Monetary rewards and the moderating role of generational cohorts on employee loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention. A case study of frontline care assistants in the care sector in England.

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Abstract

The past three decades have witnessed many academic scholars studying the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviours from an age/generational cohort perspective. Behaviours such as loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention have gained a wider interest due to their perceived importance to the overall success of a business. Whilst previous empirical research conducted on this topic produced mixed results, there has been limited literature on the relationship between these variables among care workers in the care sector in England.

Thus, the purpose of this research is to investigate the relationship between monetary rewards and five employee behaviours such as loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention of multi-generational frontline care workers within the care sector in England. Using a mixed method analysis and an explanatory sequential design, an empirical investigation was undertaken to examine the impact of monetary rewards on the behaviours mentioned above among frontline care workers working in care homes in England, and the potential role of generational cohorts in the relationship between monetary rewards and these behaviours within the selected population and sector.

A survey instrument adjusted to suit the care sector, including interview questions developed from the findings from the quantitative analysis, were used in drawing conclusions from 183 survey respondents and 20 interview participants. The findings from the bivariate regression analysis indicate that monetary rewards significantly predicted Loyalty ($F - 1, 183 = 182.603$, $p<0.01$), (2) Absenteeism ($F -1, 183 = 5.251$, $p<.05$), (3) satisfaction ($F -1, 183 = 190.041$, $p<0.05$), (4) Turnover Intention ($F – 1, 183 = 193.634$, $p<.05$) except performance ($F – 1, 183, = 1.456$, $p>.05$), whilst the moderation analysis results found no influence of generational cohorts on the relationship between monetary rewards and the five employee behaviours amongst the intended population and sector. Furthermore, the thematic analysis produced similar results thus, corroborating the findings from the quantitative analysis. Out of the 20 interviews conducted, 76% of interviewees agreed that monetary rewards were a major consideration for being with an employer, whilst 57% did not think age/generational cohort was a moderating factor as most of the participants believed financial commitments and priorities were the driving factor for wanting a higher rate.

Based on the research findings, this research aimed to contribute to the existing literature and provide original insights into the relationship between these variables among care assistants who have had very little academic awareness on the influence of monetary rewards on their behaviour. Thus, the findings from this research would be valuable for HR practitioners and care home providers in addressing the challenges of managing a multi-generational workforce with varying attitudes towards reward management. The research findings aim to enable practitioners to develop effective reward strategies that can attract, motivate, engage, and retain talented individuals.

Keywords: Monetary rewards, Employee behaviours, Generational cohorts

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List of Abbreviations

ASC	Adult social care
AWOL	Absence Without Leave
CI	Care Inspectorate
CIW	Care Inspectorate Wales
CQC	Care Quality Commission
CI	Confidence Intervals
CFI	Corporate Finance Institute
DV	Dependent Variable
EU	European Union
GDPR	General Data Protection Regulation
HR	Human Resource
IE	Internal Evaluation
IV	Independent Variable
KSA	Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities
LA	Local Authorities
LPC	Low Pay Commission
NC	Normative Commitment
NLW	National Living Wage
NMW	National Minimum Wage
NHS	National Health Service
NI	Northern Ireland
MSQ	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
OB	Organisational Behaviour
OCN	Organisational Cognitive Neuroscience
ONS	Office of National Statistics
PSQ	Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire
RQIA	Regulation and Quality Improvement Authority
SDT	Self-determination theory
SPSS	Software package for social sciences
TIS	Turnover Intention Scale
UK	United Kingdom

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1.Research background

Former Avon CEO, Hicks Waldron said, *"it took me a long while to learn that people do what you pay them to do and not what you ask them to do"*.

Rewards are considered important for attracting, retaining, and engaging employees. Employee rewards have gone through several developmental stages over the years to help businesses improve staff retention, promote the right behaviour, create a positive work environment and an effective way of producing long-lasting business results through its people (Longo, 2011). It is widely believed that the reward an employee receives significantly impact their productivity, making it an effective strategy for businesses to achieve sustainable results through their workforce (Manzoor, Wei & Asif, 2021). In the early 2000s, the concept of rewards was seen as a significant breakthrough in the workplace. This was attributed to the different elements that comprised the total reward package and its adaptability to different audiences (Frank, 2009). This assertion remains relevant in today's workplace, as employees continue to value a fair reward system. As a result, companies have observed improvements in retention, productivity, and employee morale.

Danish and Usman (2010) defined "reward" as positive outcomes earned by employees based on their performance or behaviour. This can take the form of monetary or non-monetary rewards, or a combination of both. Similarly, reward can be anything given by employers to employees in exchange for their contributions to company growth (Hussain et al., 2019). Nowadays, organisations have various options for rewarding and recognising employee performance, each with its own benefits and risks. However, the most effective reward strategies are typically aligned with the needs of staff, the business, and the overall objectives of the organisation (Chartered Institute of Personnel Development [CIPD], 2019). Empirical research indicates that monetary rewards have a significant impact on employee behaviour and performance. For example, Fatima (2021) discovered that the introduction of monetary incentives resulted in an average performance increase of 27 percent among employees. The length of monetary incentives had a significant impact on performance. Monetary incentives

lasting more than six months increased performance by 44 percent, while those lasting less than six months increased performance by 30 percent. Incentives lasting less than one month still led to a 20 percent increase in performance (Fatima, 2021).

The impact of monetary rewards on employees' behaviour, employment options, and employer attractiveness has become a topic of interest for academics and Human Resource (HR) practitioners, particularly due to the presence of multiple generations in the workplace. The COVID-19 pandemic resulted in a pause in monetary rewards across various sectors, causing employees to shift their focus towards wellbeing-related rewards and flexible working options (Dorkings, 2021). As the post-pandemic period brings a return to normal commercial activities and increased market competition for work flexibility and wellbeing options, employers face the ongoing challenge of offering reward packages that can attract top talent, enhance loyalty, improve employee satisfaction and performance, and ultimately retain the best employees. According to Sturt and Nordstrom (2019) and Cook-Campbell (2022), employers find employee loyalty to be a challenging concept to understand due to the various factors that influence it. However, for businesses aiming to enhance retention and decrease turnover, comprehending this concept and maximising employee loyalty is crucial. A report on employee engagement reveals a significant decline in employee loyalty across multiple sectors, including the care sector (Tinypulse, 2019). The percentage of respondents indicating they would leave their current employer due to a 10% salary increase increased from 25% in 2018 to 43% in 2019 (Tinypulse, 2019). Additionally, a recent survey on employee loyalty revealed that 40% of UK employees are likely to seek new roles within the next year, with Gen Z and millennials aged 18-34 leading this trend. Unhealthy culture, poor leadership, and dissatisfaction with pay were identified as significant factors influencing employees' decisions (New Possible, 2023).

Scholars like Porter and Lawler (1968) have examined the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviour. Although they did not find a direct link between job satisfaction and employee performance, their research suggests that effective performance can result in job-related rewards such as salary increases. Furthermore, if the process of providing these rewards is perceived as fair, receiving them can contribute to employee satisfaction. Allen (2013) found that employees are often motivated by the value of a reward in relation to their performance. To support Allen's findings, Apriyanti, Sudiarditha, and Saptono's (2021) study contradicts Porter and Lawler's research by suggesting a positive and significant impact of rewards on work satisfaction and employee performance. These recent findings highlight the

importance of understanding the appropriate combination of rewards to offer employees. Failing to do so could result in a decrease in enthusiasm, increased absenteeism, and ultimately lead employees to switch to competitors (Gurchiek, 2016).

According to the Low Pay Commission (LPC), the care sector is considered a low-paying industry compared to other sectors. This is primarily because most care workers are paid the national minimum wage (NMW) (Skills for Care, 2019). Another report by Cominetti, Gardiner, and Kelly (2020) revealed that approximately one million care workers, roughly half of the total workforce, earn less than the recommended real living wage set by the Living Wage Foundation. This wage is based on the actual cost of living in the UK. Additionally, tens of thousands of care workers seem to be illegally paid below the NMW (Savage, 2020). The number of workers in the UK facing insecure work has doubled in the past three years, primarily as a result of the current cost of living crisis. This includes workers in the care sector. According to the Living Wage Foundation (2023), over six million workers are reportedly affected by insecure work, with 3.4 million in low-paid insecure jobs. The study emphasised the care sector, particularly the negative impact on care workers. Nearly 900,000 carers and support workers are in insecure jobs that have a significant financial burden. The consumer price index (CPI) increased by 10.4% in February 2023, but wages and income have not risen accordingly (Sameen, 2023). As a result, the care sector is facing additional shortages of workers. The care sector, which consists of approximately 17,900 organisations and 38,000 care-providing locations, experienced a 4.2 percent rise in employee absences in 2022 (Russell, 2023). This increase can be attributed to COVID-19 related illnesses. In comparison, the sector recorded a 2.7 percent absence rate in April 2019/2020 (Skills for Care, 2020) and a 2 percent rate in 2018 (Office of National Statistics [ONS], 2018), primarily due to low job satisfaction among care workers (Skills for Care, 2018).

HR practitioners are currently discussing monetary rewards in the care sector in relation to the emergence of Generation Z, who are the fifth generation to enter the workforce. Rampton (2017) highlights that this is the first time in history that five generations with different mindsets and expectations will be working together. Therefore, it is crucial to establish an inclusive workplace that caters to the diverse needs of these generations (Kelly, 2023). There are increasing concerns about the distinct behaviours, attitudes, and values that each generation bring. The care sector has seen a rise in the entry of young workers, which has also led to a high turnover rate. Recent research conducted by Skills for Care, a workforce development and

planning organisation for adult social care in England, reveals that in the year 2021/22, 40% of new care workers were under the age of 25 (Skills for Care, 2022). This figure represents an increase from 37% in 2018 (McKechnie, Virdee, & Cohen, 2018). Furthermore, a significant proportion of individuals within this age group (20-29 years old) expressed their intention to leave the profession due to various factors, including inadequate pay (Bottery, 2023). The care sector in the United Kingdom (UK) has been heavily reliant on overseas workers. The percentage of workers migrating to the UK for employment in this sector remained stable for nearly seven years, but there has been a significant increase since 2020. In 2019, 7% of the workforce came from European Union (EU) countries, while 9% were from outside the EU (Skills for Care, 2020). However, as of 2023, there has been a decline of 1% in EU care applications, while non-EU applications have increased by 4% since 2020 (Skills for Care, 2023). The sector experienced an increase primarily because the care role was added to the skills shortage list, allowing for easier recruitment of overseas workers through the care worker visa route. The care sector has generally relied more on non-EU workers, mainly due to the availability of workers from developing countries (Skills for Care, 2020). The sector has seen a notable rise in staff numbers as a result of relaxed immigration laws. In order to fill 243,000 positions, overseas workers were employed, and this number is expected to grow further (Skills for Care, 2023). Despite low pay, a report by Independent Age, a national charity supporting financially struggling older individuals, reveals that certain employers favoured overseas carers due to their flexibility, higher qualifications, and willingness to accept lower wages compared to care workers born in the UK. The report suggests that although the monetary rewards in this sector may appear low in the UK, it is a higher wage compared to jobs in many overseas countries. As a result, overseas workers migrate for economic reasons (Franklin & Brancati, 2015).

Academic scholars in the field of Organisational Behaviour (OB) have extensively researched the relationship between crucial employee behaviours and monetary rewards. Empirical studies have focused on loyalty (Akhigbe & Ifeyinwa, 2017; Andriani, 2023), absenteeism (Hassink & Koning, 2009; Brouwer, et.al., 2023), satisfaction (Yaseen, 2013; Tang, et.al., 2023), performance (Gupta & Shaw, 2014; Persada & Nabella, 2023), and turnover intention (Smith, 2009; Ohunakin & Olugbade, 2022). Previous studies have emphasised the importance of examining the relationship between rewards and behaviour. Their findings suggest a significant correlation between these variables. Consequently, increasing monetary rewards may have a positive impact on behaviours, leading to improved employee performance

and reduced turnover intention. Considering the current challenges in sectors like care, it is crucial to identify gaps in the literature and investigate the potential effects of rewards.

1.2. Gap in literature

Academic scholars have extensively examined the connection between monetary rewards and employee behaviour, as well as the potential impact on overall performance. Behaviours such as loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, employee performance, and turnover intention have received significant attention due to their crucial role in business success. It is believed that a lack of these behaviours can directly affect a company's operations, profitability, and result in high costs for hiring and training new employees (Gregory, 2011; McQuerrey, 2018). Gangai's (2014) empirical study found that absenteeism is a prevalent issue in businesses of all sizes and is strongly associated with employees' loyalty to their employers. Data indicates that absenteeism costed UK businesses up to £21 billion in 2020, and it is projected to increase to £26 billion by 2030 (Johnson, 2020). In the care sector alone, workers took an average of 4.7 days off per year in 2019/2020, resulting in approximately 6.72 million lost workdays and decreased employee productivity (Skills for Care, 2020). However, there are differing views on the effectiveness of monetary rewards in influencing employee behaviour based on empirical research. Some studies have found a strong correlation between these variables (Al-tamimi, 2018; A'yuninnisa & Saptoto, 2015; Golparvar & Nadi, 2010; Hassink & Koning, 2009). However, other scholars have concluded that there is little or no relationship (Awda & Awad, 2011; Sethunga & Perera, 2018).

Limited academic literature exists on the relationship between monetary rewards and the five identified behaviours among care workers in the English care sector. The workplace is also undergoing changes as different age groups work together. Research indicates that age plays a role in various organisational outcomes (Backes-Gellner & Veen, 2009). However, there is a lack of academic literature that adequately explains the mechanisms and reasons behind the effects of generational differences in the workplace, despite the acknowledgment of its importance by HR professionals. Organisations consist of individuals with diverse characteristics such as age, gender, and race (Cox, 1991) and as a result, managers need to effectively handle employees from different generations and comprehend the factors that motivate and prevent them from burning out. This issue is particularly prevalent in the care sector due to insufficient compensation (Consultancy, 2016) and excessive workloads

(Learner, 2018). Given the above, the following sub-section will outline the research's aim, objectives, and research questions that will be addressed throughout the findings.

1.3. Research Aim, Objectives and Questions.

1.3.1. Research aim

The research aims to investigate the influence of monetary rewards on five behaviours, such as loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, performance, and turnover intention, among frontline care workers in the UK care sector. Additionally, the study will explore how these behaviours may impact different generations in the workplace. The population for this research will consist of hourly paid care assistants working in adult care homes in England. Managerial, nursing, and ancillary roles will be excluded from the study.

1.3.2. Research objectives

• To examine the impact of monetary rewards on employee behaviour in the UK care sector.

• To clarify whether there is a relationship between monetary rewards and behaviours like loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention amongst frontline care assistants working in care homes in England.

• To explore whether generational cohorts play a role in the relationship between monetary rewards and the selected variables amongst frontline care assistants working in care homes in England.

1.3.3. Research questions

To achieve the research aim, the two primary questions below have been developed to better understand monetary rewards, employee behaviours and the role of generational cohorts in the relationship of the variables.

Question One: Do monetary rewards have an influence on employee loyalty, absenteeism, employee satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention amongst care assistants in the care sector?

Question Two: What role do baby boomers, generations X, Y, Z play in the relationship between monetary rewards (independent variable) and loyalty, absenteeism, employee satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention (dependent variables) amongst the selected population and sector.

1.4. Significance of the proposed research and potential advancement

The proposed research aims to examine the relationship between monetary rewards and the selected variables, with specific focus on age bands, otherwise known as generational cohorts. The study will also examine the influence of generational cohorts on the relationship between monetary rewards and the five variables within the population of study. These behaviours are considered crucial for organisational success, and a decline in them could negatively impact profitability and growth (Immoment, 2011). The pay of care assistants has been extensively debated, particularly due to the significance of their role, the challenging nature of their job, the reliance on foreign workers, and the significant difference in pay rates between the National Health Service (NHS) and private care providers. This is despite the substantial profits generated by private operators (Martin, 2020). Thus, the research would be valuable for HR practitioners and care home providers, as it addresses the challenges of managing a multi-generational workforce with varying attitudes towards reward management and would enable practitioners develop effective reward strategies that can attract, motivate, engage, and retain talented individuals.

1.5. Thesis structure

The thesis is organised into six parts as follows:

Chapter One: Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the research topic, including the aim, objectives, research questions, research gap, and the significance and potential contributions of the research to knowledge.

Chapter Two: Literature review

This chapter provides a comprehensive review of existing literature on monetary rewards, employee behaviours, generational cohorts, and the English care sector. It will examine early theories of monetary rewards and employee behaviour, analyse the contributions of past and

present academic scholars in understanding the relationship between these variables, with a specific focus on the care sector. It will also explore the potential impact of generational cohorts on the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviours in the care sector.

Chapter Three: **Research methodology**

This section is divided into two parts. The first part presents the methodology process, research assumptions, philosophies, and approach adopted for this study. It also explains the different sampling methods, the design and implementation of the survey instrument, and the rationale behind their selection.

The second part reviews the pilot study conducted during the internal evaluation study and discusses the changes made based on its findings. Subsequently, the data analysis techniques used for both analyses are introduced and discussed.

Chapter Four: Quantitative data analysis and research findings

This chapter expands on the introduction to data analysis provided in chapter three. It breaks down the quantitative data into comprehensible components, tests multiple hypotheses, and presents the results through tables and graphs.

Chapter Five: Qualitative data analysis and research findings

This chapter examines the themes that arose from the quantitative analysis and semi-structured interviews, which will be utilised to address the research questions.

Chapter Six: Discussion, recommendation and conclusion

This chapter concludes the research study by discussing the contributions and limitations of the research, evaluating the research objectives, and exploring future implications of the findings.

1.6. Summary and conclusion

This chapter introduces the theme of the research by discussing the study of monetary rewards, five employee behaviours (loyalty, absenteeism, employee satisfaction, employee performance, and turnover intention), generational cohorts, and their potential connection. The focus is on frontline care workers in care homes in England. Two distinct aims were formulated: (1) to investigate the relationship between monetary rewards and five employee behaviours of frontline care workers in the English care sector, and (2) to explore the role of generational cohorts in the relationship between monetary rewards and the selected variables.

A gap in the existing literature has been identified: limited academic discourse on these variables among different age groups of care assistants. Three distinct objectives were formulated based on this gap. These objectives focus on examining the impact of monetary rewards on employee behaviour in the English care sector, determining whether monetary rewards influence the five behaviours of frontline care assistants in care homes, and exploring the role of generational cohorts in the relationship between monetary rewards and the selected variables among frontline care assistants. The significance of the research and its potential advancements were discussed in detail. Additionally, an overview of the report's structure was provided to help readers navigate through the paper. The next chapter will present a critical review of the existing academic literature on the research variables.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

Chapter one positioned the current research within the care sector in England and demonstrated the need for further research in exploring the impact of monetary rewards on five employee behaviours amongst care assistants from a generational perspective. Recent evidence from the LPC has highlighted the deplorable state of pay within the care sector and the need to review the sector's pay strategy in line with current everyday living cost in the UK. Some studies have identified a general link between monetary rewards and the five behaviours, with their findings suggesting a downward slope on business' profitability, operations, and its overall success, if this relationship is ignored (Gregory, 2011; McQuerrey, 2018). However, there is still limited academic literature addressing the relationship between monetary rewards and the five behaviours amongst care assistants of different age groups working in care homes in England.

Given the above, this chapter will review existing bodies of literature on monetary rewards, employee behaviours, and generational cohorts. A broad history of literature for each concept (rewards, behaviours and generational cohorts) will be introduced, followed by a streamlined review of each concept's literature within the care sector. The chapter will conclude by examining the interrelatedness of these bodies of knowledge and highlight their linkage where possible, which will then inform the research's conceptual framework.

2.2. The concept of employee rewards

Employers, irrespective of their sector or size, endeavour to create a strong, long-lasting relationship and an enabling environment for their employees. However, employees have varying needs, and a standardised reward strategy might prove less effective. Various scholars have attempted to define employee rewards, and over the years, these definitions have evolved. Key amongst these definitions was by Armstrong and Murlis (1988) who defined employee rewards as the formulation and implementation of strategies and policies that aim to reward people fairly, equitably, and consistently per their value to the organisation. Eighteen years after Armstrong and Murlis' definition, Stephens (2006) corroborated the scholars' definition and in addition to rewarding people fairly, equitably, and consistently as per their value to the

organisation, the scholar suggests that it is paramount that an organisation's reward strategy is aimed at assisting organisations to achieve their strategic goals.

The nature of employee rewards is considered complex because of the different needs and wants of individuals. Maslow's (1963) hierarchy of needs affirmed this statement and concluded that needs lower down in the hierarchy (psychological, safety, belonging and esteem) must be satisfied before individuals can attend to needs higher up (self-actualisation). Building on Maslow's premise, academic scholars have attempted to categorise employee rewards into two broad concepts namely monetary and non-monetary, which is aimed at meeting the needs of a variety of individuals. Authors such as (Manion, 2005; Shanks, 2007) referred to monetary rewards as a host of external or extrinsic things that may serve as an incentive for employees to improve their behaviour and increase their performance in the workplace. These include money (pay), benefits, bonuses, promotions, flexible schedules etc. In contrast, non-monetary rewards are intrinsic to the individual and in many ways less tangible. They are highly subjective and are inherent in the content of the job itself. They represent how the individual perceives and feels about work and its value, and such individual would thrive in work environments where autonomy, feedback, and the opportunity to participate in decision making are prevalent (Eshun & Duah, 2011; Shanks, 2007).

Research into monetary and non-monetary rewards tend to support two schools of thought. Whilst one school of thought opine that monetary rewards are powerful tools in reshaping employee behaviour and their performance, the second school of thought believes that non-monetary rewards are an important antecedent for engaging employees and sustaining the employment relationship after the depletion of any monetary incentives (Bhattacharya & Mukherjee, 2009). For this research, monetary rewards will be the focus of study and the following sub-section will attempt to define and discuss this reward concept in detail.

2.2.1. Monetary rewards

The term 'monetary rewards' refers to all financial provisions made to employees, which include base or fixed pay and various benefits & recognition incentives such as bonus payments, higher employer pension contribution, paid leave and so on (CIPD, 2019). Going back to the basic explanation of "money", Choe, Lau and Tan (2011) consider money as an essential part of human society due to its ability to be exchanged for numerous desirable objects. Money is also perceived to be an intangible symbol of social status in some cultures,

whilst it could be a symbol for personal growth within the organisation, and a measure of an employee's worth in the organisation (Glen, 2005; Robbins, 2001). Delving further into the relationship between money and how it is perceived in different cultures, Furnham (1994) studied the relationship between money and age amongst young workers in the Middle East, compared to their counterparts in developed countries such as the UK. His findings showed a positive correlation between both variables (money and age) and concludes that young people of working age place a higher value on money in the Middle East compared to young workers in the UK and are more determined to earn more money to raise their standard of living. Similarly, Huang and Van de Vliert's (2003) empirical study on employees' working in multinational corporations in forty-one countries showed that employees in developed countries were driven more by intrinsic rewards, whilst their counterparts from developing countries placed high importance on extrinsic rewards due to their low standard of living.

Exploring the concept of money further in the context of the employer-employee relationship, there is always the debate as to the most effective method of improving employee behaviour. Jewell and Jewell (1987) asserted that monetary rewards can be a powerful determinant of positive behaviour, which often translates to high retention rates in organisations. Building on Jewell and Jewell's findings, Stajkovic and Luthans (2001) studied over 7000 employees with similar job roles, using the Organisational Behaviour modification (OB Mod) model and other forms of measures such as social recognition, performance feedback and monetary incentives. The result showed that routine pay-for-performance increased employee performance by 11 per cent, whilst the reward applied through the systematic procedure of the O.B. Mod model increased performance by 31.7 per cent. Based on this premise, Aguinis, Joo and Gottfredson (2013) added that monetary rewards could be a powerful determinant of an employee's performance level, which could, in turn, have a positive effect on the organisation's performance.

Past empirical evidence has suggested that monetary rewards are amongst the most significant factors that influence employees and their behaviours. For instance, the study by Locke, Feren, McCaleb, Shaw and Denny (1980) found an improvement in employee performance after the introduction of performance incentives. Likewise, the result from Rynes, Gerhart and Minette's (2004) pulse survey indicated a general acceptance of monetary rewards as an improvement tool for employee performance; the respondents' concerns were centred around the value of the reward received in comparison with their workload. It is not surprising

why monetary rewards are considered as a powerful influencer of employee behaviour and as the tool used in attracting and retaining top talent. This form of reward helps employees meet their basic needs such as food, shelter - and higher needs such as improving social status, respect amongst peers and acknowledging an employee's achievements as indicated by Maslow in his hierarchy of needs theory (Long & Shields, 2010; Maslow, 1963).

Despite its wide acceptance as a tool for motivating, engaging, and improving employee behaviour, monetary rewards have its limitations. Scholars have been studying and documenting these limitations as far back as the 1970s, and their findings suggest that monetary rewards have a negative correlation with (1) ethical behaviour, and (2), knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA). Kerr's (1975) study on the impact of monetary rewards on ethical behaviour highlighted the potential harm monetary rewards could be causing by encouraging workers to act unethically. The scholar documented his findings after researching a well-known producer of frozen and canned vegetables who rewarded employees for removing insects from vegetables. It was later discovered that employees began to bring insects from their homes, placed them in the vegetables, and subsequently removed them to receive the monetary incentive. Lastly, Dierdorff and Surface (2008) studied monetary rewards and KSA – whether monetary rewards could improve job-relevant KSAs. Their findings concluded that although monetary rewards could encourage workers to work harder, they do not necessarily improve KSAs.

2.3. Employee behaviours

Whilst employee behaviour and the general notion of understanding employees and treating them right may seem like the sensible approach for organisations to adopt, it was not until the late 19th century and beginning of the 20th century that behavioural theorists began discussing the employee behaviour concept and its impact on employee performance and organisational success. The Hawthorne studies, developed by Elton Mayo in the 1920s became the research breakthrough that shone the light on the importance of treating people right to get the best out of them (Wickström & Bendix, 2000). As behavioural theories grew in popularity, it became critical for managers to understand employees' different behaviours and the factors that make workers satisfied and become loyal, as it became unattractive to view workers as simply small parts of a complex production process, as described in Frederick Taylor's *principle of scientific management.* (Taylor, 1919).

Employee behaviours have continually been studied for decades due to the workplace's constant evolution. Behaviours that could be easily overlooked in previous decades have suddenly become important behaviours that could either make or break businesses, should these behaviours be ignored (McQuerrey, 2018). For the past thirty years, academic scholars have continually studied behaviours that are considered crucial to the success of every organisation. Key amongst them are behaviours such as loyalty (Boyett & Conn, 1991; Rice et al., 2017), absenteeism (Halbesleben, Whitman, & Crowford, 2014), employee satisfaction (Currall *et al,* 2005), employee performance (Pradhan & Jena, 2017) and turnover intention (Ahmed, Sabir, Khosa, Ahmad & Bilal, 2016). These behaviours have been found to contribute extensively to the success of the organisation and an increase or a decrease could affect organisations either positively or negatively.

Previous empirical research conducted on these behaviours returned mixed results (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Whilst recent research studied these employee behaviours broadly, and their findings suggest a positive link with overall organisation success (Cherotich, Chepkilot, & Muhanji, 2015), research findings have been limited on these behaviours amongst care assistants working within the care sector. As mentioned in chapter one, the care sector has witnessed high employee turnover and absenteeism (Skills for Care, 2019), which indicates low loyalty and satisfaction levels. Although pay has been recorded as abysmal amongst care assistants within this sector, it is still unclear whether monetary rewards indeed influences care assistants' performance, their loyalty to their job and care-recipients, the care sector, and their overall behaviour. This poses a question as to whether there is any relationship between monetary rewards and the five behaviours within the population of study – a question this research aims to answer. The following sub-sections will attempt to introduce and discuss the five behaviours broadly, thereafter these behaviours will be revisited and analysed specifically to the care sector. Although these behaviours have been identified as important, they are not ranked in any order of importance and would be reviewed sequentially.

2.3.1. Loyalty

According to Allport (1933: 164), "The attitude connoted by the word loyalty is not sufficiently understood". Employee loyalty has been the topic of discourse since the twentieth century. A group of scholars began making predictions about the nature of the workplace and investigated aspects such as change management, self-managed teams, organisational structures, motivation, and employee engagement (Boyett & Boyett, 1995; Boyett & Conn,

1991). However, scholars concluded that for behaviours such as employee loyalty, the future was unpredictable (Jackson, 1997). Observations made by industry experts (The Economist, 1993) and scholars such as (Osborn, 1991) suggested that loyalty was plummeting due to downsizing, rightsizing, and reengineering. As a result, employers urgently needed to win back their best talents.

Loyalty definitions date to the fifties and seventies when Lawrence (1958) and Buchanan (1974) defined loyalty as the devotion of workers and feelings of attachment to their employers. Two decades later, scholars like (Niehoff et al's, 2001; Pina e Cunha, 2002) considered an employee to be loyal if they remained with one organisation for some length of time. Their attempt to define and measure employee loyalty further resulted in many of these definitions and measures synonymous with employee commitment which still creates some confusion between the two distinct concepts to date (see for example Atwater et al, 2000; Chen et al,2002). Allport (1933) highlighted three distinct characteristics of loyalty which differentiates it from employee commitment: (1) a selection of values (2) voluntary in nature and (3) adherence to some principle of conduct that is considered good. Together, these three elements of loyalty are what Allport considers setting loyalty apart from commitment. Building on Allport's distinctions, industry experts assert that "loyalty" is an employee's willingness to act in the interest of the organisation and always talking about it. Not only does it go beyond being committed, but it also includes being trustworthy, obedient, compliant, reporting potential and real threats to the organisation, and the willingness to stand by the organisation during difficult times (Brightpeople, 2020).

This extension of employee responsibilities concerning the concept can be seen in Meyer and Allen's (1997) work which attempted to describe the term "loyalty" using *normative commitment*, highlighting the duties, values and the degree to which an employee stays in the organisation. The scholars further suggested that the belief about the appropriateness of being loyal to one's organisation gets internalised, and employees see staying in the organisation irrespective of how they feel either out of obligation or because of a perceived psychological contract. It is assumed that normative commitment stems from moral underpinning – that is, one's sense of obligation to remain in an organisation, even when things are not going smoothly. Whilst Coughlan's (2005) work supported the above findings in general, the scholar stressed that normative commitment differed from loyalty and does not examine ongoing behaviour during the employment relationship.

Whilst employee loyalty is seen as positive behaviour and crucial to the success of the organisation (Rice *et al.*, 2017; Zatzick *et al.*, 2015), some scholars have expressed mixed feelings on the impact such behaviour would have on the organisation. Kraemer and Gouthier (2014) expressed concern that loyalty could increase tension and stress when things no longer go well between the employee and employer. Likewise, Dries *et al.* (2014) claimed that heightened loyalty to a current employer could reduce career approaches and hinder the opportunity for career progression of employees. Academic scholars have continually highlighted the importance of loyalty to organisations, and it is an area that has received considerable attention, with mixed results. The question of whether external factors such as reward or age influences employee loyalty particularly amongst certain grade level of employees such as care assistants who are at the bottom of the sector's grade structure and the different generations within the sector, remains an unanswered question. Therefore, this research aims to contribute to existing literature by investigating the possible impact of employee loyalty on the success of the organisation.

