HELLENIC OPEN UNIVERSITY

School of Social Sciences

Master in Business Administration (MBA)

Postgraduate Dissertation

Enhancing Job Satisfaction of Public Sector Employees - Investigating the Impact of "Non-Financial" Incentives According to Employee Personality Type

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Patras, Greece, March 2025

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“The writing of this dissertation was accomplished through a lot of research and effort and it is the end of a magic journey in knowledge and education.
This journey was accomplished in a period of my life that I had to go through huge changes in my career; changes which would severely test my self-discipline and devotion to this post-graduate program.
It would be unfair not to acknowledge the support and the assistance of my wife and parents in this effort, who often did more than I could ever ask from them to help me achieve my goals and reach at the end of this beautiful road.
Last but not least, I would like to express my gratitude and respect to Professor Maria Boura for her guidance, kindness and understanding, since I really felt privileged to have her as my supervisor”

Abstract

The difficulty to find appropriate staff in the public sector organizations with an emphasis in specific sectors such as the Armed Forces, Healthcare and Education which during the past few years is accompanied by increased resignation rates, in combination with the widespread perception of low employee effectiveness and performance in many public services in Greece, provided the impetus for this study.

The research scope was to explore the effect of employee personality profiles to the preference for specific non-financial incentives, aiming to provide the initial basis upon which useful knowledge could be built to enhance job satisfaction, employee retainment rates and boost employee performance through tailored made non-monetary reward motivation methods.

A thorough literature review was conducted in an effort to document the relevant fundamental concepts under consideration and to search for useful scientific "tools" (e.g. Ten Item Personality Inventory) which were necessary to identify correlations between the independent variables (personality traits) and the dependent variables (non-monetary rewards).

At the context of the research the study employed a quantitative research design, utilizing a questionnaire with self-evaluation questions. The questionnaire was shared through email so as to maximize the total number of the participants and simplify the procedure of the statistical process of the results. The collected data were tested using a statistical software package (StatsDirect) from which interesting findings were revealed by using descriptive statistics, correlation and regression analysis for hypotheses validation and interpretation of the research results.

The findings indeed suggest a weak to moderate correlation between some personality traits and non-financial rewards. More specifically, extroversion and agreeableness predict a preference for social and interpersonal incentives, while openness to experience aligns with rewards for professional development, career advancement, and workplace autonomy. Conscientiousness shows a weak association with these rewards, and neuroticism does not significantly relate to any reward category.

However, despite the fact that this study serves its purpose as an exploratory study in a relatively unexplored field, providing some fundamental knowledge about individualized motivation systems, the non-random sampling method that was chosen (Convenience Sampling) as appropriate for the exploratory nature of the research, mandates further investigation of the subject with more thorough research in order to achieve generalizability and to assess the validity and robustness of the results.

Keywords

Motivation, Job-satisfaction, Non-monetary rewards, Personality, Personality traits, Public sector.

Ενίσχυση Επαγγελματικής Ικανοποίησης Υπαλλήλων του Δημόσιου Τομέα - Διερεύνηση της επίδρασης των «μη οικονομικών» κινήτρων ανάλογα με τον τύπο προσωπικότητας των εργαζομένων

Εμμανουήλ Φασουλιώτης

Περίληψη

Η δυσκολία εξεύρεσης κατάλληλου προσωπικού σε οργανισμούς του δημόσιου τομέα με έμφαση σε συγκεκριμένους τομείς όπως οι Ένοπλες Δυνάμεις, η Υγεία και η Παιδεία, που τα τελευταία χρόνια συνοδεύεται από αυξημένα ποσοστά αποχώρησης, σε συνδυασμό με τη διαδεδομένη αντίληψη περί χαμηλής αποτελεσματικότητας και απόδοσης εργαζομένων σε πολλές δημόσιες υπηρεσίες στην Ελλάδα, έδωσε το έναυσμα για αυτή τη μελέτη.
Το αντικείμενο της έρευνας ήταν να διερευνήσει την επίδραση των προφίλ προσωπικότητας των εργαζομένων στην προτίμηση για συγκεκριμένα μη οικονομικά κίνητρα, με στόχο την παροχή της αρχικής βάσης πάνω στην οποία θα μπορούσε να βασιστεί χρήσιμη γνώση για την ενίσχυση της ικανοποίησης από την εργασία, τα ποσοστά διατήρησης των εργαζομένων και την ενίσχυση της απόδοσης τους μέσω παροχής προσαρμοσμένων μη χρηματικών κινήτρων.
Πραγματοποιήθηκε μια διεξοδική βιβλιογραφική ανασκόπηση σε μια προσπάθεια, τεκμηρίωσης των σχετικών θεμελιωδών εννοιών που εξετάζονται και αναζήτησης χρήσιμων επιστημονικών «εργαλείων» (π.χ. Ten Item Personality Inventory) τα οποία ήταν απαραίτητα για τον εντοπισμό συσχετίσεων μεταξύ των ανεξάρτητων μεταβλητών (χαρακτηριστικά προσωπικότητας) και των εξαρτώμενων μεταβλητών (μη χρηματικές ανταμοιβές).
Στο πλαίσιο της έρευνας, η μελέτη χρησιμοποίησε έναν ποσοτικό σχεδιασμό έρευνας, χρησιμοποιώντας ερωτηματολόγιο με ερωτήσεις αυτό-αξιολόγησης. Το ερωτηματολόγιο κοινοποιήθηκε μέσω email ώστε να μεγιστοποιηθεί ο συνολικός αριθμός των συμμετεχόντων και να απλοποιηθεί η διαδικασία της στατιστικής διαδικασίας των αποτελεσμάτων. Τα δεδομένα που συλλέχθηκαν δοκιμάστηκαν χρησιμοποιώντας ένα στατιστικό πακέτο λογισμικού (StatsDirect) από το οποίο προέκυψαν ενδιαφέροντα ευρήματα με τη χρήση περιγραφικών στατιστικών, συσχέτισης και ανάλυσης παλινδρόμησης για την επικύρωση υποθέσεων και την ερμηνεία των αποτελεσμάτων της έρευνας.
Τα ευρήματα υποδηλώνουν πράγματι μια ασθενή έως μέτρια συσχέτιση μεταξύ ορισμένων χαρακτηριστικών της προσωπικότητας και των μη οικονομικών ανταμοιβών. Πιο συγκεκριμένα, η εξωστρέφεια και η αποδοχή προβλέπουν μια προτίμηση για κοινωνικά και διαπροσωπικά κίνητρα, ενώ το άνοιγμα στην εμπειρία ευθυγραμμίζεται με ανταμοιβές για

επαγγελματική εξέλιξη, εξέλιξη σταδιοδρομίας και αυτονομία στο χώρο εργασίας. Η ευσυνειδησία δείχνει μια ασθενή συσχέτιση με αυτές τις ανταμοιβές και ο 'νευροτισμός' δεν σχετίζεται σημαντικά με καμία κατηγορία ανταμοιβής.

Ωστόσο, παρά το γεγονός ότι αυτή η μελέτη εξυπηρετεί τον σκοπό της ως διερευνητική έρευνα σε ένα σχετικά ανεξερεύνητο πεδίο, παρέχοντας κάποιες θεμελιώδεις γνώσεις γύρω από τα εξατομικευμένα συστήματα κινήτρων, η μη τυχαία δειγματοληπτική μέθοδος η οποία επιλέχθηκε (Βολική Δειγματοληψία) ως κατάλληλη για τον διερευνητικό χαρακτήρα της έρευνας, επιτάσσει την περαιτέρω διερεύνηση του αντικειμένου με πιο ενδελεχή έρευνα για να επιτευχθεί δυνατότητα γενίκευσης και για να αξιολογηθεί η εγκυρότητα και η ευρωστία των αποτελεσμάτων.

Λέξεις – Κλειδιά

Κίνητρα, Ικανοποίηση από την εργασία, Μη χρηματικές ανταμοιβές, Προσωπικότητα, Χαρακτηριστικά προσωπικότητας, Δημόσιος τομέας.

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Introduction

The topic of job satisfaction has gained significant attention from academics and human resource professionals over the last fifty years since the human factor has garnered more appreciation and is being established as the cornerstone behind any organization's long-term thrive and success. Coyne et al., 2016; Holland et al., 2011; Mihajlovic et al., 2008; Rad and De Moraes, 2009; Riza et al., 2016; Rogelberg et al., 2010 are only a few of many academics that approached the specific area of research in an attempt to expand our knowledge with regards to the factors that affect employee motivation and job satisfaction. Many academics have studied the dispositional approach to job satisfaction (House et al., 1996; Judge et al., 2008; Li et al., 2010). Judge and Hulin (1993) and Judge and Locke (1993) found a relationship between job satisfaction and affective disposition, which was measured by observing people's emotional responses to a set of neutral, commonplace objects they encountered in daily life. There is a lack of personality research in general management; Higgs and Lichtenstein (2010) are among the few studies that have looked at this topic. Higgs and Lichtenstein (2010) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between values and personality traits that are essential for long-term organizational success and growth.

This research demonstrates that, contrary to previous views, the relationship is far more complex and beneficial to both sides. The results of the great majority of studies on personality are in line with this assertion. Since people are considered an organization's most valuable asset, management needs to gain a deeper understanding of the role of employees' personality and how it affects organizations. Numerous traits have been put forth, and many of those traits have been examined regarding their interaction with job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2002).

Academics have interpreted numerous results of the relationship between personality traits and job satisfaction; however, much more research is needed to state any positive established results. Furnham and Zacherl (1986) investigated the relationship between extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism as personality traits and job satisfaction, leading to the finding of a strong relationship between extraversion and job satisfaction.

At one of his numerous studies on the wider subject, Judge et al. (2000) looked into the connections of a number of psychological constructs (neuroticism, locus of control, generalized self-efficacy, and self-evaluation) with job-satisfaction. Another study by Ilies et al. (2009) examined the mediating function of job satisfaction between personality traits and citizenship behavior.

The common ground between all the relative studies is the examination of the dynamics between aspects of Big Five personality taxonomy (which is widely recognized, although abstractive, as the fundamental framework for understanding personality in psychology) and job satisfaction. Personality aspects include conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to experience, and extroversion (Goldberg, 1992). The Big Five framework does not imply that personality differences can be boiled down to just five traits. On the other hand, these five dimensions sum up a variety of distinct and more specific personality traits. Together, they constitute the highest level of abstraction that can be achieved in terms of personality (John and Srivastava, 1999).

Saari and Judge (2004) and Judge et al. (2002) suggest that further research should focus on creating a more thorough understanding of the connection between the Big Five traits and job satisfaction. Thus, the primary goal of this study will be to increase our insights on the connections between personality traits and job satisfaction derived through non-financial motivators, using a convenient sample (due to time and resource constraints) from the public sector to explore the preference for such rewards, based on personality profiles of the respondents.

Chapter 1: Personality

1.1 Definition of Personality

A person's personality is made up of a variety of unique characteristics, inclinations, and behavioral patterns that define who they really are and set them apart from other people. The Latin word, "persona," meaning, "mask," is where the word "personality" originated.

Ryckman (2004) defined personality as an intricate and well-organized collection of traits that are innate to an individual and have a distinct impact on their behavior, goals, and thought processes in a variety of contexts. Pervin (1975) defined personality as the unique patterns of behavior and interaction that a person exhibits in social situations and in line with the specific roles they play in society.

Personality is a unique combination of traits that determines how an individual responds to the environment. These characteristics include intelligence, body shape, organization, and temperament, consistency of opinion and argument, and so on. Personality could also be defined as a person's overall psychological development. According to Mishel (1968), personality is the observable and consistent pattern of behavior that a person exhibits on a daily basis. Allport (1961) described personality as a structuring system which controls psychophysical systems and behavior of individuals in such a way as to produce individual idiosyncratic thoughts and actions, for example, traits like patience and diligence.

According to Hans Eysenck (1981), a person's personality is a relatively stable configuration of their character, temperament, intellect, and physical appearance that influences how they individually adapt to their environment. On the other hand, Kagen and Segal (1988) described personality as the combination of an individual's cognitive process around emotional experiences, behavioral patterns, and environmental factor(s). According to the theory of Watson (1919), behavior and behaviorism are connected with the notion of personality.

Personality is generally considered to be a generally stable and reliable structure of affective, cognitive and behavioral factors that are core to an individual's innate profile and very much characterize the individual's response to external environmental stimuli.

1.2 Personality Categorization

Goldberg (1993) proposed a set of five dimensions for personality traits based on empirical research. These dimensions serve as templates for describing different aspects of personality. The Big Five Factor Model was formed at a symposium in Honolulu, Hawaii, in 1981. Prominent researchers came to an agreement on this issue, including Digman, Comrey, Tekemoto-Chock, and Goldberg. It was created after earlier personality tests were reevaluated, with a focus on the five core traits (Openness to Experience, Extraversion, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Agreeableness) described by John, Naumann, and Soto (2008).

Extraversion. A tendency toward happy emotions, a collective behavior, and efficient communication with one's surroundings are characteristics of extraversion. It is also typified by a feeling of comfort and ease in social situations. Moreover, an assertive personality and a passionate zeal set extraverts apart. People who are extraverted tend to be proactive in seeking out and taking advantage of opportunities for personal fulfillment. They also enjoy being the first to speak up, make an impression, and draw attention in a group. The traits that define introverts are their reserved manner, low energy, and infrequent participation in social situations. Reticence, difficulty expressing emotions, meticulousness, and a decreased reliance on social interactions are traits of introverted people. Additionally, introverts value highly their privacy.

Highly extraverted people are usually:	**Low extraverted people are usually:**
Sociable	Happy in solitude
Energized by social interaction	Fatigued by too much social interaction
Excitement-seeking	Reflective
Happy to be the center of attention	Uncomfortable being center of attention
Outgoing	Reserved

Figure 1.2-1
Facets of Extraversion (Srivastava,1999)

Agreeableness. A strong commitment to cooperation and the upkeep of a peaceful environment is a characteristic of highly agreeableness individuals. Furthermore, these groups exhibit traits like consideration, friendliness, kindness, tolerance, and support. They also have a positive outlook on people, believing that people are by their very nature honest, trustworthy, and polite. Disagreeable people prioritize their personal interests over those of others. These people constantly exhibit traits of distrust, attention to detail, and hard work, along with a disregard for other people.

Highly agreeable people are usually:	**Low agreeable people are usually:**
Trustful (forgiving)	Skeptical
Straightforward	Demanding
Altruistic (enjoy helping)	Insulting (and belittling others)
Compliant	Stubborn
Modest	Show-offs
Sympathetic	Unsympathetic
Empathetic	Less caring

Figure 1.2-2
Facets of Agreeableness (Srivastava,1999)

Conscientiousness is another distinct personality trait. These individuals show more structure, accountability, and organization. They strictly follow a set timetable and perform tasks with meticulous attention to detail. Low conscientiousness persons lack consistency tend to be untrustworthy and unorganized. They often are being careless by omitting to return items to their original location after use. Moreover, these persons regularly ignore the tasks that has been assigned to them.

Highly conscientious people are usually:	**Low conscientious people are usually:**
Competent	Incompotent
Organized	Disorganized
Dutiful	Careless
Achievement-striving	Procrastinators
Self-disciplined	Undisciplined
Considerate	Impulsive

Figure 1.2-3
Facets of Conscientious (Srivastava,1999)

Neuroticism. The term "neuroticism" refers to the inclination to feel bad emotions, such as anxiety, depression, and irritability. An individual's inclination to feel negative emotions, such as stress, anger, or anxiety, is the main reason why they often see everyday circumstances from a negatively aspect, perceiving them as risky or even harmful. This group is incredibly sensitive to disruptions and quick to become stressed out. The extreme volatility of mood makes it difficult to reason logically, draw accurate conclusions, and effectively handle stress. Emotional stability, the opposite of neuroticism, is the ability of a person to effectively control their feelings, maintain a calm state of mind, and refrain from feeling negative emotions. It also means being resilient and showing resistance to unfavorable situations.

Highly neurotic people are usually:	**Low neurotic people are usually:**
Anxious	Laid back
Hostile (irritable)	Calm
Very stressed	Emotionally stable
Self-conscious (shy)	Confident
Vulnerable	Resillient
Experiencing dramatic shifts in mood	Rarely sad or depressed

Figure 1.2-4
Facets of Neuroticism (Srivastava,1999)

Finally, Openness to Experience refers to a state of mind that is both accepting and receptive to changes and new ideas of any kind. Individuals who score high in openness seek variety and freedom; they are curious about their surroundings and enjoy exploring and learning new things. On the contrary, people with low levels of openness to new experiences prefer routines. They are uneasy with change and attempting new things, therefore they favor the old over the unexpected.

High openness people are usually:	**Low openness people are usually:**
Curious	Predictable
Imaginative	Not very imaginative
Creative	Uncomfortable with change
Open to trying new things	Strict with routine
Unconventional	Traditional

Figure 1.2-5
Facets of Openness (Srivastava,1999)

The Big Five personality traits are generally culturally consistent, as McCrae and Costa (1997) show. A general understanding of these traits can be used to approximate a range of outcomes, such as academic achievement (Robins, John, & Caspi, 1998), delinquent behavior (John et al., 1994), and personality disorders (Costa & Widiger, 1994).

1.3 Personality and Public Sector Employment

Previous studies have shown that personality characteristics may be used to predict a range of labor market outcomes, such as unemployment and income (Almlund et al., 2011). Furthermore, personality traits have been shown to have an impact on occupational sorting, which is the process of matching job searchers with different credentials with available work in the labor market.

The occupational personality hypothesis proposed by Holland has been validated by empirical data from earlier studies. According to this hypothesis, people with various RIASEC (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, Conventional) attributes are more likely to choose careers that fit their unique personality type (Nauta, 2010).

Moreover, earlier studies have shown that positive core self-evaluations and the Big Five personality traits (conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) can be used to predict the career paths that people are most likely to take (Ham, Junankar, & Wellis, 2009; John & Thomsen, 2014; Nieken & Strömer, 2010; Sutin & Costa, 2010).

Apart from the many professional disciplines, the choice of a particular sector is crucial for professional categorization. Significant distinctions between employment in the public and private sectors have been shown by earlier studies. greater-paying jobs in the private sector usually provide greater incomes than identical positions in the public sector, even if wage disparities in industrialized countries are either nonexistent or biased toward the public sector (Lucifora & Meurs, 2006; Lausev, 2014).

However, compared to private sector career options, public sector roles are often seen as more secure and providing more support for families. Previous study indicates that there are a range of variances among personnel in the public and private sectors. According to many research (Prümer & Schnabel, 2019; Maczulskij, 2017; Demoussis & Giannakopoulos, 2007; Jovanovic & Lokshin, 2004; Christofides & Pashardes, 2002), women with higher education make up the majority of public sector employees. Additionally, the likelihood of them being married, having kids, and having relatives who work for the government is higher. Furthermore, it has been shown that employees in the public sector are more likely to limit risks (Buurman, Delfgaauw, Dur et al., 2012; Pfeifer, 2011).

