

T.C.
BAHCESEHIR UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL
MASTER'S PROGRAM IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

**THE EFFECT OF INCENTIVES ON JOB SATISFACTION AND
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**



MASTER'S THESIS

GHAITH HADRI

ISTANBUL 2024

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF INCENTIVES ON JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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Master's Program in Business Administration

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In the current work environment, incentives play an effective and important role in the productivity of workers, and the importance of incentives stems from employee's need to recognize the importance of their efforts and achievements. This study focuses to find out the real impact of incentives in all its forms on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In this study, financial incentives and non-financial incentives have been chosen as independent variables, while job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been utilized as dependent variables. This paper was able to collect data from 100 participants who were working in the private universities located in Damascus, Syria. After ensuring the validity and reliability of measurement scales, correlation and regression analyses were performed to examine the relationships between the variables. Findings showed that incentives in all its forms has a positive and statistically significant impact on job satisfaction. Findings also depicted that there is no statistically significant effect of incentives on organizational commitment. The study suggests managers to understand clearly the importance of financial and non-financial incentives and their impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Key Words: Financial Incentives, Non-financial Incentives, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment

ÖZ

TEŞVİKLERİN İŞ TATMİNİ VE ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIĞA ETKİSİ

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Mevcut çalışma ortamında, teşvikler işçilerin verimliliğinde etkili ve önemli bir rol oynamaktadır ve teşviklerin önemi, çalışanın çabalarının ve başarılarının önemini kabul etme ihtiyacından kaynaklanmaktadır. Bu çalışma, teşviklerin iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılık duygusu üzerindeki etkisini bulmaya odaklanmaktadır. Bu çalışmada finansal teşvikler ve finansal olmayan teşvikler bağımsız değişkenler olarak seçilmiş, iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılık ise bağımlı değişkenler olarak kullanılmıştır. Çalışma kapsamında, Suriye'nin Şam kentinde bulunan özel üniversitelerde çalışan 100 katılımcıdan veri toplanmıştır. Ölçeklerin geçerlik ve güvenilirliklerinin sağlandığının tespitinin ardından değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek için korelasyon ve regresyon analizleri yapılmıştır. Bulgular, teşviklerin iş tatmini üzerinde pozitif ve istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Teşviklerin örgütsel bağlılık üzerinde istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bir etkisine ilişkin bulguya rastlanmamıştır. Çalışma, yöneticiler açısından finansal ve finansal olmayan teşviklerin önemine ve bunların iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılık üzerindeki etkilerine dikkat çekmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Finansal Teşvikler, Finansal Olmayan Teşvikler, İş Tatmini, Örgütsel Bağlılık

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Chapter 1

Introduction

The principle of incentives has surely been a main component in the recruitment, motivation, and retention of efficient workers in the organizations. Usually, majority of the organizations have been of the view that pay is the most powerful motivation that helps an employee to be more productive. Economically, people are employed to earn money, which is then used to satisfy their basic physiological needs like food, shelter, and clothing, and also other aspects of a good quality of life. Most of the employers generally believe that the more money they pay, the better performance the employees will give. Nevertheless, it is important to note that while the payment of a money reward may be a primary motivation for some workers, others may be driven by factors that are not associated with money, such as their being acknowledged, their job being assured, the group cohesion, the work environment being friendly, and the opportunities for training and development being available.

Bennett and Minty (2005) categorize incentives into two broad perspectives: financial incentives and non-financial incentives. Studies by Kreitner and Kinicki (2001) show that the monetary incentives, can be the reason of the workers who stay longer to work and perform better. Just likewise, Dorenbosch, De Reuver, and Sanders (2006) show that the financial incentives are the decisive factor in the organization of the workers and the sense of duty they have towards the organizational goals and objectives. Salau, Falola and Akinbode (2014) state that financial incentives given to workers are the bonuses, salary increases, fringe benefits, profit-sharing schemes, and other payment packages. Glance, Hogg and Huberman (1997) proposed that the non-financial reward packages include the features such as the creation of a favorable work environment, the participation of workers in the management decisions, the job enrichment, the flextime, the delegation of authority to the employees, the career open, the consistently strong labor-management relations, and the positive labor-management relations. Cook and

Crossman (2004) considered that the employer-employee relations have a strategic function in the enhancement of the employee performance, commitment, and retention and worker involvement. They stressed that the relationship with line managers becomes one of the important causes of individuals leaving their jobs or organizations. McDonald, Harrison, Checkland, Campbell and Roland (2007) emphasized that among the causes of employee turnover are the lack of training, development, and career opportunities. It was also found that even when people stay in the organization for a year or more, their decision to quit may be already made during the first weeks of employment. In addition, it is observed that many managers in industrial settings usually do not have a good grasp of the principles and the foundations of individual differences which is vital for them to effectively motivate their employees to perform better. Hence, a lot of researches have been conducted in the field of the incentives and job satisfaction and also a lot of factors are considered to support the organizations to be more effective.

The study on the workers' incentives and satisfaction has been exhaustive, taking into account the cases both of developing and developed countries and being the subject of several professions. Various industrial sectors have done the studies to evaluate the importance of incentives in the field of job satisfaction. To name one, there was a study conducted in Singapore which showed the influence of incentives in various industries. Besides, Glance et al. (1997) concentrated on the role of monetary-related factors, such as pay, in the process of labor turnover, while Kinicki and Williams (2003) studied the levels of employee engagement and job satisfaction in the banking sector. Dawal and Taha (2006) studied the factors which are affecting job satisfaction in the automotive industries, while on the other hand, Rothwell and Kazanas (2003) examined the similar factors in the manufacturing industries. Besides, Lew and Liew (2006) also looked at the origins of employee needs and their satisfaction with the job.

Even though there are some studies, there is still the missing research on the connection between these three constructs. Hence, this study is supposed to add to the already established knowledge, especially to the area of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The knowledge of the "what", "how" and "why"

of a task is very important in the determining the employees' performance. The this in-depth knowledge will be the basis for employers, managers, consultants, researchers, and others in the organization to use, change, and incorporate strategic changes towards competitiveness and organizational commitment. The main goal of this study is to show the impact of incentives, in all possible forms, on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The job satisfaction, which in turn is the outcome of this, shows up in better overall performance in the institution and the effectiveness in the workplace increases. In the end, the aim is to improve the employees' capacity to execute the tasks assigned to them in a good and faster way.

This study aims to answer the following question: What is the impact of financial and non-financial incentives on job satisfaction and organizational commitment among administrative staff in private universities in Syria?

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Job Satisfaction

2.1.1 The concept of job satisfaction. The effectiveness of any organization is linked to the efficiency of the human element, its ability to work, and its desire to work, as it is the influential and effective element in the use of available material resources. The data of job satisfaction is the feeling of happiness. An individual's satisfaction with his job leads to high productive efficiency, while dissatisfaction with the profession results from poor adaptation. Satisfaction accompanies the individual's achievement of a goal, the fulfilment of needs, desires and wishes. Accordingly, job satisfaction is defined as: a set of positive and negative feelings based on which employees evaluate their work. The concept of satisfaction for an individual depends on the extent to which the individual uses his abilities, inclinations, personal characteristics, and value. It also depends on his practical position and the way of life in which he can play the role that is consistent with his growth and experiences (Kara, 2020). Abbas (2003) believes that the organization's lack of interest in developing positive motivations toward work leads to the emergence of some negative phenomena among employees, and perhaps the most important of these phenomena is the phenomenon of job dissatisfaction. Despite the presence of many trends related to work, job satisfaction is the most important phenomenon that has been achieved. Of great interest by researchers and behavioral scientists.

Researchers believe that satisfaction with work refers to a group of an individual's attitudes toward his work, and in this area we can differentiate between at least two aspects of satisfaction, the first of which is the aspects of satisfaction, which is the individual's tendency to be satisfied to varying degrees with the different aspects of work, and examples of these include: Aspects The work itself, pay, promotions, recognition, benefits, terms and conditions of work, supervision, co-workers, and organizational policy (Hassan, 2001, p. 169). Others believe that job satisfaction is the result of elements that the individual imagines he will obtain

from his work in a more specific form, and the elements of job satisfaction are expressed in the following equation:

Satisfaction with work = satisfaction with pay + satisfaction with work content + satisfaction with opportunities for advancement + satisfaction with supervision + satisfaction with the work group + satisfaction with working hours + satisfaction with working conditions.

As for Lee, MacPhee and Dahinten (2020) they believe that satisfaction with work represents the satisfaction that the individual obtains from various sources that are linked in their perception to the job they occupy, and therefore, to the extent that this job represents a source of satisfaction or great benefits for him, his satisfaction with this job increases, and thus increases his connection to it.

According to the previous definitions, we conclude the following points:

- Job satisfaction is an internal feeling and feeling that has external indicators apparent in the worker's behavior, and is affected by the psychological, social and economic conditions surrounding the worker.
- Job satisfaction is the basic criterion for human relations within the organization. It is evidence of the efficiency of management and its ability to satisfy the needs of employees, and to provide positive incentives and motivations to motivate employees towards work.
- Job satisfaction is also considered an effective indicator of the quality of the supervision and leadership process, and this is evident in the presence of cooperation, cohesion and enthusiasm in performing work, and then the integration of the organization's goals with the goals of the employees and the pursuit of both parties to obtain the best results.

2.1.2 The importance of job satisfaction. The idea of job satisfaction is regarded as one of the core themes in manufacturing and organizational psychology and plays a critical role in a number of positive variables like job motivation, job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and life satisfaction (Kara, 2020). Job satisfaction is a feeling that people have about the job which they are doing and that also includes the various features of the job. Hancer and George (2003) prove that this is the feeling of job satisfaction that is the reason of people's affection or aversion to the job they do. Jung and Suh (2019) have pointed out that when a worker finds his work highly satisfying, his chances of looking for another job or quitting

the organization are reduced. This feeling of job satisfaction is a reason of positive attitude to the jobs and hence, the commitment to the organization (Sarwar and Abugre, 2013). Hulin and Judge (2003) say that the job satisfaction is a multidimensional dilemma of rational responses to an individual's job that are made of cognitive (evaluative), affective, and behavioral components. Celik (2011) in the classic job satisfaction model stated that the employee's realization of the job he or she is entering was the primary topic. Nevertheless, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not only related to the actual work performed by the individual, but also depend on the perception, attitudes and expectations towards the job. Wise managers put first the feeling of the employees on their jobs because of its significance (Yang and Kassekert, 2010). The employees are the backbone of the organization and thus, they cannot be ignored because they designed and implemented the organizational progress towards the achievement of its goals (Senyucel, 2009).