2.3.2. Absenteeism

Absenteeism is perceived to be every manager's nightmare due to its adverse impact on teams' performance and profits (Badubi, 2017; Culbertson, 2009; Halbesleben *et al.*, 2014). Swarnalatha and Sureshkrishna (2013) defined absenteeism simply as "failure to report to work" and suggests that employees who are habitually absent without a reason are a threat to their employers. Similarly, Senel and Senel (2012) defined it as "the lack of presence of an employee for planned work". Here, the scholars explained that an employee who deliberately misses work other than for illness or any pre-approved absence constitutes absenteeism. It is important to differentiate between authorised absences - planned absences such as annual leave, maternity/paternity, long-term illnesses, and unauthorised ones – an employee's refusal to show up for work, which are unpredictable, disruptive, costly and within the employee's control (Nel et al, 2008).

Sickness has been the major reason that employees give for being absent (Badubi, 2017). The result from Levy's (2006) empirical study on the abuse of sick leave in UK-based organisations showed that 40 per cent of respondents admitted calling in sick falsely, whilst 7 per cent indicated that they resorted to such behaviour all the time. Based on Levy's findings, Badubi believes an employee who routinely calls in sick just before or after a weekend, long weekend, or holiday, should send out alarm signals to his/her employer. Although it is not

uncommon that genuine sickness could fall within the period mentioned above, the scholar's study claimed that delinquent sick leave tends to fall into a recognisable and repetitive pattern, whilst genuine cases of illness arise much more randomly and are normally of a longer duration. HR practitioners believe that whilst it is anticipated to record some certain number of lost time due to absenteeism, excessive absenteeism could amount to disruption in the scheduled work process, instability in labour supply, failure to meet team objectives and high cost to the employer (Forbes, 2013). An absenteeism survey carried out on 1,003 employees working in the UK private sector SMEs recorded 7.5 million 'sickie' days, which cost UK businesses £900 million in 2017 (Benstead, 2019).

Normally, all employees are bound by their contract of employment to report for duty as and when due, and failure to do so could be harmful to employers. Although absenteeism could be harmful and costly, in some cases not having the employee show up could be more beneficial, as having a worker who is ill, fatigued or stressed but still must show up, perhaps because of fear of losing their wages or being punished, could be costlier for the business. Such attitude is known as "*presenteeism*"- the act of being on the job but because of ill-health or other medical, psychological, or emotional conditions or reasons, not fully functioning could cause poor performance, poor health or even exhaustion (Hemp, 2004). Research by Work Foundation shows that presenteeism costs businesses just over £30 billion annually, whilst they predict absenteeism will cost employers over £21 billion by 2020 (Beattie, 2019).

Several scholars have focused their studies on the link between absenteeism and (a) employee contractual agreement (Scoppa, 2009) – it was observed that employees on fixed-term contract or probation had fewer absence rates than employees who were confirmed and had permanent contracts; (b) unemployment (Hesselius, 2007) – it was observed that a threat to one's employment reduced absence rates and (c) legislation changes concerning sickness pay (Meyer *et al*., 1995) - it was observed that absence rates reduced because of a change in legislation. Hassink's (2018) study acknowledged that one of the ways unauthorised absenteeism could be reduced is by reviewing an organisation's monetary reward strategy because studies have revealed that employees respond positively to performance-related bonuses and general improvement to work conditions. Past studies, especially those that have studied various links with absenteeism have shown that unauthorised absences could be reduced or avoided if there were costs attached to being absent. Also, Hassink's findings indicate that employees react positively if there is a monetary incentive attached, irrespective

of their mental state. This raises the question of whether monetary rewards could indeed reduce absenteeism arising because of unauthorised absences. Furthermore, it is often assumed that older workers generally make up many of the absence figures due to ill-health (Hope, 2017). Although past empirical studies have shown this to be true for authorised absences (Thomson, Griffiths & Davison, 2000), there have been limited studies on the age demography that makes up the unauthorised absenteeism statistics. Thus, this poses further questions such as whether there is a potential relationship between age and unauthorised absenteeism, otherwise known as absence without leave (AWOL), and if there is, whether it modifies any possible relationship between monetary rewards and absenteeism.

2.3.3. Employee satisfaction

Rudman (2003) reiterates the need to keep employees happy, as lack of happiness could lead to low employee performance due to psychologically withdrawing from the job, tardiness, and high turnover intention. On the other hand, satisfaction increases employee morale, effectiveness, and efficiency; it lowers the level of absenteeism (Thierry & Koopmann-Iawma,1984), employees are willing to work harder to improve the organisation and achieve company goals (Bigliardi *et al*., 2012; Jex & Britt 2008).

Spector (1997) defined employee satisfaction as to how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. Scholars such as (Currall *et al*., 2005; DeConinck & Stilwell, 2004; Gregory, 2011) claimed that employee satisfaction is essential to the success of every business, as a lack of this could lead to a decline in employee performance and a high turnover eventually. Employee satisfaction can be measured in various ways and can be reviewed from different vantage points. For instance, employees can be satisfied with different elements of their job such as career development prospects, leadership and so on, whilst various reasons could cause dissatisfaction such as stress, compensation disparity, lack of communication within the organisation and lack of recognition (Spector, 1997). Developing Spector's study, Koslowsky and Krausz (2002) studied reasons why an employee could experience dissatisfaction, which could include becoming overwhelmed on the job due to demanding responsibilities and inadequate reward. The scholars claimed that a lack of satisfaction could cause such employee to seek employment in companies that would offer better financial rewards in line with the level of responsibility given. Branham's (2005) study focused on the link between employee satisfaction and outcomes such as higher customer ratings, higher profitability, and higher safety records. The findings showed a 70 per cent – 86 per cent

satisfaction rate amongst employees who reported excellent ratings in these outcomes. Thus, the need to keep employees satisfied has gained the attention of both HR practitioners and academics alike.

There has been a considerable amount of study in understanding the associations of satisfaction with other business areas as previously mentioned. The works of Spector, Koslowsky and Krausz briefly highlighted a possible relationship between monetary reward and satisfaction, but questions such as the extent of this relationship, whether the relationship is prevalent in specific sectors or role types, and whether other factors such as age play a role in this relationship remains unanswered. Thus, this research will attempt to seek answers to these questions.

2.3.4. Employee performance

Employees are considered as the most valued asset, and an important resource to a business (Pradhan & Jena, 2017). Improving employee performance has become an important task in present-day organisations and this behaviour has been widely researched within the OB and HR disciplines (Bateman & Snell, 2007; Lawler & Worley, 2006; Schiemann, 2009). Despite the relevance of employee performance and its extensive use as an outcome, there has been little effort in clarifying the performance concept (Sonnentag & Frees, 2005). In the 1990s, Campbell (1990) described existing literature on employee performance as a "virtual desert" due to the abstract structure and content within the literature. Scholars agreed that in attempting to conceptualise employee performance, differentiation should be made between the action aspect of performance (i.e., behavioural), and the outcome aspect of performance (Campbell, 1990; Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993; Kanfer, 1990; Roe, 1999). The 'behavioural' aspect of employee performance referred to what the individual does in the work situation and encompasses only behaviour that is relevant in meeting the employer's objectives, whilst the 'outcome' aspect of performance refers to the consequence or result of the employee's behaviour (Roe, 1999). Based on this premise, scholars have attempted to define the term employee performance from a behavioural perspective. Campbell et al (1993) defined 'performance' as what an organisation hires one to do and do well. The scholars further highlighted that employee performance is not defined by the action (behaviour) itself, but by actions that can be measured. Furthermore, Karakas (2010) defined the term "employee performance" as an individual's work achievement after employing the required behaviour on

the job which is associated with getting meaningful work done, being in a good work environment and receiving an adequate reward.

Employee performance is seen as a multi-dimensional concept. Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) study focused on two concepts of performance namely task and contextual performance.

2.3.4.1. Task performance

The scholars described task performance as the employee's proficiency with which he or she performs activities to improve an organisation's technical core. In other words, task performance describes the core job responsibilities of an employee. Koopmans et al. (2011) called task performance an 'in-role prescribed behaviour' reflecting in specific work outcomes and deliverables, as well as the quality and quantity of the work done.

2.3.4.2. Contextual performance

On the other hand, contextual performance goes beyond formal job responsibilities, which Koopmans et al. (2011) referred to as 'discretionary extra-role behaviour'. Contextual performance is reflected in activities that promotes social networks within the workplace.

Over time, scholars have continually studied employee performance in the workplace, and have linked different factors that could potentially impact on an individual's task or contextual performance. Horng et al. (2016) studied various factors such as insufficient wages, job insecurity and lack of new opportunities, and discussed a causal relationship. Similarly, (Hassan & Olufemi, 2014; Rabindarang, Bing & Yin, 2014) studied the effect of demographical factors such as age on employee performance. Their findings showed a significant relationship between both variables. Although, it is worth noting that Gen Y was the most recent cohort at the time of the scholars' research. Hence, little is still known about the Gen Z – a gap this research aims to fill.

For the remainder of this research paper, the researcher's focus will be on the behavioural/task aspect of employee performance as postulated by (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell, 1990; Koopmans et al., 2011).

2.3.5. Turnover intention

Employees plan to quit their jobs for various reasons (Mendis, 2017). Unlike actual turnover, turnover intention is vague, although it reflects the feelings of an employee towards an employer. Robbins and Judge (2015) claim that feelings or attitudes are complex, therefore, several fundamental components must be considered to understand them. Turnover intention is considered as the strongest determinant of actual employee turnover, which could be voluntary (employees resigning) or involuntary (an employer laying-off an employee from his/her position) (Joseph *et al*., 2007). Thus, it is important to study intentions because they can give useful indications on one's perception and judgements (Jha, 2014). Definitions of turnover intention date to the 1990s, when Tett and Meyer (1993) defined this behaviour as the conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation. Thereafter, Sousa-Poza and Henneberger (2004) defined turnover intention as the subjective probability that an individual will change jobs within a certain period, and Lacity, Iyer and Rudramuniyaiah, (2008) claimed that turnover intention is the extent to which an employee plans to exit an organisation. All these definitions link to what Carmeli and Weisberg (2006) described as "withdrawal cognition process" – that is, employees go through three phases of withdrawal: Firstly, the thought of quitting the job; secondly, the intention to search for a different job; and lastly, the intention to quit.

Turnover intention has become a major challenge to business leaders and because of this, employers are beginning to give more attention to this employee behaviour (Ahmed *et al*., 2016). It is believed that high turnover emanating from turnover intention could slow down the employer and employee's performance as well as increasing recruitment and new employee training costs (Chen, Lin, & Lien, 2010). Intention to leave an employer may be caused by various reasons depending on different organisational styles. Jha (2005) stated that whilst no single factor can be attributed to turnover intention, factors such as leadership styles, demographic variables (age, marital status, etc), organisational culture, employee rewards, job stress and job satisfaction are the major determinants. Further to the above study, Tariq, Ramzan & Riaz's (2013) study focused on the potential effect of demographic factors such as age and culture on turnover intention. Their findings suggest that these factors impact actual turnover more in developed countries due to disparity in pay between genders, which could be because of differences in skills, responsibilities, and role types.

Scholars like Brown, Garino and Martin (2007) studied the positive aspect of employee turnover intention, and their findings suggest that employers could benefit from high turnover intention rate, resulting in a high turnover rate. For instance, incoming employees may be highly skilled and better educated, therefore contributing to an increase in organisational performance. Also, an organisation that loses mostly poor performing employees may have less cause for concern compared to those organisations that lose high performing employees. Thus, the above academic nuance suggests that the effect of a turnover intention on an organisation is dependent on the job performance of those who stay or leave, as initially studied by (Werbel & Bedeian, 1989). Other studies have attempted to link turnover intention with different variables such as (1) organisational effectiveness - the study claims that employers could witness a drop in turnover intention and an increase in business results if their focus turns to developing a good organisational strategy that engages the workforce (Khan *et al.*, 2012) and (2) burnout – the study claims that both variables were strongly inter-related and factors such as employee rewards, recognition, job control, feedback and participation were all factors that greatly influenced these behaviours (Scanlan & Still, 2019).

Building further on Scanlan and Still's (2019) study, it will be useful to understand whether certain types of employees or jobs may be predisposed to having a higher turnover intention, given the nature of their role and the sector they operate in. Also, employee rewards and age have been identified as some of the potential factors that influence this behaviour. This suggests that there are still many questions to answer about how, and to what extent these factors influence turnover intention – questions this research seeks to find answers to. The following section will discuss the relationship between monetary reward and these variables in detail.

2.4. Relationship between monetary rewards and selected employee behaviours

Numerous theories have influenced the way organisations manage employee behaviour (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Herzberg *et al*., 1959; Pritchard, 1969; Vroom, 1964). These theories try to explain the reason why employees behave in a certain way and recommend possible ways of improving behaviour in the workplace to remain competitive. Strategies such as incentives and increase in compensation packages have been adopted, but the question of whether such strategy has the potential of influencing employee behaviour has remained a reason for debate amongst scholars and HR practitioners for decades. The following sub-section will discuss some relevant early theories that has shaped the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviours.

2.4.1. Early theories of monetary rewards and employee behaviour

As previously mentioned, this sub-section aims to discuss some relevant early theories that have shaped the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviours. These theorists provide a background on the relationship between these variables, thus offering a supporting foundation for the research and conceptual framework.

2.4.1.1. Frederick Herzberg – Two-Factor theory

In the late fifties, Frederick Herzberg sought answers to burning questions such as the factors that influence employee behaviour through his Two-factor theory. His research employed two groups in which respondents were asked to describe a time they felt good or bad. Herzberg proposed two factors – Motivators (intrinsic), which encourages employees to work harder – achievement, recognition, responsibility and growth; and Hygiene factors (extrinsic), which does not cause satisfaction, but its absence could cause dissatisfaction – company policy, salary, remuneration, supervision and security (Herzberg *et al*., 1959). Although Herzberg's theory received criticisms, he is known as part of early scholars who set the foundation on past and current literature in areas such as employee rewards/compensation, employee motivation, satisfaction, productivity, and employee turnover within the academic and professional scenes. His research shed more insight into the attitudes of employees towards their jobs and a better understanding of elements that could improve job satisfaction in the workplace.

2.4.1.2. Victor Vromm – Expectancy Theory

Another notable early behavioural psychologist was Victor Vroom who developed Expectancy Theory. The theory is based on the premise that employees exhibit certain behaviours because of the reward attached to such behaviour (Vroom, 1964). That is, the amount of effort employees exert in an organisation depends on (a) the value of the reward from the outcome; (b) the likelihood that the reward will result from the outcome; and (c) the likelihood of attaining the outcome through actions and efforts (Nasri & Charfeddine, 2012). Within the theory, Vroom postulated three interconnected factors such as "expectancy", "instrumentality", "valence" and they must all be present to motivate employees effectively. The study further revealed that the value of rewards varies in individuals; thus, the theory could be used in predicting behavioural changes stemming not only from monetary rewards but also

changes in working conditions, use of overtime, relationship with supervisors etc (Warren, 1989). Vroom's theory has received support over the years, and it has helped HR practitioners in understanding the difference in employees' behaviour when it pertains to extrinsic reward (Lewis *et al*., 1999). The theory has also demonstrated that extrinsic monetary rewards could be a source of influence on employees.

2.4.1.3. John Stacey Adams – Equity Theory

Other notable scholars who theorised their findings was John Stacey Adams, who formulated the Equity theory in 1965. This theory has become one of the major formulations relevant to monetary rewards and employee behaviour and it is based on the principle that individuals are motivated by fairness. For instance, how individuals perceive their ratio of outcomes (rewards, promotion, recognition, and so on) to inputs (commitment, hard work, skills and so on) with their colleagues doing the same type of work (Pritchard, 1969). Employees could experience distress when they sense inequity, which could make them take drastic actions to restore it, such as decrease their inputs or demand higher monetary rewards (Walster, Walster, Berschied & 1978). Equity theory has been accepted in the workplace as scholars have applied it in areas such as equity perception and burnout (Schaufeli, Van Dierendonck, & Van Gorp, 1996). Likewise, some scholars have criticised it because of the perception of it providing little clarification on equity resolution (Buunk, 1995; Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). Overall, the theory has been regarded as the most explicit and rigorously developed theory of the relationship between monetary reward and OB (Mowday, 1979; Pritchard, 1976).

Building on past relevant theories of motivation to understand the relationship between both variables, recent studies have begun exploring factors that could influence present-day employee behaviour in the workplace, due to the need for organisations to retain their best talents from being poached by competitors (Cherotich, Chepkilot & Muhanji, 2015). A poor reward strategy is reflected by negative behaviour or lack of enthusiasm towards the business objectives, whilst a well thought out reward strategy encourages employees to be more efficient and more productive (CIPD, 2019).

Research into individuals' subconscious has discovered the distinctive way people respond to issues around monetary rewards. For instance, Healey and Hodgkinson (2014) discussed the term organisational cognitive neuroscience (OCN), which explores the relationship between

the biology underlying mental processes and behaviour in organisations. According to the scholars, OCN goes beyond classical theories of motivation by considering the role of neurophysiological processes as the drivers of individuals and ways the brain responds to the probability of receiving rewards, ways the reward is delivered (monetary or not) and the timing of such reward. Past empirical studies recorded mixed feelings about the relationship between both variables. Whilst some literature argued in favour of monetary rewards having an important impact on employee behaviour (Jenkins *et al.*, 1998; Kosfeld, Neckermann & Yang 2014), other scholars found that monetary rewards do not always lead to the desired results and may lead to counter-productive outcomes such as a decrease in trust and destructive competitiveness (Aguinis, Joo & Gottfredson, 2013; Christ *et al.*, 2008). Given the above, the following section will explore broadly the interrelatedness of monetary rewards and the five selected employee behaviours and highlight their linkage where possible.

2.4.2. Monetary rewards and Loyalty

Employees' loyalty refers to the extent to which employees are faithful to the organisation. Avey *et al.* (2012) suggest that loyal employees would have strong feelings of bonding and responsibility toward their companies. Not only do they plan to remain in the organisation, but they do not actively search for alternative employment opportunities and are not responsive to offers. Few scholars have found a positive relationship between monetary rewards and loyalty. Their studies show that inadequate monetary rewards could result in low employee loyalty and in the long-term, result in high employee turnover, see for example (Carraher, 2011; Golparvar & Nadi, 2010; Milman, 2003).

Contrarily, Johnson (1986) argued that the cost associated with labour turnover because of lack of employee loyalty was insignificant and employee loyalty could be overlooked. Johnson's study was met with criticisms, which led to Pfeffer (1998) studying the relationship between both variables. His findings showed that employees work harder for more money and meaning in their lives. Where these are absent, there is a greater loss of loyalty. Therefore, the study concluded that monetary rewards influence loyalty, but such a reward strategy should be used in combination with other reward initiatives to win employees' loyalty.

Despite some attention on the subject, monetary rewards and employee loyalty remain casually defined (Hart & Thompson, (2007). Consequently, several conceptual problems

persist in the literature such as limited literature on the possible impact of monetary rewards on employee loyalty, and the factors that could influence employee loyalty such as age.

2.4.3. Monetary rewards and Absenteeism

Early scholars such as Scheflen, Lawler and Hackman (1971) discovered that absence could be reduced by rewarding employees with monetary incentives when attendance is high, and withholding such reward when attendance is low. Jacobson (1989) studied the relationship between monetary rewards and absenteeism using paired sample t-tests. His study showed a significant decline in the rate of absence amongst his population of study after the introduction of an incentive plan. Also, past empirical studies showed a decrease in absence levels when performance-related measures such as bonuses and profit-sharing were introduced (Brown *et al*., 1999; Engellandt & Riphahn, 2004; Wilson & Peel, 1991). Hassink and Koning (2009) introduced a lottery-based bonus reward system to reduce absenteeism. The results showed statistically significant differences in absence patterns across groups of workers with different eligibility statuses depending on their attendance records and whether they had previously won. The result also indicated that absences rose among employees who became ineligible because of having won previously.

Contrarily, Stone's (1980) study disproved a link between both variables and that using money as a form of reward could have potential disadvantages, such as the inability to motivate chronic absentees who would have to alter their behaviour to be eligible for such reward. Stone concluded that absenteeism may not change much if employees become ineligible for a reward and such reward initiative could lose its effectiveness if it occurs. Further to the above, the relationship between both variables has received a lot of attention from scholars, albeit with mixed results. However, there are still many questions that are yet unanswered such as whether this relationship impacts certain job types, grade levels, sectors or even amongst certain age groups, questions this research aims to answer.

2.4.4. Monetary rewards and Employee satisfaction

Monetary rewards and satisfaction have gained scholarly attention over the decades and findings have revealed that both variables are related to each other. Scholars such as Lam, Baum, and Pine's (2001) study suggest that monetary rewards are important factors in predicting employees' job satisfaction and both variables are positively and significantly associated. Also, NL (2012) described monetary rewards as one of the satisfying variables that

reduce dissatisfaction amongst employees. Thus, an employee would be willing to work overtime if compensation is given. Yaseen (2013) studied medical professionals in the public sector to establish a relationship between pay and satisfaction and the result showed a strong and positive correlation between both variables. Whilst there have been records of a strong positive relationship, scholars such as (Brief &Weiss, 2002; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Wright & Kim, 2004) identified a positive but weak association between both variables.

Various empirical studies have recorded contrasting findings such as Herzberg (1966) whose finding revealed that monetary rewards do not provide satisfaction, but lacking money could cause dissatisfaction. Similarly, some findings revealed money would no longer affect an employee's satisfaction level after attaining a certain level of income or standard of living, which could be caused by differences in psychological needs, age demography or culture (Judge *et al*., 2010; Maslow, 1963; Stringer *et al*., 2011). Employee satisfaction and monetary rewards have gained considerable attention in the last decade. However, there are varying studies and findings have been met with mixed results, hence the need to contribute further to existing literature and discover new findings.

2.4.5. Monetary rewards and Employee performance

The introduction of monetary rewards has been suggested as a method of improving employee performance in the workplace (Young, 2001). Past empirical evidence showed mixed results about the effectiveness of monetary rewards on employee performance and proof that they do not always improve performance (Camerer & Hogarth, 1999; Gerhart & Milkovich, 1992; Jenkins, 1986; Jenkins *et al.*, 1998; Kohn, 1993).

More recently, new studies have emerged and the findings from Veling and Arts' (2010) study of failure rate amongst undergraduate students suggest that students' performances heightened at the introduction of monetary rewards and lowered when there was none. Other scholars' findings revealed that monetary rewards improved employee performance by 23 per cent (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003) and that monetary rewards could enhance employees' efforts and encourage them to perform well (Bijleveld *et al*., 2009; Locke & Braver, 2008; Waugh & Gotlib, 2008).

Gupta and Shaw (2014) gave a different insight into the relationship between both variables. The scholars whilst agreeing with previous studies on the importance of monetary rewards also argued from the point of employees exhibiting dysfunctional behaviours to obtain the reward. The scholars illustrated using the cheating scandal in the Atlanta school system. They argued that the school representatives involved carried out inappropriate activities to get the desired reward. Likewise, Samnani and Singh's (2012) study examined ways monetary rewards could lead to workplace bullying because of the need to outperform colleagues, which could be counterproductive. Given this, employee performance remains an open discussion academically.

2.4.6. Monetary rewards and Turnover intention

According to Mustafa and Ali (2019), the importance of monetary rewards in managing turnover intention has received considerable attention within management literature. Scholars such as De Gieter, De Cooman, Hofmans, Petermans and Jegers (2012) studied the relationship between monetary rewards and turnover intention from an organisational justice perspective. The scholars discovered that unfairly treated employees, that is, employees who consider the outcomes (e.g., pay, promotion, bonus) received from their employer as being inappropriate or unfair compared to their input or contribution, were more likely to nurse the intention to leave their employer.

Smith (2009) listed out twelve reasons why employees would consider leaving their employers. They include rude behaviour, work-life imbalance, inability to meet expectations, employee misalignment, feeling undervalued, lack of coaching and feedback, lack of decision-making ability, inadequate skills, organisation's instability, stagnation, lack of growth opportunities and lack of appreciation. It is noteworthy that monetary reward was not listed as part of the reasons stated by Smith. Empirical research conducted by A'yuninnisa and Saptoto (2015) on 183 employees in an automotive manufacturing company showed that the rate of turnover intention was significantly predicted by pay satisfaction and affective commitment, whilst a study on the effect of extrinsic, instinct and social rewards on turnover intention rate within the Islamic banking sector showed a significant correlation between both variables (Alhmoud & Rjoub, 2019).

Businesses have been experiencing a rise in turnover intention, leading to actual turnover year on year. A recent employee turnover rate survey showed an increase in employee turnover

in the UK manufacturing sector rise from 12.3 per cent in 2016 to 14.4 per cent in 2018 (Liu & Nevin, 2019). Although, the reason for the rise was not discussed. Similarly, Mendis (2017) studied non-executive employees in the logistic industry and the analysis indicates that turnover increases because of an inadequate compensation package.

The relationship between monetary rewards and the five selected variables have been widely researched by scholars, with varying views and conclusions. Some studies focused on various sectors and continents, which imply culture could influence the relationship, whilst some looked at ways demographical factors such as gender could affect the relationship of these variables. Although past studies have shown a relationship between monetary rewards and the selected variables, there is a lack of agreement about (1) the strength of the relationship, and (2) the possible influence a demographical factor such as generational cohorts could have on the relationship between these variables. Therefore, the following section will begin with a broad introduction of generational cohorts, relationships with the selected employee behaviours and its potential to influence the relationship between monetary rewards and the five selected behaviours.

2.5. Potential moderating effect? From the perspective of generational cohorts

Eyerman and Turner (1998) defined a generation as a cohort of people passing through time that come to share a common habitus, disposition, and culture. A function which provides them with a collective memory which serves to integrate the cohort over a finite period. Similarly, MacManus (1997) explained generational theory as cohorts of individuals born within the same timeframe, who develop same unique values, belief systems and peer characteristics, resulting in patterns strong enough to measure some level of predictability. Some generational theorists argue that whilst generational cohorts can be generalised and grouped into birth ranges, it will not be entirely objective to assume that an individual born at the tail end of one generation would have completely different characteristics or life experiences from individuals born at the start of the next generation (Markert, 2004; Rotolo & Wilson, 2004). Twenge and Campbell (2008) built on previous studies using psychological scales taken over eight decades and opined that differences can be generalised to the mean cohort level, which would allow for better understanding and making precise predictions about the tendencies of some archetypal individuals; not entirely dismissing the notion that some individuals attach themselves to the characteristics of other birth ranges.

Recently, HR practitioners have been discussing the importance of having different generations working side by side in the workplace. Toossi (2015) anticipates that 25 per cent of the workforce is projected to be over the age of 55 years old by 2024, and a common trend has been noticed that some employees remain in the workplace till their late 60s and 70s taking up part-time positions. Hence, the trend has resulted in accommodating five generations and creating diversity that could be beneficial in terms of unique perspectives and knowledge that each generation brings, or difficulty in managing different age groups due to their differing behaviours (Grensing-Pophal, 2018). Whilst there is no definite definition of the different generational cohorts, the workplace currently accommodates five age groups, also termed as generations within the workspac']#[1e namely: (a) Traditionalist (born before 1944), (b)Baby Boomers (born circa 1944-1964), (c) Generation X (born circa 1965-1980), (d) Generation Y (born circa 1981-1996) and the emerging post-millennials, (e) Generation Z (born 1997-2012) (Stewart *et al.*, 2017). For this research, the characteristics of four generational cohorts that account for most of the current workforce will be reviewed namely Baby boomers, Generations X, Y and Z.

2.5.1. Baby boomers (born circa 1944-1964)

Gursoy, Maier and Chi (2008) described Baby boomers as those born during or after World War II and raised in an era of optimism, opportunity, and progress. They are described as workaholics who are dedicated and rarely change jobs; they are regarded as 'employer loyalists', diligent, self-motivated, who expect promotion and adequate reward based on their seniority level and loyalty.

2.5.2. Generation X (born circa 1965-1980)

According to Hill (2002), Generation X or 'GenXers' as they are commonly termed, grew up in the '60s till late '70s and are termed as the "lost generation" due to exposure to a lot of day-care and divorce (Schroer, 2015). Where the families remained, parents of GenXers were workaholics, driven by personal gratification, authority, and status (Kane, 2019). Hence, employees in this age group tend to be individualistic (Sirias, Karp & Brotherton, 2007), they place less value on employee loyalty and would seek job opportunities at the slightest opportunity given (McGuire *et al*. 2007). Jorgensen (2003) also described GenXers as valuing autonomy and independence, determined and ambitious (Arsenault, 2004), and value freedom from supervision (Jurkiewicz, 2000).

Yu and Miller (2005) describe GenXers as likely to seek personal satisfaction and are more loyal to their employers; a result that was in contrast with later findings by some scholars who described GenXers as less loyal compared to the boomers and would take advantage of job opportunities elsewhere (Sirias, Karp & Brotherton, 2007). GenXers are perceived to maintain a balance between work and family and do not take up long hours because of money or title. They believe that work is only a portion of the quality of life they possess and seek to achieve (Grimes, 2015; Leibow, 2014).

2.5.3. Generation Y (born circa 1981-1995)

Popularly referred to as the "millennials" or Gen Y, Generation Y emerged at a time when information about the world and events became easily accessible through the introduction of technology, which includes computers, mobile phones, and the emergence of the internet. Gen Y is known to be more social and confident, generally less independent, and more inclusive (Gibson, 2013).

Gen Y is described to enjoy multi-tasking and enjoy exploring new approaches in solving problems. They are motivated by their need for a sense of purpose and would generally seek independent learning through online research (Wiedmer, 2015). They prefer to be rewarded monetarily for their performance and are more attracted to organisations that embrace technological advancements that would change the way business is carried out. Millennials are perceived to place high importance on job satisfaction and a basis for remaining with an employer, which contrasts with GenXers whose satisfaction relied on monetary benefits, such as an increase in pay, fringe benefits and bonuses (Anitha & Aruna, 2015). Gen Y is spurred to work harder when they are recognised and will not hesitate to leave an organisation if they do not feel challenged or valued (Logan, 2008; Weyland, 2011).

2.5.4. Generation Z (born 1997-2012)

Generation Z or "Gen Z" as they are termed are the newest entrants into the workplace. Born into the technological world and known as digital natives; this latest generation represents the population of today's students and future workers. Whilst limited academic research has emerged on workplace behaviour of this generation, HR practitioners and industry experts have attempted to describe this generation as realistic, excellent communicators (Francis & Hoefel, 2018), sober, industrious, socially awkward, timid, driven by money, risk-averse and more diverse (Wharton, 2019).

A recent survey was carried out amongst over 1,500 Gen Z individuals to resolve assumptions that often pass as conventional wisdom in recent articles. The survey sought to find answers to specific questions such as career aspirations and development, sectors this generation is drawn to, working style and behaviour, source of motivation, engagement, satisfaction and so on. The result showed that Gen Z prefers to work in industries that they interact within their personal lives; they desire diverse and entrepreneurial opportunities with the safety of stable employment and would be loyal to the organisation if offered this; they are more individualistic than team-oriented; money and salary matter the most to them, as well as perks and benefits (Gomez *et al.*, 2018).

The above broad introduction and description of the four generations in view have shed some light on their general traits and their disposition towards monetary rewards as a behaviour booster in the workplace. The following section will attempt to discuss monetary rewards and generational cohorts further and determine whether the cohort an employee falls under influences the relationship between monetary rewards and the five employee behaviours.