Though it could provide some insight, it is unlikely that occupational categorization is the only factor causing the disparities in human characteristics across sectors. According to Roy's (1951) groundbreaking paradigm, people often choose to work in the field that increases their overall pleasure or well-being. Preferences have a big impact on the utility optimization process. Differentiating between personal preferences, people may choose to work in the public sector if they value non-cash perks or a family-friendly work atmosphere.

However, the management and psychology literatures have both emphasized the significance of motivational processes in the arrangement of work-related activities (e.g., Ritz, Brewer & Neumann, 2016; Barrick, Mount & Li, 2013). The term "public service motivation" (PSM) describes the desires and goals of a person that are related to making a positive contribution to society. It might help clarify the reasons behind why certain people are more likely to seek jobs in the public sector. Ritz et al. (2016), for instance, looked at this link in their study. Breaugh, Ritz, and Alfes (2018, p. 1428) describe PSM as a "set of needs a person possesses related to serving society." Along with motivation and preferences, personality may have an effect on industry choice. On this specific subject focused their attention in their respective studies Barrick et al. (2013) and Almlund et al. (2011).

Numerous research examined the link between an individual's personality traits and their propensity to become an entrepreneur (Brandstätter, 2011; Frese & Gielnik, 2014; Rauch & Frese, 2007; Zhao & Seibert, 2006). Research indicates that certain personality qualities, such as a low threshold for ambiguity, an external locus of control, and pro-social conduct, are linked to employment in the public sector (Bourantas & Papalexandris, 1999; Buurman, Delfgaauw, Du et al., 2012).

On the other hand, nothing is known about the relationships between personality qualities and public or private sector staff selection processes. Previous studies on occupational sorting have shown that women working in the public sector are more open than women working in the private sector, as determined by the Big Five personality traits (León, 2017). Moreover, research has shown that workers in the public sector are more extroverted. Maczulskij (2017) explores the differences in personality traits between employees in the public and private sectors, highlighting that individuals in the public sector are more likely to exhibit higher levels of extroversion.

These findings align closely with the demands of public sector roles, which often emphasize communication, collaboration, and social interaction in organizations related to education, healthcare, and public administration.

1.4 The "Big Five" Framework Categorization

Personality categories that constitute the "Big-5" framework (openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism) are quantified using a variety of psychometrically validated measures, of significant importance in academic research and in business applications.

Among these, the most famous is the highly psychometrically stable instrument named as NEO Personality Inventory - Revised (NEO-PI-R) developed by Costa and McCrae. It measures the Big Five personality traits and six of its sub-traits each corresponding to the five personality traits and generates a profile of the whole personality in its 240-item format. Due to its depth, richness and contextualized understanding, this tool is internationally recognized as a gold standard personality measure.

Among the proxies available, the Big 5 Inventory (BFI) (BFI, a 44-item questionnaire using the scale designed by John et al. (1991) is a powerful blend of completeness and elegance, hence it is suitable for use in workplace and other organizational studies. BFI-2 improves estimates of the Big Five traits by adding more facets, and enables better prediction of workplace behaviors (Soto John, 2017).

However, when there is insufficient time to investigate deeper and more holistic assessments, the Ten-item Personality Inventory (TIPI) provides a shorter yet valid and efficient scale for rating the Big Five traits. Although its brevity sacrifices some level of detail, it is nonetheless a useful tool either for exploratory reviews or when dealing with large samples or when time limitations dictate the use of briefer surveys. As a result, the TIPI has proven to be a popular choice in psychology, organizational behavior and related fields in which personality is a significant factor but time budgets are restrictive. (Gosling et al., 2003).

Big Five traits can be measured using self- or observer-rated scales. Self-reports are measurements by the subjects in regards to their own, private characteristics, enabling the direct entry to the subjectivities. Research has shown that self-ratings of conscientiousness are reliable predictors of work performance (Oh, Wang, and Mount, 2011).

At the same time, it's evident that this approach has certain limitations. Raters could be driven to project an overly favorable and socially acceptable image of oneself (Paunonen & LeBel, 2012). In the context of "high-stakes testing," which describes circumstances when test results are used to make important choices about people, such when they are applying for jobs, this problem is very important.

Furthermore, Vazire and Carlson (2011) show that a self-enhancement bias affects personality evaluations. According to this bias, people have a tendency to minimize or disregard their less positive traits in favor of highlighting their positive traits. Moreover, self-ratings are influenced by the reference group effect (Heine, Buchtel, & Norenzayan, 2008). This suggests that how we compare ourselves to members of our sociocultural reference group has some impact on how we see ourselves. For example, even if you are not a very conscientious person, you will still consider yourself to be fairly conscientious if you regularly put up more effort than most of your peers.

Observer reports, on the other hand, involve evaluations by peers or supervisors, offering an external perspective that mitigates biases such as social desirability (Connelly & Ones, 2010). Both methods are commonly used in organizational contexts, with observer reports providing additional reliability in assessments of employee behavior.

These tools are integral to workplace research, helping predict job performance, guide recruitment and selection processes, and inform professional development strategies. However, the use of personality assessments raises important ethical considerations. Issues such as data privacy, informed consent, and fairness in decision-making must be carefully addressed to ensure responsible application (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997). The availability and diversity of these tools in combination with their inseparable relation with the Big Five framework, designates its importance as a robust and adaptable model for understanding and categorizing personality in organizational psychology.

In order to overcome the limitations of the original 44-item questionnaire which might cause boredom and fatigue due to the extensive time required to be completed leading to biased ending results, its shorter 10-item version proposed by Gosling et al. (2003) will be applied at the context of the current research since despite of being short it remains a robust tool for personality traits categorization. The items included in this questionnaire are presented in the following table:

English Version	Greek Version
I see myself as:	Θεωρώ τον εαυτό μου:

1. Extraverted, enthusiastic	1. Εξωστρεφή, ενθουσιώδη
2. Critical, quarrelsome	2. Επικριτικό, εριστικό
3. Dependable, self-disciplined	3. Κάποιον που μπορείς να βασιστείς πάνω του, πειθαρχημένο
4. Anxious, easily upset	4. Αγχώδη, που ταράζεται εύκολα
5. Open to new experiences, complex	5. Ανοιχτό σε νέες εμπειρίες, πολυσύνθετο
6. Reserved, quiet	6. Μαζεμένο, ήσυχο
7. Sympathetic, warm	7. Συμπονετικό, εγκάρδιο
8. Disorganized, careless	8. Ανοργάνωτο, απρόσεκτο
9. Calm, emotionally stable	9. Ήρεμο, συναισθηματικά σταθερό
10. Conventional, uncreative	10. Συμβατικό, μη δημιουργικό

Table 1.1
Ten Item Personality Inventory (Gosling et al. (2003))

1.5 The relation between Job Satisfaction and Personality

There is a lot of academic work surrounding the situational and dispositional approaches to job satisfaction (Staw and Cohen-Charach, 2005). But it's important to recognize that both methods are important when looking into job satisfaction. In addition, given the effectiveness of the situational approach to job satisfaction (Staw and Cohen-Charach, 2005), it is also imperative that future research endeavors focus to the dispositional approach in order to gain a more thorough understanding on various perspectives on job satisfaction.

Several organizational psychologists argue that an individual's dispositions can have a significant influence on their attitudes toward their jobs (Judge and Locke, 1993; Watson and Slack, 1993). According to Staw and Ross (1985: 470), the dispositional approach is a research methodology that employs the evaluation of personal attributes to shed light on the fundamental causes of an individual's actions and attitudes. This methodology and job-related attitudes, such as job satisfaction, have been found to be strongly correlated (Staw and Cohen-Charach, 2005; Staw et al., 1986) indicating that a person's personality has an impact on their level of job satisfaction (Judge and Larsen, 2001).

Within the dispositional approach to job satisfaction, three commonly used personality taxonomies are positive affectivity, negative affectivity, and the Big Five traits (Judge et al., 2008; Judge and Larsen, 2001). According to Judge and Larsen (2001), the most accurate indicators of job satisfaction are two emotional dimensions, positive affectivity and negative affectivity and two personality traits, extraversion and neuroticism. According to Judge et al. (2002), the five-factor model provides a useful framework for analyzing the core personality traits linked to job satisfaction.

The dispositional approach to job satisfaction is the link between these two distinct concepts (personality, job satisfaction). This approach is considered equally important and supplementary to the situational approach of job satisfaction indicating that an individual's personality plays a significant role on the level of the perceived job satisfaction and that some dispositional tendencies predispose people to high or low satisfaction regardless of their job in different job contexts.

Chapter 2: Motivation and Intrinsic Rewards

2.1 The Foundational Idea Behind Motivation.

In the field of motivation, Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is a well-known and significant theory. In 1943, Maslow published "A Theory of Human Motivation," which presented his theory. The theory essentially looks into the driving forces behind human behavior. Conley (2007) asserts that when self-actualization needs are met, employees feel most accomplished. This is supported by research on how organizations use Maslow's theory to motivate staff. Employees aim for higher levels of motivation prior to reaching their ultimate goal. Food, money, and steady work are just a few of the necessities for survival that are included in the psychological needs list. In addition, security requirements are considered, including benefits and occupational safety. Belongingness needs, such as the need for peer cooperation, are also included. The final steps in evaluating esteem needs are to talk about respect, acknowledgment, and job titles. The application of Maslow's hierarchy of needs to workers in a corporate environment is shown in the diagram in Figure 2.1.

Within an organization, the Maslow hierarchy of needs provides a significant tool to incentivize employees towards improved performance and higher satisfaction. According to Shields, Brown, and Kaine (2015), what drive humans are human needs. When an organization meets the needs of its workers, the workers themselves become more productive. The degree to which a person's needs are met influences their behavior, according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory.

Fulfilling needs gives rise to certain emotions, such as pleasure. They consequently put forth more effort to achieve the goals of the organization. Additionally, as stated by McGuire (2012), the theory provides insightful information about the specific domains that organizational leadership should prioritize. The demands and needs of employees at each of the five hierarchical levels should be routinely assessed by management. This guarantees that staff members will continue to be highly motivated, which will improve their performance over time and help the company reach its objectives.

Figure 2.1:
Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs (Jerome, 2013).

The concept, as illustrated in the figure, states that an employee must reach a certain degree of satisfaction before moving on to the next. Primary needs include things like psychological necessities like nourishment, health, and hydration. The two most important requirements for a worker in an organization are pay and job security. An individual experiences this prior to pursuing safety necessities, like steady employment and a strong social network. Achieving self-actualization is the ultimate goal of an employee, as shown at the top of figure 1. However, as Cherry (2018) shows, the theory is not impervious to criticism despite its significant influence. For example, the theory is difficult to verify and does not require that people's obligations fit into a specific hierarchy or framework. Employees' needs for self-actualization may supersede their psychological needs.

Maslow's “Hierarchy of Needs” offers a foundational framework for understanding employee motivation, illustrating how fulfilling basic physiological and psychological needs can drive workplace performance. By addressing needs progressively, from security to self-actualization, organizations can create environments that enhance employee satisfaction and productivity. The application of Maslow’s theory in organizational settings highlights its relevance in shaping motivational strategies, particularly through job security, autonomy, and recognition. While the framework provides valuable insights, its limitations, such as cultural variability and the rigid structure of the hierarchy, demand critical consideration.

The most interesting part in Maslow’s theory about motivation is the fact that he managed to introduce the idea of tailor-made motivation methods, half a century back through that “pyramid of human needs”. According to this idea, motives should not be uniformly applied. On the contrary an evaluation system should be applied to determine the needs of each individual so as the motives to prove effective.

2.2 Overview of the Foundational Motivation Theories

A lot of theories approached motivation from different standpoints since Maslow's motivational theory. Victor Vroom's "Expectancy Theory", Herzberg's "Two-Factor Theory", "Self-Determination Theory", and "Equity Theory", constitute the most important modern workplace motivational frameworks.

Herzberg's theory (1959) divides workplace factors into hygiene factors and motivators. While hygiene factors, such as salary and job security are necessary to prevent dissatisfaction among employees, motivation for increased performance arises only from intrinsic factors like recognition, personal growth, and achievement.

McGregor's X and Y theory (1960) argued that there are two distinct types of employees. He tried to separate those two types under two theoretical approaches. Theory-X employees, who are naturally lazy and need supervision and compulsion and Theory-Y employees who are driven by themselves and succeed with independence and accountability thus, McGregor's theory focuses more on the role of leadership and management styles in motivation than on the motives. McGregor's theory simplicity may provide a useful simple framework for employee categorization, however its main limitation also come from its overly simplicity.

McClelland's Theory of Needs (1961) was another attempt of explaining human behavior and what motivates individuals in work or social interactions. According to the "Theory of Needs" individuals are motivated by three primary needs. The need for achievement, the need for affiliation and the need for power. Moreover, Mclelland suggests that those needs are not innate but on the contrary, they can be "learnt" to individuals providing a useful tool for organizational, leadership and personal development in workplaces potentially acting as intrinsic motivators.

Another approach presented by Adams (1963). Adam's Equity Theory focuses on the importance of fairness in the workplace. Perceived inequities lead to dissatisfaction, reducing motivation and performance. To put it simple according to Adams theory, employees tend to compare their input-output ratios (effort versus rewards) to those of their peers and if they perceive that their effort is under-rewarded, their motivation declines, while equity helps maintaining a certain level of effort and over-reward may lead to increased effort.

Victor Vroom's (1964) "Expectancy Theory" suggests that motivation is related to three key components: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. These components work together to determine whether an individual will put effort toward achieving specific goals in order to get rewarded with something (material or not) which will actually have value to him and will deserve the effort. Based on Vroom's Expectancy theory, Porter and Lawer (1968) presented the "Instrumentality model" of motivation. According to this, each component (expectancy, instrumentality, valence) refers to a different inner process that precedents and defines employees' behavior. Expectancy refers to the belief that increased effort will lead to the desired outcome, instrumentality focuses on the perceived likelihood that good performance will result in desired rewards, valence reflects the perceived value of the rewards to the employee. To put it simple, Expectancy theory suggests that if an employee does not value the reward equal to the effort needed (valence), or if he assesses the probability of achieving the desired outcomes as low (instrumentality), the expectation for a favorable outcome for him declines (expectancy) which will most probably lead to decreased motivation.

Locke and Latham's (1990) Goal-Setting Theory emphasize the importance of clear, challenging, and attainable goals in driving motivation. Unlike Expectancy Theory, which focuses on the pathways leading to rewards, Goal-Setting Theory explores the motivational impact of the goals themselves.

Self Determination Theory presented by Ryan and Deci (2000), SDT emphasizes the importance of autonomy, competence, and relatedness in fostering intrinsic motivation. Unlike Expectancy Theory, which focuses primarily on extrinsic rewards, SDT underscores the psychological needs that drive human behavior.

A brief review of the basic theories that comprise the motivation pallet was essential to achieve a holistic understanding of the complex motivational processes of work environments. A common ground can be found in all of the above theories and this has to do with the gravity of intrinsic and immaterial incentives, which in most cases is considered of equal importance to those of material and extrinsic nature.

2.3 Leadership Impact on Intrinsic Motivation

Employee motivation in general is undeniably one of the key determinants of organizational success. However, the role of external factors, such as leadership styles, cannot be overlooked as they are closely related to intrinsic motivators (Deci et al., 2017). House and Mitchell (1974) found that effective leadership motivates employees by increasing the variety of rewards they obtain from their labor.

This chapter examines how leadership styles impact on motivation increasing or hampering employee performance and satisfaction integrating relevant motivational theories which serve as a theorical basis for understanding these dynamics.

According to academic literature Leadership definition in organizations is inextricably linked with concepts such as influence, teamwork and common goals. The most recent and probably one of the most accurate definitions of organizational Leadership belongs to Northouse (2018) who defined Leadership as a process of influencing others to reach a common purpose.

In modern work environments the most commonly met leadership styles can be boiled down to the following classic approaches of organizational leadership:

- Transformational Leadership, Burns, J. M. (1978), Bass, B. M. (1985). Transformational leaders inspire employees by sharing their vision, fostering innovation and initiative emphasizing on intrinsic motivation. Their main focus is on personal development and alignment of individual goals with organizational objectives.
- Transactional Leadership, Bass, B. M. (1990). Transactional leaders focus on clear structures by remaining strict to organizational protocols while they use rewards, and penalties to drive performance. The main motivators they use are mostly extrinsic oriented, based on the expectation of rewards for achieving specific goals

- Servant Leadership, Greenleaf, R. K. (1977). Leaders operating under this style prioritize the needs of the followers, they care about the individual well-being and development of their team members, focusing on empathy, listening, and support to assist them reach their full potential which as a process should lead to organizational goals achievement.
- Autocratic or Authoritarian Leadership Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., & White, R. K. (1939). Autocratic leaders take advantage of their authority to monopolize decision-making, relying on close control of their team members and utilizing strict rules to maintain effectiveness towards the achievement of organizational goals.
- Democratic Leadership Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., & White, R. K. (1939). Democratic leaders encourage participation, collaboration, and shared decision-making in order to motivate their teams towards the achievement of common organizational goals.
- Laissez-Faire Leadership Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., & White, R. K. (1939). Leaders who prefer this style provide minimal direction, allowing employees autonomy to manage their tasks as a mean of intrinsic motivation in their attempt to achieve organizational goals.
- Situational Leadership Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1969). The situational approach suggests that leadership styles should vary depending on the situation. Effective leadership includes adapting one's style to diverse conditions dictated by the environment (e.g. competence of employes, nature of work, market condition etc) to achieve organizational goals.

However, complementary to the above widely known leadership styles, organizational leadership scholars have also studied additional approaches on leadership theory. The most famous of which are:

- The “Charismatic Leadership” of Max Weber, (1947), which focuses mostly around personality, behavioral and intellectual traits of a leader that allow him to positively influence his followers.
- The “Path-goal theory of Leadership” by Robert J. House (1971) which does not refer exactly to a distinct leadership style, but as a theory mostly emphasizes the role of a leader in organizational setups, influenced by Vroom’s Expectancy theory.
- A worth mentioning modern style is the “Adaptive Leadership” by Ronald A. Heifetz (1994), which in contrast to the situational approach, does not examine the adaptation abilities of the Leader, but the leader’s ability to influence his followers to adapt to new challenges and dynamic circumstances.
- The most modern theory around organizational theory and leadership styles specifically is the “Authentic Leadership” by Bill George (2003) according to which a leader can build trust and inspire followers by being true to his moral values and identity.

Most of the above presented leadership styles could be associated with one or more motivational theories by examining which specific intrinsic needs they cover and which behaviors they activate to employees.

Transformational leadership aims to inspire towards the achievement of organizational goals by fostering a shared vision, encouraging innovation, and providing individualized support (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), which according to Bono & Judge, (2003) results in the enhancement of intrinsic motivators such as personal growth and recognition. Shared vision fosters belongingness and personal growth supports esteem needs which are foundational concepts of Maslow's theory while at the same time competence and relatedness are achieved which are two of the three main focus points of Self Determination theory.

In contrast, transactional leaders focus strictly on organizational structures, rewards and punishments to drive performance (Bass B.M., 1990). While this approach effectively enhances extrinsic motivation, since it is based on the expectation of rewards for achieving goals or on the avoidance of penalties for underperforming, it may not sustain long-term satisfaction which is mostly achieved through intrinsic motivation according to Deci (1971). This leadership style is linked to Vroom's "Expectancy" theory, which as commented in above sections underemphasizes the concept of intrinsic motivation.

