World Journal of Advanced Research and Reviews

eISSN: 2581-9615 CODEN (USA): WJARAI

Cross Ref DOI: 10.30574/wjarr

Journal homepage: https://wjarr.com/

(Research Article)

Check for updates

Examining the impact of incentives on employee's performance: A case study of the Ghana revenue authority in the Northern Region

Aboko Akudugu *, Diedong Abiba Mwinikoma Mavis and Alhassan Mbawin Akudugu

Department of Secretaryship and Management Studies, Tamale Technical University, P.O. Box 3 E/R, Tamale, Ghana.

World Journal of Advanced Research and Reviews, 2023, 20(02), 032–040

Publication history: Received on 16 September 2023; revised on 25 October 2023; accepted on 27 October 2023

Article DOI: https://doi.org/10.30574/wjarr.2023.20.2.2180

Abstract

This study employed a quantitative research design, converting responses into numerical values to mitigate potential biases arising from subjective interpretation. It focuses on the Northern Area offices of the Ghana Revenue Authority (GRA). A total of 120 staff members were considered for the study. A sample size of 92 staff members was selected using a simple random sampling technique. Data was collected through a questionnaire employing a five-point Likert scale. The instrument's reliability was assessed with Cronbach's Alpha ($\alpha = 0.784$), signifying high reliability. The study's results show a high level of significance (Sig=0.000) for both financial and non-financial incentives, indicating their statistical significance in predicting employee performance. Regression analysis revealed that incentives significantly impact employee performance (Beta = 18.04, $p = 0.037$). The coefficient ($a = 0.672$) suggests a strong positive linear relationship, with 32.3% of variance explained by incentives. The adjusted R square (0.641) indicates a robust relationship considering the number of predictors. GRA should offer a mix of both financial and non-financial incentives, tailored to the specific needs and preferences of employees.

Keywords: Employee Performance; Incentives; Ghana Revenue Authority; Northern Area

1. Introduction

In today's dynamic and competitive business environment, organisations seek to enhance their performance through various strategies, one of which is the implementation of incentive programmes (Palmer, 2019; Robert, 2015). These initiatives are designed to motivate and reward employees for their dedication, productivity, and contributions to the organisation's goals. In the context of public sector institutions, such as the Ghana Revenue Authority (GRA), understanding the effects of incentives on employee performance becomes paramount, as it plays a crucial role in achieving revenue targets and ensuring effective service delivery.

In Ghana, a substantial number of state institutions struggle to break even, consistently recording losses on their financial statements and depending on state support in the form of bonds and other long-term finances (Palmer, 2019). This predicament stems from the subpar performance of employees in these institutions, who are known for displaying negative work attitudes such as absenteeism, loitering, tardiness, and theft, among other behaviours (Hijazi, Anwar & Menhood, 2019).

The Ghana Revenue Authority holds a pivotal role as the economic revenue generator for the nation. The country heavily relies on it to gather revenue through taxes, which is essential for supporting national development (Staats, 2018). The escalating national debt in Ghana is a clear indicator that revenue generated internally falls short of meeting the country's financial needs (Robert, 2015). As a developing nation, Ghana grapples with numerous infrastructural deficits that necessitate funding. To address this, successive governments have turned to borrowing due to the country's inability to efficiently generate revenue from internal sources to advance its developmental goals (Synsydermap, 2017).

* Corresponding author: Aboko Akudugu

This contributes significantly to the persistent increase in Ghana's debt burden. The most effective approach to reversing this trend is to identify and reinforce the factors that motivate staff at the Ghana Revenue Authority to perform exceptionally and enhance revenue collection in Ghana (Palmer, 2019). Thus, conducting this study is not only essential but also timely, as it will uncover how incentives can be leveraged to stimulate high performance among Ghana Revenue Authority employees.