2.6. Generational cohorts as a moderating variable

Most scholars suggest that employee behaviour is influenced by adult development and work experiences across generations. However, what seems unclear is whether these behaviours differ greatly due to age within different generational cohorts. Rhodes (1983) identified 185 studies that attempted to address differences in work attitudes and behaviours due to age-related differences. Four of these studies indicated that preference for monetary rewards and other extrinsic rewards such as having friendly colleagues and supervisors increased amongst the older generation, whilst intrinsic rewards such as opportunities for growth increased amongst the younger generation. Hence, the following sub-section will explore the influence of generational cohorts on the relationship between the five selected employee behaviours and monetary rewards in broad terms.

2.6.1. Generational cohorts and Loyalty

Generational cohorts and its link to the relationship between monetary rewards and employee loyalty has received minimal attention over the years. However, only recently did Murali, Poddar and Seema (2017) explore this relationship. Their findings suggest that there is a possibility of the relationship between monetary rewards and loyalty being stronger with the introduction of generational cohorts. Concurrently, their findings showed that loyalty increased

amongst employees who fell within the older generations such as Baby Boomers and Gen X when monetary rewards were introduced.

As earlier mentioned, the effect of generational cohorts on the relationship between both variables have received limited attention academically especially regarding the newest generational cohort in the workplace – Gen Z. As a result, it remains an open discussion whether generational cohorts could influence the relationship between both variables.

2.6.2. Generational cohorts and Absenteeism

There is no dominant theory of absenteeism, in part because the surface similarity of the behaviour masks a wide variety of causes, for instance, absence due to sickness. It is assumed that employees who fall within older generational cohorts such as Boomers and some part of Gen X tend to be more absent due to poor health. However, findings have shown that although age is significantly related to poor health, there is a weak relationship between age and sickness absences (Ng & Feldman, 2013).

Some studies examined the relationship of demographic variables such as age and absenteeism and revealed reliable associations between age and absence, for instance, younger workers exhibit more absence (Hesketh & Cooper, 2014). Other findings have revealed no difference in the interaction effect of monetary rewards and absence levels based on age groups (Hassink & Koning, 2009). In conclusion, this area has received limited attention from academics, whilst several conceptual problems persist in the literature such as the moderating effect of generational cohorts on rewards and absenteeism.

2.6.3. Generational cohorts and Employee satisfaction

Generational cohort and its effect on monetary rewards and employee satisfaction have been widely studied over the years with varying results. Some scholars suggest that generational cohort is a strong moderating variable between monetary rewards and employee satisfaction, particularly amongst younger generational cohorts - at the time of their research, Gen Y was the latest group of employees in the workplace (Bashir *et al*., 2011; Ghazzawi, 2011; Okpara, 2006; Sokoya, 2000; Zaidi & Abbas, 2011).

In contrast, the research by (Adeogun, 2000; Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005) claim that generational cohorts have no significant effect on the relationship between both variables. In

conclusion, Generational cohorts and its effect on both variables have received considerable scholarly attention, particularly in older generations before Gen Z. With Gen Z now in the workplace, many questions have emerged in areas such as their general behavioural traits in the workplace, their motivations and whether monetary rewards impact on their satisfaction level and these have remained unanswered.

2.6.4. Generational cohorts and Employee performance

Darwin (2014) identified age diversity as one of the strategic capabilities that will add value to organisations over their competitors. Age, grouped into generational cohorts, is one of the most diversified demographic variables observed amongst the workforce of many organisations. Studies revealed that differences in age groups result in differences in cognition, personality, and motivational changes, which implies that the efforts made to achieve good performance levels differ amongst different generational cohorts (Truxillo *et al*., 2012). Truxillo *et al's* findings found that age correlates both with increased crystallized intelligence (implying greater wisdom, knowledge, and skills) and decreases in fluid intelligence (processing speed, working memory, and selective attention). Therefore, Guglielmi *et al*.'s (2016) study concluded that older workers need more effort to achieve higher levels of work performance when facing tasks based on fluid intelligence.

Recently, scholars have begun discussing the possible moderating effect of generational cohorts on monetary rewards and employee performance; however, a small amount of literature has emerged. Several conceptual problems persist in the existing literature such as inconclusive findings on the variables' associations and whether age indeed plays a role in the relationship between both variables.

2.6.5. Generational cohorts and Turnover intention

The relationship between generational cohorts and turnover intention has been studied for over 30 years. Werbel and Bedeian's (1989) study postulates that employee needs are likely to vary by age or the generation that they fall in; therefore, the effect of employees' intention to quit differ in generations.

Atiq and Bhatti's (2014) findings suggest a strong relationship between monetary rewards and turnover intention amongst different generational cohorts. According to the scholars,

employees within the younger – mid generational cohort feel a strong correlation between monetary rewards and turnover and would exit the organisation if they are not content with their remuneration package. Mendis (2017) findings corroborate past findings by confirming that generational cohort indeed had a moderating effect on both variables.

The various studies discussed above show that employees' behaviour have been of concern to organisations, and monetary rewards have been used over the years as a major motivation and performance booster. Scholars have studied this relationship within many sectors such as manufacturing, banking, education etc. with varying results. However, employees working in sectors such as adult social care are known to earn the NMW, with little additional monetary incentives attached to their pay, especially frontline care workers who are often referred to as "care assistants" or "carers". There have been recorded cases of high absenteeism and turnover levels within this sector, but studies have shown that care assistants often move between care homes but remain within the sector (Carr, 2014). Hence, this sector is of particular interest as to whether monetary rewards influence their behaviour, especially with the sector employing a range of care assistants across different generations.

Given the above, the following section will introduce and discuss the care sector in detail, followed by a streamlined review of each concept's (rewards, behaviours and generational cohorts) literature within the care sector. The section will conclude by examining the relationship of these bodies of knowledge and highlight their linkage where possible, which will then form the research's conceptual framework.

2.7. Overview of the adult social care sector

Adult social care (ASC), also known as the care sector in its entirety is a critical part of the UK's health economy and one of the biggest sectors that employ up to 1.88 million people in 39,000 different settings (Skills for Care, 2023). The sector contributes over £55.7 billion to the economy and it's the main deliverer of care and support services to the aged and vulnerable in the society (Skills for Care, 2023). ASC is split into different segments – from advice and guidance, childcare and early years, child protection, community work and day-care, housing, fostering and adoption, occupational therapy, support and independent living, youth, and community work to residential and nursing care.

ASC, unlike healthcare, is somewhat different in the four nations that make up the UK. Social care has witnessed major changes since the devolution settlement in the late 1990s. Scotland and Northern Ireland's (NI) social care system has been administratively and legislatively devolved since 1998, whilst that of Wales legislatively devolved in 2006. This devolution saw social care in these nations develop positively in different ways, with England lagging and awaiting a long-promised social reform. To ensure that the sector is well regulated and meet the required care standard, each nation's social care system is inspected and regulated by a dedicated regulator. For instance, the Care Quality Commission (CQC) ensures that social care providers in England adhere to laid down standards, the Care Inspectorate Wales (CIW) is responsible for Wales, the Care Inspectorate (CI) is responsible for Scotland and the regulation and Quality Improvement Authority (RQIA) is responsible for quality standards in NI (Oung, Schlepper & Curry, 2020).

Social care funding varies in the four nations of the UK. In England, Wales and Scotland, local authorities (LA) organise for care and fund care for those who cannot afford it. They also step in to help self-funding individuals who may require assistance. LAs fund social care through grants from the central government and local fund-raising mechanism such as council taxes (Parliament, 2010). Unlike the remaining three nations, NI's social care fund is integrated with health care under-five health and social care trusts. As such, the provision of continuing healthcare is organised directly by the health and social care trust and does not represent an additional source of revenue (Oung, Schlepper & Curry, 2020).

As previously mentioned, ASC is considered one of the largest employing sectors in the UK with a total number of 1.88 million people. The sector employs up to 1.52 million people in England (Skills for Care, 2022), over 84,000 people in Wales (Socialcare Wales, 2022), over 160,000 in Scotland (SSSC, 2022) and over 115,000 people in NI (Hseni, 2022). Social care is considered an important service and as such, its workforce is a key determinant of both quality and cost. Around two-thirds are paid the minimum wage, and the sector relies significantly on overseas recruitment. Given the above, this section and the remainder of this paper will refer to adult social care as "care sector" and will focus on employees who are referred to as "care assistants" or "carers" and who work within the residential and nursing care homes segment of the English care sector.

2.7.1 Overview of the care sector in England

A recent report by the CQC highlights the need for people to get high-quality health and social care when they need it, as the growing population depends solely on it. Demand for residential and nursing homes is rising exponentially, and it is projected that the rise would carry on for decades to come (Mckechnie, Virdee, & Cohen, 2018). As the demand for this service increases, there has been challenges in delivering safety and quality care to those who need it due to the decrease in government funding across the entire care system in England. A report by the Competition and Markets Authority (2017) estimates the sector to worth around £15.9 billion per annum with around 410,000 residents. Furthermore, the report estimated over 5,000 different providers operate over 11 thousand care homes for the elderly, whilst 95 per cent of the beds are provided by independent care providers.

As the population continues to age with a greater incidence of age-related illnesses, demand and types for care increases and changes. The ONS predicts a surge of over 85s and estimates a 35 per cent increase within this age group between 2015 and 2025, thereby increasing the demand for adult care homes (Storey, 2018). Despite a potential increase in the demand for care homes due to the rise in the ageing population, profit levels of private providers are expected to shrink soon due to the industry structure. Providers are witnessing a decline in profits due to reduced fees paid to care homes. For this reason, sourcing, and remunerating employees, especially care assistants have become an issue and care homes have begun experiencing a surge in turnover rates estimated at 32.1per cent between 2016 and 2017(Whitney, 2019). Currently, there are over 1.79 million care jobs in care homes, of which over 1.25 million of the total figures are ancillary and direct care roles. Furthermore, the "care assistant" role was by far the most common job title within the care sector, accounting for 53per cent of the entire jobs in the sector in 2019/20 (Skills for Care, 2020).
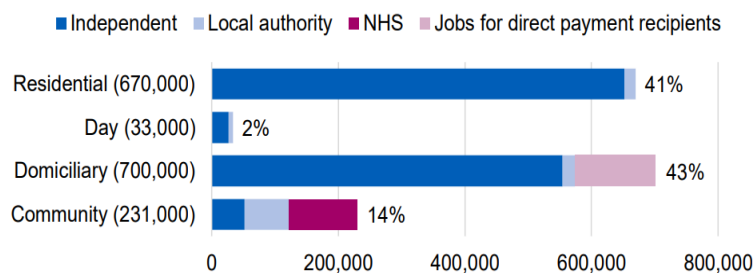
Figure 2.1: Workforce estimates by employing care services (Skills for Care, 2023)

Retention within this sector is particularly low. The sector briefly witnessed a fall in vacancy and turnover rates during the COVID-19 pandemic as people who lost their jobs in other sectors took up care roles. As the economy began to pick up post-pandemic, vacancy and turnover rates rose back to its pre-pandemic levels at 10.6% due to the economy opening and the availability of jobs in other sectors. (Skills for Care, 2023) Vacancy and turnover rates within the care sector reduced in April to 30% due to the influx of international workers; however, with the number of vacancies in other sectors reducing, it has become difficult attracting people into care. The figure below shows the correlation of vacancy rates with the number of available jobs in the wider economy. It demonstrates that the more available jobs in other sectors, the fewer care roles being filled (Skills for Care, 2023).
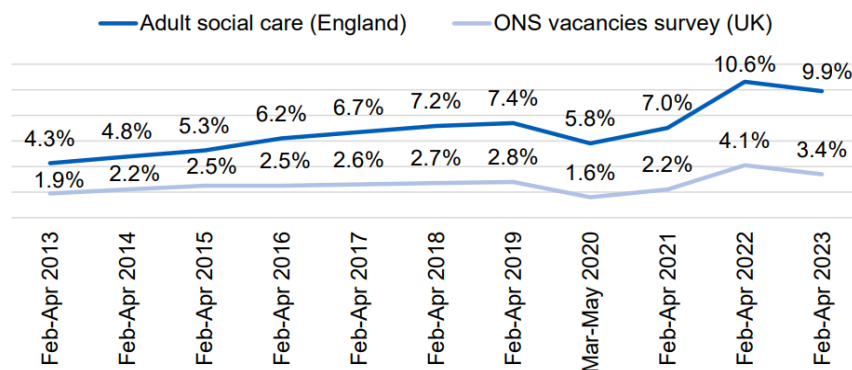
Figure 2.2: Care sector vacancy rate compared to the wider economy (Skills for Care, 2023)

Care Quality Commission (2023) recorded that 87% of care home providers reported workforce pressures having a negative impact on admitting new residents. Part of the reasons recorded for the pressure was due to the unattractive working hours, low remuneration and stressful working conditions. Likewise, there are fears that with the government not taking cognisance of the current state of the sector and the shortage of funding, there could be fewer care assistants due to the deplorable state of working and pay conditions within the sector. It is estimated that there could be a 14per cent workforce gap by the end of the current parliament. (Franklin & Brancati, 2015). Given the above, the following section will discuss the effects of the five employee behaviours amongst care assistants within the care sector.

2.8. Employee behaviours within the care sector

The care sector is unique in the sense that unlike other major sectors, many care assistant roles in this sector do not always need qualifications or previous work experience before venturing into these roles. However, due to the sensitivity of the role, what is perceived as important is having the right values, behaviours, and attitude to work especially with people who need the required care and support. Skills for Care emphasised the need for individuals working in this sector to have the right values as these apply to all aspects of life and influences how the carer behaves in the workplace. Academic scholars have researched these five behaviours broadly as covered in previous sections. However, this section aims to explore the five behaviours in detail amongst care assistants within the care sector context.

2.8.1. Employee loyalty in care homes

Employee loyalty has received limited attention within the care sector, especially amongst care assistants. Care home providers are increasingly required to engage in multidisciplinary activities and ensure the highest level of residents' care, which requires high levels of loyalty from employees, particularly care assistants who have a one-to-one relationship with residents (Tucker et al., 2007). Thannhauser et al. (2010) discussed the challenges employers face in improving loyalty amongst employees within the care sector, as a decline in this behaviour could be detrimental to residents' care, which eventually impacts on the organisation's reputation and profit.

Scholars such as Johnson et al. (2016) attribute employee loyalty as a positive behaviour. However, such behaviour could be affected in dysfunctional and challenging work environments, which could be due to stress, poor remuneration package, unsupportive manager/work environment etc. The scholars further claimed that loyal employees may be forced to choose between being loyal to their employer or jeopardising their personal well-being. Hart and Thompson's (2007) study focused on employee loyalty amongst Nurses within the healthcare sector and attempted to understand employee loyalty amongst the Nurse population. The scholars classified loyalty within their sample into two types - relational and transactional loyalty. They explained relational loyalty as being determined by relationships based on the expectation the employee has of the employer in their interactions together. This type of loyalty is aligned with ethical behaviour, and it may require the care worker to forego potential gains to ensure their loyalty to their employer. On the other hand, the scholars

explained transactional loyalty as a psychological contract whereby the employee remains loyal when an essential need is met. The scholars' findings remained inconclusive.

Questions are beginning to emanate as to the effect of employee loyalty amongst care assistants, whether care assistants exhibit loyalty because of the love for their job or because of the work environment and employee rewards provided by their employer. Although employee loyalty has been an important topic amongst academic scholars and industry experts for decades, this area of research has received limited academic cognisance particularly amongst care assistants working in the care sector.

2.8.2. Absenteeism in care homes

According to Burton (2010), a care assistant's performance is central to the success of any care home business. Therefore, absenteeism could impair such performance and become costly to the business. Various scholars have attempted to study the effect of absenteeism in the care sector. Scholars such as Dhaini, Zuniga, Ausserhofer and Simon (2015) researched absenteeism and presenteeism amongst care assistants in nursing homes. The result indicated that whilst absenteeism showed no relationship with the work environment, presenteeism correlated with high leadership issues and staffing inadequacy. Aronsson and Gustafsson (2005) attempted studying the absenteeism amongst care assistants and in tandem with Dhaini *et al*, the scholars discovered that presenteeism was more prevalent amongst care assistants than absenteeism.

Absenteeism was studied from a "caregiver" to a "care recipient" perspective. Castle's (2013) study suggested that nursing homes where care assistants were assigned to the same resident had lower absenteeism level. The result of this study suggests that care assistants attached great importance to the nurturing of a resident and felt a sense of responsibility towards the health and wellbeing of such resident. Likewise, academic scholars have studied the correlation between work-related issues such as (1) staffing levels and absenteeism – which meant that care assistants were less absent due to a home's adequate staffing levels, thereby leading to a higher quality of service (Bowblis, 2011), and (2) poor performance and absenteeism – many independent care providers affirmed that absenteeism was the major cause of poor performance. Whilst 57per cent of respondents mentioned that they did not put up with poor performance as it would reflect negatively on their organisation, 43percent of

organisations surveyed admitted that they were forced to put up with poor performance because of absenteeism and being unable to source for alternative staff (Rubery et al, 2011)

Research evidence shows the prevalence of absenteeism within the care sector, which could be due to various reasons as outlined above. Evidence suggests that care assistants exhibit the "absenteeism - presenteeism" behaviour due to various reasons such as stress or fear of not wanting to lose their source of income as indicated in Castle's analysis. Whilst absenteeism has been widely studied especially absenteeism relating to sickness, there is still a need to understand how this behaviour impacts the care sector, especially unauthorised absence. This research will contribute to the existing literature by attempting to provide specific quantifiable data on unauthorised absenteeism and how it impacts the sector as well as whether such behaviour is prevalent amongst the generational cohorts under review.

2.8.3 Employee satisfaction in care homes

Hebson, Rubery and Grimshaw (2015) posited that despite the poor employment conditions within the sector, satisfaction level has been relatively high. The scholars suggest that this could be because of the perceived rewarding nature and the need to provide a selfless service for those in need (intrinsic reward). Rakovski and Price-Glynn's (2010) study revealed that despite the overall job dissatisfaction because of pay, majority of care assistants were still satisfied and willing to retain their jobs because of the care that they provide to residents. Similarly, McClimont and Grove (2004) and Skills for Care's (2007) survey of 3000 and 500 care workers respectively showed that care assistants enjoyed the flexibility of the job, caring for people and their relationship with care-recipients. Likewise, 88 per cent of care assistants reported that they were happy in their jobs.

Scholars such as (Atkinson & Lucas, 2013; Folbre, 2012; Palmer & Eveline, 2012) studied employee satisfaction and ascribed such satisfaction on gendered values - that is, the need for a particular gender especially women to become attached to "caring" and to take up such role selflessly without caring so much about the remuneration side of it. The scholars further suggest that employers could capitalise on this emotional logic to shape attachments in ways that could lead care assistants to shove aside any feelings of discontent about the poor financial rewards on offer. Atkinson and Lucas concluded that despite most care assistants reporting monetary rewards as abysmal, social norms and the innate "caring" nature of a particular gender leads care assistants to favour selflessness over any financial gains.

Also, Lyon's (2010) study suggests that there could be some perceived tension between "care as love and care as labour"- something that has become prevalent with the expansion of private care homes. Lyon's study tried to test the neoclassical economic theory of compensating differentials put forward by England and Folbre (1994), which studied jobs that had an intrinsic satisfaction, being offered a lower wage because they are performed for love. Results from the study suggested that whilst intrinsic reward may compensate for low monetary rewards, the theory failed to explain why there are high labour shortages if jobs were so rewarding.

2.8.4. Employee performance in care homes

Employee performance is a concern in the care sector. Industry experts attribute the cause to the overwhelming responsibility ascribed to care assistants (Electronicmar, 2020). Very few academic studies have emerged in the past on care assistants' performance within this sector. Bendak (2003) studied the impact of high workload levels and excessive fatigue on employee performance, especially when combined with a 12-hour shift. The result showed a positive correlation between the variables and employee performance. However, it was concluded that the 12-hour shift in isolation had little or no causal effect on low employee performance. Likewise, Care Quality Commission (2013) examined the impact of employee performance on quality of care. Results showed that whilst there was a positive correlation, the impact on care quality was minimal.

In later studies, Bannai and Tamakoshi (2014) developed further the work of Bendak and investigated the link between longer working hours (defined as over 40-hours a week), health outcomes and employee performance. The result indicated that all three variables were closely correlated. That is, longer working hours could lead to a depressive state, anxiety, sleep deprivation and coronary heart disease, eventually affecting an employee's performance. Similarly, Skills for Care (2015) studied further the impact of working longer hours on employee performance based on Bannai and Tamakoshi's research findings. New evidence suggests that employees who worked longer hours had increased fatigue and errors, reduced motivation, and reduced care quality. Whilst different variables have been measured with employee performance especially working hours, health and quality of care, there is still limited evidence of the impact of other variables such as monetary rewards or age on performance – a gap this research seeks to fill.

2.8.5. Turnover intention in care homes

Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth's (1978) work discovered the steps in the job leaving process. The scholars defined three steps known as thinking about leaving, intended to leave, and deciding to seek new employment. It is noteworthy that intention to leave is usually a predictor of actual turnover in any workplace. Various studies have examined turnover intention and have confirmed the reliability of this behaviour as a predictor of employee turnover, especially in care homes (Cowden, Cummings, & Profetto-McGrath, 2011; Hayes et al., 2012; Zhang, Punnett, & Gore, 2014). The scholars studied care assistants within care homes; results indicate that turnover intention was a significant predictor of employee turnover within one year of employment. Adopting the Cohen-Mansfield (1997) turnover model, a care assistant's decision to leave could be influenced by various factors such as physiological (health concerns), cognitive reactions (ill thoughts towards the employer), emotional reaction (personal factors/employment conditions) or external factors (job environment) (Gaudenz, De Geest, Schwendimann & Zúñiga, 2019). Rai's (2015) research considered other factors that could influence turnover intention such as role-ambiguity, role-conflict, and stress. The result from the findings indicates a significant correlation between these variables and turnover intention. This implies that care assistants are susceptible to think about leaving their current employment if they perceive some role conflict or ambiguity or when they experience stress from their jobs.

Skills for Care (2023) recorded a high turnover rate at 30 per cent amongst care assistants in care homes, with one-third of staff leaving within 12 months. The study further examined the factor affecting turnover intention and the variable(s) that influenced care assistants' tendency to leave their job. The result showed (1) distance – 32 per cent of care assistants who travelled more than 20km had a higher turnover intention rate than workers' who travelled for 1km. (2) contract-type – 33 per cent of care assistants' who had zero-hour contracts had a higher turnover rate compared to their colleagues on fixed hourly rates. (3) hourly rate – change in hourly rate was perceived to impact, although the relatively small changes had little impact on turnover intention rates. (4) home rating – home rating was perceived to have a high impact on employee turnover. Homes rated an outstanding or good had a lower turnover rate than those on low ratings. Having reviewed the selected behaviours within the care sector based on existing literature, it is safe to assume that these behaviours have been studied considerably and some conclusions made around other factors that could

impact these behaviours in care assistants within the chosen sector. However, there seems to be limited academic literature around monetary rewards and its relationship with the selected behaviours. Therefore, the following section will attempt to discuss this extensively.

2.9. Monetary rewards and the selected behaviours within the care sector

It is known from general research on monetary rewards and from specific studies of the care sector that pay practices have a significant impact on employees' behaviour, particularly absenteeism, satisfaction levels and turnover intention, which eventually leads to an actual turnover. Economic and OB experts assert that higher pay places employers in a stronger position relative to competitors – a model economists refer to as the "efficiency-wage" model. Economists and OB practitioners, working collaboratively argue that it may be rational for employers to pay a wage above that offered by competitors since higher pay and incentives can improve loyalty, increase satisfaction, employee performance and reduce absenteeism and turnover levels amongst care assistants in the care sector (Akerlof &Yellen, 1986; Rubery et al, 2011). Therefore, the following sub-sections will discuss the monetary rewards – employee behaviour relationship amongst care assistants within the care sector and establish a linkage where possible.

2.9.1. Monetary rewards and Loyalty

Employee loyalty has received limited attention within the care sector, especially amongst care assistants. Scholars such as Borzaga and Tortia (2006) explored the influence of incentives on workers' satisfaction and loyalty amongst over 2,000 workers within the public and private care sector. Their findings suggest that loyalty and monetary incentives/rewards are strongly correlated especially within the private sector, whilst workers within the public sector were least satisfied, irrespective of higher monetary rewards. Likewise, Carr (2014) studied employee loyalty within the sector and her research concluded that despite many care assistants earning a low wage with minimal or no qualification, loyalty levels are considerably high as evidenced in movements within the sector. The scholar attributes this to be due to most care workers having a primary desire to cater to vulnerable individuals compared to the remuneration package attached to it. An interesting observation about Carr's study is that majority of care workers seem to be more loyal to the sector than employers, which buttresses the point that the average care assistant would accept a job in the care sector because of their skills, characteristics and the need to help the needy than for reward reasons.

Given the above observation, industry expert, Blueleaf Care (n.d) discussed the issue of employee loyalty especially amongst employers in detail. The author described the incessant increase in staff shortages and ways employers could encourage employee loyalty. The author opined that employee disloyalty was due to lack of communication about career progression, remuneration package and the difficulty of accessing information about chances of progressing further in the role. Also, issues around training and development, and zero-hour contracts were mentioned as part of employee disloyalty amongst care workers. Although the discussion has begun about employee loyalty, there is still limited academic literature on this important behaviour within the care sector especially data and analysis that would show the real impact of monetary reward on this behaviour within organisations and the entire sector.

2.9.2. Monetary rewards and Absenteeism

Research has shown that high rate of absenteeism could represent a significant cost for a home, both financially such as high overhead costs and work disruption, and in employee performance terms such as reduced quality of performance, service levels and low morale (Croner, 2012). Therefore, organisations must adopt a strategy that aims to reduce absence levels wherever possible. A survey around absences suggests that care assistants in homes are more likely to be absent from work than central support colleagues in the same care home company (Pearce, 2001). Furthermore, a survey into employee absenteeism was conducted within the English and Welsh LAs to investigate the average number of absent days in the year. Findings showed a significantly high amount of absenteeism recorded especially in female workers compared to their male counterparts. The survey further highlighted the most recorded reasons for the high rate within this gender as the pressured nature of the job and stress due to other caring responsibilities in their homes. It is interesting to note that pay or monetary rewards were not mentioned as one of the reasons (Pearce, 2001).

Vadean and Allan (2020) studied the effects of the minimum wage increase on the care sector and employee behaviours. Whilst the scholars' findings found that the substantial increase in the minimum wage had a strong and positive effect on pay and employment within the sector, findings on the relationship between the NMW increase and behaviours such as absenteeism was not established. Kisakye et al (2016) investigated implementing a financial incentive regulatory mechanism whereby care assistants were rewarded for good attendance and recognised for their loyalty. Although the researchers reported the effectiveness of introducing an incentive scheme in the short-term, the scheme was hindered by the limited

capacity for long-term monitoring. A similar model was adopted in other countries such as Costa Rica, where monetary incentives intended for care assistants were diverted towards purchasing equipment. The scholars recorded a higher absence rate because of it.

Given the above, previous studies have highlighted the possible relationship between both variables, especially within the chosen sector and population. Although findings have identified a possible relationship, it is assumed to be a positive but weak and inconclusive relationship. For this reason, this research would attempt to investigate this relationship further and draw up a precise conclusion on the possible relationship. Additionally, the research would attempt to understand the relationship of both variables within the context of generational cohorts, which would potentially be beneficial to academics and industry experts.

2.9.3 Monetary rewards and Employee satisfaction

Scholars such as Mudor (2011) studied the relationship between monetary rewards and employee satisfaction amongst care workers and established a strong relationship between both variables. Adequate monetary rewards have been linked to employee satisfaction amongst care workers, which in turns leads to residents' satisfaction and increase in efficiency (Kitsios & Kamariotou, 2021). Scholars like Rossidis et.al (2016) also studied this relationship and concluded that satisfying care workers through monetary rewards is a powerful tool that could better motivate and increase productivity. The scholars through their study urged care providers to take advantage of the use of monetary rewards to help overcome problems that limit employee efficiency. Halldorsdottir et al. (2018) built on this premise and studied care workers satisfaction levels when there was a reduction in salaries and glitches in the payment system such as invalid payments and non-payments of various allowances. Their findings show that employee satisfaction reduced considerably thus, validating other researchers' findings on the relationship. To improve workers satisfaction levels, Rubel et.al (2020) proposes that a level of monetary rewards could be introduced, which in turn would improve the quality of service provided to residents.

2.9.4. Monetary rewards and Employee performance

The introduction of monetary rewards is assumed to be a major booster for employee performance in any workplace, including care homes. Thus, any monetary reward initiative that fails to improve colleagues' performance could be considered as an ineffective monetary

reward system (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2004). It is often presumed that low pay impacts directly on the quality of care received in homes because low pay is assumed to affect employees' performance (Carr, 2014). Previous studies have proved the importance of monetary rewards as the best reinforcer of employee performance and morale, but recent lack of funding within the care sector has made it difficult to develop and introduce robust monetary reward systems that could potentially improve performance (Oyira, 2010). Later studies by Oyira et al (2015) discovered monetary rewards having a positive impact on care workers' performance. It is noteworthy that the scholars' research did not study specific areas of monetary rewards, so it is difficult to generalise the efficacy of a specific type of financial reward on performance.

Scholars such as Owen et al (2014) attempted to understand the complex relationship between pay and performance and whether there was a direct causal relationship of increased pay to increased performance. The result of their research showed an inconclusive result. The researchers argued that although valuing employees could be expressed in monetary reward, it represents only a part of the overall organisation's relationship with their employees. Philpott's (2014) study assents with existing studies by reiterating the importance of increasing care assistants' pay. However, the scholar argues that a care assistant could be paid twice as much, but their performance could still be the same if working conditions remained the same.

The issue of whether monetary rewards influence employee performance has been received with mixed feelings, therefore returning inconclusive results. Majority of academic scholars who studied this relationship linked it to quality of care, as evidenced above. Although most of the findings showed a positive relationship, however, the direct causal relationship of increased pay to improved performance and quality care remains inconclusive. Given the above, this research will attempt to investigate the relationship between these variables and whether there is indeed a direct relationship between them. Likewise, understanding the role of age in this relationship could produce an interesting and insightful piece of work for academics and industry stakeholders.

2.9.5. Monetary rewards and Turnover intention

There are concerns that low pay levels in care homes could be strong determinants of an employee's intention to leave (Vadean, 2018). The care sector experiences high turnover intention rates, which ultimately lead to turnovers, especially amongst care assistants. The current turnover rate falls at 30 per cent, which equates to roughly one in three care assistants

would leave their employer within the year. The scholars identified three main reasons for this high turnover intention rate, of which unattractiveness of employees' pay and rewards were one of the reasons (Franklin & Brancati, 2016). Various scholars have studied the effect of other variables other than monetary rewards on turnover intention within the care sector such as burnout (van Daalen et al. 2009), emotional exhaustion (Blankertz & Robinson 1997) and tardiness (Halfhill et al. 2002). The findings indicate a positive association between turnover intention and these variables.

