



**SELINUS UNIVERSITY**  
OF SCIENCES AND LITERATURE

# **EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION AND PERFORMANCE**

By Udara Joseph De Silva

## **A DISSERTATION**

Presented to the Department of  
Management  
program at Selinus University

Faculty of Business & Media  
in fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy  
in Management

2023

Declaration

I do hereby attest that I am the sole author of this dissertation and that its contents are only the result of the readings and research I have done.

Udara Joseph De Silva

### **Abstract**

Motivation is one of the chief elements of organisational performance, which allows companies to achieve their goals. While it can be natural or intrinsic, its source is often environmental, being initiated by the management that can administer reinforcement measures, such as rewards or punishment, which depends on the nature of the conduct that needs motivating. A history of this extrinsic stimulation shapes the behaviour of talents. Whether tangible or otherwise, incentives apply to the needs of employees, including the ones formulated by Maslow. Still, applying an incentive is more complex than possibly believed, given the role of multiple factors, including culture, gender, and age that determine the utility or the perceived value and relevance of stimuli. Still, it is very rational to invest in the complex process due to there being many positive effects of incentivisation on the employer. The level of motivation must be measured routinely via a suggestion box, personal interviews, and other approaches that have varying degrees of accuracy and utility. The study performed a US-based survey to identify the stance of respondents on incentives, satisfaction identification mechanisms, and related aspects without finding significant deflection from the secondary literature.

*Keywords:* employee, performance, motivation, extrinsic, labour

### Table of Contents

Table of Contents.....	6
1. Introduction.....	7
1.1. Research Context & Relevance.....	7
1.2. Research Contribution.....	8
1.3. Research Aim.....	8
2. Literature Review.....	9
2.1. Motivation.....	9
2.2. Theories of Motivation.....	10
2.3. Motivation Approaches.....	14
2.3.1. Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivations.....	14
2.3.2. Positive and Negative Reinforcement of Extrinsic Incentives.....	16
2.3.3. Positive & Negative Discipline as an Alternative Perception of Motivation Methodology.....	29
2.3.4. Organisational Culture and Employee Behaviour.....	30
2.4. Factors Determining the Utility of Incentives.....	35
2.4.1. The Cultural Factor.....	35
2.4.2. The Gender Factor.....	36
A. The Number of Female Employees Promoted – a Proof of a Possible Lack of Interest in Incentives.....	36
B. A Lack of Interest in Rewards – Possible Evidence of Limited Utility.....	37
C. When Reward Rejection Is Not Voluntary – Proofs of Its Utility.....	40
D. Reward Block Evidence.....	48
E. The Value of Extrinsic Rewards to Increase Among Women.....	50
2.4.3. The Age Factor as a Determinant.....	52
2.5. The Effect of Motivation on Organisations.....	57
2.6. The Identification of Attitude Toward Work.....	62
3. Methodology.....	65
3.1. Methods.....	65
3.2 Ethicality.....	65
4. Findings & Discussion.....	67
4.1. Motivation.....	67
4.2. Motivation Mechanisms.....	68
4.3. Incentivisation Factors.....	76
Culture.....	76
The Gender Factor.....	78

The Age Factor.....	97
4.4. Motivation Effect on Organisations .....	106
4.5. Motivation Measurement .....	109
5. Primary Data Findings & Analysis .....	112
5. Conclusion .....	124
5.1. Research Findings .....	124
5.2. Primary Data Findings .....	129
5.2. Research Recommendations .....	130
5.2.1. Avoiding Cognitive Distortion.....	130
5.2.2. Current Literature Improvement .....	132
A. Research Accuracy .....	132
B. Causal Discourse .....	132
C. Research Clarity .....	133
D. Interpretation Depth .....	133
5.2.3. Promising Research Avenues.....	133
References.....	138

**Table of Contents**

Figure 1: Statement 1 .....	112
Figure 2: Statement 2.....	113
Figure 3: Statement 3.....	114
Figure 4: Statement 4.....	115
Figure 5: Statement 5.....	116
Figure 6: Statement 6.....	117
Figure 7: Statement 7.....	119
Figure 8: Statement 8.....	120
Figure 9: Statement 9.....	121
Figure 10: Statement 10.....	122

## **1. Introduction**

### ***1.1. Research Context & Relevance***

Motivation is one of the building blocks of any organisation, bar none, as a factor that sets the production wheels in motion. Markova and Ford (2011) opined that the genuine success of companies was contingent on their enthusiasm to apply know-how, abilities, and creativity in favour of the company. Hence, it falls to the organisation to stimulate and cultivate these positive employee inputs by introducing effective reward mechanisms (cited in Munir et al. 2016, p.89). Allen and Kilmann (2001) pointed out that rewards played a key role in improving the performance of employees and the achievement of organisational goals (cited in Munir et al. 2016, p.89). A history of not only reinforcement but also punishment shapes the behaviour of an individual when reflexes are not at work that are generated by specific environmental stimuli, according to behaviourism (Sidhu 2019). Motivation is arch-essential, for it drives performance prerequisites, such as engagement, as argued by Van den Branden (2022, p.90), which may be on the ebb. Enthusiasm for a job is not at its highest. Employees lacking engagement or those regarded as actively disengaged cost companies around \$7,8 billion in terms of lost productivity, which is otherwise equivalent to 11% of the overall GDP across the globe. As of 2021, 21% of the global workforce was engaged while performing their duties at the workplace, which is only 1% up on 2020, and the labour has still to return to the peak of 22% observed in 2019 (Pendell 2022). Still, there should be no expecting that bouncing back from the pandemic will give workforce engagement momentum. Hence, it is of paramount importance that employees be motivated, especially given the utility of different motivational approaches. Still, there is a wide range of motivational mechanisms and intrinsic ways of their application, in addition to factors that determine the utility of incentives in relation to specific labour segments.

### ***1.2. Research Contribution***

The study aims to synthesise multiple motivation classifications to facilitate their understanding and utility perception. The study draws attention to the complexity of incentivisation and the need to consider factors, such as culture, gender, and age, for the targeted application of stimuli or their personalisation. More importantly, the study performs a survey to elicit the opinion of respondents on the relevance of rewards, satisfaction identification mechanisms, and related aspects.

### ***1.3. Research Aim***

To identify what motivation mechanisms organisations can apply to stimulate the proper conduct of employees and encourage the change of counterproductive behaviour, to examine factors that need considering in the motivation process, to study the effect of motivation on organisations, and to research the ways managers can measure the satisfaction of employees.



## **2. Literature Review**

### ***2.1. Motivation***

Abbas and Nawaz (2019, p.87) offered the definition of motivation based on the understanding of motivation as compliance, indicating that it implied the readiness of a talent to perform in line with organisational standards, while readiness refers to behavioural, emotional, and intellectual activity. Shaikh (2022), in turn, explained employee motivation as the level of creativity, commitment, and energy brought by company employees to their jobs. The definition offers little in terms of the origin of what seem to be the manifestations of motivation, unlike that by Mitchell (1982), who suggested that motivation was psychological processes triggering the arousal, direction, and persistence of activities that are voluntary and that are oriented toward a goal (cited in Ledimo, Sabbagha, and Martins 2019, p.175), which is similar to the definition of a motive provided by El-Hay (2019), who suggested that it was an internal state, whether psychological or physiological, which arouses, directs, and maintains conduct instrumental in goal achievement, the only difference being the physiological nature of the state enabling motivation. Scheffer and Heckhausen (2006) and Kanfer (2009), by comparison, showed the nature of the psychological processes, interpreting motivation as a stable trait-like trend to be motivated by certain outcomes or aspects of the work environment (cited in Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram, 2012, p.301), although the ultimate goal of stimulation seems omitted in the definition.

Sulila (2019, p.121) also pointed to the ambient source of stimulation, addressing the recipient of incentives, by describing motivation as the process of influencing and encouraging an individual or workgroup from beyond so that they may achieve a goal put forward. The inclusion of the major function of stimulation makes the definition one of the most complete, yet the initiator of external motivation remains to be shown. Samsudin (2006) specified the initiator of motivation by citing managers and their motivation effects, such as the

encouragement of others, enthusiasm, and inspiration, which prompts employees to take action in terms of performance and the accomplishment of the results desired (cited in Sulila, 2019, p.122). Still, it is unclear why Sulila (2019, p.122) further noted that encouragement or motivation was supposed to be a natural urge for life sustenance and satisfaction. It would be more accurate to define motivation as the provision of the means to satisfy needs. If natural, the urge should emerge uninduced, while motivation was mostly defined as external and initiated by someone other than its recipient. It would have been wiser for the study to differentiate between natural or intrinsic motivation and its extrinsic alternative when the enthusiasm of an employee sits idle.

### ***2.2. Theories of Motivation***

While the study has not encountered systematic efforts on the part of researchers to group motivation theories based on the nature of motivation origin, a genesis classification can be assembled. There seem to be different schools of thoughts addressing motivation and its genesis factors that have formulated theories of their own, including those focusing on the natural origin of motivation. El-Hay (2019) showed that motivation may have a natural rather than acquired essence by citing the instinct theory of motivation at the centre of which animals and people are born pre-programmed with a range of conduct patterns integral to their survival. The theory, however, overlooks an important element that goal-driven motivation can be inherently minimal and that it can be far from what organisations may seek when employees put basic motivation on display, which would keep them employed and allow them to meet survival or basic needs. The theory seems related to the drive reduction theory also cited by El-Hay (2019) that claims people to have internal biological needs motivating their performance in a specific way, which echoes back the survival-enabling performance urge espoused by the previous theory. This goal orientation ties the theory to that of Maslow's motivational needs and its bottom-level element in the pyramid of needs. Unlike the instinct theory of motivation,

there is no clear indication that the essence of motivation is natural, although it may be implied, since biological needs' satisfaction seems pre-programmed.

Lingard and Rowlinson (2005, p.298) noted that Herzberg distinguished between hygiene factors preventing people's discontent with work, such as relations with peers, supervision, working conditions, work rules, company politics, relations with boss, status, and money, and factors motivating people, such as promotion possibility, advancement, the work itself, growth opportunities, responsibility, job enjoyment, recognition, and a sense of achievement. The classification wades into dangerous, categorical generalizations, failing to consider the money factor important to pragmatic people whose motivation can be monetary and who can swap work when offered more if only to enjoy a more lucrative payday. Mills et al. (2006, p.233) are among many researchers to affirm that money could work with some people at some point in time, which shows the temporal variability in this tool's utility when it can migrate across categories from the group of motivation to hygiene factors. As compared with Herzberg and Maslow, McClelland, who, according to Gulati, Mayo, and Nohria (2013, p.468), designed the acquired needs theory, differentiating among the need for power, affiliation, and achievement, claimed some types of needs to be obtained during some time, being shaped via life experiences, such as the need to exceed others, to master tasks, to achieve success, to exert control and influence over others, to avoid conflict, and to establish relations. Early life experiences determine if people obtain their needs and what the sequence will be of their prioritization. These needs correlate with intrinsic motivation, which is at the centre of the content theory of motivation, which, according to Weldeyohannes (2015, p.163), maintains that motivation is intrinsic or such that is initiated within the individual and that concentrates on what aroused or incentivised specific conduct, including motivation that is supposed to contribute to the satisfaction of needs. Content theory of motivation, it was further noted,

includes the two factors theory of Fredrick Hertzberg and Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Weldeyohannes 2015, p.163).

The theoretical excursus into the motivating human needs and related theories can be extended to any motivation origin, including the adopted nature of motivation or conduct stimulation when observed patterns are internalised. Eagle (2008, p.93) confirmed the possibility of conduct modification that underpins the social learning theory of Albert Bandura, suggesting that adults learnt by observing the outcomes of the behaviour of others, and the extent to which these talents secure coveted outcomes is what motivates adults to replicate the conduct observed. Hill (2001, p.67) echoed back the theory postulates, including automatic learning via observation and the imitation of conduct in return for desirable outcomes. Still, the project draws from theories that involve direct stimulation rather than the internationalization of behavioural patterns borrowed from the social environment.

Operant or instrumental conditioning, which Hill (2001, p.67) defined as a theory, implies, as explained by Zangeneh, Blaszczynski, and Turner (2007, p.66), the association of conduct and an outcome, as compared with classical conditioning when two different incentives are associated. Eagle (2008) and Sjaastad, Sand, and Hove (2010, p.155) suggested that the voluntary and learnt nature of action set operant conditioning apart from another type of associative learning which is classical conditioning. When operant, conditioning stresses antecedents, or events preceding conduct, and outcomes, or events following the conduct, both of which influence conduct reoccurrence. Key to the concept of operant conditioning, according to Zangeneh, Blaszczynski, and Turner (2007, p.66), is the occurrence and discontinuation of conduct following exposure to negative or positive incentives. Hill (2001, p.67) showed that learning in the operant conditioning mechanism occurred via personal experience rather than observation, as is the case with social learning. Researchers use another theory to define the same behavioural change, which is reinforcement theory defined by Smit

(2007, p.351) as a behaviourist approach, the major tenet being that conduct is a function of its outcomes. The theory maintains that conduct followed by negative outcomes will be the case not as often as conduct followed by positive outcomes. Lauby (2005), who credited B.F. Skinner, a psychologist, with theory development, proved more optimistic. Rather than pointing to the minimization of inappropriate behavioural patterns, the researcher talked about people learning not to assume conduct resulting in undesired outcomes and them adopting behaviour leading to reverse results (Lauby 2005).

Although considering a different theory, Leavitt, Pondy, and Boje (1989, p.320) also showed conduct adjustment. The carrot and stick theory of motivation suggests that the management can offer and withhold opportunities for employees to meet physiological and, to some extent, safety needs, such as benefits, working conditions, and salaries. Still, the theory, it was acknowledged, has limits, such as the controllability of employees so long as they struggle for subsistence. Still, reaching the subsistence level causes the theory to cease working when an employee moves to higher needs, such as self-actualization, the respect of fellow employees, and self-respect, which the management has no way of providing. Instead, the management, as was argued, can create conditions conducive to the satisfaction of these needs. It would have been rational for the researchers to dwell on the ways an organisation can ensure such conditions, which can be by creating self-actualisation opportunities. Still, it is dubious that higher-level needs are beyond the reach of organisations, since the upper tier of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, such as self-actualization, is contingent on the distribution of tasks or opportunities for any given employee to prove himself capable or creative, for example, or the assignment of promotions that can put an employee in a better position to put certain talents to good use. Such conducive conditions could be the creation and maintenance of settings free from bullying, nepotism, and other toxic behavioural factors. If established, such a workplace

microclimate can allow employees to receive incentives, such as promotion, on the basis of merit rather than loyalty or relation to a manager.

Some theories focusing on aspects, such as the purpose of motivation, are not to be categorised based on the nature of motivation origin. The incentive theory of motivation, for example, posits that conduct is motivated by the desire to achieve valued external stimuli, as suggested by El-Hay (2019). The nature of external stimuli pursuit can be instinctive or acquired, since external incentives, such as money can meet basic needs, being encouraged by instincts or the recognition of their relevance by default. The pursuit of external incentives can be acquired, since an employee may come to develop an interest in the public recognition of co-workers' merits after seeing him bask in plaudits. Hence, the incentive theory of motivation is among the theories that can defy classification along the lines of motivation origin nature.

### ***2.3. Motivation Approaches***

#### ***2.3.1. Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivations***

Zama and Endeley (2023, p.75) explained that extrinsic motivation as implying behaviour influenced by external variables, such as the desire to avoid unpleasant outcomes or a monetary stimulus. Wren (1994), who assumed a historical perspective, claimed unskilled agrarian workers to have received extrinsic stimulants, such as higher pay or corporal punishments in the early ages of industrialization (cited in Yusoff, Kian, Idris 2013, p.18). While the historical practice sank into oblivion a long time ago with the introduction of human rights conventions into legal frameworks across the globe, corporal punishment bears an important connotation of positive punishment or negative stimulation when certain conduct is discouraged. It is akin to the modern form of harmful conduct discouragement commensurate with the modern legal system, which is negative feedback. In the modern context, extrinsic incentives for employees are less radical.

Zaman (2011) stated that extrinsic rewards were often tangible and financial in nature, including benefits, bonuses, interpersonal rewards, promotion, and pay (cited in Munir et al. 2016, p.89). Munir et al. (2016, p.89) added gifts, gratuities, tips, and commissions to the list of extrinsic rewards that can be provided. Although assuming a general look into extrinsic motivations, Deci and Ryan (2000) similarly suggested that financial rewards fell under the category of extrinsic motivations (cited in Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram, 2012, p.301). Extrinsic rewards, however, cannot be only financial in nature, for positive feedback from an external source is financial no more than a penalty is, and feedback is none too tangible, while punishment can assume both manifestations. The definition of extrinsic rewards being tangible in nature is certainly incomplete, since Zama and Endeley (2023, p.75) pointed to there being both tangible and intangible extrinsic motivations. In other words, tangible rewards or those with a physical form coexist with intangible alternatives that lack the form, being abstract in nature, such as admiration, fame, or the desire to make someone happy. Both rewards and punishment were claimed to boost extrinsic motivation. Uhl-Bien, Piccolo, and Schermerhorn (2020) also cited punishments, aside from benefits, bonuses, and pay, as external and tangible extrinsic motivation options.

Still, not every motivation type is sourced from the workplace environment, with employees also having motivational resources. Eccles (1983) showed that intrinsically motivated employees could be they who could entertain a subjective interest in task content or enjoy the performance of a task (cited in Froehlich, Raemdonck, and Beusaert 2022). Uhl-Bien, Piccolo, and Schermerhorn (2020) provided a more comprehensive definition of the motivation method, describing intrinsic motivation as intangible and positive feelings of contentment experienced by an individual due to the quality completion of an interesting or challenging task. It is not because people have to complete the task that they do so in case of intrinsic motivation; it is because they want to that they engage in task execution. Other

definitions do not deflect drastically from this comprehension, introducing the psychology factor. Stoner and Freeman (1992) identified intrinsic rewards as psychological rewards experienced by a worker directly (cited in Munir et al. 2016, p.89). Manzoor, Wei, and Asif (2021) also regarded intrinsic rewards as psychological and internal rewards, adding that they were secured via the successful completion of projects and tasks. Ryan and Deci (2020), in turn, claimed these rewards to evoke a positive emotional response, such as a sense of achievement and satisfaction, motivating employees to keep improving and achieving lasting behavioural changes (cited in Manzoor, Wei, and Asif 2021) so as to experience positive emotions on more occasions. Allowing employees to be a part of a team and choose the projects to work on, deepening expertise in a certain area or learning something new, feeling achievement, doing enjoyable work, gaining more trust from managers, achieving personal growth, feeling respect from other employees and supervisors, and priding oneself on work are among intrinsic rewards, which workplace may have to offer (Manzoor, Wei, and Asif 2021). The study may be wrong to categorise trust from managers as an intrinsic reward, since its source is external. While examples are plenty, it still misses out on some essential intrinsic motivations as Deci and Ryan (2000), for example, defined having autonomy over one's work as an intrinsic motivation (cited in Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram, 2012, p.301), although example placement in the intrinsic category can be dubious if autonomy is provided by the management, which it should be, since on the opposite side is supervision and control imposed or lifted by the management.

### ***2.3.2. Positive and Negative Reinforcement of Extrinsic Incentives***

Extrinsic incentives can reward and penalize in an effort to alter the behaviour of employees. Rather than offering motivation typologies, some researchers define the overarching mechanisms of motivation whose understanding can facilitate the perception of different motivational tools and approaches. Laraway et al. (2003) described a motivating



operation as an operation or event, which changes the effectiveness of a punisher or reinforcer temporarily, causing a value-altering effect. What it can also do is influence conduct, which usually results in a punisher or reinforcer, causing a conduct-changing effect (cited in Martin and Pear 2019, p.223). Sarafino (2011, p.135) provided a near-identical definition, recapping that motivation operations were a combination of value-changing and behaviour-changing effects, suggesting that they did not occur isolated. Martin and Pear (2019, p.223) also summed up the attributes or elements of the concept, suggesting that a motivating operation was that which altered what people wanted and told them how to obtain it. These determinants researchers would be wise to bring to the discourse the better to visualise the importance of mechanisms responding to motivating operations.

An important observation made was that the effect is not infinite, with its duration determined. Hence, what was also done was to differentiate between motivating establishing operations (MEO) and motivating abolishing operations (MAO). An MAO was interpreted as an operation or event that reduces the effectiveness of a punisher or reinforcer, enhancing the odds of conduct that usually results in the punisher and minimizing the probability of conduct that usually results in the reinforcer. MEO was construed as an operation or event that boosts the effectiveness of a punisher or reinforcer in the value-changing effect as much as it does the probability of conduct that results in the reinforcer or decreases the probability of conduct that results in the punisher in the conduct-changing effect (Martin and Pear 2019, pp.223-224). Sarafino (2011, p.136) also regarded reinforcement and punishment as behaviour-increasing effects as evocative, while behaviour-minimizing effects were claimed to be abative. It would be prudent to stress the recurrent effect of abolishing operations when the conduct suppressed by a penalty can be evoked by its withdrawal. In any case, Martin and Pear (2019, p.223) further clarified that both types of behaviour and value-changing effects could be conditioned and unconditioned, the latter being innate in the value-changing dimension and learnt in the

conduct-changing dimension. When conditioned, the two effects are learnt (Martin and Pear 2019, p.223). While these mechanisms draw a dividing line between reinforcement and punishment, penal measures are also recognised as a subtype of reinforcement, as further identified.

Lauby (2005) and A. Khalid, Rahim, and S. Khalid (2021, p.204) indicated there to be two kinds of reinforcers in operant conditioning involved in proper conduct stimulation, such as negative and positive. Rather than generalizing the conceptual essence of a positive reinforcer as the provision of an incentive to stimulate positive conduct, A. Khalid, Rahim, and S. Khalid (2021, p.204) chose rather an unorthodox way to clarify the approach, using an example cited by Deese and Hulse (1967) of food being given to a living being in an effort to elicit abidance by requirements (cited in A. Khalid, Rahim, and S. Khalid 2021, p.204), which does little to clarify the essence of positive reinforcement that can have different manifestations, aside from food provision, which is rather a rare way to exemplify the motivational approach. Other attempts at concept interpretation are more comprehensive despite showing signs of unsystematic or occasional vagueness. Thus, for example, Smit (2007, p.351) specified that organisations could resort to positive reinforcement or rewards to stimulate certain conduct, noting that an employee who was in line for the reward moved closer to the coveted conduct as if to condition the application of the measure. Apparently, the employee has all but assumed the conduct, being on track to do so, while the incentive is supposed to ensure a positive outcome. Zangeneh, Blaszczynski, and Turner (2007, p.67) also pointed to the stimulation of a priori positive conduct, albeit somewhat vaguely by suggesting that the introduction of something positive following certain conduct could enhance it. The following researchers are none the more different in this positive reinforcement perception. Eagle (2008, p.93) pointed to a precondition of positive reinforcement use, suggesting that it was after conduct occurred that an incentive was added to the environment to ensure positive

behaviour reoccurrence, while Brandell (2010, p.27) colloquially generalised positive reinforcement as rewarding, which contains a veiled admission of proper conduct stimulation, which is aimed at its optimization or further improvement, since negative behaviour is not to be rewarded. The conduct rewarded should increase as a result, as acknowledged, becoming more frequent or stronger, or it could be at least maintained. Lauby (2005), by comparison, described such reinforcement as an outcome desired by an employee, and the expectation of the organisation was outlined more specifically, with organisational effectiveness mentioned, which presents a complete functional equation of motivation as a deal between an organisation and its employee involving the bounty and the proportional input required.

A variety of researchers does well to exemplify the motivational category, including Spiegler (2015, p.155), who pointed to there being four chief kinds of positive reinforcers, such as reinforcing activities, token reinforcers, social reinforcers, and tangible reinforcers. Eagle (2008, p.93) also defined tangible objects as positive reinforcement. Tokens, as explained by Hackenberg (2009, p.257), are any symbol or object exchanged for services or goods. Lang et al. (2014) picked out different social reinforcers, such as verbal praise like compliments, gestures like a wink, thumbs up, nod, and smile, and physical contacts like high fives and hugs, while activity-based reinforcers were said to offer people an opportunity to partake in certain conduct, such as playing a game on a digital gadget. Other researchers also show some of these social reinforcement types as applied without categorizing them more specifically though. Michigan Team Nutrition (2004) showed that social reinforcement in the shape of complimentary patting on the shoulders and praises was more effective and rewarding in terms of student behaviour (cited in A. Khalid, Rahim, and S. Khalid 2021, p.205), while Eagle (2008, p.93) cited social attention and verbal praise as positive reinforcement methods in a remark that is context-free in terms of motivation use settings, although social attention seems rather a broad concept that itself may include praise as a form of social attention provided by an

individual to reinforce specific conduct. Among reinforcements presented by Lang et al. (2014) are also sensory and edible groups of motivation, the latter including drink and food. When sensory, reinforcement can be auditory, including music, visual, including strobe lights, and tactile, including a hug and a kiss (cited in McLay, France, and Blampied 2022, p.163). Lauby (2005) also showed that edible reinforcers could be used, citing *the candygram* as an inexpensive reward in an apparent effort to polarise rewards additionally along the cost lines, although these cost-based categories were not correlated with organisations based on budget variability.

One of the positive reinforcement approaches, which deserves extra insight is social reinforcement, which is otherwise defined as stroking, as may follow from examples cited by further presented researchers who address stroking. Berne (1961) defined stroking as any act, which means the recognition of the presence of another individual (cited in Nelson-Jones 2014, p.155). Clary (1973) showed that positive stroking could motivate people, claiming to be a basic motivation for life enjoyment and human survival, being important for mental and physical health. The study also recognised punishment and discipline as stroking, albeit negative, unlike a variety of other researchers who tend to focus on positive stroking. Goel (2001, p.286) and Prased and Gulshan (2011, p.348), however, avoided interpreting stroking as a motivational mechanism, showing it as being a trigger of motivation in employees. Dr Eric Berne cited by the researchers referred to the concept as a unit of recognition. The scholar may be right to define it so, for a certain tool of motivation may not prove motivational to every employee, with everyone having unique receptiveness to certain recognition approaches. Until accepted, it can be but a unit of recognition whose acceptance makes for employee motivation, and the recognition itself becomes a source of motivation. Dr Berne pointed to the diversity of recognition units, including a liking gesture, such as a hug or a pat on the back, a word of praise, or a word of welcome. While Forrest (1990, p.288) and Management Association (2013)

also mentioned a pat on the back and a hug as reward approaches, Forrest (1990, p.288) also identified hand shaking, and Management Association (2013) pointed to the possibility of a smile as a reward type that can be desired. Clary (1973) provided similar examples, regarding a word of appreciation and a pat on the back as positive stroking variations. Overall, despite no specific publication-time-setting tool having been used to find the literature within a fixed timeframe, databases would often return results featuring sources with earlier publication dates and a variety of non-academic sources, which signals a deficit of studies on less conventional and non-monetary approaches to labour motivation.

Another notable reinforcement approach is feedback, which McNamara (2014, p.19) classified as written reinforcement. McConnell (2018, p.219) made a case for the relevance of feedback while somewhat downplaying the role of rewards, indicating that the majority of employees were not especially motivated by these incentives applied in the context of organisational settings. It was indicated that the environmental factors, such as working conditions, fringe benefits, and salary, were not the only things, for which employees work. The complete appreciation of the work done, it was suggested in a disguised, albeit unclarified reference to feedback, could be a potentially powerful performance motivator as it was explained that people, who were doing good work, needed to know themselves to be doing well and that they needed themselves appreciated. Appreciation and knowledge were said to be the important elements of the “psychic income,” which every talent needs to obtain to some degree, aside from the actual remuneration and benefits related to the position held. At this, McConnell (2018, p.219) showed that feedback did not necessarily have to be positive, so did McNamara (2014, p.19), although negative feedback could fall under the category of positive punishment; however, the penal functional core thereof can be contestable. While addressing negative feedback, McConnell (2018, p.219) noted that employees needed to know when it was that they were not faring well performance-wise so that they may adjust their conduct. Yet again,

there is no indication of it being feedback that a manager provides when critical of the performance quality, which can be inferred only. The researcher made a point of showing criticism could be constructive, which was sceptically interpreted as being unable to stimulate a long-lasting behavioural change. As a possible explanation, McConnell (2018, p.219) differentiated between criticism and the provision of other options for improvement and behavioural change. It is unclear though why constructive criticism was doubted if it implies improvement guidance that has the potential for contributing to conduct modification. As was further clarified in terms of motivational performance assessment, the goal is for the feedback to allow talents to know where they stand in the eyes of the organisation and the supervisor.

The source should have disclosed the needs met via feedback, which could serve as a communication channel that imparts the respective information, signalling employees that they have met some needs. Put otherwise, while plenty of needs are met via the actual workplace efforts of an employee that earn them monetary resources often instrumental in needs being met, the feedback recipient gets to know him- or herself to have met the needs when provided with feedback, and the positive news of the needs having been met is what turns out to be motivational. That employees have achieved a great deal of self-actualization, for example, by putting their hand to the success of the organisation is only communicated via the feedback channel, initiating the rewarding comprehension and sensational per perceptual changes. Safety and physiological tiers are not met directly either. All a supervisor or manager does is reassure subordinates that they will be in a position to meet them, since positive feedback implies the talents will be on the payroll and have their work remunerated. By comparison, some needs the motivational tool of feedback can satisfy on its own by allowing supervisors or managers to express respect. Respect from the management should unlock the satisfaction of the fourth tier of needs, including recognition, status, self-esteem, and respect. There seems to be a binary link between respect and self-esteem when the former translates into the latter. When

expressed, respect from others can go some way toward dispersing personal worth doubts, if any. Researchers, such as McCann (1994, p.260) confirmed this possibility, indicating that respect from others did much to boost self-respect. The trend is observable among plenty of female workers (McCann 1994, p.260). Thus, feedback will not allow employees to meet their needs unless positive.

Reinforcement, it was further suggested by Smit (2007, p.351), could also be negative. Lauby (2005) provided some conceptual clarification that is rather comparative in nature, indicating that negative reinforcement also boosted conduct, which made a contribution to organisational effectiveness. While this part of the definition seems logical, the remainder does not. To remove an undesired result is what a manager seeks while using negative reinforcement, as was further argued. Job elimination threats, unpleasant assignments, and management criticism were among the category tools applicable that, as was explained, prompted a behavioural change for these motivational methods to be stopped short. These tools seem more of positive punishment examples, since they are phased in, since they are penal in nature, as is the case with unpleasant assignments, and since the measure of negative reinforcement should bear the connotation of negative factor removal rather than its persistence, although it is conditioned by the performance of an employee that can lead to its being lifted if improved. Criticism aside, the definition and its exemplification seem to miss the point of negative reinforcement, as do those provided by A. Khalid, Rahim, and S. Khalid (2021, p.204) who defined negative reinforcement as incentives provided to subjects in response to them not having abided by conduct pattern set for them, and the use of electric shock making subjects avoid it was cited as an example of negative reinforcement, which is surprising in the study with an educational target context, although the interpretation at least offered the causal insight of stimulation approach use. Electric shock appears a negative incentive phased in, while negative reinforcement should imply the removal of a negative

factor to reinforce or ensure a certain behaviour. It is the removal of the factor that follows positive behavioural dynamics, which merits the measure as a conduct booster.

Of a similar opinion contradicting the previous researcher is Brandell (2010, p.27) who interpreted negative reinforcement as a relief when something unpleasant is removed for the conduct to be improved, so virtually did Eagle (2008, p.93) who defined negative reinforcement or escape conditioning as the situational removal of something aversive. The use of aspirin to tackle a headache was cited as a routine example of this motivation type. For an individual to keep taking aspirin to address future headache episodes is regarded as negative reinforcement, since the conduct of medication use boosts the outcome of pain removal (Eagle 2008, p.93). Pain being removed rather than aspirin being retaken can be negative reinforcement, since nuisance must be removed to achieve relief, while recurrent stimulus obtainment is more of positive reinforcement. It can be the recurrent headache removal that can be regarded as negative reinforcement. Reinforced should be whatever is affected by a headache, which can be workplace performance, although the stimulus will be initiated by the recipient of the nostrum against the physical nuisance, while the discomfort factor is not environmental or contextual, such as workplace rules or workload. The stimulus obtainment behaviour appears to have been mistaken for benefitting behaviour, such as workplace performance obstructed by a headache. Still, the critical breakdown of the example shows that workplace conduct can be disrupted and reinforced by non-related factors, although headache itself can be an outcome of workload and other contributing factors. In any case, the description of the discomfort factor shows it as being an aversive nuisance, which succeeds more in concept disclosure than the definition of negative reinforcement by Zangeneh, Blaszczyński, and Turner (2007, p.67) who defined it rather neutrally as something negative being removed or terminated, which sends conduct increasing. Whatever the reinforcer, Mather and Goldstein (2001) showed that reinforcers were more useful when in combination, with punishment and



reinforcement applicable at a time by disciplining and improving the environment (cited in A. Khalid, Rahim, and S. Khalid 2021, p.204).