According to Lee et al. (2020) who supported their research based on a study of 113 perioperative nurses working in acute care hospitals, one of the approaches that they proposed is to hold regular staff meetings where nurses can express their problems and suggest improvements. The healthcare facilities could have a better functioning of the patient care system or the work environment. Patterson (2010) thinks that the concept of job satisfaction is not the same for each employee. Some employees may get a lot of satisfaction in their jobs in comparison to the work itself, while some may get the highest degree of satisfaction with their jobs from the relationships with their supervisors and co-workers, and a pay package may keep some employees in their jobs even though they are considered unemployed.

Zuliani, Huda and Hawabi (2023) investigated how employee performance at PT Pertamina EP Surabaya is impacted by job satisfaction. Thirty PT Pertamina EP Surabaya employees were given questionnaires as part of this quantitative approach study. Path analysis and multiple linear regression were used to analyze the research data. The findings showed that, through organizational commitment, job satisfaction had an indirect impact on employee performance rather than a direct one. It means that people who are highly satisfied with their jobs will have an impact on organizational commitment. On the other hand, people who have a high level of organizational commitment will have an impact on worker performance. Through organizational commitment, it is clear that there is a indirect relationship between employee performance and job satisfaction.

Arifin and Matriadi (2022) looked at how job satisfaction at Lhokseumawe Public Health Center influences organizational commitment to employee performance and organizational culture. The data from 130 respondents served as the study's sample, and the SEM-AMOS tool was used to analyze it. The data analysis results show that job satisfaction has a positive and significant impact on employee performance, organizational commitment has a positive and significant impact on job satisfaction and employee performance, and organizational culture has a positive and significant impact on both. The relationship between organizational commitment and culture and worker performance is entirely mediated by job satisfaction.

Achmad, Noermijati, Rofiaty and Irawanto (2023) aimed to determine the relationship between talent development and intention to stay among Generation Z workers in the largest industrial center in Southeast Asia and tested whether job satisfaction and employee engagement can mediate between talent development and intention to stay. Purposive sampling was used to gather 342 samples of generation Z workers from businesses in 15 Bekasi Regency industries, including manufacturing, services, transportation, construction, IT, telecommunication, electronics, food industry, and real estate. Software called Smart PLS 3.0 was used to test the data. The result is that talent development positively and significantly influences intention to stay, while job satisfaction performing as a stronger mediating factor between talent development and intention to stay than employee engagement.

2.1.3 Determinants of job satisfaction. Determinants of job satisfaction among employees. These determinants include those related to the nature of work, management, employees, or the organizational climate. Osibanjo, Adeniji, Falola and Heirsmac, 2014 identified a group of factors determining job satisfaction, which are:

- Job security: It is the worker's expectation that he will continue in his current job with the possibility of achieving opportunities for promotion and career advancement. Job security is one of the most important factors influencing job satisfaction, because the worker's first concern is obtaining a job that provides him with financial and psychological stability in his career.

- **Work:** Work itself is a major indicator of job satisfaction, and it is expressed by the extent to which the service provider loves or hates his job. Those who see their job as important to them, exploit their skills and knowledge, and have freedom in their job are more satisfied than others.
- **Appreciation:** is giving the worker a certain status within the organization. Appreciation means how the organization deals with the worker and the amount of appreciation he receives.
- **Management style:** It is the formal relationship between the leader and the subordinate that leads to achieving goals. Management is of great importance. Because it constitutes the point of contact between the organization and employees, it has the greatest impact on its daily activities.
- **Organizational climate:** It is the total social environment of the group of workers within the organization, and it includes values, culture, customs, traditions, norms, behavioral patterns, social beliefs, and work methods.
- Various factors that affect job satisfaction, and creating a balance between the organization's general behavior and the external environment is an effective outcome of the necessities that the organization requires in adapting, balancing, and stabilizing.

2.1.4 Dimensions of job satisfaction. The dimensions of job satisfaction are its elements or factors, and they are the same determinants of job satisfaction that determine the degree of satisfaction that the individual feels toward the job. In addition, the difference in the degree of job satisfaction or even dissatisfaction is natural among employees, even if they occupy similar jobs and jobs, and this arises. The difference is due to the difference in the treatment each individual receives from his boss, the salary he receives, or the relationship he has with his colleagues, and the impact of these matters varies from one person to another. Likewise, opportunities for promotion and salary may differ between workers due to differences in their performance, seniority, or other considerations (Tausif, 2012). Lee, Yang and Li (2017) identified six important factors for job satisfaction with work, the first three of which relate directly to work, while the other three are related to other circumstances. These factors are:

2.1.4.1 Factors directly related to work.

1. Adequacy of direct supervision: The supervisor is of great importance because he is a mediator between the organization and people, and he has the most impact on the daily activities that individuals perform.

2. Satisfaction with the work itself: The majority of people are happy with the work if they like it and this motivation makes them master their work and try to apply all their energy to do it.

3. Integration with colleagues at work: People are social by nature, therefore, work is more enjoyable for the individual, when he feels that it gives him the chance to get to know and integrate with others.

2.1.4.2 Factors related to other circumstances or aspects.

1. Providing goals in the organization: People want to be part of an organization that has the goal that is acceptable to them from their perspective. Besides, they anticipate that this association will be adequate to reach the objective for which it is established.

2. Fairness of economic and other rewards: People are anticipating that they will get the fair rewards if they are being compared with each other in the same organization, that is, if they are being compared with the rewards that are being given to individuals in other organizations.

3. Physical and mental health status: The link between physical and mental health with respect to its effect on the individual, his performance and morale is found to be quite strong. The family problems or ill health of the person can instigate the problems, and although these are the factors that are out of the work, they do influence the individual's condition in the work environment.

In general, the factors determining job satisfaction, which most studies have agreed upon, can be limited to the following elements (Bakotić, 2016):

- Job satisfaction, which includes:
 - o The job matches the individual's qualifications, abilities and personal aptitudes.
 - o The job provides the employee with the opportunity to use his skills and talents.
 - o The job provides the employee with the opportunity to take initiative and innovation.
 - o Providing a general supervision system, not direct supervision.
 - o The social status of the job inside and outside the organization.
- Satisfaction with the reward, which includes the following:

- o The wage is proportionate to the work for the organization's functions.
- o The wage is proportionate to the work in relation to the working conditions.
- o The wage is proportional to the cost of living.
- o Follow a policy of incentive, continuous and fair rewards.
 - Satisfaction with opportunities for growth and career advancement, which includes the following:
 - o Defining a clear policy for future career planning.
 - o The growth of the position occupied by the employee and his connection to it as it grows.
- o Qualifying the organization's employees to fill higher positions.
 - Satisfaction with the style of supervision and leadership, which includes the following:
 - o Showing a spirit of friendship at work so that the subordinate feels that his boss understands him, his problems, and his point of view.
 - o Supporting the subordinate and providing assistance when requested
 - o Superiors are fair in treating subordinates because fighting subordinates weakens the confidence of others.
 - o The boss's focus on the subordinate's strengths rather than on the weaknesses.
 - Satisfaction with the work group, which includes the following:
 - o Personal harmony among group members.
 - o Convergence of degrees of culture, scientific and intellectual aspects.
 - o Having the same professional affiliations.
 - o Convergence of the group's values, customs and ethics.
 - Satisfaction with social aspects, which includes the following:
 - o Research the employee's social problems and help him solve them whenever possible.
 - o Employee health care.
 - o Providing services to the employee.
 - o Helping the employee deal with disaster situations.
 - o The presence of recreational activities. (Sarwar and Abugre, 2013).

2.2 Organizational Commitment

2.2.1 Forms of organizational commitment. The organizational commitment (OC) has been studied and approached in various ways, mostly as either attitude-based or behavior-based constructs. Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) in the first place, defines organizational commitment as "the degree of a person's identification with and involvement in a specific organization. The concept of the affective commitment is introduced by Meyer and Allen (1984) who described the employee's emotional connection to an organization from a belief of and alignment with the objectives of the organization. Gradually, the concept of organizational commitment has become the main subject of research, thus, many definitions and approaches have been developed by various authors like Mowday, Porter and Steers (2013) and Meyer, Irving and Allen (1998). The growing interest in this concept among the learners of organization can be linked, in part, to the changes in the work practice that have been brought by the pressure of the international job market and the greater chances for the talented people in a globalized economy (Sullivan and Arthur, 2006). The field of organizational behavior (e) has been studying the organizational commitment for a long time and it's no wonder that it is getting significant attention from the scholars. g. The work of Allen and Meyer, 1990; Mowday, 1998 is the basis of the argument given. Commitment helps the practitioners to get the exact information about the influence that specific policies or practices on the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Bergmann, Lester, De Meuse and Grahn, 2000). Organizational commitment (OC) is a personal feeling that includes employees' opinions about their relationship with the organization's main values, their desire to stay with the organization and their intention to work harder than usual (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979).

Continuance commitment is the attachment that employees feel to the organization as a result of the investments they have made or the costs they have incurred in order to leave (Dipboye, Smith and Howell, 1994; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). This kind of attachment is formed when the employees know that they have spent their efforts and anything they would give up on if they leave or because their alternatives are so few. Affective commitment, unlike continuance commitment, reflects employees' wish to stay with the organization due to their genuine desire, whereas the latter is based on the sense of necessity (Meyer, Allen and Gellatly,

1990). Meyer and Allen (1991) have added the third dimension entitled normative commitment, which has a connection with the feeling of moral obligation to stay in the organization. Although they are different in their own ways, all three dimensions are the measure of how much employees are attached to the organization.

Organizational commitment is one of the most important factors in the achievement of demanding goals (Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck and Alge, 1999), because these goals usually require more effort and have less chances of being achieved than the easier ones (Latham, 2007). Organizational commitment has been defined as a psychological state or mindset that entails individuals to be focused on certain targets and reflects a willingness to keep on following the given course of action (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005). Based on Porter et al. (1974), commitment is the strong belief in and acceptance of the organizational goals, the willingness to give a lot of energy for the organization, and the desire to keep the membership of the organization. Whereas motivation is another word which leads to a particular course of action, commitment is the one that works independently of other motives and attitudes and often makes a person to continue a particular course even though it is in conflict with other motives (Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe, 2004; Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). One perspective on commitment is rooted in terms of exchange or reward-cost notions, where the focus lies on the negotiation between the individual and the organization: The greater the favorable exchange, the higher the individual's bond to the organization (Becker, 1960). Organizational commitment has been predominantly influenced by it is the proven positive connection with work behaviors like job satisfaction, high productivity, and low turnover (Cohen, 2003).