In a recent healthcare article by Chon and Kim (2020), the scholars studied various reasons for turnover intention amongst care assistants in social care. Their study got insight from 19 care assistants, and this revealed four main underlying reasons, of which demanding working conditions and low pay were the two most identified reasons. The scholars recorded a poor relationship between the care assistants and their supervisors, and the inappropriate /unfairness meted by their managers. Other scholars such as Dill & Cagle (2010) analysed the prevalence of privatising care homes and ways for-profit providers tend to maximise their profit by keeping employee monetary rewards to a minimum. The scholars further postulated that irrespective of the low pay, these providers ensure care assistants receive demanding workloads, which eventually lead to employees intending to leave to better-paying organisations or jobs.

Gieter and Hofmans (2015) attempted to challenge the assumption that monetary rewards influenced turnover intention and hypothesised that there could be individual differences in ways monetary rewards could affect an employee's intention to leave. The scholars surveyed over 179 workers and their findings found a unique relationship pattern between financial, material, and psychological pattern between both variables. It is noteworthy that whilst various academic scholars have found some correlation between monetary rewards and turnover intention, Skills for Care (2018) found no evidence of the NLW (employee pay) having a large impact on turnover intention within the sector.

2.10. Generational cohorts within the care sector

There are four generations currently active and working alongside one another. As social care is characterised by the ageing workforce compared to other parts of the economy, retirement could become a significant factor (Skills for Care, 2015). Later studies show that majority of the older generational cohorts are opting to either work longer, defer their

retirement, or revert to part-time contracts, which continuously changes the workforce's composition and dynamics (Skills for Care, 2017). Workforce data from Skills for Care (2020) breaks down the percentage of care assistants working in care homes by their generational cohorts as follows: Baby Boomers- 7 per cent, Generation X- 31 per cent, Generation Y- 37 per cent and Generation Z – 24 per cent. Likewise, the average age of a care assistant was estimated at 40.6 years whilst the average age of a person starting their career in social care was 33.6 years. The data above reveals that many frontline care assistants in care homes are concentrated around Generations X and Y, with Generation Z being the emerging cohort. Additionally, the data tends to suggest that the role attracts older generations, which could be due to the qualities and characteristics attributed to different generational cohorts. For instance, Lipman, Manthorpe and Harris (2018) believes that age plays a role in the perceived character of the care workforce. According to the researchers, there is a commonly held view that life experience is one of the most valuable qualities a care assistant brings to their role, which could as well be termed as experience in both care work and life generally – an experience that is assumed to come with age, which younger workers might lack.

The changing pattern for the demand for care suggests that age/generational cohorts of the workforce would need to be addressed. Considering this, social care is becoming an attractive sector to the newest generation – Gen Z. Additionally, the English government has continuously sought to encourage Gen Z to take up the care role by introducing employment programmes such as Health and Care Apprentices, introduced in 2012 (Gov, 2012) and Care Ambassadors (Skills for Care, 2011). Industry stakeholders report that the upcoming rise in Gen Z within the sector could be due to recent strategies adopted by independent care providers, which offers recent school leavers apprenticeship positions, thereby promoting the sector through learning and development (Barchester, 2020). However, there are arguments around the need to keep investing and making the sector open to older workers such as the baby boomers. For instance, an industry article by CIPD (2015) argued that the older generation of care assistants are less likely to change jobs, unlike the younger generations such as Generations Y and Z who are characterised as unstable in their jobs, especially for reasons such as reward, learning and development. A study conducted by Altmann (2015) mirrors the assumptions made in the CIPD article. The researcher added that younger generation workers are more likely to use their newly acquired skills and knowledge gained from their present employer to negotiate a better reward package with their proposed employer, whilst the older generation are needed to sustain the labour and overall market.

Lipman, Manthorpe and Harris (2018) carried out a study on the importance of age/generational cohorts in the care sector in England. Interviewing a total of 240 participants including caregivers, managers, care-receivers and their family members, the researchers were keen to understand the importance of age on care assistants' behaviour and quality of service to care-receivers. Various perspectives were recorded from (1) Care receivers and their families – this group favoured having older care assistants with some life experience, as they are perceived as more accommodating and less judgemental, whilst the younger generation care assistants were perceived to be less reliable, less sensitive, the likelihood of leaving to greener pastures (turnover intention) therefore providing a lower quality of care. (2) Caregivers – Some of the attributes identified by care assistants were empathy, life experience, emotional stamina, and the ability to carry out a practical task, which older generation (Baby boomers & Gen X) care assistants believe that their younger colleagues lack. (3) Managers – also, managers echoed the need to have life experiences, which is assumed to come with age. Whilst some managers welcomed the emergence of the newer generation such as Gen Z and the positive, refreshing and can-do attitude that this group of care assistants bring, other managers believe that younger generation care assistants were driven first by the monetary rewards, and when this is no longer met, they leave the sector for better-paid jobs/sectors.

Overall, the researchers' findings concluded that age/generational cohort does matter in the care workforce. Furthermore, older generation care workers (baby boomers & early Gen Xers) were perceived to contribute positively to the quality of care because of their "life experience", empathy, common sense, and reliability. On the other hand, young generation workers (Gens Y &Z) were perceived to have the capacity to pick up new ideas and practices quickly, younger workers were associated with high turnover intention, leading to high turnover, poorer continuity of care, leading to lower quality and more driven by the monetary rewards aspect.

2.10.1. Generational cohorts as a moderating variable

Whilst various academic scholars have linked generational cohorts with the selected employee behaviours as mentioned in previous sections, Lipman, Manthorpe and Harris's (2018) findings highlight the importance of resisting the urge to characterise staff by age or the generation they fall under. Furthermore, their findings showed that age or a generational cohort play a role in the perceived character of a carer and the quality of care they give. Evidence gathered from some managers of care homes suggests that age or a staff's generation was

irrelevant in determining whether such staff would be loyal, absent, satisfied or perform optimally. However, there was a consensus amongst managers that younger workers who fell within Gen Y&Z recorded more turnover intention, which later resulted in actual turnover due to pay levels and general working conditions.

Given the above, there is still little academic evidence to suggest the link between generational cohorts and the five selected behaviours in response to monetary rewards. The researcher is keen to develop insights from Lipman, Manthorpe and Harris's research further to conclude as to whether generational cohorts could indeed be a moderating variable between monetary rewards and the five employee behaviours amongst care assistants within the care sector.

2.11. Development of a conceptual framework

Various scholars in the past decades have discussed monetary rewards and its effect on the selected employee behaviours. However, issues regarding monetary rewards and the five selected behaviours have received limited scholarly attention amongst frontline care assistants in the care sector in England. Additionally, research has shown that the care sector is one of the highest recruiting sectors in the UK with diverse generations of care assistants working side by side. Therefore, moderators such as generational cohorts have received limited scholarly attention particularly Gen Z who are the newest entrants in the workplace, hence the need to contribute to existing research.

Building on the above review of existing literature on monetary rewards, generational cohorts and employee behaviours, a research conceptual framework is proposed to depict all the variables discussed and to test whether the strength of the relationship between monetary rewards and the five behaviours could be influenced by generational cohorts because of an interaction. This is particularly important as the framework would help connect all variables and establish possible relationships between them. For this research, the framework below considers monetary rewards as the independent variable, generational cohorts as the moderating variable and the five selected behaviours as the dependent variables.

The research will be split into two parts as follows:

- Part One will explain and test the relationship between the independent, dependent, and moderating variables.
- Part Two will attempt to explain and elaborate more on the findings from the first part.
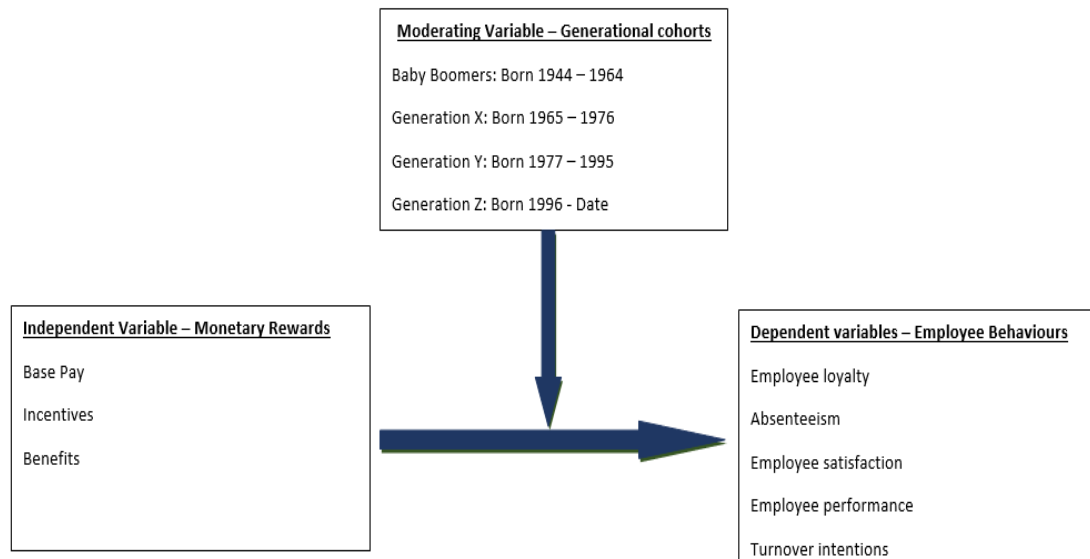
Figure 2.3: Conceptual framework

2.12. Summary

The chapter began by reviewing existing literature on monetary rewards, the five selected employee behaviours and generational cohorts by introducing and discussing these variables in broad terms. Thereafter, a streamlined review of these variables amongst care assistants and the care sector. The study of the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviours dates to the early fifties with various scholars attempting to link these variables, with some variables having a higher correlation than others. However, it was observed from reviewed literature that the interrelatedness between the three variables has received little academic attention particularly amongst care assistants working in care homes.

Existing literature has shone light on the fact that four active generations are currently working alongside one another in the care sector, and there is the need to understand what influences their behaviour, and ways to improve these behaviours that are considered important to the success of any organisation. Past scholars have studied the possible relationship between monetary rewards and these behaviours amongst different age groups; whilst empirical findings have shown varying results of the strength of their relationship, these findings remain inconclusive. Therefore, this research aims to contribute to existing research, by seeking to understand the relationship between the independent, dependent and moderating variables, and to understand whether care assistants in care homes are influenced by the pay that they receive or the genuine care that they render. The following chapter will discuss in detail the various philosophical approaches and the rationale underlying the proposed methodology will be clarified and further discussed.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

Different authors, including Blumberg, Cooper, and Schindler (2014), Bryman and Bell (2015), and Creswell and Clark (2018), have proposed various definitions of research methodologies. However, they all concur that a research methodology refers to the specific technique employed to identify, select, and process information related to a particular field of study. Research methodology is complex as it integrates existing theories and philosophical foundations into a coherent and relevant piece of information. This chapter provides a detailed discussion of the research methodology used to investigate the potential relationship between monetary rewards and five employee behaviours, specifically among care assistants in the care sector. It also examines whether age/generational cohorts have a moderating effect on this relationship.

The chapter introduces the research assumptions, philosophical stances, and their relevance to the field of study. Burrell and Morgan (1979) argue that researchers make various assumptions throughout the research process, whether they are aware of them or not. These assumptions can be related to human knowledge (epistemological assumption), the realities encountered during research (ontological assumption), or the influence of one's own values on the research process (axiological assumption).

The research will be conducted in two parts, using a mixed method design that combines quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques. This approach aims to develop a theory on the relationship between monetary rewards, employee behaviours, and generational cohorts. By utilising both methods, any inconsistencies between the quantitative data results and qualitative findings can be better understood. The subsequent sub-sections will provide a detailed discussion of these concepts.

3.2. Research philosophy

Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, and Lowe (2008) emphasised the significance of philosophical assumptions in research methodology. These assumptions play a crucial role in guiding the research process, informing the research design, and prompting researchers to reflect on their worldview. This reflection ultimately influences the choice of strategy and methods for investigation. Remenyi et al. (1998) also highlighted important questions that researchers need to consider, including "how to research," "what to research," and most importantly, "why research?" The scholars suggest that the choice of research topic can be influenced by factors such as the researcher's personal interest or a perceived gap in the existing literature. While it is possible to determine research techniques before starting the research journey (answering the "how to research" question), understanding the reasons for conducting research (the "why research" question) requires a deep understanding of philosophical perspectives. This understanding is based on two dimensions: the nature of society and the nature of science.

Building on the study by Remenyi et al. (1998), Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2016) define research philosophy as a set of beliefs and assumptions regarding the generation of knowledge. It encompasses the researcher's approach when undertaking research in a specific field. Collis and Hussey (2014) examined five philosophical elements, including Ontology, Epistemology, Axiology, Methodology, and Rhetoric. In contrast, Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, and Jackson (2008) and Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2019) focused on four elements commonly utilised in recent research studies: Ontology, Epistemology, Axiology, and Methodology. However, two of these assumptions, namely Ontology and Epistemology, have been widely accepted and have received significant attention from academic scholars and authors (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Collis & Hussey, 2014; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Jackson, 2008; Saunders et al., 2019; Walliman, 2016). In this chapter and research, a review of these two widely accepted assumptions will be conducted as they represent the most logical choices.

3.2.1. Ontology

O'Gorman and Macintosh (2014) define ontology as the study of how reality is perceived and understood, particularly in relation to research objects. It encompasses an individual's perspective on reality and what is factual. Ontological issues revolve around the existence of different entities within society. In science, the fundamental question is about the true nature of things, while a prevalent question today focuses on whether social entities like

organisations can be objectively considered as having a reality separate from social actors (people). Saunders et al. (2015) discussed two ways of viewing the world: objectivism and constructivism. Thus, a researcher's ontological choice depends on the nature and objective of the study, as well as their own judgment.

Objective ontology, also known as objectivism, believes that social phenomena exist independently of social actors. This means that social phenomena have a meaning and existence that is not dependent on the individuals associated with them. According to this perspective, social phenomena are objective and can be verified by any observer (Pasian, 2016). In contrast, constructive ontology or constructivism argues that social phenomena are constantly changing because they are shaped by ongoing social interactions (Bryman, 2004).

To address the research questions, the researcher acknowledges that the chosen research topic, which aims to examine the impact of monetary rewards on employee behaviours among multigenerational care workers, is sensitive and may yield subjective findings based on the participants involved and their circumstances at the time of participation (such as receiving a recent bonus or pay raise prior to completing the survey). Past empirical research has shown that employee behaviours can be influenced by changes in monetary rewards. The researcher acknowledges that the sample data collected from care workers can provide valuable insights into the research area. It is also important to note that the researcher's industry expertise and personal views may influence their perception of reality. Therefore, considering the nature of the research, a constructivist ontological approach is adopted to navigate subjective thoughts and emotions that are challenging to perceive logically.

3.2.2. Epistemology

The epistemological assumption, as described by Burrell and Morgan (1979), pertains to the nature of knowledge, including what is considered acceptable, valid, and legitimate knowledge, as well as how this knowledge is interpreted and communicated. Scholars like Crotty (1998) and Walliman (2016) also refer to this assumption as an exploration of how knowledge is acquired and what is considered valid, emphasising the relationship between the researcher and the subject of study. Different reliable designs and tools, such as numerical data and interviews, can be considered valid in determining how one can know reality (Collis & Hussey, 2014; Saunders et al., 2019). Over the years, academic scholars have established two

ways to determine the credibility of knowledge: positivism and interpretivism (Ayer, 1959; Crotty, 1998; Miller, 1999; Sarantakos, 2005). Recently, pragmatism has also gained recognition in academia (Saunders et al., 2019). In the following sections, these epistemological paradigms will be discussed in detail.

3.3. Research paradigms

Collins and Hussey (2013) define research paradigms as assumptions about the nature of knowledge and the validity of knowledge acquisition in relation to the phenomenon being studied. Researchers often bring their own beliefs and perspectives into their research. However, Hood (2006) and Saunders et al. (2019) argue that many researchers may not align completely with a single paradigm due to their own beliefs and assumptions. Therefore, it is important to study different paradigms and choose the most suitable one based on the research objectives. Orlikowski and Baroudi (1991) classified research paradigms into three categories: positivist, interpretivist, and critical paradigms. Recent scholars, including Saunders et al. (2019), generally agree with these paradigms, except for the third one, which has since been changed to the pragmatist paradigm. The research will adopt and discuss the paradigms proposed by Saunders et al. (2019) due to their widespread acceptance among scholars and in various research books.

3.3.1. Positivism

Positivism emphasises the significance of suggestions and is a philosophical stance that involves studying observable social reality to generate law-like generalisations (Saunders et al., 2019). This paradigm primarily relies on scientific empiricist methods, aiming to obtain objective facts unaffected by human bias. It assumes that only factual knowledge obtained through data collection and precise measurement is reliable (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Positivists hold the belief that there is a single reality or truth (ontology), and that knowledge can be quantified (epistemology). Adopting an extreme positivist position implies that organisations and other social entities are perceived as real, like physical objects and natural phenomena. Existing theories rely on a deductive approach, advocating the use of quantitative methods and hypothesis formulation. These hypotheses can be tested in whole or in part, leading to the further development of theory, which can then be tested through additional research.

Therefore, this paradigm concludes that knowledge is derived from overall human experience (Collins, 2010).

3.3.2. Interpretivism

Myers (2009) posited that the interpretivist paradigm asserts that reality can only be accessed through language, consciousness, shared meanings, and instruments. Similarly, Saunders et al. (2019) argued that the interpretivist approach highlights the distinction between humans and physical phenomena, as humans actively construct meanings. They further contended that studying human beings and their social worlds within interpretivism necessitates a different approach than studying physical phenomena due to variations in cultural backgrounds, circumstances, and the creation of diverse meanings over time. Therefore, research should aim to develop a comprehensive understanding and interpretations of humanity. Consequently, Saunders et al (2019) concluded that interpretivism, with its emphasis on complexity, richness, multiple interpretations, and meaning making, is inherently subjective.

3.3.3. Pragmatism

Pragmatists argue that concepts are only useful when they contribute to action (Kelemen & Rumens, 2008). Pragmatism aims to reconcile objectivism and subjectivism, facts and values, and different experiences by considering theories, concepts, data, hypotheses, and research findings. It acknowledges that there are multiple approaches to conducting research and interpreting data, and no single method can provide a complete understanding of a topic.

Pragmatists prioritise practical outcomes. Researchers adopting this paradigm begin with a problem and aim to provide practical solutions that inform future practice (Elkjaer & Simpson, 2011). The authors concluded that pragmatists acknowledge the absence of a single perspective that can fully capture the entire picture and recognise the existence of multiple realities. The above statement suggests that pragmatists do not always rely on multiple methods. Instead, they choose methods that ensure the credibility, reliability, and relevance of data in order to advance research and effectively address research questions. In cases where neither quantitative nor qualitative methods can produce satisfactory results, researchers can turn to the pragmatist paradigm as an alternative.

The general presumption is that pragmatists have the flexibility to combine positivist and interpretivist perspectives in a study, allowing them to adjust philosophical underpinnings as the research progresses. While pragmatists are often associated with the mixed method approach, it is important to note that this research paradigm is not exclusive to this style of data gathering. Evidence from Bryman (2006) suggests that prior to the introduction of the mixed methods approach, researchers were using either quantitative or qualitative data, depending on their research perspectives. It is therefore crucial for researchers to provide strong justifications for their choice of epistemological paradigm based on research objectives rather than solely relying on research methods.

The researcher chose the pragmatist epistemological paradigm because of its dynamic and flexible nature. It rejects the idea of an abstract truth and acknowledges that there are multiple ways to generate knowledge. No single perspective can fully capture reality (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Based on the constructivist ontological belief that recognises social phenomena as constantly changing due to their dependence on ongoing changes in social interactions, adopting a pragmatist epistemology allows the researcher to use methods that are deemed suitable for addressing research questions at each stage of the research process. In investigating the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviours across different age groups in the study population, priority was given to quantitative data techniques. This decision was based on the ability to reach a larger number of respondents simultaneously, as well as the potential to gather enough relevant questions and responses for drawing a conclusive result. The qualitative data technique was used to enhance the clarity of responses obtained from the quantitative data, validate findings, and gain a broader understanding of the research topic. It also helped generate new insights and investigate real-life issues relevant to academics and industry stakeholders in the care sector.

In summary, this study reviewed three widely referenced paradigms based on the perceptions of various academic authors. The researcher found that research assumptions and paradigms are interconnected, and each research paradigm can have different characteristics depending on the adopted assumption. As a result, there is no definitive right or wrong approach.

3.4. Research design

According to Hunziker and Blankenagel (2021), the complexity and dynamic nature of the world makes it impossible for anyone to fully explain it. Humans are aware of their limited knowledge and understanding on specific topics, which motivates them to pursue further research. However, the process of researching the unknown can be challenging, as researchers may become overwhelmed by the abundance of information and conflicting perspectives, hindering their ability to find the desired answers. Therefore, a well-designed research approach is essential. Vaus (2006) defines research design as the researcher's chosen strategy and approach for integrating study components in a logical and coherent manner. Saunders et al (2012) defined the research design as a plan that outlines how the researcher will answer the research questions using specific research techniques A well-designed research plan addresses gaps in the researcher's knowledge and ensures that the chosen strategy will generate the desired answers. This section discusses different research designs and justifies the rationale for selecting a particular design based on the research's aim, objectives, and questions.

3.4.1. Adopted research design

Saunders et al. (2016) identified three common research designs used by business management researchers: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. The qualitative design is flexible and inductive, with theory developed from observing empirical reality (Collis & Hussey, 2014). It is best suited for exploratory research when researchers are trying to identify concepts and explain the nature of the problem (Shields & Rangarajan, 2013). Quantitative design, on the other hand, is more controlled and fixed. This type of design follows a deductive approach and is experimental in nature. The research process involves developing a theory and hypotheses based on existing knowledge, which are then tested through empirical investigation (Saunders et al., 2019). The researcher formulates hypotheses by breaking down concepts into researchable components. This design and approach follow logical reasoning, requiring the selection of appropriate research methods to confirm or refute the hypotheses (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Lastly, a mixed methods design combines qualitative and quantitative methods to address the research questions. This design combines both deductive (moving from theory to data) and inductive (moving from data to theory) approaches. It is used to make logical inferences and build theories about the world (Suddaby, 2006). This approach is proposed as a way of overcoming the limitations associated with qualitative and quantitative designs.

Saunders et al. (2012) identified several factors that influence the choice of research, including the research question(s), objectives, philosophical assumptions, and data type. Silverman (2013) also emphasised that there is no superior method of research, and it is crucial to align the design with the research objectives. Based on a constructivist ontology and pragmatist epistemology, the researcher opted for a mixed methods design, which combines the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative methods. Mixed methods research allows researchers to investigate different viewpoints and discover connections between intricate research inquiries. The quantitative design, as mentioned earlier, proved valuable in collecting extensive numerical data. This data was instrumental in formulating hypotheses and identifying potential correlations between monetary rewards and the five behaviours, while also considering the potential influence of generational cohorts on these variables. Consequently, this research design effectively addressed the research questions and objectives outlined in chapter 1.3. The qualitative design was adopted for conducting a detailed investigation and gaining a holistic understanding. Semi-structured interviews were used to gather rich data from the survey participants. The mixed methods design was beneficial for this research as it minimised researcher bias during the analysis and interpretation of the collected quantitative data from care assistants. Additionally, it provided a more comprehensive understanding of participants by revealing the underlying meaning behind certain survey responses through semi-structured interviews. The next sub-section will discuss the various types of mixed methods and determine the most suitable approach for the research.

3.4.1.1. Mixed methods design types

Mixed methods design has gained academic recognition over time. Methodologists have conducted research and classified different types of mixed method designs based on research disciplines. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2008) found over forty different designs representing diverse social science disciplines, which may be confusing and difficult to understand. Four designs, namely *Triangulation, Embedded, Explanatory, and Exploratory designs*, have been widely accepted and referenced in research textbooks and academic journals (Niglas, 2004; Brewer and Hunter, 2006; Creswell & Plano Clark 2006). Creswell (2006) further categorised these mixed method design types into two main categories: *concurrent* and *sequential*. Concurrent design involves collecting, analysing, and interpreting both data types simultaneously. While sequential design involves collecting, analysing, and interpreting data

in two distinct phases, using one data type to inform the other. The four different design types are explained in Table 3.1. below.

Table 3.1. The major mixed methods design types (Source Creswell, 2006)

Design Type	Variants	Timing	Weighting	Mixing	Notation
Triangulation	• Convergence • Data transformation • Validating quantitative data • Multilevel	Concurrent: quantitative and qualitative at same time	Usually equal	Merge the data during the interpretation or analysis	QUAN + QUAL
Embedded	• Embedded experimental • Embedded correlational	Concurrent or sequential	Unequal	Embed one type of data within a larger design using the other type of data	QUAN(qual) or QUAL(quan)
Explanatory	• Follow-up explanations • Participant selection	Sequential: Quantitative followed by qualitative	Usually quantitative	Connect the data between the two phases	QUAN → qual
Exploratory	• Instrument development • Taxonomy development	Sequential: Qualitative followed by quantitative	Usually qualitative	Connect the data between the two phases	QUAL → quan

3.4.1.2. Adopted mixed methods design - Explanatory sequential design

The researcher considered the research aim, questions, and objectives to select the most appropriate design. As stated in chapter 1, this study aims to investigate the impact of monetary rewards on employee behaviours (such as loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, performance, and turnover intention) of frontline care assistants. Additionally, it aims to explore the potential influence of these behaviours on different generations in the workplace. The researcher aims to determine if there is a relationship and if generational cohorts of respondents moderate this relationship. To achieve the objectives, the researcher recognised that using either quantitative or qualitative methods alone would not be adequate. This is because the subjectivity of the topic and various internal or external factors can lead participants to respond differently, including the influence of their affective state when answering survey questions (McCrae, 2018). However, combining both methods complemented each other and resulted in a comprehensive analysis. Therefore, it was crucial to incorporate both types of data as suggested by Green, Caracelli, and Graham (1989). Creswell (2006) referred to this design as the *"Explanatory Sequential Design,"* which is a two-phase mixed methods design that integrates quantitative and qualitative data in a single study.

The author explained that this design begins with the collection and analysis of quantitative data, placing a greater emphasis on this step. This is followed by the subsequent collection and analysis of qualitative data to support the findings from the quantitative analysis. Creswell (2006) also identified two variations of the Explanatory design: the *"follow-up explanations model"* and the *"participant selection model."* Both models begin with a quantitative phase followed by a qualitative phase. The follow-up model is utilised when the researcher requires qualitative data to clarify or elaborate on the quantitative findings. On the other hand, the participant model is employed when the researcher needs quantitative information to identify and purposefully select participants for a subsequent, in-depth, qualitative study.

The study adopted the follow-up explanations model, which is a variant of the Explanatory Sequential Design. It was divided into two phases: phase one focused on collecting and analysing quantitative data to gain a general understanding of the research problem, test the relationship between monetary rewards (independent variable), employee behaviours (dependent variable), and generational cohorts (moderating variable) based on the conceptual framework provided above. Phase two involved collecting and analysing qualitative data through semi-structured interviews. Monetary rewards and employee behaviours are subjective and emotive topics. Respondents may be biased, or answer survey questions based on their current emotional state. Thus, the researcher used the follow-up explanation model to further analyse and interpret the statistical results obtained from the quantitative analysis. This involved delving into participants' perspectives to gain a deeper understanding. The figure below provides an overview of the proposed research while the next section will review the adopted data collection method and provide the rationale for its selection.
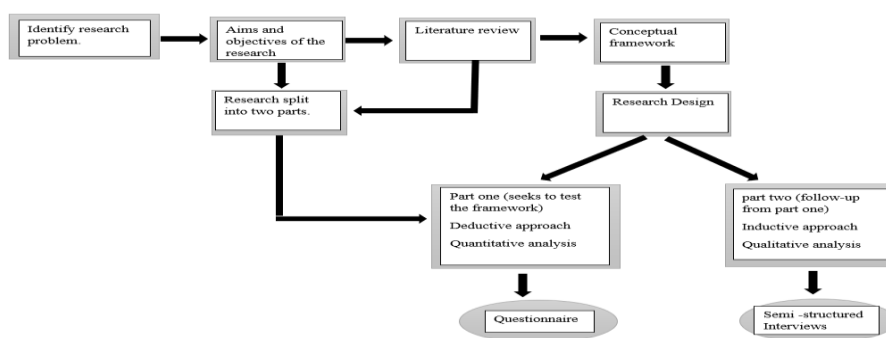
Figure 3.1. Proposed research design.

3.5. Sampling methods

Scholars such as Palys (2008) assert that there is no universally accepted sampling method as the sampling choice should be based on the research's aims and objectives. Fowler (2013) identified two kinds of sampling methods namely probability and non-probability sampling. The author defined probability sampling as being able to accurately determine the selection of participants in the population, whereas in non-probability sampling, the ability to accurately determine a selection of participants may be difficult. Therefore, there is a significant risk of ending up with a non-representative sample which produces non-generalisable results (Ben-Shlomo, Brookes, Hickman, 2013)

For this research, the researcher adopted the non-probability sampling method known as *Purposive sampling*. Creswell & Clark (2018) identified purposive sampling as one of the widely used sampling techniques for identifying and selecting individuals that are knowledgeable or experienced in the phenomenon of study. In addition to selecting participants with the required knowledge, scholars such as Lucas (2014) emphasised the importance of availability, willingness to participate in the research and share experiences as some of the key attributes of the sampling technique. As with other research techniques adopted in previous sections, the research aims and objectives were influential in selecting the sample technique. With over 700,000 care assistants in England (Skills for Care, 2023), it is impractical to gather data from the entire population. Therefore, the selected technique was considered the most suitable due to the difficulty of reaching everyone in the sample population. Additionally, the researcher adopted the *homogeneous sampling style*, which focuses on subgroups where all participants share similarities. The researcher acknowledges that the major limitation of the purposive sampling technique is its susceptibility to researcher bias due to poorly thought-out judgements or lack of clear selection criteria (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). To address this problem, participants with job titles such as "care worker", "carer" or "care assistant", who belonged to specific age groups, otherwise called generational cohorts, and who worked in care homes in England were the sample to ensure equal representation. This sampling method provided a more realistic and accurate estimation of respondents within each cohort which reduced sampling bias.

3.6. Data collection methods

The mixed methods approach, as discussed in section 3.4.1.1, is widely used due to its ability to collect, analyse, and interpret both quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously (Zohrabi, 2013). Bryman and Bell (2015) emphasise the significance of selecting the most appropriate data collection method based on one's research aims and objectives, as it is a crucial aspect of any research project. Business research textbooks offer a range of data collection techniques, such as observation, surveys/questionnaires, structured and semi-structured interviews, and focus groups (Blumberg et al., 2005; Bryman & Bell, 2015; Saunders et al., 2018). Nevertheless, Richards and Schmidt (2002) suggest that an effective research instrument should possess the characteristics outlined in Figure 3.2. The research aims and objectives guided the selection of data collection techniques. The explanatory sequential method as explained in section 3.4.1.2, was chosen for this study, with the use of survey and semi-structured interviews as the data collection methods. Only the selected instruments will be discussed, along with the rationale for their selection in examining the impact of monetary rewards on employee behaviours from a multigenerational perspective.

Figure 3.2: Characteristics of a good research instrument (Source: Teachers College, Columbia University)

3.6.1. Quantitative data collection method

Survey

Creswell (2013) defined survey design as the process of quantitatively describing trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a representative sample. The researcher then uses this sample to make inferences about the entire population.

