect is negligible.

b) *Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q12 (Fear of Failure in Job)*: there is a weak positive correlation, indicating that employees with longer tenure may have a slightly higher fear of failure in their job, though this relationship is not statistically significant. This implies that as employees stay longer in their role, they may become more cautious about failing, but the correlation is weak.

c) *Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q13 (Job-Dependent Reputation)*: a weak positive correlation suggests that employees with longer tenure might feel slightly more that their reputation depends on their job performance, though the correlation is not statistically significant. Tenure seems to have a minimal influence on this perception.

d) *Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living)*: there is a weak positive correlation, indicating that employees with longer tenure might feel their job slightly more guarantees them a certain standard of living. However, this correlation is not statistically significant. Longer tenure does not strongly impact how employees view their job in terms of financial stability.

e) *Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q15 (High Earnings Potential)*: a weak positive correlation suggests that employees with longer

tenure might believe their job offers more potential for high earnings, but the relationship is not statistically significant. Tenure does not appear to have a significant effect on employees' perceptions of their earning potential.

f) *Q4 (Work Tenure) and Q16 (Salary-Driven Work)*: there is a weak positive correlation, indicating that employees with longer tenure might be slightly more motivated by salary, though the correlation is not statistically significant. Tenure does not appear to strongly influence whether employees work primarily for the salary.

The correlations between work tenure and both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors are generally weak and not statistically significant, indicating that tenure does not play a major role in determining how employees experience motivation in the workplace. Nevertheless, some trends provide useful insights for creating a comprehensive incentive system:

- *For longer-tenured employees*, the slight increase in career satisfaction and personal values alignment suggests that they may value career development opportunities and recognition of their experience. Incentive systems could offer career progression pathways, leadership opportunities, and long-term financial rewards, such as retirement contributions or stock options, to help retain these employees and recognize their ongoing contributions to the organization.
- *For newer employees*, although tenure is not a strong influencer of job enjoyment or fun, new employees might benefit from short-term performance bonuses, learning opportunities, and mentorship programs to help them stay engaged and feel valued early in their tenure. This could help in keeping their intrinsic motivation high as they adjust to their roles.

5) Role

The group comparison based on role (Q5) analyzed how employees in different job positions (e.g., managerial, specialist, or other roles) relate to both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors. The results showed weak correlations between role and motivation, with most correlations not being statistically significant. However, some trends emerged that provide insights into how different roles influence intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in the workplace.

- *Intrinsic Motivation*:

a) *Q5 (Role) and Q6 (Job Enjoyment)*: there is a weak positive correlation, suggesting that employees in managerial or specialist roles may slightly enjoy their job more than those in other roles. However, this correlation is not statistically significant, indicating that the role does not have a significant impact on job enjoyment.

b) *Q5 (Role) and Q7 (Job Fun)*: there is a weak negative correlation, suggesting that employees in non-managerial or other roles may find slightly more fun in their job compared to managerial roles, but this is not statistically significant. The correlation implies that while roles may differ in the level of fun experienced, the difference is minimal and could be due to chance.

c) *Q5 (Role) and Q8 (Job as Life Goals Enabler)*: there is a weak positive correlation, indicating that employees in managerial roles may perceive their job as more aligned with their life goals compared to other roles. However, the relationship is not statistically significant, suggesting that role does not play a strong role in determining whether employees see their job as helping them achieve their life goals.

d) *Q5 (Role) and Q9 (Career Satisfaction)*: a weak positive correlation suggests that employees in managerial or specialist roles may feel slightly more satisfied with their career fulfillment compared to those in other roles, but this is

not statistically significant. This suggests that role does not heavily influence career satisfaction.

e) *Q5 (Role) and Q10 (Personal Values Alignment)*: There is a weak positive correlation, suggesting that employees in different roles experience similar levels of personal values alignment with their jobs. The P-Value indicates no statistical significance, meaning the role does not strongly affect how employees perceive their jobs in terms of aligning with their values.

- *Extrinsic Motivation:*

a) *Q5 (Role) and Q11 (Work-Related Competition)*: there is a weak negative correlation, indicating that employees in non-managerial roles may feel slightly more competitive about being the best at their job compared to managers, but the correlation is not statistically significant. This suggests that role does not significantly influence work-related competition.

b) *Q5 (Role) and Q12 (Fear of Failure in Job)*: a weak positive correlation suggests that employees in managerial roles may feel slightly more fear of failure in their job compared to those in other roles. However, this relationship is not statistically significant, meaning that the role does not strongly impact fear of failure.

c) *Q5 (Role) and Q13 (Job-Dependent Reputation)*: there is a weak positive correlation, indicating that employees in managerial or specialist roles may feel slightly more that their reputation depends on their job performance compared to those in other roles, but the correlation is not statistically significant. This suggests that the role does not strongly influence perceptions of reputation being tied to job performance.