Smit (2007, p.351) showed that the negative reinforcement category bifurcated into extinction and punishment, which, however, is not a mainstream view in the sense that punishment will often be identified as a standalone tool of motivation, as is further shown. While Lauby (2005) similarly distinguished between positive and negative reinforcement, it did not categorise punishment and extinction as negative reinforcement subtypes, as done by Smit (2007), introducing them as standalone approaches to motivation instead. Extinction, as argued by Smit (2007, p.351) can be applied to weaken conduct, particularly conduct a manager rewarded previously. Lauby (2005), by contrast, sounded more categorical, describing the process as the removal of whatever reinforced inappropriate conduct. An example quoted to visualise the motivation method features the simulation of a lack of interest by an employee in non-work topics routinely raised by a peer who acts as a distraction, causing timetable lateness. Smit (2007, p.351) cited a similar example resting on the same mechanism, which is for a new manager to ignore tales appreciated by a preceding superior. It was not explained in detail though that the mechanism of motivation was used in a nonverbal way without the employee being clearly given to understand that he or she had better discontinue certain conduct, such as tale-telling.

When it comes to punishment, Lauby (2005) showed the inappropriate nature of conduct as a driving factor in negative punishment application while talking about administering an adverse or undesired result in response to dysfunctional conduct, which implies handling it, which, however, offers blurry interpretation in terms of its goals in relation to the conduct of an employee. Smit (2007, p.351) avoided functional uncertainty in the motivation approach interpretation. Punishment also labelled as a disciplinary action was claimed to seek to weaken or discourage undesirable conduct repetition via unpleasant penal

outcomes, as per reinforcement theory. Feldman (2005), Lefton (2002), and Kosslyn and Rosenberg (2002) exemplified the approach, explaining that punishment meant the forfeiture of material things, rebuke, or physical pain, which the affectee dislikes and which was, therefore, applied for undesirable behaviour recurrence control (cited in A. Khalid, Rahim, and S. Khalid 2021, p.204), which is a multi-contextual visualization of the approach category, as follows from the pain method.

The utility of the method of motivation was doubted by Smit (2007, p.351) as its assignment, although encouraging, was said not to prevent an employee from reverting to the undesirable conduct pattern upon the neutralization of the negative reinforcement. In addition to the expiration of measure utility, side effects were cited as another adverse outcome of the penalty when the employee falls into anger, harbouring a grudge against a company or manager. McConnell (2001, p.214) similarly warned that the undesirable response could grow in intensity, bringing the strength of punishment as a determinant of the backlash following punishment termination. Much as the remark makes sense, there is no link between the sentiment arising from measure application and organisational outcomes in either of the two sources, such as performance that can be stealthily sabotaged in retaliation. If cited, this example would have made a stronger case for the line of argumentation against the motivation measure. Khanka (2007, p.254), who also showed that punishment triggered negative sentiments in employees, such as hostility and resentment, however, indicated that the approach was described as leading to but minimal performance standards put on display by employees. The backlash argument by the researchers mentioned seems overly categorical. What is a hypothetical development was presented as a certain outcome, which it is not, since all employees are not bound to respond likewise. While addressing punishment as negative discipline, Khanka (2007, p.254) also doubted that the approach could remove the inappropriate conduct of employees, suggesting that the most it did was suppress it, which,

according to Skinner (1953, p.184), is the temporary suppression of conduct (cited in McConnell 2001, p.214). Overall, this partial utility was causally correlated by Khanka (2007, p.254) with the low use frequency in organisations. Still, a recommendation was made to apply the measure in a chronological, sequential, and progressive manner. A progressive discipline system, it was clarified has five phases, namely an oral rebuke, a written rebuke, a second written warning, suspension on a temporary basis, and discharge or dismissal. Other discipline types mentioned went unclarified.

Punishment is more complex than shown by some researchers, with positive and negative subtypes distinguished. McConnell (2001, p.214) and Brandell (2010, p.27) explained that positive punishment was the case when something aversive followed a certain behaviour, which minimises the possibility of this conduct. Eagle (2008, p.93) characterised the stimulus likewise, noting that an aversive incentive, such as spanking, was introduced into the environment to mitigate conduct. While Zangeneh, Blaszczynski, and Turner (2007, p.67) did discuss negative stimuli or the occurrence of something negative as a conduct-changing event, the connotation of aversiveness was omitted, which would otherwise do much to communicate the idea of behaviour change stimulation more than the attribute “negative” does, which implies a tolerable development that seems less capable of triggering the change by raising the extent of discomfort or displeasure of an individual, such as a company employee. Brandell (2010, p.27) summed up the approach with the composition explanation of the concept, suggesting that the concept “positive” was applied, since something was presented. Further clarification suggested that it was because the result was the reduction of conduct that the operation was referred to as punishment.

As far as negative punishment is concerned, Zangeneh, Blaszczynski, and Turner (2007, p.67) noted that conduct might decrease if something positive was taken away or if it ceased following the conduct. The concept lacks a causal interpretational element, which can

be key to understanding the motivation, since the removal of a positive stimulus may be due to the discontinuation of positive reinforcement over budgetary cutback, the temporally limited design of incentives, or the achievement of the stimulation function after productivity having been boosted rather than negative conduct signalling an employee no longer deserves incentivizing positively. The discontinuation of a positive stimulus can be a strong way to alert an employee to the relevance of behavioural adjustment for the incentive to be regained, since its removal creates discomfort, which can a mismatch between the pre-change financial capability and that which an employee finds having as a result of negative punishment. By contrast, other researchers were more comprehensive. Negative punishment was said by McConnell (2001, p.214), Eagle (2008, p.93), and Brandell (2010, p.27) to involve the removal of something pleasant, which decreases the likelihood of poor conduct recurrence. While a fine was associated by Brandell (2010, p.27) with negative punishment, there can be interpretational dualism. Although a share of financial stimulation or positive reinforcement is removed when a fine is applied, deducting from the aggregate income, a fine is more of an unpleasant measure phased in, which is akin to positive punishment.

Unlike Lauby (2005) who did not consider avoidance an individual motivation method, Smit (2007, p.351) introduced it as an approach to reinforcing desired conduct when undesirable outcomes are avoided. While it should be an employee who should avoid such outcomes by logic, there is no clear indication. To quote an example, it was suggested that an employee was motivated to act in the desired way by getting a project completed on time so as to avoid an undesirable result, such as a reminder. Braverman and Frost (2012) similarly defined the method vaguely, indicating that people were eager to avoid undesirable results and distressing issues guiding their actions. Elliot, Eder, and Harmon-Jones (2013) came to offer some insight into the causes of avoidant conduct that can show how it is motivated as it associated avoidance motivation with threat, punishment, and aversion. In truth, avoidance

seems more of a behavioural response rather than a trigger that motivates, which can be an adverse treatment, such as punishment, along with the fear thereof, that can drive an employee to avoid certain undesirable conduct.

### *2.3.3. Positive & Negative Discipline as an Alternative Perception of Motivation*

#### *Methodology*

Khanka (2007, p.254) provided an overview of motivation through the prism of discipline, including positive or self-imposed discipline when an organisation can establish an atmosphere via different approaches, including but not limited to constructive support, promotion, incentive payment, appreciation, and rewards that are instrumental in motivating employees to work enthusiastically to achieve the goals formulated. For some reason, rewards, appreciation, and incentive payment are lumped together as homogeneous stimuli despite rewards being a wide category that can include incentive payments or bonuses and other motivations. It is also somewhat dubious for the source to have regarded the concept as self-control and self-discipline, since the source of motivation is external when an employee has a reward provided, while self-discipline seems to imply tapping into internal motivational reserves or mechanisms to tune oneself to a proper frame of mind or motivation. It can be that the motivation, in the estimation of Khanka (2007, p.254), is what triggers the internal discipline when the motivation factor, be it a promotion or reward, is found appealing and when it is understood to be of relevance to the recipient. It was also suggested by Khanka (2007, p.254) that positive discipline minimised the need for personal supervision to get subordinates to comply with organisational standards, procedures, regulations, and rules. Rather than limiting the individual, it enhances freedom and self-expression in objective accomplishment. In quite a stark contrast to this discipline variation stands negative or enforced discipline when employees are made to comply with regulations, rules, and orders laid down; else, they risk

inviting punishment or penalties. Scaring and making certain that employees do not connive in inappropriate conduct is the purpose of negative discipline, as indicated.

#### ***2.3.4. Organisational Culture and Employee Behaviour***

Organisational culture in itself can be motivational leverage in its own right. Sokro (2012, p.110) defined organisational culture as the pattern of assumptions, attitudes, beliefs, norms, and values that shape how things are done and how people behave even if not articulated. Aside from these components of organisational culture, Rosid, Enderwati, Kusumawati (2022, p.175) added an ideology and philosophy to the list of cultural elements described as binding and shared in a specific community. Sokro (2012, p.110) distinguished among community, bureaucratic, competitive, and innovative organisational cultures. McGregor and Doshi (2015) also identified there to be a high-performing culture, which can minimise inertia, economic pressure, and emotional pressure all the while boosting purpose, play, and potential felt by its people, which is known as the creation of total motivation (ToMo). Holbeche (2009, p.348) explained that high-performing cultures were characterised by highly talented and engaged labour offering services and products, which are innovative, customer-centric, and fast delivered to top quality standards.

Sokro (2012, p.113) found in the study that 88% of interviewees agreed or fully agreed that their organisations performed well due to their members' compliance with the corporate culture, while another 12% partially agreed with the claim. Other studies cited less significant digital evidence of organisational culture's effect on employee behaviour and its different manifestations. The study by McGregor and Doshi (2015) gauged the ToMo of employees of four major airlines and collated their cultures with its results, such as customer satisfaction, which showed the culture of an organisation served as a predictor of customer satisfaction (McGregor and Doshi 2015). It is not a direct indication of the culture changing the conduct of talents. Still, if not improved by the culture, personnel conduct would not have left customers

satisfied. McGregor and Doshi (2015) offered further evidence of culture influence on performance, suggesting that top management could create and maintain a high-performing culture by teaching managers to lead in a very motivating fashion and citing a study of bank branch managers, which showed that the training of high total motivation leadership resulted in an increase in personal loan and credit card sales by 47% and 20%, respectively.

The study of Maithel, Chaubey, and Gupta (2012, p.72) did not share the credit as much in a more specific account of organisational culture effects, listing a variety of positive effects of organisational culture and digitalising each by sharing survey results. Thus, considerable organisation profitability improvement, personal productivity boost, better relations with workgroup, enhanced communication with supervisor, and an increase in work satisfaction were supported by 1,3%, 16,2%, 25,8%, 22,3%, and 29,3% of respondents in a 229-interviewee sample representing service organisations, trading, and manufacturing (Maithel, Chaubey, and Gupta 2012, p.72). The study seems valuable in that it touches upon different employee behaviour effects of organisational culture. Still, the culture effect is quite subjective, baffling accurate measurement, with plenty of factors involved that can contribute to satisfaction, revenue, and other aspects influenceable by an organisational culture. Moreover, the members of the diverse sample cannot be all accountants or managers to know the revenue of the company. Nor are they HR experts to recognize the organisational culture and income bond. Thus, some effects of organisational culture may be hard to trace via a survey, particularly that on revenue, which is also a product of employee behaviour, such as enthusiasm and productivity that can be influenced by motivation. The study of Rosid, Enderwati, Kusumawati (2022, p.175) yielded results further downplaying the role of organisational culture, which was found to increase motivation by 16,5%, while work environment was said to do so by 82,7%. While the researchers cited show the effect of the extrinsic factor of organisational culture on

employee conduct and employers, the effects of motivations are worth summarising in an individual chapter in what is to follow.

A high-performance organisational culture in itself may not be a motivation, being a product thereof, which causes employees to perform well and work committed or engaged in a move that shapes a high-performing culture. Still, much depends on the culture, since some cultures, such as innovative or bureaucratic, can be underlying platforms of organisations rather than a volatile product of top-performing talents that shape a high-performing culture as a result of rigorous HR efforts and positive selection, among other things, which leads to them working seamlessly. High-performing cultures can be a co-existent organisational culture type that can accompany the major culture, such as an innovative culture, also showing the high extent to which it has been embraced by talents. A high-performance culture can be an organisational culture in its own right, which is underlying, with organisations prioritizing values and behaviours conducive to growth. Since the culture makes for quality, innovation, and fast pace output, it is a full-fledged culture, which can guide any organisation. At the same time, the high-performance culture can be a blend of organisational cultures, an innovative one included. It also seems that high-performing cultures are any organisational cultures that succeed in selecting proper talents and getting them to internalise values, to comply with rules and norms, and to contribute to the achievement of organisational goals.

This is not what matters, what does is that an organisational culture may be motivating employees. Even the high-performing culture can influence motivation rather than necessarily being a product of motivated staff, and influence it does when the culture is replicated, setting a behavioural example, yet it can be wrong to assert that culture is a motivational tool in this case. Rather, it is accepted in return for an incentivizing appeal of the workplace shaped by extrinsic, tangible rewards, opportunities conducive to intrinsic gains, and other incentives. High-performance culture incentivization seems much-needed and implemented. Although



demanding, as follows from the fast pace of output, the high-performance culture is still associated with motivation. Apparently, it should have a proper system of incentivization to offset the demands that can interfere with Maslow's needs, including those from the category of love and belonging that involve family, intimacy, and friendship, all of which require some time input, which may be in short supply under this culture. Hence, compensatory incentives seem vital in this case so that the high-performance culture may increase motivation, performance, and further organisational benefits. Much the same can be said of bureaucratic and other cultures with some inherent challenges and stress factors requiring that there be incentivization for employees to comply therewith.

Still, this is not to suggest that the culture unconditionally requires incentives. Employees find themselves having to accept an organisational culture when in the organisation if they are to secure their monthly paycheque and other bonuses. The do-in-Rome-as-Romans-do principle is at work. Employees should not be hard put to adopt the culture regardless of the nature of motivational mechanisms, since their workplace culture expectations should be matched by the culture of companies in a certain industry or market niche. When underlying, organisational cultures can be key to the industry where the organisation is active or the product it sells. Companies with a commercial portfolio of IT services or products should be expected to have an innovative culture; else, a bureaucratic culture with multiple procedures and a protocol of actions could interfere with the creative process and dash motivation. If an organisation builds on a characteristic or inherent industry culture, talents should arrive having proper culture expectations and receptiveness to the culture, which should spare them frustration, expedite integration into the company, and allow them to put in a good shift on a routine basis. The need for an employee to be innovative will not prove stressful to an employee.

Overall, organisational culture is associated with a range of benefits, such as work satisfaction, productivity, relations with a workgroup, and better communication with a supervisor. While an increase in revenue is also reported, it is a product of the positive effect of culture on employees, human assets responsible for the output. Satisfaction may spur productivity and interaction with a supervisor and workgroup members, which allows the revenue to rise, since the labour utility is maximized or well harnessed. All in all, performance, its speed, intra-personnel interaction, engagement, innovativeness or creativity, and attention to customer needs, are improved as workplace behaviour elements, which makes for a quality and fast output, an increase in sales, repurchase, and other essential gains for an organisation, including talent retention when social contacts improve, and employees manage to self-actualize and secure incentives. Productivity, satisfaction, and interaction behaviour changes are attributed to organisational culture by a fifth of respondents mostly, as per the study of Maithel, Chaubey, and Gupta (2012, p.72), yet the study did not point to a possibly more influential workplace factor, unlike another study. While an organisational culture does motivate employees as a collection of values and behaviours, the work environment is five times as important, as per the study of Rosid, Enderwati, Kusumawati (2022, p.175), the importance of culture is not worth underestimating as such that underpins the environment as values and norms can make the environment risk-taking or risk-averse and marked by cooperation and trust when competition is not cultivated. Then again, it is unclear why the work environment is much more correlated with motivation if it draws from an organisational culture, which is understood to have rather a meagre effect on motivation. Apparently, the formational role of the culture in the environment is not that sufficient, or the study results are down to the nuances of survey execution, which may have led to a certain margin of error. Hence, organisational culture is most likely a system that can motivate employees via incentives maintained to ensure culture acceptance by employees, along with an appealing

work environment, which may not be shaped by the culture much, especially if it is less attractive.

#### ***2.4. Factors Determining the Utility of Incentives***

##### ***2.4.1. The Cultural Factor***

Culture is one of the factors, which determines the receptiveness of employees to rewards and other motivational mechanisms, since it sheds light on the workplace behaviour of talents. Hofstede (2011), who is a top expert in cultural studies, regarded culture as a collective mind programming, which differentiates the representatives of one category or group of people from the other. One of the culture dimensions of Hofstede is power distance. When high, it keeps less powerful organisation members willing to expect and accept the unequal availability of power (cited in Wamuyu 2020, p.126). There is also a division of cultures into individualist and collectivist subtypes, which creates unique challenges and opportunities in terms of motivation. De Pablos et al. (2014, p.79) showed that collectivist cultures stressed in-group authority acceptance, duty, cooperation, and obedience, while individualist cultures value creativity, self-reliance, and value independence. There was said by Kim (2007) to be a trend for people from the West to show more creativity than those from the East (cited in De Pablos et al. 2014, p.79). An inference was drawn from the cultural contrast by De Pablos et al. (2014, p.79) that the strongest creative personalities possible and the best creative methods available cannot make up for a culture, which suppresses creativity. Goncalo and Staw (2006) reported in their study that collectivist teams were less creative than individualistic ones in terms of the rated creativity of ideas, divergent ideas, and the number of ideas produced. The admission that these cultures obstruct creativity (cited in Galunic 2020, p.115) largely coincides with the previous view. Still, Eastern cultures have benefits of their own, which can facilitate motivation. Bond (2010) found that the Chinese scored higher on the desire not to be outperformed, self-sacrifice, and emotional connectedness, as compared with North

Americans, the latter surpassing in terms of individuality and competitiveness, which sounds somewhat controversial. Since the Chinese will not suffer to be outperformed, they should be highly competitive, yet they score less than North Americans on this dimension. Given lesser competitiveness, Chinese may struggle in a workplace dominated by the masculine culture as Ribiere and Worasinchai (2013, p.445) showed that they were the survival of the fittest due to aggressiveness, decisiveness, and assertiveness. For men, career ambitions were said to be mandatory.

#### ***2.4.2. The Gender Factor***

##### ***A. The Number of Female Employees Promoted – a Proof of a Possible Lack of Interest in Incentives***

The presence of women in executive positions in organisations could serve as a litmus paper of promotion effectiveness as an extrinsic reward, with a small index possibly signalling a lack of interest in the motivational instrument. McDonald and Hite (1998) estimated the frequency of women's employment as executives at 2 female employees per 1000 companies as of the time of writing, which was otherwise equivalent to 0,2% (cited in N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq (2021, p.1). Later studies offer greater optimism. In the US-based study, Balfour and Mujtaba (2009, p.7) showed the gender gap in the senior executive role, which is indicative of the promotion stimulant offer to female talents, estimating their share at just 13% of top executives as of the time of writing, which was only 1% up on 2007. The study by Parkinson (2006) provided similar results, indicating that 89,5% of the Financial Times Stock Exchange 100 company directors in the UK were men. A greater number of women fill executive positions while independent directors, representing 6,8% of non-executive directors of top companies, which marks an increase of 3,1% relative to a decade ago (cited in Balfour and Mujtaba 2009, p.8). Balfour and Mujtaba (2009, p.8) also cited the results of a study by Manifest, a corporate governance specialist Manifest, which reported that the level of women

being appointed to senior positions to have slowed down considerably, while their presence in smaller boards demonstrates even fewer opportunities. Babic and Hansez (2021, p.2) also showed a gap reduction, indicating that 16% of women held executive committee positions in big companies in Belgium in 2018, as against 9%-10% a decade earlier.

Much the same is true of the following study in the EU-28 even despite it being optimistic for some countries. Profeta (2017, p.27) showed that Iceland was the largest share of women on boards of the biggest listed companies of the EU-28 as of 2016 where their share was equal to around 44%-45%, being followed by Norway, which is several percentage points below it. Malta fares the worst as the share of women on boards does not surpass 5%. Estonia, Greece, the Czech Republic, and Romania field close to 10% of women in such positions. The study is not even the most optimistic there is to find. McKinsey & Company (2021) provided data, which also showed the misbalance, although it is drastically different from other studies, indicating that only 86 female employees secured managerial positions in the US in 2020 per every 100 male employees (cited in S.K. Jha and S. Jha 2022), which is in quite a sharp contrast to the data provided by the aforementioned studies identified in Balfour and Mujtaba (2009, p.8), which can be down to contrasting estimation approaches used or the size of samples and their contrasting representativeness rather than a temporal gap between the studies, during which time the misbalance between the genders in terms of promotion reward provision cannot have decreased to a negligible margin.

### ***B. A Lack of Interest in Rewards – Possible Evidence of Limited Utility***

Still, to construe the data as a litmus paper of women's apathy in relation to the promotion reward, it is essential to introduce the views of scholars addressing the perceived attitudes of female employees. Some researchers interpret the misbalance through the lenses of women's greater lack of promotion preference, which may indicate a lack of motivational power or its gender-specific utility related to men. In their study of 4000 participants

throughout nine studies involving diverse sample populations, including online panels of working adults, undergraduate students, top MBA programme graduates, and executives in high-power positions, Gino, Wilmuth, and Brooks (2015, p.12358) identified that women had a greater number of life goals than men. They are less likely to make use of professional advancement opportunities; they perceive power as less desirable, albeit equally achievable; they put less relevance on power-associated goals; they associate more negative results with higher-power positions, including goals conflict and concessions. The nature of trade-offs remains to be guessed, which can involve domestic or professional contexts. The findings were wrongly arranged as homogeneous, for negative associations, for example, are a cause of the avoidance of advancement opportunities. Still, the findings cumulatively show the voluntary withdrawal of female employees from extrinsic rewards formulated as opportunities, although the identified stance of female respondents who believe career advancement being within reach may run counter to the data sets reflecting a lack of equality manifest in different indices, lawsuits included, as will be further shown.

While it may seem that women were mostly found unwilling to pursue extrinsic rewards, the results of the study do not show a considerable gap in the motivation between the genders. Gino, Wilmuth, and Brooks (2015, p.12356) showed that the contrast did not differ much across three studies that tested why women regarded professional advancement as less desirable, including study 5, which asked 465 working adults from an online database to self-simulate their promotion to a higher-level position by their employer granting them a considerable increase in power over others, study 6 testing identical relations in a sample of executives likely holding power positions and showing an interest in advancement via enrolment in leadership executive education courses, and study 7 involving a sample of undergraduates at a top university in the US who could be interested in professional advancement. A similar cross-gender difference trend makes itself seen as the ratings of

desirability in female and male cohorts were equal to 5,12 and 5,48 points on a 7-point scale. In study 6, the correlation was 5,69 vs. 6,02. In study 7, the two respective indices were equal to 5,02 and 5,37 (Gino, Wilmuth, and Brooks 2015, p.12356).

As far as further studies are concerned, Veroff et al. (1980) showed that gender determined the degree to which job characteristics were regarded as motivating (cited in Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram, 2012, p.305). Kanfer & Ackerman (2000) and Warr (2008) made the differences visible, indicating that men put more relevance on achievement (cited in Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram, 2012, p.305), while Warr (2008) believed men to pin importance on the good chances of promotion, a responsible job, and the opportunity to use initiative, noting that women valued meeting people, good hours, and pleasant people to work with (cited in Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram, 2012, p.305). While considering the appreciation of extrinsic rewards by women, researchers seem to wade into generalization, omitting factors, such as the pragmatism of women, which can render them receptive to such stimuli. Arch-essential is the nature of the stimulus as well, for a promotion can set a female employee financially self-sufficient, such that she can afford childcare services, putting her in a position to return to work following childbirth. Another essential oversight is the emancipation trend and childfree lifestyles of an increasing number of women, which ensures no void in company personnel emerges. Then again, the conservative role views of male partners should also be taken into account, which can be informed by personality characteristics. Studies should also consider the intersection of gender and culture as the blend of factors can also do much to rationalise the lesser interest of women in extrinsic rewards.

Studies also seem to omit the attitudinal effect of chauvinism and traditional role values on women's receptiveness to promotion, an event further distancing them from the adoption of a traditional role. Chou et al. (2005) indicated that society and culture could be supportive of male dominance, which was said to complicate the situation even further (cited in N. Abbas,

F. Abbas, and Ashiq 2021, p.2). Balfour and Mujtaba (2009) made a similar observation, pointing to there being a traditional consensus that the duty of women had been to stay at home, cleaning, cooking, and taking care of the household, although there is significant progress in terms of women's penetration of middle-level management, supervisory, and similar professional positions in organisations. The pace of labour entrance by women and their confidence manifest in receptiveness to and aspiration after extrinsic rewards, such as promotion, which would ensure a long career span can be complicated by the persistence of conservative values or, rather, oppressive qualities listed by Pompper (2016, p.4), including being domestic, deferent to men, silent, and nice that were said to be holding women back. While the following set of researchers shows women as preferring non-work roles more than they do work, it is difficult to spot the role of the values mentioned. Daley (1996), Baumgartner and Schneider (2010), Manasra (2013), and Dobele et al. (2014) shared an understanding that women were more indulged in family roles, such as the beating of children and their upbringing, which leads them not to prefer workplace duties with full energy (cited in N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq 2021, p.2). This perception shows the prioritization of children-related tasks is voluntary, while women seem rather disinterested in work.

### ***C. When Reward Rejection Is Not Voluntary – Proofs of Its Utility***

#### ***A Flurry of Post-Work Duties & a Lack of Support***

N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq (2021, p.2) showed that women did not necessarily accept the social gender norms as appealing, being made to do so instead. Batool et al. (2013) pointed to family barriers serving as hindrances obstructing the capabilities of women (cited in N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq 2021, p.2). Chou et al. (2005) indicated that family obstacles were creating hindrances in terms of career advancement, explaining that women found themselves unable to engage in multi-dimensional job roles in an effective fashion owing to family conflicts. The nature of conflicts was left unclarified, be it male chauvinism or the



failure of female partners to commit to household duties, which could offer a useful insight into what holds women back, affecting their ability to aim at extrinsic rewards via top-rate performance. As further noted, a woman's domestic duties took more energy and time, as opposed to those of male partners (cited in N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq 2021, p.2). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) produced similar arguments, explaining why women could be less motivated by extrinsic stimuli, noting that they could have the major responsibilities in raising a family, that there could be a conflict between work and family roles, and the prioritizing of a part-time timetable (cited in Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram, 2012, p.305).

Luceno (2006, p.157) produced the digital equivalent of the disproportion between the amount of household duties performed by women and men, noting that women performed 65%-80% of childcare work or upward of 60% of eldercare in the household. These figures can rationalise why Pew Research Center (2013, p.11-12) found that 51% of women with children under 18 years of age found it more difficult to be a working parent, as compared with 16% of working fathers who replied likewise. Still, no difference was spotted by 46% and 72% of working mothers and fathers, respectively. As was further found as regards the experience of career interruptions, 42% of mothers have had to cut back work hours, as compared with 28% of fathers. A considerable amount of time off was reported as having been taken by 39% of mothers and 24% of fathers. Job quitters due to children experience are 27% of mothers and 10% of fathers. Promotion was turned down by 13% of mothers and 10% of fathers. It is not quite clear if promotion was offered to few female talents or whether most chose to accept the oft-proposed extrinsic reward. Still, the survey shows that the children factor does make mothers reject the reward.

### ***Discrimination Rather Than a Lack of Interest in Extrinsic Rewards***

That women in the executive role are in the minority should not be considered proof positive of their not being motivated by extrinsic rewards, such as promotion. The problem is

that they have this promotion withheld therefrom as a result of discrimination. The very wording or formulation of the situation around women's share in the top management by N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq (2021, p.2) showed the artificial gender gap in this hierarchical echelon, while citing Sanders et al. (2008), Rhoads and Gu (2012), and Bucklew et al. (2012) and describing women as "stuck into the dead ends of the job," such that they enjoy meagre presence in the CEO position whose holders were said to be in a "gentleman's club" (cited in N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq 2021, p.2) so as to show the near-exclusivity of the position and show a restrictive, gender-specific entrance possibility. Other researchers show the same hierarchical discrimination. Although recruited, women, according to Landau (1995), encounter promotion hindrances (cited in Balfour and Mujtaba 2009, p.8). Balfour and Mujtaba (2009, p.8) attributed the promotion disbalance to discriminatory practices and stereotypes in plenty of workplaces. The results of structural equation modelling showed that the higher perceived glass ceiling in a company correlated with a lower share of women in the personnel. Luceno (2006, p.157) defined the glass ceiling as a sex-based and invisible hindrance disadvantaging women in general who seek the employment desired, yet the researcher interpreted the concept as though it implied the denial of the job rather than a promotion opportunity, which is key to the concept, as shown by N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq (2021, p.1) who described the 1978 concept initially coined by Marilyn Loden glass ceiling as a vertical segregation of women from senior positions, which obstructs their advancement to such positions. The definition fully coincides with the interpretation cited by Babic and Hansez (2021, p.2).

A study performed by Lyness and Thompson (2000) collated the careers of matched samples of 69 male and 68 female executives by scrutinizing career histories, self-reported developmental experiences, and perceived promotion facilitators and obstacles. Women reported there to be greater roadblocks, such as exclusion from informal networks. Promotion

and other obstacles that can be associated with rewards were said to be concordant with tokenism theory (cited in Balfour and Mujtaba 2009, p.8). As for further reward discrimination manifestations, although similar in both genders, career histories and developmental experiences were shown by Lyness and Thompson (2000) as unlocking the tasks of contrasting relevance, which can show cross-gender trust variability, although the study did not draw the apparent implication from the following task distribution by the management. It was suggested that men secured more foreign assignments, while women did assignments with non-authority relations (cited in Balfour and Mujtaba 2009, p.8).

While S.K. Jha and S. Jha (2022) cited all manner of discrimination without differentiating between reward-related and other forms of the workplace mistreatment. Among those mentioned are promotion and pay parity (S.K. Jha and S. Jha 2022), which could imply the failure of the incentivization of female employees on a smaller salary when a pay rise could make for the cross-gender pay rate equalization. Pay parity is a likely extrinsic reward not mentioned in aforementioned studies cited by Balfour and Mujtaba (2009, p.8). Vianen and Fischer (2002) cited promotion as a reward mechanism, on which women can miss out, in their study addressing the gender-biased approach of CEOs (cited in N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq 2021, p.2), as did Nepal and Lertjanyakit (2019, p.21), thereby sharing the view of both Balfour and Mujtaba (2009, p.8) and S.K. Jha and S. Jha (2022). Unlike the two studies, Nepal and Lertjanyakit (2019, p.21) also picked out benefits and compensation that seem to fall under the category of rewards as stimuli above the basic pay, with compensation likely referring to the incentivization of extra hours beyond a standard payday. In addition, the selection concept is phased in within study narrative as a possible incentive. Still, it is not fully clear what the selection concept implies, which complicates its categorization, although it can be interpreted as the assignment of employees to specific tasks, which can be rewarding if the task gets its recipient and performer pleased, in which case performance should increase. Since it was

defined as an achievement for employees not available for the female segment of the personnel on account of discrimination, it appears to be a stimulant. Overall, while the study by Nepal and Lertjanyakit (2019, p.21) did well to diversify the list of extrinsic rewards that can be understood to be desired by female employees, it fell short of clarifying the concepts for better comprehension and interpretation dualism avoidance.