According to Herscovitch and Meyer (2002), organizational commitment is the extent to which an employee has a sense of belonging to the organization and its goals and is ready to do anything to help it to succeed. For the last 25 years, the issue of organizational commitment within both the private and public sectors organizations has been the subject of considerable research (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Mowday, 1998; Hope, 2003). The commitment to the organization is perceived as the attitude of bonding to the organization of an employee, which results in the job-related behaviors such as work absenteeism, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, organizational citizenship behaviors, work motivation, and work performance. It is regarded as an exchange deal between the persons and the organization (Coopey,

1995). The fulfillment of professions is certainly the cornerstone of the psychological contracts of employees which can be seen as a part of social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity. Psychologists find organizational commitment a great interest because of the strong evidence that high level of commitment is related to the positive outcomes of organization. It signifies a psychological contract, meaning it is employees' reaction to the benefits the organization gives them (Angle and Perry, 1983).

Rodriguez, Alberca and Escalante (2023) aimed to determine the relationship between organizational commitment and teamwork in a municipality from Peru, the questionnaires which has been applied in this study has been distributed to 94 workers of the municipality. The results show that organizational commitment and teamwork retain a highly significant correlation and there is a strong positive relationship between organizational commitment and teamwork.

Phuong, Bach, Linh, Ly, Dat, An and Hung (2023) aimed to investigate how organizational commitment elements affected self-employed businesses' profitability in the context of digital transformation in Vinh City, Vietnam. Multiple regression model analysis, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and two quantitative research techniques have been applied, the study's findings demonstrate that each of the three aspects of employee commitment to the company has a favorable effect on the company's success. which norm-based commitment, emotional commitment, and calculation-based commitment are found to have the highest influence in that order. After that, the study makes some recommendations for enhancing workers' loyalty to the company in order to boost productivity in businesses.

2.3 Incentives

2.3.1 Definition of incentives. Chepkemai (2018) defined incentives as one of the means through which a company encourages its employees to deliver effective performance. There is no doubt that incentives influence the behavior of workers to act in an effective manner that leads to increased productivity. Introducing an incentive system in the workforce leads to positive change in the performance of employees. This change when completed successfully improves job satisfaction which leads to increased productivity. Hence, incentives can be described as a reward system with a driving force or force that increases the influence of forces that encourage job satisfaction among employees. Luthans (1998) explained that incentives stimulate actions directed toward improving job satisfaction and performance. This means that incentives are the force that retains and retains the employee to continue making efforts to achieve the company's goals. Human resources are the most important economic resources used by a company. Incentives are the basic element that positively affects human resources. Head (2014) defined incentives as financial and non-financial rewards provided to employees to ensure optimization of capabilities to achieve high productivity. Therefore, incentives can be classified into two parts: financial and non-financial incentives.

2.3.2 The importance of incentives. The study of human behavior in administrative work aims to search for the reasons for individuals doing something with enthusiasm, while such enthusiasm and desire are not available in the same person at different stages of time. This difference in human behavior can be partly explained by knowledge of human motivation. It is recognized that establishing fixed principles of motivation is not an easy matter, as human behavior is affected by the trends he acquires, the positions he adopts, and other influential, motivating factors in his daily life. It is noted that the task of management in the field of motivation is to identify the desires of individuals, and try to achieve them in a way that does not conflict with the interest of the organization. The primary goal of motivation is to increase the productivity of individuals, and this goal is achieved through the interaction between motivation and the capabilities of individuals (Montag, 2012).

Armstrong (2001) believes that managers must understand how to motivate their followers. The importance of incentives for managers is due to the fact that the performance of managers depends on the performance of their subordinates, and motivating workers achieves two goals: 1- directing the efforts of individuals towards achieving the organization's goals efficiently and effectively, 2- achieving justice and job satisfaction among subordinates.

2.3.3 Forms of incentives. Indeed, incentives come in various classifications and forms, often overlapping with each other. Researchers have segmented numerous means and methods of incentives, providing management with a diverse toolkit to maximize employee performance efficiency. This comprehensive approach enables organizations to tailor incentives to suit their specific needs and objectives, ultimately fostering a conducive environment for employee motivation and productivity.

2.3.3.1 Incentives according to their nature.

2.3.3.1.1 Financial incentives. Financial incentive is an incentive of a financial, monetary, or economic nature (Lucas, Ibrahim and Shobayo, 2016), and financial incentives are those that meet human basic needs. They motivate the workers to give their best at work, to utilize the abilities they already have, to increase their efficiency, and to This leads to incentives such as salary, incentive bonuses, bonuses, profit sharing, and bonuses for suggestions. Financial incentives can be a single lump sum, monthly installments or any other form of rewards like bonuses (Belle and Cantarelli, 2015) which will improve the employees' income. The financial incentives are the methods that are used in the payment of financial compensation based on production. To raise it either in terms of quantity or quality, it means that the worker will be able to produce more or better, therefore, the more or better the worker produces, the more gain he will obtain, while lack of production (either quantitative or qualitative) may lead to his partial or total deprivation (Kara, 2020).

The person is interested and dedicated to work, given that the wages are suitable and enough to meet his or her needs (Murphy, 2007). Contrary to this, low wages that are not acceptable even compared to the amount of time and energy that the workers put into their jobs, which do not match the worker's demands and needs,

are an important factor in the worker's neglect of his work (Lucas et al. 2016). Financial incentives are one of the earliest types of incentives and are characterized by the speed and the immediacy, and are good at making the person feel the result and thus he directs his efforts (Rajapaksa, 2020).

There are two kinds of financial incentives, the positive ones that cater to the interests of the employees and the needs of the organization on the one hand, and the interests of the organization on the other hand, because production, improving quality, taking responsibility, and sincerity in work are all good and positive results, and the organization has to reward its employees in return, whether it is by giving incentives (Rose, The second type of incentives is the ones which are negative incentives, which are the techniques and the ways that the management uses to limit the negative behavior and the unacceptable behavior among individuals and the employees, such as obedience, responsibility, and laziness at work.

Thus, this is due to the method of alarms and warns and the restriction of some privileges to him for a specific period. Caution, thus, the career searcher may need to postpone promotion, possibly lower the rank or move from one place to another. These methods are used depending on how much the violation of the individual is. Negative incentives are also referred to as deterrent incentives. The employment of negative incentives is seen as essential to improve the productivity, particularly among the employees who are lazy (Murphy, 2007). It is also possible to get money as a direct financial incentive (e.g. extra pay, bonuses, bonuses, profits, and so on) or indirect financial incentive (e.g. nutrition, housing, transportation, loans, subsidies, facilities, treatment, and discounts) (Depedri, 2010).

2.1.3.1.2 Non-financial incentives. Non-financial incentives are given in organizations by the way of non-financial (moral) reward that is used to reward a high level of achievement or performance, such as customer service or peer support, and they are based on reaching a certain goal (Rose, 1998). These rewards are acknowledged as an efficient means to pay the employees, hence, they are the ones that attract employees and motivate employees to perform the best possible (Abdullah and Wan, 2013). The non-financial incentives are regarded as one of the most vital aspects that have a significant impact on the employees' motivation to work with all their passion and dedication (Chandrasekhar, 2011). Non-financial incentives are important in employee perception of the reward program as the

workplace (Khan, Shahid, Nawab and Wali, 2013). It is regarded as one of the important foundations of organizations and one of the main tasks of institutional work in order to stimulate creativity and excellence in work and to deliver the best performance (Kassahun, 2010). Besides, when the organizations are talking about the non-measured tools like the possibility of having more vacation leaves and family leaves, the employee will think of the organization as the one that cares about his or her personal lives and well-being (Deperi, Tortia and Carpita, 2010). As Holmes and Parker (2017) argue, incentives can only be successful when there is a clear working mechanism and system, which includes the credibility and fairness of the management in the application and implementation, which is a very important element. Lillard (1992) noted that incentives are the means to achieve excellence in the work and make the employee feel that his work is fair and he is trusted, and organizations can be compared to the treatment of other employees in them, especially those who deal with the same work.

The literature on the organizational behavior and the human resource management points out that non-financial incentive are an effective means that motivates the employees. The aim of offering incentives is to link the desired behavior to the behavior results that make the employee feel that he is appreciated (Whetten and Cameron, 2007). Deeprose (1994) thinks that the non-financial incentive is a powerful tool to motivate employees and increase their productivity. The application of cashless software is a principle of higher performance of organizations. Employees regard non- money incentives as a part of their identification, appreciation, and the fact that someone cares about them at work, and thus they increase employee morale, which in turn leads to increase in organizational efficiency. Danish, Rizwan and Usman (2010) proved that when rewards and recognition programs are properly established, a good work environment is created that motivates employees to work hard and achieve high performance. Murphy (2007) carried out an online research to investigate the impact of financial and non-financial incentives on the labor retention. The study conclusion revealed that there were no statistically significant differences in the labor turnover rate according to the incentives variable. Jeffrey (2004) states that some social and cognitive psychology principles give us the reasons to think that employees may consider non-financial incentives more valuable than a cash award.

2.3.3.2 Incentives in terms of who gets them.

2.3.3.2.1 Individual incentives. Individual incentives are designed to motivate and encourage specific individuals within an organization. These incentives often involve allocating rewards or prizes to employees who demonstrate exceptional performance or produce the best services. Unlike group incentives, individual incentives focus solely on the individual recipient, aiming to stimulate positive competition among employees. However, individual incentives can have potential side effects. For instance, they may lead to a lack of cooperation among team members and undermine team spirit, which is essential for effective management. Recognizing these drawbacks, organizations may opt to complement individual incentives with collective incentive methods to foster a sense of unity and collaboration among employees (Holmes and Parker, 2017).

2.3.3.2.2 Collective incentives. Collective incentives are geared towards fostering cooperation and teamwork among employees within organizations. They are designed to incentivize individuals to align their efforts with those of their colleagues, thereby avoiding conflicts that may impede the achievement of organizational goals. By promoting connection, harmony, and a sense of participation, collective incentives contribute to the development of teamwork and collaboration among employees (Holmes and Parker, 2017).

2.3.3.3 Incentives in terms of their effect.

2.3.3.3.1 Positive incentives. Incentives that align with the needs and motivations of individual workers as well as the interests of the organization are essential for fostering positive outcomes. When employees demonstrate increased production, improved quality, constructive suggestions, innovations, responsibility, dedication, and sincerity in their work, it is vital for organizations to provide corresponding positive incentives. These incentives may take the form of both financial and non-financial rewards, aiming to recognize and reinforce desirable behaviors and achievements among employees (Lucas et al. 2016).

2.3.3.3.2 Negative incentives. These mean employed by management serve to prevent and correct negative behaviors while also addressing unproductive tendencies such as laziness and disobedience to directives. By implementing such measures, management aims to instil a sense of responsibility and accountability in employees regarding their assigned duties. Examples of these measures include withholding certain privileges, such as suspending incentive pay or delaying the provision of bonuses or promotions. These actions are intended to incentivize employees to fulfil their responsibilities and adhere to organizational guidelines and expectations (Lucas et al. 2016).