While there have been numerous studies exploring the relationship between incentives and performance, including works by Gangadhar & Keswarni (2016) and Chandrasekar (2017), many of these studies, including research by Gana and Bababe (2017), have focused primarily on organisational performance, overlooking the individual employee's contribution. Furthermore, it has been observed that studies by Barongo (2018) and Falola, et al (2017) predominantly centre on financial incentives, such as merit pay, skills-based pay, bonuses, and various recognition schemes, neglecting the impact of non-financial incentives like written commendations, promotions, improved working conditions, robust policies, insurance coverage, medical benefits, gifts, awards, and retirement benefits, among others.

The Northern Region of Ghana, known for its diverse economic landscape and unique socio-cultural dynamics, presents a compelling setting for examining the correlation between incentives and employee performance within the GRA. This region, characterised by its distinct challenges and opportunities, offers a valuable lens through which we can explore the efficacy of incentive programmes in a public sector entity operating in a resource-constrained environment.

This study endeavours to shed light on the multifaceted relationship between incentives and employee performance within the GRA in the Northern Region. By delving into the experiences, perspectives, and outcomes of employees, as well as assessing the effectiveness of existing incentive structures, aiming to provide valuable insights for organisational leaders, policymakers, and practitioners seeking to optimise performance and drive positive outcomes in public sector institutions.

Through an in-depth analysis of this critical interplay, this study endeavours to contribute to the broader discourse on organisational performance enhancement, offering evidence-based recommendations for refining incentive strategies within the Ghana Revenue Authority and potentially influencing similar public sector entities in the region. By doing so, the study aim to foster a more productive, motivated, and engaged workforce, ultimately leading to enhanced revenue collection and improved service delivery for the benefit of the Northern Region and the nation as a whole.

1.1. Revenue Target and Mobilisation in GRA

The Ghana Revenue Authority (GRA) was formed in 2009 through the consolidation of three revenue agencies: the Customs, Excise and Preventive Service (CEPS), the Internal Revenue Service (IRS), and the Value Added Tax Service (VATs), along with the Revenue Agencies Governing Board (RAGB). This integration was carried out in accordance with the Ghana Revenue Authority Act of 2009 (Act 791). The primary mission of the GRA is to ensure the highest level of compliance with relevant tax laws, ultimately leading to a steady and sustainable revenue source for the government. Additionally, GRA is entrusted with facilitating trade and overseeing the secure movement of goods across the nation's borders. The authority is also responsible for managing various international agreements that regulate interactions with other tax jurisdictions and institutions. These agreements include protocols with organisations like the World Customs Organisation and the World Trade Organisation, as well as agreements pertaining to double taxation and the exchange of information.

The performance of the Ghana Revenue Authority heavily relies on its capability to meet the annual revenue objectives set by the Government. In 2020, the initial target set by the state for the Authority was Ghc 47.25 billion Ghana Cedis. However, due to the impact of Covid-19 on business and revenue collection, this target was later revised downward to Ghc 42.7 billion during the mid-year budget review. By year-end, the GRA had successfully collected Ghc 45.33 billion, surpassing the adjusted target by Ghc 2.6 billion. Moving into 2021, the Authority was given a target of Ghc 57.055 billion, but managed to exceed expectations by collecting Ghc 57.32 billion. For the year 2022, the revenue target has been set at Ghc 80.3 billion.

Examining specific tax offices within the GRA, notable achievements were also observed. In 2020, the Tamale Small Tax Payer office (STO) not only met but exceeded its target, raising Ghc 55,970,309.29 against the set target of Ghc 65,893,687.22. In 2021, the Tamale West Taxpayer Service Center (TSC), previously the Tamale STO, surpassed its target of Ghc 33,020,331.73, collecting Ghc 37,067,850.85.

Similarly, the Tamale Medium Office collected Ghc 30,846,360.19 in 2020, slightly below the set target of Ghc 53,279,815.02. In 2021, the Tamale East Taxpayer Service Center was assigned a target of Ghc 77,265,950.80 but managed to collect Ghc 68,779,198.51. The Bolgatanga Small Taxpayer Office of GRA was tasked with a target of Ghc 18,378,817.22 in 2020, but succeeded in collecting Ghc 13,798,367.17. In 2021, the Bolgatanga Taxpayer Service Center exceeded its target of Ghc 16,767,394.92, mobilizing Ghc 24,753,437.53 (source: www.gra.gov.gh).