Survey techniques can be classified into two main types: *cross-sectional* and *longitudinal*. Cross-sectional surveys aim to describe the incidence of a phenomenon and explore the relationship between factors in different organisations or settings. On the other hand, longitudinal surveys focus on studying change and development over an extended period by continuously or repeatedly monitoring any potential changes. (Creswell, 2013; Saunders et al., 2018).

Surveys are popular for their ability to collect large amounts of data from a sample in an economical way. They are typically administered through questionnaires (Groves et al., 2011; Lambert and Loiselle, 2007). This method of data collection has been extensively researched and scholars have highlighted several advantages such as the ability for the researcher to standardise questions and easily record responses (Bresee, 2014). It also provides a powerful means for selecting empirical data in a structured manner and it allows participants to respond at their convenience through various mediums such as mail, telephone, web, and structured interviews (Fautrel et al., 2016). Scholars such as Head et al (2013) found that surveys are a cost-effective and appropriate method for evaluating variables such as attitudes, behaviours, and perceptions. However, there are several disadvantages to using surveys. For example, they can be too long and complex, which may lead to boredom among respondents (Nardi, 2015), questions may be unclear or misinterpreted, leading to analysis or measurement errors (Bresee, 2014; Fowler, 2013), the misuse of categories can also result in measurement errors and finally, low respondent rates or inaccurate responses can compromise the reliability and validity of the survey (Cooper & Schindler, 2003).

3.6.1.2 Adopted survey technique

As mentioned in section 3.5.1, Creswell (2012) identified two types of survey techniques: cross-sectional and longitudinal. Cross-sectional surveys aim to describe the incidence of a phenomenon and explore the relationship between factors in different organisations or settings. On the other hand, longitudinal surveys focus on studying change and development over an extended period by continuously or repeatedly monitoring any potential changes.

The researcher adopted the cross-sectional survey technique in this study. This widely used survey design enabled the collection of data from a diverse group of individuals selected based on their age, job title, sector and location at a specific time. This approach was valuable

in gaining insight into the current perspectives of care assistants regarding the research topic and assessing their present attitudes and opinions on employee rewards and its impact on employee behaviour. This technique was cost-effective for gathering initial data to identify a potential relationship between monetary rewards (independent variable) and employee behaviours (dependent variables) across different age cohorts (moderating variable). The researcher found the technique versatile and suitable for both analytical studies, which explore how or why a certain outcome might occur, and descriptive studies, which summarise outcomes using descriptive statistics. Although there are benefits to using this survey technique, such as cost-effectiveness, the ability to collect data from a large pool of respondents, and capturing a specific time frame (Thomas, 2022), there are also limitations. These include the difficulty in establishing cause and effect relationships, the inability to establish long-term trends, and the potential for the timing of administering the survey to influence results and make them unrepresentative of behaviour. Despite these limitations, the researcher believes that the qualitative phase of the study, consisting of semi-structured interviews, will assist in clarifying and validating the findings obtained from the quantitative study.

3.6.2. Qualitative data collection method

Interviews

Interviews are a commonly used method for collecting data as they provide researchers with the opportunity to explore participants' views, experiences, and beliefs (Gill et al., 2008). They offer in-depth knowledge about a phenomenon (Wengraf, 2011) and allow participants to share their experiences and opinions on the research topic. Interviews can be *structured*, *semi-structured*, or *unstructured* (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Structured interviews involve asking participants a series of closed questions with predetermined answer choices. This interview style is relatively quick and easy to administer, making it useful for clarifying specific questions. On the other hand, unstructured interviews are the opposite, as they do not follow any preconceived theories or ideas and are conducted with minimal or no predefined set of questions or organisation. Semi-structured interviews include key questions that define the areas to be explored, but also allow for divergence to pursue ideas or responses in more detail. (Britten,1999).

3.6.2.1. Adopted interview technique

According to Silvermann (2000), interviews are a valuable method for gaining a deeper understanding of social phenomena. They are particularly useful when there is limited knowledge or when detailed insights are needed from individual participants. In this research, the researcher chose to use the semi-structured interview technique due to its flexibility and open-ended style. This approach allows for questions to be asked in a specific order, making it easier to compare responses from different participants. The technique combines structured and unstructured interviews. While some questions may be predetermined, follow-up questions are typically not (George, 2022).

After collecting and analysing the quantitative data, it was necessary to obtain further clarification on certain responses and validate the results through semi-structured interviews. These interviews offered more insight into the reasons behind the respondents' answers and confirmed the findings from the quantitative analysis. The purpose of the interview was to gain further understanding of the research questions based on the quantitative analysis, and only care assistants in the care sector in England were included as participants. The detailed and rich nature of this interview style is generally advantageous. However, there are critical limitations that have been identified. These include a high risk of bias and the tendency to ask leading questions, which can prompt respondents to provide answers they think the researcher wants to hear. Furthermore, comparing participant responses becomes difficult, which reduces the validity of the interview (George, 2022). However, since the qualitative data only serves to validate the results of the main quantitative study, these limitations can be disregarded.

3.6.3. Designing and implementing the quantitative research instruments

Saunders et al. (2018) identified two main modes of survey administration: *self-completed surveys* and *researcher-completed surveys.* The selection of survey mode is influenced by factors such as research questions, objectives, respondent characteristics, sample size, and the type and number of questions (Saunders et al., 2018:506). A self-completed survey was conducted using electronic mediums such as the internet, web-links, and mobile devices. This mode of survey was chosen over researcher-completed surveys to reach a larger audience. Respondents had the flexibility to complete the survey at their convenience. To facilitate distribution, a web-based survey was developed using University-approved tools like Google

Forms. The effectiveness of self-completed surveys has been highlighted (Saunders et al., 2018:506), particularly in modern times when the internet is accessible to everyone. However, this survey mode also has some disadvantages that cannot be ignored. These include difficulties in tracking responses, especially if they are anonymized, the potential for false responses, and the reluctance of some respondents to participate (Saunders et al., 2018:506). The subsequent sub-section provides a detailed explanation of the steps taken to develop and design the survey.

3.6.3.1. Survey development

Before collecting the primary data, the researcher conducted preliminary interviews with reward experts and a sample of the intended participants. This process aided in developing the questions, and a subsequent test was conducted to ensure that the survey was suitable for its intended purpose. The survey aimed to answer two key questions: (1) Does offering monetary rewards influence employee behaviours such as loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, performance, and turnover intention? (2) Do demographical factors, specifically age groups, play a role in this relationship among care assistants in the English care sector? Extensive literature on these variables was reviewed (as set out in chapter two) before developing the research instrument. The choice of questions was based on findings from previous studies.

Validated scales of instruments were adapted for this study. The Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ) by Heneman & Schwab (1985) was used to measure monetary rewards, the Normative Commitment (NC) scale developed by Alan & Meyer (1993) was adapted to measure employee loyalty, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) by Weiss et al. (1967) was used to assess employee satisfaction. While the employee performance scale validated by Pradhan and Jena (2017) and the Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) developed by Roodt (2004) were adapted to measure turnover intention. Academic scholars suggest that using pre-existing scales is beneficial because they have undergone extensive testing at the time of their initial use (Hyman, Lamb & Bulmer, 2006). However, it is important to note that the reliability of each question for a specific research study may not always be easily verified. Therefore, it is necessary to revise scales based on reviewed literature, research questions, and objectives. Additionally, conducting further pre-tests is essential to ensure that a scale is valid, reliable, and relevant for the intended sample within the population.

3.6.3.2. Survey design

The survey comprised five sections and thirty-one questions pertaining to the independent, dependent, and moderating variables. The questions were formulated using clear and concise sentences with precise wording.

Section A – General information

This section provided a detailed explanation of the research purpose in simple terms. The form described the meaning of each variable and its importance in addressing related questions. The data collected in this section included email addresses, job titles, and regions of the respondents. Email addresses were collected to contact respondents who may be interested in participating in the qualitative phase of the research. It is important to note that participation in this phase was voluntary and complied with the General Data Protection Act (GDPR). Job titles were collected to ensure that only individuals with the specific job titles of "care assistant" or "carer" were included as respondents. Region was collected to ensure that only individuals residing in England were included as respondents.

Section B – Participant consent form

This section included the participants' consent form, which is crucial for the research's success. It was used to obtain participants' consent to participate in the study, as required by the ethical committee and the University. The researcher decided to include the consent form in the survey to simplify the process and avoid sending a separate form via email or post. This method proved to be efficient and timesaving.

Section C – Demographic questions

This section gathered data from participants regarding their age, gender, and length of service. These demographic questions are crucial for understanding the potential impact of factors such as age groups/generational cohorts on the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviour. Previous studies have explored the potential influence of gender and length of service on this relationship, but the results have been inconclusive (Atkinson & Lucas, 2013; Folbre, 2012; Palmer & Eveline, 2012). Participants' demographic data were presumed to aid in addressing the second research question, which seeks to comprehend the influence of

generational cohorts on the relationship between the independent variable (monetary rewards) and dependent variables (five employee behaviours).

Section D – Monetary rewards and Employee behaviours

This section of the survey consists of questions related to both the independent and dependent variables. A total of thirty-one questions were asked, beginning with inquiries about monetary rewards. All questions were measured using a five-point Likert scale, with 1 representing the lowest and 5 representing the highest rating. As stated in sub-section 3.6.3.1 above, the researcher utilised validated scales such as PSQ, NC, MSQ, TIS, and Pradhan and Jena's (2017) employee performance scale to formulate the questions. The scales have been systematically measured and tested on employees from various sectors and cultures, including those in the healthcare sector. They consistently demonstrate a high level of reliability and validity, with an average of $\alpha=0.80$, which is very good (Bothma & Roodt, 2013).

The researcher acknowledges the limited research on the use of these scales among care assistants in care homes. The only relevant study found was conducted by Wang and Yuan (2018) on turnover intention among hospital nursing care workers in China. Therefore, the questions from the original validated scales were adjusted to align with the current research, taking into consideration the literature review, research questions, and objectives. The following section provides an overview of the topics addressed.

- Monetary rewards
- Employee loyalty
- Absenteeism
- Employee satisfaction
- Employee performance
- Turnover intention
- Age group (split into four generational cohorts)

The modified questions are assumed to be more relevant to the research population and will assist in addressing the research inquiries.

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Section E – Feedback section

This section collected feedback from respondents regarding the overall usefulness, applicability, volume, and ease of the survey. Additionally, respondents were asked to provide suggestions for changes to the survey.

3.7 Piloting the survey instrument

Polit et al (2001) identified several problems that could arise during a research project, which may require the alteration of the research's feasibility or methodology. To address this, it is recommended to conduct a small-scale trial before the main study with the objective of identifying issues within the methodology, the research feasibility, survey instrument and whether the survey questions answer the research objectives and questions. Hu (2014) highlighted the importance of pre-testing survey instruments for quality, while McBurney and White (2009) highlighted the need to conduct a pilot study to test the clarity of the questions, modify the research design before carrying out the main study and test for internal consistency.

3.7.1. Pilot process

Following the ethical approval, the drafted survey instrument was tested. The researcher considered this step to be necessary to ensure that the previously validated scales and modified questions adopted in the instrument were still relevant, reliable, and valid amongst the research population (Blessing, & Chakrabarti, 2009). The researcher adopted the purposive sampling technique under nonprobability sampling method, which involved selecting individuals who were available and had a detailed knowledge of the phenomenon under study (Creswell & Clark, 2018). This sampling method (purposive) was used to select cases or participants that would best answer the research questions/objectives. Purposive sampling also works well with small sample sizes, and particularly useful in case study research – a research strategy that was adopted for this research.   Furthermore, the researcher adopted the homogeneous sampling style to focus on subgroups with participants who have similar characteristics - in this case, participants' whose job titles were either "care worker", "carer" or "care assistant" within certain age groups, called generational cohorts, and who work in English care homes were the sample.

The survey pre-test was conducted within a care home setting in England. Fifty participants with job titles such as care assistant, carer, or care worker within the age range of 18-60 years old were invited to participate in the pilot. Sixteen (16) participants took part voluntarily (32% response rate). Role titles such as Nurse, ancillary staff, deputy home managers and care home managers were excluded from the study. Academic researchers have recommended different figures ideal for a pilot study, In the 1990's, some scholars suggested a minimum of 10-30 participants (Hill, 1998; Michael, 1995), while more recent scholars argue that having 10 percent of the main sample is considered ideal (Connelly, 2008). Based on these recommendations, the researcher believes that the sample for the pilot falls within the suggested ranges, therefore, represents the recommended percentage of the main research. Regardless of the recommended number, Saunders et al (2007) emphasised the importance of the pilot test as being able to assess the reliability, consistency and effectiveness of the instrument based on participants' feedback. This allows for any adjustments to be made before implementing in the main study.

Before the survey was shared through a dedicated link, participants were sent the participant information sheet and the consent form that contained all the necessary information about the research, and an option to ask further questions and thereafter consent if they were willing to participate. The researcher further adapted the consent form into the survey and made this section of the survey mandatory. Three out of the sixteen respondents (19%), declined to participate in a follow-up interview, which is the qualitative phase of the research design. Participants were asked for feedback and ways to improve the survey. Whilst majority of respondents agreed that the questions were easy to understand and relevant (87%), a few of these respondents (13%) felt that the questions were many and could be reduced to avoid respondents answering in a pattern.

3.7.2. Changes made to the survey instrument

As mentioned above, 87% (14) of participants found the questions easy to understand and relevant to their role and research topic. They did not propose any changes to the survey length and question type. However, 13% (2) of respondents felt there were too many questions, which made it tiring and could potentially make participants answer in a pattern. Despite the small number who suggested a change, the researcher decided to modify the question style by introducing different patterns of answers to keep the questions engaging. For instance, instead

of using a radio button style like the initial survey question format, a combination of radio buttons, checkboxes, dropdown boxes and rating scales were adopted following the feedback. The questions could not be reduced as it would have affected the validity of the survey instrument. As it was only a few participants who complained about the length, the number of questions were left unchanged.

3.7.3. Findings from the pilot study

The data collected were analysed using SPSS Software. Due to the limited number of respondents, the researcher was able to run the following statistical analysis:

Descriptive Statistic

Descriptive statistics such as the median, mode, frequency and charts were used in describing the demographic data that was collected and how each respondent answered the questions based on age, gender, and length of service. The figure below showed that majority of respondents were in Gen X & Y categories (25% - 69% respectively), whilst Gen Z and Baby boomers were either under-represented or had no representation at all. Chart also revealed that 68% of those who responded were female, whilst 31% were male.
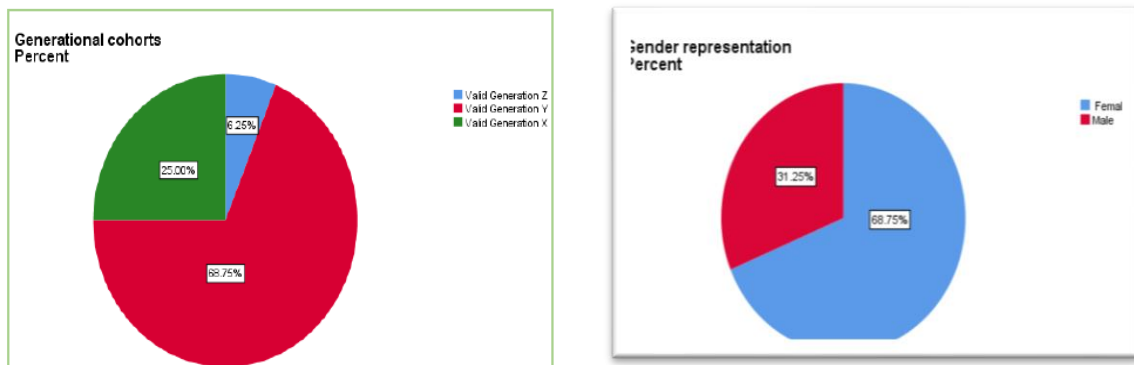
Figure 3.3: Graphical presentation of Generational cohorts & gender within the pilot study

Correlation analysis

The researcher attempted to investigate a possible relationship between the independent and dependent variables using nonparametric statistics such as Spearman's correlation coefficient. Spearman's correlation coefficient was selected as the preferred statistical method over Pearson's

r because the data gathered were not normally distributed and were ordinal scales. Campbell's (2013) study discussed parametric and nonparametric testing in detail. Whist the former makes explicit assumptions about the distribution of observed data and uses the data to estimate parameters of the distribution, the latter would not assume that the data is normally distributed a priori and instead would estimate the shape of the distribution itself.

Using the bivariate analysis to test for a monotonic association and a possible relationship between monetary rewards and the five behaviours, and to answer question one of this research that states *"Do monetary rewards have an influence on employee loyalty, absenteeism, employee satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention amongst care assistants in the care sector?"*, hypotheses were developed, and data was generated using Spearman's rho. The findings suggested that monetary rewards had a strong and significant influence on employee loyalty only (.796., p-value <0.001), while other variables such as absenteeism (.200., p-value =.458), employee satisfaction (-.226., p-value=.400), performance (.122, p-value =.654) and turnover intention (-.110, p-value =.685) had either a positive/negative and weak/insignificant monotonic association with monetary rewards. Due to under representation or non-representation of some generational cohorts, the researcher was unable to answer the second research question that states *"What role do baby boomers, generations X, Y, Z play in the relationship between monetary rewards (independent variable) and loyalty, absenteeism, employee satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention (dependent variables) amongst the selected population and sector."* Due to insufficient sample data and size, the researcher acknowledged that the analysis may be inaccurate and, hence not showing a true representation of the findings.

3.7.4. Limitations of the pilot study

Yin's (2003) study on research limitations accentuates the fact that at some point in the research journey, there are bound to be limitations experienced by the researcher. The following limitations are explained below.

Access issues

The events that occurred in 2020 was one that nobody, including employers and employees, envisaged would happen. Due to the global pandemic, activities were put on hold for some time pending when measures were put in place to reduce the infection rates of the coronavirus disease. Care homes saw a rise in deaths of residents and for this reason, visitors

were restricted from accessing the homes for any purpose. Likewise, due to the rise in care activities, care assistants, the population of the study were inaccessible and unwilling to participate in research activities due to increased workload.

The researcher's attempt to gain access to care providers proved difficult and communication was put on hold until further notice. Of the ten care providers contacted for an initial study, only one replied and gave consent. Fifty care assistants were approached through the care provider's representative, but only sixteen responded to the survey after several polite reminders were sent. The researcher was grateful to the sixteen participants, albeit the under-representation or non-representation of some age groups such as Baby boomers and Gen Z. Their responses helped to test and modify the questions where necessary.

Small sample size

Hackshaw (2008) identified limitations that could arise due to working with small sample sizes. According to the researcher, the main problem with small sample sizes is the interpretation of results, in particular confidence intervals (CI) and p-values. Besides, a small sample size is presumed to produce inaccurate results or even over-estimate/under-estimate the magnitude of an association. With a sample size of sixteen, it was difficult having a true representation of the four age groups needed for further analysis and the sample was considered too little to make a logical conclusion.

3.8. Survey administration and response rate in the main study

For the main study, data was obtained from three online private groups exclusively for care assistants working in care homes in England. These groups collectively have one thousand care assistants, and before members were allowed to join, they had to verify their identity using their employer's name and personnel number. The researcher sought permission from the group administrators and shared the research participation sheet and consent form with them (the administrators) before being permitted to administer the electronic survey instrument (which also had the participation sheet and consent form embedded) through a dedicated Google Form link. The survey was posted on these groups for nine weeks specifically from 06 June 2023 to 08 August 2023. Out of the total group membership of 1,000 people, only 188 completed the survey. This resulted in a response rate of 19%. Researchers are often unsure of the ideal sample

size. Scholars such as Roscoe (1975) suggested the problem of sample size should be approached using the following rule of thumb as detailed in the table below.

Table 3.2: Sample size rule of thumb (Source: Roscoe,1975)

1	The use of statistical analyses with samples less than 10 is not recommended.
2	In simple experimental research with tight controls (e.g., matched-pairs design), successful research may be conducted with samples as small as 10 to 20.
3	In most experimental research, samples of 30 or more are recommended. [Experimental research involves the researcher in manipulating the independent variable (IV) and measuring the effect of this on a dependant variable (DV)
4	There is seldom justification in behavioural research for sample sizes of less than 30 or larger than 500. Samples larger than 30 ensure the researcher the benefits of central limit theorem

Based on the table, the total respondent of 188 falls within Roscoe's sample size recommendation of between 30 and 500. Therefore, the researcher considers this size appropriate. The data were screened for potential errors including incomplete responses, unqualified job titles, and regions outside of England with a margin of error of +/-5%. No errors were found in the data therefore, the percentage of usable data was 100%.

3.8.1. Survey analysis process

Allen (2017) defined data cleansing as the process of improving the quality of data by correcting inaccurate records from the data. The process involves detecting, modifying, or deleting improperly formatted or duplicated data from the dataset. Allen referred to these types of data as "dirty data" within the dataset. Using Creswell and Clark's (2007) five key stages of analysis, the following steps were followed in preparing the data for further analysis.

- **Review Questions** – questions that were asked in a different style were identified. The researcher ensured that responses were reverse coded to fit other questions style.
- **Data check** – all data were checked for missing variables and ensured that the correct coding was applied. Coding was applied as follows: Monetary rewards items were coded as MR1, MR 2…., while the dependent variables items were coded using a similar syntax, that is, for loyalty…L1, L2…, Absenteeism – AB1, AB2……. employee satisfaction – S1, S2…. employee performance – P1, P2…turnover intention – TI1, TI2…and so on.

- **Data export** – after cleansing the data in Microsoft Excel, the cleansed data was exported to Software package for social sciences (SPSS) for further analysis.

Table 3.3: Stages and processes of data analysis (Creswell & Clark, 2007)

Stages of data	Stages of data and how they were applied in the research
Data Preparation	The raw data collected from Google Forms were exported to a Microsoft Excel sheet for cleansing and checking for irregularities.
	The different variables and responses were converted into Likert-scale codes before importing to SPSS.
Data Exploration	Separated the responses based on generational cohorts to check for possible inferences
Analysis of the data	Use of descriptive statistics to ascertain the possible relationship between the IV & five DVs
Data representation	Display of analysis using tables, graphs, figures etc
Discussions of findings and validation	Compare findings with existing literature and draw a conclusion

3.8.2. Checking for normality

Before selecting a data technique, it is essential to test the data for normality to help determine the most suitable statistical procedure to adopt. Field (2009) identified two approaches in determining whether a dataset is normally distributed – (1) by visually using normal plots such as Q-Q probability plots, which display the observed values against distributed data or (2) by using statistical tests such as Kolmogorov-Smirnov or Shapiro -Wilk. To check for normality, the statistical method was used due to its reliability and accuracy (Ghasemi and Zahediasl, 2012). Normality test was carried out in SPSS using both Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro -Wilk, with a significance level of 0.05. The details will be presented in the next chapter.

3.8.3. Quantitative data technique adopted for analysis.

The decision to adopt either parametric or nonparametric statistics depends solely on the type of data collected, and whether the dataset reflects normal /not normal distribution (Alchemer, 2018). Parametric tests assume a normal distribution and are only used when scales are continuous such as interval and ratio data. On the other hand, nonparametric tests are sometimes called distribution-free tests due to their fewer assumptions, the ability to accommodate smaller sample sizes, and are mostly used for ordinal and nominal data types

(Chin & Lee, 2008; Glen, 2021) such as Likert scales that were used in this study. Parametric tests are considered more statistically powerful and can still be used with a reasonably large dataset that doesn't follow a normal distribution (Taylor, 2023). Nonetheless, to ascertain that the nonparametric test is ideal for this research, the following important assumptions were met as described by the Corporate Finance Institute (CFI, 2015).

- The data does not follow a normal distribution.
- The analysed data is ordinal or nominal.

Based on the above criteria, nonparametric tests were deemed to be the preferable choice for analysing the quantitative data. Ali, et.al (2015) identified four different types of nonparametric tests such as Chi-square, Mann-Whitney, Kruskal-Wallis and Wilcoxon rank with each test having its own assumptions and criteria. However, after reviewing the tests' assumptions and criteria, it was evident that none of them were met. Therefore, these nonparametric tests were not suitable for the analysis.

Table 3.4: Nonparametric test assumptions (Ali, et.al, 2015)

Nonparametric tests	Key assumptions	Assumption Met	Reason
Chi-square test	• There are 2 variables, and both are measured as nominal level	Yes	The respondents gender identification was measured on a nominal level
	• Consist of two or more categorical independent groups • It does not require assumption of homogeneity of variances	No	The assumption was not met because there is only one independent variable
Kruskal-Wallis	• Dependent variable should be measured at the ordinal or continuous level	Yes	All five dependent variables were measure at an ordinal level
	• Independent variable should consist of two or more mutually independent groups	No	Study has only one independent group
Mann-Whitney U	• Independent variables should consist of two independent groups	No	Study has only one independent group
Wilcoxon test	• Independent variable should consist of two related groups or matched pairs	No	Data was analysed and measured on a single group and no retest was conducted

3.8.3.1. Correlation analysis

Due to the nature of this study and research objectives, it is imperative to consider using the correlation analysis as a tenable method of analysis. Correlation is a bivariate analysis that measures the strength of association between two or more variables and the direction of the relationship (Chen, & Popovich, (2002). There are two main types of correlation coefficients – Pearson's r and Spearman's rho. Spearman's correlation coefficient was selected as the preferred statistical method over Pearson's r because the data gathered were not normally distributed and were ordinal scales.

To investigate the correlation between monetary rewards and the five behaviours, and to answer question one of the research questions stated in section 1.3., hypotheses were developed, and data was generated using Spearman's rho, which is a tool used in measuring the strength of a monotonic relationship between two paired data. It is denoted by rs and its design is constraint as follows; $-1 < rs < 1$ (Bryman, A. & Bell, E. 2011). Details of the finding will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

Table 3.5: Spearman Correlation Table

Strength of Correlation				
Very weak	Weak	Moderate	Strong	Very strong
.00- .19	.20- .39	.40-.59	.60-.79	.80-1.0

3.8.3.2. Moderator analysis

A moderator analysis is used in determining whether the relationship between variables depends on the value of a third variable (Aguinis, 2004). In other words, it is used to determine whether the introduction of a moderator will change the strength of the relationship between the IV and DVs. To test for moderation, the *moderated multiple regression method*, otherwise known as MMR (Aguinis, 2004) was used in determining whether monetary rewards and the five behaviours are moderated by generational cohorts after fulfilling the assumptions in the table below. The model attempted to answer the second research question and third research objective stated in section 1.3., which seeks to explore the role of generational cohorts in the relationship between monetary rewards and the five behaviours. Findings will be presented and discussed in the next chapter.

Table 3.6.: Moderation regression assumptions

Assumption	Was it met?	How was it met?
Independent & dependent variables should be measured on a continuous scale	Yes	IV & DVs were converted to continuous data by averaging each variable's items to arrive at a new variable (Sullivan & Artino, 2013)
There should be a moderator variable that is a nominal variable with at least two groups	Yes	Age was grouped to 4 groups, representing each generational cohort (Donna et.al, 2022)
The variables of interest should have a linear relationship	Yes	Linearity was ascertained by comparing means
The data must not show multicollinearity	Yes	The variables were mean centred to mitigate the potential threat of multicollinearity between variables (Shieh, 2013)
There should be no significant outliers, and the distribution of the variables should be approximately normal.	Yes	Normality was checked using P-P plot, and the graph indicates normality

3.8.4 Research design quality

Establishing the research design's quality is seen as an important step when carrying out a research exercise. Raymond (1993) highlights this importance by carrying out the "how do I know" test during any research project. Testing the quality of the research design is necessary to prevent the researcher from being subjective due to the preconceived attachment towards the proposed research.

As Rogers (1961; cited by Saunders *et al*, 2012: 192) explained:

"Scientific methodology needs to be seen for what it truly is, which is a way of preventing me from deceiving myself in regard to my creatively formed subjective hunches which have developed out of the relationship between me and my material".

Therefore, it is important to check for validity and reliability, to assess the quality of research instruments such as surveys, interview questions etc. especially in a mixed method style of research. Scholars such as Johnson & Christensen, (2008) and Saunders *et.al (2012)* have discussed the use of scientific inquiry canons such as reliability, construct validity, internal validity and external validity to assess the quality of the proposed research and its instruments. These will be further discussed in the following sub-sections.

3.8.4.1. Reliability

Saunders et.al (2016) refers to reliability as the need to check data collection techniques and analytical procedures for consistency, should they be reused or replicated for further research. The scholars further highlighted the number of threats to reliability, which would imply that the researcher would need to be methodologically rigorous in the way the research is carried out to avoid threatening the reliability of the findings and conclusions.

For this research, a reliability test was carried out using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1951) to test for consistency in results from administering the survey. The method and process adopted will be discussed in the next chapter.

3.8.4.2. Validity

Saunders et.al (2016) identified two main types of validity such as (1) construct validity – which is concerned with the extent to which the research instrument measures what its intended. This type of validity is prevalent within the positivist philosophical stance and quantitative research styles and instruments alike; and (2) Internal validity – which demonstrates a causal relationship between two variables. Here, internal validity is established where a set of questions can be shown statistically to be associated with an outcome. This type of validity is also prevalent within the positivist's philosophical stance, and it is usually applied to causal or explanatory studies, but not to exploratory or purely descriptive studies (Saunders *et.al*, 2012). Other scholars like Hardy and Bryman (2004) identified and discussed other types of validity such as content validity, face validity and criterion validity. According to the authors, validity is about whether the instrument used in collecting data measures its intended purpose without ambiguity.

Prior to data collection, the researcher tested the content and face validity of the instrument using twenty respondents, comprising of care assistants and care managers within the care sector. The participants were carefully selected to include only individuals who were experts in the sector and potential survey participants. The aim of this was to gather feedback to ensure that the content of the survey instrument was fit for purpose, relevant to the sector and able to answer the objectives of the research.

3.8.5 Qualitative data technique adopted for analysis

In section 3.4.1.1, the explanatory sequential design was mentioned as the most suitable design type, where the researcher sought further clarification using qualitative analysis based on the findings from the quantitative study. The rationale for choosing the mixed method study stems from the belief that neither of the two research methods (quantitative or qualitative) are sufficient alone to analyse a situation. Creswell (2005) believes that combining both methods will allow for a robust analysis and both methods would complement each other.

The researcher adopted thematic analysis to find and identify a patterned meaning amongst the quantitative result. As Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2013) put it, this technique offers a guide for identifying themes from a dataset to capture the richness of data and assemble the findings into categories for useful discussions. One of the main advantages of thematic analysis according to (Braun and Clarke, 2006) is the flexibility and ease of use, which does not require an advanced or technical know-how in qualitative methodology. Academic scholars such as Miles and Huberman (1994) developed three key steps in analysing qualitative data as follows: (1) data reduction – which refers to the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying and transforming the data that appear in transcriptions; (2) data display – which provides an organised, compressed assembly of information that permits conclusion drawing and (3) conclusion drawing and verification – which involves stepping back to consider what the analysed data meant and assess their implications for the intended question.