2.3.4 Basis for granting incentives. The granting of incentives is based on several criteria, with excellence in performance being the foremost consideration. However, other grounds, such as effort and seniority, are also taken into account. These bases, as identified by Belle and Cantarelli (2015), are outlined as follows:

1. **Performance:** Excellence in performance serves as the primary criterion for incentives. This encompasses surpassing the typical rate of performance in terms of quantity, quality, working time, and other relevant metrics. As such, performance is regarded as the most significant factor in determining incentives.
2. **Effort:** In situations where measuring output is challenging, such as in service-oriented roles or government work, the focus may shift to assessing effort rather than solely relying on results. In such cases, rewards may be allocated based on the effort expended or the methods and means employed by individuals to achieve desired outcomes.
3. **Seniority:** Seniority refers to the length of time an individual has been employed within an organization. It signifies a degree of loyalty and dedication that merits recognition and reward. Seniority-based incentives often take the form of bonuses or other forms of compensation.
4. **Skill:** Organizations may choose to reward individuals based on their acquired skills, which can include higher certificates, patents, licenses, or completion of training courses. Recognizing and incentivizing skill development encourages continuous learning and professional growth among employees.

2.3.5 The importance of motivation. Motivation, as described by Luthans, Avolio and Walumbua (2005), is the physiological processes that underlie behavior

stimulation, direction, and persistence. Motivation is a management activity that entails a dialogical process aimed at influencing others. It involves developing and intensifying employees' latent desires and readiness to take specific actions in order to achieve particular goals and project tasks (Adamus, 2005). Kisielnicki (2011) expands on this notion, stating that motivation encompasses influencing the entire organization and the individuals involved in projects to perform their duties as efficiently and effectively as possible. L.H and Haber (1995) succinctly captures motivation as the manager's individualized approach to employees, wherein the manager penetrates the employee's system of needs and expectations, creates appropriate working conditions, and chooses the best way to direct them. This approach ensures that the work performed by the employee contributes to the realization of the company's goals. In essence, motivation hinges on aligning employees' goals with those of the motivating person, often the supervisor (Borkowska, 1985).

Motivation is indeed a multifaceted process that can be influenced through various means. In the literature, two primary types of motivation are commonly discussed: intrinsic and extrinsic, as well as negative and positive motivations. When distinguishing between these types, the criterion used is often the type of values a person holds (Borkowska, 1985). Intrinsic motivation pertains to activities that inherently hold value, bring joy and satisfaction, and stimulate the employee's interest. Stimuli for intrinsic motivation arise spontaneously, without the promise of rewards or benefits, and directly contribute to the attainment of ultimate values. These stimuli include factors such as responsibility, recognition, a sense of influence, freedom of action, opportunities for development, the belief in the importance of work, and curiosity, which infuses work with passion and makes everyday tasks interesting. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation involves values that are seen as a mean to achieve final, tangible goals. Actions driven by extrinsic motivation are undertaken solely because they will ultimately lead to financial benefits or help avoid undesired consequences. In the case of the second distinction, positive motivation is characterized by the employer providing the employee with increasing opportunities for professional development while expecting them to fulfil previously assigned tasks. By meeting the employer's expectations, the employee gains opportunities to enhance earnings, with prospects for promotion or increased independence and responsibility in daily tasks (Penc, 1998).

Conversely, negative motivation entails instilling a sense of urgency in employees, often driven by anxiety or fear of job loss or financial repercussions. Employers may resort to negative motivation as it does not entail additional financial costs while improving employee performance. However, this approach is not ideal, as continual pressure, stress, and anxiety can diminish employee self-esteem, lower aspirations, reduce overall well-being, and detract from the joy of work (Wachowiak, 2001).

2.3.6 Theories about the effects of incentives on effort and task performance. The term effort direction denotes the particular activity or task that a person selects to concentrate, what it means in the particular person's case). The motivation for monetary incentives to be given should be that their expected benefits should be higher than the costs of the task or activity that one is doing. The rewards for the tasks or activities that are being rewarded should then lead to the direction of the effort being towards the given task or activity. Practically speaking, the results of motivational factors on the direction of effort can be seen through indicators such as absenteeism and task choice (Kanfer, 1990).

In lab experiments, the direction of effort is usually limited because subjects are usually given only one task and are expected to stay present to receive the incentive payments. Nevertheless, subjects can still choose the courses of action while staying within the limitations of the task. Besides, if the subjects are paid based on a piece rate for each successfully finished toy assembly, they will most probably being in a hurry to assemble many toys and that will make them to ignore the quality of individual assemblies. On the contrary, subjects may choose to work on the task or on daydreaming, proving that the financial incentives have a great influence on the effort direction even in the controlled laboratory situations. The effort duration is the time length of an individual's cognitive and physical resources spent on a certain task or activity. e. Thus, the question is not only how much a person works, but also what activities people do while they are working and the level of its intensity. In actual cases, the incentive contracts usually have a duration of a year or more, and are based on the performance evaluation measures that are designed to detect the consistent efforts over such period. It is reasonable to believe that financial rewards can extend the effort time in these cases (e.g. exercise, studying, etc.). g. , the employees may cut their short breaks or work their overtime hours).

Nevertheless, the impacts of incentives on the length of the effort are also shown in laboratory experiments. These effects can be seen in the longer studies where the subjects work at their own pace and decide the time to complete the tasks (i. e. Thus, the people can leave the experiment at different times) (Bonner and Sprinkle, 2002).

Besides, to be able to not only improve your current performance but also to make it easier to handle some future variables, you would need to put more effort into it. Thus, increases in the effort directed towards the current performance can be realized as improvements in the intensity of the effort, which refers to the amount of attention an individual devotes to a task or activity within a fixed timeframe (i. e. Nowadays, whether or not a person works intensely, the question is no longer whether he or she might succeed, but how much time he or she should devote to this activity. As Kanfer (1990) has stated, the effort intensity is basically the percentage of the total cognitive resources devoted to a particular task or activity. In both the field and laboratory settings, the intensity of effort can be measured by the performance on timed tasks or tasks with fixed (apparently) time limits (given that the direction of effort is already fixed). Just like the incentives affect the effort direction and duration, they also supposedly have a positive effect on the effort intensity if people think that the short-term increase of the cognitive resources that are being given to the task will be better on the performance, which is the performance measures for which they are being rewarded (Bonner and Sprinkle, 2002).

Subsidies can also be the driving force that makes people to put in the effort to learn the skills that will enable them to perform a task, thereby the likelihood of future performance and rewards will be high (i.e., learning). This is the idea of increased effort, which is referred to as strategy development, the process of conscious solving, planning, or innovating by the individual doing the task. This situation is when people are not actually involved in the task or the activity directly. Unlike the improvements in directions, intensity, and duration, the gains in effort which are pointed towards the strategy development are not automatic and may at first be negative for the performance but eventually can bring positive results in the long-run. Thus, incentives are the means to motivate the individual to work harder on strategy development when automatic mechanisms are not able to produce the results and rewards that are required (Locke and Latham, 1990).

Some of the explanations of the influences of incentives on the efforts were given by the four main theories which have been the center of the debate. The theories provide us with the ability to understand why the monetary incentives, the effort direction, the duration, and the intensity are linked to each other, but the limited information about the mediators of the incentives-strategy development effort relationship can be a reason that the theories have a problem to fully understand this link. In the given theories, which are expectancy theory, agency theory (through expected utility theory), goal-setting theory, and social-cognitive (self-efficacy) theory (Kanfer, 1990; Locke, 1991) are discussed. Both theories are looked at individually.

After the excellent researches on the behavior of individuals, expectancy theory (e.g., Vroom, 1964) states that people make decisions to anticipate and get the most satisfaction from the outcomes. According to expectancy theory, an individual's motivation in a given situation is determined by two factors: Initially, the assumption that the more you put in, the greater the outcome will be (e.g., effort and a certain result), is what gives the teacher an idea of a relationship between the effort and the expected result.," Second, the so-called "effort-outcome expectancy," which is followed by the attractiveness or valence of the outcome. The reasons for the motivation are due to these factors so individuals will choose the amount of effort they believe will result in the desired outcome (Naylor, Pritchard and Ilgen, 2013). The way of the incentives to the efforts in the frame of expectancy theory is complicated. Initially, the outcome in question is the financial reward actually. Money is useful for a number of reasons, among which are its function as a tool for acquiring the desired goods and it symbolizes prestige and status, which is why money is important to various people (Furnham and Argyle, 1998; Zelizer, 1994). Financial incentives always have a higher valence than those situations where there is no pay, and they can be better than the ones that are not contingent, based on the payment structures. Besides, the expectancies are usually to be higher under the monetary incentives than the situations which are without pay or non-contingent incentives. The reason is that the financial incentives make the relationship between the effort, performance and pay stronger (Locke and Latham, 1990; Pritchard, Leonard, Von Bergen Jr and Kirk, 1976). Therefore, expectancy theory shows that people are likely to be more motivated and put more effort when the compensation is related to the performance, because of two reasons; first, they have higher

expectancy that the effort-outcome relationship will work and second, the outcome is more attractive to them.

Agency theory, by its presumption that the individuals are the ones who are expected utility maximizers, gives more clues to the impact of financial incentives on the effort. This is the theory that states that people act rationally and that they have the self-interest which they get from a utility function including wealth and leisure. In the opinion of agency theory, people are tempted by the desire for more money and less work (or more free time). Agency theory, just like the majority of economic models, assumes that people will not put any effort at all on a task unless it will help them earn money, this behaviour is called shirking. The incentives that are not performance-based are not the ones to meet this standard. Thus, agency theory is similar to the expectancy theory in that it claims that incentives are the main motivators and performance controllers as people naturally value the growth of wealth. Besides, agency models usually presuppose that people, specially, employees are risk-averse. Therefore, they need a risk premium when the financial incentives are based on the behavior surrogates that are not completely supported by the effort and the random factors. Although, this method of risk sharing could be inefficient, the motivational benefits of paying the workers according to their performance are believed to be more than the inefficient risk sharing. Therefore, financial incentives have to be designed in such a way that they will encourage the increase of effort and at the same time they will make sure that the risk sharing is observed.

Briefly, both the expectancy theory and the agency theory indicate that the financial rewards are the main factors that make the final results desirable or valuable, and that the effort is the determinant of the probability of achieving these outcomes. Thus, financial rewards make an individual want to perform better and therefore, get higher pay. The desire, on the other hand, is the reason why people are striving hard to reach their goals. As the more effort they put in, the better their performance is. Nevertheless, neither of the expectancy theory nor agency theory explains much about the cognitive processes through which motivation created by money incentives became the effort. Besides, goal-setting theory and the social-cognitive theory give a new perspective to these basic ideas.