Still, rewards' utility in relation to female talents can be improved on a condition that arises from the tokenism theory mentioned earlier in the chapter. The token concept is worth amplifying on as its author appears to have explained it in relation to women and showed when it was that women could have discrimination removed and rewards provided proportionally to their input. Kanter (1977) coined the concept "token" in attempts to designate a subgroup that represents a digital minority, which is understood to be different from other groups in the same organisation. As theorised, people defined as tokens in an organisation will face fewer issues and less scrutiny in the workplace as their employment numbers expand over time, at which point there occur attitudinal change as the greater number of tokens allows them to feel that they stand out physically from peers, which mitigates the feelings of workplace isolation. Feeling more represented in labour may alter their perception of being judged more harshly and differently than peers. Women also have their perceptions of advancement opportunities improve (cited in Stich, Hassell, and Archbold 2010). Still, it may not be the feeling of being more represented that changes the perception of being judged more harshly. It is a lack of such unfair judgment that alters the perception, while a greater representation in the personnel is what makes the management moderate judgment harshness and aim at the respective cross-gender parity. Still, the claim can make sense if an increase in the number of female talents and their transition from the status of tokens is perceived as trust and appreciation of such labour by the management, which signals the mitigation of harsh judgment. In any case, the research should have identified the reason tokens feel judged more harshly while in the minority, which

can be the correlation of the number of tokens or minority staff members with trust by the management.

Despite the possibility of the discrimination issue being addressed in individual companies, the issue persists, and one of the most apparent ways in which discrimination manifests itself is the maternal wall bias. Katz (2021, p.217) described the concept of the maternal wall as a prejudice that stems from the actual or perceived caregiving experiences of a woman as a mother. The definition may lack clarity, unlike more comprehensive interpretation attempts by other researchers, including Luceno (2006, p.158) who distinguished glass ceiling from maternal wall understood to be an extra invisible barrier that excludes women from desirable employment. Still, the definition should include the denial of rewards to existing employees and clarification whether the concept-based way of thinking applies to expectant mothers and females in the workforce more than it does to potential female employees. The definition, however, listed the triggers of the wall when women lose their legitimacy as promotion candidates, including a request to provide flexitime or part-time work timetable or the accouchement of pregnancy or the intention to take maternity leave. Williams and Westfall (2006, p.31) virtually mirrored the explanation, stating that maternity wall was discrimination in the workplace due to pregnancies, whether it be past, present, or future, or one or more maternity leaves taken. Luceno (2007, p.159) went on to assume a consequential perspective while specifying the response of the organisation to an announcement or request, showing that women could be given lower pay, assigned work, which is less prestigious, or passed over for promotions. Katz (2021, p.217), in turn, pointed to a considerable pay reduction, although the researcher did not expatiate on other outcomes in the workplace, referring to them as numerous counts of disadvantages.

Luceno (2006, p.159) came to exemplify the maternal wall. It was shown that the perception of managers was key to the distribution of rewards via one of the cases. In Trezza

v. Hartford, Inc. (1998), an employer presumed that the female plaintiff would not be interested in a position, since it required traveling and since she had children (cited in Luceno 2006, pp.159-160). Further insight into Trezza v. Hartford, Inc. (1998) suggested that the plaintiff herself had offered discrimination evidence by claiming that two men had been offered the promotion despite both having children, unlike their female peer passed over, and that plenty of men promoted to the position had children at the time (cited in Luceno 2006, p.164). Researchers have done well to explain the mindset of employers engaging in discrimination that can mislead others into believing extrinsic rewards useless by reducing the number of women promoted. There was said in Trezza v. Hartford, Inc. (1998) to have been understanding in the employer that gender-based discrimination was not to be proved, in the admission of the defendant (cited in Luceno 2006, p.164), while the initial way of thinking, which leads organisations to apply the maternal wall, was interpreted by Luceno (2006, p.160) who noted that employers were of the belief that an ideal employee is he who is completely not burdened by life beyond work and that serious business people cannot be interrupted by home issues during their working day. Williams and Westfall (2006, p.35), in turn, showed that women have stereotypes attached to them if pregnant, including being physically limited, undependable, preoccupied, moody, irrational, and excessively emotional. Another study demonstrated that such women were subject to lower performance rankings relative to non-pregnant peers on the basis of identical conduct and other types of information available. The rankings, it was further suggested, showed the stereotypes that pregnant women would become less committed to their jobs or less available. They are believed to pose risk to the employer due to the possibility of them not showing up for work when the maternity leave is over. A loss of interest in their jobs is another logical argument informing the discriminatory treatment of the management.

All these discrimination variations have the same author, yet few studies make a point of stressing it. Titkow (2010) pointed to male dominance in decision-making positions and at the senior management level (cited in N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq 2021, p.2). N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq (2021, p.2) pointed to the gender favouritism in discrimination in favour of male employees, although doing so unconventionally by using the “bird of a feather flock together” idiom. Longman and Lafreniere (2012), by comparison, addressed the issue equally causally, pointing to the male-dominating culture as a source of gender imbalance in senior positions (cited in N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq 2021, p.2). It is shown that the prevalence of reward discrimination was a product of male dominance in the organisational level responsible for decision-making. Al-Manasra (2013) performed a study, reporting the preference of organisation executives given to male talents when it comes to the distribution of managerial positions, the reason being that they believed men to perform better than women (cited in N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq 2021, p.2).

Still, this is not to suggest that discrimination authors are exclusively male. Jetten et al. (2013) acknowledged that the best part of research in gender discrimination had concentrated nearly solely on discrimination against female employees in what are conventionally male occupations and roles (cited in Manzi 2019, p.1). Fric and da Bino (2018, p.3) showed that men were discriminated against even in European countries, such as Austria where the index stood at 0,4% in 2010, climbing to 2% in 2015. The situation maintains a negative trajectory over the 5-year period used, although there are occasional improvements in states like France where discrimination against men was half as big as it was 2010, falling from 2,9% to 1,5%. Four countries showed a significant turn for the worse, including Hungary, Netherlands, Romania, and Sweden. In Hungary, the index jumped from 0,1% to 3%. What is noteworthy is that the table of workplace discrimination split by gender highlighted the 2,9% discrimination against men in France in 2010, using the red colour in an apparent effort to stress its radicalism or

distributing level, and it signals a greater threat than the 5,9% of female labour discrimination in 2015 in Austria, with the orange colour used there, despite it being double the level in France. While there is no follow-up clarification, the use of bright colours for minimal discrimination level in the male segment of countries shows how uncharacteristic the denial of promotion, pay, and other rewards in this labour category is, unlike the female segment where the rate twice as big as the males' earns a lesser threat marker (Fric and da Bino, 2018, p.3). Still, the current study aims at visualizing the female gender aspect serving as an extrinsic rewards utility determinant as it comes into play more often. Manzi (2019, p.1) argued that the focus on women was anything but arbitrary, noting that gender-based discrimination had been a significant issue for women, particularly in the employment environment, despite them making up almost 50% of labour in most developed countries based on the data by (Pew Research Center (2017) and United States Bureau of Labour Statistics (2017) (cited in Manzi 2019, p.1).

#### ***D. Reward Block Evidence***

The denial of a potentially desired extrinsic reward of promotion to female workers can be reinforced by data related to lawsuits initiated by women wrongly discriminated against in the way of career advancement. Luceno (2006) showed that there was a large number of maternal wall discrimination lawsuits involving the denial of promotion as well as the depth of frustration and interest of female employees in promotion by indicating settlements proved costly. Still, the study lacks actual digital evidence, which would visualise the issue better, unlike the following study providing a detailed account of cases showing women's interest in extrinsic rewards and indignation at the denial of this category of incentives. Williams and Westfall (2006, p.31) provided evidence of the maternal wall, a gender discrimination type, indicating that an aggregate of 3385 charges of pregnancy discrimination had been filed with the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission in 1992 in line with the Pregnancy Discrimination Act. The number has jumped by 40% to 4512 cases as of 2004. The overall



number of financial benefits reaped by plaintiffs increased from \$3,7 million to \$11,3 million in 1992-2004.

Balfour and Mujtaba (2009, p.9) also offered direct evidence of discrimination and reward denial to female employees by companies, reporting a class action gender discrimination case initiated in 1988 against California-based Furnishings 2000 Inc., the payment of \$104 million by Home Depot in a gender lawsuit settlement, the payment of another \$85 by Publix Super Markets in a gender discrimination lawsuit for the denial of equal promotional opportunities, and the payment of a gender discrimination settlement worth \$54 by Morgan Stanley, a Wall Street giant (cited in Balfour and Mujtaba 2009, p.9). While the scope of discrimination subjects is indirectly shown, there is no insight in some lawsuit instance into the nature of mistreatment, which could range from promotion failure to bonus denial, and at least one case discloses no amount of compensation. S.K. Jha and S. Jha (2022) also reported a lawsuit case caused by gender discrimination that involved Pinterest and that was initiated in March 2018 by Francoise Brougher, a chief operating officer. Still, studies producing evidence of reward-related discrimination are few and far between, which is unsurprising, since many cases are not even close to becoming a subject of litigation. Sincoff et al. (2018) explained that gender discrimination would often lead to backlash following the response of victims to constant prejudices (cited in S.K. Jha and S. Jha 2022). Hence, S.K. Jha and S. Jha (2022) inferred from the trend that the best part of cases involving gender discrimination went unreported.

Occasional studies provide further evidence of extrinsic rewards' appreciation by women who cannot have pursued legal settlement for financial reasons only. The study by Pew Research Center (2013, p.1), which targeted 18- to 32-year-olds, showed that 75% of millennial women were keen on changes for gender equality relative to 57% of men. Pew Research Center (2013, p.7) showed that 23% of women considered sufficient the changes made by the time of

the survey, as did 39% of men. Pew Research Center (2013, p.1) went on to show that an estimated 60% of female respondents agreed that men earned more than women for identical work, as against 48% of male peers. Furthermore, only 34% of millennial women would not like to become a top manager or a boss, as compared with 24% of male study participants. Although it was not clarified clearly, the rest 66% of women either wanted to get the promotion reward, or they were unsure about taking over the position. Pew Research Center (2013, p.10) provided another set of survey results stratifying them by generation. As many as 70% of men showed they wanted to become a boss in the segment of millennials ages 18 and 32 as of the time of the study relative to 61% of women. In generation X ages 33 and 48, 58% of men expressed the enthusiasm, as opposed to 41% of female participants. In the Boomer generation ages 49 and 67, the shares of male and female interviewees eager to become a boss are equal to 32% and 21%, respectively.

#### ***E. The Value of Extrinsic Rewards to Increase Among Women***

The value of extrinsic rewards, such as promotion, which is manifest in discrimination and the respective data, can further surge in the time to come if women receive greater discretion via the legal avenue, which would facilitate long-term employment and make it relevant performance for promotion, which in itself can become more accessible and mandatory for organisations. Babic and Hansez (2021) showed that the gender discrimination could change going forward, reporting the number of women to have risen steadily in recent years, and conceptualised the trend, attributing it to Belgium where the rate stood at 67% in 2019 relative to 62,6% at the start of 2017. Some studies show the progress over a longer timeline of labour force changes. Luceno (2006, p.157) focusing on the US showed that the number of married women in workforce increased almost twofold in 1969-1998, while the number of married female employees with children under 3 years rose to thrice its previous

number during the comparable period. By 2002, in labour force were an estimated 72% of mothers with children aged one and older.

Institut pour l'égalité des femmes et des hommes (2013) associated the inflow of women with a change in mentality, which sets the stage for legal policies and provisions designed to ensure equal opportunities. It would have been wise to also correlate the policies with the influx of female talents drawn by improving legal conditions, since they could be loath to join the labour there where there is no legal protection or legally provided discretion that convinces them to aim at longer and more ambitious careers by aspiring after promotions. Plenty of the procedures, it was further explained, sought to facilitate the balance between working and family life via day-care, parental leave, and flexible timetables, although the list was shown as being far from complete (cited in Babic and Hansez 2021, p.1). Another study offered a more detailed list of factors increasing female labour presence and possibly their eagerness to accept and aim at extrinsic rewards in the knowledge that they will be in a position to work. While Profeta (2017, p.26) pointed to paternity and maternity rather than just parental leaves, also picking out childcare, fiscal policies left unexemplified, pension designs, and labour market interventions, such as part-time timetables, apart from flexible work arrangements. Apart from showing the changes that will likely adjust female workers to long-term careers and bring them into competition for extrinsic rewards, such as promotion, the researcher also showed that legislators could obligate organisations to maintain gender quotas or a threshold representation level for each gender, yet it is not clear whether the measure is possible or whether it is implemented (Profeta 2017, p.26). Other studies are more prolific in terms of actual evidence of policies, which offers glimpse into the geography of further changes.

There are actual examples where changes are being introduced and where there can be even more changes conducive to women's entrance of the labour force and competition for

rewards. Babic and Hansez (2021, p.2) quoted an example of the legal changes introduced recently, indicating that the Council of Ministers passed a law in Belgium in 2011, which phased in gender quotas in public organisations. A third of boards of directions in companies was supposed to be female since 2013. Senden and Kruisinga (2018), who also commented on obligatory female personnel share norms, reported there to be a soft approach in the UK, Sweden, Spain Portugal, Netherlands, Ireland, Finland, Denmark, and Australia where companies are supposed to set their own targets as to the share of board seats occupied by women or are encouraged to reach certain quota targets. In Poland and Austria, provisions in corporate governance codes push for boards that are gender-balanced. Still, it was shown that legal systems were not all about soft approaches, which were said to be avoidable due to a lack of actual consequences for non-adherence. The researchers pointed to the introduction of even hard quotas by certain states, which makes it mandatory for companies to reach a predetermined share of women on their boards or face penal measures that can lead to the dissolution of companies that fail to adhere to the quota, which is the case in Norway and Italy, or at least the declaration of board appointments as illegitimate in case of noncompliance, which has place in Germany and France (cited in Kowaleska 2020). De Cabo et al. (2019), who utilised 2786 company-year observations between 2005 and 2014 and a big novel panel of 767 Spain-based companies, showed that legislations may be right to impose harsher requirements, indicating that less than 9% of companies targeted adhered to the quota completely.

#### ***2.4.3. The Age Factor as a Determinant***

When it comes to the age factor, which is also integral to the understanding of incentives' value, Kooji et al. (2007) reported there to be a relative deficit of studies inspecting the effect of aging on work motivation, yet the research available that targets work motivation and age discloses that age tends to moderate the link between work motivation and different work characteristics. Among notable studies in that by Warr (1997) recapped study findings,

indicating that feedback, job variety, and the importance associated with key job features faded with the passage of time. By contrast, it is likely that the importance attached to physical and job security gain relevance (cited in Kooji et al. 2007). The researcher cited seems to have given a very cursory look into the summary of motivation factor without delving deeper into reasons for older employees to discover the value of certain factor later in their career. The study would have done better to correlate the motivations developed or adopted by older employees and age-related changes and developments, such as the completion of the self-actualization process by a certain age or the appeal of younger talents, which can discourage risky job variety pursuit. At least, the summative account seems unconvincing until broken down in a more comprehensive way in the discussion chapter.

Still, while many studies lack an explanatory element, some researchers show that older employees may not be equal to the task due to changes in their mental faculties. Cavanaugh and Blanchard-Fields (2006), Lee et al. (2005), and Schaie, (2005) pointed to a decrease in fluid intelligence, specifying that it presupposed new information processing and working memory (cited in Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram, 2012, p.302). Kanger and Ackerman (2004) explained that work demands could require a high rate of fluid ability, and older employees will need to put a greater effort into it due to their age, which is what proves discouraging particularly in top-performance work conditions where the demand is not to be compensated by effort and growth in crystallised intelligence, which is experiential or educational knowledge (cited in Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram, 2012, p.302). For the researchers to have considered growth in expertise a compensation seems controversial, since educational knowledge acquisition can be problematic, given a poorly functional ability to process new information. Apparently, fast information processing is implied rather than cognitive processing as such. If required to process information fast rather than gaining crystallised intelligence or experiential knowledge gradually, an older employee will be discouraged from

making efforts to earn the extrinsic reward of promotion. Thus understood, the issue can rationalise why Warr (2001) indicated that a decrease in fluid intelligence reduced expectations of the successful performance of tasks that seem more demanding with advancing age (cited in Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram, 2012, p.302), while Warr and Fay (2011) identified that older adults were less likely to engage in education initiatives, such as future self-development intentions and participation in continuing education, which is attributed to anxiety associated with learning challenges (cited in Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram, 2012, p.302).

Goal reorientation, which comes with age, may be important too. McAdams and de St. Aubin (1998 and Erikson (1964) referred to generativity theory maintaining that helping future generations and a wider society, along with parenting, gains in relevance with advancing age (cited in Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram, 2012, p.304). Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram (2012, p.304) also explained that such people tended to stress cooperation in lieu of competition. As for further rationales extrinsic rewards can be less valued by older employees, Warr (2001) indicated that social pressures and social comparisons could influence the valence of specific outcomes at various ages (cited in Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram, 2012, p.305). Van Dam (2009) explained that people could be in the habit of comparing their goal achievements and themselves with other people and their accomplishments, which leads them to regard the perceived utility of certain results in relation to the views of others. Social pressure may result in older employees adopting beliefs about themselves, which society holds, whether it be implicitly or explicitly, which is via retirement policies; hence, they retire at a specific age (cited in Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram, 2012, p.305). Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram (2012, p.305) also showed that employees were not interested in promotion motivation, not feeling supported by subordinates, co-workers, and supervisors or the availability of learning resources. No-work support was also defined as important, including development encouragement by friends and family.

Occasional causal theme episodes also thread the narrative of Kooji et al. (2007) composed of other studies, including Higgs et al. (2003) suggesting that older workers kept working due to financial causes rather than just traditional work ethic or the work itself (cited in Kooji et al. 2007, p.368). The study is not alone in showing the financial pull factor applying to the older group of employees as the following researcher conditioned the extrinsic reward appreciation by this age group of labour. Lord (2002) posited that older engineers with income, which did not suffice for retirement, were found working to meet the first and second levels of needs in the Maslow hierarchy (cited in Kooji et al. 2007, p.368). Speaking of insufficient income, Linz (2004) cited an example of the trend, indicating that the inspection of job motivations of Russian labour indicated that pay ranked as the most essential job motivational forces for all age groups, with older groups putting even more value on pay and security than younger peers (cited in Kooji et al. 2007, p.368). Older engineers with adequate income tend to work motivated by the needs from the third and fourth levels of the hierarchy (cited in Kooji et al. 2007, p.368).

Still, plenty of studies fail to differentiate between contrasting financial situations in the older labour cluster, lumping together different income subgroups in terms of their gravitation toward intrinsic rewards, as further shown. Cohn (1979), Greenfield (1962), Kanfer and Ackermann (2004), Saleh and Otis (1964), Schwab and Heneman (1977), Stagner (1985), Valentine et al. (1998), and Vallerand et al. (1995), in turn, were united in the belief that job satisfaction was closely associated with intrinsic factors or internal work rewards in older employees, unlike younger peers (cited in Kooji et al. 2007). In their study involving 1036 workers of a Dutch division of a multinational organisation, Boumans, De Jong, and Janssen (2011, p.331) also arrived at a conclusion that older employees needed intrinsic fulfilling and challenging jobs. The same is true of Froehlich, Raemdonck, and Beusaert (2022) who also correlated older talents with intrinsic motivation and dismissed efforts to suggest otherwise as

stereotypes in their study using a quantitative survey of 870 employees aged 50 or older. Two samples of 9388 and 2512 individuals in the study by Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram (2012) also showed a shift toward intrinsically rewarding job characteristics rather than an overall decrease in motivation with age.

Lord (2004), who scrutinised the work motivation of older knowledge employees, identified that the chief causes of older workers maintaining their professional activity were the chance to be creative, a sense of achievement from the job performed, satisfaction from the application of skills, and working enjoyment (cited in Kooji et al. 2007). The study, however, did not specify whether these motivations in knowledge workers were intrinsic in nature, although they seem to be such, which allows the study to complement the above-cited researchers discussing the shift to intrinsic motivation in older workers. While the study is not universal in terms of its findings that cannot be generalised or applied to a wide talent pool, it failed to clarify the category of employees involved in the category of knowledge workers whom Klikauer (2018, p.267) identified as employees whose major capital is knowledge. Academics, lawyers, public accountants, design thinkers, scientists, engineers, architects, pharmacists, physicians, software engineers, and any other white-collar workers whose line of work necessitated the use of mental activities to earn a living (Klikauer 2018, p.267).

Still, Kooji et al. (2007) virtually showed that the age factor would not come into play much, given the age complexion of the workforce at least in developed states where the involvement of older workers in the labour market was described as rather low. The study made the following observation as though contradicting the initial one while in reference to a report by OECD (2006), which identified lower fertility rates and an increase in life expectancy as contributors to local population aging. The share of older residents in the population is on the increase, while the dependency ratio expands considerably and quickly, which is the ratio of the population ages 65 and older relative to the population aged between 20 and 64 (cited in



Kooji et al. 2007). Boumans, De Jong, and Janssen (2011) also pointed to the expansion of the older segment in Western societies and the local workforce, as did Kinsella and Phillips (2005) and Taylor (2006) (cited in Inceoglu, Segers, and Bartram 2012, p.300).

The trend was also contextualised by Kooji et al. (2007) as the potential labour was claimed to be aging, which, it was estimated by OECD (2005), would downscale it by 10% between 2020 and 2050 (cited in Kooji et al. 2007). It is only logical that the United Nations (2007) predicted the elevation of the number of older workers in labour. The 50-64 age-group will have reached a high of 32% in 2050, as against 25% in 2000 (cited in Kooji et al. 2007). What the study should have pointed out, which it did not, was that the population has to return to workforce over the disproportion between retirees and employees and subsequent pension fund deficits. Nor did the study mention adverse economic factors, which may force pensioners back in the labour force even in developed countries. Overall, the study fell short of showing the causal underpinnings of population aging.

### ***2.5. The Effect of Motivation on Organisations***

The complexity of incentivisation, which is manifest in factors that should be taken into account, is justifiable by the utility of incentives in terms of positive effects on organisations. It is like some researchers to show the positive effects of motivation by commenting on the adverse outcomes of motivation denial. Foley (1998) showed that the high level of the perceived glass ceiling was inversely proportional to promotion expectations, organisational commitment, and satisfaction with the job held, while fairness perception reverses the sentiment. At the same time, the leaving intention was found to increase, given the understanding of promotion restriction (Balfour and Mujtaba 2009, p.8). While N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq (2021, p.2) surprisingly omitted satisfaction in the discussion of the effects of gender prejudices in promotion opportunities, the researcher also pointed to commitment and added loyalty and efficiency. It is unclear whether the study puts an equation mark between

efficiency and performance though. The following study is rather a mix of the extrinsic reward deficit consequential account from the two studies, which, however, did not sum up all the outcomes from the aforementioned studies. In their study on different forms of gender workplace discrimination, promotion denial included, Channar et al. (2011) showed the effect of a lack of rewards or their denial, although doing so indirectly, with it being suggested that workplace gender discrimination influence female labour job satisfaction, performance, and commitment negatively, enhancing departure intentions (cited in S.K. Jha and S. Jha 2022). The workplace effects, however, the researchers cited as they would homogeneous consequences without undertaking to establish causative consecutive links between them, including on satisfaction and commitment likely influencing performance. In other words, the study failed to highlight dependent and independent variables to show a cascade of effects, each triggering another one and one being ontological, which is discrimination, including in the reward compartment. Kim (2015), in turn, pointed to the mental, physical, and emotional draining of female employees over gender-based discrimination (cited in S.K. Jha and S. Jha 2022), while N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq (2021, p.2) generalised the effect, referring to it as stress, yet the researcher was not specific as regards the degree of stress, which could be experienced by a female employee as a result of the denial of promotion, or its duration, nor were stress determinants highlighted, although they can have been.

On the other hand, researcher also tend to show the positive effects of motivation directly. Prased and Gulshan (2011, p.349) showed that stroking, one of the motivation approaches, made for satisfaction. Different examples of stroking were cited that can lead to this outcome, including “your contribution is appreciable,” “we are glad you all have worked as a team,” “you have done a good job.” Stroking was said to be a good way to encourage a certain action or conduct pattern. Khandagale and Kamble (2022, p.57) also reported job satisfaction as one of the motivation results, although no specific approach to motivating was

associated with the benefit. While satisfied employees should demonstrate a measure of work enthusiasm, which is an acknowledged outcome of motivation. Khandagale and Kamble (2022, p.57) indicated that the major goal of motivation was to create conditions, in which people are willing to work with enthusiasm, interest, initiative, and zeal.

This workplace rigor seems related to commitment to the organisation, which is also a product of motivation as Project Management Institute (2008) associated the level of motivation with the commitment of the project team, which was shown as being prerequisite to the general success of organisation project (cited in Yusoff, Kian, Idris 2013, p.18). This outcome resembles the achievement of organisational goals associated with motivation and cited by Khandagale and Kamble (2022, p.57) as one of its benefits. Commitment means there should be faith in management, and there is such owing to motivation. Prased and Gulshan (2011, p.349) affirmed that motivation, such as a stroking, could be instrumental in generating an atmosphere where faith in management is developed. Still, this outcome was conditioned by the systematic and consistent nature of rewarding (Prased and Gulshan 2011, p.349).

Commitment as enthusiasm for an employer is likely to come accompanied by engagement or enthusiasm for a job, since it is by the management that a good job is provided. If there is commitment, there should be expected to be engagement, which it associated with motivation. Engidaw (2021) affirmed a positive connection between motivation, whether extrinsic or otherwise, and employee engagement. Engagement as enthusiasm for a job has much to offer to an employer. Khan (2022) explained engagement as the creation of the work culture and environment to enhance talents to be more committed to company values and goals. Engagement was linked to better quality, higher sales, improved revenue, better customer and work relations, better customer service, the transformation of customers into brand advocates, higher talent loyalty, happiness, and satisfaction, a decrease in absenteeism and personnel turnover, an increase in productivity, a higher stock price, and a better work culture.

While committed and engaged, employees cannot but put on a great performance, and it is associated directly with motivation. McConnell (2018, p.219) showed that motivation could influence performance, especially if it is achieved not only via external stimuli, such as pay, with the expression of appreciation important. The researcher is not alone in tracing this organisational effect. Yusoff, Kian, Idris (2013, p.18) defined motivation as one of the most essential factors in influencing performance and human conduct, and it would have been rational for the researchers to highlight the causative-consecutive relationship between the two variables as human conduct should be expected to determine the quality of performance as such that is stimulated. Abbas and Nawaz (2019, p.87) showed that motivation resulted in both employee and organisational performance. It is only logical that motivated employees were described as being employees more predisposed to generate teamwork spirit in the respective settings. By comparison, Manzoor, Wei, and Asif (2021) pointed to the consensus that employee motivation was key to the enhancement of not only performance but also productivity. Tehseen and Hadi (2015) pointed to the spatial unevenness of motivation effect, since employees in developing states, such as Pakistan, are more predisposed to perform when recognised by the management (cited in Manzoor, Wei, and Asif 2021), by which motivation seems implied. Studies with a different geography identified the same effect, including Aderibigbe (2017), who found a considerable positive correlation between productivity and labour motivation. The higher level of the effect was observed in the banking sector. The link was conditioned though, with it being suggested that the personal needs of workers must be taken into account when motivation is applied so that each worker may be able to focus on work, doing his or her utmost to ensure organisation outputs. In the study targeting National Alcohol and Liquor Factory in Ethiopia, Weldeyohannes (2015, p.163) also linked motivation to productivity, also warning that poor motivation caused employees to assume unwanted types of conduct, such as carelessness and absenteeism, which results into low productivity.

If performing well, employees get to polish their skills and acquire new ones, and this development is down to motivation, as is acknowledged. Khandagale and Kamble (2022, p.57) considered motivation utility in association with employee growth and the better use of human and non-human resources, and stimulation are also among motivation goals, although the apparent benefit of human use optimization as a result of employee growth or human capital improvement was not highlighted. Labour growth seems akin to the optimization of skills. J.E. Roueche and S.D. Roueche (2000, p.28) affirmed that development and growth opportunities allowed employees to widen and improve their abilities, skills, and knowledge. A. Khalid, Rahim, and S. Khalid (2021, p.204) similarly showed that motivation could aim at the improvement of skills rather than just punishment for unacceptable conduct prevention, noting that reinforcement could get individuals disciplined with an eye to cultivating certain skills and ply them with new directions and innovative ideas. While the context of the claim is educational, workplace settings could be fitting as well, given the relevance of expertise optimization in the case of employees. The same is true of Weldeyohannes (2015, p.163) showed that organisations were eager to stimulate employees to expand their skills in a move that allows investing in their future assets, thereby showing that motivation was essential for the acquisition of the skills and quality labour cultivation. Employees themselves recognise the utility of motivation as skill optimization or self-actualization tools. Sokro (2012, p.114) found that 78% of respondents agreed or fully agreed with the belief that high motivational level could unlock a full potential of employees.

Motivation is not only about rewarding or reinforcing as it is of much use as a penal tool of disciplining, from which an organisation still stands to gain. Khanka (2007, p.255) showed that the motivational tool of discipline could follow the display of misbehaviour in the shape of minor infractions, such as actions inflicting little-to-no harm, including negligence, salary garnishment, and carelessness, major infractions, such as actions doing damage to morale,

refusal to implement orders, theft, lying, and cheating, and intolerable offences that are illicit and drastic in nature, including smoking at the place where combustibles and inflammables are stored, fighting, hard drug use on the job, and the threat to use weapons. Discipline can benefit organisations in many ways. In the study of 148 respondents of PT. Dada Indonesia, Mangkunegara and Octorend (2015, p.318) indicated that discipline, job satisfaction, and motivation all influenced organisation commitment positively. The three preconditions of commitment seem homogeneous, although motivation in itself can be a product of discipline and its penal tool rather than an individual variable, which makes for commitment. Discipline can boost performance, along with company revenue, as was further suggested. Nelson, Chiamaka, and Collins (2019, p.2216) echoed back much of this understanding by associating organisational performance determined by labour input with organisational productivity, profitability, stability, and growth. Sulila (2019) also associated discipline with organisational growth, albeit directly without introducing organisational performance as a possible transitional factor, since employees were said to succeed in completing work in groups and individually. Discipline, it was further suggested, was of use in educating employees to comply with policies, procedures, and rules, which makes for performance.

### ***2.6. The Identification of Attitude Toward Work***

Given the positive effects of motivation on labour and organisations, employers need to apply the effective methods of measuring the extent to which employees are motivated. Selly (2012, p.212) showed that organisations can do so little as hold a meeting, in which personnel can air concerns. The Corporate board (2000, p.15) stated that employees could use an email for reporting. Still, the method of sharing feedback was doubted due to reasonable fear of expressing something controversial, as were hotlines also offered with scepticism due to it being possible that a voice is recognized. Suggestion boxes were also suggested as alternatives (The Corporate board 2000, p.15). Selly (2012, p.212) made a similar recommendation, noting

that organisations could create an anonymous comment box so that employees may write down their frustrations. It is not clear if managers welcome suggestions in the box as much they do comments as regards day-to-day developments, which may be implied.

Selly (2012, p.212) showed that personnel members could be provided with a questionnaire for them to cite any confusion or concerns. McKay (2007, p.399) was more specific, pointing to there being two methods to elicit labour input, such as qualitative and quantitative, the latter involving a survey or questionnaire administered by electronic forms or pencil and paper. When qualitative, the method comes in the shape of in-person interviewing, be it in small group meetings or one-on-one formats. There are said to be hybrid methods designed to collect qualitative and quantitative data. Heery and Noon (2017) provided insight into how the tool is used. As it is, an anonymous self-completion questionnaire, which asks subordinates to assess the different aspects of the organisation on the scales of satisfaction, is applied. The questionnaire may also contain some open-ended questions when interviewees are encouraged to provide their comments. Questionnaire data are scrutinised to generate an overall profile of attitudes among the labour. If interviewees are asked to supply the details of their service length, age, department, and their job, attitude profiles for organisation subgroups can be generated (Heery and Noon 2017).