Servant Leadership through focusing on the well-being and development of the employees by empathy and supportive actions, enhances collaboration leading to an increased sense of relatedness and belongingness boosting employee engagement. This style mostly relates to Maslow's theory and Self-Determination theory, satisfying respectively both belongingness, self-esteem and relatedness, competence aspects which according the respective motivation theories, are key triggers of intrinsic motivation.

Autocratic Leadership mostly associates with McGregor's Theory-X (McGregor, 1960) since the autocratic leader centralizes authority and decision making under the perception that employees inherently require coercion to perform tasks. While this style may prove useful in crisis situations, its application over time reduces intrinsic motivation and team morale (Bass, 1990) as it excludes team members from decision making processes diminishing their sense of autonomy and self-efficacy which are key triggers of intrinsic motivation.

Democratic Leadership on the contrary, encourages employees to engage in decision making processes taking an active part in organizational goal setting, fostering this way collaboration and participation. These practices are clearly connected with multiple motivation theories. Firstly, taking part in decision making processes and goal setting procedures directly relates to "Goal-Setting theory" of Locke & Latham (1990) according to which collaborative work environments increase intrinsic motivation. Self-Determination Theory also supports those practices such as involvement in decision making trigger intrinsic motivation. Moreover, by taking part in a process employees strengthen their belongingness feelings, satisfying belongingness needs (Maslow, 1943) while by definition under democratic environments equity is promoted among team members, also directly relating this style with Equity theory (Adams, 1963). Both the belongingness stage of Maslow's Pyramid and Adam's Equity theory are closely related to intrinsic motivation.

Laissez-Faire leaders, provides room for excessive employee autonomy, which could prove useful in situations where employees get motivated by autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and could favor individuals who show high self-motivation. However, it can end up being destructive for the team, causing disengagement and confusion due to lack of guidance (Skogstad et al., 2007).

Adaptive Leadership focuses on those actions of leaders which help employees to develop by giving them space and time to explore and reevaluate their beliefs and values in order to assist organizations as a whole to evolve and overcome challenges Heifetz, R. A. (1994). Hence, the adaptive style focuses on inner personality changes promoting intrinsic motivation.

Authentic leaders emphasize on the importance of behavioral consistency between one’s values, beliefs and principles, inspiring the team to achieve organizational goals. This leadership approach relates mostly with Maslow’s theory of motivation, as the leader encourages individuals to grow personally and professionally satisfying esteem and self-actualization needs, which as a result promotes intrinsic motivation.

Leadership insights from Cognitive Evaluation Theory and Motivation Crowding Theory highlight the importance of fostering autonomy, competence, and a sense of purpose to maximize the benefits of these strategies. Together, these elements create a supportive organizational environment where employees can thrive and organizations can achieve long-term success. However, regular assessments of employee satisfaction and the impact of leadership strategies are essential to ensure alignment with organizational goals (Yukl, 2013).

As described above, leadership styles play an integral role in shaping employee motivation and satisfaction, while certain styles can promote intrinsic motivation and contribute to sustained engagement and satisfaction. This brief documentation of the most commonly met leadership styles, shows once more that the desired employee behavior can be targeted mostly through intrinsic processes.

2.4 Non-monetary Rewards

Non-monetary rewards are incentives that are not directly translated to financial gains for employees, even if they have a cost for the organization. These rewards target employees’ psychological needs instead of acting as financial compensation measures.

Schottle and Gehbauer (2012) at their study support that non-monetary rewards not only significantly enhance intrinsic motivation but they often outperform the effects of financial incentives while at the same time they have been proven more effective in maintaining long term commitment and increased performance.

Additionally, according to Sandhya and Kumar (2011), employees often prefer career advancement and job satisfaction to financial incentives like bonuses and monthly salaries. Due to the fact that financial incentives are not even in the table for some organizations, like those of the public sector, Yavuz (2004) further highlights their importance in public sector organizations, where financial limitations dictate alternative approaches to motivate employees.

Since the situation in Turkish public sector organizations resembles much to this of public sector organizations in Greece and due to the significance of intrinsic motivation which among other factors (e.g. leadership, job characteristics etc) also stems from non-financial rewards, this section identifies creative practices for non-monetary motivation, the effectiveness of which will be put to the test under the context of this research.

To achieve this the most commonly met non-monetary rewards were noted through open-source research (web articles and journals) while at the same time empirical literature was reviewed to identify academically recognized practices. These practices were classified under a wider categorization according to the desired intrinsic effect:

- Recognition and appreciation, came up to be among the most widely accepted non-monetary incentives. More specifically, Cameron and Pierce (1994) discovered that verbal rewards positively impact intrinsic motivation while Brun and Dugas (2008) found that employee recognition programs significantly promote engagement and motivation. Additionally, Kosfeld, Neckermann, and Yang (2014) supported that practices and measures aiming on recognition and appreciation reinforce employees' self-esteem and value, increasing their morale and loyalty. These practices could involve:

  a. Public, verbal or written, acknowledgment of employees' achievements.
  b. Private, verbal or written, acknowledgment of employees' achievements.
  c. Recognition awards like "Employee of the Month".

- Professional development opportunities. This non-monetary rewards category aims to satisfy the needs of competence, esteem and self-actualization. Employees who are given opportunities for growth often exhibit greater satisfaction and commitment to their organizations, as emphasized by Sandhya and Kumar (2011). Another study by Bartol and Srivastava (2002) supported that knowledge sharing between colleagues enhances team trust and motivation while Collings and Mellahi (2009) highlighted that programs which lead to certifications can enhance the perception of career advancement opportunities. Finally, a study from Noe (2013) showed that employees who participate in skill-building workshops report higher job satisfaction. As a result, these practices may involve:

  a. Organization of training programs, seminars or providing vouchers for e-learning platforms
  b. Providing sponsorships for higher education or specialized technical certification in collaboration with other public sector organizations.
  c. Colleague knowledge sharing meetings.

- Workplace autonomy. Practices that fall under this category aim to provide employees greater control over their tasks, schedules and decision-making. Ryan and Deci (2000) emphasize autonomy as a cornerstone of intrinsic motivation in their Self-Determination Theory. According to relevant studies, task autonomy increases motivation by fulfilling the psychological need for control over one's work (Hackman and Oldham, 1976), additionally Amabile (1996) found that autonomy in innovation leads to higher creativity and intrinsic motivation. Another interesting result comes from Baltes et al. (1999) who showed that particularly in dynamic work environments scheduling autonomy positively impacts job satisfaction and performance. Moreover, Gajendran and Harrison (2007) found that remote work increases job satisfaction and decreases turnover intentions. These practices involve:

  a. Task schedule autonomy
  b. Inclusion of employee's innovative ideas
  c. Workspace personalization (as a factual measure of SDT)

d. Remote work options

- Career advancement and job enrichment. Another mean that fosters motivation implicates advancement opportunities and additional responsibilities through role diversification. This approach aligns closely with Maslow's self-actualization needs since they enable employees to achieve personal and professional fulfillment and grow self-esteem through facing challenging situations. Hackman and Oldham (1976) identified that project ownership increases job satisfaction through task identity and significance, while another method that improves motivation by reducing monotony and fostering multiple skill development was job rotation according to Campion et al. (1994), additionally, Day (2000) highlighted the importance of leadership development on employee motivation and retention. As a result, effective methods that promote career advancement and job enrichment include:

a. Career advancement plans and transparent promotion policies as a factual measure of self-actualization.

b. Project ownership and leadership development programs

c. Cross-functional roles and Job rotation as a measure of reducing monotony at work.

- Health and wellness programs. These programs have begun to gain traction in modern workplaces, especially in the last twenty years, as health issues and especially mental health issues are still perceived as taboo even in modern societies. However, as literature suggests these initiatives lead to improved productivity and reduced absenteeism, underscoring their importance in modern organizations. Specifically, according to Bond and Bunce (2001) stress management workshops improve psychological flexibility and workplace performance. Additionally, research showed that employees who participate in fitness programs report higher engagement and reduced burnout according to Person et al. (2010) while Hargrave et al. (2008) highlighted the importance of Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs), which are confidential counseling services provided by professionals to help employees address personal and professional challenges. These sessions positively correlated with absenteeism reduction and workplace performance improvement working as motives. Another recently applied technique, relative to psychological counseling but significantly different, is coaching. In a relative study, Grant et. al. (2009) demonstrated that employees who attend life coaching sessions reported improved psychological resilience and work engagement which are also crucial in maintaining work motivation. Such practices could include:

a. Providing access to psychological support and counseling

b. Job or life coaching programs sponsorships

c. Promoting participation in physical activities

d. Stress management seminars

- Social and interpersonal rewards. They also play a key role in fostering a positive work culture and fostering general job motivation and satisfaction. These rewards' power originates to the human need for relatedness and belongingness (Maslow's hierarchy of human needs theory). Dysvik and Kuvaas (2011) highlighted the impact of such rewards on employee cohesion and collaboration while Gagné and Deci (2005) became more specific, supporting that social interactions contribute to intrinsic motivation by satisfying the need for relatedness aligning with Kossek et al. (2005) who showed that employee networks which enhance social belonging also improve job satisfaction. These rewards could take the form of:

a. Team-building physical activities

b. Celebrations of milestones or occasions (e.g. reaching organizational achievements, New Year's Eve, organizations anniversaries, etc)

c. Carefully designed workspaces that promote social interaction among coworkers

Despite their advantages, non-monetary rewards have limitations since they cannot be considered universally effective. Their impact depends on multiple factors. Organizational structure and culture, employee demographic job characteristics and personalities, socioeconomic circumstances, cultural background of workforce and the nature of the job itself are some of those factors. For example, highly autonomous roles may not value additional autonomy as an incentive, while employees who choose transactional jobs may prioritize recognition over development opportunities.

It could universally be accepted though, that in their attempt to maximize effectiveness, organizations should adopt a tailored approach to non-monetary rewards, developed on the basis of regular feedback by employees. More direct practices to identify valuable non-monetary, that undoubtfully matter to the employees, would implicate their participation in rewards determination. This would ensure alignment of individual needs to organizational goals, creating a mutually beneficial environment.

2.5 Non-Monetary Rewards and Employee Performance

The empirical literature that looks at the relationship between organizational performance and intrinsic motivators yields conflicting findings. Rajendran, Mosisa, and Nedelea (2017) assert that an organization's intrinsic values have a direct effect on worker performance. They looked into how intrinsic rewards affected workers' performance at an agricultural research center in Ethiopia. Their study found a significant correlation between organization's intrinsic values and worker performance. Job security, employee autonomy, job satisfaction, and internal recognition are all motivating factors for workers to perform better at work and eventually help the organization achieve its objectives.

Murphy (2015) posits that non-financial incentives and values, like involvement in decision-making procedures, boost worker motivation and foster increased innovation and productivity within the company. The author claims that this correlation supports the idea that financial compensation has little effect on worker performance. Moreover, it doesn't seem to be a factor in increased behaviors, better management cooperation, or employee tenure. It is more financially feasible for an organization to use non-monetary incentives, which simplifies the implementation process.

Another relative study by Kvaly, Nieken, and Schottner (2015) highlighted the value of non-cash rewards in raising worker productivity. Their study "Hidden benefits of reward:

A field experiment on motivation and monetary incentives" emphasizes the importance of motivational talk as a main source of motivation and its significant impact on worker performance. Compared to the use of performance-based compensation, the adoption of motivational talk significantly increased employee productivity by about 20%. Additionally, it led to a noteworthy 40% decrease in the percentage of errors made by staff members.

Giauque, Anderfuhren-Biget, and Varone's (2013) study found a positive correlation between internal work motivations and human resource management practices, as perceived by the organization. Human resource management practices that support intrinsic incentives have a substantial impact on employee engagement, participation, professional development, and perceived job enrichment, according to the study which consequently positively affects the organization's performance (Giauque et al., 2013).

Numerous scholarly works within the fields of organizational behavior and human resource management have acknowledged the significant effectiveness of non-cash rewards in stimulating and encouraging employees within corporate environments. According to Abdullah and Hooi (2013), the introduction of these incentives creates a relationship between the performance of the organization and the behavior that employees are expected to exhibit. When it comes to motivating employees, compassionate organizations prioritize internal rewards over external incentives. For example, companies that use rewards such as employee appreciation and recognition are seen as more caring than those that rely on higher pay and bonuses to entice and encourage their workforce. Other non-monetary incentives that directly affect job satisfaction include employee autonomy, promoting self-determination, and effort optimization. Abdullah and Hooi (2013) assert that there is doubt about these techniques' ability to inspire workers.

As a conclusion, academic literature suggests and enhances the argument that non-monetary rewards which target intrinsic motivation positively affect employee performance equally while there are cases that they prove even more effective than monetary rewards.

Chapter 3: Job Satisfaction

3.1 Definition of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be defined in a variety of ways. Hoppock (1935) in his work first described satisfaction derived through work as the combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental elements that lead employees to feel satisfied with their jobs. "A positive emotional state that results from an evaluation of one's job or work experience" is how Nelson and Quick (2013) described job satisfaction. Consequently, job satisfaction could be perceived as a person's overall emotional reaction to their employment, which is shaped by their personal assessment and experiences at work.

Satisfied employees communicate and collaborate with others more positively fostering a higher level of happiness (Lyubomirsky, King, and Diener, 2005) and well-being in their social interactions (Helliwell and Huang, 2010) including coworkers in the workplace, creating a self-feeding effect which leads to even higher levels of job satisfaction as supported by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996).

Low job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction on the other hand, typically leads to unjustified fatigue (Melamed et al. 2006), low productivity, significant employee turnover (Farrell and Stamm, 1988), absenteeism (Johns, 2001) and even physical and psychological health problems (Spector, 1997, Bianchi, Schonfeld, and Laurent, 2015) diminishing employee performance and organizational effectiveness.

3.2 The Relation between Job Satisfaction and Motivation

Job satisfaction as a concept is interconnected with the concept of motivation and both play a critical role in promoting employee performance and organizational success. While motivation drives employees to engage more effectively in their tasks at the same time it enhances job satisfaction inextricably linking the two concepts.

Herzberg with his “Two-Factor theory” (1959) was the first who approached this relation showing that intrinsic motivators drive job satisfaction. Locke (1976) at his work “The nature and cause of job satisfaction” formulated the “Range of Affect Theory” where he supported that the level of job satisfaction perceived by an employee is directly related to the material or emotional value these motives have to him. Later on, Ryan and Deci’s “Self Determination Theory” (2000) provided empirical evidence of the direct relationship between intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction through intrinsic psychological drivers. Gagné and Deci (2005) found that motivation that occurs from intrinsic factors significantly enhances job satisfaction reconfirming this way the positive link between intrinsic driven motives and job satisfaction.

The above academic literature highlights two important points. Firstly, the positive correlation between intrinsic motivators and job satisfaction and secondly the relation of the level of satisfaction to the perceived values of the rewards (financial or not). The current research goal is to contribute to the enhancement of job satisfaction through the optimization of motivational practices, hence it focuses only on the identification of relations between the perceived value of specific non-monetary rewards and specific personality traits, taking the positive correlation between job satisfaction and intrinsic rewards as a fact.

3.3 Job Satisfaction in the Public Sector

Job satisfaction in the public sector is quite interesting subject of study because of unique characteristics that effect employee well-being and organizational effectiveness. More specifically, public sector organizations face unique constraints regarding budgetary limitations, complex bureaucracy and rigid hierarchical systems, while they differ from private sector organizations primarily in their aim on providing community service rather than being profitable.

For addressing challenges related to employee motivation in this sector, the understanding of the factors that influence job satisfaction is essential. This chapter investigates the internal and external factors that influence job satisfaction in the public sector.

Academic literature supports that job satisfaction results as a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. From Hertzberg’s Two-Factor theory (1959), which supported that job satisfaction results from hygiene factors (extrinsic – salary, work conditions, etc) and motivators (intrinsic – need for achievement, recognition, personal growth), to Ryan’s and Deci’s Self Determination Theory (2000) which emphasized mostly the importance of intrinsic motives but also acknowledged the importance of extrinsic motivators (salary, monetary bonuses etc), there was no scholar who overlooked the importance of the combined effects of intrinsic-extrinsic motivators. These elements interact and influence how an individual perceives employment and everyday experiences at work, defining his/her level of engagement and effectiveness in the workplace, either it concerns the public or the private sector.

Perry & Wise (1990) were the first to introduce the term "Public Service Motivation" or PSM. According to their work PSM is defined as "An individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations." They also identified specific motives that could explain an individual’s preference of public sector to private sector. These motives mainly involve their inner need to serve the community either for rational or for emotional reasons since their ethical values are more aligned with those of the public sector where the core idea is to contribute to society instead of making profits. Therefore, a logical argument that occurs is that public sector's employees are mostly motivated from intrinsic motives and derive satisfaction from intrinsic factors such as work significance to the community, opportunities for personal growth and consistency between their work and their personal values.

Extrinsic motivators also play a significant role in the public sector. The term extrinsic includes anything that does not derive from the employee himself. Working conditions, promotions tied to salary raises or professional status upgrades, job security, benefits and workplace relationships remain on the table in the case of the public sector. According to Aswathappa, (2003), despite the fact that public sector employees often enjoy greater job security compared to their private-sector counterparts, limited opportunities for financial advancement can diminish satisfaction since wage payments and financial incentives remain more important. However, because of strict hierarchical and bureaucratical constructs deriving from legislation the variety and as a result the impact of those extrinsic factors is seriously diminished.

Public sector employees beside the lack of extrinsic factors have to face unique challenges that can have a negative impact on job satisfaction. Resource constraints, bureaucratic structures, poor management, outdated organizational procedures and inadequate workplace structures are some of the everyday challenges of public sector employees.

Limited funding is the main reason for outdated infrastructure, insufficient human and material resources which consequently leads to heavy workloads due to inefficiency ultimately resulting in job dissatisfaction. Bakker and Demerouti (2007), were the first who studied specifically the effects of resource constraints and high job demands to employee satisfaction and well-being. The Job Demands-Resources model they came up with, provided a useful framework for understanding the impact of disproportionality between resources and demands to job satisfaction.

Additionally, the bureaucratic character of the public sector with its highly hierarchical and procedural environments decreases creativity and autonomy hampering any employee initiative. Perry et al. (2006) through their work, highlighted bureaucracy as one of the most common reasons for public sector's employee dissatisfaction due to the rigidity and slow pace of organizational change and lack of flexibility in decision making processes. Another important aspect is poor management and inadequate organizational procedures and structures which can deteriorate morale, enhance disengagement, and lead to reduced productivity. Kahn (1990) in his research emphasized the importance of psychological safety in workplace. During his research he found that inadequate organizational structures and norms, poor leadership and poor team dynamics can result in employee disengagement. However, along with disengagement comes poor performance and poor performance brings dissatisfaction.