Goal-setting theory, which is the theory created by Locke and Latham (1990), states that personal goals are the main factor that determine and the first step to, the

effort. Basically, personal goals are the ones which are in the spotlight of the incentives which are the main reasons of the increased effort. It is proved by research that the specific and challenging personal goals are the ones that make the effort more than the vague or easy goals or the one that has no goals at all. The more effort that is invested for the challenging goals is a result of the greater difficulty in reaching them. Goal-setting theory admits the role of expectancies in personal goals, yet the research proves that the assigned goals have a greater influence on personal goals than expectancies do. Besides, the expectancies and the personal goals are two different ways of affecting the effort and the performance, so they involve the different parts of the brain (Locke and Latham, 1990, p. 72).

The effect of financial incentives on effort within a goal-setting framework is not entirely straightforward, but a number of processes have been proposed to explain it, Locke, Shaw, Saari and Latham (1981) proposed three potential ways in which incentives can influence effort through goal setting:

Firstly, the financial incentives can motivate people to develop goals which they would not have thought of otherwise. This phenomenon of the incentive financing is not developed by expectancy theory or most economic models of actions, which assume that people's goals are predetermined.

As for the second point, the payments to the participants could make them have the tendency to set the more difficult goals than they would usually do. The more challenging they set, they, in turn, promote the higher the level of effort. This aspect is in line with expectancy theory and expected utility (agency) theory, because people in general choose more difficult tasks when the incentives are introduced that are associated with the outcomes of their performance which makes it more attractive.

Besides, the financial rewards may help to boost the motivation and thus facilitate the commitment to the goals, therefore, leading to greater effort, instead of non-contingent incentives or no incentives whatsoever. This theory of the change in the emphasis because of the incentive usually does not happen in theory of the expectancy or expected utility concept, as the commitment is assumed to be constant. Therefore, the goal-setting theory gives us the knowledge how the incentives boost the effort beyond their effects on the expectancies and outcomes (probabilities and values).

Social-cognitive theory is also called self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986, 1991, 1997). It is a theory of cognitive mechanisms that are involved in the process of regulating self-effort. This theory is a new development of both the expectancy theory and the goal-setting theory and it explains the cognitive factors that influence the effort and the methods through which financial incentives can affect the effort.

Self-efficacy theory claims that a person's belief in his or her ability to do the actions that are necessary to achieve a particular degree of performance in a certain task is the key determinant of the effort. The such belief, called self-efficacy, contributes to the regulation of effort and this in turn affects the way it directs, lasts, the intensity and strategy development. In its sense, self-efficacy is seen as another factor that together with goals, impacts the fundamental elements of the effort. Besides, the self-efficacy is an engine that drives the effort yet indirectly through the effects on the goals and the goals commitment. High self-efficacy people are usually the ones who set themselves the most ambitious personal goals and show great commitment to succeeding in them. Thus, self-efficacy plays a role in the formation of the motivational factors which in turn boost the efforts. The best of you, however, while self-efficacy theory puts goal setting to be the main vehicle of regulating behavior, it does admit the presence of other factors that affect this. Self-efficacy is considered to have a great impact on the effort by using various cognitive, motivational, affective and task-related mechanisms (Bandura, 1997). Cognitive and motivational mechanisms such as goal setting, expectations, and the use of high-quality problem-solving strategies are the essence of these mechanisms. Besides, the self-efficacy can also be a positive factor affecting the initial emotional states before the task performance and also it can be a way to overcome the negative emotional states which a person experiences during the task. In addition to that, people with higher self-efficacy usually choose more difficult tasks at the beginning. It is probable that the roles of incentives in affecting effort are more complex than those of expectancy, agency, and goal-setting theories in the self-efficacy theory, which is based on several factors. Bandura (1997) proved that incentives raise the level of task interest, hence, people will be more willing to give their best effort, which will, in turn, lead to better performance, improved skills, and increased self-efficacy. The increase in self-efficacy, caused by the incentives, can later on influence the effort through different goal-related mechanisms or other cognitive, motivational, affective or selective processes.

Lately, there have been discussions about the factors that are between the incentives and the current effort, integrating theoretical ideas from the theories. g. Several studies have been conducted on the topic of how feedback influences the performance of students, among which are Klein and Wright, 1994; Lee, Locke and Phan, 1997; Locke and Latham, 1990; Riedel, Nebeker and Cooper, 1988; Wright, 1989, 1990; Wright and Kacmar (1995) argue that performance-contingent incentives influence self-efficacy (like the increased expectancy) and the attractiveness of goal attainment (the valence), which in turn, affects personal goal levels and commitment. Riedel et al. (1988) also state that incentives affect valence and expectancies, and therefore, people give spontaneous goal setting and commitment to it. According to the theory, self-efficacy is more about personal goals that are driven by self-regulative behavior than about the reasons for which people choose something.

To sum up, the main idea is that the hypothesis states that there is a positive relation between the financial incentives and the task performance, and that is because of the fact that the incentives push people to work harder, thus, leading to the improvement of the performance. Many factors, for instance, the expectancies, self-interest, the goal setting, and self-efficacy, have been proposed to explain this relationship between the incentives and the effort. Nevertheless, the fact that the monetary reward often fails to increase the activity and the performance, is the opposite of the hypothesis that the monetary reward promotes the activity and the performance. An example is a systematic review of the laboratory studies conducted by Bonner, Hastie, Sprinkle and Young (2000) which demonstrated significant improvements in only half of the experiments examined as a result of incentives. Just like, Guzzo, Jette and Katzell's (1985) meta-analysis of field studies, which included different motivational techniques like financial incentives, revealed the quite different effects, the mean effect size of which did not significantly differ from zero. Besides, the studies based on empirical methods investigating the effect of incentives on the mediating factors yield the mixed results. The incentives may, on the other hand, result in high goals, high commitment or high self-efficacy, however, some specific cases where such effects are not observed have been shown by Lee, Locke and Phan (1997), Wright (1989, 1990, 1992).

Research into the effect of incentives on performance and the factors of the incentives-effort relationship which has been found to contain the moderating

factors has shown that the incentives-effort relationship is influenced by the moderating factors. These factors can cause the effects of incentives to be different from what is expected, therefore, the proposed mediating forces will not really be effective to avoid the bad effects. Nevertheless, the previous reviews only touched the surface in the discussion of these moderating factors leaving a slack in the research of the variables that interact with incentives to impact task performance. Thus, it is of great importance to discover and thoroughly investigate the elements that are the reasons for the effectiveness of incentives. This will be of great use to the researchers and organizations who will after get the valuable insights on how to use financial incentives in real and controlled laboratory environments effectively. Through the knowledge of these modulating elements, we can develop the incentive strategies to concentrate more on the positive outcomes.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3.1 Research Model and Hypothesis

3.1.1 Incentives and job satisfaction. Incentives are tools utilized by organizational leadership to recognize and appropriately compensate workers within the organization. These incentives can be categorized into two main types: financial and non-financial, and they may be performance-based or time-based. Additionally, fixed rewards, also known as additional incentives, are another type commonly employed in business environments (Lucas et al. 2016).

Financial incentives, the first type, consist of tangible rewards that aid in fulfilling human needs and serve to motivate employees to perform at their best. These incentives typically include immediate payment of salaries, bonuses, allowances, profit-sharing schemes, and one-time bonuses (Lucas et al. 2016). Financial incentives can take various forms, including lump sums, monthly instalments, or other compensation structures that yield additional income for employees, such as bonuses (Gneezy, Meier and Rey-Biel, 2011). One of the key characteristics of financial incentives is their immediate impact on employees, providing them with direct feedback that influences their efforts and performance following the receipt of these rewards (Belle and Cantarelli, 2015). However, an opposing perspective on financial incentives suggests that they may not be applicable to certain service-based professional tasks that are challenging to quantify in terms of outputs. Examples include roles such as library services, supervision, security, and scholarly research (Al-Jahni, 1998).

Non-financial incentives are the diverse measures that are related to the motivation of employees and the improvement of their job satisfaction. The incentives mentioned above are the ones that can be part of the decision-making process, the award, the training and development opportunities, and the celebrations for outstanding employees, among others (Yucel and Bektas, 2011). Besides, non-financial incentives may be in the form of the appreciation letter or honorary appointment. The improvement in employee satisfaction and the loyalty of the

employees to their jobs are often the causes of the higher cooperation among colleagues and the creation of the opportunities for promotion, recognition, tenure, decision-making, growth, innovation, and so on. Employees also reap the benefits of the opportunity to voice their ideas. The evidence shows that ethical motives are as important as financial motives in the development of job satisfaction (Cho and Perry, 2012). Moral incentives are the key factors which give people a sense of pride and satisfaction through several ways like the job enrichment, vacations, health insurance, appropriate job assignments, supportive supervision, a feeling of being a part of the team, job stability, job security, involvement in decision-making procedures, promotion opportunities, the alignment of the company's goals with the workers' efforts, suggestion systems and Many researches have been done on the connection between job satisfaction and incentives, and what are the results are different. By way of an example, Mosquera (2020), Raj, Nelson and Rao (2006), Cho and Perry (2012) stated that the intrinsic rewards have a positive and significant effect on the job satisfaction of the employees. According to Bassett-Jones (2005) intrinsic motivation, recognition, and ethical incentives were the main motivators that contributed to the satisfaction of workers, while financial rewards had a lesser role in it.

Nevertheless, Ajila and Abiola (2004) presented a different view, revealing that the intrinsic rewards and moral incentives are the best and most important factors that influence the employee performance in the organizations. The studies they have done indicate that ethical incentives, e. g. career development, responsibility, recognition, and learning opportunities, may have a weaker effect on the job performance than extrinsic rewards like wages, bonuses, promotions, and benefits. In fact, through their research they have found out that employees prefer to give more importance to the immediate money than to the recognition for their work.

Rajgarhia (2020) examined incentives and how they affect an organization, the different kinds of financial and non-financial incentives that are offered at work are also explained in detail, and their short- and long-term relationships with job satisfaction are covered. The advantages that companies and employees experience from using these incentives are also highlighted. The study aimed to determine which incentives, among financial and non-financial incentives, have a greater influence on employees' performance and how job satisfaction and incentives relate to each other.

H1: Financial incentives have a positive impact on job satisfaction.

H2: Non-financial incentives have a positive impact on job satisfaction.

3.1.2 Incentives and organizational commitment. Incentives are the tools of encouragement that workers use to get them to work harder for the goals of the organization by giving them the reasons to do it (Acar, 2014). The outcomes of hypothesis testing prove that incentives have a beneficial and substantial effect on the organizational commitment. This indicates that the well-governed incentive policies can foster the employees' dedication to their responsibilities and work (Eka, 2018). Also, these results indicate that the incentives offered at PT. Technology Mandarin are a successful method for the management of employees to concentrate on the work objectives. Employees definitely seem to be happy with the feeling of having been appreciated, recognized, and acknowledged for their contributions to the organization. This is what means that the bonus payments are very important for the boosting of employees' organizational commitment. Thus, the result of incentive schemes which are focused on task-oriented functions and have a transparent system is that the employees will acquire a sense of achievement, job satisfaction and the feeling of being of value to their work, which will consequently lead to higher satisfaction with the organization. Through offering such incentives, companies can actually succeed in enhancing the employees' organizational commitment. To sum up, incentives are very important for improving employee's organizational commitment (Cubillos, 2012).