1.2. Historical Context of incentives and Employee Performance

The study of incentives and their impact on employee performance has a rich historical context that has evolved over time. The idea of incentivising workers can be traced back to early economic thinkers like Smith, (1776) and Ricardo (1817). They were prominent economists who made significant contributions to the field of economics, particularly in the areas of theory of value. They emphasised the importance of rewards for labour as a means to increase productivity and output. Their respective concepts of Division of Labour and Labour Theory of Value, for example, highlighted how specialisation could lead to increased efficiency and, consequently, higher wages for workers.

Taylor (1911), a pioneer of scientific management, introduced the concept of piece-rate pay. This system paid workers based on the quantity of output they produced, providing a clear incentive for higher productivity. His work laid the foundation for understanding how financial incentives can drive performance.

The Hawthorne Studies conducted by Mayo (1949) and his colleagues at Western Electric in Chicago brought attention to the social and psychological aspects of work. They found that workers' performance was strongly influenced by factors like group dynamics, management attention, and a sense of belonging. This led to a shift in focus towards non-financial incentives and the importance of a positive work environment (Dalio, 2017).

Maslow's (1954) psychological theory proposed a hierarchy of human needs, with physiological needs (including financial security) at the base. According to Thaler & Sunstein (2008), this provided a framework for understanding how financial incentives satisfy basic needs and contribute to motivation.

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory emphasised that individuals are motivated to act in a certain way if they believe that their efforts will lead to desired outcomes. This theory underscored the importance of clear performance-reward links and personalised incentives based on individual preferences (Bock, 2015).

Behavioural economics, pioneered by scholars like Kahneman & Tversky (1979), and Thaler (1980) introduced insights from psychology into economic theory. Both were awarded the Nobel Memorial Prize in Economic Sciences in 2002 and 2017 respectively for their contributions to behavioural economics. Their works highlighted that individuals don't always act rationally and are influenced by biases and heuristics (Kahneman, 2011). This field provided a more nuanced understanding of how incentives can be designed to align with human behaviour. In recent decades, organisational psychologists and human resource professionals have conducted extensive research on various incentive systems. This includes studies on the effectiveness of performance bonuses, recognition programmes, flexible work arrangements, career development opportunities, and other non-monetary incentives.

The historical evolution of the study of incentives and their impact on employee performance has transitioned from a focus on financial rewards to a more holistic understanding that includes social, psychological, and organisational factors (Pink, 2009). Today, effective incentive programmes often integrate both financial and non-financial elements to motivate and engage employees (Thaler, 2015).

1.3. Incentives in Context

Kiwia, (2018) provides a definition of incentives as any stimulus or method that motivates an employee or group of employees to surpass expectations and put forth greater effort. These incentives are broadly categorised into financial and non-financial types. Financial incentives involve direct cash payments, while non-financial incentives include elements like promotions, flexible schedules, autonomy, and involvement in decision-making. Dalany (2015) similarly characterizes incentives as inducements that spur individuals into desired action, promising benefits to motivate them towards improved behaviour, productivity, and continuous output.

According to Kiwia, (2018), incentives could be extended to employees performing below expectations, including examples such as sales commissions and increased allowances, with the aim of inspiring them towards achieving desired levels of performance, efficiency, and output. Bratton and Gold (2019) define incentives as supplementary rewards or inducements that serve as motivational tools for specific actions or behaviours, always tied to measurable goals within a specified time frame. In the context of this study, incentives refer to anything offered to an employee, beyond their agreed-upon salary, to encourage enhanced performance.