To successfully conduct the second phase, participants email addresses, and their consent were collected through the quantitative survey instrument. Pseudonyms were allocated to each respondent for data protection purposes. As it was impossible to ascertain respondents who answered in a particular way, random respondents were approached from among those who consented to participate in the qualitative study. The transcribed data were reduced by coding them and allocating categories to avoid potential damage to their meaning. Following the coding and grouping of responses into similar themes, a graphical presentation of the key themes/findings was generated, which was used in discerning systematic patterns and interrelationships. This method of qualitative analysis has proved useful in seeking further clarification on findings from the quantitative study, especially the moderating effect of multigenerational cohorts on the relationship between the IV & DVs (research question 2). The researcher ensured that the participants in the qualitative study were a representation of the four

generational cohorts under review. The themes that were created using recurrent phrases from the interview responses were decoded into patterns that could easily draw up conclusions, which will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

3.9. Ethical considerations

Blumberg et al. (2005) define ethics as the moral principles, norms or standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about our behaviour and our relationships with others. Research ethics therefore relates to questions about how we formulate and clarify the research topic, design the research and gain access, collect data, process and store the data, analyse data and write up the research findings in a moral and responsible way (Saunders, M., Lewis, P & Thornhill, A. 2007).

Diener & Crandall (1978) broke down some ethical issues that could arise as a result of research carried out such as:

- Whether there is harm to participants
- Whether there is a lack of informed consent
- Whether there is an invasion of privacy
- Whether deception is involved

To avoid these issues, the researcher ensured that participants were well informed of the process to be adopted such as the following.

- Ensured the anonymity and confidentiality of participants in the data gathering process.
- Provided a participant information document that detailed the purpose of the proposed research and other relevant information, ensuring that every participant gave their consent before any data is gathered.
- Adhere to GDPR and did not share any content of the participants information unless they consented to it.
- Ensured that all documentation information related to participants were stored in secured data storage systems approved by the University.
- Adhered to the University's code of ethics and ensured ethical approval was sought and approved before any data gathering commenced.
- Ensured that any documentation containing traceable information of participants were destroyed after the completion of the research project.

3.10 Time horizon

Time horizon has been classed as an important part especially when designing a research activity of an academic nature because of the limited time needed to conduct the research. Saunders *et.al* (2016) classified time horizon into two parts – (1) cross-sectional: involving the study of a phenomenon or phenomena at a particular time, and (2) longitudinal: the capacity to study changes and development over a long period of time.

The cross-sectional study was adopted for this research due to the research's academic nature and the limited completion time. In addition, adopting the cross-sectional study allowed the researcher gather and analyse all relevant quantitative and qualitative data used in studying the identified phenomena over a specific short time.

3.11. Summary and Conclusion

The chapter began with an in-depth discussion around the various philosophical stances and their relevance to the research aims and objectives. Rooted in the constructivism ontology and pragmatism epistemology which strives to reconcile both facts and values, accurate knowledge, and diverse experiences by considering theories, concepts, data, hypotheses, and research findings. This philosophy takes on a more practical approach and believes in practical outcomes based on the premise that there is no single viewpoint that can ever give a true picture. The researcher asserts the suitability of this philosophy as it helped in gaining more knowledge of the relationship between monetary rewards and the five behaviours in view from a generational cohort viewpoint.

To achieve the proposed research aim, the explanatory research design was adopted, which Saunders, et. al (2012) referred to as "descripto-explanatory", that is, blending a bit of descriptive methods with the explanatory method. The researcher believes that this method is suitable for the proposed research, as it allows for a thorough description of a potential relationship between demographical factors such as age and the research variables.

Furthermore, various approaches to carrying out the proposed research were considered. The abductive approach was selected as the best fit for the proposed research, as this approach offers the flexibility of combining both the deductive and inductive approaches to arrive at gathering rich information. To effectively conduct this research and seek valuable information

that would be useful for future academics and industry experts, the explanatory sequential technique was adopted, which is one of the methods formulated and recommended for mixed methods research. Quantitative data was gathered using survey instruments, while the qualitative data was gathered using semi-structured interviews.

The cross-sectional survey technique was regarded as the most appropriate for this study as it allowed the researcher to identify the relationship between the different variables. Furthermore, the web-based and self-completed survey style was adopted due to its ability to reach a wider audience. This method of data gathering has proven popular amongst various academic scholars due to accessibility to a wide audience.

Later in the chapter, steps in developing the survey were reviewed, with previously validated scales adapted. Whilst Hyman, Lamb & Bulmer (2006) argue that using pre-existing scales are beneficial due to extensive tests being carried out, the researcher found it necessary to re-validate and check for reliability to ensure that the scales were fit for the research. The five sections of the survey were discussed in detail, including the result from the pilot test. For the main study, data was sourced from online private groups that admitted only care assistants in England. Out of the 1000 care assistants invited to take part in the research, only 188 filled the survey, which resulted in a response of 19%. The data cleansing process was discussed using Creswell & Clark (2007) seven stages of data analysis process.

Finally, the three data techniques were discussed – correlation and moderator analysis for quantitative analysis and thematic analysis for the qualitative analysis. Using Spearman's correlation and moderator analysis for quantitative analysis helped to test the monotonic relationship between the IV and DVs and helped in understanding the moderating effect of generational cohorts on the relationship between the IV and DVs. The thematic analysis on the other hand was useful in identifying a patterned meaning within the quantitative results. This method of analysis clarified distorted responses and corroborated the findings from the quantitative result. The subsequent chapter presents and discusses the findings from these methods.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTING AND DISCUSSING QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

In the previous chapter, Spearman's correlation analysis, bivariate regression and moderator analysis were introduced as the preferred quantitative analysis techniques due to their ability to measure the strength of a monotonic relationship between two paired data (correlation analysis), to establish the strength of the relationship between the IV and each behaviour (bivariate regression analysis) and to test the interaction of a third variable in the relationship between the IV and DVs (moderator analysis). This chapter will expand on previous definitions of these techniques by formulating hypotheses and attempting to seek answers to the research questions. Findings will be discussed in detail below.

4.2. Sample

Research sample consisted of 188 individuals who identified as care assistants working in care homes in England. Seventeen (9%) respondents identified as male, 169 (90%) identified as female and 2 (1%) preferred not to disclose their identity. Using purposive sampling, respondents' descriptive data based on gender and generational cohorts are presented in the table below.

Table 4.1.: Presentation of generational cohorts & gender in the study

Variables		N	%
Gender	Male	17	9
	Female	169	90
	Unknown	2	1
Total		*188*	*100*
Age	Range	N	%
Gen Z	Below 28	28	15
Gen Y (millennial)	28- 46	94	50
Gen X	47-58	43	23
Baby boomers	59-79	23	12
Total		*188*	*100*

The researcher ensured that the data collected was a representation of the four generational cohorts for the study. Between 23% -50% of the population were within the Gen X and Y cohort, which is unsurprising as currently, the average age of carers in adult social care is 45 years.[1] Baby boomers and Gen Z had fewer representation, which may be due to baby boomers gradually retiring due to being the current oldest working population[2] and Gen Z being the newest entrant in the workspace and currently making up 26% of carers in the sector as of 2022 (Skills for Care, 2022). Also, 90% of respondents are women, a trend prevalent in adult social care. Currently, 85% - 95% of those in direct care in adult care sector are women (Skills for Care, 2022). Previous studies ascribed satisfaction on gendered values, i.e., the need for women to become attached to caring and take up such role without caring so much about the remuneration (Atkinson & Lucas, 2013; Folbre, 2012; Palmer & Eveline, 2012)

Furthermore, care has always been seen by many as a "traditionally" female role, that is, from caring for the home (children and family) to working in specific roles like a nurse, care assistant etc due to the need to be flexible to accommodate family commitments (Amarante, 2023). Whilst many have begun to realise that the role of providing care shouldn't be defined by gender, sadly it has become a stereotype that the sector has been unable to change. Sector players have begun implementing initiatives to improve gender equality by attracting more male carers through (1) education, i.e., giving talks and insights into care as a profession, (2) by promoting care opportunities to school leavers and providing work experience to students in order to challenge preconceptions before they set in, and lastly, universities providing bursaries to male students to study a health-related degree (Amarante, 2023). It is hoped that these initiatives will encourage more men to become carers and possibly reduce and eventually eradicate the current stereotype within the sector.

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[1] Attracting Generation Z to Start Careers in Care, 2022. https://www.governmentevents.co.uk/ge-insights/attracting-generation-z-to-start-careers-in-care/

[2] Janzer, C. 2021. Generational Differences in the Workplace: Boomers, Gen X, Gen Y, and Gen Z Explained https://www.zenefits.com/workest/generations-in-the-workplace-boomers-gen-x-gen-y-and-gen-z-explained/

4.3. Checking for normality

Field (2009) defined a normality test as one of the most important statistical tests that determines whether a sample data is drawn from a normally distributed population, using two broad approaches such as (1) Graphical such as histogram, Q-Q probability plots, which display the observed values against distributed data or (2) Statistical such as Shapiro–Wilk test, Kolmogorov–Smirnov test. Both statistical tests have been widely used in research to test for normality due to their reliability and accuracy (Mishra et.al 2019). Shapiro-Wilk test is a more suited method for a small sample size of less than 50 samples (<50), although this test can also handle a larger sample size, while Kolmogorov–Smirnov test is used for sample sizes greater than 50 (> 50). Both tests analyse the data to ascertain whether the distribution deviates from normal distribution using parameters such as p-value (Editage,2022). Data is interpreted to be normally distributed when p-value is greater than 0.05 (>0.05), while p-value of less than 0.05 (<0.05) does not follow a normal distribution (Mishra et.al 2019). To test for normality, the two widely used statistical methods - Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro -Wilk were used due to their reliability and accuracy (Ghasemi and Zahediasl, 2012). The normality test was carried out in SPSS with a significance level of 0.05 and based on the hypothesis below:

- H_0: $p > 0.05$ = data follow a normal distribution
- H_1: $p < 0.05$ = data **do not** follow a normal distribution

The table below indicates that the sample data used for this research was not drawn from a normally distributed population as evidenced by the results from Kolmogorov-Smirnov being less than 0.05 and significant, therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. Given that the assumption of normality was not met, it is appropriate to use nonparametric statistics, also known as distribution-free tests.

Table 4.2.: Test of normality

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
ER_weighted	.089	188	.001	.971	188	<.001
LO_weighted	.070	188	.026	.984	188	.030
AB_weighted	.187	188	<.001	.867	188	<.001
SA_weighted	.086	188	.002	.987	188	.077
PE_weighted	.223	188	<.001	.800	188	<.001
TI_weighted	.113	188	<.001	.955	188	<.001
Age	.072	188	.020	.976	188	.002

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

4.4. Reliability test

A reliability test is essential in determining whether the data collected produces consistent results (Pallant, 2013). Reliability tests were carried out on the survey instrument scales to identify internal consistency using Cronbach's coefficient alpha, otherwise known as coefficient alpha, which is considered one of the frequently used tests to determine internal consistency of scale items (Dunn, Baguley & Brunsden, 2014). There is a general agreement academically that a coefficient alpha of greater or equal to .070 (>=.070) is considered an appropriate measurement for internal consistency (Hair et.al, 2012).

The table below lists the coefficient alpha scores of all variables comprising of thirty-one Likert items assessing monetary rewards and the five employee behaviours, which suggests that the survey scales are reliable and are considered suitable for the intended purpose.

Table 4.3.: Reliability analysis of items under each variable

Variable measured	Overall Cronbach's Alpha	No of items	Overall Cronbach's Alpha	Total number of items
Independent variable				
Monetary Rewards	.874	4	.764	31
Dependent Variables				
Loyalty	.882	8		
Absenteeism	.855	5		
Employee satisfaction	.711	5		
Employee performance	.741	4		
Turnover intention	.778	5		

4.5. Inferential statistics

The following inferential statistics were used in answering the research questions and to estimate the care assistant population through the sample data. The Spearman, bivariate regression and moderated multiple regression analyses were conducted to test hypotheses and infer conclusions about the research population.

4.5.1. Spearman's correlation analysis

The researcher attempted to investigate a possible relationship between the independent and dependent variables using Spearman's correlation coefficient. As discussed previously, Spearman's correlation coefficient was selected as the preferred statistical method over Pearson's r because the data gathered were not normally distributed and were ordinal scales. While Pearson's r makes explicit assumptions about the distribution of observed data and uses the data to estimate parameters of the distribution, Spearman's correlation coefficient would not assume that the data is normally distributed instead would estimate the shape of the distribution itself (Campbell, 2013)

To answer question one of the research questions which states, *"Do monetary rewards have an influence on employee loyalty, absenteeism, employee satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention amongst care assistants in the care sector??"*, the following hypotheses were developed, and the results were interpreted using Spearman's strength of correlation table.

Table 4.4. Spearman's strength of correlation

Strength of Correlation				
Very weak	Weak	Moderate	Strong	Very strong
.00- .19	.20- .39	.40-.59	.60-.79	.80-1.0

Hypothesis Testing – Monetary rewards and Loyalty

H_0: There is **no** monotonic association between monetary rewards and loyalty.

H_1: There is a monotonic association between monetary rewards and loyalty.

Correlations

			ER_weighted	LO_weighted
Spearman's rho	ER_weighted	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.710**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	<.001
		N	188	188
	LO_weighted	Correlation Coefficient	.710**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	.
		N	188	188

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

The above table suggests a strong and significant relationship between monetary rewards and loyalty at (.710., p-value <0.001). This suggests that an increase in monetary rewards was strongly associated with loyalty, that is, the more financial rewards that is received, the higher the chances of being more loyal. Based on this information, the null hypothesis can be rejected.

Hypothesis Testing – Monetary rewards and Absenteeism

H0: There is **no** monotonic association between monetary rewards and absenteeism.

H1: There is a monotonic association between monetary rewards and absenteeism.

Correlations

			ER_weighted	AB_weighted
Spearman's rho	ER_weighted	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.181[*]
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.013
		N	188	188
	AB_weighted	Correlation Coefficient	-.181[*]	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	.
		N	188	188

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

The above table suggests a negatively very weak but significant relationship between monetary rewards and employee absenteeism at (-.181., p-value =.013). This suggests that an increase in monetary rewards had very little association with a carer's absenteeism level, i.e., the lower the reward, the higher likelihood of being absent, but the relationship is very weak. A significant but very weak relationship could occur sometimes when the sample is sufficiently large (Price, Jhangiani & Chiang, 2015). This monotonic relationship suggests that absenteeism could have multiple determinants and monetary rewards may be one of them. Based on this information, the null hypothesis **can** be rejected.

Hypothesis Testing – Monetary rewards and Employee satisfaction

H₀: There is **no** monotonic association between monetary rewards and employee satisfaction.

H₁: There is a monotonic association between monetary rewards and employee satisfaction.

Correlations

			ER_weighted	SA_weighted
Spearman's rho	ER_weighted	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.706**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	<.001
		N	188	188
	SA_weighted	Correlation Coefficient	.706**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	.
		N	188	188

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

The above table suggests a positively strong and significant relationship between monetary rewards and employee satisfaction at (.706., p-value=<.001) This suggests that an increase in monetary rewards is strongly associated with an increase in employee satisfaction and vice versa. Based on this information, the null hypothesis **can** be rejected.

Hypothesis Testing – Monetary rewards and Employee performance

H₀: There is **no** monotonic association between monetary rewards and performance.

H₁: There is a monotonic association between monetary rewards and performance.

Correlations

			ER_weighted	PE_weighted
Spearman's rho	ER_weighted	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.080
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.274
		N	188	188
	PE_weighted	Correlation Coefficient	.080	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.274	.
		N	188	188

The above table suggests a positive but very weak and statistically insignificant relationship between monetary rewards and employee performance at (.080, p-value =.274) This suggests that an increase in monetary rewards had very little association with employee

performance. Therefore, like other variables, there is insufficient evidence to accept the alternate hypothesis (H_1). Based on this information, the researcher fails to reject the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis Testing – Monetary rewards and Turnover intention

H_0**:** There is **no** monotonic association between monetary rewards and turnover intention.

H_1: There is a monotonic association between monetary rewards and turnover intention.

Correlations

			ER_weighted	TI_weighted
Spearman's rho	ER_weighted	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.738**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	<.001
		N	188	188
	TI_weighted	Correlation Coefficient	-.738**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	.
		N	188	188

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

The above table suggests a statistically significant, strong negative correlation between monetary rewards and turnover intention at (-.738, p-value =<.001) This suggests that an increase in monetary rewards was strongly associated with a decrease in turnover intention and vice versa. Based on this information, the null hypothesis **can** be rejected. The table below summarises the correlation analysis conducted using Spearman Coefficient.

Table 4.5.: Spearman Coefficient summary of findings

		Loyalty	Absenteeism	Satisfaction	Performance	Turnover Intention
Employee Rewards	*Rs*	0.796**	-.181	.706**	.080	-.738**
	Sig (p-value)	<.001	.013	<.001	.274	<.001

4.5.2. Bivariate regression analysis

In addition to Spearman's correlation, bivariate regression was adopted to test the relationship between monetary rewards and each of the employee behaviours and to corroborate the results from Spearman. Adopting the same research question and hypotheses as Spearman, the results below help to ascertain the relationship between the IV and DVs.

Hypothesis

To investigate the relationship between monetary rewards and behaviours like employee loyalty, absenteeism, employee satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention amongst care assistants in the care sector.

H₀: There is **no** significant influence of monetary rewards on the five employee behaviours.

H₁: There is a significant influence of monetary rewards on the five employee behaviours.

      The influence of monetary rewards was tested on each of the five employee behaviours. Each dependent variable was regressed on the predicting variable (monetary rewards) to test the hypothesis **H₁**. Monetary rewards significantly predicted (1) Loyalty (F – 1, 183 = 182.603, p<0.01), (2) Absenteeism (F -1, 183 = 5.251, p<.05), (3) satisfaction (F -1, 183 = 190.041, p<0.05), (4) Turnover Intention (F – 1, 183 = 193.634, p<.05), whilst performance was insignificant (F – 1, 183, = 1.456, p>.05). The significant prediction in the behaviours (LO, AB, SA, TI) indicate that monetary rewards directly influence these behaviours, except for performance. Also, the R^2 depicts that the model explains over 50% of the variance in most of the behaviours like (LO =.500, SA =.507, TI = .514). Coefficients were further assessed to ascertain the influence of monetary rewards on each behaviour. The results revealed that monetary rewards have a significant and positive impact on behaviours like loyalty and satisfaction, i.e., an increase in monetary rewards is predicted to cause a corresponding increase in loyalty and employee satisfaction, whilst Absenteeism and Turnover Intention have a significant but negative impact i.e., an increase in monetary rewards is predicted to cause the rate of absenteeism and turnover intention to decrease and vice versa. Employee performance was insignificant therefore, it is inferred that monetary rewards is not a significant predictor of employee performance. The table below shows the summary of the findings.

Table 4.6: Summary of the main findings

Hypothesis	Regression Weights	B	R^2	t	p-value	Results
H₁	ER>>>LO	.675	.500	13.513	<001	**Supported**
H₁	ER>>>AB	-.210	.028	-2.291	.023	**Supported**
H₁	ER>>>SA	.532	.507	13.786	<001	**Supported**
H₁	ER>>>PE	.043	.002	1.207	.229	**Not supported**
H₁	ER>>>TI	-.2864	.514	-13.915	<001	**Supported**
Note: p<0.05. ER: Employee rewards, LO: Loyalty, AB: Absenteeism, SA: Satisfaction, PE: Performance, TI: Turnover Intention						

Spearman's rank-order correlation was run to assess the relationship between monetary rewards and five employee behaviours amongst care assistants in England. One hundred and eighty-eight participants were recruited. Preliminary analysis showed some of the relationships to be monotonic, as assessed by visual inspection of a scatterplot (shown below).
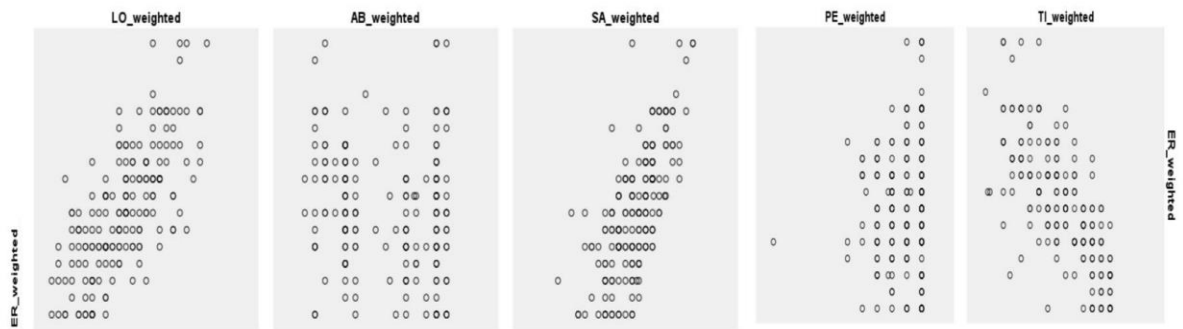
Figure 4.1.: Scatterplot of monetary rewards and the five employee behaviours

There were statistically significant, strong correlations between monetary rewards and some of the variables like loyalty, satisfaction and turnover intention, which infers that when monetary rewards are introduced, i.e., increased or reduced, there is high likelihood that some of the dependant variables may be impacted. However, there was a very weak correlation between monetary rewards and behaviours like absenteeism and performance, which may be due to having multiple determinants and monetary rewards being one of them. The bivariate regression analysis also validates the findings from Spearman and depicts the significant impact monetary rewards have on most of the behaviours except Performance. Therefore, one can conclude that an increase in IV is predicted to cause a corresponding increase or decrease in most of the DVs. The researcher will attempt to use the qualitative analysis to seek further clarification on the above findings and draw a conclusion.

4.5.3. Moderated multiple regression analysis

As explained in the previous chapter, moderated multiple regression was run, and each generational cohort was tested on each of the behaviours. To successfully run a moderation analysis in SPSS, four comparison groups and dummy variables were created for each cohort, i.e., GenX, GenY, GenZ and Baby boomers. An interaction term was also created for each

group by multiplying the IV (monetary rewards) by the dummy variables for each cohort to form a new variable that will eventually be used to assess the change in variation explained by the addition of an interaction term.
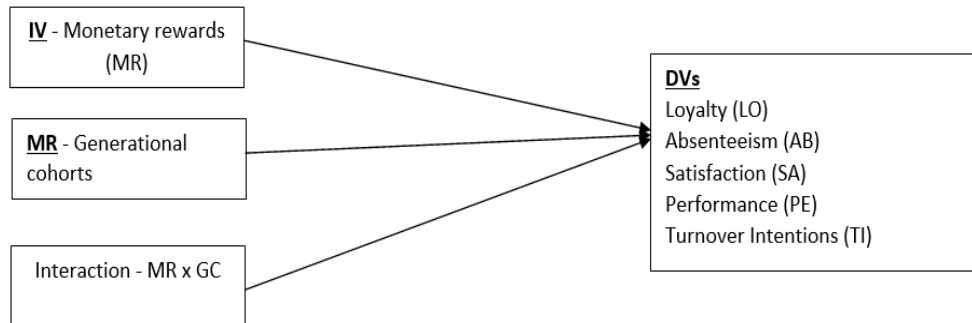
Figure 4.2. MMR analysis interaction term

To effectively run this analysis and ensure that the data accurately reflects the results, the five key assumptions discussed below must be met as postulated by Fein, et.al (2022).

Testing for linearity

One of the key assumptions in moderated multiple regression is that the independent variable (IV) is linearly related to the dependent variable (DV). To fulfil this assumption, there are two methods of assessing this – (1) visual inspection of a scatterplot and (2) compare the means of monetary rewards and the five behaviours. The second option was selected as a preferred method due to the ease of interpreting the result. The means of the variables were compared using SPSS and the results shown in the table below suggests that there is significant linearity (p= <.05) between monetary rewards and the five employee behaviours. Also, the results show that the deviation from linearity is insignificant (p=>.05), therefore there is no significant deviation from linearity. Given this, it indicates that the assumption of linearity was met for all variables.

Table 4.7. Testing for linearity – ANOVA Table

		Sig.
LO	Combined	<.001
ER	Linearity	<.001
	Deviation from Linearity	.997
AB	Combined	.023
ER	Linearity	.017
	Deviation from Linearity	.490
SA	Combined	<.001
ER	Linearity	<.001
	Deviation from Linearity	.933
PE	Combined	.097
ER	Linearity	.020
	Deviation from Linearity	.115
TI	Combined	<.001
ER	Linearity	<.001
	Deviation from Linearity	.284

Testing for multicollinearity

In determining the correlation between monetary rewards and the five behaviours, including testing the moderating effect of generational cohorts, care must be taken to avoid the results being skewed due to multicollinearity. To effectively test for possible multicollinearity issues and interpret results, it is recommended that variables are continuous and mean-centred (Aiken & West, 1991). To meet this assumption, the Likert scales used in this research were transformed to continuous variables using SPSS and all variables were mean-centred. While it is often recommended for variables to be mean-centred, especially when performing a moderator analysis for interpretation reasons (Cohen et al., 2003), scholars like Hayes (2013) questioned the need to do this on the grounds of multicollinearity. The scholar later concluded that a decision should still be made based on the presence of multicollinearity.

Following the mean-centring process, an interaction term was created using monetary rewards (IV) and generational cohorts (Age), and this was used to run the regression analysis and test for multicollinearity. To meet this assumption, the Tolerance value must be greater than 0.1 or the VIF less than 10. The result in the table shows that there was no evidence of multicollinearity as evidenced (Monetary Rewards, Tolerance = .982, VIF = 1.02; Gen cohorts,

Tolerance = .105, VIF = 9.52, Interaction, Tolerance = .106, VIF = 9.46). Therefore, this assumption was met.

Table 4.8: Test for multicollinearity

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.910	.114		16.777	<.001		
	ER_weighted	.547	.042	.695	13.022	<.001	.982	1.018
	Age_C	.001	.010	.018	.111	.912	.105	9.516
	Interaction	-.001	.004	-.047	-.290	.772	.106	9.461

Testing for outliers

The dataset was checked for abnormal variables that negate regular distribution and those that have the potential to significantly distort the analysis. Cohen, et.al (2003) assert that where the deleted residuals are greater than ±2 or ±3 standard deviations, then one can classify them as potential outliers. The data was checked for possible outliers using Cohen, et.al's assertion, which indicated that participants 186, 187 and 188 needed to be removed. The table below shows the final std. deviations following the removal of the outliers; thus, this assumption was met.

Table 4.9: Residual Statistics

DV	Std. Residual	
	Minimum	Maximum
Loyalty	-2.818	2.790
Absenteeism	-1.926	1.724
Satisfaction	-1.894	2.107
Performance	-2.980	1.162
Turnover Intention	-2.627	2.175

Testing for normality

To ensure that the data met the normality assumption, the independent and dependent ordinal variables were transformed to continuous variables by averaging each variable's items to arrive at a new variable (Sullivan & Artino, 2013). Thereafter, the variables were plotted on histogram and normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardised Residual to visually ascertain

normality. The histogram of standardised residuals indicated that the data contained approximately normally distributed errors, as did the normal P-P plot of standardised residuals, which showed points that were not completely on the line, but close.
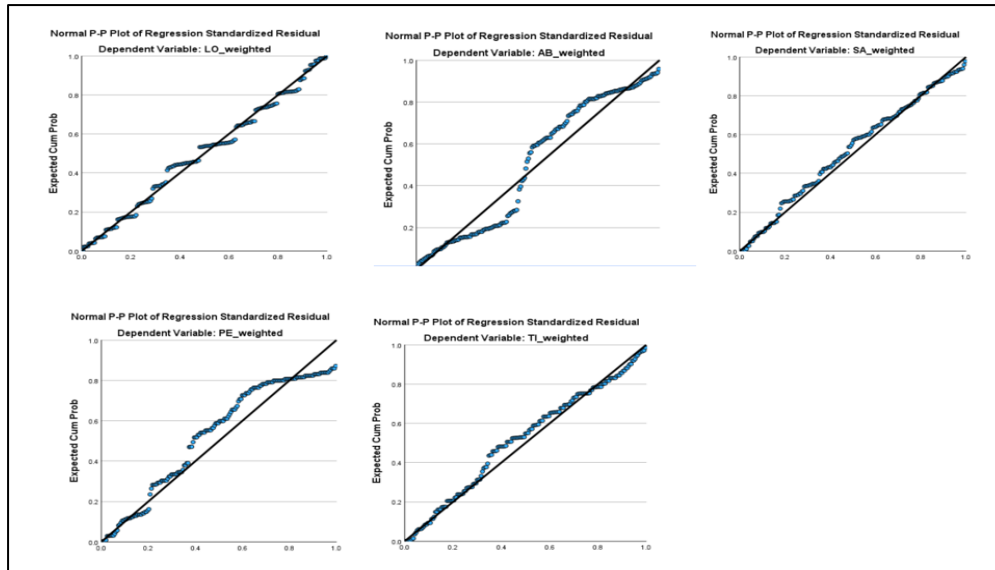
Figure 4.3. Testing for normality

Testing for homoscedasticity

To test for this assumption, a plot of standardised residuals versus the predicted values were plotted to show whether points were equally distributed in the independent variable and whether the spread of the data remains constant across monetary rewards and generational cohorts. The test is useful in ensuring the validity, reliability and interpretability of the results (Cucos, 2023). Initially using scatterplots, homoscedasticity was assessed by visual inspection and the scatterplots suggest this assumption was met. To check the authenticity of the plots, the Breusch-Pagan Test was used to test the below hypothesis:

H_0: Homoscedasticity is present (the residuals are distributed with equal variance)

H_1: Heteroscedasticity is present (the residuals are not distributed with equal variance)

If the p-value of the test is less than some significance level (i.e., $\alpha = .05$) then we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that heteroscedasticity is present in the regression model. The

result indicates an insignificant regression (sig. .640). Therefore, the null hypothesis can be accepted, indicating that the homoscedasticity assumption was met.

Table 4.10: Homoscedasticity Assumption

ANOVA[a]						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.277	2	.138	.448	.640[b]
	Residual	56.257	182	.309		
	Total	56.534	184			
a. Dependent Variable: sqres						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Age, ER_weighted						

Having met the above assumptions, each generational cohort will be examined to ascertain its moderating effect between the IV (monetary rewards) and DVs (loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, performance and turnover intention).

To answer the second research question *"What role does baby boomers, generations X, Y, Z play in the relationship between monetary rewards (independent variable) and loyalty, absenteeism, employee satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention (dependent variables) amongst the selected population and sector?"*, the following hypotheses were developed, analysed and interpreted.

Moderating effect of generational cohort on loyalty

H_0**:** There is **no** moderating effect of generational cohort on monetary rewards and loyalty.

H_1: There is **a** moderating effect of generational cohort on monetary rewards and loyalty.

Table 4.11: Model summary on the moderating effect of generational cohort & loyalty

Model	Interaction	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
						R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	ER, GenZ	.710	.504	.499	.622	.504	92.560	2	182	<.001
2	ER_GenZ_INT	.710	.504	.496	.623	.000	.007	1	181	.932
1	ER, GenY	.708	.501	.496	.623	.501	91.508	2	182	<.001
2	ER_GenY_INT	.708	.501	.493	.625	.000	.010	1	181	.921
1	ER, GenX	.707	.500	.494	.624	.500	90.907	2	182	<.001
2	ER_GenX_INT	.708	.502	.494	.625	.002	.805	1	181	.371
1	ER, BB	.707	.500	.494	.625	.500	90.879	2	182	<.001
2	ER_BB_INT	.709	.502	.494	.624	.003	1.030	1	181	.311
Dependent Variable: LO_weighted										

The table above shows the two regressions that were run for each cohort. The first model is called "1" and it contains the independent and dummy variables which is the main effects model (i.e., monetary rewards and Gen cohorts). The second model is called "2" and it contains the model "1" plus the interaction term. Thus "2" contains all three terms in the regression model, i.e., Monetary rewards, Gen cohorts & interaction, and these form the moderated multiple regression.