H3: Financial incentives have a positive impact on organizational commitment.

H4: Non-financial incentives have a positive impact on organizational commitment.

Table 1

Summary of the Developed Hypotheses

<i>Developed Hypothesis</i>
<i>Hypothesis 1: Financial incentives have a positive impact on job satisfaction.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 2: Non-financial incentives have a positive impact on job satisfaction.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 3: Financial incentives have a positive impact on organizational commitment.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 4: Non-financial incentives have a positive impact on organizational commitment.</i>

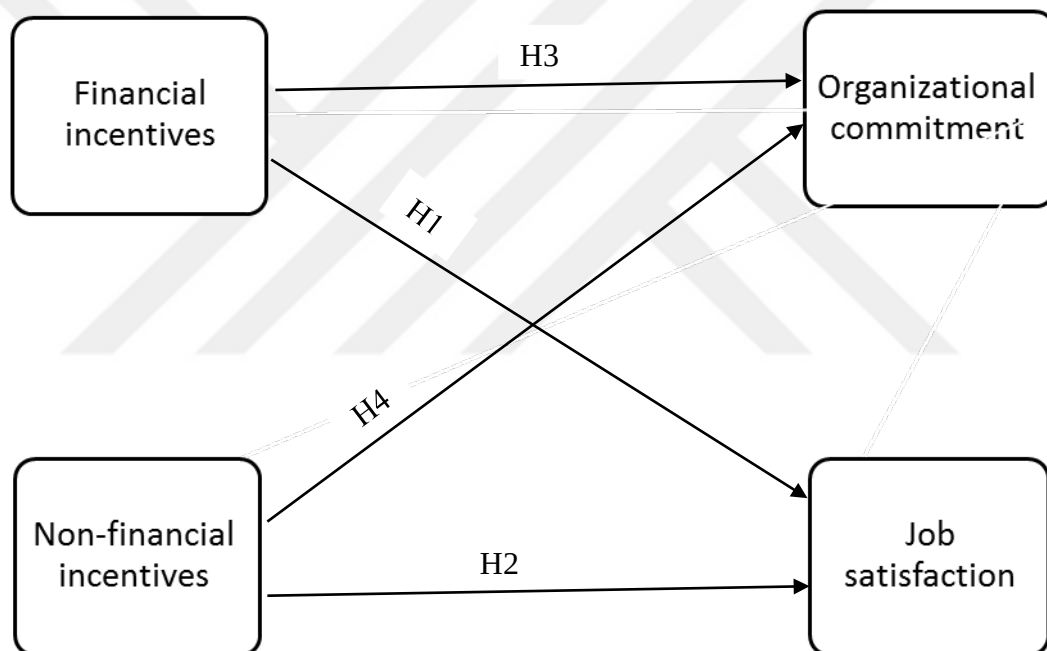


Figure 1. The Research Model

3.2 Research Approach

This study has used a deductive research approach to discover areas for further research and contribute to the existing research on incentive, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment studies. Previous research has used a deductive thinking approach where theorists have sought to explore findings about employees' sense of organizational satisfaction and commitment that are influenced by financial and moral incentives. Theorists have used the deductive reasoning approach because it is concerned with improving the current literature by exploring areas for further improvements and additions to the literature (Cargan, 2007). Previous research has therefore used a deductive thinking approach because it does not create a new research structure and only expands the existing literature by exploring the different outcomes that employees display in response to incentive methods followed. Simon (1996) explains that a deductive approach can help a researcher establish a research strategy where current research is examined helping to generate hypotheses and form a research strategy that will be used to evaluate the proposed hypotheses. In consideration of the previous research and discussion provided above, the deductive reasoning approach was the most relevant for the aims of this study.

3.3 Research Design

The experimental research design has applied since the study aims to explore cause-and-effect relationships and answer the developed research's questions and hypothesis. This study used an online survey to collect data, Van Selm and Jankowski (2006) state that the most useful and successful way to gather quantitative data is using an online questionnaire. Evans and Mathur (2005) further explain online surveys are perfect in situations where there is money constraint because they minimize expenses, allow participants to view and complete the questionnaire at a time that suits them, and reduce the possibility of errors when data is exported to an analysis tool. In addition, Van Selm and Jankowski (2006) stress that this method of data collection is more ethical than other methods because it keeps the participant's identity anonymous, which reduces the possibility of participant bias and increases the reliability of the results. The researcher has determined that quantitative data collection will be performed using online questionnaires.

3.4 Sample and Procedure

This study aimed to collect data from a sample of employees who are currently working in private universities in Syria. Two private universities from (20) private universities have been selected. Convenience sample procedure was utilized for this research. Galloway (2005) explains that in this method respondents who are 'convenient' for the research are selected. This allows the researcher to easily collect the data, keep costs to a minimum, and collect data quickly and more conveniently. In consideration of the current study's budget and time constraints, the convenience sampling technique is most appropriate for this study. Along with advantageous of convenience techniques which have been mentioned, there are several limitations for this technique in terms of generalizability and potential bias which this technique relies on easily accessible respondents which may cause bias as a certain type of individual might be overrepresented, because of that, the researcher made sure that respondents who are convenient for the research are selected through sharing the questionnaire's link to the social media group chats for each department has been selected. In addition, the snowball sampling technique was used to ensure a sufficient sample size is obtained for this study. Bryman and Bell (2003) indicate that the snowball sampling technique involves sharing the questionnaire with initial respondents who then share the survey with colleagues and friends from the same University. Arber (2001) further explains that this sampling technique helps researchers gain data that is related to the research question providing the researcher with a high chance of answering the research questions of the study. In addition to these advantageous of this technique, Bryman and Bell (2003) mentioned some limitations of using the snowball sampling technique, one of these limitations is raising the ethical concern and privacy when the participant feels uncomfortable for being part of the study. To mitigate this issue, it has been mentioned as a note in the first page of the questionnaire that the the information he or she will provide will be used for the purpose of scientific research and will be kept strictly confidential, it will not be shared with other persons, institutions, and organizations, and the participant will not be asking to share his name.

This study used the above-mentioned techniques as it helps increase the universe and collect data from the targeted group.

The study population consisted of administrative staff working in different departments (HR, Accounting, Marketing, financial, in addition to the student affairs department) in two different private universities. However, this study was in the end able to collect 100 responses from the respondents of the study. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), the rule of thumb for determining the sample size for testing b coefficients is $N \geq 100 + m$, where the m = number of independent variables. In addition, Burmeister and Aitken (2012) explain that the number of data collected directly translates to the generalizability of the study, thus in consideration, this study aimed to collect the utmost number of responses to ensure high generalizability.

The sample participating in this study, which is 100 participants from two private universities in Syria, can be considered to include and express the opinion of the most employees in private universities in Syria since the majority of the private universities are following and applying the same incentives system (sufficient transportation allowance, health insurance, etc.).

Participants were from various departments of the two universities. Respondents who contributed to the study were proficient in English, therefore, the questionnaire was provided in English to respondents. The criteria for inclusion in the study were that participants must be employed in one of the chosen universities.

3.5 Measurement Scales

3.5.1 Financial incentives. This scale has been used to assess the level of financial incentives in the universities to their employees. The questions in the first table of the survey, (from question number 1- to question number 6) are about financial incentives, are taken from the survey that is prepared by Al-Nsour (2012) and uses the 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Always). An example of a scale element is "My job provides enough payment to meet the requirements of life." and "My job provides bonuses for workers according to their post and consistent with their level of performance." These elements are used to study forms of financial incentives. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the original scale was discovered to be $\alpha = 0.67$ (Al-Nsour, 2012).

3.5.2 Non-financial incentives. This scale has been used to assess the level of non-financial incentives offered by the universities to their employees. The questions in the first table of the survey, (from question number 7- to question number 13) which are about non-financial incentives, are taken from the survey that is prepared by Al-Nsour (2012) and uses the 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Always). An example of a scale element is "My job ensures appropriate social security and health insurance for employees" and "My job keens to give a fair opportunity for employees in complaints and suggestions". These elements are used to study forms of non-financial incentives. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the original scale was detected to be $\alpha = 0.79$ (Al-Nsour, 2012).

3.5.3 Job satisfaction. The scale has been used to assess the level of job satisfaction among the employees. This study used the scale which developed by Weiss, Davis, England and Lofquist (1967), which known as "Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale", the short-form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was utilized, The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire is one of the most commonly used in the measurement of job satisfaction and its validity and reliability has been proven, the scale consists of 19 elements and uses the 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Very dissatisfied) to 5 (Very satisfied). An example of a scale element is "My pay and the amount of work I do", and "The working conditions". These

elements are used to study the level of job satisfaction. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the original scale (short-form) was detected to be $\alpha = 0.90$ (Weiss, Davis, England and Lofquist, 1967).

3.5.4 Organizational commitment. The scale was used to assess the organizational commitment among the university's staff. This study used the original scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990), choosing this scale was because it provides a comprehensive framework through dividing the scale to three dimensions, validity since the scale has been extensively tested and validated for many years, and since it is a commonly used scale. The organizational commitment scale has three dimensions "affective, normative, and continuance commitment". According to Meyer and Allen (1991) affective commitment is defined as a commitment based on the emotional bonds that employees create with the company as a result of positive work experiences, normative commitment is a reflection of a person's sense of duty to the organization, and continuance commitment which is the commitment based on the costs of leaving the organization. Each dimension has eight elements. "Note that the organizational commitment scale has some reverse items, the score for each of the reverse item has been revised and re-coded".

The scale consists of 24 elements and uses the 5-point Likert scale which ranges from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). An example of a scale element is "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization" and "I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it". These items are used to study the level of Organizational commitment in the university. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the scale was discovered to be $\alpha = 0.65$ (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

Note: "All these scales were conducted in English since the sample consisted of fluent English speakers".

Chapter 4

Research Findings

4.1 Data Screening and Analysis

Data cleaning and screening are essential components of any study since they enable researchers to identify any possible outliers that may negatively effect the data's validity. Because several items from the organizational commitment measure were reverse-scored and hence re-coded in the dataset, the acquired data was analyzed in detail and any necessary revisions were made (Verma, 2012). In a study performed by Suen and Ary (2014), they concluded that data recoding and filtering are essential since they can affect the measures' Cronbach's alpha reliability.