Heery and Noon (2017) reported the use of satisfaction or attitude surveys by management to evaluate the morale, satisfaction, and stance of the personnel. P.P. Phillips and J.J. Phillips (2012, p.43), who also explained that questionnaires could be applied to receive all manner of subjective information on the sentiments of employees and who described them as being convenient for exploring the origin of issues, did not use the morale concept. Instead, it was suggested that attitude surveys gauged employee engagement and organisational commitment, in addition to job satisfaction. P.P. Phillips and J.J. Phillips (2012, p.43) cited an example the better to visualise the potential of a questionnaire, which features an office product

company concerned about a deficit of market share and sales growth. The sales team had a questionnaire sent to them, which inquired about their stance on the outlook for the year to follow, challenges faced by the organisation, competition strength, current customer loyalty level, and factors obstructing the growth of sales. What the questionnaire also did was encourage employees to provide certain suggestions for the improvement of the market share, customer loyalty, and sales. What the source regarded as a powerful questionnaire was claimed to have provided a great deal of insight into the causes of market share and sales growth struggles (P.P. Phillips and J.J. Phillips 2012, p.43), which could be motivation, although the source was none too specific in this regard. The example is much to do with motivation, since poor performance making its presence seen in the respective figures is an outcome of poorly motivated personnel.

As is the case with meetings and the use of emails and hotlines, surveys are not irreproachable. P.P. Phillips and J.J. Phillips (2012, p.43) acknowledged that attitude precise measurement was unfeasible due to the input not representing the genuine sentiments of an interviewee. As sensible as it is, the claim is accurate, provided the manner of survey and the personalization of the input leave the identity of an employee visible; otherwise, there is no use distorting actual sentiments, and this admission the researchers should have made. Moreover, attitudes were said to change with the passage of time, and a follow-up recommendation was made of continuous assessment being performed to spot attitudinal changes. Survey flaws can also be otherwise addressed as Selly (2012, p.212) recommended to allow employees time and space to give vent to their concerns if they are being worried and if they feel time pressures. Still, what the researcher should have recommended was the observation of the confidentiality principle.



### **3. Methodology**

#### ***3.1. Methods***

The study utilized a range of research methods, including literature review involving the synthesis of secondary literature findings as well as analysis. At the centre of the study is the quantitative method of research applied to get insight into the stance of respondents on motivation utility and related aspects. To do so, the method of questionnaire was used, involving close-ended questions. Composed of 110 respondents, the sample is diverse, as follows from the age composition, with respondents aged 18-29, 30-44, 45-60, and 60-plus responsible for 20%, 45%, 20%, and 15% of the sample. Gender-wise, female respondents are in the majority, representing 70% of the sample relative to 30% of the male segment. When it comes to income, those earning \$25,000-50,000 per year constitute the biggest share of study participants accountable for 25%. Lower-salaried respondents earning up to \$10,000 and between \$10,000 and \$25,000 make up rather small shares of the sample equivalent to 3,75% and 10%, respectively. As for the location of sample members, they are based in the US, the biggest share (25,64%) originating from South Atlantic. Significant are also shares represented by East North Central and Middle Atlantic, which are equivalent to 15,38% and 14,10%, respectively.

#### ***3.2 Ethicality***

The study complies with ethical norms due to its primary nature. No name details were collected from respondents, while the supply of general details, such as age, gender, location, and income, for the assembly of the sample profile was optional. The input was transformed into general patterns. Secondary data also required the observation of ethical norms. Therefore, the information cited was supplied with in-text citations containing an author's last name, a publication date, and a page number. The background of researchers would be verified and checked to ensure information accuracy and quality, to which end the study also prioritised

academic sources. The information transferred was also double-checked to avoid any irregularities. The study also aimed at finding mistakes in the secondary literature to avoid their repetition, to draw attention to such, and to correct them.

## **4. Findings & Discussion**

### ***4.1. Motivation***

Motivation is the readiness to comply with standards rather than just work, although working is one of the standards, in all likelihood. It seems that standards imply quality, commitment, creativity rather than the mechanical process of task completion. Motivation involving psychological processes is voluntary, which is not surprising as work enjoyment creates an urge to persist in the occupation, while its monetary remuneration puts employees in a position to meet their needs that make them discover motivation to keep securing the resources. This is in line with the drive reduction theory focusing on the biological needs, Maslow and Herzberg theories of motivation, and the instinct theory of motivation as the motivation to perform seems a pre-programmed conduct integral to survival as such that ensures the means thereof, such as money and work. Still, it would be rational to consider motivation externally driven as environmental factors can come into play to trigger the arousal and enthusiasm, which is not only intrinsic, and it makes sense, since natural urges can be blunted by burnout and the saturation of the financial capability, which requires other ways to enhance workplace enthusiasm. The acquired needs theory of McClelland is also prudent, since social settings create behavioural patterns that are understood to be rewarding in some ways, which prompts their replication via the pursuit of rewards motivating performance as a way to secure them. The theory seems to come in tandem with the social learning theory as behaviour is adopted. For it to be learned and voluntary rather than automatic makes motivation the tools of instrumental or operant conditioning. Reinforcement theory shows how human volition to secure a motivating reward is triggered. A positive outcome drives the conduct desired.

Motivation is not all about rewarding as negative outcomes can stimulate behaviour change as well, as shown by the carrot and stick motivation theory. Penalization may follow a decline in conduct when motivational approaches enabling employees to meet their needs have

exhausted their utility as talents become keen on further needs. By creating conditions that contribute to the satisfaction of other needs, an organisation can reinforce behaviour without having to punish an employee though, which can be counterproductive, especially if a penalty cannot be targeted, affecting the staff. If reinforcing encouraging conditions are removed, they are removed for all employees, bar none, including those who perform well and whose conduct does not merit the penal measure. Thus will the evocative effect of reinforcing employees' productive performance lack an abative effect due to its impact on wide personnel with contrasting performance patterns, in which case the removal of positive conditions can leave well-performing talents disillusioned and disheartened, further complicating general productivity that can be hampered by a priori dangerous penal measures.

#### ***4.2. Motivation Mechanisms***

Motivational typologies are plenty, and one of the chief differentiation factors is the source of behaviour stimulation that be external, which puts the respective incentives in the extrinsic category, while internal motivational forces of an individual are intrinsic. Still, the environmental source of intrinsic rewards cannot be excluded, since the pleasure that comes with task completion can be learnt as a result of exposure to an activity and its positive outcome on others, which an observer is eager to replicate. Once internalized, this interest emerges internally without being motivated by outside stimuli. As opposed to extrinsic stimuli that can be tangible or such that have a physical form and intangible or abstract in nature, intrinsic ones can be intangible only. Another interesting point is that intrinsic rewards could have an extrinsic motivational essence when satisfaction from skills, for example, results in a financial stimulus, in which case the extrinsic reward can be but an unsought, albeit provided incentive. Without a doubt, the two types of rewards can be coexistent – that is, they are not mutually exclusive. Unaware of the intrinsic nature of job motivation, an employer can provide a financial bonus, which he or she may not have provided, achieving the same performance result

if financial stimulation leaves an employee indifferent, with intrinsic satisfaction getting the talent pleased.

An organisation can provide intrinsic rewards as much as it does extrinsic ones, yet the immediacy of the rewarding benefit seems contrasting. While extrinsic rewards bear direct incentivization value, intrinsic ones involve the provision of what does not have the direct stimulation power, such as work-related tasks that make for intrinsic motivational gains, such as expertise boost or the feeling of achievement that comes with task completion. Tasks are not bound to be completed with the result that expertise is enhanced or that the feeling of achievement is secured. Much depends on how these tasks are completed and, more importantly, who gets them done. The career vision of an employee and personality characteristics apparently determine if an individual puts much efforts into task completion and whether he or she derives enjoyment from the results of diligent performance. Put otherwise, the intrinsic value of workplace factors is not to be unlocked by every employee. Furthermore, it seems that some extrinsic rewards cannot be organisation-generated, such as the respect of employees that should emanate from employees, although managers and supervisors can cultivate this conduct, distribute rewards meritocratically so that granting a promotion would elicit respect rather than frustration on the part of others, or recruit talents scoring high on emotional intelligence allowing them to manage emotions in a way, which would ease their stress, and empathise with co-workers.

Extrinsic incentives can be contrasting, some rewarding and others penalizing. Rewards are positive discipline types, since they encourage and evoke a voluntary response, while penalties make employees observe norms and behave accordingly, which is negative discipline. When it comes to the mechanism of an incentive, a reward or punishment are given value, effectiveness, or relevance by motivating events of an employee's design that should be expected to prompt a manager or a supervisor to apply any of the two measures based on the

nature of the event, its impact on the organisation, its goals, and performance, and the perceived relevance of the human asset and recipient of the measure, it seems. If important for the organisation and its goals and if holding a critical position of a negotiator or project manager, a talent needs incentivizing, and gross underperformance of such critical assets must be dealt with, and that shortly. As for events meriting a penal response on the part of superiors, when an employee is caught shirking work, for example, which is a motivating establishing operation forcing the hand of the manager, the superior finds himself driven to use punishment or an implicit threat thereof, be it suspension or pay reduction, so as to bring the employee to his or her senses and get one performing better. This positive effect of punishment marks a conduct-changing or abative effect when toxic conduct is minimised or fully addressed. When once performance improves while encouraged by the penal measure and its attitude-changing effects, whether explicit or otherwise, the punishment can be withdrawn as no longer necessary, which implies a motivating abolishing operation when the functional value or utility of the penal measure abates. Hence, the performance-related motivation of punishment can prove temporary, and the motivation adjustment effect is conditioned by the period of stimulant presence. It is likely the punishment that makes the motivation temporary by urging the human source of the event to reconsider professional conduct to discontinue the punitive measure. Still, abolishing operations means the effectiveness of punishment utility is reduced, which can cause a relapse into misconduct by an employee when this conduct is enhanced, which is an evocative effect. While the application of a penalty may have provided the first-hand, practical experience for an employee never to re-adopt the behaviour serving as a motivating operation for a penal measure, there can be no guaranteeing that a motivating operation does not resurface necessitating the re-imposition of penal measures or their contextual diversification, which is likely, for the previous measure did not work as well as it should have by suppressing misconduct recurrence.

Much the same is true of reinforcement when the stimulant value of a financial reward, for example, is reinforced by a motivating operation, such as relative performance decline or a company's pursuit of a lofty revenue goal. The evocative effect can be replaced by an abative one in the wake of incentive withdrawal or an abolishing operation. The company may not be well-placed to keep subsidizing the staff without incurring excessive expenses, although it may not need to, with a financial result achieved and investors or bidders drawn. It is not that it will be alien to securing a greater income; it is just that it will cease being imperative at some point. Employees are not bound to leave performing well, sure that such performance does fetch bonuses – that is, this expectant quality performance may not be affected by the incentive withdrawal event. It is impossible to exclude that the same motivation operation, such as employee underperformance, does not lead a manager to resort to a measure that is about either reinforcement or punishment. Still, if it is to address some performance struggles, rewards should be expected to be conditioned; else, the employee is unlikely to alter the conduct, although rewarded, since the talent will not see the current conduct as an issue that precludes him or her from securing the reward. Besides, other employees may feel discouraged after seeing a peer rewarded despite him or her having performed poorly. The application of a reward should be personalised or treated on a case-by-case basis, being quite situational, and the effectiveness of its behaviour adjustment seems contingent on the accurate application to an employee based on a multitude of factors, not the least of which is the talent's response to previous incentives as some incentives may not be compatible with certain employees and their preferential value hierarchy, with the causes of performance change also important that necessitate the use of a stimulant measure by a manager to adjust a performance behaviour.

In the workplace context, the value-changing effect seems conditioned or acquired rather than being innate, since the behaviour adjustment effect is an outcome of an employee's developed comprehension of the risks to be persisting in poor performance based on precedents

of termination at work and the awareness of the labour market situation, which can be adverse or otherwise. It is unlikely that the fear of job forfeiture is a product of instinctive impulses to change the conduct, since there is no existential implication of such a fear as the loss of job, which is not as direct as fears triggered by pain, predators, altitude, or fast-moving object that are threatening stimuli. The work-related fears are mentally disassociated from an immediate threat to the existence of employees. Hence, the value of work-related punishment does not acquire its effect unless in the workplace context that gives the penal convincing essence of the measure its value following the placement of the individual in the position.

What researchers may have overlooked is that an adverse behavioural factor giving reinforcement or punishment its situational value as a motivating operation is not the only factor making either of the two measures relevant. It is receptiveness to the measures that does too, and an individual may have contrasting reinforcement preferences, which determines its value. Different can also be the stance on the fairness of measure application. If unjust, punishment may lay an employee frustrated rather than getting him or her to change the conduct, which may require no change; otherwise, there would be no unfairness perception. Responsibility for poor organisation performance may be individual rather than collective, and it may relate to individuals other than punishment recipients. Hence, frustration can be legitimate and detrimental for morale, rendering poor performance even more pervasive than before.

Both reinforcement and punishment can be positive and negative, which refers to the addition or removal of the respective stimulus. Reinforced should be positive conduct; otherwise, there would be no use rewarding subpar or destructive performance, which would send a deceptional message of behavioural tolerance and contribute to its persistence. If an organisation stimulates the conduct, it is keen on seeing more of the same. Therefore, positive reinforcement can come in the shape of a bonus, a pay rise, or a promotion. Overall, stimuli



come in all shapes and size, ranging from financial ones to edible, auditory, and sensory. While edible stimuli can be rewarding and occasional, coming in response to positive conduct that earns them, auditory ones seem routine and environmental, to which everyone is exposed in equal measure, or which are not unlocked by an exclusive privilege granted by the observance of professional behaviour norms on the part of an employee. The major dilemma is to assign these reinforcing incentives, it seems, matching the expectations of an employee with what the reward has to offer. Managers need to account for the factor of age and gender, since men are unlikely to content themselves with a praise or a candygram, especially while young, due to the pressure of the breadwinning imperative and the much worse financial position relative to older employees with a much better monetary safety or security and financial restraint or thrift. Stroking can be a liability, particularly in relation to specific cultural contexts or even upbringing. Far from establishing an emotional connection or boosting the enthusiasm of employees, the breach of personal space can drive a wedge in the relations between the manager and the incentive recipient.

Such a reinforcing incentive as feedback, however, should be more universal, making for the psychic income of employees who come to know themselves to be appreciated. Still, it would be fair to expand the benefit of incentives to all stimuli, since there is an implication of an employee being appreciated in whatever reward, be it a bonus or promotion. Positive feedback, however, is more direct, and it is vital as a source of emotional well-being and performance. If employees work unaware of their standing in the eyes of the organisation, their performance may move along the wrong trajectory. Uncertain, some are being anxious as to their perception by superiors, if not paranoid, such that they can drive themselves exhausted. An employee can wear him- or herself out, not receiving feedback from managers, which they may perceive as their not being impressed, which is fraught with burnout and productivity degradation. Still, feedback can backfire on managers as a cheaper surrogate of a financial

stimulus, in which case it can be frustration for employees who know themselves to have earned a tangible, extrinsic reward. Apparently, feedback can be negative when it is about adjusting an employee's professional or performance behaviour rather than punishing the talent via condemnation or public humiliation. The combination of moderate criticism and constructive guidance seem key to negative or critical feedback. At least so an employer must do if the company is to motivate an employee.

Aside from positive, there is negative reinforcement, which seems to consist in the removal of what obstructs positive employee performance. Organisations can remove bureaucratic formalities to fast-track work on a project, or they can take away excessive workload to encourage commitment and output, since an employee cannot put up great performance when burdened. A less conventional example could be for a toxic employee to be fired who would often bully others, thereby damping their workplace enthusiasm and increasing absenteeism frequency. The method's utility notwithstanding, it depends on what is due for removal, since some people may thrive in formalistic or red tape workplace settings; hence, their removal can hurt, while others, such as flexible liberals, may get a breather. Thus, negative reinforcement factors can have contrasting effects on employees, which makes it important for managers to tread carefully and make negative reinforcement decisions, having found the preferential performance conditions of subordinates, among other things. In addition, the mixture of reinforcement types can be a positive effect booster formula, and they will not be mutually exclusive as both encourage positive conduct.

Reinforcement is similarly positive and negative, the latter subdividing into extinction and punishment. Extinction is akin to ignorance when a lack of interest shows subordinates that they had better refrain from a habit. This top-down method is a polite way to suppress undesired conduct instead of a direct snub, which would damage relations between an employee and a manager, affecting the implementation of guidelines and the output. If outright

negative, the conduct would invite more radical suppressive methods discouraging it. Positive punishment can be administered via the addition of a penal measure. In punishment, added is whatever seems to minimise the convenience and pleasure of certain experience or block some activities that evoke positive emotions and ensure pleasing experience. Removed is also what is responsible for positive emotions or experience. This negative development is what makes an employee change the behaviour in a move that can restore the status quo. The positive measure can come in the shape of extra work provision. Still, there is a risk of work being sabotaged or performed poorly, since the behaviour is a priori counterproductive. Negative punishment is to be observed when an employee has privileges and add-on bonuses removed. This punishment can work even if at the theoretical level. The employee can be given to understand that he can be demoted, and conduct can be moderated even before the punishment being activated, in which case the risk of its implementation triggers the behavioural change. The method can be more effective while a threat or possibility, for radical measures can get an employee more than hurt, triggering meltdown, which is fraught with productivity decline not needed when a manager needs an employee productive. A shakeup is needed without a talent being professionally demolished. The prospect of punishment activation uses fear as an attitude-adjusting trigger rather than anger, which would allow no sublimation and performance improvement, with sabotage possible.

Unlike other approaches, such as punishment, extinction, and rewarding, the user of the avoidance approach encoded in the concept is an employee who avoids consequences by modifying conduct rather than an employer who ignores an employee, metes out a penalty, or grants a reward, as is the case with other motivation methods. This is not all there is to avoidance method implications. At the centre of the avoidance concept is a consequence, such as undesirable behaviour avoidance, while other motivation approaches, such as reward and punishment, imply the methodology of motivation primarily. Here emerges a possible

cognitive dilemma. The problem with the approach is that the vaguely defined mechanism inciting the avoidance conduct can be penal as a way to get an employee to avoid an undesired conduct, which makes it akin to negative reinforcement and its penalty subdivision. If so, there is a conceptual crossover or overlap between avoidance and negative reinforcement. Still, to use punishment in lieu of avoidance would lead to other approaches to avoidance conduct cultivation being overlooked in the sense that eliciting the avoidance response of an employee is not only about using the hardcore method of penalization. A reproach or a more lenient method of conviction can contribute to the adoption of the avoidant conduct as less radical motivational mechanisms. Hence, avoidance is rather a complex type of motivation, which could contain punishment as a legitimate subtype, since its goal is to drive an employee to relinquish the undesired behaviour, which otherwise implies its avoidance. Overall, researchers seem to have misplaced the avoidance method in the category of triggers or factors that motivate a behavioural change, whether it be via their appeal or deterrent, penal value, since it is an outcome or product of motivation. When it comes to its nature, avoidance stems from punishment rather than reinforcement that increases the frequency or intensity of conduct, while avoided is conduct that invites punishment instead of reinforcement.

### ***4.3. Incentivisation Factors***

#### ***Culture***

A culture seems to determine whether a member, who belongs thereto, is in need of motivating. If a collectivist culture member, he or she may not need incentivizing to accept challenging guidelines without losing motivation, unlike an employee from a Western culture who will likely struggle to make a sacrifice for the sake of the company, for example, unless for a good bounty. At the same time, that a culture member can dispense with situational or contextual incentives, some seem important at all times, since Eastern cultures need there to be an emotional connection. Therefore, physical contact, physical gestures, and related stimulants

can signal emotional receptiveness of managers and build an impression of a connection. Furthermore, a culture determines whether a certain type of an incentive is an imperative. For example, Eastern cultures that score higher on power distance can provide employers with some breathing room, since they will respond to the distribution of the promotion incentive in a way that will not vent their frustration and render the microclimate toxic, neither should their performance decline, affecting organisational goals. A culture also regulates whether certain performance or workplace behaviour can be motivated. There is no point in throwing much of the monetary resources into creativity stimulation among collectivist or Eastern culture members, and the failure to elicit a creative performance response is down to a lesser inclination of these talents toward being creative rather than the inadequacy of an incentive or its preferential incompatibility with a recipient of a stimuli. It may be that outside-of-the-box solutions should be expected from teams rather than individuals, which should subdue fears of expression and motivate such talents better than conventional incentives. Even so, even if in a team, these talents turn out less creative.

Non-incentives also determine motivation, and culture must be factored in, since the preferred format of performance is culture-specific. When put outside a team, employees from Eastern cultures may feel insecure, as opposed to individualists who are self-reliant and predisposed toward independent performance. Conversely, individual culture representatives may feel somewhat stressed, having to work in a team, which can make it essential to incentivize the talent in the context. The managerial factor and the environment superiors create matter too. For example, Eastern culture members will struggle in competitive masculine cultures where Darwinian ways dominate, and the fittest survive. Since career ambitions are emphasized in such cultures, Eastern employees are less likely to be stimulated by promotions. Overall, a manager should make allowance for the background of each employee rather than necessarily an ethnic composition, since social settings and the country of residents may lead

to mainstream cultural values being internalised. While it may be as good as good impossible to match a manager with employees who would have the same cultural background to ensure their commitment, engagement, and motivation, since an effective specialist may be prioritized, the compatibility factor is worth considering.

### ***The Gender Factor***

The presence of women in executive and managerial positions may show the value of extrinsic rewards as stimulant tools, by conventional logic. When eager to accept the reward, a female employee rises through the ranks. Plenty of data sets from different studies show as though women did not fancy the reward. Data from 1998 showed that only 0,2% female talents received higher positions (Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq 2021). As of 2009, the number of women in such positions jumped to 13% (Balfour and Mujtaba 2009), which virtually implies there to be a 77% gap between the genders when it comes to promotion distribution. One of the studies provided evidence of only a 14% gap in 2020, which differs markedly (S.K. Jha and S. Jha 2022), even as compared with the finding by Profeta (2017) when the gap in Iceland boards was equal to about 55%. Despite some conflicting evidence, there is some increase in women's willingness to take on higher positions and, subsequently, the motivation power of promotions. It seems to rise by an average of 1%. At least, such was the rise trend at the conclusion of the 1990s and the first decade of the new millennium if more moderate figures are to be trusted.

The index of the share of women in the executive position or within a higher hierarchical echelon of an organisation cannot be a reliable index as such, since not all the female workers, who eager to secure a promotion, succeed in doing so, and some may try to have a promotion awarded never to succeed due to a lack of capability or systematic, methodical discrimination. While only some secure it, others can keep being motivated by the incentive until gaining such, if at all. Since they do not know if they succeed, they will continue

their quest for the reward. While many a woman desires a promotion, they secure too few promotions relative to men despite there not being much of a gap in the labour force and despite no evidence of their inferiority being found that would make women less capable, promising, or deserving of promotion.

The data could indicate a genuine lack of interest in promotion among female employees. The achievement value of extrinsic rewards, such as promotion, has psychological underpinnings. Achievement importance can be traceable to the socially defined function reserved for men as a result of role distribution, which assigns the breadwinning function to men that serves as a defining manhood characteristic instrumental in the ability of men to assert their nature and identity. It is a proving tool and a social expectation, which seems to be putting pressure on men. A lack of achievement in the social context can be perceived as a weakness, inflicting reputational damage on men showing them as having failed at their major function and missed out on the ability to prove themselves male. Men seemingly prioritise the job characteristics that can earn them a reward, be it pay elevation or a promotion, including the ability to use initiative, which facilitates creative efforts when a man can differentiate himself from the rest or stand out in a move that can get the management to offer a promotion or another extrinsic reward.

Fewer social expectations putting burden on men do not seem to make women to compress their portfolio of goals. If having a greater number of life goals, women need more time to bring them to fruition, while promotion can be associated with extra duties and responsibility compensated via a higher pay, or they have clear understanding that securing a promotion is about sacrificing time, which is required for life goals. If keener on promotion and financial rewards, women could be less apprehensive about the negative connotations of such incentives – that is, they would seem more justified, given the importance of higher positions and better remuneration. As a matter of fact, women may be after job aesthetics,

appreciating its pleasure outcome, while men can be more pragmatic, preferring the financial aspect in the first place, which comes with promotion to a greater degree. As a result, men limit their goals, prioritizing those, which will relieve the pressure and which are financial in nature. By comparison, at the time of goal planning, women may not be mentally adjusted to the breadwinning imperative, having witnessed the role being performed by males in her social settings; hence, they set plenty of targets to achieve. A non-interest in power, which can explain the decision not to pursue extrinsic rewards like promotion, can be an outcome of the discouraging effect of social scepticism, a fear of obstacles and mentally painful disillusionment, and a lack of the genetically transmitted power impulse, which can be more inherent in men. Hence, extrinsic rewards are of lesser value to women.

Still, it is unclear why women in the study by Gino, Wilmoth, and Brooks (2015) regard extrinsic rewards as achievable, since much evidence speaks volumes for discrimination, which will often lead female workers to seek litigation. Apparently, such is a view of women who do not aim at rewards, such as promotion. If so, they are not in contention for them; hence, they do not suffer setbacks in the respective pursuit, which likely makes them think rewards achievable. If they did go to great lengths to achieve the reward without succeeding in doing so recurrently, they would likely mull over discrimination. Such female respondents can be said to have had no sobering experience, which would present unfiltered reality, of which they may have no knowledge, although it is questionable that they do not know women discriminated against from media and research. It can be that female respondents overestimate their potential as too great for their chances to secure extrinsic rewards to be dashed against the harsh reality of gender-based discrimination. Overconfidence probably should not be mistaken for the verbal manifesto when women declare themselves capable, thereby countering sceptics, especially those doubting their equal intellect and skills, which can fetch them an extrinsic reward, such as a promotion or a financial bonus. The sample cannot be crowded with



overconfident female employees; hence, extra factors, such as a lack of reward denial experience or self-esteem piqued by the biased misrepresentation of women's potential and talent, are likely to have contributed to this way of thinking. Still, Gino, Wilmut, and Brooks (2015) did not show a drastic difference between the genders to label women as indifferent in terms of extrinsic rewards, such as promotion. It is just that fewer women are interested, which weakens the stimulation or motivational utility of the reward in relation to the female gender, albeit slightly. Without a doubt, the findings do not rationalise the huge cross-gender gap in the top company positions as a greater lack of interest in female employees, which is slim or negligent.

The rejection of promotion by women or its less intense pursuit may not be voluntary. A society is the place where an individual is subject to socialization and absorption of values and behavioural norms. Since traditional gender values and conduct patterns still circulate despite it not being a Victorian age now, women are exposed to such, which they can imbibe, or they can have them foisted upon by parents or male partners. When women accept childbearing and upbringing, it may not be clear though if their decision is a product of values or a natural impulse or desire to commit themselves to children. It is either that women eagerly accept the role of a hearth keeper, to put it metaphorically, out of love toward children or the appreciation of the family-based roles as acceptable or that men do, leaving women no option other than to resign to performing the household role or combining multi-context tasks while at home and at work. Not all women earn enough to relieve themselves of the household chores by recruiting a maid and a babysitter.

Men can be of no help at home, which implies the asymmetry of duties when work obligations are burdened by family tasks, which prevents women from excelling in their role and making themselves seen excelling. It would be fair to predict that this factor is more at work in patriarchal and conservative societies or communities, which have been impervious to

emancipation and egalitarian values oozed by the West. Far from helping, men can contribute to the decision for a female partner to pull out of the race for a reward as a result of a work-related conflict. While the conflict factor is not fully clear, it can imply a man censuring the female partner for the failure to attend to home duties or the fact that the partner takes on the job, which can trigger cognitive dissonance between a conventional, stereotypical occupational archetype smacking of outright chauvinism and the reality, which can chagrin male self-esteem revolving around male superiority.

Men can conflict with female partners, not wanting to perform their duties if they commit themselves to work. Data already show the household participation reluctance of male partners who complete only 20%-40% of and child- and eldercare in the family based on the data from Luceno (2006). That this post-work duties and tasks fall on the women's shoulders is traceable in their cumulative impact on female employees' workplace capability. Pew Research Center (2013), who offered the most valuable insight into why rewards can be sought-after in the male cluster much more, showed that 35% more women report the difficulty to perform while having underage children; 14% more women cut their work hours; 17% more quite their job; 3% more women discard a promotion. Apparently, even if interested in rewards, which they may be, women cannot perform in a way, which would encourage the provision of such incentives. If performance is wanting, there is nothing to reward. Women seem to think realistic, understanding that it makes no sense to be aiming at a promotion only to struggle to perform at a requisite level after. They may be preoccupied with a rhetorical question of why undercut the chance to secure the reward in the future, given better timing when they are better placed to handle the pressure on home and workplace fronts, or the question of what good it is risking a place in the company to get a promotion, to which they will not be able to cling, since letting down the management a great deal can cost an employer much and encourage him to put the underperforming employee was promoted out of job. Women can be held back by

understanding that they will be in no position to cling on to a senior position while pregnant or following childbirth over the hiatus from work. Being too important that they are, managerial or other senior positions will not be kept frozen pending the return of female executives from their intermission.

Still, it would be essential to differentiate between extrinsic rewards, since women can be expected to step up efforts to gain financial rewards, especially if preparing for an exit from work and uncertainty over the resumption of a career. Given this accumulation of funds, financial bonuses and a pay increase should be welcome. Some women can even be found aiming at a senior position. To diversify their curriculum vitae, to increase their recurrent employment, and to expedite the accumulation of funds before childbirth is what a woman is likely to seek when aiming at a senior position, which implies receptiveness to all manner of extrinsic rewards, promotion included. With more money available, women can afford a babysitter to return to the office work, being temporarily replaced by an interim or incumbent executive, which goes to show that a promotion women may not forfeit, and this makes the investment of energy into the acquisition of the extrinsic reward worthwhile. It would be fair to acknowledge that women who do not have this financial pragmatism can be reliant on a lack of pressure for them to work hard enough to gain stimuli. Social stereotypes and expectations for women resting upon social roles do not goad them into ramping up their efforts, which allows them to enjoy intrinsic rewards that come with the job, which has a pleasing social environment to offer. The ambient or social settings do much to shape receptiveness to extrinsic and intrinsic rewards.

Still, it is important to make an allowance for emancipation when women consider it appropriate to disregard social roles and expectations of family creation and childbirth only to build their lives around careers. Not all the women are enthusiastic mothers by default. Emancipation can also result in marriage and childbirth being delayed due to career motivations

of women, which should increasingly lead to the masculination of women in the sense that their value hierarchy starts to resemble men's. Their quest for extrinsic rewards should be even more eager, since they may not have much time on hand over family intentions, which can put them out of job much earlier than men and which creates pressure to secure promotion and reap its benefits, while men may find themselves having much more time, which can weaken the relevance of extrinsic rewards or delay their prioritization in their case. Much depends on the mindset of women and their willingness to defy social conventions as well as geography that shapes their way of thinking. Without a doubt, there are cultural differences in the gender factor, for more patriarchal societies will not suffer women to fill vacancies. If they do, they may be wary of pushing for promotion or pay increase, having had inferiority and gender stereotypes instilled in them by educators or male family members who go conservative. Even if families should depart from antiquated views, they should face social pressure in the shape of other people's views on their decision to allow a female family member to work, spending time beyond the family context unaccompanied. This stress stemming from social pressure should not allow women in Muslim cultures to work in a relaxed way and assume significant job commitments that could earn them an extrinsic reward, such as a financial bonus, a pay rise, a promotion, or at least verbal recognition. While this status quo may be inherent in Muslim countries, it should be expected in Muslim communities in foreign states where the unity of members will likely raise the awareness of members' occupation, but then again, the Westernization of Muslims while in the foreign state and understanding of difficulties for families to earn a living should moderate the categoricity of female family members working.

If women accept their minor social roles that often lie beyond the professional context as appealing or if they have to do so, blame cannot be put on managers, since women do not perform in a way, which would allow them to qualify for the extrinsic reward of promotion, which is to suggest that female managers would overlook them as often as male peers do due

to the mismatch between the commitment shown and required for promotion. On the other side of the causal spectrum stands the intentional denial of the reward to the women who do qualify for the reward, being denied it unfairly, which validates the unisex utility of the reward type as a coveted and, therefore, stimulant tool. Women are denied plenty of incentives, not the least of which promotion also defined as a glass ceiling. Researchers, such as N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq (2021), use very emphatic and telling wording to show women's mediocre presence in the executive niche occurs on account of discrimination, since they are "stuck" in lower positions, whole "gentlemen's club" communicates the connotation of near-exclusivity of the position.