Financial incentives have been defined in various ways depending on the perspective and context of the author. In the context of employee-employer relations, pay, and performance, financial incentives are seen as actions by management that influence employee attitudes towards achieving corporate goals, as explained by Brown (2018). Lake (2020) elaborates that financial incentives pertain to monetary rewards in the form of wages and salaries, serving as compensation and motivation for employees. Armstrong (2017) emphasises that, financial incentives include the predisposition to act purposefully to fulfil specific unmet needs, representing the inner drive to achieve personal goals. Examples include wages, salaries, bonuses, retirement benefits, and medical reimbursements. Financial incentives should hold significant value and be commensurate with industry standards.

On the other hand, non-financial incentives, as asserted by Kiwia, (2018), are rewards that do not form part of an employee's regular pay. These incentives serve to boost employee morale without involving cash payments. They carry substantial weight in motivating employees despite incurring minimal or no cost for the company. Non-financial incentives satisfy the need for status, recognition, and personal fulfilment. Examples include appreciation for excellent work, periodic promotions, training opportunities, job security, recognition of achievements, growth prospects, enhanced job titles, and added responsibilities.

Furthermore, non-financial rewards may include aspects such as responsibilities, growth opportunities, written recognition, promotions, vacations, improved working conditions, robust policies, insurance coverage, medical benefits, gifts, awards, plaques, and retirement benefits, as outlined by Dalany (2015). All of these rewards impact employee performance in various ways. Non-financial incentives serve to acknowledge exceptional job performance through the provision of opportunities (Bratton & Gold, 2019).

1.4. Employees Performance in Context

Employee performance is commonly assessed based on the results they produce. However, an alternative approach considers behaviour as an indicator of performance (Donohue & Heywood, 2019). According to Stoner (2015), an employee's performance is evaluated in comparison to the performance benchmarks established by the organisation. Various metrics can be utilised to gauge performance, including productivity, efficiency, effectiveness, quality, and profitability measures as outlined by (Ahuja, 2016; Wood & Stangster, 2017; Lipsey, 2019; Donohue & Heywood, 2019).

In revenue-generating agencies within the public sector, using revenue targets as a measure of employee performance can be a valid and effective approach (Parmenter, 2015; O'Neill, 2013; Person, 2013). These agencies are tasked with generating funds for the government through various means such as taxes, fees, licenses, and other revenue sources.

Revenue targets should align with the agency's overall mission and objectives (Parmenter, 2015). It's essential that employees understand how their work contributes to the agency's financial goals. Targets should be clear, achievable, and realistic based on historical data, economic conditions, and other relevant factors. Unrealistic targets can lead to frustration and demotivation among employees (O'Neill, 2013).

Employees should be held accountable for their performance against revenue targets, and the process should be transparent (Yung, 2011). Clear communication about expectations and regular updates on progress are essential. While the focus is on revenue generation, it's crucial not to sacrifice the quality of service provided to the public. Employees should be encouraged to find ways to increase revenue while maintaining or improving service levels (Person, 2013).

Setting revenue targets should not encourage unethical behaviour, such as aggressive tax collection or imposing unjustified fines (Yung, 2011). Compliance with legal and ethical standards must always be a priority. Providing employees with the necessary training, tools, and resources to meet revenue targets is crucial (Wright, 2020). This could include training in customer service, financial management, and technological tools.

Regular feedback sessions and performance evaluations should be conducted to discuss progress towards revenue targets (Bratton & Gold, 2019). These sessions also provide an opportunity to identify areas for improvement and professional development. Recognising and rewarding employees who meet or exceed revenue targets can provide positive reinforcement and motivation (Brown, 2018). This could be in the form of monetary bonuses, promotions, or other forms of recognition. Ongoing monitoring of performance against revenue targets is crucial. If targets are consistently unattainable, it may be necessary to re-evaluate the metrics or provide additional support to employees (Lake, 2020).

Recognise that external factors, such as changes in economic conditions or tax laws, can impact revenue generation (O'Neill, 2013). Employees should be able to adapt their strategies and approaches accordingly. While revenue targets are important, they should be part of a balanced set of performance metrics. Other factors like customer satisfaction, compliance rates, and cost-effectiveness should also be considered (Parmenter, 2015).