Job satisfaction in the public sector is influenced by a complex interplay of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. While public sector employees derive satisfaction mostly from intrinsic factors like meaningful work, feeling of contribution to society and personal development, extrinsic factors like inspired and supportive management, strong team dynamics and fair working conditions can also help overcoming external challenges which undermine employee engagement and productivity. By implementing strategies that balance intrinsic and extrinsic incentives public sector organizations can enhance satisfaction and achieve better outcomes for both employees and the communities they serve.

3.4 Correlations between Job Satisfaction and Personality Categories

Taking into consideration the relative academic literature, it becomes obvious that the relation between job satisfaction and personality traits has been in the center of attention of a significant number of scholars. This is mostly explained by the fact that all motivational processes aim to enhance organizational efficiency and job satisfaction through triggering positive psychological effects which cause the desired behaviors from employees. The impact on one's psychology though, is clearly related to how he or she reacts to external or internal stimuli which mostly depends on one's personality structure.

The neurotic quality. According to Judge et al. (1999), neuroticism is frequently linked to emotional stability and a lack of positive psychological adaptation. People who suffer from neurosis may receive too little or too much outside stimulation (Gardner and Cummings, 1988). High neurotic people are more likely to experience negative emotions like anxiety, depression, hostility, and vulnerability because they tend to put themselves in situations that facilitate unfavorable outcomes (Costa and McCrea, 1992; Emmons et alh, 1985). According to a study by Donges et al. (2015), there is a distinct difference between men and women's implicit self-concepts regarding neuroticism. Women are more strongly associated with this trait. Research also indicates that neuroticism and job satisfaction are negatively correlated (Furnham and Zacherl, 1986; Ilies and Judge, 2003; Judge et al., 2002). According to a meta-analysis by Judge et al. (2002), there is a statistically significant negative correlation between neuroticism and job satisfaction, with neuroticism having the biggest impact among other factors. In their meta-analysis report, Ilies and Judge (2003) found a strong correlation between emotional stability, the opposite of neuroticism, and job satisfaction. On the other hand, although not statistically significant, Furnham et al. (2009) found a positive correlation between neuroticism and job satisfaction, which does not hold true. This phenomenon was observed in a study with 202 full-time employees from the United Kingdom. Therefore, more research is required to clarify the relationship between neuroticism and job satisfaction because the findings of one study on the topic are still up for debate.

The trait of being extroverted. According to Costa and McCrea (1992), extraversion is the degree to which people display characteristics like assertiveness, activity, enthusiasm, energy, and dominance. Extraverts are usually very social and socially conscious, according to Judge et al. (1999). They also exhibit traits of assertiveness, activity, ambition, dominance, and exploration. Most work environments consider extroversion to be advantageous for employees, since it implies effective communication and collaboration skills. However, dominance and ambition could be seen as ambiguous. There is a significant relationship between extraversion and job satisfaction. Two studies (one by Brayfield and Marsh, 1957, focusing on farmers; the other by Furnham and Zacherl, 1986, using a small but diverse sample) found a significant correlation between extraversion and job satisfaction. Judge et al. (2002) on his research also found a significant correlation between extraversion and job satisfaction in a meta-analysis of 334 correlations across 163 independent samples. Additionally, extroverted individuals are more likely to experience satisfaction from roles requiring social interaction and collaboration, which, in turn, fuels their motivation to excel in such environments (Judge et al., 1999). Another research by Ilies and Judge (2003) which carried out another meta-analysis also found a strong link between extraversion and job satisfaction. But in a more recent study by Furnham et al. (2009) with 202 full-time workers found no conclusive evidence or relationship between extraversion and job satisfaction. Hence, despite the contradictory results between some studies, most of them suggest that there is a generally significant correlation between extraversion and job satisfaction .

Openness. The trait of being receptive to new things. Intellectual curiosity combined with a disposition toward in-depth reflection on philosophical and intellectual matters define openness to experience. In addition, it demonstrates characteristics like creativity, independence, and defiance of accepted social norms (Judge et al., 1999). It's common to view an employee's openness to trying new things as a positive trait (Desimoni and Leone, 2014). Gregory et al. (2010) also found that among physically active older adults, it is a significant determinant in improving life satisfaction. It's crucial to remember, though, that being overly open to new experiences can have both positive and negative effects on one's career. High openness may have the unintended consequence of making people more likely to change jobs frequently or feel dissatisfied in traditional careers (Judge et al., 2002). The results of primary and meta-analyses indicate that there is no statistically significant relationship between openness to experience and job satisfaction. The results of Furnham et al. (2009), Judge et al. (2002), and Ilies and Judge (2003), among others, corroborate this.

Agreeableness. Being agreeable is a personal trait that denotes a willingness to work together, depend on others, be kind to and show consideration for others. It also includes traits like happiness, serenity, and calmness, according to Judge et al. (1999). According to Organ and Lingl (1995), agreeableness is the ability to establish and maintain positive, cordial interpersonal relationships with others. In a recent study, Furnham and Cheng (2015) found several early markers that can be used to predict the adult trait of agreeableness. These indicators include things like gender, occupation, educational attainment, parental social status, and child intelligence. Specifically, women are more likely than men to score highly on the agreeableness trait. The literature that has already been written suggests that there is uncertainty in the connection between agreeableness and job satisfaction. An instance of this can be found in the meta-analytic path analysis carried out by Ilies et al. (2009), which showed a noteworthy and affirmative association between job satisfaction and agreeableness. As also noted by Cooper et al. (2014), who highlighted the importance of agreeableness in public sector roles, where collaboration and teamwork are often critical and Templer (2012), who investigated the relationship between agreeableness and job satisfaction in close-knit and communal Asian societies. His study found that the emphasis on harmony and group cohesion in such societies amplifies the positive impact of agreeableness on job satisfaction. Meanwhile, in comparison to other scientific endeavors, the correlation between agreeableness and job satisfaction was found to be insignificant (Judge et al., 2002; Furnham et al., 2009; Ilies and Judge, 2003). Large-scale studies should be conducted in order to address the inconsistent findings, which necessitates more research.

Conscientiousness. According to Zhao and Seibert (2006), conscientiousness is the degree to which a person is motivated, orderly, and hardworking in the pursuit of preset objectives. Furnham and Cheng (2015) found a small but significant correlation between conscientiousness and parental social status, childhood intelligence, education, and occupation. Moreover, it has been noted that women tend to score higher on conscientiousness when compared to men. Conscientiousness is the most reliable personality trait for predicting success in the workplace, regardless of job or occupation (Barrick et al., 2001; Judge et al., 1999). This could offer an explanation for the favorable relationship that exists between job satisfaction and conscientiousness (Furnham et al. (2009), Ilies and Judge (2003), Ilies et al. (2009), and Judge et al. (2002).

In summary, the relationship between job satisfaction and personality categories demonstrates the various ways in which individual traits influence employees in the workplace. Traits like extraversion and conscientiousness consistently show positive correlations with higher job satisfaction, particularly in roles emphasizing interpersonal interactions and structured responsibilities respectively. Conversely, neuroticism is linked to lower job satisfaction, reflecting its association with emotional instability and stress, while agreeableness and openness need to be further examined for safe conclusions on their impact to individuals or to the dynamics of the work environment as a whole.

Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1 Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to investigate and identify correlations between the five specific personality traits (chapter 1.4) and specific non-monetary rewards that could be feasible to implement in the public sector (chapter 2.4).

Since the "Big-Five" framework acts as a personality mapping tool rather than a determination method of a single personality trait, for the aim of this study correlation analysis will take place to explore hypothesized relations and regression analysis (simple linear regression) will be used for the relations that may emerge to examine the level of causation between the average score that each individual collected on each reward group and the pe

The main focus will be only at the trait or traits which will emerge as predominant in the personality profiles of the surveyed participants. The collective effect of the different personality traits to the effectiveness and preferences of the non-financial rewards will not be examined (multiple regression analysis). However, the examination of the effect of multiple factors using multiple linear regression to formulate stronger predictor models (e.g demographics and personality traits combined) could be an interesting subject for further research.

4.2 The Importance of the study

Should any relations emerge through this exploratory study, this would mean that through further and more thorough statistical research, tailored made incentives systems could be established as a powerful tool, which in combination with existing knowledge from classic motivation theories and through effective leadership, could deal more effectively with some of the most important existing human resources issues of the public sector without significantly burdening the state budget (e.g. staffing issues, increased resignation rates, absenteeism, decreased engagement, effectiveness issues, etc).

Additionally, the results could be used to review and re-examine hiring methods both at the public and private sector, since hiring individuals with personality profiles that would better match each organization's culture and motivation policies could be a good starting point for more easily motivated and satisfied employees, saving managerial time and organizational resources.

4.3 The Research Question and Hypotheses

According to the above presented general aim of the study, the following research questions guide the study:

- Do personality traits of employees affect their preferences on specific rewards?

- Are there any observable relations between specific non-monetary rewards or non-monetary rewards categories and specific personality traits?
- If there are observable relations, which personality traits relate to which non-monetary rewards?
- Are there negative correlations between personality traits and specific non-monetary rewards?
- What personality traits may predict easily motivated employees?

According to Berenson, Levine, Szabat and Stephan (2019), when exploring the relation between two numerical variables the most appropriate statistical tools are Correlation analysis and Simple linear regression analysis.

As a result, attempting to explore the most probable relations based on the results of the literature review that took place, the study, after the collection of the data will test the validity of the below presented hypotheses.

Based on the description of the five core personality traits by John, Naumann, and Soto (2008) (see chapter 1.2) and the logical extensions of non-financial reward categories that were presented in chapter 2.4, the following connections were made between personality traits and reward categories in order to form the hypotheses to be tested:

“Extrovert” individuals are more likely to show preference for “Recognition and Appreciation” rewards in the workplace, since according to the description of the trait, they enjoy being the center of attention.

- H1: Extraversion affects preference for recognition and appreciation rewards.

Employees with higher levels of “Extroversion” who are described as more outgoing are expected to value more “Social and Interpersonal” rewards.

- H2: Extraversion affects the preference for social and interpersonal rewards.

“Agreeable” individuals are more likely to show preference for “Recognition and Appreciation” rewards in the workplace, as they are strongly characterized by the appreciation they show at kindness and sympathy gestures.

- H3: Agreeableness affects preference for recognition and appreciation rewards.

“Agreeable” individuals who are described as friendly and sympathetic are expected to value higher “Social and Interpersonal” rewards.

- H4: Agreeableness affects the preference for social and interpersonal rewards.

Individuals with high “Openness to Experiences” score, are more likely to value higher “Workplace Autonomy” rewards since they are more likely to be receptive and acceptive to new ideas and changes that these rewards may be accompanied with for the employee.

- H5: Openness to Experience affects the preference for Workplace Autonomy rewards.

Individuals with high "Openness to Experiences" score, are more likely to value higher "Professional Development" rewards since they are more likely to be receptive and acceptive to new ideas and changes that these rewards may induce to the work environment.

- H6: Openness to Experience affects the preference for Professional Development rewards.

Individuals with high "Openness to Experiences" score, are expected to value "Career Advancement and Job Enrichment" rewards since these rewards can impose new challenges to the work environment which could intrigue their interest.

- H7: Openness to Experience affects the preference for Career Advancement and Job Enrichment rewards.

Highly "Conscientious" individuals, who are described as goal-oriented are expected to value "Career Advancement and Job Enrichment" rewards since they can be perceived as goal-achievement steps and recognition of their worth.

- H8: Conscientiousness affects the preference for Career Advancement and Job Enrichment rewards.

Employees with higher levels of "Neuroticism", who may be more sensitive to stress, are expected to find "Health and Well-being" rewards appealing.

- H9: Neuroticism affects the preference for Health and Well-being Rewards.

4.4 Research design

The preparation of a research study necessitates the adoption of a methodology aligned with the research objectives. Research methodologies are broadly categorized into quantitative and qualitative approaches. Quantitative research aims to uncover objective truths about the phenomena under investigation, relying on structured data collection and statistical analysis to derive insights (Mantzoukas, 2007; Bowling, 2014; Paraskevopoulou-Kollia, 2008). Conversely, qualitative research seeks to explore participants' subjective experiences, emotions, and beliefs, offering rich, contextual understanding through techniques such as interviews and focus groups (Mantzoukas, 2007; Galanis, 2018).

Quantitative research is especially suited to this study, as it allows for systematic data collection and analysis to identify relationships between personality traits and job satisfaction. A cross-sectional survey design is employed, which enables data collection at a single point in time. This approach is advantageous for assessing correlations and patterns across a large sample size within limited resources (Lampiri-Dimaki & Papachristou, 1995; Papageorgiou, 1998; Kyriazi, 2011).

The study specifically incorporates descriptive research techniques, as they are effective in documenting and characterizing phenomena within the population. A key feature of this methodology is its reliance on questionnaires as the primary data collection tool. Questionnaires are particularly well-suited for quantitative research, offering structured and efficient means to gather large amounts of data, which can then be converted into numerical formats for statistical analysis (Karageorgos, 2002; Bowling, 2014). By selecting this research design, the study aligns with established methodologies that emphasize reliability, validity, and the objective measurement of variables.

More specifically, the research questionnaire gathered demographic, personality and self-preference data form the participants through 3 distinct sections. Then these data were processed in order to find clues of relations between personality traits and non-financial rewards preferences. The data collected regarding the personalities of the participants led after processing to the mapping of each participant's personality. This showed up each participant's strongest traits. On the other hand, the data collected regarding the participants preferences over a number of specific non-financial rewards led after processing to the most valued categories of non-financial rewards. These data, the predominant personality traits and the preferred non-financial reward categories, were then examined for statistical relationships among them. The results are shown in chapter 5.

4.5 Research Instrument

According to academic literature there is no prescribed manner about structuring a survey questionnaire. However, since the questionnaire is the heart of any survey there are some practices that should be considered in order to maximize its effectiveness in serving its purpose. Krosnick and Presser (2010) supported that there is a number of factors that should be taken in consideration when designing a survey questionnaire. The number of the questions (which determines the length), the type of the questions (open ended or close ended), the language used (both the words and the syntax), the number of available answers for close end questions, the scales and metric systems and even the structural design (which questions should be asked at what point) are among those factors. Finally, it is also important to pilot-test the questionnaire to incorporate the gathered feedback before the actual distribution of it. All these factors play a significant role in structuring a questionnaire that minimizes questions misinterpretation, leading to response errors or participants fatigue or biased responses which eventually end up to ambiguous research results.

More specifically according to Krosnick and Presser (2010), questions that might upset the participant should be avoided. Additionally, questions that involve controversial matters should be placed towards the end of the questionnaire. Questionnaires should ideally start with "easy" questions, moving gradually to more "difficult" questions. The language should be simple and comprehensible without fancy words. The length of the questionnaire should include the minimum number of questions needed to support the research objectives. Open end questions should be preferred when the research aims on gathering qualitative data, while close ended questions are more suitable for standardized data collection. In the case of close ended questions, answer options should be appropriate to capture data across a continuum and avoid dichotomous type answers while at the same time the number of answers should not be extremely large to avoid the confusion of the participants.

At the context of this research, all the above points were taken into consideration for the preparation of the survey questionnaire. The questionnaire was created with the use of “Google Forms” in electronic format which makes both its distribution and its statistical processing easier. It comprises of 4 sections each of which serves a different purpose.

The first section introduces the participant to the survey subject, it communicates the basic parameters of the survey such as the time needed, the process that will apply to secure the privacy of the participants and its voluntary nature.

The second section (questions 1 to 7) gathers demographic data which will be used only for basic statistical processing (descriptive statistics) and for validity reasons (avoiding gathering specific organization sample).

The third section (questions 8 to 17) is used to determine participants personality by using the “Ten Item Personality Inventory” survey tool which was created by Gosling, S. D., Rentfrow, P. J., & Potter, J. (2014) and translated to Greek by Eleni Koufopoulou. The tool can be found online and used for free, under the official website of the department of psychology of the University of Texas.

The fourth and final section (questions 18 to 37) aims to gather data about the preferences of the participants on specific non-financial rewards, which should reveal the aggregate inclination of an individual towards one or more general categories of non-financial rewards (ch. 2.4). All the questions of the fourth section, which refer to specific non-financial rewards inducted logically by examining relevant academic work (ch. 2.4).
The questionnaire, except from section 3, was prepared in English and diligently translated to Greek prior its distribution in order to overcome any lingual misinterpretations from non-English or moderate English-speaking participants. The wording and syntax of the sentences was kept as simple and clear as possible.

The number of the questions was limited to 37 questions in total, which can be answered between 5 to 8 minutes in order to avoid causing fatigue to the participants which could induce satisficing bias to answers (Krosnick & Presser, 1990).

Close-ended questions were chosen in order to serve better the scope of the questionnaire, which aims to gather quantitative data for statistical analysis according to Fowler (2014) and Dillman et al. (2014). For answering the questions of the 3rd section, a seven-point Likert scale was used according to the “Ten Item Personality Inventory” tool instructions, while the same scale was also used in the 4th section, differentiated only by the interpretation of the scale points. The seven point Likert scale was preferred to other alternatives since it offers higher reliability and validity by capturing nuanced differences in responses, gathering more precise data (Preston & Colman, 2000), while at the same time it doesn’t disorientate the respondent by being compact and easy to use (Finstad, 2010). The questionnaire was pilot tested twice and was refined for the number and the wording of the questions so as to shorten its extend and reduce biased answers to certain questions.

The questions that comprise the research instrument can be found on the table of Annex A.

4.5 Sampling Procedure

The goal of quantitative research is to gather data, which might come from one or more sources, and use statistical analysis tools to evaluate it in order to draw broad conclusions. Since gathering data is a demanding procedure, the sample needs to be appropriate. In quantitative research, two different sampling strategies are used: non-random sampling and random sample (Bowling, 2014). People might choose to be chosen for survey participation by random sampling. The findings are extended to the full population, and the research is deemed appropriate and suggestive (Bowling, 2014). Because they cannot be applied to the whole population, non-random samples are less representative (Papageorgiou, 1998).

The most often used technique of Random sampling is the Simple Random Sampling (SRS) according to which people are being randomly selected from the target population. During the selection process each individual that belongs to the population should be given an equal chance of being chosen. The samples are chosen using a random selection process that incorporates techniques like table or list drawing (Bowling, 2014), or by using random number generator software.

For the current study the target population, which comprises of the public sector employees, counts almost 568.000 individuals (including only tactical public sector employees) according to official state data of April 2024. Since the simple random sampling method dictates that every member of the population should have an equal chance to be chosen it becomes obvious that distributing the questionnaire to the total number of the target population, which would be the only way to give each individual equal chance of being chosen, could not apply at the context of the current research, being impractical both from resources and time aspects.

However, for the purpose of the current quantitative and exploratory research, which had to be conducted under specific time and budget constraints, a commonly used non-probability sampling method was deemed as more appropriate. Instead of Simple Random Sampling, the Convenience Sampling technique (non-probability sampling method) has been selected, which despite its limitations remains appropriate for both qualitative and quantitative studies (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, (2016), Bowling, (2014))

According to Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, (2016) convenience sampling involves selecting members of a target population based on practical criteria, such as accessibility, proximity, availability, or willingness to participate in a study, while its appropriateness raises from the aim of the research itself which focuses on exploring complex issues in order to provide initial insights rather than to generalize the findings to a broader population.

