

The Micro Foundations Of Public Employee Behavior

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DOCTORAL THESIS

Title **THE MICRO FOUNDATIONS OF PUBLIC
EMPLOYEE BEHAVIOR**

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DISSERTATION ABSTRACT

Public Service Motivation (PSM) is regarded as the primary motivational basis of public sector employee and has emerged as a pivotal construct in the study of public personnel. Over the years PSM has been held responsible in explaining a number of employee behaviors and attitudes. This thesis examines the impact of PSM on some of the attitudes and behaviors of public sector employees that are important for the organization. This thesis employs various empirical tools to examine a set of relationships said to be driven by PSM. The attitudes and behaviors linked with PSM that are examined here are prosocial behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, individual performance, turnover and burnout. We examine past empirical literature to reconcile disparate results and also present new empirical data to better understand the influence of PSM on these organizationally relevant variables.

To Amer and Nadir, you inspire me to be better

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1

General Introduction

1.1 Relevance of the topic

Public sector outcomes including the proper implementation of government policies and the smooth running of the government pivot on the quality and motivation of those employed in the civil service (National Commission for Public Service, 2003). Also, since many citizen interactions with the state pass through government employees (Kjeldsen, 2012), who now have more roles and responsibilities and entrusted higher decision-making powers (Kernaghan & Langford, 2014), these public service providers are be deemed as the “real policy makers” (Lipsky, 1980).

The public servant faces a distinctive context of public organizations presenting employees with unique constraints such as political interference, ambiguous and often competing goals as well as changing agendas (Ring & Perry, 1985). This is accompanied with ever increasing pressure to deliver better services with increased efficiency. The desire to join the public service despite the many challenges faced in public employment along with lower monetary compensation is largely attributed to the distinct motivational basis of these individuals. Given the critical role of public servants in public sector outcomes, it is vital to understand the behavioral underpinnings of these employees for better management of public service provision.

One way to do this is to look at the microfoundations of behavior of the government worker. In line with Stoker (2010), we define microfoundations as the underlying mechanisms which guide individual behavior. Using the theory of motivation to

study these foundations of behavior this thesis attempts to answer the broader question: *Does Public Service Motivation positively shape the attitudes and behaviors of public sector employees?*

In order to answer this question, it is important to first address which employee attitudes are pertinent for the study of public sector employee. Subsequently, this thesis considers a range of individual behaviors and attitudes to see whether they are influenced by PSM in a manner beneficial to the organization. Identifying and highlighting PSM's role in shaping attitudes and behaviors that have positive implications in the organizational context is the first step towards improving the quality of services provided by public organizations.

1.2 Theoretical perspectives leveraged

Individual behavior is the product of a variety of forces guiding human behavior. Various existing theories explain individual behavior in the workplace. While some theories attribute behavioral outcomes to individual level characteristics like needs and attitudes, others focus on some aspects of the environmental like the context of work or the characteristics of the work itself (Frank & Lewis, 2004). In the attempt to understand the microfoundations of individual behavior the main focus of this thesis is on individual level characteristics to explain behavior. The main foundations

of the research rest on the psychological perspective and use the theory of motivation.

Psychology offers a multitude of theories of motivation for understanding individual workplace behavior like goal setting theory, expectancy theory, Maslow's hierarchy of needs and equity theory to name a few. However, this research relies on a theory of motivation not from the organizational psychology literature but one that has emerged from the field of public administration and management i.e. Public Service Motivation (PSM). PSM is the principal theory of motivation that is used to explain public personnel attitudes and behavior and has been used extensively by researchers over the years (Ritz, Brewer, & Neumann, 2016).

The theory of PSM was built on the foundation that the motivations of individuals employed in the public sector differ significantly from the motivations of individuals employed in the private sector (Perry, 1996) and offered an alternative to the rational choice theories of motivation (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007). The PSM theory acknowledges the plurality of motivational basis for human behavior and is an amalgamation of rational, normative and affective motives of individuals (Perry & Wise, 1990). It simultaneously incorporates an individual's desire to participate in the policymaking process, sense of duty towards society and belief in the social importance of public programs. We use this dominant motivational theory to explain the attitudes and behaviors of public personnel.