1.5. The Impact of Incentives on Employee Performance

Wright (2020) assets that, Incentives provide employees with clear, tangible rewards for achieving specific targets or goals. This aligns their efforts with the organisation's revenue objectives, increasing their motivation to perform at their best. Incentive programmes can help create a culture that emphasises performance, results, and accountability. Employees become more goal-oriented, striving to meet and exceed targets set for them.

The prospect of earning incentives can drive employees to work more efficiently and productively (Bratton & Gold, 2019). They may be more focused on tasks, take on additional responsibilities, and find innovative ways to enhance revenue generation. Employees who receive incentives for their efforts tend to have higher levels of job satisfaction and morale (Monappa & Engineer, 2019). Knowing that their hard work is recognised and rewarded can create a positive work environment.

Incentives can help the agency attract and retain top talent (Brown, 2018). Skilled and motivated employees are more likely to join or stay with an organisation that offers meaningful rewards for outstanding performance. In some cases, well-structured incentive programmes can help agencies avoid costs associated with hiring and training new employees (Donohue & Heywood, 2019). High-performing, motivated employees are more likely to stay with the organisation.

Incentives provide a tangible acknowledgment of an employee's contributions (Andrews, 2019). This recognition can boost their sense of accomplishment, which, in turn, can further motivate them to excel in their roles. When individual employees perform well, it contributes to the overall success of the agency (Robert, 2015). This can lead to increased revenue, improved financial stability, and the ability to invest in initiatives that benefit the public.

When employees feel that their efforts are directly linked to the organisation's success, they are more likely to be engaged in their work (Robert, 2015). This can lead to higher levels of job satisfaction, commitment, and loyalty. Incentives can encourage employees to seek out opportunities for self-improvement and professional development (Lake, 2020). They may actively look for ways to enhance their skills and knowledge to boost their performance.

Incentive programmes can provide valuable feedback on the effectiveness of revenue targets and performance metrics (O'Neill, 2013). This data can be used to refine goals and set more realistic, achievable targets in the future.

2. Methodology

The study utilised a quantitative research design, which involved converting responses into numerical values. This approach helped to minimise potential biases that could arise from the researcher's interpretation of the results. The study focused on the Northern Area offices of the Ghana Revenue Authority (GRA), specifically the Tamale East Taxpayer Service Centre, Tamale West Taxpayer Service Centre, Bolgatanga Taxpayer Service Centre, and Tamale Area office. These offices were selected to gather data on the incentives provided to GRA staff in the northern region of Ghana.

In terms of distribution, the Northern Area office of GRA consisted of the following staff members: Tamale East TSC office (32 staff), Tamale West TSC office (29 staff), Bolgatanga TSC office (33 staff), and Tamale Area office (26 staff). This resulted in a total population of 120 staff members across all considered GRA offices. To determine an appropriate and representative sample size for the research, 92 staff members were selected using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table. The selection process utilised a simple random sampling technique from various offices within the Northern Area of GRA. This method ensured that all GRA staff in the study area had an equal opportunity to participate, without any form of discrimination or bias. Consequently, the study findings include the perspectives of GRA staff members holding diverse positions within the organisation.

Data was collected directly from respondents through a questionnaire, which evaluated various forms of incentives provided to GRA staff and their impact on employee performance. Respondents used a five-point Likert scale, where 1 indicated "Strongly Agree," 2 for "Agree," 3 for "Indifferent," 4 for "Disagree," and 5 for "Strongly Disagree." The independent variable (Employees performance) was measured using a tree point Likert scale: 1 for "Below Target," 2 for "Meeting Target," and 3 for "Exceeding Target". Due to the substantial sample size and time constraints, the questionnaire facilitated a streamlined and efficient data collection process. It also established clear parameters for the researcher's line of questioning, ensuring consistency in responses.