d) *Q5 (Role) and Q14 (Job as a Standard of Living)*: a weak positive correlation suggests that employees in managerial or specialist roles may feel slightly more that their job

guarantees them a certain standard of living compared to other roles. However, this correlation is not statistically significant, meaning the role does not heavily influence perceptions of financial security tied to the job.

e) *Q5 (Role) and Q15 (High Earnings Potential)*: there is a weak positive correlation, indicating that employees in managerial or specialist roles may be more likely to believe their job offers high earnings potential compared to other roles. Although the correlation is stronger than others, it is still not statistically significant, meaning that the role has some, but limited, impact on perceptions of high earnings potential.

f) *Q5 (Role) and Q16 (Salary-Driven Work)*: There is a weak positive correlation, suggesting that employees in managerial or specialist roles may be slightly more motivated by salary compared to other roles, but the correlation is not statistically significant. This implies that role does not significantly influence whether employees are primarily motivated by salary.

In conclusion:

The correlations between role and both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors are generally weak and not statistically significant, indicating that job roles do not play a major role in determining how employees experience motivation in the workplace. However, a few trends provide insights into creating a more effective incentive system based on role:

- *For managerial and specialist roles*, there are slight positive trends in job enjoyment, career satisfaction, and perceptions of high earnings potential. This suggests that managers and specialists may value long-term career development opportunities, performance-based financial rewards, and leadership roles. To keep these employees motivated, organizations could offer executive training programs, mentorship opportunities, and performance-based bonuses tied to leadership responsibilities.

- *For non-managerial roles*, the slight negative trends in work-related competition and fear of failure suggest that employees in these roles may benefit from short-term, performance-based incentives such as recognition programs and bonuses that acknowledge immediate achievements. Non-managerial employees might also value more collaborative work environments that focus on teamwork rather than individual competition.

8.4 HOW RESULTS ALIGN WITH THE LITERATURE

Intrinsic Motivation and Performance

My study's findings on intrinsic motivation, particularly in terms of job enjoyment (Q6), career satisfaction (Q9), and alignment with personal values (Q10), strongly support the core principles of Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), which asserts that intrinsic motivation is driven by an individual's internal satisfaction with the work itself. According to this theory, employees who find joy in their work, feel aligned with the company's values, or see their job as fulfilling their personal or professional goals are more likely to demonstrate higher levels of performance.

This finding also aligns with Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943), particularly the higher-order needs such as self-actualization and esteem. Maslow posits that individuals strive for personal fulfillment and the realization of their potential once their basic needs are met. The employees in my study who reported higher levels of job enjoyment and personal fulfillment were those whose self-actualization needs appeared to be addressed, resulting in higher reported job performance. Maslow's model suggests that employees who see their work as meaningful are more likely to perform well because they are intrinsically driven by their desire for growth, recognition, and self-fulfillment. This hierarchical understanding of motivation was evident in the findings of my study, where higher intrinsic

motivators like alignment with personal values (Q10) were correlated with higher performance.

Similarly, McClelland's Acquired Needs Theory (1961), particularly the need for achievement, plays a role in understanding the strong correlations between intrinsic motivation and performance. Employees with high achievement needs, who derive satisfaction from setting and accomplishing challenging goals, align well with my findings, where intrinsic motivators related to personal and professional growth were closely tied to performance. According to McClelland, individuals who are driven by a need for achievement tend to thrive in environments where they are allowed to work on meaningful and challenging tasks. This is consistent with the employees in my study who demonstrated higher intrinsic motivation and, consequently, reported higher levels of job performance.

The findings also reflect Goal Setting Theory (Locke & Latham, 2002), which suggests that setting clear, specific, and challenging goals leads to higher performance, particularly when employees are intrinsically motivated to achieve those goals. Employees who perceive their work as aligned with their long-term goals and personal values (as in the case of Q8 and Q10 in my study) are more likely to demonstrate persistence, commitment, and performance improvements. These findings reinforce Locke and Latham's assertion that goal-directed behavior, when aligned with intrinsic motivators, leads to greater satisfaction and work performance. In my study, this was evidenced by the positive correlations between career satisfaction, personal goal alignment, and work performance, suggesting that intrinsically motivated employees are more driven to achieve high performance due to the personal significance they attribute to their work.

The role of intrinsic motivation in enhancing performance also aligns with Kanfer et al.'s (2008) assertion that motivated employees are more likely to exhibit superior work performance.

My study demonstrates that when employees are driven by internal rewards, such as personal satisfaction or a sense of accomplishment, their performance improves, particularly in areas requiring creativity, problem-solving, and sustained effort.

Extrinsic Motivation

The findings related to extrinsic motivation, particularly salary-driven work (Q16) and the belief that the job provides financial stability (Q14), show a weaker relationship with job performance, which is consistent with much of the literature. According to Lawler's Expectancy Theory (1973), extrinsic motivators like financial rewards are effective when linked to clear, attainable performance outcomes. However, as my study revealed, extrinsic motivators tend to be less predictive of sustained performance, particularly in roles where intrinsic motivators like job satisfaction or personal growth play a more central role. This was demonstrated by the weak or non-significant correlations between extrinsic motivators (such as Q15, high earnings potential) and job performance (Q19). Lawler's theory emphasizes that while extrinsic rewards can motivate employees, particularly for repetitive or unchallenging tasks, they are insufficient for driving long-term performance when intrinsic factors are absent.