The study relied on the SPSS statistical program version 23 to analyse the data, and used a set of statistical methods that are appropriate to the nature of the data and to achieve the objectives of the study, correlation tables which will examine the relationship between variables. Factor analyses was performed to discover the structure of the collected data and any latent factors that affect the correlation (Kerr, Alistair, Hall, Howard, Kozub and Stephen, 2002). Variables descriptive statistics were performed as well. Linear regression test to test the hypothesis. According to Hinton and McMurray (2017), Pearson's correlation coefficient will show if the variables have a significant relationship and if they are positively or negatively associated with each other. Kerr et al. (2002) postulate that studying Cronbach's alpha helps assess if the scale items are reliable and if they are measuring the intended construct.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics

Table 2 shows the distribution of sample members according to the demographic variables, the results indicate that the total sample size= 100 respondents, 44% of them are males, and 56% are females. 30% in age category from 18 to 30 years, 36% from 31 to 40 years, 15% from 41 to 50 years, and 19% from 51 and above. The results also indicate that 61% are single, but 39% are

married. According to education: 4% High school, 20 % Diploma, 33% Undergraduate, 34% Masters, and 9% Doctorate. It's also indicates that 4% their experience less than 1 year, 25% from 1 to 3 years, 17% from 4 to 7 years, 32% from 8 to 11 years, and 22% from 12 years and above.

Table 2

Distribution of Sample Members According to the Demographic Variables

		Count	%
Gender	Male	44	44.0%
	Female	56	56.0%
Age	From 18 to 30 years	30	30.0%
	From 31 to 40 years	36	36.0%
	From 41 to 50 years	15	15.0%
	From 51 and above	19	19.0%
Marital status	Single	61	61.0%
	Married	39	39.0%
Education	High school	4	4.0%
	Diploma	20	20.0%
	Undergraduate	33	33.0%
	Masters	34	34.0%
	Doctorate	9	9.0%
Experience	Less than 1 year	4	4.0%
	From 1 to 3 years	25	25.0%
	From 4 to 7 years	17	17.0%
	From 8 to 11 years	32	32.0%
	From 12 years and above	22	22.0%

4.3 Variables Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics of the sample can be seen in Table 3. As explained in the research methodology section of this study, the measures use Likert scales to examine the data. Financial incentives scale was used 5 point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (never) to 5 (always). The minimum score was 10 and the maximum score was 30. The non-financial incentives scale used a 5 Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always), the minimum score was 11 and the maximum score was 35. The job satisfaction scale used a 5 Likert scale that ranged from 1 (Very dissatisfied)

to 5 (Very satisfied), the minimum score was 39 and the maximum score was 95. The organizational commitment scale used a 5 Likert scale that ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree) for positive items, and from 5 (Strongly disagree) to 1 (Strongly agree) for negative items, the minimum score was 58 and the maximum score was 102.

The mean and standard deviation values for the study variables were as follows: the mean of financial incentives= 16.20 degree with standard deviation= 3.83 degree. The mean of non-financial incentives= 23.12 degree with standard deviation= 3.69 degree. The mean of job satisfaction= 63.91 degree with standard deviation= 8.73 degree. The mean of organizational commitment= 75.82 degree with standard deviation= 8.90 degree.

Table 3
Variables Descriptive Statistics

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Financial incentives	100	10.00	30.00	16.2000	3.82971	1.272	2.096
Non-financial incentives	100	11.00	35.00	23.1200	3.69077	.664	2.736
Job satisfaction	100	39.00	95.00	63.9100	8.73411	.448	2.963
Organizational commitment	100	58.00	102.00	75.8200	8.90395	.208	.054

4.4 Reliability of Measurement Scales

To determine the reliability of the study tool, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was done as in Table 4, it is clear from the table that the values of Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the four axes are greater than 0.7, and this indicates that the tool has an acceptable degree of reliability. According Shevlin, Miles, Davies and Walker (2000), a high alpha reliability score indicates that the measures used are reliable, there is high consistency in the responses, and thus, researchers can be confident in their findings and conclusions from their findings.

Table 4

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient to Identify Reliability

<i>Scale</i>	<i>Cronbach's alpha</i>	<i>N. of items</i>
Financial incentives	.721	6
Non-financial incentives	.710	7
Job satisfaction	.840	19
Organizational commitment	.738	24

4.5 Factor Analyses

Factor analyses have been conducted in this study to discover if the participants' responses have displayed some structures or relationships in the studied variables. According to Young and Pearce (2013), factor analysis helps discover any latent factors and structures or patterns, in the data, that affect the correlation between the observed variables. This test will help provide a comprehensive understanding of the observed research constructs and their complex relationships with each other.

Factor analysis helps in ensuring the reliability and validity of the measurement scales since the factor analysis provides factor loadings, which show how well each item represents and underlying construct. Items with a highly load on a single factor indicate strong internal consistency.

To be able to check if the factor analysis test can be conducted, the measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) needs to be examined. According to Napitupulu, Kadar and Jati (2017), MSA indicates whether the collected data is suitable for factor analysis or not. The MSA can be assessed using the Keiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) method, which shows the homogeneity or correlation between the variables and is performed alongside Barlett's test of sphericity. THE KMO's value should be above 0.50 for it to be accepted because a value below that is not considered appropriate for factor analysis and to ensure significance the p-value should be below 0.05 (Napitupulu et al. 2017). In consideration of the importance of factor analysis and MSA, the tests have been conducted and tables can be found below.

Table 5
Factor Analysis of Financial Incentives

<i>Financial Incentives (Variance Explained: 68.15)</i>	1	2
My job provides enough payment to meet the requirements of life	.811	
My job provides bonuses for workers according to their post and consistent with their level of performance	.873	
My job provides a fair and adequate compensation on retirement	.740	
My employer provides additional financial incentives to employees when they work professionally		.588
My employer provides sufficient transportation allowance for those who live far areas away		.670
My employer provides overtime payment to staff for working after hours		.795

Table 6
KMO and Barlett's Tests of Sphericity of Financial Incentives

<i>KMO – Measure for sampling adequacy</i>		.698
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Chi-Square	170.105
	df	15
	Sig (p-value)	.000

The Financial Incentives scale had 6 items and the results of the factor analysis can be seen in Table 5. All the items of the financial incentives scale have displayed factor loading values that are above a minimum of 0.50 and the scale items have accounted for 68.15% of the variance in financial incentives. The KMO statistic of 69.8% indicates that the researched variables are suitable for factor analysis and significance is present in Barlett's test ($p=0.000$, $p<.001$) as seen in table 6. Consideration of the findings presented above, the factor analysis has shown positive results, and subsequently, the data is suitable for further analysis.

Table 7
Factor Analysis of Non-Financial Incentives

<i>Non-Financial Incentives (Variance Explained: 52.07)</i>		
	1	2
My job ensures appropriate social security and health insurance for employees		.907
My job keens to give a fair opportunity for employees in complaints and suggestions	.766	
There is a possibility for advancement to senior positions	.753	
There is flexibility in the use of breaks	.556	
There is flexibility in terms of timing of annual leave	.535	
Deserved promotions are provided consistently in the company I work for	.725	
Opinions and aspirations are respected in the company I work for	.575	

Table 8
KMO and Barlett's Tests of Sphericity of Non-Financial Incentives

KMO – Measure for sampling adequacy		.717
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Chi-Square	124.104
	df	21
	Sig (p-value)	.000

The Non-Financial Incentives scale had 7 items and the results of the factor analysis can be seen in Table 7. All the items of the non-financial scale have displayed factor loading values that are above a minimum of 0.50 and the scale items have accounted for 52.07% of the variance in non-financial incentives. The KMO statistic of 71.7% indicates that the researched variables are suitable for factor analysis and significance is present in Barlett's test ($p=0.000$, $p<.001$) as seen in table 8.

Consideration of the findings presented above, the factor analysis has shown positive results, and subsequently, the data is suitable for further analysis.

Table 9
Factor Analysis of Job Satisfaction

<i>Job Satisfaction (Variance Explained: 61.2)</i>	1	2	3	4	5
Being able to keep busy all the time				.686	
The chance to work alone on the job	.554				
The chance to do different things from time to time	.528				
The chance to be "somebody" in the community					.589
The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	.570				
Being able to do things that do not go against my conscience	.559				
The way my job provides for steady employment		.628			
The chance to do things for other people	.634				
The chance to tell people what to do	.663				
The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	.711				
The way company policies are put into practice	.621				
My pay and the amount of work I do		.805			
The chances for advancement on this job		.569			
The freedom to use my own judgment	.621				
The chance to try my own methods of doing the job	.656				
The working conditions			.521		
The way my co-workers get along with each other	.606				
The praise I get for doing a good job		.504			
The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	.587				

Table 10

KMO and Barlett's Tests of Sphericity of Job Satisfaction

KMO – Measure for sampling adequacy		.776
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Chi-Square	677.009
	df	171
	Sig (p-value)	.000

The Job Satisfaction scale had 19 items and the results of the factor analysis can be seen in Table 9. All the items of the job satisfaction scale have displayed factor loading values that are above a minimum of 0.50 and the scale items have accounted for 61.2% of the variance in job satisfaction. The KMO statistic of 77.6% indicates that the researched variables are suitable for factor analysis and significance is present in Barlett's test ($p=0.000$, $p<.001$) as seen in table 10. Consideration of the findings presented above, the factor analysis has shown positive results, and subsequently, the data is suitable for further analysis.

Table 11

Factor Analysis of Organizational Commitment

Organizational Commitment (Variance Explained: 67.6)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization	.636						
I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it	.557						
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	.637						
I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one	.666						
I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization	.501						

Table 11 cont.d

I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization	.728	
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	.696	
. I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organization	.732	
I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up		.807
It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to		.511
Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now	.538	
It would not be too costly for me to leave my organization now		.695
Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire	.733	
I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organization		.537
One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives		.542
leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here		.604

Table 11 cont.d

I think that people these days move from company to company too often		.581
I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her		.512
Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me	.653	
I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.	.574	
If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization	.606	
I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization		.533
Things were better in the days when people stayed in one organization for most of their careers	.655	
I do not think that to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore	.561	

Table 12

KMO and Barlett's Tests of Sphericity of Organizational Commitment

<i>KMO – Measure for sampling adequacy</i>		.681
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Chi-Square	982.205
	df	276
	Sig (p-value)	.000

The Organizational Commitment scale had 24 items and the results of the factor analysis can be seen in Table 11. All the items of the organizational commitment scale have displayed factor loading values that are above a minimum

of 0.50 and the scale items have accounted for 67.6% of the variance in organizational commitment. The KMO statistic of 68.1% indicates that the researched variables are suitable for factor analysis and significance is present in Barlett's test ($p=0.000$, $p<.001$) as seen in table 12. Consideration of the findings presented above, the factor analysis has shown positive results, and subsequently, the data is suitable for further analysis.