To ensure the reliability of the research instrument, the questionnaire underwent a pretesting phase with five respondents who were excluded from the main study. This process led to necessary revisions to clarify and restructure ambiguous questions. The research instrument was also scrutinised for accuracy and relevance to the study objectives. Prior to conducting data analysis, a reliability test was administered using Cronbach's Alpha, resulting in an Alpha value of 0.784, indicating a high level of instrument reliability. Inferential statistics, specifically Regression, was employed for analysis, facilitated by the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Forms of Incentives Offered to Staff GRA

The table presents the statistical analysis of responses related to both financial and non-financial incentives. The coefficients indicate the relationship between the independent variable (Incentives) and the dependent variable (Employees performance). The significance level (SIG<0.05) indicates the probability of obtaining these results by chance. A lower Sig value suggests a higher level of significance. The results indicates a high level of significance (Sig=0.000) for both financial and non-financial incentives, suggesting that these incentives are statistical significant predictors of Employee performance in this model, confirming the findings of Farooq & Khan (2019) and Cheema et al (2018). The overall Means for both Financial and Non-Financial Incentives were 2.960 and 4.1745 respectively. The means provide an average score for each statement, indicating the respondents' agreement or endorsement of the respective incentives.

Table 1 Forms of Incentives Offered to Staff GRA

Statement	**T**	**DF**	**p-values**	**Means**
Financial Incentives				
My organisation offer allowances to staff	34.693	92	0.000	4.974
My organisation offer bonuses to staff	25.765	92	0.000	3.741
My organisation offer skill-based pay to staff	63.795	92	0.000	1.341
My organisation offer tax incentives to staff	54.210	92	0.000	1.834
Overall Mean				2.960
Non-Financial Incentives				
My organisation offer flexible work schedules	48.948	92	0.000	1.271
My organisation offer free training to staff	64.348	92	0.000	4.971
My organisation ensure timely promotion	54.748	92	0.000	3.861
My organisation ensure hygienic environment	46.348	92	0.000	4.971
My organisation offer extended leave to staff	35.948	92	0.000	1.782
Staff of my organisation are insured	74.638	92	0.000	4.384
Plaques are given to staff of my organisation	44.648	92	0.000	3.811
Overall Mean				4.1745

Source: Field Survey (2022)

3.2. Impact of Incentives on Employee Performance at GRA

For each predictor variable (Incentives), there are Unstandardised and standardised coefficients. Incentive unstandardised coefficients is 16.143, and this means that for every one-unit increase in Incentive, the dependent variable (performance) is expected to increase by approximately 16.143 units, holding other variables constant. The Incentive standardised coefficient is (Beta): 18.04 and this indicates the relative importance of Incentive compared to other variables. A Beta of 18.04 suggests that Incentive is a very strong predictor in this model. The p-value of (0.037), indicates that Incentives have very strong impact on the dependent variable, Performance. These results are in sync with previous research by Burgess & Ratto (2016), Benh (2015), and Bakoti & Babic (2020).

Table 2 Impact of Incentives on Employee Performance at GRA

	Unstandardised		**Standardised**		**P-values**
Model	**Coefficients**		**Coefficient**	**T**	
	B	**Std. Error**	**BETA**		
constant	16.143	0.895		18.04	0.000
Performance	0.137	0.065	0.171	2.107	0.037

3.3. Model Summary

The coefficient (denoted as "a") is approximately 0.672. This indicates a strong positive linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The coefficient of determination is approximately 0.323. This means that around 32.3% of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variable(s) in this model. The adjusted R square is approximately 0.641. This is higher a value, indicating that more of the variance is being accounted for, and it's adjusted for the number of predictors in the model. The standard deviation of the errors is approximately 1.65689. This measures the average deviation of observed values from the regression line. This gives an idea of how well the regression line approximates the real data points. The R Square value of 0.323 indicates that about 32.3% of the variance in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variable (incentives) in this model. These results align with prior research by Farooq & Khan (2019), Cheema et al. (2018), and Bakoti & Babic (2020). The Adjusted R Square of 0.641 suggests that it's even higher when considering the number of predictors.