The highlighted figures in the "R Square Change" column shows the change in the R square variation explained by the addition of the interaction term reported in percentages (GenZ=0%, GenY=0%, GenX=0.2% & Baby Boomers=0.3%). Also, the figures suggest that the change is statistically **not** significant (p>.005), a result that was obtained from the "Sig. F Change" column in the table. As such, the interaction term explains minimal to non-existent proportion of extra variability. Given this, the researcher can infer that age/generational cohorts **did not** moderate the relationship between monetary rewards and loyalty as evidenced by a minimal to non-existent increase in total variation of the cohorts - GenZ=0%, GenY=0%, GenX=0.2% & Baby Boomers=0.3%, which was also **not** statistically significant (p =.932(GenZ), .921 (GenY), .371 (GenX), .311(BB)). Thus, the researcher fails to reject the null hypothesis.

Moderating effect of generational cohort on Absenteeism

H₀:There is **no** moderating effect of generational cohort on monetary rewards and absenteeism.

H₁: There is **a** moderating effect of generational cohort on monetary rewards and absenteeism.

Table 4.12: Model Summary on the moderating effect of generational cohort & absenteeism

Model	Interaction	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
						R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	ER, GenZ	.178	.032	.021	1.147	.032	2.992	2	182	<.001
2	ER_GenZ_INT	.179	.032	.016	1.150	.000	.038	1	181	.846
1	ER, GenY	.167	.028	.017	1.149	.028	2.621	2	182	<.001
2	ER_GenY_INT	.186	.034	.018	1.148	.006	1.205	1	181	.274
1	ER, GenX	.174	.030	.020	1.148	.030	2.853	2	182	<.001
2	ER_GenX_INT	.175	.031	.015	1.150	.000	.069	1	181	.793
1	ER, BB	.168	.028	.018	1.149	.028	2.642	2	182	<.001
2	ER_BB_INT	.199	.040	.024	1.145	.012	2.183	1	181	.141
Dependent Variable: AB_weighted										

Like the analysis above, the highlighted figures in the "R Square Change" column shows the change in the R square variation explained by the addition of the interaction term reported in percentages (GenZ=0%, GenY=0.6%, GenX=0% & Baby Boomers=0.12%). Also, the figures suggest that the change is statistically **not** significant ($p > .005$). As such, the interaction term explains minimal to non-existent proportion of extra variability. Given this, the researcher can infer that age/generational cohorts **did not** moderate the relationship between monetary rewards and absenteeism as evidenced by a minimal to non-existent increase in total variation of the cohorts, which was also **not** statistically significant ($p = .846$ (GenZ), .274 (GenY), .793 (GenX), .141(BB)). Thus, the researcher fails to reject the null hypothesis.

Moderating effect of generational cohort on Satisfaction

H₀: There is **no** moderating effect of generational cohort on monetary rewards and satisfaction.

H₁: There is **a** moderating effect of generational cohort on monetary rewards and satisfaction.

Table 4.13: Model Summary on the moderating effect of generational cohort & satisfaction

Model	Interaction	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
						R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	ER, GenZ	.721	.519	.514	.478	.519	98.253	2	182	<.001
2	ER_GenZ_INT	.722	.521	.513	.479	.002	.703	1	181	.403
1	ER, GenY	.717	.514	.509	.481	.514	96.374	2	182	<.001
2	ER_GenY_INT	.722	.522	.514	.478	.007	2.718	1	181	.101
1	ER, GenX	.714	.509	.504	.483	.509	94.502	2	182	<.001
2	ER_GenX_INT	.714	.510	.502	.484	.000	.148	1	181	.701
1	ER, BB	.714	.509	.504	.483	.509	94.501	2	182	<.001
2	ER_BB_INT	.715	.511	.503	.484	.002	.575	1	181	.449
Dependent Variable: SA weighted										

The interaction term explains minimal to non-existent proportion of extra variability (GenZ=0.2%, GenY=0.7%, GenX=0% & Baby Boomers=0.2%). Also, the figures suggest that the change is statistically **not** significant (p>.005). Given this, the researcher can conclude that age/generational cohorts **did not** moderate the relationship between monetary rewards and satisfaction as evidenced by a minimal to non-existent increase in total variation of the cohorts, which was also **not** statistically significant (p =.403 (GenZ), .101 (GenY), .701 (GenX), .449 (BB)). Thus, the researcher fails to reject the null hypothesis.

Moderating effect of generational cohort on Performance

H$_0$: There is **no** moderating effect of generational cohort on monetary rewards and performance.

H$_1$: There is **a** moderating effect of generational cohort on monetary rewards and performance.

Table 4.14: Model Summary on the moderating effect of generational cohort & performance

Model	Interaction	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
						R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	ER, GenZ	.097	.009	-.001	.446	.009	.865	2	182	.423
2	ER_GenZ_INT	.101	.010	-.006	.447	.001	.132	1	181	.717
1	ER, GenY	.168	.028	.018	.441	.028	2.646	2	182	.074
2	ER_GenY_INT	.175	.031	.015	.442	.002	.455	1	181	.501
1	ER, GenX	.135	.018	.007	.444	.018	1.677	2	182	.190
2	ER_GenX_INT	.142	.020	.004	.444	.002	.365	1	181	.546
1	ER, BB	.100	.010	-.001	.445	.010	.917	2	182	.402
2	ER_BB_INT	.105	.011	-.005	.446	.001	.195	1	181	.659
Dependent Variable: PE weighted										

The interaction term explains minimal to non-existent proportion of extra variability (GenZ=0.1%, GenY=0.2%, GenX=0.2% & Baby Boomers=0.1%). Also, the figures suggest that the change is statistically **not** significant (p>.005). Given this, the researcher can conclude that age/generational cohorts **did not** moderate the relationship between monetary rewards and performance as evidenced by a minimal to non-existent increase in total variation of the cohorts, which was also **not** statistically significant (p =.717 (GenZ), .501 (GenY), .546 (GenX), .659 (BB)). Thus, the researcher fails to reject the null hypothesis.

Moderating effect of generational cohort on Turnover intention

H_0**:** There is **no** moderating effect of generational cohort on monetary rewards and turnover intention.

H_1: There is **a** moderating effect of generational cohort on monetary rewards and turnover intention.

Table 4.15: Model Summary on the moderating effect of generational cohort & TI

Model	Interaction	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
						R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	ER, GenZ	.738	.545	.540	2.493	.545	108.874	2	182	<.001
2	ER_GenZ_INT	.739	.546	.538	2.497	.001	.331	1	181	.566
1	ER, GenY	.726	.527	.522	2.541	.527	101.289	2	182	<.001
2	ER_GenY_INT	.727	.529	.521	2.542	.002	.935	1	181	.335
1	ER, GenX	.724	.524	.519	2.549	.524	100.162	2	182	<.001
2	ER_GenX_INT	.724	.524	.517	2.555	.001	.194	1	181	.660
1	ER, BB	.726	.526	.521	2.542	.526	101.143	2	182	<.001
2	ER_BB_INT	.726	.527	.519	2.549	.000	.101	1	181	.751
Dependent Variable: TI weighted										

Lastly, the moderating effect of generational cohort was tested, and the interaction term explains minimal to non-existent proportion of extra variability on the variables (GenZ=0.1%, GenY=0.2%, GenX=0.1% & Baby Boomers=0%). Also, the figures suggest that the change is statistically **not** significant (p>.005). Therefore, the researcher can infer that age/generational cohorts **did not** moderate the relationship between monetary rewards and turnover intention as evidenced by a minimal to non-existent increase in total variation of the cohorts, which was also **not** statistically significant (p =.566 (GenZ), .335 (GenY), .660 (GenX), .751 (BB)). Thus, the researcher fails to reject the null hypothesis.

4.5.3.1. Summary of the main findings

Various scholars have attempted to explore the moderating effect of generational cohorts with mixed results. While some findings suggested a possible relationship (Murali, Poddar and Seema, 2017), others have revealed no difference in the interaction effect of monetary rewards and absence levels based on age groups (Hassink & Koning, 2009; Adeogun, 2000; Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005). Noteworthy to mention that these findings were from other sectors other than the care sector.

Sector-specific research conducted by Lipman, Manthorpe and Harris (2018) showed that age or a generational cohort does have an impact on an employee's behaviour as perceived by care receivers from the quality of care given. However, the findings did not ascertain the importance of monetary rewards on care assistants' behaviours from a generational cohort

viewpoint. Building on Lipman, Manthorpe and Harris findings, the above analyses indicated that there was not a statistically significant moderating effect of all four generational cohorts on the relationship between monetary rewards and the five employee behaviours amongst care assistants in the care sector in England. Therefore, the researcher can conclude that while age/generational cohort may influence the quality of care provided by a care assistant, age/generational cohorts have little to no impact on care assistants' behaviour towards monetary rewards.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTING AND DISCUSSING QUALITATIVE RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1. Introduction

According to Bogdan & Biklen (1992), qualitative data are rough materials researchers collect from the world they are studying and are particulars that form the basis of analysis. Korstjens and Moser; (2017) defined this research type as the type that explores and provides a deeper understanding into real world problems by collecting participants experiences, perception and behaviours, which helps to answer the "how" and "why". This chapter presents the findings from the qualitative data collected from selected participants from the quantitative analysis. There were 20 participants who agreed to be interviewed and the researcher ensured that each generational cohort had equal representation. As discussed in the previous chapter, thematic analysis was used in creating common themes, which were coded and analysed. The following research questions informed the qualitative study:

Question One: Do monetary rewards have an influence on employee loyalty, absenteeism, employee satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention amongst care assistants in the care sector?

Question Two: What role do baby boomers, generations X, Y, Z play in the relationship between monetary rewards (independent variable) and loyalty, absenteeism, employee satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention (dependent variables) amongst the selected population and sector.

The interview aimed to seek further clarification on the research questions based on the findings from the quantitative analysis and views were only from participants with "carer", care assistants", "healthcare assistant" job titles. The following sub-sections will discuss the findings in detail.

5.2. Stages of qualitative analysis

Following the quantitative data collection and analysis, it was imperative to seek further clarification on some of the responses using semi-structured interviews. The interviews provided more insight on why the respondents responded the way they did and confirmed the findings from the quantitative analysis. Using Miles and Huberman's (1994) three concurrent flow of activity as a guide, the table below shows the steps that were followed to analyse the qualitative data.

Table 5.1.: Key steps followed in analysis qualitative data

Data cleansing & organisation	Interview responses were transcribed to Microsoft Excel and checked thoroughly. All responses were checked for incomplete information and the cleansed data was exported to NVivo 14 for further analysis.
Thematic coding	Initial codes were generated to identify and extract relevant ideas emerging from the responses. Similar codes were grouped together to form themes relevant in answering the two research questions
Summary & Interpretation	Themes were summarised and grouped into two main headings and four sub-headings. Details of the themes are discussed further in the chapter.

Following the interview session, the responses were transcribed into Microsoft Excel before being exported to NVivo 14 software for further analysis. This process was necessary to check for any missing data or incomplete information. Thereafter, excerpts from the in-depth interview were systematically categorised to form themes and patterns. This process was essential to make the interview analysis more systematic and rigorous, as well as to provide transparency and reflexivity to the researcher and other readers. The themes helped the researcher find insights that were truly representative of the interview data, accurately balanced participant representation, captured the human stories behind the responses, and methodically reviewed the analysis.

To achieve the research objectives, it was necessary to organise codes into categories that were either similar to each other or pertained to a similar concept. Subcodes were also created, and the researcher had to review and refine these codes constantly. Some codes were renamed, whilst some were merged to form new codes. This process was repeated several times until the right pattern was formed and aligned with the research objectives.

5.3. Review of themes based on research questions.

To answer the research questions, questions about participants understanding of their pay and benefits offering were asked and whether these met their expectation. Participants were asked to discuss their reward preference and the reasons for their choice. The five employee behaviours were discussed extensively, and participants were asked questions about whether monetary rewards could influence any of these behaviours and the reason for their response. Age was also an important point that was raised whilst interviewing the participants, as it was necessary to understand if respondents ages or generational cohort could have an effect in the relationship between monetary rewards and the five employee behaviours in view. All participants were coded, and pseudonyms were assigned to each interviewee. From the responses, the researcher was able to group themes into various headings and sub-headings, which helped in answering the research questions as follows:

Table 5.2. Major themes

Major Themes	Sub-theme
Influence on MR on the DVs	
1. MR does not influence DVs.	a) Better career prospects
	b) Non-financial rewards
	c) Satisfactory pay
	d) Retirement
MR influences DV	a) Better employee performance
	b) Improves employee loyalty
	c) Improves work satisfaction
	d) Low pay & no benefits
	e) Meeting financial obligations
	f) Resigning due to pay
Influence of age in the relationship between MR & DVs	
Age does not influence the relationship between MR & DVs	a) Passion for care
	b) Preference to non-financial reward
Age Influences the relationship between MR & DVs	a) Change in responsibilities & priorities
	b) Improved motivation

5.3.1. Influence on MR on the DVs

These are the participants who agreed or disagreed that monetary rewards influenced employee behaviours. They are broken down further into 2 sub-categories as follows:

5.3.1.1. MR does not influence DVs.

These are the participants who disagreed that monetary rewards influenced employee behaviours. The themes with the most references such as better career prospects, non-financial rewards and satisfactory pay are discussed in detail below.

5.3.1.1.1. Better career prospects

Better career prospect was a prevalent theme among the interviewees. Nine of those interviewed indicated that monetary rewards had little or no effect on loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, performance and turnover intention. Some of the interviewees professed their admiration for the role due to the opportunity to genuinely care for people, and the only reason they could think of leaving was to progress in the field. Some of the participants had the following to say:

Participant 3: "*No, it doesn't have an impact. My satisfaction comes from the job itself and when I am absent, it's because there is a reason for it. I desire to be a Lead Support Worker in future and if I were to leave this place, I will go to the NHS where there are better career prospects*".

Participant 14: "*Working as a carer allows me to make a positive impact on the lives of others, improving their health and well-being. Financial reward cannot be a motivator or influence on my behaviour. I see myself grow in my career and taking on more responsibilities within the company and leveraging the expertise i have gained working in this industry.*"

The responses suggest that monetary rewards may not necessarily be the only influencer of employee behaviours. In their study on motivating people through career paths, Bar-Isaac and Levy (2020) findings showed that employees or job applicants consider not only salaries offered, but also career trajectories that the jobs may bring. The survey carried out suggests

that career paths ranked among the top five factors when considering job opportunity while pay was the first.

5.3.1.1.2. Non-financial rewards

Eight participants indicated that there was a higher likelihood of being influenced by other forms of rewards that are not financial in nature such as work-life balance, opportunity for growth and development, effective communication, conducive environment proximity to work etc.

Participant 2: *"Whilst it's good to be paid fairly for the job that I do, that is not what keeps me with an employer. My loyalty to an employer will be based on good management, regular training, good work-life balance which you cannot get as a carer. Sometimes, money isn't everything. Being happy is better."*

Participant 6: *"I am willing to remain with my care home if the working environment is conducive. I work a 12-hour shift, 3 days a week and I cannot afford to be in a hostile environment. I am being paid fairly, though not great like other sectors but I can pay my bills. My mortgage is paid so I am here not for the money, but for the fulfilment I get to be of help. Sorry I digress, but what I am trying to say is that I am more willing to stay in a home that is conducive, has a good management – junior staff relationship filled with respect and love."*

The above statement from the participants somewhat corroborates the findings from scholars such as Bhattacharya & Mukherjee, (2009) who studied the effect of non-financial rewards on employee behaviours and concluded in their study that whilst monetary rewards are powerful tools in reshaping employee behaviour and their performance, non-monetary rewards are an important antecedent for engaging employees and sustaining the employment relationship after the depletion of any monetary incentives.

5.3.1.1.3. Satisfactory pay

Satisfactory pay was also among the prevalent themes that emerged from the interview under the current sub-heading. Five participants disagreed that monetary rewards could influence employee behaviours due to their employer's pay transparency during the hiring process, including paying carers the real living wage (RLW) irrespective of their age.

Participant 7: "*I am satisfied with my pay because I knew the rates before I applied for the job. I'm sorry, but I really don't understand why someone would accept a job, knowing the rate and afterwards complain. I believe the rate in my home is competitive in the market because I see adverts daily and I know what carers are paid. In terms of whether an incentive would improve my absence, I don't think so, because when I am absent, it is for a genuine reason.*"

Participant 18: "*For now, I am satisfied with my pay, sick pay and overtime pay because I knew the offer when I interviewed for the position. I don't think monetary reward should be a great influence. It is common knowledge that our sector is low paid, but I want to believe most carers like me are in it for the passion.*"

Of the 102 references established among 10 themes, only 24 references (24%) suggest that monetary rewards might not be influential. Although some of the participants who were not in favour acknowledged the importance of pay, i.e., being paid fairly, the researcher notes that participants who preferred non-financial rewards were mostly the older working groups who have been working in care and their current employer for a while.

5.3.1.2. MR influences DV

These are the participants who agreed that monetary rewards influenced employee behaviours. The themes with the most references such as improve employee loyalty, improves work satisfaction, low pay & no benefits and meeting financial obligations are discussed in detail below.

5.3.1.2.1. Improves employee loyalty.

The above theme was prevalent amongst participants. Twelve participants indicated that the financial rewards from their employer do not meet their expectation and could affect their loyalty. Most of the participants referred to the rising cost of living and how their current pay was no longer meeting their needs. Participants were asked to mention the top three factors that could make them loyal and satisfied with their employer and all twelve participants echoed monetary rewards being a major motivator and would not hesitate to seek alternative employment if necessary.

Participant 4: "*A very good pay is my own form of reward.*"

Participant 13: "*I will gladly remain with my current employer if my reward package is good. I feel that my efforts to giving excellent services should determine how much my pay would be*".

5.3.1.2.2. Improves work satisfaction.

Over fourteen references were drawn from the interview responses of participants suggesting that monetary rewards, especially pay, was important to their satisfaction. Whilst some termed a higher wage to increasing motivation and satisfaction, others believe that good pay determines not only job satisfaction but improves absenteeism and performance. Participants were asked if offering financial incentives could reduce absenteeism and improve performance. Whilst some disagreed with this notion, most participants agreed.

Participant 3: "*It would be good if the best performers are rewarded monetarily for their performances to encourage them*".

Participant 6: "*Although the work environment is important to me, I will not deny that paying some form of financial incentive will show that efforts put into my work has not gone unnoticed and this serve as a motivation to do more and better*".

Participant 4*: "Paying a financial incentive will absolutely go a long way. This incentive will encourage me because I can meet up with my financial commitments".*

5.3.1.2.3. Low pay & no benefits

Participants were asked to explain their understanding of their employers pay and benefits offering, and whether the reward package met their expectation. Whilst all participants understood the employers offering, 60% of participants disagreed that the reward package was sufficient.

Participant 15: "*My organisation pays minimum wage, and the benefits are statutory. No company sick pay, incentive or bonus. The pay is low compared to job expectations.*"

Participant 12: "*No, the money does not meet up to my expectations, the bills and tax, electricity, water are much.*"

5.3.1.2.4. Meeting financial obligations

Participants were asked where they saw themselves in the future and what the reasons for wanting to leave their employer might be. Financial obligation was a prevalent theme and 55% of participants said they would consider leaving their employers due to the inability to meet their financial obligation.

Participant 11*: "I feel very unhappy with my pay, especially because of the amount of work that I do. My job is physically draining, and I am not even compensated well for it. My pay does not meet my expectation. I can't save up for important things like a car or a mortgage on this rate. I might as well be stacking shelves in the shops which pays better."*

Participant 1: "*With the rising cost of living, and family commitments, my rate of pay has become insufficient. My employer pays the minimum wage, and with the current wage increase, I still struggle to make ends meet. As a single parent with caring responsibilities, I feel my pay is very low compared to the type of job that I do. If I were to leave, I don't think I will be seeking alternative employment in the care sector.*"

Over time, scholars have made significant progress in researching the influence of monetary reward on employees' behaviours and findings have largely confirmed the existence of a positive link between these variables (Heneman & Schwab, 1985; Ren, Fang & Yang, 2017). However, there has been limited studies on the effect of these variables on care assistants, which this research aims to contribute towards. The response from participants helps to highlight the influence of monetary reward on the five employee behaviours, which also validates the result from the quantitative analysis. The need for a higher pay commensurate to the role's responsibility was echoed amongst most participants including those who preferred non-financial rewards due to the current high cost of living and staff shortage in the sector. Some participants mentioned being burnt out and some form of financial incentive would be beneficial this period to act as a buffer and reduce absenteeism. Whilst the responses in favour of monetary rewards were higher, one cannot ignore the fact that a good number of participants also thought that whilst monetary rewards was essential, non-monetary rewards such as a good work-life balance, communication, respect, career advancement, good working environment and flexibility were equally important particularly amongst the older carers. Thus, the diagram below illustrates the overall preference of participants regarding the research topic.
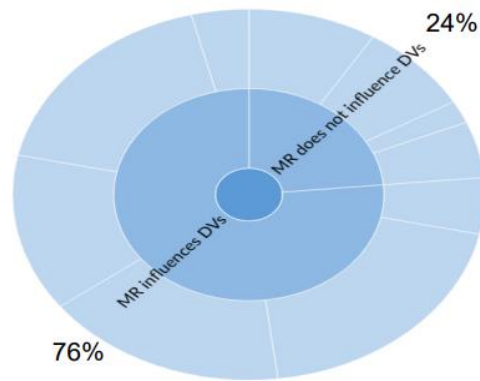
Figure 5.1.: Overall percentage of participants - MR influences DVs

5.3.2. Influence of age in the relationship between MR & DVs

These are the participants who either agreed or disagreed that age influences the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviours.

5.3.2.1. Age does not influence the relationship between MR & DVs

These are the participants who disagreed that age influences the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviours. Two themes were developed and will be discussed below.

5.3.2.1.1. Passion for care

Previous studies on the likelihood of age influencing the relationship between monetary rewards and the five behaviours were discussed during the interview and participants were asked if they felt that their age or the generation, they fall under could be influential to how they view monetary rewards within the workplace. Participants from the baby boomer – Gen X disagreed with this as they think that care assistants should be in the profession mainly because of their passion for care, i.e., the desire to look after the most vulnerable in the society. A few of the older participants reminisced on the pride they had when they joined the care sector as young carers. They agree that times have changed, and priorities are now different. Some of the participants had the following to say:

Participant 16: "*I have been a carer for a long time. I am not in it because of any financial gains. But I think younger employees tend to work more to create positive impression before*

their boss to earn more. But the longer you are in the job, the more experience you gain and that's a non-quantifiable asset to the home."

Participant 20: "*No, it doesn't have an impact. My satisfaction comes from the job itself and when I am absent, it's because there is a reason for it.*"

5.3.2.1.2. Preference for non-financial reward

A second theme that emanated from the interview was preference for non-financial reward. Some participants disagreed that their generation had an influence in their perception of monetary rewards. Instead, there was more preference for non-financial reward such as work-life balance due to caring responsibilities and career growth.

5.3.2.2. Age influences the relationship between MR & DVs

These are the participant who agree that age influences the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviours.

5.3.2.2.1. Change in responsibilities & priorities.

The interviewer was able to draw 10 references from those who agreed age had a moderating effect. Participants attributed the influence on the fact that adults take on more responsibilities and priorities as they advance in age. Due to family commitments and growing needs, there is the need to be more loyal and stay with a provider that pays more and/or offers additional incentives. Some participants also believe that more responsibility should equate to additional pay. It is worth mentioning that participants who responded to this question were cut across the different generational cohorts.

Participant 8: "*I believe age plays a big role in the factors mentioned above, because the older one gets the more responsibilities and priorities changes as well*".

Participant 5: "*Yes, it could but people are willing to do more when needs and bills are waiting.*"

5.3.2.2.2. Improved motivation

A second theme that was developed from the responses was improved motivation. When asked if age could influence their behaviour if monetary reward was introduced, some participants who fall within the Gen Z cohort indicated that they would rather stay with an employer that has a good pay structure and incentive initiative. Older participants within the baby boomer cohort also concluded that monetary reward would motivate younger colleagues who were just starting their career in care.

Participant 11: "*I believe age does have an effect in the relationship between these items. I will rather stay with a company that has a good pay structure*".

Participant 18: "*Personally, it doesn't for me but i think younger employees that are starting their career can often be more motivated with monetary rewards than older employees. This can be related to the fact that the younger employees often don't have families/dependents as compared to older employee that may just try to prioritize job stability and flexibility over monetary rewards.*"

The figure below reflects the overall response rate of the two main themes under generational cohort as a moderating variable. Of the 35 references identified, **57%** of participants didn't think their age had any influence in their decision to be loyal, absent, satisfied or leave their employers. Whilst participants agreed that monetary reward was important, especially with the current economic situation, they understand the sector is low paid. Most participants in this group felt that working in social care as a carer should be for the passion and the need to help vulnerable people in the society. It is important to note that participants were within the baby boomer – Gen X cohort who started as carers at a young age and were nearing retirement.

In contrast are the participants who felt that age could influence their decision to remain and give their best to their employers. **43%** of participants felt that their current family commitments and changing priorities were crucial, and remaining with an employer was based on whether these commitments or priorities could be met from their earnings. Whilst most participants agree that a good pay indicates appreciation, participants in the Gen Y and Z cohort were particularly vocal about their willingness to remain with an employer if the monetary

rewards, mostly pay was good. The above interview transcripts elucidate on previous findings, particularly those from scholars like Lipman, Manthorpe and Harris's (2018) who highlighted the importance of resisting the urge to characterise staff by age or the generation they fall under. The scholars found that age or a generational cohort had little impact on an employee's behaviour, and such behaviour would only be affected due to other factors such as working conditions.
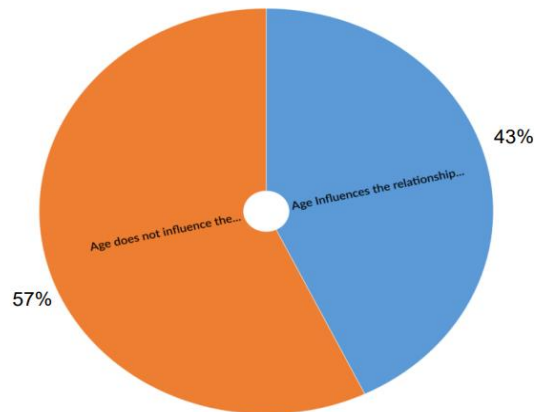

Figure 5.2.: Overall response rate – moderating effect of generational cohort on MR & DVs

5.4. Summary & conclusion

The effect of monetary rewards on the selected behaviours have been studied for many decades with scholars like (Pfeffer, 1998; Hart & Thompson, 2007; Scheflen, Lawler and Hackman, 1971; Hassink and Koning, 2009; Stringer et al., 2011; Gupta and Shaw, 2014; A'yuninnisa and Saptoto, 2015) attempting to clarify a relationship between monetary rewards and the five variables. Whilst some of the findings suggested a relationship between the variables, other scholars like (Brief &Weiss, 2002; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Wright & Kim, 2004) identified a weak relationship thus, leading to mixed and inconclusive findings.

The findings from the interview showed that whilst some participants agreed that monetary reward was not the main motivation of being a carer, the majority agreed that monetary rewards, especially pay and incentives were a major consideration for being with an employer. Also, the issue of absenteeism, performance, satisfaction and turnover intention were addressed. Some participants agreed that an incentive could improve absenteeism as some were absent due to taking up additional highly paid agency bank shift to augment their pay.

Furthermore, majority of participants didn't think age was a moderating factor. Most of the participants believed financial commitments and priorities were the driving factor to wanting a higher rate. Although all 20 participants were selected from all ethnicities and backgrounds, the interviewer observed that most participants who passionately articulated their opinion about monetary rewards were from certain ethnicities who had financial commitments both in the UK and in their home country. Another observation was the path into which the participants began working in the care sector. Most participants saw the carer role with their current employer as a springboard to other role types or organisation. It was observed that younger workers within the Gen Y (the cusp) and Gen Z cohort indicated that they were more interested in working either in institutions like the NHS due to better pay, pensions and career advancement or pursuing a different career in other better paying sectors. The findings from the qualitative analysis supports the findings from the quantitative study allowing the researcher to infer that although monetary rewards may influence care assistants' behaviours, there is limited evidence to suggest that age moderates this relationship.

As discussed in chapter 3, the researcher adopted the explanatory sequential design, utilising both quantitative and qualitative methods for analysis. The method was adopted due to recognising the inadequacies of either method in addressing the research questions and objectives. Following data analysis, the researcher asserts that adopting the mixed method approach using explanatory sequential design was appropriate for the research, as it enhanced the quantitative data evaluation and aided its interpretation and understanding through the qualitative analysis. The researcher admits that either method may have been equally sufficient; however, combining both data analyses helped to balance and strengthen the limitations of each method, aided in authenticating the survey responses, and helped understand carers' attitudes towards monetary reward in detail.

RECOMMENDATION AND CONCLUSION

6.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the research findings from the quantitative and qualitative analyses. It explores the relationship between the research questions, literature review and emerging findings. The following sub-section begins with key findings, summary of the findings and addressing the research questions that highlights the significance of the research.

6.1. Key findings

- Monetary rewards have a significant and strong influence on employee loyalty, satisfaction and turnover intention, and the introduction of monetary rewards could reduce absenteeism and improve employee performance of care assistants in English care homes.
- While pay was considered important for Baby boomers and Gen Xers, it wasn't their primary motivation.
- Carers born between Gen Y and Gen Z view the sector as a gateway to other sectors and prioritise pay over intrinsic rewards.
- Overall, carers regardless of their generation, believe age does not influence the relationship between monetary rewards and the five employee behaviours.

6.2. Summary of the findings

Monetary rewards and their impact on employee behaviour have been discussed widely amongst academics and industry experts. There is a consensus amongst industry experts that a major reason for offering monetary rewards is to influence employee behaviour to join or remain with an employer and perform their best (CIPD, 2023). Whilst this notion may sound plausible, there is uncertainty as to whether this relationship could be influenced by variables such as age, or if it holds true across all sectors and roles. The research therefore aimed to investigate the influence of monetary rewards on five specific behaviours - loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, performance and turnover intention among multigenerational frontline care assistants, in the English care sector. The research focused on gaining an in-depth understanding of previous academic research on monetary rewards, the five employee

behaviours and generational working, with the aim of applying this knowledge to the care sector. To achieve this, various academic studies on these variables were extensively reviewed, beginning with the concept of employee rewards, and examining ways organisations formulate policies and implement strategies aimed at rewarding people fairly, equitably and consistently (Armstrong & Murlis, 1988). Previous studies have shown how monetary rewards is considered essential and an intangible symbol of social status, personal growth and employee's worth within the organisation (Glen, 2005; Robbins, 2001).