Still, aside from promotion, other motivational tools are mentioned. Job benefits, such a dental insurance, are the easiest to recognise stimulants or motivational mechanisms that are less often cited. While they may seem non-financial, since there is no provision of an incentive with a direct financial value or equivalent with a buying power, they have monetary underpinnings. In fact, their motivational essence is financial, the only difference from a pay or bonus being that they spare an employee money rather than earn them. The functional utility of the reward is the same, which is for an employee to access or afford the service. The scenario shows a transfer of the party engaged in service financial coverage from an employee to an employer. As for another unconventional motivational tool associated with gender-based discrimination, if informal networking presupposes contacts between employees, such as coffee breaks, lunches, and parties, which it should, it implies non-financial incentives when a company provides free meal and entertainment. Barring female employees from such a format of stimulation is nothing short of discrimination, showing the limited nature of reward utility made such artificially. Women may be kept isolated from such events for a reason likely by male managers or fellow employees, for some conversations, if overheard or, worse still, recorded, can be used by frustrated women in retaliation for promotion denial or its obtainment

ahead of a female employee despite a perceived lack of merit. The tasks of greater relevance are also a less conventional form of incentivization that is non-financial in nature, since tasks can contribute to career development. Still, it may even have financial implications indirectly if career opportunities facilitate self-actualization and invite a promotion reward when an employee is seen excelling, having been given an interesting task whose relevance can have driven the employee to put up great performance.

Still, the motivational utility of rewards as regards female talents can be restored on an HR condition. The theory of tokenism mentioned earlier seems to limit discrimination temporally, conditioning it and tying to the size of the group. Apparently, there should be no discrimination in terms of promotion assignment to women in the personnel type whose composition is predominantly female. Once there is group expansion and the achievement of at least gender parity, the availability of the extrinsic rewards can be similar. The expansion is the point when the personnel cluster sheds its token status and negative connotations in the perception of managers and the members of the group. A decrease in scrutiny and the number of issues following the expansion of the token group can signal an increase in trust and the perceived relevance of tokens or formerly minority talents, which should imply the openness of employers to the promotion of such. While women see their ranks increase, they can feel trusted and important, which should address the fears that associatively used to come with being in the minority, which may have made them resign themselves to minor roles and avoid promotion, which kept better performance irrelevant. Now that the composition scale is changing, they can feel more empowered and encouraged to work diligently enough to secure an extrinsic reward of any kind. In all likelihood, women correlate changes in the personnel gender complexion or its diverse state with the better position of women and their chances when it comes to being rewarded. There may be understanding that management will have no

way of discriminating against the increasing share of female employees in terms of rewards without facing performance or productivity outcomes.

Despite some improvement possibility in the contexts of some organisations, discrimination persists, especially as regards the maternal status prospect. It would be essential to perceive the maternal wall dually via the definition of Luceno (2006) when it implies the rejection of female applicants as a preventive strategy of not taking employees whose utility period is determined by childbearing decisions, in a discriminatory employer's estimation, to invest in male talents who are likelier to maintain presence in the company pending retirement and the definition by Williams and Westfall (2006) when the promotion of female employees is blocked. While some employers can be quick to deny a promotion to a female subordinate, it can also be after a number of maternity leave requests are filed that women can face the wall, which shows one occasion is not bound to trigger the discriminatory response. Since past pregnancies were said to be also factored in, an employer takes the children factor into consideration rather than just pregnancy-associated changes in female workers and their capability, which, it is feared, can interfere with their performance.

Still, the wall applies to promotion as much as it does to other extrinsic incentives, including remuneration. Far from being raised, it can be reduced, which can prove stressful for mothers, since childbearing can be costly and since the penal behaviour of the organisation can breed uncertainty as to the security of the position for the employee's postpartum return. If lower pay is assigned, there is a form of a reverse stimulation, the intended outcome of which is the exit of the employee discouraged. If prestigious work is to be regarded as an incentive, which it can be, it can be a reward denial type. Still, the withdrawal of promotions is the most recognizable form of discrimination, which can create the illusion of reward low value for women by keeping the number of reward recipients much lower. The measures seem intended to squeeze women out of job in a quasi-legal way by lowering their interest in job occupation

or at least performance, which can give a pretext for termination by the management, using the indicator as a marker of utility, especially if job retention is contractually stipulated by the quality of performance. This treatment can also be educational as other employees may also be given to understand that they had better prioritise their job rather than family or childbirth planning. On the negative side, this treatment can achieve the opposite by affecting the morale of the personnel or forcing them out. Still, so can companies act while distributing extrinsic rewards. What will likely often cause managers to resort to the maternal wall is the perceived impunity, as was the case in *Trezza vs. Hartford* cited by Luceno (2006), in which discrimination was not expected to be proved. This communicates the idea of discrimination feasibility, since female employees will be unlikely to even seek litigation.

When denying women promotion and other extrinsic rewards, thereby failing to capitalise on their stimulant utility, employers tend to generalise without approaching the issue on a case-by-case basis, since women may not be affected equally any more than they will perform the same way in the event of a parental leave and childbirth. Although not ethical rather than just irrational, the pragmatic stance of employers is understandable. When promoted, a female employee will likely have a team in subordination tuned to her style of work and vision only for them to have to re-adjust to the new boss pending her return, which can interfere with productivity. Furthermore, the female employee promoted will likely be working while pregnant. Aware, subordinates may not be working in the right frame of mind and in a productive way over uncertainty.

What can also cause the non-use of extrinsic rewards by an organisation, the employer will face the dilemma of filling in the position, which will require the assignment of a temporary worker. Not wanting herself replaced, the female employee may not see fit to prepare the talent properly for fear of leaving a potential permanent replacement working in her stead. Furthermore, there can be a question of what to do with the temporarily promoted or



interim manager, since downgrading the employee after the return of the female boss can send morale declining. Alternatively, bringing a temporary substitute from beyond is not quite an option, since promotion usually implies a higher position, in which outsiders may not be interested on a temporary basis. While some executives can be appointed to a senior position when recruited without having to rise through the ranks, companies may need to monitor the newcomer and develop healthy trust toward the talent before entrusting him with the position. The organisation may have to widen the powers and duties of other managers instead. While salary elevation can get such managers to assume new duties, they may find themselves overwhelmed, which can expedite their burnout and spark a decrease in productivity.

Customers are in need of considering in the circumstances as they may prove willing to work with the manager, having enjoyed their experience. Thus, they may elect to turn down her alternatives during the leave of absence, which can lead to clientele drain. Customers may be otherwise discouraged by the temporary exit of the promoted employee over the leave of absence. The temporarily outbound female employee to have received the promotion may be in charge of a project, which she may not be able to deliver, needing to take the leave of absence at the point of childbirth, while subordinates can struggle to do so unguided, and the substitute may be hard-pressed to follow the vision, which can jeopardise the order and invite all manner of negative consequences. Even if active during pregnancy, the female employee promoted may underperform or at least perform in a way that can affect fellow employees or subordinates, since this period is characterised by specific changes in personality and mood patterns. In their study of a qualitative content analysis, Pownall et al. (2021) identified self-reported mood changes, including parenting anxiety and low mood and constant change and mood instability. As for memory changes, chronic memory fog and short-term memory lapses were identified (Pownall et al., 2021). Performance struggles can make themselves felt when the female employee promoted is done restoring her fitness and caring after the child on a

daylong basis. The hiatus may lead to the female manager missing out on market trends if not getting rusty professionally, which means a decrease in stock and the loss of the asset utility, while the board may need to find a legitimate reason to terminate her contract, which would not merit a lawsuit fraught with reputational and monetary ramifications. Even if a returnee, the female employee may not be mentally fit to endure hectic timetable, although much depends on the size of the leave of absence, during which period women may return to full fitness when given sufficient time. Eventually, product quality can suffer a great deal, affecting the external stakeholders, such as customers, and their cooperative status permanence. A female employee may come to an understanding that she will have none of her former work as a result of postpartum changes in personal values. These are among hypothetical scenarios that could inform the mindset of managers who consider the use of the promotion instrument in the extrinsic category of rewards. While it is unlikely that an employer restricted the promotion reward to men aware of the mental and mood impact of pregnancy, which is specific knowledge that may not be known until experienced, they may be guided by stereotypical disadvantages when making the decision. As may follow from Trezza vs. Hartford, when organisations promote men with children, the stereotypical idea is such that men do not spend as much time rearing children as women do; hence, they will be working focused, although organisations should have more sense than to dismiss the possibility of fathers' interest and further involvement in child rearing, which may cause him to request a parental leave.

Discrimination has its author, without a doubt. A rare attempt at the personalization of reward discrimination found in N. Abbas, F. Abbas, and Ashiq (2021) offers some glimpse into the causes of the trend and validates the restriction of the incentive, further weakening the argument that women could be disinterested in this type of motivation. A question is whether men are maliciously discriminatory or whether the preferential treatment of fellow men in terms of promotion is but a subconscious promotion of whom they genuinely believe smarter

or otherwise fitter for a senior position. It is safer for men to admit themselves misled by a stereotype than face accusations of poor inclusivity standards and subpar HR performance due to capable female talents' oversight. It does not matter much; what does is that stereotypes related to women's professional capabilities may be of men's design, serving as a protective mechanism that limit competition to some extent. While in the board, men can make more biased decisions of greater existential relevance to men who can suffer disgrace, while women can prove more ruthless and make a decision proportional to the misdemeanour without putting the fellow manager on a probation, applying another lenient approach, or offering a golden handshake. This utility can perpetuate favouritism at the hands of male managers, keeping the extrinsic reward of promotion limited more to male employees. This is not to dismiss the discrimination of men at the hands of women. Causally, it cannot be retaliatory. Rather, the nature of work and the composition or structural context of an employer may be more fitting for female candidates. Maybe, the legal framework is in the midst of changing, which makes employers address the gender disproportion, which results in men being discriminated at work, including in terms of financial bonuses, salary increase, or promotion, in countries like Hungary or Romania, according to the data from the report by Fric and da Bino (2018). Still, the discrimination of women is doubly as numerous, and it does not alert researchers as much as discrimination against male labour does even while much bigger, as is manifest in the colour of issue threat used in relation to the two genders.

Discrimination is anything but theoretical. If women were disinterested in a promotion, for them to have missed out on a number of such would not cause them to seek legal settlement. While it can be that some recognise the potential for getting a windfall compensation despite not actually wanting to be promoted, the majority of plaintiffs must be genuinely distraught over the failure to receive a higher position in their respective organisations, which should indicate the value of promotion as a reward in the female section of the workforce. That the

number of pregnancy discrimination cases rose by more than a third in 1992-2004 in slightly over a decade, according to Williams and Westfall (2006), does not necessarily mean it has spiralled out of control. As many cases of reward discrimination may have been the case in the early 1990s, with women possibly preferring not to venture to sue their employers. The success of cases or the emergence of legal precedents, the development of protective legislation, and a change in women's resolve may all get more women fighting for justice as they may feel more protected and encouraged by the financial gain from legal proceedings. While there is inflation factor, the amount of compensation increased by two times at least during the period, which shows that a bigger number of cases is a success. Amazing is that reputed companies the calibre of Morgan Stanley have systematically denied female talents their promotion, acting in a near-misogynist way, risking their reputation, clientele, shareholders, investors, talents, and other business-shaping elements and stakeholders affected by operational ways, such as personnel treatment and reward distribution. In any case, the scope of reward denial seems significant. It is not a solitary instance as the amount of compensation cited by Balfour and Mujtaba (2009, p.9) communicates the idea of them having been action-class lawsuits when initiated. If so, the extrinsic reward type's reputation as an effective stimulant for both genders can be salvaged, while the share of male executives is proven unreliable as a tool to measure extrinsic reward acceptance by women.

It is none too surprising that plenty of cases are waiting to be reported. Women do not want their position taken away; hence, they fear to blow the whistle on discrimination, since they can forfeit their job never to secure an equally fitting position and since not all of women aim at a judicial settlement. While female employees can secure significant compensation, they must be none too confident in their legal victory, and the lawsuit can result in expenses being incurred and a female plaintiff being informally blacklisted by companies with a prejudicial organisational culture, which increases the possibility of lawsuit recurrence for them if they

employ the female talent in the wake of her litigation success or even efforts. Hence, there is not much information on the scope of female labour outrage, which can be a marker of their aspiration toward extrinsic rewards and the unisex utility of the incentive category. Failing such, the reward of promotion is more desired than it seems based on the number of female employees holding top positions.

More evidence of the appreciation of such an incentive as promotions was found in other studies. As follows from the results of a survey performed by Pew Research Center (2013), two-thirds of women do not consider the current changes sufficient. Equality is too wide a concept for motivation parity to be recognised immediately, yet it seems to imply discrimination as unequal treatment. With a female employee on the job already, discrimination cannot imply too much beyond rewards, likely referring to termination and penalties as well. Rewards, such as bonuses, pay rate elevation, and promotion, however, are more routinely encountered treatment aspects, which are provided monthly or which female employees can be pushing for on a daily basis. If they were satisfied with bonuses, promotion, or other extrinsic rewards, they would not be desirous of having equality increased. They cannot but express discontent, since almost two-thirds of respondents recognise the pay gap. As many respondents seem eager or possibly eager to take on a higher position, although the 66% of the female millennial sample is hard to break down into promotion enthusiasts and doubters. As per another survey data set, the cross-gender gap is at its biggest in Generation X, although it tends to reduce much with age. In any case, while men are more willing to be a boss, women do not fall far behind, which also salvages the unisex utility of extrinsic rewards, namely promotions.

As much as the gender factor keeps coming into play, which limits the utility of extrinsic stimulant mechanisms to male employees, the status quo may take a turn for the better. Years to come may see the gender complexity of labour change for a number of reasons. The number of women in the workplace in Belgium rose by more than 4% in 2 years' time based

on the data from Babic and Hansez (2021), while married American women doubled their labour presence in the three decades before the new millennium, lagging behind married employees with children whose number tripled, according to Luceno (2006). The trend may be setting employers revising their stance on women and reward distribution. For the number of women to be increasing in the labour force can imply that the number of promotion recipients will rise, since the number of tokens or minority members will increase. Following this logic, an increase in the number of women will cause organisations to promote them more often, since a larger share of the output or productivity will be contingent on women who will require incentivizing; else, product quality may suffer. In addition, they will need a female manager the better to perform, with the in-group member trusted more who can act as a mentor and mediator with the male managerial segment. Moreover, the presence of such a manager will cushion the perceived injustice of discrimination as such that stems from the female manager rather than representing a biased vision of the leadership. As deceptive and illusionary as it is, this way of thinking can be facilitated by the deflection of discrimination source in female labour's perception. Furthermore, if recruiters know the female talent pool to be increasing, they will be certain to correlate it with a higher demand for this labour; otherwise, they would be in the household, which should, in turn, signal their quality, and unravel the stereotype or myth likely planted by males apprehensive about female competition that women are not worth recruiting. Organisations should be rest confident in women's ability to remain in the workforce now that a new format of performance has been tested, as further discussed.

It would be fair to presume that the workforce has not seen the last of changes in the sense that there is much more to come in terms of the gender balance. It will be essential to measure the change in the foreseeable future, especially at the current juncture of inflation and soaring bills that should get more household members to seek employment, shedding their status of dependents or the performers of traditional housekeeping role, which holds good for

women. The recent and even current healthcare event needs factoring in too as a reason for the female labour segment rise, which can improve their legal conditions and interest in long-term careers and rewards. The pandemic seems to have given an impulse for workplace transformation and a change in its arrangement, proving it feasible. Its reformatting during lockdowns, which may not have otherwise been tested, can maintain the reconfiguration for women who may increasingly join or remain in the workforce while online, which should not prevent them from being promoted.

Still, legal changes should not be ruled out as an important driver of changes in the gender complexion of the labour market. While the change in mentality may do much to encourage more women to join the workforce, which can be due to the parity quest induced by emancipation, mentality itself can be a product of positive legal changes shaping women's resolve to seek employment and pursue careers and rewards. As for the legal changes, flexible timetables, parental leave, and other obligatory instruments making it easier for women to combine work and family commitments can be key to their decision to remain in the workforce and join such, showing work as feasible, which should change the perception of promotion as worthwhile and raise its value for female employees. Since promotion coexists with flexibility privileges as a result of legal changes, promotion qualification criteria appear disassociated from extreme commitment and workload, which makes them look feasible and achievable, which encourages the pursuit of the extrinsic reward by female employees. In truth, legal changes can prove necessary wherever companies resist the bias-free distribution of rewards. Flexible timetables, parental leave, and other obligatory labour privileges seem necessary on the part of the state, for legislators bring flexible timetables, parental leaves, and other labour pull factors for female employees to be applicable, putting women in a position to demand the provision of such, which the management cannot turn down unaffected and which should increase the avoidance recruitment strategy when female applicants are shunned. Quotas seem

to counter this selection strategy allowing women to be employed and aim at rewards and incentives.

Legal changes can be as good as impossible without the political will of the elite at the helm of a state that shapes the legislation via its parliament, yet people's mentality may be important too. Dependence on electoral preferences makes the elite trace the sentiment and implement it to earn voting dividends. Absent a change in people's mentality, the authorities would not bring legal novelties. Hence, individual states could utilise egalitarianism to woo a female electoral segment. While some can be populist reformers, others can come to phase in positive reforms that could bring quotas. There can be countries, which can be wary of abandoning lenient discretion not to scare off investors, while others can have economic gains shape their legal resolve. The expansion of economic blocs, such as the EU, can further boost the geography of the change when counties will need to tailor their legislation to the EU's. In addition, legal changes boosting women's labour participation and receptiveness to rewards can be but an effort to arrest or avoid an economic downturn induced by demographic changes due to various factors, be it an increase in life expectancy, or immigration of labour over declining welfare standards. Working conditions can be rendered flexible via day-care, parental leave, and timetable flexibility in a possible effort to tackle population aging and labour shrinkage. Thus can economic interests drive a country to adopt reformist laws enhancing the accessibility of extrinsic rewards to women.

The change is bound to be spatially uneven as societies lacking gender equality will be very slow to diversify the composition of the management in organisations, especially if locals are averse to Westernization, regarding the promotion trend as a cultural extension. Currently, the geography of changes promoting work that raises the appeal of rewards predictably embraces the Western hemisphere and other individual countries characterised by democracy, liberalism, and egalitarianism. Important is that the precedents of changes are the reason these



countries will see more changes introduced in the coming time now the legislation is in part adjusted to female labour incentivization.

Unlike age, the gender factor limiting the utility of extrinsic rewards may come to lose its relevance, since more women will join the workforce. Still, the age factor can do so too, since the aging of labour can force employers into reconsidering the factor of promotion distribution. Further years can see the ease of extrinsic reward suppression factors, which depends on collateral developments, such as demographic changes that, however, can be endemic rather than geographically universal, since the age structure of individual countries, such as Saudi Arabia, can prove young. Again, there can be variability, for some countries may be keen on the reduction of the share of guest workers by rallying domestic labour, including women, in the context of policies, such as Saudization, with the result that female talents can be legally granted incentives, such as pay raise or promotion.

### *The Age Factor*

The age factor seems to change the importance of many motivational mechanisms for employees, yet the effect is not definitive. Feedback may not be needed, with reputation established and self-perceived. Still, feedback can be important as a way to have trust expressed by the management. There can be a shift in its functional utility for an employee, yet it should be relevant regardless. The same dualism is identifiable in other characteristics changing with age, including job variety, which is about challenges and the ability for an employee to cope with them. While older, employees seem to know their limits and potential without there being any need to seek various tasks to earn self-respect and positive self-perception. Put otherwise, variety of jobs as a proving means not needed at a later point when self-actualization is complete or when it is understood to be inferior to job benefits like financial stability. Better still, job variety may be rejected by older employees as such that can jeopardise work stability, since it may expose some weaknesses. Routine tasks communicate little-to-no risk when the

protocol of actions is clear, and an employee knows himself to be up to the task capability-wise, while variety can bring new tasks and risks that can invite undesired outcomes, such as the loss of the perceived value when the stock of the employee can be sent falling. The replacement fear may contribute to the task conservativeness. On the other hand, it is by proving oneself useful that job security can be ensured, and this may require that an older employee be ambidextrous or versatile. It can be like some employers to seek versatile talents with high work rate if only to save on labour payroll. It seems to depend on the context whether an older employee can rest relaxed about the performance of standard work without fearing to be put through the exit door.

Job security seems emphasised, since waning capability and value may be understood. There should be an understanding in older labour that experience, although present, can give way to other benefits that come with recruiting a younger employee who is cheaper, be it in terms of pay or reward, and who has much to prove, which can translate into greater productivity. The same logic can inform the recruitment decision of potential employers, and the labour market may be indicative of a disproportion between the supply of labour and demand. There being a big talent pool, with economic factors at work, older employees can be especially hard put to secure a new job, which can keep them appreciating the current position and keep them wary of seeking work diversity not to run the risk of exposing their gradually exhausted utility. More importantly, people have every reason to be concerned at an older age, having gained duties and dependents following family creation; hence, security is being valued. They can ill-afford to sit idle if given walking papers.

Furthermore, what researchers also do acknowledge is a self-perceived developmental and cognitive decadence and the accurate or realistic assessment of personal chances to secure a promotion and the relevance to make a significant input required to secure the extrinsic reward. An older employee will refrain from efforts that can earn the extrinsic reward of

promotion, not being a fast thinker, it seems. Much depends on the profession – that is, whether it requires quick cognitive functioning and decision-making, especially while stressed. If it does, there is no compensating poor information processing at an older age. If an older employee does succeed in securing such a demanding position, thereby earning the promotion, he or she runs the risk of forfeiting a place in the company by affecting its performance. Here emerges an existential risk. Far from securing a higher position for an intended period, older employees can be shown the door.

When it comes to another essential factor devaluing the extrinsic reward of promotion in the older labour cluster, there seems to be a personality shift toward cooperation and socio-centrism. Maybe, efforts to be promoted have been made by then, being in vain, or it is all about age and personality transformations at this point. Generativity theory is more of generalization theory when the personality change is an age-specific characteristic. While it may rationalise lower interest in extrinsic motivation, it does not explain why the onset of an altruistic urge of helping future generations or a paternal attitude development occurs at an older age. It can be parenting that can modify the competitive nature of employees, which likely dulls the traits key to competitiveness, which is ruthlessness and egocentrism when a promotion-oriented employee shows no clemency and not a modicum of solace towards peers if only to gain the coveted goal that is an extrinsic reward. If so, it can be conditioned by the parental status rather than age, which would keep childless older employees still keen on competition and promotion, which is not the case as generativity theory sounds quite generalizing when it comes to older employees and the adoption of the cooperating and helping treatment mode. If childbirth is a factor, the shift would make its presence known at a relatively young age when many employees will welcome children. It appears this evolutionary age-induced switch remains to be rationalised, and generalization is a dangerous interpretational vector.

The internalization or adoption of social beliefs does not occur unencouraged. The prevalence of certain career trends, such as retirement by a certain age, communicates the idea of normalcy or appropriateness, while deflection, it can be feared, can evoke non-acceptance or disapproval when an older employee is associated with low stock or value to an employer. Some people can be loath to have others deprecate them, feeling bound to act in a way that spares them this negative response, which is an extrinsic motivation in its own right when an individual avoids reputational backlash and a perceptual downgrade. The suspicion of others, especially the management, having this way of thinking can breed paranoia and discomfort, which can be shunned by older talents and addressed via their timely retirement. As a result, if believing themselves to have more time in the job, older talents could think fit in investing efforts into competition for a promotion – that is, they think pragmatic and make decisions accordingly. Otherwise, there can be a feeling the manager is set to put them out of job and into retirement before they achieve what will justify the commitment of efforts to the achievement of a promotion. Hence, social pressures are not necessarily the chief motivational factor discouraging the pursuit of extrinsic rewards like promotion as they get an older worker assessing the worthiness of efforts that unlock the possibility of reward obtainment via work-related efforts. Still, dependence on social views seems more characteristic of cultures where reputation is valued in the first place, such as Asian cultures dominated by a routine face-saving imperative. This is not to claim that businesses cannot change the stance of older workers for the extrinsic reward of promotion to gain value in terms of performance stimulation. Just as governmental policies can prompt certain perception in labour as regards their optimal career timeline, so too can do internal company policies, which can signal a lack of the age cap or ceiling, and the provision of the resources required for promotion can plant comparable confidence. Organisations can encourage and cultivate peer support so that there may be no impression in older employees that they are not valued or relied upon in bigger roles than theirs.

While grassroots members of the organisations may be harder to encourage, supervisors and managers can coast through the task. Who cannot be influenced in the context of older employees' perception formation are family members, exerting the social pressure that can suppress the perceived value of promotion, weakening the motivational power of the extrinsic mechanism.

There can be said to be causes of older employees developing a preferential propensity towards intrinsic rewards. When an older adult, an employee has less uncertainties in terms of life and obligations, with family planning complete and with a roadmap in place, while employees at a younger age may struggle to plan their life and measure the financial depth they will require in life, which may keep them much more open to extrinsic or financial rewards. More importantly, older employees seem to have gained the resources required that took financial incentives to accumulate. Young employees have yet to secure the resources older peers have, which keeps them keen on their obtainment, while the respective events get them satisfied. It can be that the demonstration of achievement is characteristic of the younger age, which additionally drives them to seek financial stimuli. While citing the results of a cross-generation comparison of wealth show-off in the male cluster in relation to clothes brands, Stroud (2005, p.69) did affirm that older men were less preoccupied with showing off, unlike younger ones, as per evidence that comes from focus groups. The understanding of older males is that they will purchase a less expensive brand of sailing jacket if it does the job the way a more expensive alternative does. There is no use spending money, given this functional or aesthetic resemblance (Stroud 2005, p.69). Such is older people's way of thinking, which leaves them lacking the show-off and subsequently the money accumulation imperative, which goes to show that age often renders people more pragmatic and practical, allowing people to shed juvenile irrationality that can cause younger employees to misperceive their needs and,

therefore, their financial reward needs that place financial stimuli higher in the hierarchy of incentives.

Furthermore, older employees' career may have come a full circle in the sense that an employee has gone from being a rank-and-file talent to becoming an executive. Hence, there is no reward interest in them in terms of promotion to exert themselves. Even if older employees do not occupy an executive or managerial position, which could limit their interest in the extrinsic reward of promotion, some may lack any ambitions by default at whatever age; others may never be able to climb the career ladder, which they may know or which they may come to understand at some point; and individual older employees may be recruited at an older age by the company, by which time they have become interested in intrinsic rewards for the most part. Speaking of the promotion, the age groups stand a different chance of securing it, since it takes efforts to earn, while proving oneself worthy is a matter of a significant input. Energy in younger employees seems much greater who can go to great lengths to earn a promotion, while older adults may feel jaded, and they are likely to have reached a burnout, while familial duties can leave them short of time; hence, they may pull out of race with younger talents for such a reward as promotion, and the possibility to secure may not so much as stir up their interest.

Still, older employees are not worth generalizing in the way of their intrinsic reward preference as some may strongly favour job security and extrinsic, monetary rewards when employees have not garnered funds or financial safety net to fall back on, if needed. In other words, older employees can be in different financial positions, which is responsible for differential extrinsic reward value. The amount of pay and the ability of employees to gain financial resources and security by an older age is an important determinant of the extrinsic-intrinsic preference. Much depends on the economy of the state, its political model, and the level of corruption. It comes as no surprise that employees in Russia value extrinsic rewards more than do any others, which does not change with age. Apparently, locals go underpaid in

the corrupt state lacking democratic institutions, which would enforce proper pay standards that would allow the change in reward priorities toward intrinsic ones as employees close in on their retirement.

Aside from the old-young differences in extrinsic and intrinsic reward appreciation, it can be rationalised as well why knowledge workers are the ones who develop the proclivity toward intrinsic rewards. Knowledge workers polish their skills, achieving perfection by the time they go older, which makes itself felt in contrast with younger peers and which gives them what to enjoy. By comparison, blue-collar workers in manual jobs, such as a dock worker, show the level of performance that is not to be developed, which does not give the pleasing impression of personal development and a sense of achievement, it seems. Physical, manual job output is not recognisable or sizeable enough for an employee to feel a difference-maker and derive pleasure from work-related achievements, also doing the work many do and in ways others do, since there is a fixed protocol of actions and largely no room for creativity. Hence, the nature of many blue-collar personnel's works enables no intrinsic mechanisms to have a pleasing sense of achievement or the enjoyment of creativity. Hence, it is not they who develop intrinsic motivations with age, unlike knowledge workers. This is no to suggest that young employees do not come very knowledgeable, being, therefore, motivated by intrinsic factors, such as pleasure from skills and expertise. Studies do not generalise for intrinsic motivations to be developed with age in all the case. It is just that age serves as an important catalyst of the transition or, rather, prevalence of intrinsic motivations in the cluster of knowledge workers.

At the same time, knowledge workers are often paid more than blue-collar workers are, which may lead to them satisfying their financial needs, such that they can focus more on intrinsic mechanisms. The presumption does not just seem axiomatic. It is such, being endorsed by researchers, including Thomas (2013, p.92) who described blue-collar workers as low-wage. White-collar peers are on the opposite side of the wage spectrum (Thomas 2013, p.92). Being

better paid than they are, knowledge workers can be quicker to gain the monetary security by the time they age, while manual workers may need to spend extra decades building the same financial safety net, which may delay the onset of the shift of the reward system's shift to the intrinsic nature if they do find ways to derive pleasure from internal emotions while at work, which they may not, as explained earlier. Furthermore, white-collar workers can be cautious about investment and money management, which ensures their funds are not frittered away, and talents can have the value system reconfiguration much earlier than manual labour peers. There can be a combination of higher intellect and financial literacy, which is a product of a higher salary and the input of efforts into education. Another factor in the blend of erratic investment decisions of blue-collar workers is the greater pressure factor to engage in risky investment, such as betting, to make up for a deficit of money or the asymmetry between coveted goals and financial resources or address the strain caused by the recognised inability to achieve the lifestyle showcased in media and pursued by manual workers.

It is not only to risky economic endeavours that blue-collar workers can resort. National Research Council (1994, p.65) associated manual workers with severe dependence and higher median daily consumption levels relative to white-collar peers. This especially holds good for labourers, machine operators, construction workers, mechanics, farmers, and food service workers (National Research Council 1994, p.65). Mundane and physically testing work may contribute to pernicious habit development, as may rather a low pay rate. Such workers were also said by Thomas (2013, p.92) to be closely monitored, unlike white-collar peers. This requires them to be more careful about receiving phone calls and taking breaks (Thomas 2013, p.92). If they see supervisors monitoring them closely or if they know a supervisor to be monitoring them without seeing the effort, they may not come to enjoy their work as they may fear lest they be doing something wrong, or they may have guidelines and rebukes distributed, which cannot make for satisfaction.



While no generalisation is intended, that manual workers drink significantly more means they have no way of deriving satisfaction from intrinsic mechanisms that could otherwise serve as compensatory reward leverage, which can be due to the nature of work and its requirements that make for tedious experience. Drinking intensively in itself tampers with intrinsic reward mechanisms. Mental issues interfere with intrinsic mechanisms, since alcohol cannot help but influence creativity and different mental faculties, especially if in excessive amount, which does not allow employees to perform in a way that would give them internal satisfaction. Gustafson (1991) confirmed a decrease in idea production and its fluency even in case of moderate alcohol consumption (cited in Kaufman and Sternberg 2019, p.205), while another study showed an adverse effect of moderate and high alcohol consumption on IQ (Sjölund, Hemmingsoon, and Allebeck, 2015, p.548). Worse, standard performance can suffer, as may follow from Sawicki and Szóstak (2020) who correlated alcohol consumption at a workstation with a decline in performance. This can result in occupational accidents, absenteeism at work, and other considerable issues. (Sawicki and Szóstak 2020). Performance degradation puts a cap or ceiling on their reward system where intrinsic mechanisms are beyond reach. Such an employee can find even extrinsic rewards blocked, such as punishment avoidance, which is meted out for botching certain tasks while under influence rather than being avoided. As a result, the employee is given to understand that performance is subpar at least, which prevents the individual from perceiving his work as immaculate to derive some positive internal sensations from this perception.