Table 3 Model Summary

Model	**R**	**R Square**	**Adjusted R Square**	**Std. Dev. Error**
1	0.672[a]	0.323	0.641	1.65689

Dependent variable: Employee Performance **Predictors:** (Constant): Incentives

4. Conclusion

The study employed a quantitative research design to investigate the impact of incentives on employee performance in the Northern Area offices of the Ghana Revenue Authority (GRA). By quantifying responses in numerical terms, potential researcher bias was mitigated, ensuring a rigorous and unbiased analysis. The chosen target population included the Northern Area offices of GRA. Through random sampling, 92 staff members were selected from these offices, representing various positions within the organisation. Data was collected through a structured questionnaire, employing a five-point Likert scale. This approach facilitated an efficient and consistent data collection process, given the large sample size and time constraints. Prior to data analysis, the questionnaire underwent rigorous pretesting and reliability checks, ensuring the validity of the instrument. The results of the regression analysis demonstrated a high level of significance for both financial and non-financial incentives, indicating that these factors are statistically significant predictors of employee performance. The means for both types of incentives further affirmed the respondents' endorsement of these incentives. The study found that incentives have a substantial impact on employee performance, with a strong positive linear relationship between incentives and performance. Approximately 32.3% of the variance in employee performance can be explained by the incentives provided. The adjusted R square value of 0.641 suggests an even higher level of variance explanation when considering the number of predictors in the model.

Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following recommendations are put forth:

- GRA should continue to refine and optimise their incentive programmes to ensure they align with the preferences and needs of their staff members.

- They should offer a mix of both financial and non-financial incentives, tailored to the specific needs and preferences of employees.
- Periodic assessments of the effectiveness of incentive programmes should be conducted to ensure they continue to motivate and enhance employee performance.
- Employees and management should be educated on the importance of incentives and how they can positively impact performance and overall organisational success.
- GRA should consider individual preferences and customise incentives where possible, taking into account factors such as work-life balance, skill development, and recognition.
- Ongoing research and evaluation of the impact of incentives on employee performance should be conducted to adapt strategies to changing organisational and market dynamics.

Compliance with ethical standards

Disclosure of conflict of interest

No conflict of interest to be disclosed.

Statement of informed consent

Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

References

[1] Ahuja, K. (2016). *Personnel Management*. New Delhi. India. Kalyani Publishers.

[2] Andrews, S. (2019). *Human Resource Management*: A Textbook for Hospitality Industry. Tata McGraw Hill.

[3] Armstrong, M. (2017). *A Handbook of Personnel Management Practices*. Kogan Page Limited London.

[4] Bakoti, B., & Babic, T. (2020). Relationship between working conditions and job satisfaction, *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 4(2), 1-6.

[5] Barongo, K.E. (2018). The Role of Financial Incentives on Employees' Motivation in Financial Institutions in Tanzania: A Case of Bank of Tanzania. *International Journal of Psychology*.47(3) 14-35.

[6] Benh, R. (2015). The Big Question of Public Management, *Public Administration Review,* 55(4), 313-324.

[7] Bock, L. (2015)"Work Rules!: Insights from Inside Google That Will Transform How You Live and Lead" Publisher: Twelve (Hachette Book Group)

[8] Bratton, J & Gold, J. (2019). *Human Resource Management Theory and Practice* (4th ed).Palgrave Macmillan. New York.

[9] Brown, M. (2018). Merit Pay Preferences Among Public Sector Employees*. Human Resource Management Journal*. pp. 38–54.

[10] Burgess, S., & Ratto, M. (2016). The role of incentives in the public sector: Issues and evidence. *Oxford Review of Economic Policy* 19:285–300.

[11] Chandrasekar, K. (2017). Workplace Environment and Its Impact on Organisational Productivity in Public Sector Organisations, *International Journal of Enterprise Computing and Business Systems*, 1(1), 1-9.