That said, we are also cognizant of the sociological perspective that posits that human behavior is a product of the environment in which it is situated and that it plays an important role in shaping behavior. Although the main crux of this thesis does not utilize this approach, we do incorporate some elements of the environment in the thesis. We draw on literature from the field of economics to identify elements of the environment that may shape the relationship of PSM with individual attitudes and behaviors. The first environmental construct utilized is the level of corruption in the country. Prevalence of corruption in a country can negatively impact the government institutions by undermining trust within the bureaucracy and reduce efficiency of the organization (Gould & Amaro-Reyes, 1980). The second environmental element that is used is the legal origins of the country that are used in literature to explain the institutional differences between countries (Botero, Djankov, Porta, Lopez-de-Silanes, & Shleifer, 2004; La Porta, Lopez-de-Silanes, & Shleifer, 1999). We utilize both these constructs to see how they influence PSM's ability to influence individual attitudes and behaviors.

1.3 Methodology

When answering a research question, the researchers are presented with a variety of research methods. The most suitable methodology for a study depends on the nature

of the research question itself. This thesis uses a variety of research methods, each time using the methodology most appropriate for answering the research question. The three essays in this thesis use distinct research methodologies.

The first essay is a systematic review of literature as it endeavors to document and highlight the variety of attitudes that are pertinent for the study of public sector employees, and hence for public sector outcomes. For the second essay, the presence of a significant amount of empirical research on the relationships of interest as well as inconsistencies in the empirical results of these studies presented an ideal opportunity for utilizing the meta-analysis technique. A meta-analysis not only synthesizes a vast empirical literature but also indicates the presence (or absence) of a true relationship between the variables (Stanley, 2005; Stanley & Jarrell, 1989) while also identifying variables that moderate the given relationship (Stanley, 2001).

The relationship in essay 3 is one that has been previously empirically tested in literature, however this has been done primarily using self-reported cross-sectional, single-rater and same-survey data. This leaves room for methodological improvements in the empirical testing of this relationship. Hence, we use primary data to perform a comparative analysis of self-reported, cross-sectional, single-rater data obtained in the same-survey with actual observed behavior. Along with furthering our understanding of the relationship in question, the comparison of the results of self-reported, cross-sectional, single-rater and same-survey data with actual

observed behavior gives us insight into the distortion created by common method bias. Hence this thesis uses three distinct methodologies, each chosen with respect to the research question as well as the nature of extant literature.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is presented as a monograph that is based on three essays, each addressing one aspect of the broader research question behind this thesis. The research questions for each of the essays are 1) Which employee attitudes are pertinent for the public sector organization? 2) Under what circumstances does PSM influence desirable attitudes and behaviors of public personnel? 3) Does PSM positively influence the prosocial behavior of public sector employees?

The first essay attempts to comprehensively understand the various attitudes of public sector employees that are pertinent for public sector outcomes through a systematic review of literature. The next two essays proceed to closely inspect and evaluate the impact of PSM on a selection of attitudes identified in the first essay as well as certain behaviors of public sector employees. Specifically, the second essay assesses the impact of Public Service Motivation on employee attitudes and behaviors using meta-analysis tools to gauge the true impact of PSM on five distinct outcome variables while also accounting for the role of environmental factors and

the third essay empirically evaluates the relationship between PSM and individual prosocial behavior based on the analysis of primary data to assess the impact of PSM on prosocial behavior.

Collectively the essays seek to provide insights about the micro-foundations of individual behavior in the area of public administration and management. In the final chapter of the thesis the findings and conclusions of the essays are aggregated to highlight the contribution of this thesis and also provide suggestions for academics and practitioners in the field of public administration and management. The following sections present a brief overview of each of the three essays comprised in this thesis. The references and appendices pertaining to each essay are provided at the end of the respective chapter.

1.4.1 Essay 1

The first essay is titled “Attitudes in Public Management: A systematic review of literature”. In this research we focus our attention on highlighting the different attitudes held by public personnel that are pertinent in the organizational context.

In social psychology, Allport (1935) suggested a link between an individual’s attitudes and their behavior. Since then a vast literature has supported this idea and suggested a profound influence of attitudes on individual behavior (Visser, Bizer, &

Krosnick, 2006) moderated by various situational and individual level variables (Albarracin, Johnson, Zanna, & Kumkale, 2005). Two main types of models describe the process through which attitudes influence behavior, those based on conscious deliberation to choose a course of action and those based on spontaneous reaction (Fazio, 1990). In either case, the link between individually held attitudes and individual behaviors is one that is well recognized.

Being cognizant of the critical role of attitudes in guiding individual behavior, we examine the existing public administration literature pertaining to attitudes. Using a systematic approach, we review the literature on attitudes in the 8 leading journals of public administration and management and inductively categorize the extant literature into job attitudes, political ideology, attitudes towards citizens / constituents and attitudes towards policy.