The main drawback of this technique, emerges from its inability to gather and examine an appropriate randomized sample. Specifically, due to the fact that the sample frame was dictated by the above-mentioned factors (ease of access, willingness to respond and proximity), it must be stated clearly that several kinds of biases (selection bias, under coverage bias, volunteer bias, etc) may be present which in combination with biases which are derived from the type of the study itself, may affect the validity of the results, making them inappropriate for generalization to the broader population without further investigation (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, (2016) , Bowling, (2014)).

In conclusion while Simple Random Sampling would be the most appropriate sampling method for acquiring a representative sample for this research, for the reasons that were explained above which had to do mostly with resource constraints, the non-probability method of convenience sampling was selected as an appropriate alternative. Although this method allows for efficient data collection, its inherent limitations do not allow for results generalization to the broader population. However, this approach remains suitable for the primary aim of the current study which is to explore relations between personality traits and employee’s preferences on non-financial rewards in the public sector in an attempt to provide useful initial insights on a complex issue, acknowledging that further studies should be conducted, with more robust sampling techniques for the results to be able to be inferenced to the general population.

In case that Simple random Sampling technique could apply to this particular study, the sample size would have been affected by three main determinants, confidence level, margin of error and population size. (Berenson, Levine, Szabat and Stephan, 2019). As a result, setting the following values to the above factors, (confidence level: a = 95%. Acceptable margin of error: e = 5%, population size: 567.362) we get that a sample size of 384 individuals would have been necessary for carrying out the research. Reducing the acceptable margin of error to 10% could reduce the sample size to 97 individuals. (Cochran, 1909)

Cochran’s Formula for Sample size Determination of known population:

$$n_0 = \frac{Z^2 \times p \cdot (1-p)}{e^2}$$

Z: is the Z-score that corresponds to confidence level a=95% (which is 1,96)
p: is the population proportion at which the researched attribute is expected to be observed. (when no previous data are available the proportion should be set to 50%)
e: is the acceptable margin of error which was set to 5%
*Since the population is larger than 100.000 the exact number of the population does not affect the formula for confidence level of 95% and the correction for small population does not apply.

However, for non-random sampling methods like convenience sampling, there isn’t a specific formula that could be used to determine the exact number of participants that could be used to provide a certain level of confidence for an acceptable margin of error. Instead of specific formulas, in non-random sampling methods rules of thumb are commonly used to calculate an acceptable number for the sample size. According to most relative scientific journals, in exploratory studies where the aim is to gain initial insights rather than generalize the findings to a broader population the bigger the sample size the better.

VanVoorhis & Morgan (2007), in their work suggested that for correlation or regression analysis no less than 50 participants can be acceptable while the number should increase as the number of independent variables increases. Both VanVoorhis & Morgan, (2007) and Sathyanarayana et al., (2024) point out to Green's (1991) work, who suggested that for relation analysis studies (correlation or regression), the following formulas should be considered as a rule of thumb for determining the sample size:

- N > = 104 + k , for testing individual predictors (regression analysis).
- N > = 50 + 8k , for testing the overall model (correlation)
    - N : sample size
    - k : number of predictors (independent variables)

In the case of this particular study the number of predictors is 5 (the 5 personality traits) which means that according to Green's formula the minimum accepted number should be 109 participants.

Although rules of thumb are used both for random and non-random sampling techniques, they were also established on the basis of the randomness of the examined sample. Green's formulas have been used for the determination of the sample size for this study. However, it must be highlighted again that this research scope is not to generalize findings in the population but to explore the idea of the existence of statistically significant relations between personality traits and non-financial rewards. If resources allowed, a much larger sample size, would have been used, to enhance the validity, reliability and the generalizability of the results.

For the purpose of the current study 126 responses (N=126) were finally gathered, which should be enough for the exploratory character of the study and for discovering any relations between the examined variables.

4.6 Ethical Issues regarding the research

Regardless of qualitative or quantitative research, researchers must adhere to the ethical norms. It is essential that the investigator provide the participants with a thorough explanation of the study, the necessary protocols to adhere to, and any unique features of the research (Ingham-Broomfield, 2012, Borbasi & Jackson, 2012).

It is also necessary for the researcher to explicitly declare that the participant's personal information will be kept completely private and confidential (Corti et al., 2000).

Additionally, it is important to ensure that any participant is free to leave the study at any moment without facing negative consequences or penalties (Diener & Crandall, 1978) and that the voluntary nature of the research has been made clear to all participants.

All the previously stated ethical rules and principles were adhered to precisely in order to perform this study.

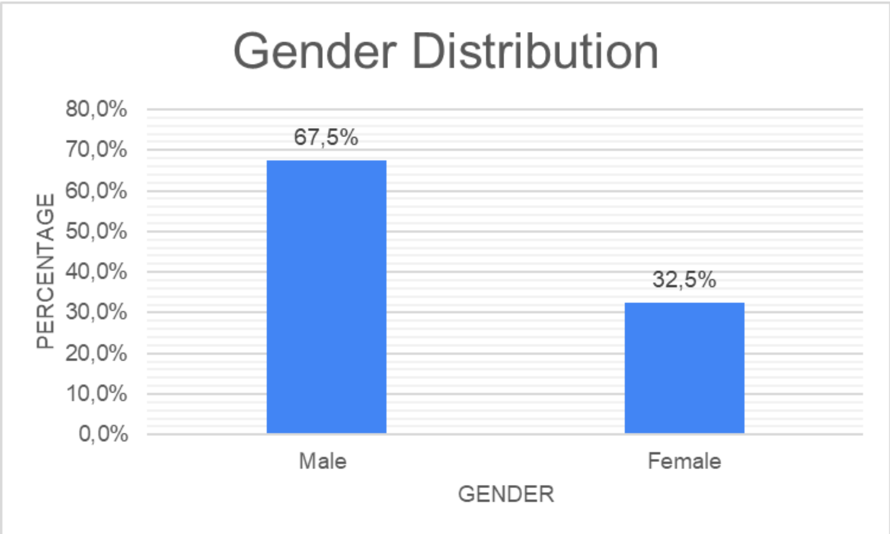
Chapter 5: Results

5.1 Sample Demographics Presentation

Beyond the simple presentation of demographic data, a brief examination of the findings is deemed appropriate in order to detect data, realities and patterns that are consistent with the situation in the Greek Public Sector, in an attempt to check the validity of the sample, given that it was obtained through non-random sampling technique, a fact that could significantly affect the validity of any research findings.

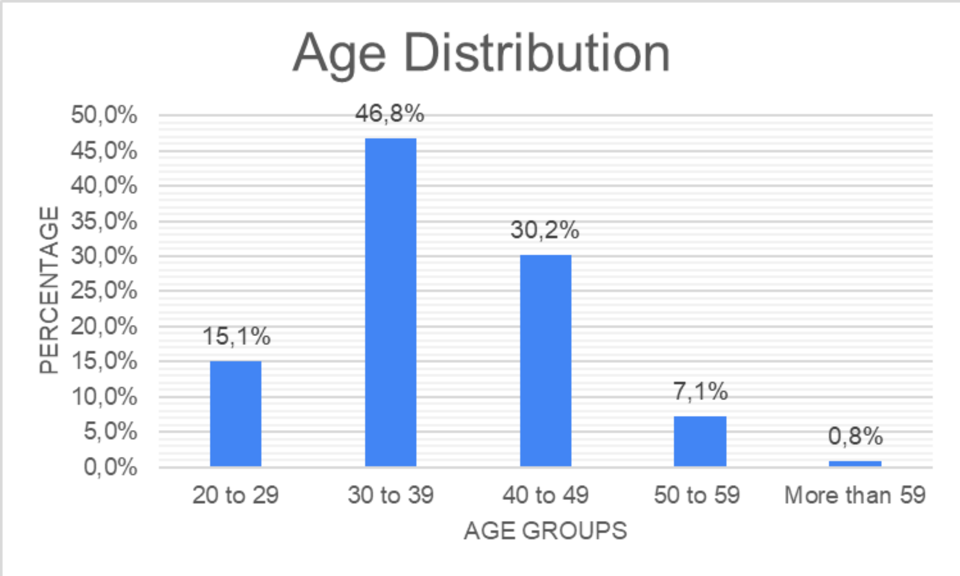
The collected sample comprised of 126 participants. Demographics section of the questionnaire implicated 7 characteristics. Age, gender, the organization of the public sector that the participant works or have worked, marital status, education level, work experience and job role of the participant in the organization.

Gender distribution highlights the predominance of male respondents which can be explained from the representation of the public sector organizations in the research since the majority (56,6%) of the respondents identified themselves as military servants.



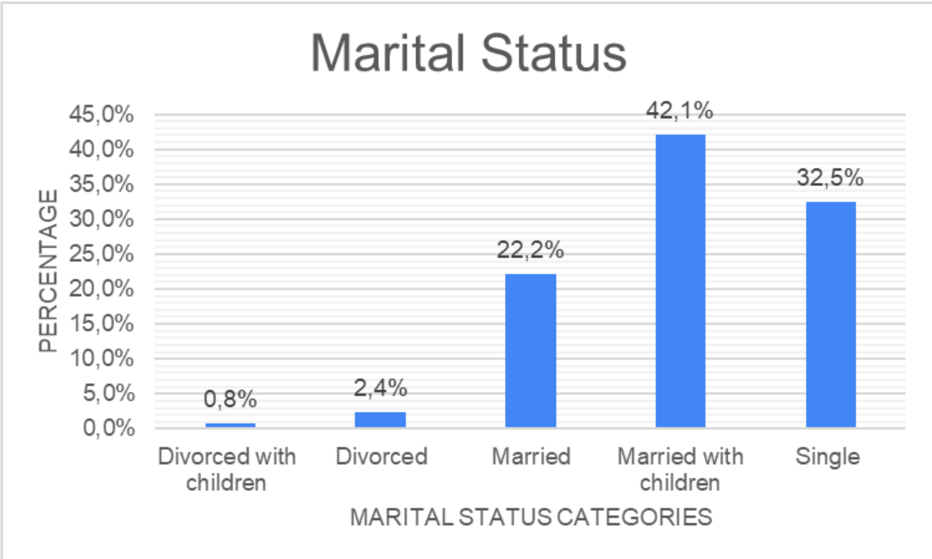
Graph 5.1 – 1
Sample Gender Distribution

Age distribution reveals the reality that has been formed in public sector organizations after the financial crisis of 2009 and the strict financials measures that followed the crisis which among other imposed restrictions on new hirings in the public sector. As a result, almost the half of the sample (46,7%) identified themselves at the group of “30 to 39” years old, while 84,1% of the participants identified themselves between 30 and 59 years old.



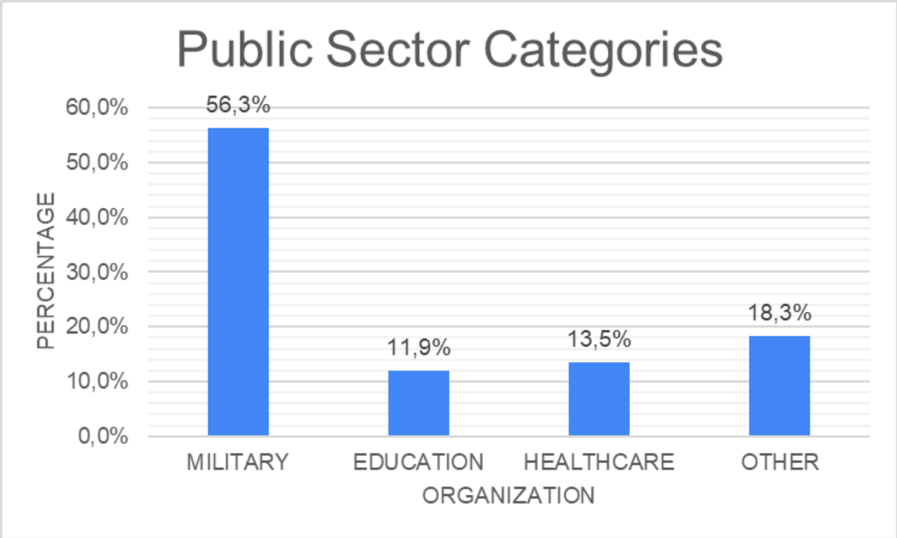
Graph 5.1 – 2
Sample Age Distribution

A significant proportion of the survey participants identified themselves as married with children (42,1%) and married (22,2%) which shows that more than the half of the participants have family responsibilities and as a result increased financial obligation. The graph below represents the above findings:



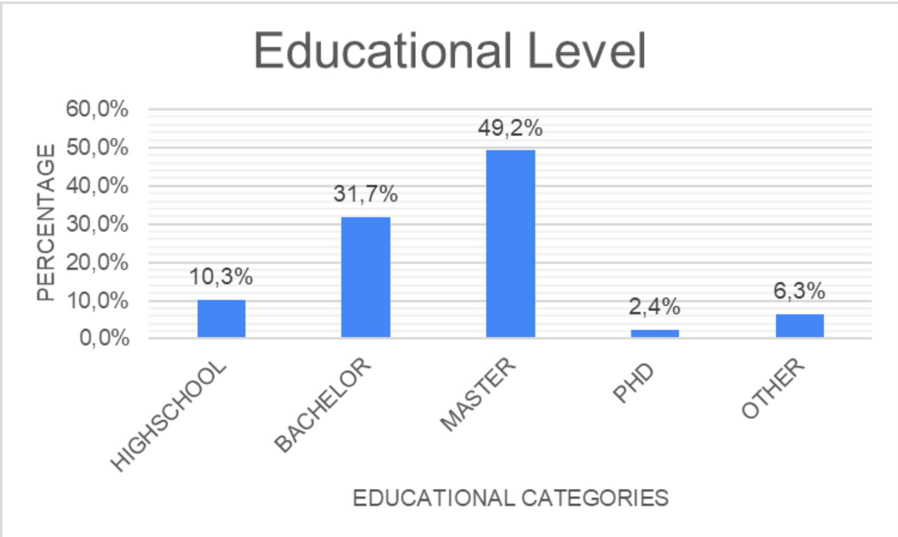
Graph 5.1 – 3
Sample Marital Status Distribution

A variety of public sector organizations were represented in the research with the top categories being Military (56,3%), Health Care (13,5%) and Education (11,9%), while other organizations (e.g. police, KEP, ktimalogio, ministries) were also represented by smaller numbers. The following graph depicts the above-mentioned distribution:



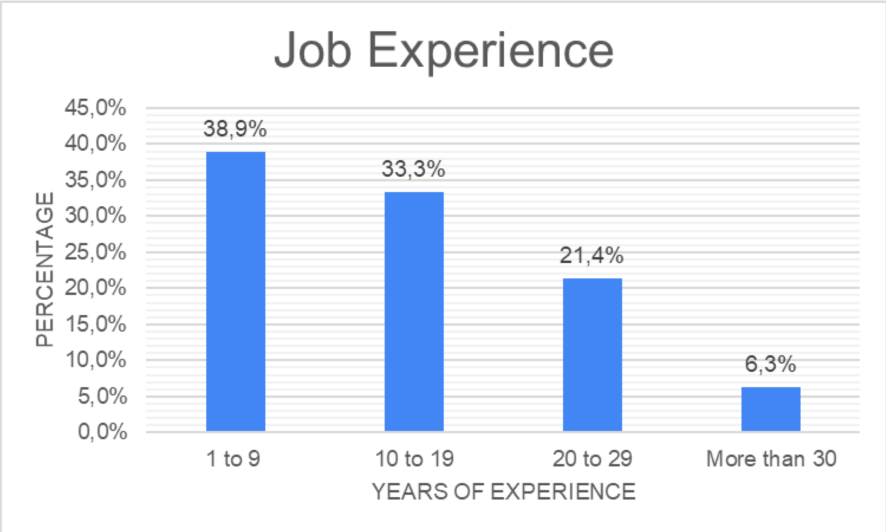
Graph 5.1 – 4
Sample Public Sector Categories Distribution

Almost half of the participants identified themselves as holders of a Master's degree (49,2%) while almost only one sixth of the participants reported to have accomplished an educational level equivalent of high school or less (16,6%). Data shows a prevalence of advanced degrees in the sample which could be explained both by the increased professional requirements of many public sector roles and from the fact that most of the survey participants belong to age groups older than 30 years old as it has already been analyzed above. The graph below presents the above findings regarding the educational level of the participants:



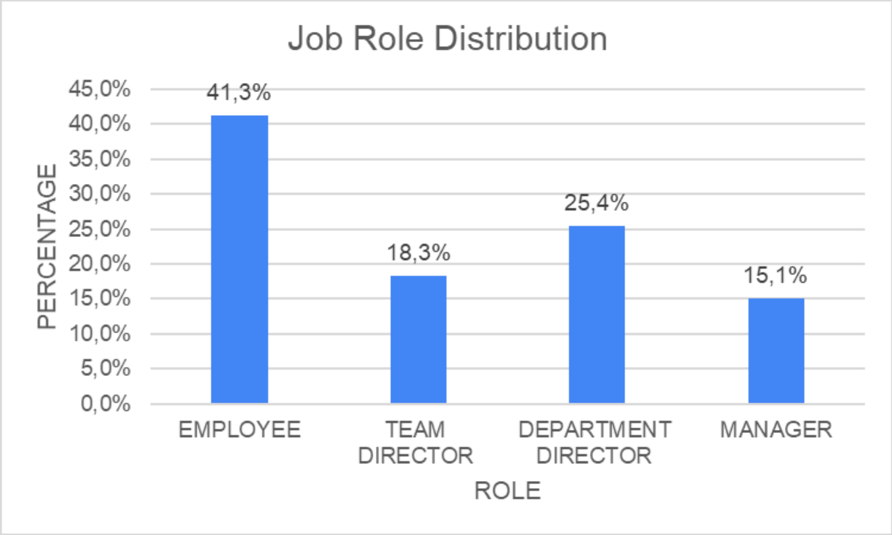
Graph 5.1 – 5
Sample Educational Level Distribution

Data about job experience reveals that the majority of the participants belong to the group of 1 to 9 years (38,9%) revealing that a large number of the work force has limited work experience despite the fact that as it has been already mentioned above 77% of the participants are older than 30 years old. This is another point which is consistent with the restrictions which were imposed to hiring policies in the public sector due to the financial corrective measures that Greece had to assume after the memorandums which accompanied the financial crisis. However, 54,7% of the participants reported between 10 to 29 years of experience which balances any experience “deficiencies”. The below graph presents the findings:



Graph 5.1 – 6
Sample Job Experience Distribution

The last part of the demographics covers the distribution of job roles in the public sector which shows that the majority of the participants are occupied as employees (41,3%) while 15,1% reported to serve in managerial positions. The job roles distribution aligns with the hierarchical structure of public sector, however, the significant number of higher leadership positions such as department directors and managers which when accounted together sum up to the 40,5% of the total sample, also suggest the existence of a complex bureaucratic structure which aligns with the Greek reality in public sector. The results of the survey are presented in the bellow graph:



Graph 5.1 – 7
Sample Job Role Distribution

5.2 Personality and Rewards Preferences statistics

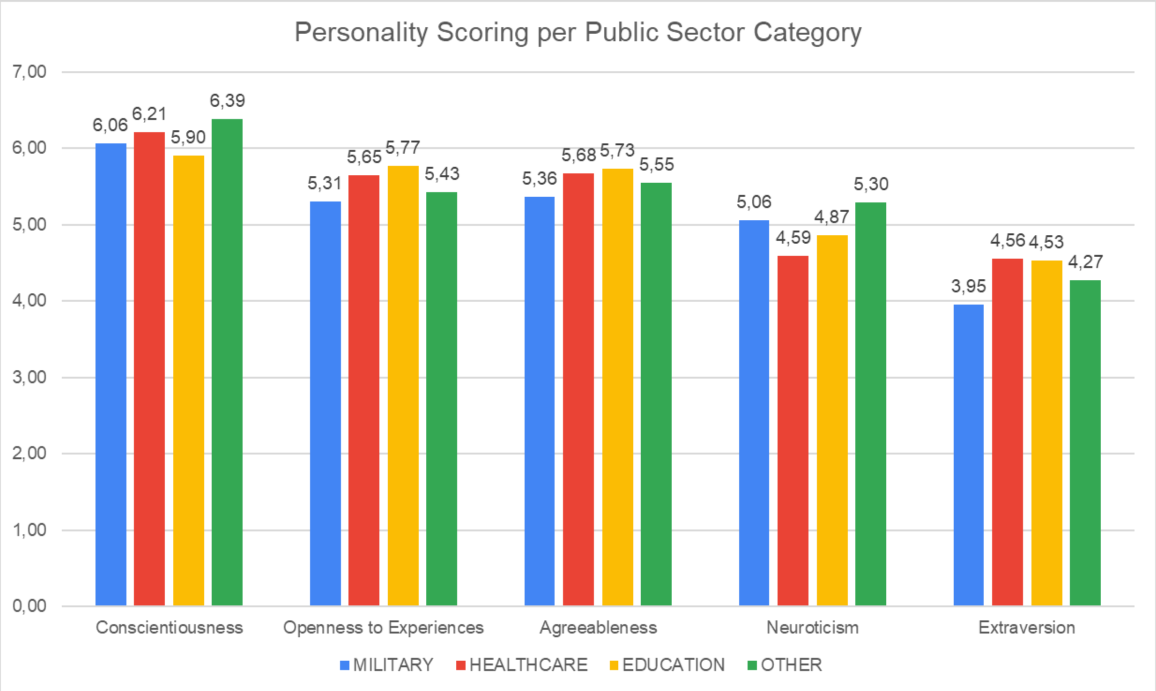
5.2.1 Personality

To process the personality traits a mean value was taken for each of the five distinct personality aspects for each participant, after the score interpretation of the answers in the personality traits questions part. From these individual mean values, a general mean of each trait among the sample was recorded as shown below from higher to lower value:

	MEAN	STAND. DEV.
Conscientiousness	6,12	0,97
Agreeableness	5,48	1,04
Openness to Experiences	5,43	1,09
Neuroticism	5,01	0,96
Extraversion	4,16	1,27

Table 5.2.1 – 1
Mean Value and Standard Deviation of Personality traits across Participants

However, in order to explain some of the findings which are presented in the above table which records personality traits mean scoring at the general sample another graph is presented bellow which presents personality traits mean scores per public sector category:



Graph 5.2.1 – 1
Mean Value of Personality Traits Per Organization

The highest mean value was recorded in conscientiousness. This could be an indication that the sample has been drawn from a disciplined work force population which should be the case in a sector where hierarchical structure does exist at a great extent. However, the "Social Desirability Bias", a concept which was first examined by Edwards A. (1957) according to which a survey participant prefers to appear as a better version of himself than answering honestly in personality or other self-evaluation questionnaires, may be the most probable cause for the high mean value which was recorded in conscientiousness which is the personality trait which is strongly connected with high performance employees according to Barrick and Mount (1991).

Openness to Experience, which is associated with receptiveness of new ideas and changes, was expected to appear lower in the public sector. However, if someone consider the large number of structural changes which occurred mostly due to the challenges Greece faced in recent past, such as the global financial crisis, which among others, brought the digitalization of the majority of bureaucratic procedures in an attempt to increase public sector efficiency and most recently measures of remote work options and remote-education programs which appeared as a counter-measure against the global pandemic of Covid-19, the relatively high mean values recorded in this trait may seem more reasonable. Another worth mentioned observation however is the fact that education related employees gathered the highest scoring in Openness to Experience, which aligns perfectly with the nature of the job at the context of which they have embrace creativity, curiosity and adaptability to achieve diverse educational aims, while on the other hand military originated employees gathered the lowest scoring of all categories, as it was expected, in an environment where strict protocols, planning and hierarchical structure, does not leave room for creativity and new ideas. The moderate to high mean value however suggests that public sector employees regardless of the organization they belong to, remain open to new ideas and experiences.

Agreeableness recorded a moderate to high mean value of 5.48. Agreeableness is the aspect of personality which is associated with traits like kindness, tolerance, and support, which traits should be expected in public sector roles focused on social interactions. This may explain why employees coming from educational or healthcare organizations, where social interaction is an everyday reality, reported the highest scores in this category with 5.73 and 5.68 respectively, while on the other hand military originated employees, whose social interactions are the lowest among public sector organizations, gathered the lowest score (5.36).

Neuroticism, is the trait which shows the level of one’s emotional stability. The highest the neuroticism level the lowest the emotional instability. The Ten Item Personality Inventory (TIPI) which was used to map the participants’ personalities, was worded in a way that it was counting the opposite to neuroticism which is “Emotional Stability”. This means that the values of the graph which depict neuroticism show how emotionally stable employees state to be. The highest scoring among all categories was noted in the category marked as “Other” (5.30) containing participants from multiple public sector organizations, a fact which could suggest moderate to high emotional resilience of public sector employees in general. Respondents who originated from military reported the second higher individual scoring (5.06) which could be justified taking into consideration that one of the aims of military training is emotional hardening. The lowest mean value came from health employees (4.59). This may be due to extreme levels of stress experienced by medical staff during the recent Covid-19 pandemic, which combined with severe understaffing problems in the health care system clearly affected the emotional stability of employees. The mean value related to education related employees (4.87) lies slightly below the average of the overall category (5.01) indicating a moderate level of emotional stability.

The lowest mean value between the five personality aspects of the Big-Five Factor Model was noted in Extraversion. Since extraversion is related to individuals with happy emotions, collective behaviors, and efficient communication abilities, the low mean value could be an indication of a work force with limited communication abilities, emotional neutrality and less altruistic behaviors. The lowest mean value among the four organization categories was noted on military which can be explained by the nature of the job itself at the context of which high extraversion could prove to be even a negative professional trait. On the other hand, education and healthcare professionals report the highest mean values of extraversion which also aligns with both the communicative nature of work and with altruistic behaviors needed in these two organizations. “Other” public sector organizations noted the second lower mean value in extraversion an indicator of relatively introvert work force.

Despite the fact that most of the above findings can reasonably be explained by simple inductive logic, which as a matter of fact reinforces the validity of the results, the possibility of existence of several biases that may have affected the above results should also be considered, since the majority of responses concentrated at the upper range of the Likert scale (1-7) almost in every personality aspect. This could only have been caused by two factors. The first one has to do with specific biases that may be present and the second one with the structure of the questionnaire itself. Social Desirability Bias, which was mentioned earlier is a common bias that has been found to be present in self-assessment questions like the ones of the questionnaire. Another relative bias that could have affected the responses causing a concentration of answers at the higher top of the Likert Scale is "Acquiescence bias" which despite the fact that it has been spotted quite early in many studies, it was firstly thoroughly examined and described by Cronbach (1942). According to Acquiescence bias, respondents tend to answer positive whatever the answer may be, this is why it is also known as the "yeah-bias" The second factor that could have cause the skewness that was observed in the questionnaire is the structure of the questionnaire itself. However, for the specific part of the questionnaire, a widely approved psychological tool was used in order to minimize such issues, which due to its short extend, in comparison with more thorough psychological questionnaires (e.g. 100 item pool indicator), may have proven susceptible to discrepancies not being quite able to capture variability at the higher end of the scale. All these reasons may have been responsible for inducing a "Ceiling Effect" to the results.

5.2.2 Rewards Preferences

The second leg of the research questionnaire aimed to gather data about reward preferences among the participants. The following tables represent the findings.

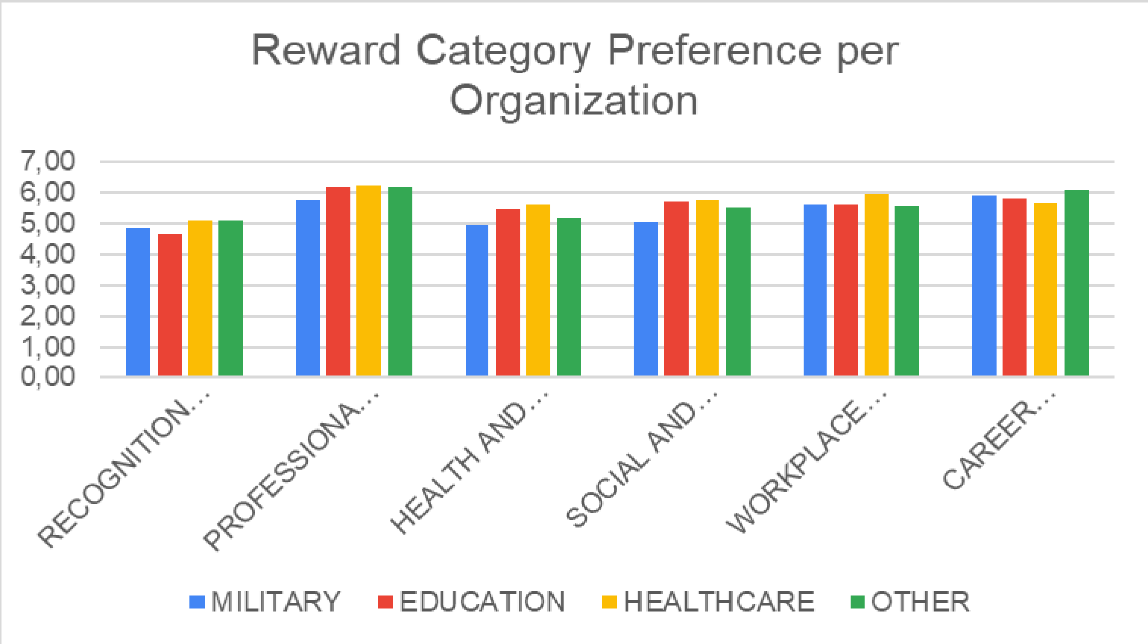
	RECOGNITION AND APPRECIATION	PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	HEALTH AND WELLNESS PROGRAMS	SOCIAL AND INTERPERSONAL REWARDS	WORKPLACE AUTONOMY	CAREER ADVANCEMENT AND JOB ENRICHMENT	AVERAGE PER PUBLIC SECTOR ORGANIZATION
MILITARY	**4,86**	5,75	4,96	5,05	5,62	5,88	**5,36**
EDUCATION	4,65	6,21	5,45	5,69	5,61	5,79	5,57
HEALTHCARE	5,08	**6,24**	5,63	5,76	5,94	5,67	**5,72**
OTHER	5,10	6,20	5,20	5,52	5,56	6,08	5,61
AVERAGE PER REWARD CATEGORY	**4,92**	**6,10**	5,31	5,51	5,68	5,86	

Table 5.2.2 – 1
Mean Value of Reward Categories Preferences Per Organization

	RECOGNITION AND APPRECIATION	PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	HEALTH AND WELLNESS PROGRAMS	SOCIAL AND INTERPERSONAL REWARDS	WORKPLACE AUTONOMY	CAREER ADVANCEMENT AND JOB ENRICHMENT
MILITARY	0,81	**0,11**	0,34	0,35	0,39	0,54
EDUCATION	**1,06**	0,13	0,24	0,58	0,50	0,18
HEALTHCARE	0,83	0,13	0,21	0,38	0,36	0,40
OTHER	0,53	0,16	0,43	0,45	0,61	0,45

Table 5.2.2 – 2
Standard Deviation of the Mean Value of
Rewards Per Organization

Mean Value of Reward Categories Preferences Per Organization are also presented at the below generic graph, from which Professional Development and Career Advancement rewards standout as the most important rewards among all public sector organizations, while on the other hand, Recognition and Appreciation rewards appear to be the least significant rewards among public sector employees.



Graph 5.2.2 – 1
Mean Value of Reward Categories Preferences Per Organization

Despite the fact that at the context of the current research relations between specific rewards or rewards categories and specific public sector organizations remain out of scope, it was deemed useful to examine dedicated graphs which depict the mean value gathered by each employee category per reward category from the examination of which some pretty clear patterns emerge. The dedicated graphs are presented in Annex B:

1. All mean values are well above 4 which was the midpoint of the scale used. This suggests that all six rewards categories are at least moderately important to all public sector employees regardless the specific organization they belong to.
2. Professional Development rewards standout consistently regardless the public sector organization the data were recorded from. This suggests that the need to grow professionally by learning new skills and attending trainings is a common need among all public sector employees.
3. Career Advancement and Workplace autonomy also seem to attract the interest of the employees as effective intrinsic reward methods.
4. “Social and Interpersonal” and “Health and Wellness” related rewards are being placed lower in the preference of the employees in general, however they remain well above the 5 in the Likert scale which suggest that rewards on this direction might not prove as effective as the above presented categories but they remain interesting.
5. Recognition and appreciation, when compared to the rest of the reward categories appears to be the least significant intrinsic motivation method, on which category however another

observation is quite important, the largest standard deviation among all organizations was observed. This fact shows a wide disperse among the opinions of employees around the rewards which relate to “Recognition and Appreciation” measures as intrinsic motivation methods, which suggests that different kind of employees may present quite different reactions to these rewards.

6. Participants originating from the military had the lowest mean scores in all categories, which may suggest a general indifference towards non-monetary rewards compared to other public sector organizations.

7. Healthcare employees scored the lowest value to “Career Advancement and Job Enrichment” rewards, which could be explained considering the fact that in healthcare sector, the higher the position the higher the gravity of the responsibilities the employee assumes, with criminal level charges for any mistakes being a possibility. Moreover, the high specialization required in the healthcare sector clearly does not allow room for significant “Job Enrichment” rewards.

8. Employees from the category “Other”, most of which stated that they work in ministries and other government agencies, appear to appreciate significantly more than other employee categories “Career Advancement” related rewards which might be due to the fact that career advancement in more senior roles, is often accompanied by important wage raises, opportunities and rewards.

Another important aspect of this part of the questionnaire, which should be presented, is the one which has to do with its overall validity or internal consistency. This deemed appropriate due to the fact that, unlike the previous part which measured personality traits and which was an exact copy of a scientifically established psychometric tool (TIPI), the specific measures that were chosen to represent the general reward categories were gathered through research in motivation methods in general and by subjective judgement. As a result, it would be interesting to present how representative to the general reward categories were the specific reward measures that were chosen. Cronbach’s “a” which measures the internal consistency is presented below for each reward category:

Cronbach Alpha per Reward Category		
Reward Category	**a - value**	**Interpretetion for Internal Consistency**
Recognition & Appreciation	**0,69**	**Questionable**
Professional Development	**0,79**	**Acceptable**
Health & Wellness	**0,84**	**Good**
Social & Interpersonal Rewards	**0,75**	**Acceptable**
Work Autonomy	**0,54**	**Poor**
Career Advancement & Job Enrichment	**0,54**	**Poor**

Table 5.2.2 – 3
Cronbach’s Alpha per Reward Category

The results of the table show that the specific rewards which were chosen to represent the general reward categories of “Work Autonomy”, “Career Advancement & Job Enrichment” and “Recognition and Appreciation” represent the general reward categories of which they belong to less than the ones chosen for “Health and wellness” , “Social and Interpersonal” and “Professional Development” rewards. However, the fact that the alpha remains above 0.50 makes them adequate for the reasons of the research.

5.3 Correlation & Regression Analysis Results

To test the Hypotheses that were stated in chapter 4.3, the use of correlation analysis is needed. In this case Pearson’s Correlation cannot be used because the normality assumption does not hold for the variables in the sample. This was tested both graphically by scatterplots and q-q plots and statistically by Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests for all main variables where it was found that normality does not hold for the sample. This could be explained both by the sampling technique which was chosen and the size of the sample which given the time and budget constraints remained at 126 participants.

The other two alternatives when Pearson’s assumptions do not hold are Spearman’s and Kendall’s tau correlations since the absence of normality in variables does not seriously affect the results. This is achieved by using the rank of the data than the raw data itself. The most suitable between the two alternatives in this case was the Kendall’s Tau correlation because of the existence of multiple tied ranks between the data which is a very common phenomenon in Likert scale surveys.

The results of Kendall’s Tau correlation are presented at the following tables:

	Kendall's tau b Correlation Coefficient				
	CONCIENTIOUSNESS	OPENNESS TO EXPERIENCE	AGREEABLENESS	NEUROTICISM	EXTRAVERSION
RECOGNITION AND APPRECIATION	0,139922	0,199001	0,158082	-0,056823	0,112204
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	0,097433	0,331877	0,236149	-0,008499	0,130933
HELTH AND WELLNESS PROGRAMS	0,041355	0,167793	0,264634	-0,09125	0,126446
SOCIAL AND INTERPERSONAL REWARDS	0,126282	0,229383	0,271734	-0,049022	0,129578
WORKPLACE AUTONOMY	0,076629	0,181525	0,218922	-0,007356	0,016028
CAREER ADVANCEMENT AND JOB ENRICHMENT	0,231719	0,24135	0,079418	0,166288	0,114803

Table 5.3 – 1
Kendall’s Tau b Correlation Coefficient
between Personality Traits and Reward Categories

	Kendall's tau b Correllation _ Z-score and P-value table									
	CONCIENTIOUSNESS		OPENNESS TO EXPERIENCE		AGREEABLENESS		NEUROTICISM		EXTRAVERSION	
	z-score	p-value	z-score	p-value	z-score	p-value	z-score	p-value	z-score	p-value
RECOGNITION AND APPRECIATION	2,025	0,0429	2,970	0,003	2,351	0,0187	-0,844	0,3987	1,691	0,0908
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	1,380	0,1675	4,850	< 0,0001	3,440	0,0006	-0,124	0,9017	1,932	0,0534
HELTH AND WELLNESS PROGRAMS	0,604	0,546	2,527	0,0115	3,970	< 0,0001	-1,367	0,1716	1,923	0,0545
SOCIAL AND INTERPERSONAL REWARDS	1,820	0,0689	3,408	0,0007	4,023	< 0,0001	-0,724	0,4686	1,944	0,0519
WORKPLACE AUTONOMY	1,108	0,2679	2,707	0,0068	3,253	0,0011	-0,11	0,9131	0,241	0,8093
CAREER ADVANCEMENT AND JOB ENRICHMENT	3,294	0,001	3,540	0,0004	1,160	0,2459	2,426	0,0153	1,67	0,0892

Table 5.3 – 2
Kendall's Tau b Z-scores and P-values

For the processing of the data at the context of the Kendall's Tau correlation procedure, two statistical software were used. The main process took place in "Stats Direct" while "Gretl" has also been used for confirmation of the results. Then the results were plotted on tables with the use of "Microsoft Excel".