The reward – employee behaviour relationship has been reviewed in detail through the works of other notable past and present scholars who have recorded mixed results about the relationship between both variables. Whilst some scholars argued in favour of monetary rewards having an important impact on these behaviours (Jenkins et al., 1998; Kosfeld, Neckermann & Yang 2014), other scholars found that monetary rewards do not always lead to the desired results and may lead to counter-productive outcomes such as a decrease in trust and destructive competitiveness (Aguinis, Joo & Gottfredson, 2013; Christ et al., 2008). These variables were also explored further amongst care assistants (population of study) in the care sector. It is important to note that there has been limited studies on the impact of monetary rewards on the five specific behaviours within the care sector, particularly among care assistants. Whilst scholars such as Carr (2014), Vadean & Allan (2020), Rakovski and Price-Glynn (2010), Oyira (2010) and Vadean (2018) have studied the effect of monetary rewards on the five behaviours among care sector staff in general, the nature of this relationship among care assistants specifically remains unclear.

Generational cohort and its impact on the relationship between both variables have also been studied generally. Four generations are currently working side by side in the sector, and most care sector workers are concentrated around Generations X and Y. Studies have shown that care roles are more attractive to the older generation due to behavioural qualities and a preference for older workers due to experience that comes with age. Whilst studies have concentrated more on other areas such as the impact of generational differences on quality of service (Lipman, Manthorpe and Harris, 2018), there is limited academic research on how a care assistant's age or generation influences the relationship between monetary rewards and the five behaviours.

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Following the review of existing literature, it became clear that there is a gap in literature regarding the population of study. Although previous studies have addressed other areas such as the impact of employee behaviour on the quality of service offered, studies on the effect of monetary rewards on care assistants' behaviours or the influence of their generation on these variables is lacking. Therefore, the following sub-sections will examine how the findings have helped to address the research questions.

6.3. Meeting the research aims, objectives and research questions

As mentioned above, the research aimed to investigate the influence of monetary rewards on five behaviours such as loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, performance, and turnover intention, among frontline multigenerational care assistants in the English care sector. Three objectives were formed and linked to two research questions as discussed in chapter 1 section 1.3. The table below shows a summary of how data were collated and analysed to achieve the research objectives and answer the research questions. This will be explored further in the following sub-sections.

Table 6.1.: Meeting the research aim, objectives and answering the research questions

Research aim: To investigate the influence of monetary rewards on five behaviours such as loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, performance, and turnover intention, among frontline multigenerational care assistants in the English care sector.				
	Research Objectives		Linked research questions	Method of achievement
1.	To examine the impact of monetary rewards on employee behaviour in the UK care sector.	1.	Do monetary rewards have an influence on employee loyalty, absenteeism, employee satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention amongst care assistants in the care sector?	Literature review
2.	To clarify whether there is a relationship between monetary rewards and behaviours like loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention amongst frontline care assistants working in care homes in England.			Quantitative & Qualitative data collection & analysis

(Survey & Semi-structured Interview) |
| 3. | To explore whether generational cohorts play a role in the relationship between monetary rewards and the selected variables amongst frontline care assistants working in care homes in England. | 2. | What role do baby boomers, generations X, Y, Z play in the relationship between monetary rewards (independent variable) and loyalty, absenteeism, employee satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention (dependent variables) amongst the selected population and sector. | Quantitative & Qualitative data collection & analysis

(Survey & Semi-structured Interview) |

6.3.1. Research objective 1

To examine the impact of monetary rewards on employee behaviour in the UK care sector.

This objective was achieved through a comprehensive review of existing literature on monetary rewards, employee behaviours and their relevance in the care sector. Notable scholars like Armstrong and Murlis (1988) defined monetary rewards as strategies and policies aimed at rewarding people fairly and consistently based on the amount of work put in. The literature review also examined the relationship between monetary rewards and the employee behaviours generally, with scholars such as Maslow (1963), Herzberg et al (1959), Vroom (1964), Stacey (1965) discussing this relationship extensively. Their contributions have now become fundamental to understanding the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviours to date. Academic scholars have studied the relationship between monetary rewards and the five behaviours extensively yet produced mixed results. While some empirical studies have shown a strong correlation between these variables (Akhigbe & Ifeyinwa, 2017; Ohunakin & Olugbade, 2022), other scholars have found that monetary rewards may be counter-productive and lead to a decrease in trust etc (Aguinis, Joo & Gottfredson, 2013; Christ et al., 2008).

Similarly, the literature review also examined the relationship between these variables in the care sector. Findings revealed that care sector workers respond favourably to an increase in monetary rewards, resulting in improved absenteeism, satisfaction and turnover intention (Akerlof &Yellen, 1986; Rubery et al, 2011). The impact of monetary rewards on the five behaviours among workers in the sector suggest a generally positive correlation. However, the findings vary as follows: there were limited studies on loyalty; correlation was positive but weak on absenteeism, and the findings on performance produced inconclusive results. The researcher observes that previous empirical studies produced inconclusive results, as well as limited literature specifically addressing the impact of monetary rewards on the five behaviours among care assistants, providing a theoretical justification for examining this relationship in detail. This will be further discussed in the relevant sub-section.

6.3.2. Research objective 2 & Research question 1

RO 2: To clarify whether there is a relationship between monetary rewards and behaviours like loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention amongst frontline care assistants working in care homes in England.

RQ 1: Do monetary rewards have an influence on employee loyalty, absenteeism, employee satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention amongst care assistants in the care sector?

To achieve this objective and address this question, the explanatory sequential mixed method design was adopted. Data were collected from 188 survey participants, and 20 of these participants were subsequently interviewed in a follow-up session. Overall, the findings indicate that monetary rewards have a significant and strong influence on employee loyalty, employee satisfaction and turnover intention, corroborating the research by Borzaga and Tortia (2006) which found a strong correlation between monetary incentives and worker satisfaction and loyalty in a study of over 2,000 public and private care sector employees. The findings from this study also suggest that monetary rewards have a minimal impact on absenteeism and performance levels, which supports Pearce (2001) findings that high absence rates are more often due to stress from other caring responsibilities rather than pay issues. Similarly, whilst previous performance studies have yielded mixed results, Philpott's (2014) study on the influence on monetary rewards on employee performance reiterates that despite care assistants earning twice their pay, their performance was still the same due to the poor working conditions. In essence, Philpott's findings suggest that without an improved work environment, higher pay alone will not improve performance. The conclusions from the quantitative study were like those from the semi-structured interviews. Interview participants were asked about the impact of monetary rewards on the five behaviours with sub-themes created to clarify the quantitative findings particularly related to absenteeism and employee performance. The interview results indicated that financial incentives could reduce absenteeism and improve performance – a view contrary to the survey findings and past studies. Overall, up to 76% of interview participants acknowledged that monetary rewards influenced the five behaviours, thus corroborating the quantitative findings and addressing the research objective and research question in relation to this study.

6.3.2. Research objective 3 & Research question 2

RO 3: *To explore whether generational cohorts play a role in the relationship between monetary rewards and the selected variables amongst frontline care assistants working in care homes in England.*

RQ 2: *What role do baby boomers, generations X, Y, Z play in the relationship between monetary rewards (independent variable) and loyalty, absenteeism, employee satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intention (dependent variables) amongst the selected population and sector.*

The influence of age was considered as a moderating factor; however, the quantitative results showed that no generational cohort moderated the relationship between these variables. The need to clarify age/generational cohort as a moderating variable was identified. It was important to validate the findings from the quantitative study, which showed that no age group moderated the relationship. To achieve this, it was essential to interview participants from the different age groups and ensure equal representation across all four generations in the second phase of the study. Participants were asked about their views on how age influences the relationship between monetary rewards and the five behaviours. Several themes emerged from the discussions. Baby boomers and Gen Xers were found to feel more passionate about caring and saw it as a duty to look after the most vulnerable in the society, thereby supporting Lipman, Manthorpe and Harris (2018) conclusion that older generation workers contribute positively due to life experiences, whilst younger workers had the capacity to pick up new ideas and practices quickly. Although Gen Xers considered pay important, it was not their primary motivation. An interesting theme that emerged from the interview was the preference for non-monetary rewards, such as work-life balance due to caring responsibilities and career growth. These were mainly from Gen X and Y who make up much of the care workforce in the sector. It was observed that participants on the cusp of Gen Y and actual Gen Z view the care sector as a gateway to other sectors, prioritising pay over intrinsic rewards. Another observation made was despite generational differences, pay was important to everyone due to the current cost of living crisis which has led to higher prices of goods and services without a corresponding increase in wages. Despite this, the overall result from the interview indicates that 57% of care assistants believe age does not moderate the relationship between monetary rewards and the five employee behaviours. Therefore, validating the quantitative findings and addressing the

research objective and research question in relation to this study. However, caution is necessary before concluding that age or generational cohort does not have a moderating effect, since 43% of interview participants believed that a care assistant's generation was significant. This percentage is nearly equal to those who disagreed, indicating a divided opinion on the matter which will be discussed in the following sub-sections.

6.4. Research contributions and implications

This section presents the research contribution to existing knowledge and industry practice. It explores methods for improving monetary rewards to positively influence the behaviours of care assistants across the four generations in the care sector, and lastly, the section will examine the impact of the current economic crisis on the population of study and concludes with recommendations for care home providers.

6.4.1. Contribution to knowledge

As highlighted in section 1.2, the study of the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviour has been the centre of discussion in the academic space for over four decades, as reviewed in the literature review in chapter two. These five behaviours have received significant attention due to their important role in a business's success. Various scholars have constantly reviewed ways of understanding the factors that influence frontline care workers' behaviours especially from a reward perspective.

Pay has been widely discussed, with care assistants' pay at the forefront of the national narrative due to the importance of the role, the demanding nature of the job and the huge disparity between rates paid in the National Health Service (NHS) and those by private providers to care assistants, despite huge profits made by these private care operators (Martin, 2020). Whilst academic scholars have generally studied this relationship with differing views, there have been limited empirical studies on the relationship between monetary rewards and the five specific behaviours amongst care assistants in the English care sector.

The workplace has recently undergone changes due to different age groups/ generational cohorts working together. Only recently did the newest generation, known as Generation Z or Gen Z for short, joined the workforce with their unique traits and deposition towards monetary rewards. Although there has been limited academic study linking generational cohort to

monetary rewards and the five behaviours, the findings have produced mixed results from various researchers. As at the time of their research, Gen Y was the latest group of employees in the workplace. Whilst the relationship mix has received considerable academic attention, there has been limited findings on the latest generation – Gen Z. With the new entrant in the workplace, many questions have emerged regarding their general behaviour traits, motivations and whether their behaviour is influenced by monetary rewards. Therefore, this research aims to contribute to existing knowledge by understanding the interconnectedness of the three variables: monetary rewards, the five employee behaviours, and a potential influence of age or cohort on this relationship amongst care assistants in the English care sector.

6.4.2. Contributions to practice

The care sector already faces a significant shortage of workers due to the care role being undervalued. With CPI rising by 10.4% in the 12 months to February 2023, the Bank of England estimates inflation may peak at 11%. The rise in general prices of goods and services has affected UK employees, particularly hitting hard on care assistants who are among the lowest paid in the UK (Sameen, 2023). There is little incentive to take on additional responsibilities due to the small pay differential between roles. On average, care assistants with five or more years of experience in the sector are paid only six pence (6p) more than entry-level care assistants (Towers, 2023). Currently, the sector is heavily reliant on migrant workers, who are perceived to have migrated for economic reasons (Franklin & Brancati, 2015). Due to the influx of international workers as a result of the relaxed immigration rules, the sector has recently seen more posts being filled, fewer vacancies, and a reduction in staff turnover despite the low wage, thereby creating a superficial impression about the sector and further discouraging UK-born carers and Gen Z from joining or remaining in the sector due to the low wage compared to the amount of work and responsibility.

The findings from the qualitative analysis in chapter five identified areas that HR and care sector leaders could address to improve the uptake of carers in the sector. These will be discussed in detail below.

6.4.2.1. Attracting more people into care through competitive pay

Recent research by the Prince's Trust reveals the top three characteristics of Gen Z's dream job. They are (1) doing what makes them happy, (2) doing what they enjoy and (3) feeling financially secure (Prince's Trust, 2023). The report shows that young people in this age group are planning for the short term and are currently prioritising having any job over their dream job due to the economic uncertainty and the cost-of-living crisis. The care sector has witnessed a growth in under 25s, who now make up 26% of care assistants in England. However, this age group has also witnessed the highest turnover rate, currently at 53.7% between March 2022 and 2023 (Skills for Care, 2023). Although the reason for this trend was unclear; Skills for Care, the workforce development and planning organisation for adult social care in England presumes that young workers may have taken social care jobs as a temporary measure while searching for jobs in their preferred sector – a presumption that corroborates the research from The Prince's Trust and findings from the qualitative analysis in chapter five.

Despite this presumption, the care sector could make working in care attractive to young workers by offering pay, benefits and career support/development that suits their lifestyle and aspirations. One aspect of monetary rewards that private care providers can capitalise on is offering Gen Z carers the NLW regardless of their age. Currently, there is no statutory requirement to pay all workers irrespective of age the same rate of pay, as the government has provided minimum rates based on age categories. To attract young workers into the sector, it is recommended that all carers are paid the same rate, regardless of their age, on the assumption that all carers do the same amount and type of work and are not limited to specific tasks based on age. This approach could enhance competitiveness within the sector and discourage carers from leaving the sector to other sectors like retail due to the disparity in pay compared to the level of responsibility. Although care providers may be concerned about the cost implications of this decision and the thought of passing this cost to residents, it should be noted that 63% of beds in private care homes are filled up by state-funded residents (ONS, 2023). Thus, the financial impact on fee-paying residents would likely be minimal.

6.4.2.2. Career development opportunities

Care providers can also attract and retain carers by offering employee development programmes. With government-funded apprenticeship programmes available, care providers

can support care staff who wish to develop their expertise, thereby developing more home-grown carers and reduce the reliance on overseas workers. With pay being one of the most important factors to a carer (Bottery, 2022), care providers might consider offering pay top-ups to care assistants of all ages who successfully complete a qualification as a way of motivating and encouraging them to develop in the social care sector.

6.4.2.3. Employee benefits

Currently, employee benefits in the care sector are limited to statutory entitlements, which may be unattractive to younger workers who are keen to explore the world, or middle-aged workers who are keen to start or expand their families, or older carers nearing retirement. Asides better pay, a recurring theme from the interviews was the lack of employee benefits that caters to the diverse lifestyles across the four generations. Therefore, care providers could improve benefits such as holiday entitlement, with potential increases based on continuous service to improve loyalty. They could also provide enhanced sickness cover to improve absenteeism, improve maternity/paternity pay to increase satisfaction and reduce turnover intention related to childcare responsibilities or caring needs, and provide performance-related bonuses to boost performance. Whilst these measures would increase the wage bill of care providers, findings have shown that the introduction of enhanced benefits have improved actual turnover by up to 4.2% (Skills for Care, 2023).

6.5. Limitations of the research

As discussed in the methodology chapter, the researcher encountered limitations due to the global pandemic that made the population of study inaccessible to adequately test the survey instrument. The researcher relied on feedback from the small number of participants who partook in the pilot test to refine the main survey instrument. For the main study, the researcher found it difficult getting specific care providers to participate in the study due to access issues due to the aftermath of the pandemic. Most care providers were trying to keep afloat and ensure that residents are kept safe, which reduced traffic into the homes. Because of this, the researcher resorted to searching for private care groups on social media that admitted only care assistants who worked in care homes. The survey instrument was shared twice in the online care groups, and a couple of reminders were sent before responses were received. The researcher also had to ensure that the four age groups were adequately represented and trusted

respondents to be truthful about their age. The initial estimated number of respondents envisaged for the main study following the pilot study was 500 respondents; however, the researcher was only able to gather 188 respondents in total. Most respondents wanted a financial incentive for filling the survey; however, this was against research ethics.

Another limitation was the interview sample size. Over 80% of those who filled the survey initially gave their consent to be interviewed. But most of them declined to participate in the interview due to personal reasons. The researcher managed to secure 20 respondents willing to participate, and ensured the four generations were equally represented.

6.6. Recommendation for future research – understanding the role of culture of carers.

The relationship between monetary rewards and the five behaviours among multigenerational carers have been discussed widely with mixed results. There is still potential to study this relationship in more detail using a larger sample and interviewing more respondents. Also, findings from the qualitative analysis suggests that culture and economic background could influence the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviour among care assistants. A similar study was conducted by Furnham (1994), where the researcher examined the relationship between money and age among workers in the Middle East compared to their counterparts in developed countries. His findings indicated a positive correlation between both variables (money and age) and concluded that young people of working age in the Middle East place a higher value on money compared to their counterparts in the UK and are more determined to earn more money to raise their standard of living. Similarly, Huang and Van de Vliert's (2003) empirical study on employees' working in multinational corporations in forty-one countries found that employees in developed countries were driven more by intrinsic rewards, whilst their counterparts from developing countries placed high importance on extrinsic rewards due to their low standard of living. With international workers increasing and forming a significant proportion of the care sector workforce, understanding the role of culture and economic background in this mix could be beneficial in formulating monetary reward strategies that would balance the financial expectation of both international and UK-born care workers.

6.7. Research conclusion

The aim of this research was to examine the influence of monetary rewards on five crucial employee behaviours: loyalty, absenteeism, satisfaction, performance and turnover intention of multigenerational care assistants in the English care sector. The research sought to understand how monetary rewards impact these behaviours and the role of generational cohorts in this relationship. The findings suggest that monetary rewards do impact a carer's behaviour to some extent, regardless of their age or generation. This presents an opportunity for care providers to tap into the diverse UK workforce by improving pay and benefits albeit the associated cost. The sector experiences high employee turnover, which could be avoided by closely monitoring statistics on turnover intention, as the findings from the quantitative study have revealed a significant correlation between a carer's intention to leave and the level of monetary rewards received. Therefore, it is important for private care providers to recognise the impact of low pay on the rate of carers who leave the sector, and to consider the cost-benefit implication of this exodus.

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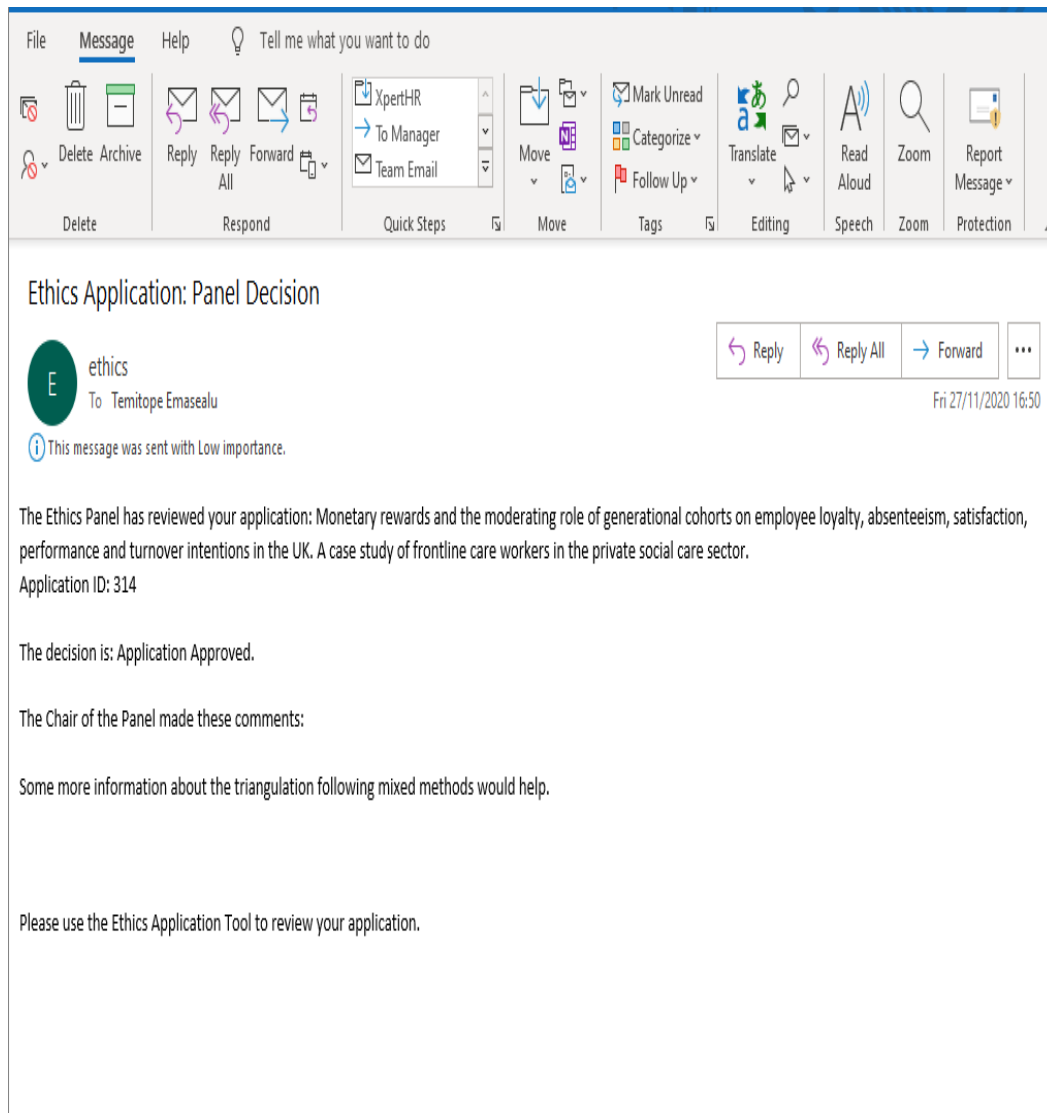
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Appendix 1: Ethical approval

Appendix 2: Survey Instrument

Employee Behaviour Questionnaire

1. Please state your job title (Care *

   _____

2. Please state the region you live in *

   Mark only one oval.

   ⬭ England
   ⬭ Wales
   ⬭ Scotland
   ⬭ Northern Ireland

3. Are you willing to take part in a follow-up interview *

   Mark only one oval.

   ⬭ Yes
   ⬭ No

4. Please provide your email address *

   _____

Participant Consent Form

Your participation is vital to the success of this research. If you agree to take part in this research, kindly read through the participant information sheet provided

Be rest assured that your data will be processed in accordance with the GDPR guideline and your responses will be kept confidential. Please note that you can withdraw your consent at any point during this project by emailing either t.e.emasealu@edu.salford.ac.uk, n.watson@salford.ac.uk or K.A.Hartley@salford.ac.uk Please note that withdrawing will not have a negative impact on you.

5. I confirm that I have read and understood the project information sheet provided *
   to me via the Home representative for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

   Mark only one oval.

   ⬭ Yes
   ⬭ No

6. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at *
   any time without giving any reason

   Mark only one oval.

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7. I agree to take part in the project and understand that the information collected   *
    about me will be used to support other research in future, and may be published
    and shared anonymously with other researchers and industry stakeholders

    Mark only one oval.

    ◯ Yes
    ◯ No

8. I agree to being interviewed and take part in any audio recording as part of this   *
    research if necessary

    Mark only one oval.

    ◯ Yes
    ◯ No

Demographic questions

9. How old are you? *

    _____

10. What is your gender? *

    Mark only one oval.

    ◯ Female
    ◯ Male
    ◯ Prefer not to say

11. How long have you been working with your employer? (In years) *

    _____

Employee Behaviours

This section seeks to understand the effect of monetary rewards (pay, benefits & financial incentives) on five important employee behaviours such as loyalty, absenteeism, employee satisfaction, employee performance and turnover intentions. Please note that answers will be used strictly for its intended purpose and your response will be kept confidential.

12. I am being paid fairly for the work that I do *

    Mark only one oval.

    ◯ Strongly Disagree
    ◯ Disagree
    ◯ Neutral
    ◯ Agree
    ◯ Strongly Agree

13. My benefits package (pensions and other financial incentives) is competitive   *
    compared to other employers in my sector

    Mark only one oval.

    ◯ Strongly Disagree
    ◯ Disagree
    ◯ Neutral
    ◯ Agree
    ◯ Strongly Agree

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14. I am satisfied with my rate of pay *

Mark only one oval.

○ Strongly Dsagree
○ Disagree
○ Neutral
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

15. I am satisfied with the value of benefits that I receive (e.g. pensions and other   *
financial incentives)

Mark only one oval.

○ Very Dissatisfied
○ Dissatisfied
○ Neutral
○ Satisfied
○ Very Satisfied

16. Rank the following types of reward in order of their value to you *

Mark only one oval per row.

	Least important	Slightly important	Moderately important	Important	Very important
Pay, Pensions etc	○	○	○	○	○
Growth	○	○	○	○	○
Work-life balance	○	○	○	○	○
Recognition	○	○	○	○	○

17. I owe a great deal to my employer. *

Mark only one oval.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neutral
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

18. I speak positively about my employer when talking to friends and relatives *

Mark only one oval.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neutral
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

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19. I can recommend my employer as a place to work *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neutral
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

20. I would not change to another employer if I got a job offer *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neutral
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

21. I would like to stay with this employer also in the future *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neutral
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

22. I would feel guilty if I left my employer now. *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neutral
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

23. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my employer *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neutral
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly agree

24. I turn up for work daily because that is what is expected *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neutral
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

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25. I turn up for work daily because it is interesting *

Mark only one oval.

- ⬭ Strongly Disagree
- ⬭ Disagree
- ⬭ Neutral
- ⬭ Agree
- ⬭ Strongly Agree

26. I turn up for work predominantly for the financial rewards (pay, pensions and other financial incentives) *

Mark only one oval.

- ⬭ Strongly Disagree
- ⬭ Disagree
- ⬭ Neutral
- ⬭ Agree
- ⬭ Strongly Agree

27. I turn up for work because i have a good relationship and enjoy working with my colleagues *

Mark only one oval.

- ⬭ Strongly Disagree
- ⬭ Disagree
- ⬭ Neutral
- ⬭ Agree
- ⬭ Strongly Agree

28. I am more willing to turn up for work daily if I am offered an attendance bonus *

Mark only one oval.

- ⬭ Strongly Disagree
- ⬭ Disagree
- ⬭ Neutral
- ⬭ Agree
- ⬭ Strongly Agree

29. How satisfied are you when you are given the chance to do different things from time to time? *

Mark only one oval.

- ⬭ Very Dissatisfied
- ⬭ Dissatisfied
- ⬭ Neutral
- ⬭ Satisfied
- ⬭ Very Satisfied

30. How satisfied are you with the working conditions? *

Mark only one oval.

- ⬭ Very Dissatisfied
- ⬭ Dissatisfied
- ⬭ Neutral
- ⬭ Satisfied
- ⬭ Very Satisfied

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31. How satisfied are you when you are given the chance to make an impact in people's life? *

Mark only one oval.

○ Very Dissatisfied
○ Dissatisfied
○ Neutral
○ Satisfied
○ Very Satisfied

32. How satisfied are you with your pay compared to the amount of work that you do? *

Mark only one oval.

○ Very Dissatisfied
○ Dissatisfied
○ Neutral
○ Satisfied
○ Very Satisfied

33. How satisfied are you with the chances for advancement on the job? *

Mark only one oval.

○ Very Dissatisfied
○ Dissatisfied
○ Neutral
○ Satisfied
○ Very Satisfied

34. How satisfied are you with the feeling of accomplishment you get from the job? *

Mark only one oval.

○ Very Dissatisfied
○ Dissatisfied
○ Neutral
○ Satisfied
○ Very Satisfied

35. I maintain a high standard of work. *

Mark only one oval.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neutral
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

36. I can handle my assignments without much supervision *

Mark only one oval.

○ Strongly Disagree
○ Disagree
○ Neutral
○ Agree
○ Strongly Agree

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37. I am very passionate about my work. *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neutral
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

38. I have the tools and resources needed to do my job *

Mark only one oval.

- ◯ Strongly Disagree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Neutral
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Strongly Agree

39. How often have you considered leaving your employer? *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Nev	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Always

40. How frequently do you scan internet job boards in search of alternative job opportunities? *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Nev	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Always

41. To what extent do the pay & benefits associated with your current job prevent you from quitting your job? *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
To r	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	To a very large extent

42. How likely are you to accept another job at the same rate of pay should it be offered to you? *

Mark only one oval.

	1	2	3	4	5	
High	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	Highly Likely

Feedback section

Your feedback will be helpful in making this questionnaire useful for future academic scholars

43. Were the questions easy to understand?

_____

44. If you could change anything, what would this be?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

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Appendix 3: Interview questions

1. Tell me about your understanding of your organisation's pay and benefits offering

Follow up question: Do these (monetary rewards) meet your expectation? Please elaborate on your answer

2. In your opinion, which area of monetary rewards do you think has more impact on you–pay or benefits?

Follow up question: Can you please elaborate on your answer?

3. Some studies suggest that age could influence the relationship between monetary rewards and some behaviours such absenteeism, satisfaction and performance. Can you please share your thoughts on it?

Follow up question - There are occasions when employers offer financial incentives for low absenteeism and high performance. How can offering financial incentives influence your behaviour as a carer?

Follow up question (b): Do you think your age or personal circumstance, such as family commitment etc has a possible impact on your response? Could you please elaborate more on this

4. Could you please mention the top three factors that could make you remain loyal and satisfied with your employer?

5. Lastly, where do you see yourself working in the 1-3 years?

Follow up questions: What would be the reason for your decision?

Appendix 4: Themes Identified from Thematic Analysis

Codes

Name		Description
1.	**Influence of age in the relationship between MR & DVs**	**These are the respondents who either agreed or disagreed that age influences the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviours**
1a	**Age does not influence the relationship between MR & DVs**	**These are the respondents who disagreed that age influences the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviours**
	Passion for care	These are the respondents who disagreed that age was an influence. Respondents suggest that carers in care should be genuinely passionate for the role and not solely for financial gains
	Preference to non-financial reward	These are the respondents who disagreed that monetary rewards influenced employee behaviours. These respondents prefered non-financial reward element such as good work-life balance and career growth
1b	**Age Influences the relationship between MR & DVs**	**These are the respondents who agree that age influences the relationship between monetary rewards and employee behaviours**
	Change in responsibilities & priorities	These are respondents who agreed that age could determine how people respond to monetary rewards. As people grow older, they become more responsible financially and priorities change
	Improved motivation	These are the respondents who agreed that age could influence how carers respond to monetary rewards. Most respondents suggest that younger workers are more inclined to be motivated by higher financial rewards than other older workers

Name		Description
2	**Influence on MR on the DVs**	**These are the respondents who agreed or disagreed that monetary rewards influenced employee behaviours**
2a.	**MR does not influence DVs**	**These are the respondents who disagreed that monetary rewards influenced employee behaviours**
	Better career prospects	Respondents who are thinking of resigning due to better career opportunities
	Non-financial rewards	Respondents who prefer a better reward type to monetary rewards
	Retirement	Respondents who are thinking of leaving care due to retirment or health issues
	Satisfactory pay	Respondents who disagree that monetary rewards influence employee behaviours
2b.	**MR influences DVs**	**These are the respondents who agreed that monetary rewards influenced employee behaviours**
	Better employee performance	Respondents who believe that higher monetary rewards will encourage them to put in more effort
	Improves employee loyalty	Respondents who believe that a higher wage would make them stay longer with an employer
	Improves work satisfaction	Respondents who agree that higher wages improve satisfaction
	Low pay & no benefits	Respondents who agree that pay is low compared to the demands of the job. Therefore, impacting on their attitude in the workplace
	Meeting financial obligations	Respondents who agree that monetary reward is important due to rising cost of living and other financial commitment
	Resigning due to pay	Respondents who are thinking of quitting their jobs due to low monetary rewards