When it comes to future trends, the value of incentives in the older age group should be expected to rise, given the aging of labour. In less developed countries, the share of older employees should be converse due to lower welfare standards at least in part shaped by the economy and its ability to fund those in the retirement cluster. When paid a meagre pension, they cannot but return to work to make up for the gap between what they earned while

employed and what they came securing in the retirement period and meet their needs. The demographic situation in developed countries should cause locals to increasingly replicate the strategy and resume their careers. To the young-old groups asymmetry should add economic turbulence factors, such as recession and high utility bills, which can be nothing short of a temporal juncture. Still, they can be prolonged if not perpetuated by the energy imperative recognised by Western governments in particular when transition to green energy is a must if the world is not to face whatever adverse repercussions come with ice melting. The age complexion of even developed countries is far from stoic. Rather, it is receptive to economic developments, and it is a reminder for employers not to sit loose to the need of reward system diversification and differential treatment application in age-diverse personnel.

#### ***4.4. Motivation Effect on Organisations***

While factors communicate the idea of it being difficult to motivate employees properly, motivation is impactful and useful to the employer; otherwise, there would be no incentives and, even less so, financial ones. A lack of motivation via the respective tools is equally influential, including the perceived glass ceiling when promotion opportunities are denied to women, which expedites their exit intentions, which can materialise, especially given a conducive labour market juncture signalling a high chance of employment for female employees. Stress and emotional draining over inequality can put women out of job before they make the respective decision, since organisations may notice their under-performance. The departure means a competitor can grab the talent grossly underestimated in what can be a sexist organisational culture only for the new employer to snatch customers and expand its market share to the detriment of the organisation to have denied the female talent the desired promotion reward.

It is not that employers are obligated to provide rewards if only to pacify talents. It is that the distribution must be just. Fairness perception gives a comforting and stimulating

hypothetical possibility of professional growth within an organisational hierarchy even if not provided to any given employee. It is to its feasibility that fairness shows, stimulating efforts and performance on the part of talents to secure the extrinsic reward; otherwise, there would be no use trying. Still, the incentivizing power of the extrinsic reward is not as guaranteed as presumed, since perception must be accurate on the part of employees. Employees must be realistic in their assessment of their efforts – that is, whether they merit the provision of the reward. If biased, the perception of their contribution to organisational success can cause an employee to misperceive the decision to assign a higher position to a fellow employee as unjust despite the colleague having secured it fairly. The same could be said of other tangible reward types, including reward monetization. Thus can quite a fair promotion system be perceived otherwise, affecting the commitment and performance of an employee. Apparently, the management will be better suited running diagnostic quizzes to test the sentiment and the perception of HR decisions, although its anonymous nature will not directly filter out employees with a wrong self-perception or those lacking the ability to be self-critical. Anonymity is an important precondition of survey relevance; else, employees will likely provide inaccurate input for fear of job security as a result of management decisions' evaluation. In this case, organisations will need to otherwise identify the personality of talents to shortlist subordinates with attitudinal and personality issues to apply whatever measures fit the organisation. This can be important, for the wrong assessment of reward-related decisions can make the microclimate toxic by setting similar employees doubting the fairness of decisions and putting subpar performance on display, although the mainstream personnel will be quick to dismiss the fallacious perception of such peers.

Motivation mechanisms can be as simple as stroking, which can still evoke the initiative, interest, and enthusiasm of employees, which can allow an organisation to close in on its goals. Stroking and other incentives are associated with an increase in employee

engagement and commitment. Still, commitment should be incentivized more as a talent's enthusiasm for the employer who sources stimuli, paying for some, since the talent arrives liking the job as a dream occupation pursued since school or college. Then again, since the job is also a product of the workplace and the employer, it may not be what an employee would like it to be, with certain tasks, work performance format, and resources provided by the organisation. Motivation tools are what can make up for adverse factors, which affect engagement or enthusiasm for the job. It stands to reason that the success of projects and the achievement of goals should be feasible if employees show enthusiasm for both the job and the employer, since they will not under-perform, even less quit midway through the project. It is only logical that productivity rises, so does teamwork spirit. Otherwise, the struggles of an unmotivated employee would lead a team to delay a project or fail in terms of quality.

Motivation can also do much to stimulate the acquisition of skills, which is ultra-important. While some employees need new skills to climb a career ladder or adapt themselves to new tasks, others, although knowledgeable and apt, need re-educating for them to master a new trade or the way of performing duties on the new workplace upon arrival. For employees to expand their skills is important, for some duties are not about a set protocol of actions. There is an art to performing certain work, and it is nowhere near being static. Rather, it is being developed, which seems to hold good for professions in the service sector where employees will do better to improve their expertise in human psychology. With empirical studies performed routinely, new facets of psychology understanding can take shape that can put employees in a better position to interact with the clientele of learnt, allowing service providers to handle issues in a way that would allow customers to leave satisfied and urge them to repurchase the service. Besides, companies recognise the improvement imperative based on competitiveness of the business landscape that can be crowded with competitors, which makes companies seek ways to put greater value proposition on display. By having employees expand

their skills, companies can develop versatile and more effective talents, which can allow downsizing the staff. Still, saving can be doubtful, since much-improved talents can expect their diligence to be rewarded. Since their self-assessment will rise, so will their impatience and the resolve to switch to a different employer in case they work without being duly incentivised. Since motivation is key to the initiation of learning, the optimization of skills is far from easy or quick. Therefore, when employees take to raising their stock, they are motivated by the prospect of facing an increase in rewards.

Motivation, including that based on reward, gives employees what to value. In underperforming, they run the risk of forfeiting rewards. If they do not derive pleasure intrinsically, the fear of being stripped of extrinsic motivations is what precludes counterproductive behavioural patterns, such as the careless performance of duties and absenteeism. The removal of rewards, such as a status or position, is one of the penal approaches, which can work best while not implemented, it seems. Disciplining and penalization as ways to motivate the adjustment of behaviour back to normal often follows infractions, which is an important response as a way to discourage the replication of the behaviour, the demoralisation of the personnel over a perceived lack of justice, and the prevention of damage done to external stakeholders, such as customers, since performance may deteriorate, along with product quality over infractions and the failure of proper response, yet the ripple effect of the offense can involve reputational losses and the drain of customer if the word-of-mouth set a customer complaining.

#### ***4.5. Motivation Measurement***

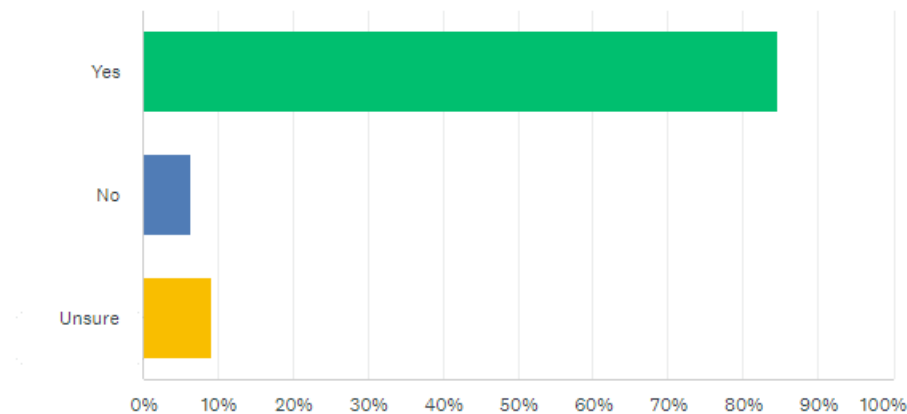
Seeing as how useful motivation is for organisations, employers should do the measuring to be certain that employees work satisfied. Rather than being a means of attitude identification, an email is also a channel of communication through which to provide feedback in the shape of a message or letter, and even a survey can be sent via an email. Suggestion

boxes, email, and hotlines are a means of input delivery. What matters is that each of the approaches can give the management to understand how an employee feels about the job, what their commitment, engagement, and satisfaction are, and whether the motivation system requires an update or overhaul. A survey can identify whether the range of rewards used is appealing, wrong, or insufficient, or whether it cannot be accessed by some employees. Open-ended questions have the most potential for collecting the stance of employees on the job and their satisfaction as they get the provide explanatory or causal comments and examples, which excludes the randomness of their answer choice. What this insight will also do will also be to allow excluding factors not related to the employer, which determines the relevance of motivation system transformation. Apart from rewards, there can be other factors, such as poor microclimate, interpersonal conflicts, or family occurrences, which can eclipse the workplace experience and affect positive job perception or cause negative emotions affecting performance. Some employees can underperform no matter how motivated, the reason being their personal limits. Others may be reluctant to put in a good shift, working if only to secure a monthly pay. Some of the factors can be addressed by companies, while others may not, including personal circumstances and individual attitudes. Addressable factors need identifying, and open-ended questions can do much to identify the factors within the reach of companies. While the general profiles of the personnel or subgroups are recommended, it would be wiser to be maintaining individual profiles for each employee to monitor the dynamics of satisfaction and correlate it with certain events so as to respond pre-emptively or in a timely manner based on behavioural patterns and trends elicited from an interview. Still, the method can prove too time-consuming and costly.

The major task is to get the information from employees. If holding a meeting, the management risks not getting accurate information from employees who can fear backlash. Much the same holds good for qualitative interviews held in a one-one-one way or in small

groups, which is akin to a meeting. While the personalization of concerns may put an employee in a position to see the situation improve, the factor of fear cannot be ruled out. Given input inaccuracy, this format of attitude identification seems dangerous, for it can make the management rest assured it is not time they changed something in terms of personnel motivation. Adverse sentiments can persist, affecting productivity and causing managers to make wrong HR or operational decisions. Email and hotline seem more feasible, and they can be made even more so if confidentiality or anonymity is ensured when a corporate email is shared by all the members who can deliver feedback without being recognized, and voice-altering internal phones can also be used safely, which is none too futuristic. Still, anonymous paper questionnaire forms and suggestion boxes can be easier options, yet employees may need to take the trouble to print their feedback if they are not to have their manager recognize their handwriting, which depends on the size of the personnel under his or her supervision. Much depends on the nature of the message, which will not prevent subordinates from reporting their attitudes if neutral and complimentary, and the organisational culture. When democratic and devoid of retaliatory ideation, the management can collect more feedback that is critical in nature. In any case, the sentiment monitoring is not over when managers are done surveying the labour stance, seeing that feelings, such as satisfaction, can be mercurial, with a company development, such as a decision related to the distribution of incentives, such as promotions, or external factors, such as economic recession and inflation chipping away at the buying power of salaries, can modify the mood, such that ramping up incentivization may be needed.

## 5. Primary Data Findings & Analysis



ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES	
Yes	84.55%	93
No	6.36%	7
Unsure	9.09%	10
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>110</b>

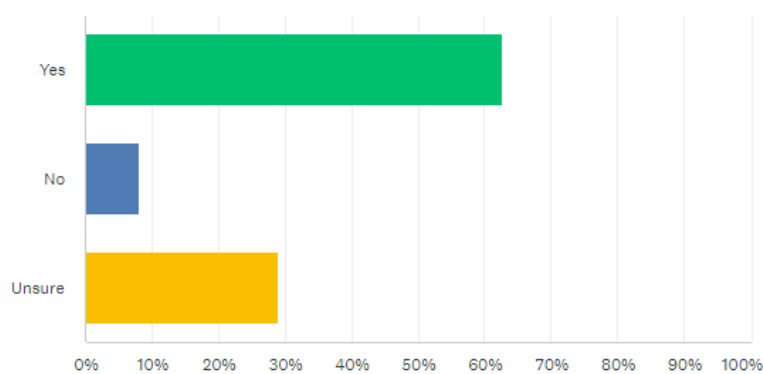
Figure 1: Statement 1

**Statement 1:** If you were approached by the management of your employing organisation, you would be fine with participating in a personal interview or survey on your attitude toward your job.

The majority of respondents (85%) have consented to participation in a survey or interview on their attitudes towards the job despite the formats offering the contrasting levels of anonymity. Only around 6% and 9% of respondents proved sceptical and unsure about the involvement. It seems that respondents value an avenue to express their feelings and concerns without having to approach a manager, which can be problematic, since the superior may not be predisposed toward hearing from certain employees at that point, still less responding to a request or discontent admission in a way, which makes the employee discussion effort worthwhile. A manager may not be in the best frame of mind or mood, which can also lead to the employee wasting the opportunity only to be afraid to try again, being discouraged by



adverse experience. In being initiated by the management, surveys signal the receptiveness of superiors to requests and concerns of employees. There can also be said to be an existential fear to approach managers personally. Employees may not be candid when approached personally without the confidentiality principle being observed, since employees can be wary of discrediting themselves or laying themselves exposed when it comes to their perception of the management. They may fear lest they be exposed as a disgruntled toxic element to be uprooted to avoid damage to the microclimate, which can be a reactive or proactive, preventive approach assumed by the management.



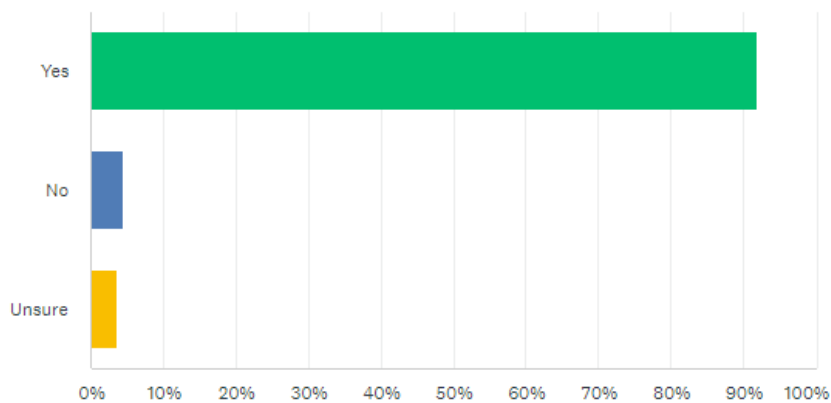
ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES	
Yes	62.73%	69
No	8.18%	9
Unsure	29.09%	32
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>110</b>

Figure 2: Statement 2.

**Statement 2:** Organisations need to resort to other methods of identifying the stance of employees on their job, which would not be known to them and which, therefore, could be more accurate, since employees will not try to invent or distort results, which they could do if participating in a survey.

While most of study participants are willing to participate in a survey held by a manager, almost 63% would prefer other methods of identifying labour stance as more

confidential, while 8% do not need other methods applied, and another 29% is not certain about the relevance to measure the stance otherwise. There is a feeling that employees are not candid in workplace surveys among respondents, and they may not be sincere either when quizzed. This shows that participation enthusiasm is not equal to the accuracy of input and that a relative lack of anonymity is a causal factor. Therefore, confidentiality will spare the need for employees to be insincere, which can raise the utility of satisfaction surveys.

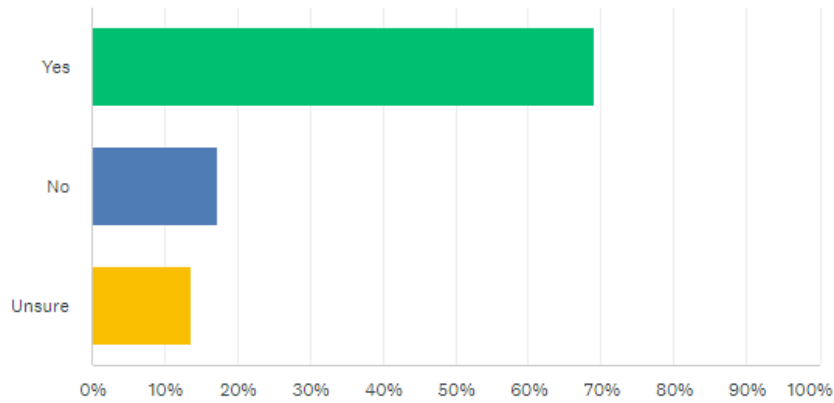


ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES	
Yes	91.82%	101
No	4.55%	5
Unsure	3.64%	4
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>110</b>

Figure 3: Statement 3.

**Statement 3:** Different motivational tools, such as rewards or positive feedback, may increase the productivity and performance of employees.

Predictably, study participants are in favour of motivations of positive and negative motivation types as a way to stimulate performance and productivity, with 92% supportive of the statement. Meagre shares of sceptics and those unsure are responsible for around 4,5% and 3,5%, respectively. Apparently, only 8% of the sample are rather intrinsically motivated employees, since a motivation can be associated with a an extrinsic reward. On the other hand, this share of study participants can be loath to receive negative incentives like feedback.

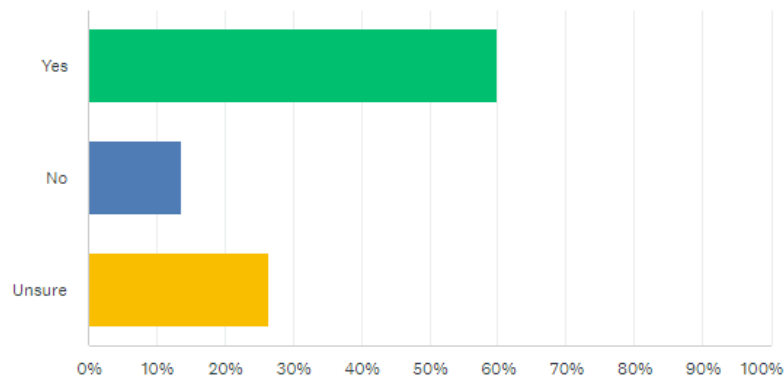


ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES	
Yes	69.09%	76
No	17.27%	19
Unsure	13.64%	15
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>110</b>

Figure 4: Statement 4.

**Statement 4:** Positive feedback is a good and sufficient motivation encouraging an employee to perform well.

The specification of the motivation method brought greater clarity on the preferences of respondents as 69% acknowledge the appeal of feedback, which can encourage motivation. Those, who replied in the negative, make up only slightly over 17%, while the segment of respondents not sure about this method of employee behaviour stimulation equals over 13,5%. It seems that respondents recognise the utility of feedback as a workplace event, which puts the attitude of the manager on display, showing if an employee has come close to securing meaningful rewards.



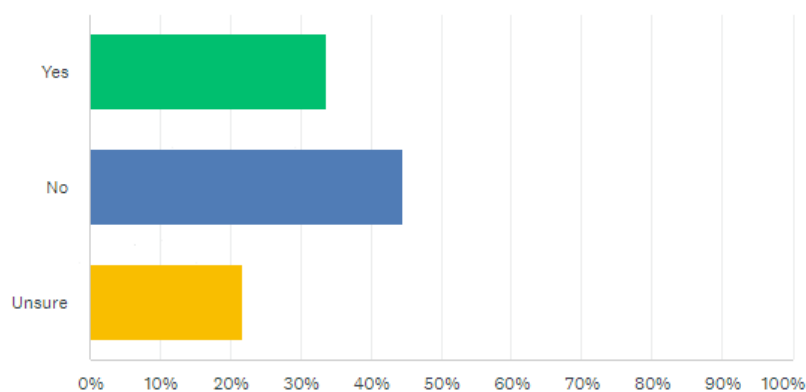
ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES	
Yes	60.00%	66
No	13.64%	15
Unsure	26.36%	29
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>110</b>

Figure 5: Statement 5.

**Statement 5:** If personally communicated and grounded, negative feedback from a manager can also be motivating for an employee.

Respondents, however, are not beyond receiving negative feedback as well, given its grounded nature and the personal channel of communication. An estimated 60% supported the statement, while around 13,5% dismissed it, and over 26% of study participants could not pick either of the definitive answer options. Respondents have shown that negative feedback acceptance may depend on how it is communicated. If made public, it can undermine the perception of the talent and respect if it is contingent on performance and capability. Even if reasonable, employees would much rather that a manager did not sound overly categorical while providing negative feedback, since failure to tone down can wipe out any self-esteem and motivation. Respondents seem to understand that negative feedback will not be constructive unless provided with some recommendations. An employee must be given to understand that he or she is underperforming; otherwise, criticism can be perceived as unfair, ungrounded, and even aimed at justifying non-rewarding. A feeling may be that the employee

is being squeezed out of the company, especially if criticism coincides temporally with a clear-out at the organisation when the staff is downsized due to redundancy or company struggles, which goes to demonstrate that the juncture of motivational mechanism application also does matter as a collateral factor. Showing the improvement trajectory can prove the management caring and interested in the optimization of the way the employee performs, and the knowledge communicated shows the criticism is genuine and well-grounded, which should spare frustration and adverse decisions and conduct on the part of the employee.



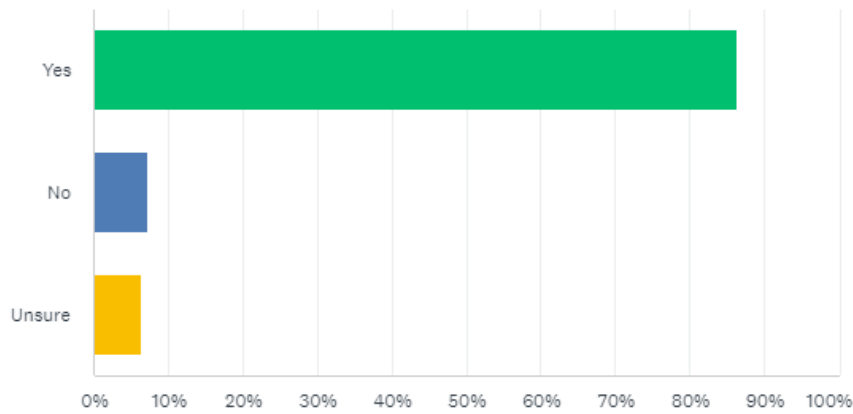
ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES	
Yes	33.64%	37
No	44.55%	49
Unsure	21.82%	24
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>110</b>

Figure 6: Statement 6.

**Statement 6:** Physical gestures, such as patting on the back or shoulder or hugging by a manager or supervisor, can do much to motivate an employee.

Physical gestures are a less preferred method of stimulation, since only over 33,5% showed their support for the approach shown as feasible in the literature. As many as 44,5% of participants categorically rejected this way of incentivizing. Almost 22% could not decide on their attitude toward this approach. The meagre support of the statement can be due to patting and hugging violating intimate space. This may depend on culture, gender, and personal

perception that can be influenced by circulating views, which are among the factors possibly influencing the sensitivity of employees to this format of recognition and motivation. Still, this cause cannot be key, since the US population is culturally diverse across the multi-region sample, and since the salad bowl concept does not require assimilation. Apparently, physical gestures can be insufficient for an employee expecting the financial recognition of performance, finding this method a cheap surrogate if not insult, which should possibly depend on the amount of commitment, personal sacrifice in pursuit of a reward, performance self-assessment on an informal scale, the ambition of motivation recipient, his or her financial situation, and the availability of opportunities or offers from other companies. Such can be a sentiment if there is a perception of the unfair distribution of rewards and other motivation tools among the employee's peers when one receives an increase in monthly pay, while the employee does a pat on the shoulder. As a result, commitment and performance may decline, while an employee can force his or her exit. It can be debatable whether a costless reward is better than no reward. Its utility varies on a case-by-case basis. An employer may get an employee with a prevalent intangible, intrinsic reward proclivity very satisfied with this form of recognition. Respondents supportive of the motivation method may consider physical gestures to have a compensatory rewarding extra as they show an employee as appreciated, which is for others to see. This, however, may be rewarding for employees who value external opinion and reputation among peers much, which can be the case with narcissists who need others admiring them. If they do, there will be the utility dualism of the motivational tool.

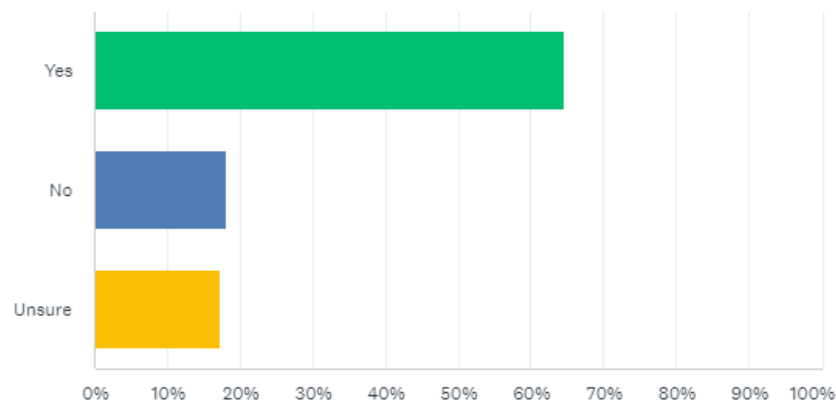


ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES	
Yes	86.36%	95
No	7.27%	8
Unsure	6.36%	7
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>110</b>

Figure 7: Statement 7.

**Statement 7:** Instead of feedback or hugging, you would rather get more meaningful motivations, such as a promotion, a pay increase, or a financial bonus.

More meaningful motivation methods, as opposed to physical gestures were supported by more than 86% of study participants, and only the small shares of sceptics and doubters equal to over 7% and 6%, respectively, were identified. While it may seem that physical gesture rejection is down to the reluctance of employees to accept personal space violation, the reason for the gesture method to have gained less support may consist in a lack of perceived value, since more meaningful incentives were supported by over four-fifths of respondents. Employees can be quite pragmatic and opportunistic, although appreciating physical gestures and feedback.



ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES	
Yes	64.55%	71
No	18.18%	20
Unsure	17.27%	19
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>110</b>

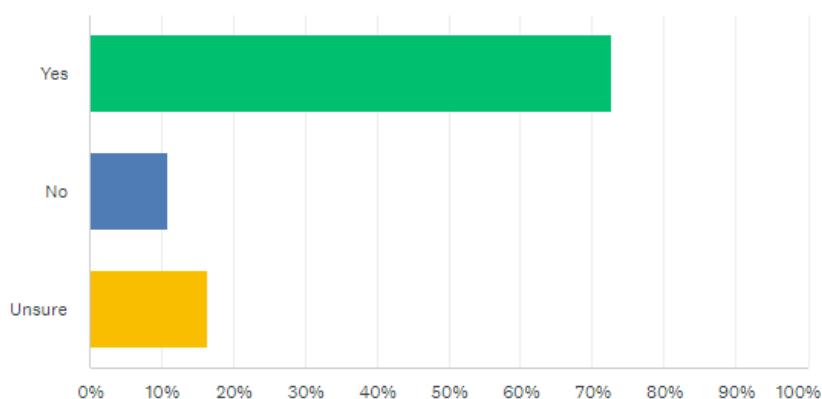
Figure 8: Statement 8.

**Statement 8:** You are interested in workplace incentives, and you would push for them if you were not obstructed by family duties, such as childcare and household chores.

The factor of family duties obstructing the push for motivations, which explains a lack of their pursuit by some employees and excludes a perceived lack of motivational power of some incentives, gained 64,5% of responses, while sceptics and those unsure constitute over 18% and 17% of respondents, respectively. This is a unisex question that applies to the male sample segment as much as it does to that of females. The statement departs from the trend to assign care duties to women, since respondents, it was presumed, could perform the same function, whether it be in lieu of their female partners or alongside them. The statement was formulated so that the combination of gender status in the questionnaire form section of personal profile may be correlated with a response to elicit extra insight into the workload situation of respondents. The admission by women of themselves being obstructed by household duties proves the role of male partners' isolation from the duties identified in the



secondary literature, since female respondents make up 70% of the sample, with two-thirds of it in favour of the factor’s role.

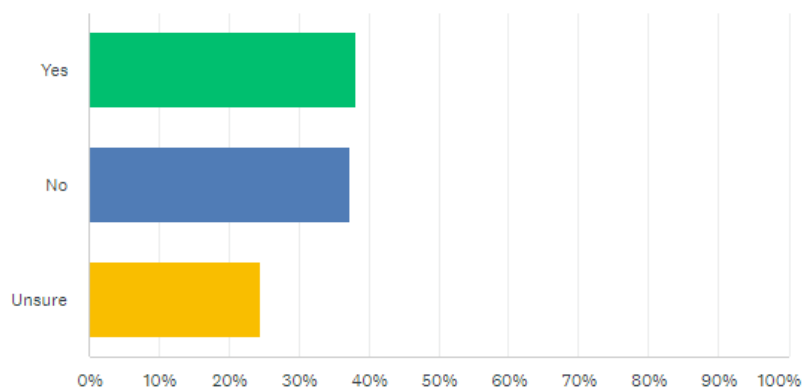


ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES	
Yes	72.73%	80
No	10.91%	12
Unsure	16.36%	18
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>110</b>

Figure 9: Statement 9.

**Statement 9:** Different cultures have different aspirations for and appreciation of specific motivations, such as promotion.

The culture factor as such that influences the perception and appreciation of individual motivations was supported by almost 73% of respondents, while almost 11% dismissed its role, and over 16% showed they were unsure about the culture factor. Since the US population is diverse or multi-cultural, there may be a cultural contrast understanding in incentive perception. Respondents may have encountered the culture-indiscriminate distribution of rewards, possibly leaving them bewildered and setting them considering a lack of rational incentivisation.



ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES
Yes	38.18% 42
No	37.27% 41
Unsure	24.55% 27
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>110</b>

Figure 10: Statement 10.

**Statement 10:** Older employees are motivated less by financial incentives, with other motivations important instead.

Financial incentives were not found to lose their relevance completely at employees’ older age as only 38% supported the change factor, while over 37% replied in the negative. More than 24,5% could not provide a definitive answer, and the results are logical. Up to 40% of the sample are not top earners, securing \$50,000 per year at the most; hence, they should value money. Furthermore, since 35% of the sample are people aged 45-plus, and since 45% are the aging labour category between 30 and 44 years, there could be an automatic response to the age factor that money does matter, which may have caused respondents to dismiss the age factor as such that devalues the financial incentives. Employees may be apprehensive that if they should acknowledge age as unimportant, the management should revise their incentivization policy applied to this group of employees or introduce age-specific reward patterns, since they can find out that older talents share an understanding that older age does not merit incentives proportional to those distributed among younger talents. Therefore, the

accuracy of the input can suffer even if anonymity is granted in whatever survey. If it is not, fear can be that a decision can be made of incentivization being personalised, with employee respondents motivated in line with their perception of the age factor and the possibility of its effect on the volume and nature of rewards and their legitimacy. Employees can fear the onset of the ageism era in the company. The financial situation and the respective processes in the country, including recession and inflation, can raise the perceived value of money even in the older segment of the population included in the sample.

## **5. Conclusion**

### ***5.1. Research Findings***

Motivation is the willingness of employees to work observing performance standards that involve creativity, commitment, and energy. Different methods can be used to raise motivation, which is about showing a positive outcome of proper conduct and building a tenacious association between the result and a desired behavioural pattern. Still, showing a negative outcome is as educationally useful. Motivation mechanisms spur performance improvement by allowing talents to meet their needs, whether acquired or instinctive and pre-programmed, which are interpreted in multiple theories, including the instinct theory of motivation, the acquired needs theory, and the social learning theory. Motivation can be intrinsic or sourced from internal rewards and extrinsic provided by the management. Unlike intrinsic incentives that are intangible or abstract, extrinsic ones can also be tangible, having a physical form. In extrinsic incentives, there is a trigger factor driving managers to resort to measures. Poor performance or behaviour on the part of employees can be a motivating operation necessitating a response measure by an organisation, such as a reward or penalty, and giving it value, which changes it from neutral to positive in what is a situational or contextual value increase. Ranging from feedback and edible stimuli to financial rewards and bonus penalties, extrinsic stimulants applied subdivide into positive and negative reinforcement and punishment when adverse or appealing factors are removed, while penalties and positive incentives are introduced to reinforce or suppress conduct. Be it positive or otherwise, punishment is about decreasing problematic conduct, the difference being that something is added or removed to achieve the effect. The same can be said of reinforcement that consists in conduct likelihood enhancement via the addition of stimuli or the removal of what can make for an unpleasant experience, which addresses desired behaviour decline factors or risks that can derail positive conduct dynamics. Additional and less-often identified

stimulant options are extinction when behaviour ignorance contributes to its removal and avoidance when conduct is avoided, although the latter may refer more to an outcome of motivation rather than a method of behaviour adjustment encouragement. Avoided can be conduct, which is discouraged via the extinction mode applied by a manager, while avoidance can be a response on the part of employees following their conduct ignorance. When forced, motivation can be categorized as negative discipline, while the voluntary acceptance of a change is regarded as positive discipline.