According to the above tables the following conclusions occurred after the correlation analysis:

1. Conscientiousness:
   a. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Conscientiousness and "Recognition Appreciation" statistically significant at 0.95 level.
   b. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Conscientiousness and "Career Advancement & Job Enrichment" statistically significant at 0.95 level.
   c. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Conscientiousness and "Social & Interpersonal" statistically significant at 0.90 level.
   d. There is no sufficient evidence that suggests a correlation between Conscientiousness and "Professional Development" rewards.
   e. There is no sufficient evidence that suggests a correlation between Conscientiousness and "Health and Wellness" rewards.
   f. There is no sufficient evidence that suggests a correlation between Conscientiousness and "Workplace Autonomy" rewards.
2. Openness to Experience:
   a. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Openness to Experiences and "Recognition Appreciation" statistically significant at 0.95 level.
   b. Evidence suggests that there is a moderate positive correlation between Openness to Experiences and "Professional Development" statistically significant at 0.95 level.

c. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Openness to Experiences and "Health and Wellness" statistically significant at 0.90 level.

d. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Openness to Experiences and "Social & Interpersonal" statistically significant at 0.95 level.

e. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Openness to Experiences and "Workplace Autonomy" statistically significant at 0.95 level.

f. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Openness to Experiences and "Career Advancement & Job Enrichment" statistically significant at 0.95 level.

3. Agreeableness:

a. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Agreeableness and "Recognition & Appreciation" statistically significant at 0.90 level.

b. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Agreeableness and "Professional Development" statistically significant at 0.95 level.

c. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Agreeableness and "Health & Wellness" statistically significant at 0.95 level.

d. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Agreeableness and "Social & Interpersonal" statistically significant at 0.95 level.

e. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Agreeableness and "Workplace Autonomy" statistically significant at 0.95 level.

f. There is no sufficient evidence that suggests a correlation between Agreeableness and "Career Advancement & Job Enrichment" rewards.

4. Neuroticism:

a. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Neuroticism and "Career Advancement & Job Enrichment" statistically significant at 0.90 level.

b. There is no sufficient evidence that suggests a correlation between Neuroticism and "Recognition & Appreciation" rewards.

c. There is no sufficient evidence that suggests a correlation between Neuroticism and "Professional Development" rewards.

d. There is no sufficient evidence that suggests a correlation between Neuroticism and "Health & Wellness" rewards.

e. There is no sufficient evidence that suggests a correlation between Neuroticism and "Social & Interpersonal" rewards.

f. There is no sufficient evidence that suggests a correlation between Neuroticism and "Workplace Autonomy" rewards.

5. Extraversion

a. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Extraversion and "Recognition & Appreciation" statistically significant at 0.90 level.

b. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Extraversion and "Professional Development" statistically significant at 0.90 level.

c. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Extraversion and “Health & Wellness” statistically significant at 0.90 level.

d. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Extraversion and “Social & Interpersonal” statistically significant at 0.90 level.

e. Evidence suggests that there is a weak positive correlation between Extraversion and “Career Advancement & Job Enrichment” statistically significant at 0.90 level.

f. There is no sufficient evidence that suggests a correlation between Extraversion and “Workplace Autonomy” rewards.

An overall picture of the above results is presented in Annex C and D, where the interpreted results of correlation both for reward categories and for specific rewards are presented.

Since correlation alone does not imply causation, the use of linear regression can shed light regarding the strength of the relations discovered with correlation analysis. Consequently, regression analysis deemed as necessary in order to evaluate the validity of the correlation findings.

Regression analysis was carried out only for the variable pairs where correlation analysis revealed relations between dependent and independent variables.

Having tested the regression analysis assumptions for every variable pair, the table below presents only the statistically significant results at 0.95 confidence level that were found through linear regression.

Variable Pair	b_0	b_1	R^2	Confidence level
Openness to Experiences - Recognition and Appreciation	3,44	0,26	0,05	.95
Openness to Experiences – Professional Development	3,97	0,36	0,12	
Openness to Experiences – Health and Wellness Programs	3,84	0,24	0,03	
Openness to Experiences – Social and Interpersonal Rewards	3,16	0,39	0,12	

Openness to Experiences – Workplace Autonomy	4,63	0,19	0,05	
Openness to Experiences – Career Advancement and Job Enrichment	4,43	0,26	0,12	
Agreeableness - Professional Development	4,55	0,25	0,05	
Agreeableness – Health and Wellness Rewards	2,69	0,45	0,11	
Agreeableness – Social and Interpersonal Rewards	3,42	0,34	0,09	
Agreeableness – Workplace Autonomy	4,37	0,23	0,07	
Neuroticism – Career Advancement and Job Enrichment	4,98	0,17	0,04	
Extraversion – Health and Wellness Rewards	4,29	0,2	0,03	
Extraversion – Social and Interpersonal Rewards	4,27	0,24	0,07	
Extraversion – Career Advancement and Job Enrichment	5,28	0,14	0,05	

The results of the linear regression revealed very low R squared factors, fluctuating from 0,03 to 0,12, which means that the variation on the dependent variables is explained by a very small margin (3% to 12%) from the variation of the respective independent variable.

5.4 Hypotheses Testing Results

Examining the above findings which resulted from the correlation and regression analysis the following statements can be made for the Hypotheses made in sub chapter 4.3:

1. For “Extraversion” related hypotheses:

a. H1: Evidence from correlation analysis, suggest a weak positive correlation between “Extraversion” and “Recognition and Appreciation” rewards, statistically significant at 0.90 level. However, regression analysis results suggest that there is not significant evidence which support the statement that “Extraversion” affects the preference for “Recognition and Appreciation”.

b. H2: Evidence from correlation analysis, suggest a weak positive correlation between “Extraversion” and “Social and Interpersonal” rewards, statistically significant at 0.90 level. Regression analysis results suggest that there is significant evidence to support the statement that “Extraversion” affects the preference for “Social and Interpersonal” rewards at 0.95 level of confidence, however the low R squared value (0,07) revealed a very weak explanatory power of the variance recorded in “Social and Interpersonal” rewards from the variance recorded in “Extraversion”.

2. For “Agreeableness” related hypotheses:

a. H3: Evidence from correlation analysis, suggest a weak positive correlation between “Agreeableness” and “Recognition and Appreciation” rewards, statistically significant at 0.95 level. However, regression analysis results suggest that there is not significant evidence which support the statement that “Agreeableness” affects the preference for “Recognition and Appreciation”.

b. H4: Evidence from correlation analysis, suggest a weak positive correlation between “Agreeableness” and “Social and Interpersonal” rewards, statistically significant at 0.95 level. Regression analysis results suggest that there is significant evidence to support the statement that “Agreeableness” affects the preference for “Social and Interpersonal” rewards at 0.95 level of confidence, however the low R squared value (0,09) revealed a very weak explanatory power of the variance recorded in “Social and Interpersonal” rewards from the variance recorded in “Agreeableness”.

3. For “Openness to Experience” related hypotheses:

a. H5: Evidence from correlation analysis, suggest a weak positive correlation between “Openness to Experience” and “Workplace Autonomy” rewards statistically significant at 0.95 level. Regression analysis results suggest that there is significant evidence to support the statement that “Openness to Experience” affects the preference for “Workplace Autonomy” rewards at 0.95 level of confidence, however the low R squared value (0,05) revealed a very weak explanatory power of the variance recorded in "Workplace Autonomy" rewards from the variance recorded in "Openness to Experience".

b. H6: Evidence from correlation analysis, suggest a moderate positive correlation between "Openness to Experience" and "Professional Development" rewards statistically significant at 0.95 level. Regression analysis results suggest that there is significant evidence to support the statement that "Openness to Experience" affects the preference for "Professional Development" rewards at 0.95 level of confidence, however the low R squared value (0,12) revealed a very weak explanatory power of the variance recorded in "Professional Development" rewards from the variance recorded in "Openness to Experience".

c. H7: Evidence from correlation analysis, suggest a weak positive correlation between "Openness to Experience" and "Career Advancement and Job Enrichment" rewards statistically significant at 0.95 level. Regression analysis results suggest that there is significant evidence to support the statement that "Openness to Experience" affects the preference for "Career Advancement and Job Enrichment" rewards at 0.95 level of confidence, however the low R squared value (0,12) revealed a very weak explanatory power of the variance recorded in "Career Advancement and Job Enrichment" rewards from the variance recorded in "Openness to Experience".

4. For "Conscientiousness" related hypothesis:

H8: Evidence from correlation analysis, suggest a weak positive correlation between "Conscientiousness" and "Career Advancement and Job Enrichment" rewards statistically significant at 0.95 level. However, regression analysis results suggest that there is not significant evidence which support the statement that "Conscientiousness" affects the preference for "Career Advancement and Job Enrichment".

5. For "Neuroticism" related hypothesis:

H9: There is no evidence to suggest that Neuroticism affects the preference for "Health and Well-being" rewards.

5.5 Conclusions and Considerations

This study was inspired by the power that job satisfaction and motivation methods have in bringing extraordinary results to any work environment, especially when applied under proper leadership and healthy organizational culture. A common element which accompanies any positive result are high drive employees due to the satisfaction derived from their work.

At the context of this research, a significant number of studies were discovered which have already examined the connection between personality traits and job satisfaction. On the contrary, research around the specific topic which examines how motivation methods may affect employees according to their personality characteristics, was found a lot more confined.

Since job motivation is considered as the start of the path which through enhancing employee performance leads to job satisfaction (see chapter 3.2), the idea of an empirical research about the way that motivation methods are connected and affecting employees according to their personality traits kicked in.

As a result, this research, focused on the exploration and identification of connections between personality traits and motivation methods which could be used by human recourse managers to magnify the impact of motivational schemes, which could lead eventually to improved employee performance and higher levels of job satisfaction.

For the needs of this research, motivation was separated to non-financial and financial rewards with non-financial rewards being the center of attention. This separation was made due to the fact that the research focused on the public sector where financial rewards are absent in every organization. This conscious choice aimed to keep out of research the affect and potential bias of respondents coming from organizations where financial rewards complement non-financial.

Since the study had an exploratory character and aimed to investigate the relationship between personality traits and non-financial rewards, with the goal to provide the initial foundation and insights into how HR departments could use personalized incentive methods to optimize the effects of motivation maximizing job satisfaction, the aim of the research has been achieved. The results indicate weak to moderate correlations between personality traits and specific rewards categories validating most of the original hypotheses made. (see chapter 4.3).

According to the research results the main findings suggest the following:

1. Extroversion and Agreeableness associates more with “Social and Interpersonal” oriented incentives, indicating that the individuals who score high in these personality traits appreciate social interaction in their work environment.
2. Openness to experience was associated more with “Professional Development”, “Career Advancement and Job Enrichment” and “Workplace Autonomy” rewards, which are the kind of rewards that could potentially bring them face to face with new challenges and interests a fact that, as was previously analyzed, intrigues such personalities.
3. Conscientiousness, associated very weakly with “Career Advancement and Job Enrichment” and “Professional Development” rewards which could be explained by the emphasis these individuals give in order, discipline and organization and goal setting.
4. Neuroticism failed to be associated with any of the reward categories, which might imply that these individuals due their emotional unstableness are to difficult to get motivated in the first place.

As a conclusion, despite the fact that the correlations which emerged through correlation analysis which were accompanied by weak predictive relations from the regression analysis most probably imply that other factors (leadership styles, organizational culture, job characteristics) are also critical in determining employ motivation, this research contributes to the fields of organizational psychology and human resource management by capturing a weak, yet noteworthy impact of personality traits to motivation methods which sets the foundations for more thorough research on the subject, overcoming the limitations of the current study (sampling method, sample size, questionnaire precision and length, cultural aspects, etc).

Discussion

As it has already been reported above, the present study has some limitations that affect the generalizability of the obtained results. The sampling method applied which was carried out through convenience sampling and the total sample size was fairly small, which could limit the statistical power and the representativeness of the results. Also, self-reported data which is linked to the risk of bias, such as social desirability and self-enhancement bias, may have contaminated the responses. Moreover, the large disparity in demographic composition with a predominance of males and a majority of military personnel, may have affected the observed patterns of reward preference and limited the generalizability of the results to other public sector populations. Furthermore, because participants came only from Greece, cultural factors specific to the Greek context could limit the generalizability of the results to other culture contexts. Finally, some reward categories showed low Cronbach's alpha values, suggesting potential issues with internal consistency in the questionnaire design, which could compromise the reliability of the measurements.

Future studies aim should be to effectively address the above limitations starting by using more robust sampling techniques, like simple random sampling since a larger and more diverse sample could be achieved, supporting normality assumptions and expanding the generalizability of the findings. Another goal for future studies should be the enhancement of the measurement instruments by refining questionnaire items, which could be accomplished by experimenting on different personality frameworks or psychometric tools like the NEO-PI-R and by introducing qualitative methods into the research to gain accurate insights in individual reward preferences, improving internal consistency. At the same time the enrichment of personality mapping items should be examined to increase the precision of personality profiling among the participants, so as to strengthen the reliability of the findings. It would also be quite interesting for future researchers to apply longitudinal designs in order to provide insights into the relationships between personality traits, non-financial reward preferences, and job motivation outcomes over time. Finally, examining whether or not, the relationships observed in Greece, hold in other cultural settings via cross-cultural research could also provide important and interesting insights.

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Appendix A: Survey Questionnaire

SECTION 1									
Number	**Question**		**Possible Answers**						
1	Choose one of the following regarding your gender	Παρακαλώ επιλέξτε φύλο σας	Male (Άρρεν)	Female (Θήλυ)					
2	Choose the age group which you belong to	Επιλέξτε την ηλικιακή ομάδα στην οποία ανήκετε	20 to 29	30 to 39	40 to 49	50 to 59	more than 59 years old (μεγαλύτερος/η από 59 ετών)		
3	Choose your marital status	Επιλέξτε την οικογενειακή σας κατάσταση	Single (Ελέυθερος/η)	Married (Παντρεμένος)	Married with children (Παντρεμένος με παιδιά)	Divorced (Διαζευγμένος)	Divorced with children (Διαζευγμένος με παιδιά)		
4	Choose the organization of the Public sector where you work or had worked	Επιλέξτε σε ποιόν οργανισμό του Δημοσίου τομέα εργάζεστε ή είχατε εργαστεί	Healthcare (Υγείας)	Transportation (Συγκοινωνιών)	Education (Παιδείας)	Airforce, Military, Navy (Στρατιωτικός)	Police (Αστυνομία)	Fire Department (Πυροσβεστική)	Other (Άλλο:)
5	What level of education have you graduat	Από ποια βαθμίδα εκπαίδευσης έχετε	Highschool Education (Απόφοιτος Λυκείου)	Bachelors Degree (Απόφοιτος Πανεπιστημίου)	Masters Degree (Κάτοχος Μεταπτυχιακού)	Higher Education (PhD) (Κάτοχος Διδακτορικού)	Other (Άλλο:)		

	ed from	αποφοιτήσει					
6	How many years of work experience you have on the specific sector	Πόσα έτη εργάζεστε στον συγκεκριμένο τομέα	1 to 9	10 to 19	20 to 29	more than 30	
7	Choose which of the following best describes your role in the organization.	Επιλέξτε ποιό από τα ακόλουθα περιγράφει καλύτερα την θέση σας στον οργανισμό	Manager (Μάνατζερ)	Department Director (Διευθυντής τμήματος)	Team Director (Προϊστάμενος Ομάδας)	Employee (Εργαζόμενος)	Other (Άλλο:)

SECTION 2 (PERSONALITY)

Number	Question		Possible Answers	
	I see myself as (Θεωρώ τον εαυτό μου ως):			
8	Extraverted, enthusiastic	Εξωστρεφή, ενθουσιώδη	Likert Scale 1-7	1: Disagree Strongly (Διαφωνώ απόλυτα) 2: Disagree Moderately (Διαφωνώ αρκετά) 3: Disagree a little (Διαφωνώ κάπως) 4: Neither Agree nor Disagree (Δεν διαφωννώ ούτε συμφωνώ) 5: Agree a little (Συμφωνώ κάπως) 6: Agree Moderately
9	Critical, quarrelsome	Επικριτικό, εριστικό	Likert Scale 1-7	
10	Dependable, self-disciplined	Κάποιον που μπορείς να βασιστείς πάνω του, πειθαρχημένο	Likert Scale 1-7	
11	Anxious, easily upset	Αγχώδη, που ταράζεται εύκολα	Likert Scale 1-7	
12	Open to new experiences, complex	Ανοιχτό σε νέες εμπειρίες, πολυσύνθετο	Likert Scale 1-7	
13	Reserved, quiet	Μαζεμένο, ήσυχο	Likert Scale 1-7	
14	Sympathetic, warm	Συμπονετικό, εγκάρδιο	Likert Scale 1-7	
15	Disorganized, careless	Ανοργάνωτο, απρόσεκτο	Likert Scale 1-7	
16	Calm, emotionally stable	Ήρεμο, συναισθηματικά σταθερό	Likert Scale 1-7	
17	Conventional, uncreative	Συμβατικό, μη δημιουργικό	Likert Scale 1-7	

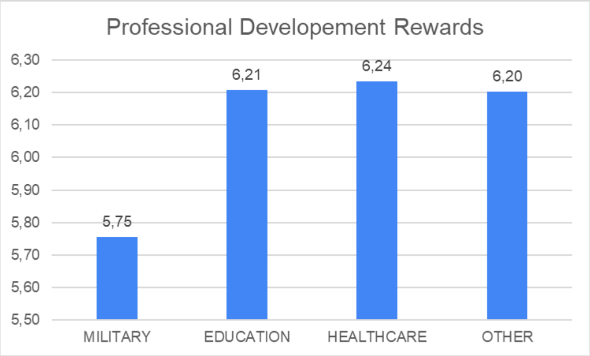
				(Συμφωνώ αρκετά) 7: Agree Strongly (Συμφωνώ απόλυτα)