[12] Cheema, F., Shujaat, S., & Alam, A. (2018). Impact of Non-monetary Rewards on Employees' Motivation, *Journal of Management and Social Sciences*, 9(2),1-5.

[13] Dalany, K. (2015) Confronting Objections to Performance Pay: The Impact of Individual and Gain-sharing Incentives on Job Satisfaction. *Journal of Political Economy* 2(3), 662–684.

[14] Dalio, R. (2017)"Principles: Life and Work" Publisher: Simon & Schuster

[15] Donohue, S.M., & Heywood, T. (2019). Job Satisfaction and Gender: An Expanded Specification from the NLSY, *International Journal of Manpower,25(2),* 211-234.

[16] Farooq, M., & Khan, M. (2019). Impact of Training and Feedback on Employee Productivity, *Far East Journal of Psychology and Business,5(1),*1-11.

[17] Hijazi S., Anwar, A, & Menhood S. (2019). Impact of Non-financial Rewards on Employee Motivation. *The Business Review*. 2007; 7(2), 272-277.

[18] Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1979). Prospect theory: An analysis of decision under risk. *Econometrica*, 47(2), 263-292.

[19] Kahneman, D. (2011). *Thinking, Fast and Slow*. Farrar, Straus and Giroux.

[20] Kiwia, C. (2018). *Evaluating Incentives Packages in Tanzania*. *International Journal of Psychology*. 47(3) 14-35.

[21] Lake, S. (2020). Low-Cost Strategies for Employee Retention: *Compensation and Benefits Review*. 32(4), 65-72.

[22] Lipsey, R. G. (2019), Introduction to Positive Economics. London: Weindnfeld & Nicholson.

[23] Maslow, A. (1954) "Motivation and Personality" Publisher: Harper

[24] Mayo, E. (1949) "Human Relations in Industry" Publisher: Harvard University Press

[25] O'Neill, M. F.(2013) "Measuring Business Performance" Publisher: Routledge

[26] Palmer, M. (2019) Impact of Performance Appraisal on Employees Motivation." European Journal of Business and Management 3(4), 20-22.

[27] Parmenter, D. (2015) "Key Performance Indicators: Developing, Implementing, and Using Winning KPIs" Publisher: John Wiley & Sons

[28] Person, R. (2013) "Balanced Scorecards and Operational Dashboards with Microsoft Excel" Publisher: John Wiley & Sons

[29] Pink, D. H. (2009) "Drive: The Surprising Truth About What Motivates Us" Publisher: Riverhead Books

[30] Ricardo, D" (1817) On the Principles of Political Economy and Taxation"

[31] Robert, K. (2015) Relationships Among the Job Involvement, Job Satisfaction, and Organisational Commitment of the Nurses, *Journal of Psychology,* 6(2), 64-66.

[32] Smith, A. (1776) "The Wealth of Nations"

[33] Staats, E. (2018). Public Service and the Public Interest, *Public Administration Review*, 48, 601-605.

[34] Stoner, J. A. F., Freeman, E., & Gilbert, D. A. (2015). *Management*. London: Prentice-Hall International.

[35] Synsydermap, B. (2017). *The Motivation to work* New York; John Willey and Sons Ltd.

[36] Taylor, F. W. (1911) The Principles of Scientific Management" Publisher: Harper & Brothers

[37] Thaler, R. H. (1980). Toward a positive theory of consumer choice. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organisation*, 1(1), 39-60.

[38] Thaler, R. H., & Sunstein, C. R. (2008). *Nudge: Improving Decisions About Health, Wealth, and Happiness*. Yale University Press.

[39] Thaler, R. H. (2015). *Misbehaving: The Making of Behavioral Economics*. W.W. Norton &

[40] Vroom, V. (1964) "Expectancy Theory of Motivation: Motivating by Altering Expectations" Publisher: Prentice HallCompany.

[41] Wood, F., & Sangster, A. (2017). *Business Accounting*. Pearson Education.

[42] Yung D. (2011) "Performance Measurement: Linking Balanced Scorecard to Business Intelligence" Publisher: CRC Press.