While motivation can be associated with conventional stimuli, an organisational culture can motivate employees by communicating values and behavioural norms setting a positive sentiment. At the same time, an organisational culture, such as a high-performance culture can be a product of motivation when employees perform well, which can be due to the underlying culture positive effect. Such cultures should get employees to replicate the norms and patterns, which define them, in the context of the social learning process, and the value of such cultures should be shaped by motivations or incentives. Incentives or rewards can be compensatory leverage to forge the acceptance of culture, since its values and norms may be none too pleasing or motivating, requiring high-intensity performance, burdensome workload, and other challenges.

Organisations are at liberty to choose from among positive and negative reinforcement and punishment motivational approaches, such as patting on the shoulder, a reward, bonus forfeiture, or a probation. Still, they ought to use caution for a number of reasons, not the least of which is the fact that the utility of some motivations can run low or run out when they have met the needs of employees and when they are keen on moving to the upper levels of the needs pyramid. Furthermore, motivational mechanisms are context-specific – that is, what works in one context may not in another one. Patting and praises can prove very effective in educational settings, while the workplace context may reduce the outcome due to the different expectations

of individuals and the financial nature of relations between the organisation and its subordinates, which shapes the monetary preferences of good work recognition. Hence, it is important to polarise the utility of motivational tools along the lines of their application context. The cultural background of incentive recipients is important as well in terms of its perception, lest it backfire. The point is that a motivational tool may be wrong or, rather, HR specialists are wrong to apply rewards indiscriminately without considering unique characteristics of the personality, each possibly having a unique set of needs and individual perceptions, in a stereotype-free way. A reward needs tailoring to each individual, to which end the psycho type or psychological archetype must be understood. It is essential to consider the volatility of preferential patterns determined age. Rewarding is not so much about being kind enough to mete out rewards as reading which reward type fits a specific individual at a certain point in career.

Another point to mind is that punishment must be targeted without changing optimal workplace settings and conditions for the entire personnel. It would also be fair to acknowledge that the use of radical motivational measures should follow the discussion of the possibly causes of a performance curve having taken a downward trajectory, since it can be down to no lack of effort and since motivation sits outside the work context. Even if well paid, an employee may not be performing well, which can be down to other factors and through no lack of interest in the job. Among factors can be fatigue, health concerns, family, or personal issues. Even the mismatch between the reward type provided and which is desired and expected. Punishing may not be an optimal tool even when a situation merits its use as there is a consensus that negative discipline, such as punishment or positive punishment, does not address misconduct, suppressing it at the most, with it being possible for it to resurface and anger and resentment to develop. The discontinuation of a penal measure naturally stops short the positive effect,

although researchers would do better to steer clear of generalization, since some employees may adjust their attitude with the result that they do not relapse into former behavioural ways.

While assigning incentives, employers need to consider at least three major factors, including culture, age, and gender. The culture of an employee is an important determinant of incentive perception and its effect or utility. Collectivist, patriarchal cultures that project respect, obedience, and other values on its members ensure their patience when it comes to the distribution of stimuli, such as promotion. In Eastern feminine cultures, competitiveness and ambition are less prevalent, which should somewhat devalue the promotion stimulus. At the same time, Western cultures, which are individualist, employees can derive motivation from workplace autonomy rather than teamwork, while creativity can bring intrinsic satisfaction as a result of self-actualisation that are more suppressed in Eastern culture where individual creativity is harder to incentivize, whatever a reward, which should not change the perceived relevance of extrinsic, tangible motivations whose utility is contextual without any factors having eroded the motivational benefits of the method.

As for age factor, there is a reason for the same age group members to have contrasting reward preferences, some being driven by financial incentives more than others. Some can be better placed to meet needs, while others may feel strained, which keeps them more receptive to financial bonuses. Extrinsic motivation is more preferred by younger people who are still to gain financial resources and who experience the urge to be showing off, which suppresses pragmatism and rationality that can be nascent or immature. Intrinsic motivation comes with age. Still, important is the ability of employees to secure financial resources. If they do not, their admiration of financial incentives will go into the latter stages of their career. While employees short of funds may be to blame for their failure to gain the resources and transition to the period that sees intrinsic values adopted predominantly, their countries of residence and professional activity deserve rebuking, especially if the low pay rate is a product of corruption

and a flawed political model, which does not contribute to the enforcement of proper remunerations standards and the observation of human rights' conventions that should keep labour well paid when put into force. In any case, age should be regarded as an important factor, for the demographic complexion of labour force in Western societies is in the midst of changing, which expand the older labour cluster.

When it comes to the gender factor, the smaller number of female executives is a poor marker of the utility of such an incentive as promotion due to discrimination when women who do want a reward provided and who do apply efforts have the chance denied, maternal wall along with calculated pragmatism of employers, and a barrage of family duties not shared by male co-breadwinners, obstruct even a career growth ideation, along with efforts if made. Undoubtedly, some women may legitimately be promotion-averse. Despite the emancipation trend and labour market deficits over population aging, which causes employers to attract female employees, there are women who are not to be motivated by rewards due to interest in traditional roles, which is either natural or artificially fostered by social conventions or yet-persistent patriarchal indoctrination when a conventional household role is still foisted upon some women. Work aversity, which can be a product of observed family-based behavioural archetypes or protestant resistance, and financial security, which could otherwise make them take on a job for pragmatic, financial reasons only if absent can further add to a lack of interest. This admission notwithstanding, the promotion incentive is appreciated by plenty of female employees. The number of court cases, the action-class nature of lawsuits, and the amount of compensation paid speak volumes for the gender-specific denial of the reward rather than its low utility among female employees. Changes, however, can unlock the utility of extrinsic rewards further as more women should join the labour following positive legal changes boosting the feasibility of work. What legislators can do is ease the difficulties, which used not



to allow women to work and aim at extrinsic rewards, which would signal their desirability and utility.

Making allowance for a multitude of factors is worthwhile, given an array of positive effects of motivation on an organisation that make themselves known when incentives are denied, which can push valuable talents through the exit door or leave them struggling to perform due to the emotional draining effect of discrimination. Either way, an organisation stands to lose, especially if outbound talents join a competitor only to perform superbly while there. When provided, an incentive boosts the engagement and commitment of employees or their enthusiasm for the job and the employer, which should be expected to reduce defection and enhance loyalty. Motivation translates into productivity growth, which is logical because employees can also be motivated to expand their skills. Motivation may also apply to disciplining in the wake of infractions, and it is instrumental in adjusting behaviour, which should reduce the toxicity of the microclimate and tame the fears of bullying victims, for example. Seeing a show essential motivation is, it should be measured, to which end organisations can utilize a wide range of approaches ranging from meetings, interviews, and questionnaires to box suggestions and hotlines. While some carry confidentiality risks, including emails and hotlines, others have the potential for eliciting accurate details key to the assessment of the sentiment entertained by each employee. Hence, there seems to be no certain success formula in the incentivisation system whose use is a matter of considering multiple factors and handling motivation individually.

### ***5.2. Primary Data Findings***

Respondents (almost 85%) are largely fine with being interviewed on their attitude toward work regardless of its format, which puts confidentiality and job security concerns to bed. Still, they confirm the presumption of input distortion by pragmatic or apprehensive employees, since nearly 63% favour the change of methods to avoid results being tampered

with by entrepreneurial employees. Rewards predictably drew much response (about 92%), including feedback (69%), which shows it may be second to rewards, with the support share lower. Negative feedback is still valued by 60%, although it is understandably conditioned by rationality and privacy. Physical gestures supported by almost 34% were found rather controversial to be applied, especially given privacy and cultural considerations. Unsurprisingly, respondents are quite practical as over 86% want more meaningful incentives provided, which can further rationalize the lesser importance of gestures. Just as researchers showed family duties as being a factor obstructing the pursuit of the promotion incentive, so too did respondents (almost 65%). Culture is a determinant of incentive utility (almost 73%). Age is also not the reason to dismiss financial incentives as over 37% disagreed with the factor, which shows the rising relevance of financial rewards for older labour and its greater involvement in workforce, it seems.

## ***5.2. Research Recommendations***

### ***5.2.1. Avoiding Cognitive Distortion***

A variety of irregularities or mistakes have been spotted in the course of literature review, which are worth reiterating and avoiding in further studies. First, it is not right for some researchers to have defined extrinsic rewards as financial and tangible only when feedback, which is external as such that comes from the external source of a manager or supervisor, is intangible and nonfinancial. Moreover, categorizing trust as an intrinsic reward does not seem correct either, since it stems from the external source. Putting it in the intrinsic category means showing that trust is not what managers should use to motivate employees. As for another possible mistake, job elimination threats, unpleasant assignment, and management criticism can be positive punishment rather than negative reinforcement, since unpleasant factors or measures are introduced. In addition, the classification of avoidance as a motivation type seems erroneous, inasmuch as avoidance is a post-stimulation behavioural pattern, which follows the

use of an extrinsic measure, which evokes aversion and communicates threat and which, therefore, makes an employee reconsider conduct if only to avoid what is a penal measure most likely. Avoidance is not a trigger like punishment or a reinforcement approach. Researchers should arguably know better than to confuse a response behaviour with its trigger factor or mechanism, since it is only some researchers who pick out avoidance as a motivational method, along with reinforcement and punishment.

Second, researchers should not make blunders in the visualization of stimulation mechanisms, such as negative reinforcement, which cannot imply the introduction of heavy penal measures that is positive punishment, and which implies a relief or the removal of a stressor or nuisance factor halting positive conduct to some extent. The incentive obtainment behaviour should not be mistaken for benefitting behaviour, such as workplace performance. There was an interesting controversy or, rather, dualism found of fine being regarded as negative punishment, although it clearly a positive punishment variation, since an unpleasant stimulus is introduced for conduct adjustment. While it does result in combined income being reduced, it is unclear whether a post-factum removal of a bonus is to be regarded as negative punishment. Such dual perception can result in the misperception of motivation mechanisms and types, along with confusion. Given these slips and controversies, practitioners may be misled into believing a much less effective and risk-fraught penal measure to be a workable reinforcement and apply it only to be facing adverse productivity and labour drain outcomes. If they do not recognise workplace behaviour as such that benefits from sporadic or routine incentive application, they may overlook what is an important approach to fostering performance that is integral to the achievement of organisation goals.

### ***5.2.2. Current Literature Improvement***

#### ***A. Research Accuracy***

First, to achieve accuracy, motivation research should contextualise certain studies reviewed and generalise their results carefully, since their applicability can be geographically restricted, being based on certain local samples reflecting local perceptions on work motivations, which may not hold good elsewhere. Cultures can be an essential reason for the diversification of attitudes and differentiation between them based on the location of labour. It would be rational for scholars to study individual causal factors, such as social pressures, through the prism of geography.

Second, researcher efforts to follow should address a deficit of data that reflect the attitude of female workers on extrinsic rewards, such as promotion, since litigation evidence is in short supply as matters stand currently. Researchers would also be better advised to perform direct surveys targeting a large sample of female workers who could report the incidents of extrinsic reward denial or, better still, study participants can be asked to provide their stance on the perceived utility and relevance of extrinsic rewards, which should allow proving the extrinsic category of workforce stimulation useful for both genders. It can be a fruitful research vector to be studying the extent to which each reward type is instrumental in rallying a specific performance element, determinant, or precondition, such as commitment and job satisfaction.

#### ***B. Causal Discourse***

First, a causal discourse should be phased in more often, including in relation to the age factor, since studies may not consider some contrasting money use functions in different ages when younger individuals can be keen on wealth and status flaunting.

Second, punishment explanation was found to occasionally lack a key causal element in interpretation as positive stimulant removal can be claimed to follow a behaviour rather than negative behaviour. It is important to differentiate between the onset of poor performance or

behaviour and the planned removal of a positive stimulus. Otherwise, the relevance of penal motivation may escape practitioners and others studying the topic.

Third, generalization and oversight led to important aspects being overlooked in many studies, which can have otherwise been dwelt on, including female pragmatism, the role of male partners and their chauvinist impulses in shaping the occupational agenda of female partners, the blend of culture and gender in conservative and patriarchal Muslims societies, and the nature of extrinsic reward or its potential for an increase in the financial self-sufficiency of women. The generalization of the gender factor often unwittingly leads to the oversimplification of an important factor in women's attitude toward extrinsic rewards.

### ***C. Research Clarity***

First, studies should not fail to personalise the initiator of promotion denial. Although inherent gender bias should be expected in male managers, the pragmatism of female leaders cannot be dismissed unless empirically.

Second, studies must be clear in terms of the concepts used, including selection, which sounds vague as an organisational tool possibly implying the use of talents for specific tasks. Otherwise, interpretation can be speculative, which could undermine its accuracy.

### ***D. Interpretation Depth***

The conflict complicating women's ability to perform duties at work and home is not well defined, which can relate to male's failure to accept the capability parity with women or their indignation at women's failure to perform household duties over the large volume of work-based commitments or workload. This extra insight can facilitate the comprehension of factors influencing the stance of women toward extrinsic rewards, such as promotion.

### ***5.2.3. Promising Research Avenues***

First, it is important to consider the utility of individual motivational approaches, such as praises and patting on the shoulder, in different contexts, especially contrasting ones, since

each type of settings can present certain factors shaping unique preferences of motivation recipients, which determines the utility of stimulation. The workplace context, for example, brings a natural expectation of extrinsic rewards. How the recipient subject to incentivization responds to a stimulus is important, which he or she may differently even while in the same context due to a mixture of collateral factors, such as age, gender, and culture, which goes to show the complexity of the rewarding system, the needs of its diversification and personalization, and progressive update.

Second, improving the understanding of the distribution of incentives and their variability is important too. Each of the factors, such as gender, age, and culture, should be applied to different extrinsic rewards rather than just promotion, with income also important as its rate can disclose a gender-specific perception of the extent to which each gender or age group representative deserves a reward. Older employees can be assigned lower rates due to the perceived lower range of needs and ambitions requiring funding and higher remuneration, or they can be presumed to be helped by children as a compensatory counterbalancing factor that can justify the assignment of a lower pay. Women can be subject to smaller remuneration and bonuses in the belief that they have male partners, parents, or relatives who must be providing for them. It is not that women lack financial discretion; it is that they can be believed to be holding much money while working, such that they may not need as much as male employees do. Further studies can explore this way of thinking, which can inform the extrinsic reward decisions of managers, using studies, such as that by Briegel and Zivkovic (2008), which showed that Arab women did have control of their own money, while men were not at liberty to touch the money, with which the bride entered the marriage, being obliged to pay all household bills, since Islam tenets reserve the right for women to spend their money the way they regard as fitting without having to commit them to household management. The research literature stands to benefit from studies with diverse geography involving different rewards and

genders, which can polarise the discourse along cultural lines, producing evidence of motivation system complexity and the relevance of its contextual uniqueness.

There are other factors as well. While the paper has its focus limitations, further studies can delve into motivation aspects not studied that, however, are of significant relevance. The coverage of motivational mechanisms can stand to benefit from at least a veneer of psychological interpretation, failing which practitioners, such as HR experts, will keep applying motivational approaches indiscriminately without considering the psyche aspect much, whose understanding can key to the effective distribution of resources in the context of motivation fostering. Jung's archetypes, such as that of a jester or outlaw, can rationalise the temporal effectiveness of motivation mechanisms, which can deny some employees their behavioural essence, pushing them out of their comfort zone and, therefore, affecting performance, despite forcing aberrant conduct moderation. It can be a good idea to draw from the psychoanalytic theory of Sigmund Freud to comprehend how it is that certain employees can meet needs and urges based on their personality composition or, rather, the balance of its elements. The relapse and negative emotions seem to be a failure of ego personality element to mediate between instinctive aggressive urges and the moral compass of super-ego. Researchers should consider how to defy the Freudian id element of personality, since the instinctual pleasure principle can lead to motivation fizzling out when the feel-good effect of a reward expires with its withdrawal. It would be wise to trace the scope of positive effect persistence following the suspension of a motivational tool. Studies can focus on the optimization of the recruitment process by organisations that can do comprehensive profiling to gain an understanding of the settings, in which an applicant was raised, which can disclose moral standards and the possibility of their internalization by a would-be employee and healthy psyche establishment during formative years, which can show the effectiveness of certain motivational mechanisms in terms of their effect durability and attitude adjustment potential. If plied with

proper moral norms, an employee is likely to respond to a penal measure with understanding, regarding it as a signal of behaviour change relevance. If an employee's-to-be psyche is found lacking a balance between id and superego, the use of certain practices, such as punishment, no matter how logical, can prove counterproductive by sparking backlash. While this can be time-consuming, organisations can be better off personalizing its reward system and rendering it more targeted.

Third, while researchers largely focus on extrinsic motivations, such as reinforcement and punishment, they may overlook the role of organisations in intrinsic rewards, which is internal, and which depends on every organisation employee. Still, it is they that distribute tasks and duties, which can be interesting for some and tedious for others. What organisations also do is regulate autonomy, which allows employees to think creative or move along a well-trodden trajectory of task performance composed of a fixed protocol of actions that nips initiatives and precludes self-actualization. Intrinsic motivation is contextually determined, while the context is shaped by an employer. Unless conducive, the context may not allow an employee to tap into international motivational mechanisms or factors. Another motivational effort made by organisations, which seems marginalised in the scholarly discourse are environmental factors, such as sensory and auditory reinforcement, which can stimulate certain areas of the brain responsible for productivity, for example, or minimise fatigue.

As the same time, studying how employees can derive motivation unencouraged can also diversify and contribute to existing literature. Studies should focus on indirect behaviour modification rather than mostly direct engagement with employees and their stimulation, since the role of social learning is not worth underestimating as a way to showcase the patterns that earn rewards and recognition. There is a clear functional dualism of getting an employee stimulated only for others to get showing the incentive-winning behaviour and attitude. Studies will be right to consider the conditions of social learning, including factors like public nature



of incentivization and the self-perception of employees' chances and potential for securing a comparable bounty. Researchers will be well advised to consider self-sanctioned measures, such as self-punishment or self-discipline when an individual denies oneself opportunities or positive stimuli to improve performance. It may be that people with a strong internal locus of control, believing their mistakes in terms of time management and schedule planning, actions, and abilities rather than intervention of ambient factors to influence their work rhythm and pace, think fit to self-sanction a penal measure to suppress counterproductive behaviour. The propensity of people towards self-control via penal motivations can be linked to personality styles, such as perfectionism, since underperformance may get employees distraught, while self-penalisation can be a method of frustration relief by spurring reversion to optimal performance.

Fourth, in the discourse on the importance of motivation addressed via the study of what its deficit does to an employee, it would have been wise to consider stress degree, which can be variable, stress duration, the possibility of compensatory stress mitigation factors associated with work, and stress determinants or sources, such as the frequency of promotion denial, intervals between the promotion occasions, and the nature of the promotion. The bigger it is, the likelier it will be that stress grips the employee missing out on the reward. Still, empirical evidence is required to prove the presumption correct. It would also be rational to differentiate between various gender discrimination types in terms of their effect on performance and its aspects, since reward discrimination can be not as strong as sexual harassment. Studies should focus on the ripple effect of discrimination across performance determinants, such as commitment and satisfaction, to avoid the homogenization of discrimination outcomes, including satisfaction, commitment, and performance that do not seem simultaneous, being sequential instead.

### References

- Abbas, N. Abbas, F., and Ashiq, U. (2021) Glass ceiling effect and women career: determining factors in higher education institutions. *Sir Syed Journal of Education & Social Research*, 4(1). Available at: <[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/351445980\\_Glass\\_Ceiling\\_Effect\\_and\\_Women\\_Career\\_Determining\\_factors\\_in\\_Higher\\_Education\\_Institutions](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/351445980_Glass_Ceiling_Effect_and_Women_Career_Determining_factors_in_Higher_Education_Institutions)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Abbas, G., and Nawaz, A. (2019) Linking employee motivation with teamwork-spirit: the influence of social skills and self-confidence. *Gomal University Journal of Research*, 35(2). Available at: <[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/338165111\\_LINKING\\_EMPLOYEE\\_MOTIVATION\\_WITH\\_TEAMWORK-SPIRIT\\_THE\\_INFLUENCE\\_OF\\_SOCIAL\\_SKILLS\\_AND\\_SELF-CONFIDENCE](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/338165111_LINKING_EMPLOYEE_MOTIVATION_WITH_TEAMWORK-SPIRIT_THE_INFLUENCE_OF_SOCIAL_SKILLS_AND_SELF-CONFIDENCE)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Aderibigbe, I.A. (2017) Relationship between Employee Motivation and Productivity among Bankers in Nigeria. *Journal of Economics*, 8(1). Available at: <<https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/09765239.2017.1316964>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Babic, A., and Hansez, I. (2021) The glass ceiling for women managers: antecedents and consequences for work-family interface and well-being at work. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12. Available at: <<https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.618250/full>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Balfour, C.C.W., and Mujtaba, B.G. (2009) Are male employees promoted more often than females who are just as qualified? *Journal of Diversity Management*, 4(2). Available

at:

<[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/298725176\\_Are\\_Male\\_Employees\\_Promoted\\_More\\_Often\\_Than\\_Females\\_Who\\_Are\\_Just\\_As\\_Qualified](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/298725176_Are_Male_Employees_Promoted_More_Often_Than_Females_Who_Are_Just_As_Qualified)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Bond, M.H. (2010) *The Oxford handbook of Chinese psychology*. Oxford University Press.

Available at:

<<https://books.google.com/books?id=51Ni6CZEhzoC&pg=PA624&dq=power+distance+influences+promotion+motivation&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwizMIf-4YD9AhWShP0HHV-QAB4Q6AF6BAgGEAI#v=onepage&q=power%20distance%20influences%20promotion%20motivation&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Boumans, N.P.G., and De Jong, H.J., and Janssen, S.M. (2011) Age-differences in work motivation and job satisfaction. the influence of age on the relationships between work characteristics and workers' outcome. *International Journal of Aging and Human Development*, 73(4). Available at:

<[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/223956823\\_Age-Differences\\_in\\_Work\\_Motivation\\_and\\_Job\\_Satisfaction\\_The\\_Influence\\_of\\_Age\\_on\\_the\\_Relationships\\_between\\_Work\\_Characteristics\\_and\\_Workers'\\_Outcomes](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/223956823_Age-Differences_in_Work_Motivation_and_Job_Satisfaction_The_Influence_of_Age_on_the_Relationships_between_Work_Characteristics_and_Workers'_Outcomes)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Brandell, J.R. (2010) *Theory & practice in clinical social work*. Sage. Available at:

<[https://books.google.com/books?id=uwEfMidUUOgC&pg=PA27&dq=positive+and+negative+punishment+and+reinforcement&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjQ3ZzCyZ\\_9AhVnx4sKHZfJJDx4Q6AF6BAgDEAI#v=onepage&q=positive%20and%20negative%20punishment%20and%20reinforcement&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?id=uwEfMidUUOgC&pg=PA27&dq=positive+and+negative+punishment+and+reinforcement&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjQ3ZzCyZ_9AhVnx4sKHZfJJDx4Q6AF6BAgDEAI#v=onepage&q=positive%20and%20negative%20punishment%20and%20reinforcement&f=false)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

- Braverman, J., and Frost, J.H. (2012) Matching the graphical display of data to avoidance versus approach motivation increases outcome expectancies. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 152(2).
- Briegel, T., and Zivkovic, J. (2008) Financial Empowerment of Women in the United Arab Emirates. *Journal of Middle East Women's Studies*, 4(2). Available at: <<https://www.jstor.org/stable/10.2979/mew.2008.4.2.87>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Clary, T.C. (1973) Motivation through positive stroking. *Public Personnel Management*, 2(2). Available at: <<https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/009102607300200208>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- De Cabo, R.M., et al. (2019) Do 'soft law' board gender quotas work? Evidence from a natural experiment. *European Management Journal*, 37. Available at: <[https://eprints.ucm.es/id/eprint/67898/1/escot\\_lorenzo\\_soft\\_law.pdf](https://eprints.ucm.es/id/eprint/67898/1/escot_lorenzo_soft_law.pdf)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- De Pablos, P.O., et al. (2014) *Knowledge management for competitive advantage during economic crisis*. IGI Global. Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=7B6XBQAAQBAJ&pg=PA79&dq=collectivist+culture+are+less+creative&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwipp5OZoLv9AhXuh4sKHWVECZ84ChDoAXoECAQQA#v=onepage&q=collectivist%20culture%20are%20ess%20creative&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Eagle, J.W. (2008) In Salkind N.J. and Rasmussen, K. (eds). *Encyclopedia of Educational Psychology, Volume 1*. Sage, p.93, Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=iSeZNUeVpTsC&pg=PA94&dq=positive+and+negative+punishment+and+reinforcement&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwih0MiRtqH>>

9AhU9i8MKHW2-

BTcQ6AF6BAgMEAI#v=onepage&q=positive%20and%20negative%20punishment  
%20and%20reinforcement&f=false> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

El-Hay, M.A.A. (2019) *Understanding psychology for medicine and nursing: insights and applications*. Routledge. Available at:

<<https://books.google.com/books?id=2ELBDwAAQBAJ&pg=PT319&dq=The+incentive+theory+of+motivation+is+a+behavioral+theory+that+suggests&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjA2e6X3Kn9AhUGqYsKHap8AmYQ6AF6BAgJEAI#v=onepage&q=The%20incentive%20theory%20of%20motivation%20is%20a%20behavioral%20theory%20that%20suggests&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Elliot, A.J., Eder, A.B., and Harmon-Jones, E. (2013) Approach and avoidance motivation and emotion: Convergence and divergence. *Emotion Review*, 5. Available at:

<<https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/1754073913477517>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Engidaw, A.E. (2021) The effect of motivation on employee engagement in public sectors: in the case of North Wollo zone. *Journal of Innovation and Entrepreneurship*, 10.

Available at: <<https://innovation-entrepreneurship.springeropen.com/articles/10.1186/s13731-021-00185-1>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Forrest, L.C. (1990) *Training for the hospitality industry*. Educational Institute of the American Hotel & Motel Association. Available at:

<<https://books.google.com/books?id=IOFYQkoa-ekC&q=patting+on+the+back+and+hugging+as+employee+motivation+from+managers&dq=patting+on+the+back+and+hugging+as+employee+motivation+from+managers>>

ers&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwig8q-

nsIT9AhXJBRAIHTA7B38Q6AF6BAgCEAI> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Fric, K., and da Bino, C.G. (2018) *Discrimination against men at work: Experiences in five countries*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. Available at: <<https://euagenda.eu/upload/publications/untitled-150339-ea.pdf>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Froehlich, D.E., Raemdonck, and Beusaert, S. (2022) Resources to Increase Older Workers' Motivation and Intention to Learn. *Vocations and Learning*. Available at: <<https://link.springer.com/content/pdf/10.1007/s12186-022-09304-9.pdf?pdf=button>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Galunic, C. (2020) *Backstage leadership: The invisible work of highly effective leaders*. Springer Nature. Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=HpnqDwAAQBAJ&pg=PA115&dq=collectivist+culture+are+less+creative&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwif0Yess7v9AhWUvYsKHY8yDFU4ChDoAXoECACQAq#v=onepage&q=collectivist%20culture%20are%20less%20creative&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Gino, F., Wilmoth, C.A., and Brooks, A.W. (2015) Compared to men, women view professional advancement as equally attainable, but less desirable. *Psychological and Cognitive Sciences*, 112(40). Available at: <<https://www.pnas.org/doi/10.1073/pnas.1502567112>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Goel, S.L. (2001) *Health care system and management: Health care management and administration*. Deep & Deep Publications. Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=MvHaAAAAMAAJ&q=patting+on+the+back+and+hugging+as+motivation+from+managers&dq=patting+on+the+back+and+huggi>>

ng+as+motivation+from+managers&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwiows3XqIT9AhUC6CoKHXA VAJQQ6AF6BAgCEAI> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Gulati, R., Mayo, A.J., and Nohria, N. (2013) *Management*. Cengage Learning. Available at: <[https://books.google.com/books?id=sjcaBQAAQBAJ&pg=PA468&dq=an+individual%27s+needs+are+a+result+of+experience+acquired+through+life&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwihrt-fgqr9AhUF\\_CoKHf2oCU0Q6AF6BAgHEAI#v=onepage&q=an%20individual's%20needs%20are%20a%20result%20of%20experience%20acquired%20through%20life&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?id=sjcaBQAAQBAJ&pg=PA468&dq=an+individual%27s+needs+are+a+result+of+experience+acquired+through+life&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwihrt-fgqr9AhUF_CoKHf2oCU0Q6AF6BAgHEAI#v=onepage&q=an%20individual's%20needs%20are%20a%20result%20of%20experience%20acquired%20through%20life&f=false)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Hackenberg, T.D. (2009) Token reinforcement: A review and analysis. *The Journal of the Experimental Analysis of Behavior*, 91(2). Available at: <<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2648534/>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Heery, E., and Noon, M. (2017) *A dictionary of human resource management*. Oxford University Press. Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=eHs2DwAAQBAJ&pg=PT165&dq=questionnaire+that+asks+employees+about+their+attitude+towards+work&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjBntmDprn9AhVF6CoKHbIICrUQ6AF6BAgIEAI#v=onepage&q=questionnaire%20that%20asks%20employees%20about%20their%20attitude%20towards%20work&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Hill, G. (2001) *AS level psychology through diagrams*. Oxford University Press. Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=-rYkNmp4EPcC&pg=PA67&dq=theory+of+operant+conditioning&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjxl4aVrKL9AhXks4sKHQo7Aq04ChDoAXoECAUQA#v=onepage&q=theory%20of%20operant%20conditioning&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

- Holbeche, L. (2009) *Aligning human resources and business strategy*. Routledge. Available at: <[https://books.google.com/books?id=FTU9k93\\_cgQC&pg=PA348&dq=High-performance+cultures+are+characterized+by+highly+engaged+employees+who+are+trusted+to+complete+the+tasks+of+their+roles.&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwj61d2B1bX9AhXUzYsKHZAHAPIQ6AF6BAgEEAI#v=onepage&q=High-performance%20cultures%20are%20characterized%20by%20highly%20engaged%20employees%20who%20are%20trusted%20to%20complete%20the%20tasks%20of%20their%20roles.&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?id=FTU9k93_cgQC&pg=PA348&dq=High-performance+cultures+are+characterized+by+highly+engaged+employees+who+are+trusted+to+complete+the+tasks+of+their+roles.&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwj61d2B1bX9AhXUzYsKHZAHAPIQ6AF6BAgEEAI#v=onepage&q=High-performance%20cultures%20are%20characterized%20by%20highly%20engaged%20employees%20who%20are%20trusted%20to%20complete%20the%20tasks%20of%20their%20roles.&f=false)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Inceoglu, I., Segers, J., and Bartram, D. (2012) Age-related differences in work motivation. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 85. Available at: <[https://www.academia.edu/23221540/Age\\_related\\_differences\\_in\\_work\\_motivation](https://www.academia.edu/23221540/Age_related_differences_in_work_motivation)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Jha, S.K., and Jha, S. (2022) Gender discrimination and retaliation at Pinterest. *FIIB Business Review*. Available at: <<https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/epub/10.1177/23197145221099600>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Katz, L.T. (2021) Tearing down the maternal wall in the legal profession: a perspective inspired by difference feminism. *The Georgetown Journal of Gender and the Law*, 22. Available at: <<https://www.law.georgetown.edu/gender-journal/wp-content/uploads/sites/20/2021/08/Tearing-Down-the-Maternal-Wall.pdf>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Kaufman, J.C., and Sternberg, R.J. (2019) *The Cambridge handbook of creativity*. Cambridge University Press. Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=IQiKDwAAQBAJ&pg=PA205&dq=alcohol+abuse+reduces+creativity&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjkyLS42->>



L8AhUB\_CoKHfLiC0gQ6AF6BAgFEAI#v=onepage&q=alcohol%20abuse%20reduces%20creativity&f=false> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Khalid, A., Rahim, S., and Khalid, S. (2021) The effectiveness of reinforcement and punishment in learning environment. *Pakistan Journal of Humanities & Social Sciences Research*, 4(2). Available at: <<https://journals.wumardan.edu.pk/papers/203-212Aleena%20Khalid.pdf>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Khan, R. (2022) "Employee engagement: A strategic tool for performance enhancement during covid-19 pandemic situation." In Sruthi, S. et al. (eds). *Contemporary research in commerce & management, volume – 1*. RED'SHINE Publication. Pvt. Ltd.