4.6 Pearson's Correlation Analysis

To examine the relationship of the variables, a Pearson's correlation analysis was used. According to Sedgwick (2012), correlation coefficients can show the relationship or association between a group of variables. This correlation can be used to determine the strength and direction of the variables as well as determine whether the correlation is statistically significant. As the results of the correlation analysis indicate (see Table 13), financial incentives was found to have a positive correlation with organizational commitment ($r=.226$, $p<0.05$), and with job satisfaction ($r=.539$, $p<0.01$), also with non-financial incentives ($r=.575$, $p<0.01$). It also seen that non-financial incentives not correlate with organizational commitment, but correlate with job satisfaction ($r=.613$, $p<0.01$). The results also indicate that there is appositive correlation between job satisfaction and organizational commitment ($r=.229$, $p<0.05$).

Table 13
Correlation Analysis of Variables

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
Financial incentives	16.2000	3.82971				
Non-financial incentives	23.1200	3.69077	.575**			
Job satisfaction	63.9100	8.73411	.539**	.613**		
Organizational commitment	75.8200	8.90395	.226*	.165	.229*	

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

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

4.7 Research Hypothesis

4.7.1 Financial incentives, non-financial incentives have a positive impact on job satisfaction. The research hypothesis predicts that incentives have a positives impact on job satisfaction, to test this hypothesis; a simple linear regression was performed as in Table 14.

Table 14

Simple Regressions to Identify the Impact of Financial Incentives, Non-Financial Incentives on Job Satisfaction

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	28.846	4.286		6.730	.000
	Financial Incentives	.636	.214	.279	2.968	.004
	Non-Financial Incentives	1.071	.222	.453	4.822	.000
R= .654		R ² = .428	F= 36.242**	*significant at .05	**significant at .01	

The results indicate that: the two variables financial incentives, non-financial incentives combined correlate with job satisfaction with multiple correlation coefficients= 0.654, the determination coefficient indicates that the two variables together affect 42.8% of the variance in job satisfaction.

To determine the percentage contributed by each of the two variables, multiple regression was performed as in Table 15. The results refer that: the two variables together affect 42.8% of the variance in job satisfaction, 37.6% for non-financial incentives, and 5.2% for financial incentives. This result supports what the research hypothesis predicts.

Table 15

Multiple Linear Regression to Identify the Impact of Financial Incentives, Non-Financial Incentives on Job Satisfaction

	R	R Square	R Square Change	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
Non-Financial Incentives	.613	.376	.376	1.071	.222	.453	4.822	.000
Financial Incentives	.654	.428	.052	.636	.214	.279	2.968	.004
R= .654 R ² = .428 F= 36.242** *significant at .05 **significant at .01								

4.7.2 Financial incentives, non-financial incentives have a positives impact on organizational commitment. The research hypothesis predicts that incentives have a positive impact on organizational commitment, to test this hypothesis; a simple linear regression was performed as in Table 16.

Table 16

Simple Regressions to Identify the Impact of Financial Incentives, Non-Financial Incentives on Organizational Commitment

	Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	65.498	5.621		11.653	.000
	Financial incentives	.455	.281	.196	1.622	.108
	Non-financial incentives	.127	.291	.053	.437	.663
R= .230 R ² = .053 F= 2.716 *significant at .05 **significant at .01						

The results indicate that: the two variables financial incentives, non-financial incentives combined correlate with organizational commitment with multiple correlation coefficients= 0.230 and F value = 2.716 which is not significant at 0.05,

this means that the model is not significant and there is no effect of financial incentives, non-financial incentives on organizational commitment.

4.8 Hypothesis Summary

A summary of the results and the hypothesis testing can be seen in the Table 17 below:

Table 17
Hypothesis Testing Results

<i>Developed Hypothesis</i>	<i>Outcome</i>
<i>Hypothesis 1: Financial incentives have a positive impact on job satisfaction.</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>Hypothesis 2: Non-financial incentives have a positive impact on job satisfaction.</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>Hypothesis 3: Financial incentives have a positive impact on organizational commitment.</i>	<i>Rejected</i>
<i>Hypothesis 4: Non-financial incentives have a positive impact on organizational commitment.</i>	<i>Rejected</i>

Chapter 5

Discussions and Conclusions

5.1 Theoretical Implications of the Study

This study contributed to the existing literature on incentives and their impact on job satisfaction. The results of this study indicated that financial incentives are positively associated with job satisfaction and affect it significantly, and this is consistent with previous studies that have shown a positive link between financial incentives and job satisfaction (Erbaşı1 and Arat, 2012; Pouliakas, 2008). The results of this study also indicated that non-financial incentives are positively associated with job satisfaction and affect it significantly, and this is consistent with previous studies that showed a positive link between moral incentives and job satisfaction (Erbaşı1 and Arat, 2012; Qader and Abdulkhaleq, 2021; Alkandi et al. 2023).

The current study also confirmed the absence of a statistically significant effect between incentives and organizational commitment. The results of this study indicated that incentives do not positively affect organizational commitment , and this result consistent with the previous studies that showed a negative link between incentives and organizational commitment, the study of Georgellis, Iossa and Tabvuma (2011) which focuses on workers in the public sector, indicates that incentives and other extrinsic rewards frequently have no effect on organizational commitment. The study discovered that commitment is significantly more influenced by intrinsic motivation such as the desire to perform public services than by extrinsic rewards. In addition to the study of O'reilly and Caldwell (1980), the results of this study indicate that while incentives may affect performance, they are less likely to create long-term loyalty or commitment. Instead, intrinsic factors, such as job satisfaction and alignment with organizational values, are more important in determining commitment than extrinsic rewards.

5.2 Practical Implications of the Study

This paper has studied and hypothesized many relationships between variables, and there are some practical implications that business leaders or managers can take into account to ensure employee satisfaction and organizational commitment. The results of this research indicate that the motivation strategies in their physical and moral forms adopted have an impact on employee satisfaction. On the other hand, it turned out that there is no statistically significant effect of both financial and non-financial incentives on organizational commitment among employees, which can be explained by the temporary impact of incentives, incentives may increase job satisfaction for a while, but they have no impact on long-term organizational commitment, and when incentives are removed, employees frequently return to their previous degree of commitment (O'reilly and Caldwell, 1980).

Another reason why incentives do not effect organizational commitment is that organizational commitment is primarily motivated by intrinsic motivation, which is frequently weakened by extrinsic rewards. According to Deci, Ryan and Koestner (1999), financial or non-financial rewards are not as effective at predicting long-term commitment as intrinsic motivation, such as personal fulfillment or alignment with corporate values. Employees may become less connected to the company when they receive external rewards because their attention turns away from the intrinsic satisfaction of their work to the extrinsic benefit.

Frey and Jegen (2001) mentioned the same point through discussing the crowding-out effect theory, bonuses and salary increases are examples of extrinsic incentives that may decrease the intrinsic motivation. According to this theory, people may experience a loss of autonomy when they feel that they are controlled by external rewards, which lowers their intrinsic drive and leads weakens their commitment to the organization.

The presence of other variables more influenced by organizational loyalty, Jaros (2007) mentioned that job satisfaction usually plays a moderate role between incentives and organizational commitment, when the level of job satisfaction in a certain company is low, incentives alone may not be enough to influence the

organizational commitment, in some cases where the work environment or atmosphere are dissatisfied, bonuses and other motivation tools may fail to foster the organizational commitment.

The high demand for work and the lack of job opportunities push employees to stay in the same job even if the employees are not satisfied with this job.

It can be suggested that managers should have incentives related to performance and that the worker should feel that the management cares and appreciates his efforts and that there is justice in providing these incentives in both financial and non-financial forms.

Another practical implication is to focus on employees' satisfaction through applying needed and preferable incentives tools that influence their satisfaction level within their companies since incentives awake enthusiasm, motivation and desire to work among employees, which is positively reflected on the overall performance, increase productivity. It is critical for organizations use incentives because they enable shared decision-making, are always available for discussion, and are willing to appreciate their employees' commitment to their jobs. A supportive and caring work atmosphere is fostered by this kind of incentives. Hence, if organizations have a fair and sufficient incentives system provided to their employees, we will see highly productive employees which will benefit their organizations.

5.3 Strengths and Limitations of the Study

A remarkable strength of this study was in providing a perspective from the Syrian context. The research sample was from employees who are currently working in two private universities in Damascus, Syria. Which is one of the first studies applied to the Syrian society, as most of the similar studies were studied in other countries, so the study was able to provide a different perspective to the current research group.

The strengths are also represented by the fact that the current study is one of the few studies that studied the impact of incentives on two variables, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and this gives the study strength by the fact that it has formed a greater understanding of what incentives affect human resources,

which is considered the real wealth of organizations .the more the organization's management is able to provide an incentive capable of satisfying the employee, the more the employee is loyalty and commitment to his work.

A limitation of this study is the number of participants who completed the questionnaire, the research was not able to collect more than 100 completed responses on the survey.

5.4 Conclusion

This study aimed to explore the basic challenge of ensuring the employee's sense of job satisfaction and organizational commitment to the organization in which he/she works by studying the impact of incentives in both their forms on these two variables. A literature review revealed important factors and relationships between the observed variables of the study.

The study concluded that incentives in all its forms affect 42.8% of the variance in job satisfaction, 37.6% for non-financial incentives, and 5.2% for financial incentives. Findings also depicted that there is no effect for incentives on organizational commitment.

Finally, it is suggested that future theorists expand research into financial and non-financial incentives by exploring their impact on job performance and production so that the ability of these variables can be tested. In conclusion, this paper has been able to contribute positively to existing research on studies on incentives, job satisfaction and organizational compliance, and this paper has mentioned some other important recommendations in the discussion section, which can be studied by futurists of the future.

5.5 Recommendations

Managers will be in a better position when they understand the important set of incentives and the effect of these incentives on employee's satisfaction and his commitment and loyalty to the university. The study proposes many recommendations for those in charge of managing the private universities to

improve the level of job satisfaction and raise the level of their organizational commitment, including:

1. Provide sufficient wages to meet the requirements of a decent life for workers.
2. Provide bonuses to employees according to their job and consistent with their level of performance.
3. Provide fair and adequate compensation upon retirement.
4. Provide additional financial incentives to employees when they work professionally.
5. The possibility of applying to senior positions for employees according to their abilities and work skills.
6. Provide consistently due promotions at work.
7. Emphasizing the alignment of professional tasks and providing employees with a sense of purpose and contribution to social goals.
8. Focus on the organization's principles since employees are more committed when they believe that the organization's principles and culture are shared.
9. Emphasize the importance of intrinsic factors such as personal growth and development.
10. Improving intrinsic motivation in workers, organizations have to create an environment in which workers feel qualified, autonomous, and an essential component of their team. This can be achieved through giving employees meaningful work, giving them authority in the decision-making process, and affording chances for skill improvement.
11. Recognizing employee achievements, promoting teamwork, improve a supportive work environment, and the emotional support from the managers can foster and strengthen the employee's commitment and loyalty.

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