1.4.2 Essay 2

This essay is titled “The Benefits of PSM: An Oasis or a Mirage” and focuses on Public Service Motivation, heavily regarded as the primary motivational force behind the efforts of public servants. PSM is touted to enhance a multitude of positive attitudes and behaviors of employees. We take stock of the extant empirical literature to ascertain if there is indeed a true impact of PSM on employee job

attitudes highlighted in essay 1 and also three critical behaviors: individual performance, organizational citizenship behavior and negative outcomes. The empirical literature on PSM's relationship with each of these organizational outcomes is often conflicting. Hence, this essay has two primary goals, firstly, to determine whether there is indeed a true impact of PSM on each of these attitudes and behaviors and secondly, to identify the variables that are responsible for the variance in the results of the extant literature. Furthermore, this essay extends the existing theory of PSM by investigating how two macro level variables, the level of corruption and the legal tradition of the country, impact PSM's ability to influence individual outcomes.

In order to integrate and synthesize the considerably large empirical literature and introduce moderating variables to the relationships we rely on the meta-analysis technique as developed by Stanley and Doucouliagos (2012). The results suggest that PSM has a genuine effect in increasing employee commitment and organizational citizenship behavior while also increasing burnout and intentions to quit the organization. We also find that the level of corruption and the legal origins of the country have an effect on PSM's influence on individual attitudes and behaviors.

1.4.3 Essay 3

In this essay we focus on one specific individual behavior and its relationship with PSM. Prosocial behavior on part of employees is beneficial to organizations (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000) as employees go over and above their prescribed role in the organization to indulge in behaviors such as organizational citizenship, knowledge sharing, etc. The theory of PSM as explicated by Perry and Hondeghem (2008) posits that PSM entails doing good for others. This has led to assertions that individuals with high Public Service Motivation are more likely to engage in prosocial behaviors and these have been empirically tested over the years. However, a closer inspection of the literature revealed that this relationship is primarily supported using self-reported cross-sectional, single-rater and same-survey data making them susceptible to potential biases. Keeping in mind the importance of employee prosocial behavior to organizations (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) we re-examine the relationship between PSM and prosocial behavior using primary data.

We conduct two studies each employing distinct measurement methods to gauge PSMs relationship with a specific manifestation of prosocial behavior i.e. blood donation. Study 1 employs self-reported, cross-sectional, single-rater and same-survey data and finds a positive relationship between one of the dimensions of PSM

and prosocial behaviors. Study 2 uses an observational measure of actual prosocial behavior and finds no significant relationship between PSM and prosocial behavior.

These results reveal that the strength of the relationship between PSM and prosocial behavior may be weaker than originally attributed. Also, the analysis of past literature reveals that prosocial behavior has been treated as a homogenous group of behavior. In fact, scholars have distinguished between the different type of prosocial behaviors displayed by individuals (Organ, 1997; Williams & Anderson, 1991) each triggered by distinct underlying emotional and psychological mechanisms (McNeely & Meglino, 1994). This points to the conclusion that the link between PSM and prosocial behavior is not a settled issue and needs more research attention in order to establish firstly, whether PSM increases prosocial behavior of individuals and secondly, which types prosocial behaviors are augmented by PSM.

1.4.4 Presentation and scholarly contribution

The three essays that form the core of this thesis are at various stages of the publication process as presented in Table 1.1. Essay 1 has been co-authored with Dr. Marc Esteve and Dr. Tamyko Ysa. Essay 2 is co-authored with Dr. Germà Bel and Dr. Marc Esteve and has received a revise and resubmit from the Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory. Essay 3 is co-authored with Dr. Marc Esteve

and Dr. Arjen van Witteloostuijn and is in the 2nd round of review at Public Administration.