Available at:

<<https://books.google.com/books?id=g9lqEAAAQBAJ&pg=PA87&dq=Employee+engagement+describes+the+level+of+enthusiasm+and+dedication+a+worker+feels+toward+their+job&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwj15f79ILT9AhWTIMMKHULxB1EQ6AF6BAgGEAI#v=onepage&q=Employee%20engagement%20describes%20the%20level%20of%20enthusiasm%20and%20dedication%20a%20worker%20feels%20toward%20their%20job&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Khandagale, K.V., and Kamble, A.S. (2022) Principles of management and organizational behavior. Sankalp Publication. Available at:

<<https://books.google.com/books?id=dLF-EAAAQBAJ&pg=PA57&dq=Main+basic+objective+of+motivation+is+to+create+conditions+in+which+people+are+willing+to+work+with+zeal,+initiative,+interest+and+enthusiasm+with+a+high+moral+satisfaction+personal+as+well+as+group.&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjXzsuj06z9AhVFtIsKHY6jC3wQ6AF6BAgCEAI#v=onepage&q=Main%20basic%20objective%20of%20motivation%20is%20to%20create%20conditions%20in%20which%20people%20are%20willing%20to%20work%20with%2>>

0zeal%2C%20initiative%2C%20interest%20and%20enthusiasm%20with%20a%20hi  
gh%20moral%20satisfaction%20personal%20as%20well%20as%20group.&f=false>

[Accessed 15 January 2023].

Khanka, S.S. (2007) *Human resource management*. S. Chand Publishing. Available at:

<<https://books.google.com/books?id=vEhLAgAAQBAJ&pg=PA254&dq=A+progressive+system+of+discipline+generally+contains+five+steps,+viz.,+an+oral+reprimand,+a+written+reprimand,+a+second+written+warning,+temporary+suspension+and+dismissal+or+discharge.&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwj7yvmrr5L9AhXchf0HHfyQCjQQ6AF6BAgIEAI#v=onepage&q=A%20progressive%20system%20of%20discipline%20generally%20contains%20five%20steps%2C%20viz.%2C%20an%20oral%20reprimand%2C%20a%20written%20reprimand%2C%20a%20second%20written%20warning%2C%20temporary%20suspension%20and%20dismissal%20or%20discharge.&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Klikauer, T. (2018) *Managing people in organizations*. Bloomsbury Publishing. Available at:

<<https://books.google.com/books?id=8B1HEAAAQBAJ&pg=PA267&dq=Knowledge+workers+are+workers+whose+main+capital+is+knowledge.+Examples+include+programmers,+physicians,+pharmacists,+architects,+engineers,+scientists&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwiptWZleH8AhUMt4sKHUWcAVIQ6AF6BAgIEAI#v=onepage&q=Knowledge%20workers%20are%20workers%20whose%20main%20capital%20is%20knowledge.%20Examples%20include%20programmers%2C%20physicians%2C%20pharmacists%2C%20architects%2C%20engineers%2C%20scientists&f=false>>

[Accessed 15 January 2023].

Kooji, D., et al. (2007) Older workers' motivation to continue to work: Five meanings of age.

A conceptual review. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 23. Available at:

<[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/4796098\\_Older\\_Workers'\\_Motivation\\_to\\_](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/4796098_Older_Workers'_Motivation_to_)

Continue\_to\_Work\_Five\_Meanings\_of\_Age\_A\_Conceptual\_Review> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Kowaleska, H. (2020) Bringing women on board? Family policies, quotas and gender diversity in top jobs. *British Sociological Association*, 35(4). Available at: <<https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/full/10.1177/0950017020971221>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Lauby, S.J. (2005) *Motivating employees*. American Society for Training and Development. Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=LKd2DOKd1EYC&pg=PA7&dq=The+reinforcement+theory+of+motivation+aims+to+motivate+staff+through+reinforcement,+punishment+and+extinction.&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjbp5nLn5X9AhXGhf0HHSDIB0IQ6AF6BAgCEAI#v=onepage&q=The%20reinforcement%20theory%20of%20motivation%20aims%20to%20motivate%20staff%20through%20reinforcement%2C%20punishment%20and%20extinction.&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Leavitt, H.J., Pondy, L.R., and Boje, D.M. (1989) *Readings in managerial psychology*. University of Chicago Press. Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=dwTvE44DOgQC&pg=PA320&dq=Carrot+and+Stick+Approach+Theory&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjirzkiKr9AhWOIYsKHQIwDQQQ6AF6BAgEEAI#v=onepage&q=Carrot%20and%20Stick%20Approach%20Theory&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Ledimo, O., Sabbagha, M. de S., and Martins, N. (2019) “Validation of an employee motivation measurement instrument in a financial organization.” In Stacey, A. (ed). *ECRM 2019 18<sup>th</sup> European conference on research methods in business and management*. Academic Conferences and Publishing Limited. Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=Uc->

hDwAAQBAJ&pg=PA175&dq=Employee+motivation+is+defined+as&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjrodyh26z9AhVxpIsKHc\_PC34Q6AF6BAgNEAI#v=onepage&q=Employee%20motivation%20is%20defined%20as&f=false> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Lingard, H., and Rowlinson, S.M. (2005) *Occupational health and safety in construction project management*. Taylor & Francis. Available at:

<<https://books.google.com/books?id=Pu8Abt1vsPQC&pg=PA298&dq=Herzberg%27s+dual+factor+theory&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjYm7qmtqv9AhWSvIsKHJqD3kQ6AF6BAgLEAI#v=onepage&q=Herzberg's%20dual%20factor%20theory&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Luceno, C.-T.D. (2006) Maternal wall discrimination: Evidence required for litigation and cost-effective solutions for a flexible workplace. *Hastings Business Law Journal*, 3(1). Available at: <<https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/230132144.pdf>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Maithel, N., Chaubey, D.S., and Gupta, D. (2012) Impact of organization culture on employee motivation and job performance. *International Journal of Research in Commerce & Management*, 3(5). Available at: <[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/280529193\\_Impact\\_Of\\_Organization\\_Culture\\_On\\_Employee\\_Motivation\\_And\\_Job\\_Performance](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/280529193_Impact_Of_Organization_Culture_On_Employee_Motivation_And_Job_Performance)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Management Association (2013) *K-12 education: Concepts, methodologies, tools, and applications: concepts, methodologies, tools, and applications*. IGI Global. Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=E-KWBQAAQBAJ&pg=PA1444&dq=patting+on+the+back+and+hugging+as+motivation+from+managers&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwiows3XqIT9AhUC6CoKHXaVAJQQ6AF6BAgFEAI#v=onepage&q=patting%20on%20the%20back%20and%20hugg>>

ing%20as%20motivation%20from%20managers&f=false> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Mangkunegara, A.P., and Octorend, T.R. (2015) Effect of work discipline, work motivation and job satisfaction on employee organizational commitment in the company (case study in pt. Dada Indonesia). *Universal Journal of Management*, 3(8). Available at: <<https://www.hrpub.org/download/20150831/UJM3-12104318.pdf>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Manzi, F. (2019) Are the processes underlying discrimination the same for women and men? A critical review of congruity models of gender discrimination. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10. Available at: <<https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00469/full>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Manzoor, F., Wei, L., and Asif, M. (2021) Intrinsic rewards and employee's performance with the mediating mechanism of employee's motivation. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12. Available at: <<https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.563070/full>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Martin, G., and Pear, J.J. (2019) *Behavior modification: What it is and how to do it*. Routledge. Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=Tzn3DwAAQBAJ&pg=PA223&dq=Motivating+Operations+are+motivations+behind+a+certain+behavior&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKewi2-sbktZL9AhVQiIsKHWQ6BXcQ6AF6BAgGEAI#v=onepage&q=Motivating%20Operations%20are%20motivations%20behind%20a%20certain%20behavior&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

McCann, M.W. (1994) *Rights at work: Pay equity reform and the politics of legal*

*mobilization*. The University of Chicago Press. Available at:

<[https://books.google.com/books?id=WtoAayu603kC&pg=PA260&dq=respect+from+others+increases+self+esteem&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwilj9ePro39AhVrmYsKHeO\\_DEwQ6AF6BAgHEAI#v=onepage&q=respect%20from%20others%20increase%20self%20esteem&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?id=WtoAayu603kC&pg=PA260&dq=respect+from+others+increases+self+esteem&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwilj9ePro39AhVrmYsKHeO_DEwQ6AF6BAgHEAI#v=onepage&q=respect%20from%20others%20increase%20self%20esteem&f=false)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

McConnell, J.V. (2001) *Handbook for teaching introductory psychology*. Psychology Press.

Available at:

<[https://books.google.com/books?id=icF5AgAAQBAJ&pg=PA215&dq=positive+and+negative+punishment+and+reinforcement&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwiMgv34laL9AhUH\\_SoKHWOQCeI4ChDoAXoEACAcQAg#v=onepage&q=positive%20and%20negative%20punishment%20and%20reinforcement&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?id=icF5AgAAQBAJ&pg=PA215&dq=positive+and+negative+punishment+and+reinforcement&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwiMgv34laL9AhUH_SoKHWOQCeI4ChDoAXoEACAcQAg#v=onepage&q=positive%20and%20negative%20punishment%20and%20reinforcement&f=false)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

McConnell, C.R. (2018) *The effective health care supervisor*. Jones & Bartlett Learning.

Available at:

<[https://books.google.com/books?id=E39KDwAAQBAJ&pg=PA219&dq=some+employees+need+and+appreciate+supervision&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjJl4PC\\_4j9AhVolosKHS6CAhAQ6AF6BAgJEAI#v=onepage&q=some%20employees%20need%20and%20appreciate%20supervision&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?id=E39KDwAAQBAJ&pg=PA219&dq=some+employees+need+and+appreciate+supervision&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjJl4PC_4j9AhVolosKHS6CAhAQ6AF6BAgJEAI#v=onepage&q=some%20employees%20need%20and%20appreciate%20supervision&f=false)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

McGregor, L., and Doshi, N. (2015) How company culture shapes employee motivation.

[online]. *Harvard Business Review*. Available at: <<https://hbr.org/2015/11/how-company-culture-shapes-employee-motivation>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

McKay, R.J. (2007) *Canadian handbook of flexible benefits*. John Wiley & Sons. Available

at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=0UqdJBy4wWcC&pg=PA399&dq=one-on-one+interviews+with+employees+to+identify+their+attitude+toward+job&hl=en&sa>

=X&ved=2ahUKEwil25WFlbn9AhWHjYsKHbuZDYM4ChDoAXoEAcQAg#v=onepage&q=one-on-

one%20interviews%20with%20employees%20to%20identify%20their%20attitude%20toward%20job&f=false> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

McLay, L.K., France, K.G., and Blampied, N.M. (2022) *Clinical handbook of behavioral*

*sleep treatment in children on the autism spectrum*. Springer Nature. Available at:

<<https://books.google.com/books?id=caCYEAAAQBAJ&pg=PA163&dq=Social+reinforcement+can+include+smiles,+tickles,+high+fives,+and+praise.&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwiVgdupt6z9AhU9DRAIHXhaCGUQ6AF6BAgGEAI#v=onepage&q=Social%20reinforcement%20can%20include%20smiles%2C%20tickles%2C%20high%20fives%2C%20and%20praise.&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

McNamara, E. (2014) *Positive pupil management and motivation: a secondary teacher's*

*guide*. Routledge. Available at:

<[https://books.google.com/books?id=sgMSBAAAQBAJ&pg=PA19&dq=feedback+a+s+positive+reinforcement&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwi\\_-LqTzaz9AhVGx4sKHYMOCG4Q6AF6BAgIEAI#v=onepage&q=feedback%20as%20positive%20reinforcement&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?id=sgMSBAAAQBAJ&pg=PA19&dq=feedback+a+s+positive+reinforcement&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwi_-LqTzaz9AhVGx4sKHYMOCG4Q6AF6BAgIEAI#v=onepage&q=feedback%20as%20positive%20reinforcement&f=false)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Mills, A.J., et al. (2006) *Organizational behavior in a global context*. The University of

Toronto Press. Available at:

<[https://books.google.com/books?id=eTpoNm5U\\_JwC&pg=PA233&dq=employees+motivated+only+by+money&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjo3rTe2qv9AhVMBxAIHfIwCBsQ6AF6BAgMEAI#v=onepage&q=employees%20motivated%20only%20by%20money&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?id=eTpoNm5U_JwC&pg=PA233&dq=employees+motivated+only+by+money&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjo3rTe2qv9AhVMBxAIHfIwCBsQ6AF6BAgMEAI#v=onepage&q=employees%20motivated%20only%20by%20money&f=false)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Munir, R., et al. (2016) Impact of rewards (intrinsic and extrinsic) on employee performance

with special reference to courier companies of Faisalabad city. *European Journal of*

*Business and Management*, 8(25). Available at:

<<https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/234627487.pdf>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

National Research Council/Institute of Medicine, Division of Behavioral and Social Sciences and Education, Commission on Behavioral and Social Sciences and Education, Committee on Drug Use in the Workplace (1994) *Under the influence? Drugs and the American work force*. National Academies Press. Available at:

<<https://books.google.com/books?id=ZNIEW1B6SV8C&pg=PT77&dq=Blue-collar+workers+suffer+from+high+rates+of+alcohol+and+drug+abuse.&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjejsDAreH8AhUklIsKHcx4BKQQ6AF6BAgLEAI#v=onepage&q=Blue-collar%20workers%20suffer%20from%20high%20rates%20of%20alcohol%20and%20drug%20abuse.&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Nelson, U.C., Chiamaka, O.M., and Collins, O. (2019) Discipline and organizational performance in Nigeria. *International Journal of Current Research*, 11(3). Available at: <[https://www.journalcra.com/sites/default/files/issue-pdf/34317\\_0.pdf](https://www.journalcra.com/sites/default/files/issue-pdf/34317_0.pdf)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Nelson-Jones, R. (2014) *Nelson-Jones' theory and practice of counselling and psychotherapy*. Sage. Available at:

<<https://books.google.com/books?id=vx6JCwAAQBAJ&pg=PA155&dq=stroking+is+any+act+implying+recognition+of+another%E2%80%99s+presence&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwidqvq5qaz9AhVvkIsKHZpVDLgQ6AF6BAgJEAI#v=onepage&q=stroking%20is%20any%20act%20implying%20recognition%20of%20another%E2%80%99s%20presence&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Nepal, J., and Lertjanyakit, H. (2019) Impact of gender-based discrimination on employee performance in case of Nepalese commercial banks. *Nepalese Journal of*



*Management Science and Research*, 2(1). Available at:

<<https://www.nepjol.info/index.php/njmsr/article/view/36851/28692>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Pendell, R. (2022) The world's \$7.8 trillion workplace problem. [online]. *Gallup*. Available at: <<https://www.gallup.com/workplace/393497/world-trillion-workplace-problem.aspx>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Pew Research Center (2013) *On pay gap, millennial women near parity – for now despite gains, many see roadblocks ahead*. Available at: <<https://www.pewresearch.org/social-trends/2013/12/11/chapter-4-men-and-women-at-work/>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Phillips, P.P., and Phillips, J.J. (2012) *10 steps to successful business alignment*. American Society for Training and Development. Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=Z5CspcNE6IQC&pg=PA43&dq=questionnaire+that+asks+employees+about+their+attitude+towards+work&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjRj9Goqbn9AhUNBhAIHWYDCJU4ChDoAXoECAgQA#v=onepage&q=questionnaire%20that%20asks%20employees%20about%20their%20attitude%20towards%20work&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Pompper, D. (2016) *Rhetoric of femininity: Female body image, media, and gender role stress/conflict*. Lexington Books. Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=3G5xDQAAQBAJ&pg=PA4&dq=women%27s+career+still+held+back+by+conservative+family+role+views&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwiT3ICPoev8AhUwlosKHS-HBc8Q6AF6BAGHEAI#v=onepage&q=women's%20career%20still%20held%20back%20by%20conservative%20family%20role%20views&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

- Pownall, M., et al. (2021) Memory and mood changes in pregnancy: a qualitative content analysis of women's first-hand accounts. *Journal of Reproductive and Infant Psychology*. Available at: <<https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/02646838.2022.2052827>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Prased, L., and Gulshan, S.S. (2011) *Management principles and practices*. Excel Books India. Available at: <[https://books.google.com.ua/books?id=ky4em-N02tAC&pg=PA348&dq=patting+on+the+back+and+hugging+as+motivation+from+managers&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwil4\\_vQkYT9AhXR\\_SoKHcpoAE0Q6AF6BAGFEAI#v=onepage&q=patting%20on%20the%20back%20and%20hugging%20as%20motivation%20from%20managers&f=false](https://books.google.com.ua/books?id=ky4em-N02tAC&pg=PA348&dq=patting+on+the+back+and+hugging+as+motivation+from+managers&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwil4_vQkYT9AhXR_SoKHcpoAE0Q6AF6BAGFEAI#v=onepage&q=patting%20on%20the%20back%20and%20hugging%20as%20motivation%20from%20managers&f=false)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Profeta, P. (2017) *Gender quotas and efficiency*. Ifo DICE Report, 15. Available at: <<https://www.ifo.de/DocDL/dice-report-2017-2-profeta-june.pdf>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Ribiere, V., and Worasinchai, L. (2013) *ICMLG2013-proceedings of the international conference on management, leadership and governance: ICMLG 2013*. Academic Conferences Limited. Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=-KkIBAAQBAJ&pg=PA445&dq=power+distance+determines+the+ambitions+of+employees&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjIyO3Kz7v9AhXHpYsKHXk-BzQQ6AF6BAGHEAI#v=onepage&q=power%20distance%20determines%20the%20ambitions%20of%20employees&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Rosid, A., Endarwati, L., Kusumawati, I. (2022) The influence of organization culture and work environment toward work motivation which implications for the job performance the charitable efforts of Muhammadiyah education institutions in Tangerang-Indonesia. *Formosa Journal of Science and Technology*, 1(3).

- Roueche, J.E., and Roueche, S.D. (2000) *Rising to the challenge: Lessons learned from Guilford technical community college*. The American Association of Community Colleges. Available at:  
<<https://books.google.com/books?id=jv0SBaGDmIIC&pg=PA28&dq=Employee+growth+is+improvement+of+skills&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjhs4OrybP9AhWjAhAIHbUbBWkQ6AF6BAgFEAI#v=onepage&q=Employee%20growth%20is%20improvement%20of%20skills&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Sarafino, E.P. (2011) *Applied behavior analysis: Principles and procedures in behavior modification*. John Wiley & Sons. Available at:  
<<https://books.google.com/books?id=sIEmEAAAQBAJ&pg=PA140&dq=behavior+of+employers+can+be+motivating&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwiR3K7eiZD9AhVDpIsKHVp5CP8Q6AF6BAgKEAI#v=onepage&q=behavior%20of%20employers%20can%20be%20motivating&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Sawicki, M., and Szóstak, M. (2020) Impact of Alcohol on Occupational Health and Safety in the Construction Industry at Workplaces with Scaffoldings. *Applied Science*, 10(19). Available at: <<https://www.mdpi.com/2076-3417/10/19/6690>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].
- Selly, P.B. (2012) *Early childhood activities for a greener earth*. Redleaf Press. Available at:  
<<https://books.google.com/books?id=rSjoCAAQBAJ&pg=PA212&dq=a+suggestion+box+year-round+and+encourage+employees+to+anonymously+voice+concerns&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwimi9e5irm9AhVUzYsKHRqSAT8Q6AF6BAgJEAI#v=onepage&q=a%20suggestion%20box%20year-round%20and%20encourage%20employees%20to%20anonymously%20voice%20concerns&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Shaikh, M.W. (2022) *Compensation and reward management*. Prowess Publishing. Available at:

<<https://books.google.com/books?id=ACOGEEAAAQBAJ&pg=PT31&dq=Employee+motivation+is+defined+as+the+level+of+energy,+commitment,+persistence,+and+creativity+that+workers+bring+to+their+jobs.&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwiCz4rQ06z9AhVC6CoKHYK9D2cQ6AF6BAgGEAI#v=onepage&q=Employee%20motivation%20is%20defined%20as%20the%20level%20of%20energy%2C%20commitment%2C%20persistence%2C%20and%20creativity%20that%20workers%20bring%20to%20their%20jobs.&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Sidhu, M.S. (2019) *Advanced technology-assisted problem solving in engineering education: emerging research and opportunities: emerging research and opportunities*. IGI Global. Available at:

<[https://books.google.com/books?id=MsO4DwAAQBAJ&pg=PA111&dq=Behaviorism+is+a+systematic+approach+to+understanding+the+behavior+of+humans+and+other+animals&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwiw\\_f\\_S9ML9AhURp4sKHRqCBdIQ6AF6BAgHEAI#v=onepage&q=Behaviorism%20is%20a%20systematic%20approach%20to%20understanding%20the%20behavior%20of%20humans%20and%20other%20animals&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?id=MsO4DwAAQBAJ&pg=PA111&dq=Behaviorism+is+a+systematic+approach+to+understanding+the+behavior+of+humans+and+other+animals&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwiw_f_S9ML9AhURp4sKHRqCBdIQ6AF6BAgHEAI#v=onepage&q=Behaviorism%20is%20a%20systematic%20approach%20to%20understanding%20the%20behavior%20of%20humans%20and%20other%20animals&f=false)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Sjaastad, O.V., Sand, O., and Hove, K. (2010) *Physiology of domestic animals*. Physiology of Domestic Animals. Available at: <<https://books.google.com/books?id=5Uw-LJIU3I8C&pg=PA155&dq=The+main+difference+between+classical+and+operant+conditioning+is+that+classical+conditioning+associates+involuntary+behavior+with+a+stimulus+while+operant+conditioning+associates+voluntary+action+with+a+consequence.&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjevMXLhKn9AhXnpYsKHS9UCXsQ6AF6BAgGEAI#v=onepage&q=The%20main%20difference%20between%20classical%20>

and operant conditioning is that classical conditioning associates involuntary behavior with a stimulus while operant conditioning associates voluntary action with a consequence. &f=false> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Sjölund, S., Hemmingsoon, T., and Allebeck, P. (2015) IQ and level of alcohol consumption – findings from a national survey of Swedish conscripts. *Alcoholism, Clinical and Experimental Research*, 39(3). Available at:  
<<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4368388/>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Smit, P.J. (2007) *Management principles: A contemporary edition for Africa*. Juta and Company Ltd. Available at:  
<<https://books.google.com/books?id=rInm6bNmn9AC&pg=PA351&dq=Reinforcement+Theory+of+motivation+aims+at+achieving+the+desired+level+of+motivation+among+the+employees+by+means+of+reinforcement,+punishment+and+extinction.+Reinforcement+approach,+which+can+be+both+positive+and+negative,+is+used+to+reinforce+the+desired+behavior.&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwi1vZ6m6ob9AhXRmosKHRX4DKgQ6AF6BAgGEAI#v=onepage&q=Reinforcement%20Theory%20of%20motivation%20aims%20at%20achieving%20the%20desired%20level%20of%20motivation%20among%20the%20employees%20by%20means%20of%20reinforcement%20punishment%20and%20extinction.%20Reinforcement%20approach%20which%20can%20be%20both%20positive%20and%20negative%20is%20used%20to%20reinforce%20the%20desired%20behavior.&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Sokro, E. (2012) Analysis of the relationship that exists between organisational culture, motivation and performance. *Problems of Management in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century*, 3.

Available at: <[https://www.scientiasocialis.lt/pmc/files/pdf/Sokro\\_Vol.3.pdf](https://www.scientiasocialis.lt/pmc/files/pdf/Sokro_Vol.3.pdf)>

[Accessed 15 January 2023].

Spiegler, M.D. (2015) *Contemporary behavior therapy*. Cengage Learning. Available at:

<[https://books.google.com/books?id=oTJ-](https://books.google.com/books?id=oTJ-BAAAQBAJ&pg=PA155&dq=There+are+four+types+of+positive+reinforcers:+natural,+tangible,+social,+and+token.&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwiGttHOMaz9AhVQIYsKHZiYD90Q6AF6BAgDEAI#v=onepage&q=There%20are%20four%20types%20of%20positive%20reinforcers%3A%20natural%2C%20tangible%2C%20social%2C%20and%20token.&f=false)

[BAAAQBAJ&pg=PA155&dq=There+are+four+types+of+positive+reinforcers:+natural,+tangible,+social,+and+token.&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwiGttHOMaz9AhVQIYsKHZiYD90Q6AF6BAgDEAI#v=onepage&q=There%20are%20four%20types%20of%20positive%20reinforcers%3A%20natural%2C%20tangible%2C%20social%2C%20and%20token.&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?id=oTJ-BAAAQBAJ&pg=PA155&dq=There+are+four+types+of+positive+reinforcers:+natural,+tangible,+social,+and+token.&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwiGttHOMaz9AhVQIYsKHZiYD90Q6AF6BAgDEAI#v=onepage&q=There%20are%20four%20types%20of%20positive%20reinforcers%3A%20natural%2C%20tangible%2C%20social%2C%20and%20token.&f=false)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Stich, A.J., Hassell, K.D., and Archbold, C.A. (2010) Strength in numbers? A test of Kanter's theory of tokenism. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 38(4). Available at:

<<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S0047235210000917>>

[Accessed 15 January 2023].

Stroud, D. (2005) *The 50 plus market: Why the future is age-neutral when it comes to marketing and branding strategies*. Kogan Page Publishers. Available at:

<<https://books.google.com/books?id=qQgI5xK7cvIC&pg=PA69&dq=younger+people+like+to+show+off+their+money+more+than+older&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwj6xcnKneH8AhVvposKHf4MA4QQ6AF6BAgIEAI#v=onepage&q=younger%20people%20like%20to%20show%20off%20their%20money%20more%20than%20older&f=false>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Sulila, I. (2019) The effect of discipline and work motivation on employee performance.

*International Journal of Applied Business & International Management*, 4(3).

Available at:

<[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/338081893\\_The\\_Effect\\_of\\_Discipline\\_an](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/338081893_The_Effect_of_Discipline_an)

d\_Work\_Motivation\_on\_Employee\_Performance\_BTPN\_Gorontalo> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

*The Corporate board* (2000) Vanguard Publications. Available at:

<<https://books.google.com/books?id=PZwiAQAAMAAJ&q=a+suggestion+box+year-round+and+encourage+employees+to+anonymously+voice+concerns&dq=a+suggestion+box+year-round+and+encourage+employees+to+anonymously+voice+concerns&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjcntGC97j9AhUGtYsKHU4nCS84ChDoAXoECAcQAq>> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Thomas, D.S.K., et al. (2013) *Social vulnerability to disasters, second edition*. CRC Press.

Available at:

<[https://books.google.com/books?id=onAWhiaVsuIC&pg=PA92&dq=White-collar+jobs+tend+to+pay+better+than+blue-collar+jobs&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwixk\\_nmpOH8AhWJxosKHWgPD7cQ6AF6BAgFEAI#v=onepage&q=White-collar%20jobs%20tend%20to%20pay%20better%20than%20blue-collar%20jobs&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?id=onAWhiaVsuIC&pg=PA92&dq=White-collar+jobs+tend+to+pay+better+than+blue-collar+jobs&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwixk_nmpOH8AhWJxosKHWgPD7cQ6AF6BAgFEAI#v=onepage&q=White-collar%20jobs%20tend%20to%20pay%20better%20than%20blue-collar%20jobs&f=false)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Uhl-Bien, M., Piccolo, R.F., and Schermerhorn, J.R. (2020) *Organizational behavior*. John Wiley & Sons. Available at:

<[https://books.google.com/books?id=jXTNDwAAQBAJ&pg=SA5-PA2&dq=intrinsic+motivation+are+intangible&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjD\\_N3Z1rD9AhVRDRAIHRPKAYsQ6AF6BAgJEAI#v=onepage&q=intrinsic%20motivation%20are%20intangible&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?id=jXTNDwAAQBAJ&pg=SA5-PA2&dq=intrinsic+motivation+are+intangible&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjD_N3Z1rD9AhVRDRAIHRPKAYsQ6AF6BAgJEAI#v=onepage&q=intrinsic%20motivation%20are%20intangible&f=false)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Van den Branden, K. (2022) *How to teach an additional language: to task or not to task?*

John Benjamins Publishing Company. Available at:

<<https://books.google.com/books?id=0F5IEAAAQBAJ&pg=PA90&dq=motivation+drives+engagement&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwixt4yS7sL9AhWolosKHa0xBPUQ6AF6BAgHEAI#v=onepage&q=motivation%20drives%20engagement&f=false>>

[Accessed 15 January 2023].

Wamuyu, P.K. (2020) *Analysing global social media consumption*. IGI Global. Available at:

<[https://books.google.com/books?id=PrkIEAAAQBAJ&pg=PA126&dq=power+distance+employees+are+less+interested+in+promotions&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjS4vG13Lv9AhVp\\_CoKHezKDn84ChDoAXoEAcQA#v=onepage&q=power%20distance%20employees%20are%20less%20interested%20in%20promotions&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?id=PrkIEAAAQBAJ&pg=PA126&dq=power+distance+employees+are+less+interested+in+promotions&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjS4vG13Lv9AhVp_CoKHezKDn84ChDoAXoEAcQA#v=onepage&q=power%20distance%20employees%20are%20less%20interested%20in%20promotions&f=false)>

[Accessed 15 January 2023].

Weldeyohannes, G. (2015) Employee Motivation and Its Impact on Productivity in the Case of National Alcohol and Liquor Factory (NALF). *Journal of Poverty, Investment and Development*, 15. Available at: <<https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/234695319.pdf>>

[Accessed 15 January 2023].

Williams, J.C., and Westfall, E.S. (2006) Deconstructing the maternal wall: strategies for vindicating the civil rights of “carers” in the workplace. *Duke Journal of Gender Law & Society*, 13(31). Available at:

<<https://scholarship.law.duke.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1098&context=djglp>>

[Accessed 15 January 2023].

Yusoff, W.F., Kian, T.S., Idris, M.T. (2013) Herzberg’s two factors theory on work motivation: does it work for today’s environment? *Global Journal of Commerce & Management Perspective*, 2(5). Available at:

<[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/262639924\\_Herzberg's\\_Two-](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/262639924_Herzberg's_Two-)



Factor\_Theory\_on\_Work\_Motivation\_Does\_it\_Works\_for\_Todays\_Environment>

[Accessed 15 January 2023].

Zama, M.M.A., and Endeley, M.N. (2023) *General pedagogy: A guide to effective teaching*.

Spears Media Press. Available at:

<[https://books.google.com/books?id=4CaqEAAAQBAJ&pg=PA75&dq=Extrinsic+motivation+can+be+tangible,+such+as+money+or+grades,+or+intangible,+such+as+praise+or+fame.&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjy6N\\_EiK\\_9AhVOI4sKHQUoDJ8Q6AF6BAgIEAI#v=onepage&q=Extrinsic%20motivation%20can%20be%20tangible%20C%20such%20as%20money%20or%20grades%2C%20or%20intangible%2C%20such%20as%20praise%20or%20fame.&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?id=4CaqEAAAQBAJ&pg=PA75&dq=Extrinsic+motivation+can+be+tangible,+such+as+money+or+grades,+or+intangible,+such+as+praise+or+fame.&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjy6N_EiK_9AhVOI4sKHQUoDJ8Q6AF6BAgIEAI#v=onepage&q=Extrinsic%20motivation%20can%20be%20tangible%20C%20such%20as%20money%20or%20grades%2C%20or%20intangible%2C%20such%20as%20praise%20or%20fame.&f=false)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].

Zangeneh, M., Blaszczynski, A., and Turner, N. (2007) *In the pursuit of winning: Problem gambling theory, research and treatment*. Springer Science & Business Media.

Available at:

<[https://books.google.com/books?id=Z37cRh9KLCUC&pg=PA67&dq=positive+and+negative+punishment+and+reinforcement&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjHm9THqaL9AhVImIsKHTj\\_BdE4ChDoAXoECAkQAg#v=onepage&q=positive%20and%20negative%20punishment%20and%20reinforcement&f=false](https://books.google.com/books?id=Z37cRh9KLCUC&pg=PA67&dq=positive+and+negative+punishment+and+reinforcement&hl=en&sa=X&ved=2ahUKEwjHm9THqaL9AhVImIsKHTj_BdE4ChDoAXoECAkQAg#v=onepage&q=positive%20and%20negative%20punishment%20and%20reinforcement&f=false)> [Accessed 15 January 2023].