This finding also supports the notion presented in Vroom's Expectancy Theory (1964), which highlights that motivation is most effective when individuals believe their efforts will lead to performance and that performance will lead to desirable rewards. In my study, the relatively weak correlations between salary-driven motivation (Q16) and performance (Q19) suggest that employees may not perceive a strong link between their efforts and their financial rewards, or that other factors, such as intrinsic enjoyment of the job, play a more dominant role in their motivation. Vroom's theory suggests that when the connection between performance and reward is unclear or undervalued, extrinsic motivators lose their power to drive behavior, which is reflected in the findings of my study.

The limited influence of extrinsic motivation in predicting long-term performance in my study also aligns with Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1959). Herzberg distinguishes between hygiene factors (like salary, job security, and working conditions) and motivators (like recognition, responsibility, and personal growth). According to Herzberg, hygiene factors, while necessary to prevent dissatisfaction, do not contribute significantly to higher levels of motivation or performance. This was evident in my findings, where extrinsic factors such as salary-driven motivation (Q16) and high earnings potential (Q15) showed little correlation with job performance, suggesting that while employees may appreciate financial rewards, these factors alone are insufficient to drive high performance or satisfaction. Herzberg's theory posits that true motivation arises from intrinsic factors like recognition and personal growth, which is consistent with the stronger correlations between intrinsic motivators and performance in my study.

Moreover, the Equity Theory (Adams, 1965) provides further context for understanding the role of extrinsic motivation in my findings. The weak correlations between extrinsic motivators and performance may indicate that employees perceive fairness in their compensation and rewards, thus reducing the potential for extrinsic factors to play a larger role in their motivation. When employees feel that their compensation is fair and aligned with their efforts, as suggested by Equity Theory, they are more likely to be motivated by intrinsic factors such as personal growth or job enjoyment. The results of my study, particularly the weak relationship between salary and performance, suggest that financial compensation may not be perceived as a significant motivator for most employees when fairness is perceived, and intrinsic factors are sufficiently satisfied.

The Synergistic Role of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

The results of my study also reinforce the findings of Cerasoli et al. (2014), who argued that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

often work synergistically to support performance. My findings suggest that while intrinsic motivation is a stronger predictor of performance, extrinsic motivators like salary or job security can still play an important supporting role, particularly for tasks that are less engaging or require repetitive effort. Cerasoli's meta-analysis highlights that extrinsic rewards can help sustain performance when intrinsic motivation alone may wane, which is consistent with the weak but still present correlations between extrinsic motivators and performance in my study. This suggests that while organizations should prioritize fostering intrinsic motivation, particularly for roles requiring creativity, problem-solving, or leadership, they should not entirely disregard the role of extrinsic rewards in maintaining employee engagement and satisfaction.

CONCLUSION

This master's thesis has meticulously explored the efficacy of incentive systems within a corporate setting, focusing particularly on “Banca Nazionale del Lavoro” (BNL) to exemplify the real-world application and impact of such strategies. By examining various aspects of incentive systems through an extensive literature review and a detailed case study, this research has provided substantial insights into how well-designed incentive schemes can enhance employee motivation and overall organizational performance.

The findings revealed in this study underscore the pivotal role of both monetary and non-monetary incentives in fostering employee engagement and productivity. In particular, the case of BNL illustrated that a balanced approach, which incorporates both types of incentives, can significantly improve not just the immediate productivity of employees but also their long-term commitment to the organization. This holistic use of incentives aligns employee goals with organizational objectives, thereby promoting a more dynamic and motivated workforce.

Statistical analyses conducted in the sixth chapter demonstrated a positive correlation between incentive systems and employee performance metrics, affirming the initial hypotheses posited in the fourth chapter. These results not only validate the theoretical models discussed in the literature review but also highlight the practical benefits of applying such models in a structured corporate environment like BNL.

Furthermore, the methodology employed in this study, detailed in the fifth chapter, ensured the collection of robust and reliable data, which supported a comprehensive analysis of the incentive system's impact. The application of advanced statistical techniques allowed for a nuanced understanding of the data, contributing to a more detailed and informed discussion in the seventh chapter.

In conclusion, the research conducted affirms the critical importance of incentive systems in modern organizational management. The practical implications of this study are significant, offering valuable guidelines for businesses aiming to refine their employee motivation strategies through effective incentive programs. Additionally, this thesis opens several avenues for future research, suggesting further exploration into the nuances of incentive systems across different industries and cultural contexts. This continued research will be vital in adapting incentive systems to the evolving demands of the global workforce, ensuring that they remain effective tools for enhancing employee performance and achieving organizational success.

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