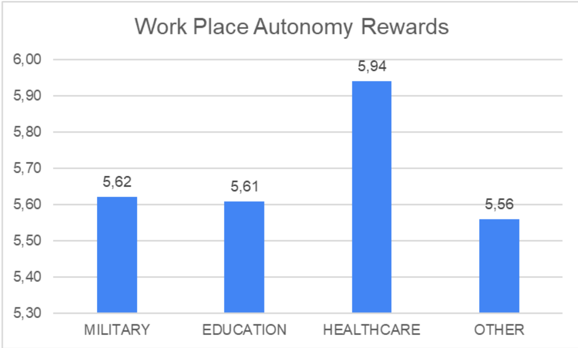
SECTION 3 (NON-MONETARY REWARDS)				
Number	**Question**			**Possible Answers**
18	Public acknowledgment of my achievements either during team meetings or via newsletters.	Δημόσια αναγνώριση των επιτευγμάτων μου, είτε κατά τη διάρκεια ομαδικών συναντήσεων είτε μέσω ενημερωτικών μηνυμάτων	RA1	**Likert Scale 1-7** 1: Highly Unimportant (Εξαιρετικά ασήμαντο) 2: Unimportant (Ασήμαντο) 3: Slightly Unimportant (Ελαφρώς ασήμαντο) 4: Nor Important or Unimportant (Ούτε Σημαντικό ή Ασήμαντο) 5: Slightly Important (Ελαφρώς σημαντικό) 6: Important (Σημαντικό) 7: Highly Important (Εξαιρετικά σημαντικό)
19	Private acknowledgment of my achievements by my supervisor.	Η ιδιωτική αναγνώριση των επιτευγμάτων μου από τον προϊστάμενό μου	RA2	
20	Recognition and appreciation awards such as "Employee of the Month"	Βραβεία αναγνώρισης και εκτίμησης όπως ο «Υπάλληλος του Μήνα»	RA3	
21	Sponsorships to access to higher education (e.g., postgraduate degrees) or specialized technical training that leads to certifications.	Χορηγίες για πρόσβαση στην τριτοβάθμια εκπαίδευση (π.χ. μεταπτυχιακά) ή σε εξειδικευμένη τεχνική κατάρτιση που οδηγεί σε πιστοποιήσεις	PD1	
22	Participation in training programs or seminars that could enhance my skills, either provided by my organization or by independent e-learning platforms.	Συμμετοχή σε προγράμματα κατάρτισης ή σεμινάρια που θα μπορούσαν να βελτιώσουν τις δεξιότητές μου, είτε οργανωμένα από τον οργανισμό μου είτε από ανεξάρτητες πλατφόρμες ηλεκτρονικής μάθησης.	PD2	
23	Knowledge-sharing meetings with colleagues, which expand my knowledge, promote efficient collaboration and build trust among the team.	Συναντήσεις ανταλλαγής γνώσεων με συναδέλφους, οι οποίες διευρύνουν τις γνώσεις μου, προάγουν την αποτελεσματική συνεργασία και χτίζουν εμπιστοσύνη μεταξύ της ομάδας	PD3	
24	Having the option to work remotely when circumstances permit	Το να έχω την επιλογή να εργάζομαι εξ' αποστάσεως όταν οι συνθήκες το επιτρέπουν	WA1	
25	Giving me the freedom to personally schedule my tasks	Το να έχω την ελευθερία να προγραμματίζω ο ίδιος τις εργασίες μου.	WA2	

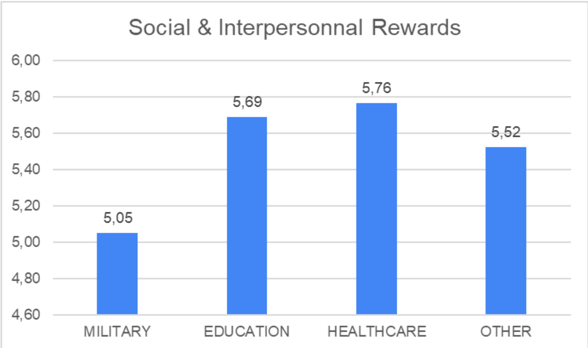
26	Providing me the chance to personalize my workspace (e.g., decorations or layout	Το να μου δίνεται η δυνατότητα εξατομίκευσης του χώρου εργασίας μου (π.χ. διακοσμήσεις ή διάταξη)	WA3	
27	Adopting some of my ideas about "how we could do things better" in the organization	Υιοθετώντας μερικές από τις ιδέες μου σχετικά με το «πώς θα μπορούσαμε να κάνουμε τα πράγματα καλύτερα» στον οργανισμό	WA4	
28	Clear career advancement plans and transparent promotion or transfer policies.	Ξεκάθαρα σχέδια επαγγελματικής εξέλιξης και οι αξιοκρατικές πολιτικές προαγωγών - μεταθέσεων.	CA1	
29	Taking up various tasks by job rotating across departments, in order to reduce job monotony	Ανάληψη διαφόρων εργασιών με εναλλαγή εργασιών μεταξύ των τμημάτων, προκειμένου να μειωθεί η μονοτονία της εργασίας	CA2	
30	Assigning me the leadership and ownership of projects	Το να μου αναθέτουν την ηγεσία και την "ιδιοκτησία" διάφορων πρότζεκτ.	CA3	
31	Offering me the option to participate in psychological support programs offered by my organization for either personal or professional issues	Το να έχω την επιλογή να συμμετάσχω σε προγράμματα ψυχολογικής υποστήριξης που προσφέρει ο οργανισμός μου είτε για προσωπικά είτε για επαγγελματικά θέματα.	HW1	
32	Offering me the option to participate in job or life coaching sessions sponsored by my organization	Το να μου προσφέρεται η επιλογή να συμμετάσχω σε συνεδρίες επαγγελματικής κατάρτισης ή life coaching που χρηματοδοτούνται από τον οργανισμό μου.	HW2	
33	Sponsorships from my organization for attending a gym or other physical activities	Χορηγίες από τον οργανισμό μου για συμμετοχή σε γυμναστήριο ή άλλες σωματικές δραστηριότητες	HW3	
34	Stress management seminars offered by my organization to help me manage better work stress	Σεμινάρια διαχείρισης άγχους που προσφέρονται από τον οργανισμό μου για να διαχειρίζομαι καλύτερα το εργασιακό άγχος.	HW4	
35	Celebrating milestones or special occasions within the	Εορτασμός ορόσημων ή ειδικών περιστάσεων εντός του	SI1	

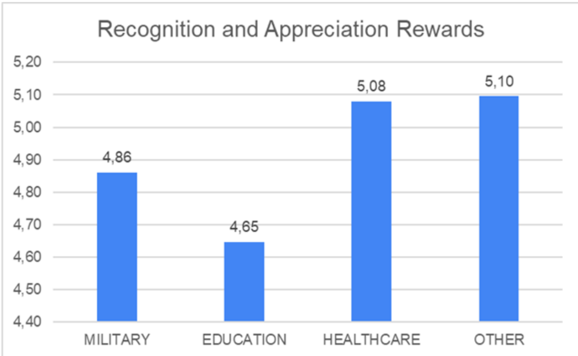
	organization	οργανισμού		
36	Working in cozy spaces that promote social interaction and stress relief	Εργασία σε άνετους χώρους που προάγουν την κοινωνική αλληλεπίδραση και την ανακούφιση από το άγχος	SI2	
37	Taking up tasks in the context of my job that involve teamwork or social interaction.	Να αναλαμβάνω καθήκοντα στο πλαίσιο της δουλειάς μου που περιλαμβάνουν ομαδική εργασία ή κοινωνική αλληλεπίδραση.	SI3	

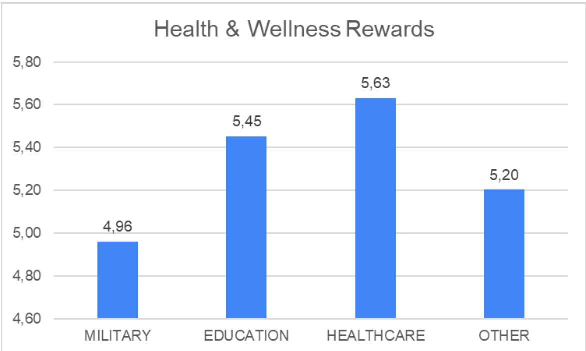
Appendix B: Dedicated Graphs of the Mean Value of Preference by each Employee Organization per Reward Category.

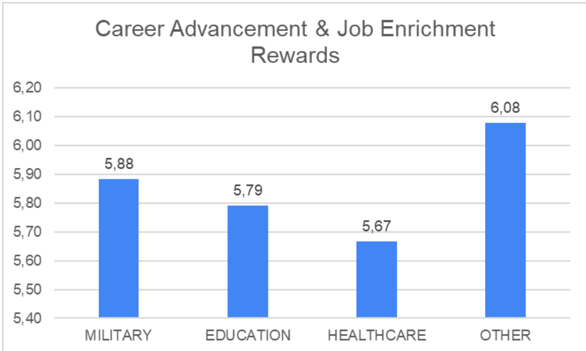












Appendix C: Correlation Results Table for Rewards Categories (Interpreted)

Kendall's tau b Correlation Results					
	CONCIENTIOUSNESS	OPENNESS TO EXPERIENCE	AGREEABLENESS	NEUROTICISM	EXTRAVERSION
RECOGNITION AND APPRECIATION	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.95)**	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.95)**	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.90)**	No Evidence to suggest correlation	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.90)**
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	No Evidence to suggest correlation	**Moderate Positive Correlation (a=0.95)**	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.95)**	No Evidence to suggest correlation	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.90)**
HEALTH AND WELLNESS PROGRAMS	No Evidence to suggest correlation	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.90)**	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.95)**	No Evidence to suggest correlation	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.90)**
SOCIAL AND INTERPERSONAL REWARDS	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.90)**	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.95)**	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.95)**	No Evidence to suggest correlation	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.90)**
WORKPLACE AUTONOMY	No Evidence to suggest correlation	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.95)**	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.95)**	No Evidence to suggest correlation	No Evidence to suggest correlation
CAREER ADVANCEMENT AND JOB ENRICHMENT	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.95)**	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.95)**	No Evidence to suggest correlation	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.90)**	**Weak Positive Correlation (a=0.90)**

Appendix D : Analytic Correlation Results Between Personality traits and Specific Rewards

	Corelation between Conscientiousness and Specific Rewards					
	Kendall's tau coefficient	z-score	p-value	Conf. Int. 95%	Correlation	Strength
RA1	0,149111	2,046153	0,0407	0,034182 to 0,264039	yes	weak
RA2	0,195488	2,61414	0,0089	0,079594 to 0,311382	yes	weak
RA3	0,070248	0,981169	0,3265	-0,049126 to 0,189621	-	-
PD1	0,147759	1,949025	0,0513	0,031607 to 0,26391	yes	weak
PD2	0,029758	0,393432	0,694	-0,093922 to 0,153439	-	-
PD3	0,127492	1,70786	0,0877	0,001215 to 0,25377	yes	weak
HW1	0,036705	0,508943	0,6108	-0,091822 to 0,165233	-	-
HW2	0,050188	0,691326	0,4894	-0,075674 to 0,17605	-	-
HW3	0,012707	0,172659	0,8629	-0,108352 to 0,133766	-	-
HW4	0,026305	0,363431	0,7163	-0,099134 to 0,151743	-	-
SI1	0,135757	1,870381	0,0614	0,020939 to 0,250576	yes	weak
SI2	0,134144	1,79644	0,0724	0,012461 to 0,255827	yes	weak
SI3	0,062781	0,858007	0,3909	-0,064599 to 0,190161	-	-
WA1	0,055651	0,755366	0,45	-0,064389 to 0,175692	-	-
WA2	0,16668	2,197235	0,028	0,056661 to 0,276699	yes	weak
WA3	0,071396	0,985687	0,3243	-0,048576 to 0,191369	-	-
WA4	0,171339	2,2603	0,0238	0,052733 to 0,289945	yes	weak
CA1	0,100827	1,289986	0,1971	0,000497 to 0,201157	yes	weak
CA2	0,131413	1,783069	0,0746	0,016303 to 0,246523	yes	weak
CA3	0,373513	4,976926	< 0,0001	0,266913 to 0,480112	yes	moderate

	Corelation between Openness and Specific Rewards					
	Kendall's tau coefficient	z-score	p-value	Conf. Int. 95%	Correlation	Strength
RA1	0,175658	2,498788	0,0125	0,055046 to 0,296269	yes	weak
RA2	0,236212	3,279701	0,001	0,121023 to 0,351401	yes	weak
RA3	0,150821	2,184919	0,0289	0,030946 to 0,270696	yes	weak
PD1	0,312106	4,268432	< 0,0001	0,208415 to 0,415797	yes	moderate
PD2	0,308769	4,23088	< 0,0001	0,205117 to 0,41242	yes	moderate
PD3	0,253517	3,519664	0,0004	0,136888 to 0,370146	yes	weak
HW1	0,10016	1,440882	0,1496	-0,01925 to 0,21957	-	-
HW2	0,171304	2,44856	0,0143	0,059284 to 0,283324	yes	weak
HW3	0,112173	1,580681	0,114	-0,006512 to 0,230858	-	-
HW4	0,190172	2,72356	0,0065	0,078095 to 0,30225	yes	weak
SI1	0,222936	3,183904	0,0015	0,09854 to 0,347333	yes	weak
SI2	0,27306	3,790302	0,0002	0,161203 to 0,384918	yes	weak
SI3	0,185386	2,626725	0,0086	0,058653 to 0,312118	yes	weak
WA1	0,040894	0,575202	0,5652	-0,076233 to 0,158022	-	-
WA2	0,272355	3,72217	0,0002	0,169116 to 0,375594	yes	weak
WA3	0,186364	2,668767	0,0076	0,062222 to 0,310506	yes	weak
WA4	0,188096	2,572122	0,0101	0,084824 to 0,291367	yes	weak
CA1	0,149786	1,986584	0,047	0,046747 to 0,252826	yes	weak
CA2	0,200404	2,818414	0,0048	0,079859 to 0,320948	yes	weak
CA3	0,216017	2,983893	0,0028	0,099557 to 0,332476	yes	weak

	Corelation between Agreeableness and Specific Rewards					
	Kendall's tau coefficient	**z-score**	**p-value**	**Conf. Int. 95%**	**Correlation**	**Strength**
RA1	0,117222	1,661609	0,0966	-0,007189 to 0,241633	-	-
RA2	0,176519	2,442178	0,0146	0,059576 to 0,293462	yes	weak
RA3	0,115143	1,662146	0,0965	-0,000069 to 0,230355	-	-
PD1	0,156921	2,13845	0,0325	0,044119 to 0,269723	yes	weak
PD2	0,182782	2,495645	0,0126	0,064183 to 0,301381	yes	weak
PD3	0,23829	3,296504	0,001	0,119177 to 0,357404	yes	weak
HW1	0,266956	3,826737	0,0001	0,148661 to 0,385251	yes	weak
HW2	0,227715	3,243336	0,0012	0,107121 to 0,34831	yes	weak
HW3	0,063336	0,889326	0,3738	-0,063564 to 0,190236	-	-
HW4	0,309007	4,409754	< 0,0001	0,193339 to 0,424676	yes	moderate
SI1	0,130783	1,861166	0,0627	0,00524 to 0,256325	yes	weak
SI2	0,29418	4,06894	< 0,0001	0,187092 to 0,401267	yes	weak
SI3	0,269805	3,809287	0,0001	0,151896 to 0,387715	yes	weak
WA1	0,098034	1,37401	0,1694	-0,026197 to 0,222265	-	-
WA2	0,10761	1,465434	0,1428	-0,010555 to 0,225775	-	-
WA3	0,24533	3,500702	0,0005	0,128397 to 0,362262	yes	weak
WA4	0,244852	3,336333	0,0008	0,128096 to 0,361608	yes	weak
CA1	0,0806	1,065167	0,2868	-0,028276 to 0,189475	-	-
CA2	0,11527	1,615357	0,1062	-0,002214 to 0,232753	-	-
CA3	0,034067	0,4689	0,6391	-0,091298 to 0,159431	-	-

	Corelation between Neuroticism and Specific Rewards					
	Kendall's tau coefficient	**z-score**	**p-value**	**Conf. Int. 95%**	**Correlation**	**Strength**
RA1	-0,085888	-1,215563	0,2242	-0,208376 to 0,0366	-	-
RA2	0,032919	0,454729	0,6493	-0,085282 to 0,151119	-	-
RA3	-0,045331	-0,653357	0,5135	-0,1763 to 0,085638	-	-
PD1	0,040206	0,547055	0,5843	-0,068679 to 0,14909	-	-
PD2	-0,073504	-1,002038	0,3163	-0,183967 to 0,03696	-	-
PD3	0,014319	0,197789	0,8432	-0,098346 to 0,126985	-	-
HW1	-0,07356	-1,052831	0,2924	-0,188395 to 0,041275	-	-
HW2	-0,02294	-0,326223	0,7443	-0,134158 to 0,088278	-	-
HW3	-0,06513	-0,913099	0,3612	-0,181433 to 0,051173	-	-
HW4	-0,120451	-1,716258	0,0861	-0,234136 to -0,006766	-	-
SI1	-0,075762	-1,076497	0,2817	-0,194525 to 0,043001	-	-
SI2	-0,046521	-0,642453	0,5206	-0,156709 to 0,063668	-	-
SI3	-0,015654	-0,220672	0,8253	-0,134342 to 0,103034	-	-
WA1	-0,027208	-0,380744	0,7034	-0,1453 to 0,090885	-	-
WA2	0,015609	0,212238	0,8319	-0,09665 to 0,127869	-	-
WA3	-0,010631	-0,151462	0,8796	-0,133871 to 0,112609	-	-
WA4	0,007067	0,09615	0,9234	-0,106368 to 0,120503	-	-
CA1	0,049174	0,648854	0,5164	-0,053032 to 0,15138	-	-
CA2	0,121767	1,70377	0,0884	0,004644 to 0,238891	yes	weak
CA3	0,177689	2,441948	0,0146	0,063363 to 0,292016	yes	weak

	Corelation between Extraversion and Specific Rewards					
	Kendall's tau coefficient	**z-score**	**p-value**	**Conf. Int. 95%**	**Correlation**	**Strength**
RA1	0,048277	0,693516	0,488	-0,07028 to 0,166835	-	-
RA2	-0,012767	-0,179013	0,8579	-0,126066 to 0,100532	-	-
RA3	0,138399	2,024662	0,0429	0,030177 to 0,246621	yes	weak
PD1	0,071372	0,985715	0,3243	-0,040528 to 0,183272	-	-
PD2	0,130181	1,801371	0,0716	0,020662 to 0,2397	yes	weak
PD3	0,099507	1,395091	0,163	-0,016924 to 0,215938	-	-
HW1	0,084399	1,22608	0,2202	-0,031026 to 0,199825	-	-
HW2	0,117035	1,689295	0,0912	0,004803 to 0,229266	yes	weak
HW3	0,097941	1,393714	0,1634	-0,008993 to 0,204876	-	-
HW4	0,112702	1,629935	0,1031	-0,00523 to 0,230635	-	-
SI1	0,136864	1,973859	0,0484	0,020354 to 0,253374	yes	weak
SI2	0,10249	1,436655	0,1508	-0,015704 to 0,220684	-	-
SI3	0,199184	2,849978	0,0044	0,080114 to 0,318253	yes	weak
WA1	0,00533	0,075711	0,9396	-0,104487 to 0,115148	-	-
WA2	0,021746	0,300122	0,7641	-0,085329 to 0,128821	-	-
WA3	0,039945	0,577636	0,5635	-0,075068 to 0,154957	-	-
WA4	-0,03529	-0,487324	0,626	-0,135118 to 0,064539	-	-
CA1	0,014545	0,194812	0,8455	-0,092518 to 0,121608	-	-
CA2	0,111913	1,589389	0,112	-0,008191 to 0,232016	-	-
CA3	0,064257	0,896334	0,3701	-0,052533 to 0,181046	-	-

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