Table 1.1 Contributions to scientific knowledge

Title	Authors	Journal	Status	Conference Presentations
All about attitudes: A systematic review of literature	Sahar Awan, Marc Esteve & Tamyko Ysa	Target journal Public Management Review	Preparing submission	2017 EGPA Conference
The benefits of PSM: An Oasis or a mirage?	Sahar Awan, Germà Bel & Marc Esteve	Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory	Revise & Resubmit	
Talking the talk but not walking the walk – A comparison of self-reported and observed prosocial behavior	Sahar Awan, Marc Esteve & Arjen van Witteloostuijn	Public Administration	2 nd round of review	2017 PMRC

The essays are presented in Chapters 2, 3 and 4 of the thesis. Together, the three studies give insights into the impacts of PSM on individual behaviors and attitudes, while also informing the PSM theory. This thesis makes several contributions towards theory while also being relevant for practitioners managing the implementation of public services. The meta-analytical study makes an important contribution to literature by clarifying the true impact of PSM on five

organizationally relevant employee attitudes and behaviors while also being pertinent to practitioners by giving important insights into the environmental factors that regulate the organizational impacts of PSM. It indicates the need to exercise caution when using PSM as a tool to achieve certain organizational outcomes as country specific factors mould these relationships. The thesis also highlights the necessity of employing better measurement techniques in PSM research and the potential threats posed by common method bias. These contributions along with a general discussion of the thesis are presented in detail in Chapter 5.

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2

**All about Attitudes: A Systematic
Review of Literature**

2.1 Abstract

Attitudes drive our perceptions and responses to the social world, making them indispensable for understanding individual behaviour. Hence, we conduct a systematic review of attitudes literature in top public administration journals and present our findings from the analysis of 132 articles. We find that scholarly interest in employee attitudes has peaked considerably in the last two decades accompanied by a shift towards employing quantitative methodologies, with a significant improvement in the statistical analysis techniques used. Further, we inductively classify different attitudes studied in the literature and find that in addition to job attitudes, employee attitudes towards political ideology, their constituents and implemented policies are all salient in public sector research and have unique implications for the public sector outcomes.

2.2 Introduction

Individual attitudes shape cognition and reasoning (Hatemi & McDermott, 2016) and are good predictors of behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). Despite this pivotal role of attitudes in guiding and explaining individual behaviour, public administration literature regarding their role in the organizational setting remains largely fragmented. Scholars in public administration note the lack of attention paid not only

to individually held attitudes, but to the overall analysis of individual behaviour of public administrators using insights from psychology (Grimmelikhuijsen, Jilke, Olsen, & Tummers, 2016). Our research responds to the calls from these scholars who marshal the view that an increased focus on the micro-foundations of individual behaviour can yield substantial benefits to our understanding of public management.

As our perceptions, responses and construction of the social world are in part driven by attitudes, and they serve a vital role to individuals in providing a fundamental orienting function (Hatemi & McDermott 2016). In situations when the outcome is dependent on the individual then the attitudes are worth investigating (McDermott, 2004). The work setting in many public sector organizations is such that a certain amount of discretionary autonomy is granted to employees in the fulfilment of their professional duties (Dehart-davis, 2007; Kropf, Vercellotti, & Kimball 2013), making their attitudes an important variable for their work outcomes.

Observing the importance of attitudes in determining outcomes, a comprehensive view of the attitudes pertinent for public sector outcomes is needed. In this study, we present a systematic review of existing literature of attitudes research in leading public management journals and contribute to the literature in two important ways. Firstly, we develop and present a classification of public sector employee attitudes

which can help future scholars in monitoring the attitudes pertinent to the study of public sector employees. Secondly, we contribute by highlighting the areas which are under researched and require further research attention.

Our appraisal of the current literature reveals that the attitudes relevant to workplace behaviour in public management go far and beyond the employee attitudes studied in general management. Whereas a considerable amount of public management research deals with job attitudes as is the case in general management, public administrator attitudes towards a variety of other factors also have an impact on the behavioural outcome or in service delivery (Forbes, Hill, & Lynn Jr., 2007; Konisky, 2008; Tummers, Steijn, & Bekkers, 2012). We discuss each of these categories and their pertinence in the public sector employment context in the next sections.

2.3 Attitudes

The idea that attitudes influence behaviour enjoys broad consensus, and is indispensable to the study of human behaviour (Tesser & Shaffer, 1990). It has gained widespread attention in psychology, sociology and subsequently general management. Previously there were some doubts over the integrity of the attitude-behaviour relationship, and scholars had reservations about the ability of attitudes to influence actual behaviour (Wicker, 1969). These doubts were dissuaded by Ajzen's

'principle of compatibility' (Ajzen, 1989, p. 249) which recognizes the need to match the generality/specificity of the attitude and behaviour in question. According to Ajzen (1989), consistency in relevant attitudes and behaviours will be observed if both are measured at the same level of generality or specificity. A specific behaviour performed will correspond to the specific attitude towards an object and not the general attitude towards a larger concept or entity. Using a general attitude to predict a specific behaviour creates evaluative inconsistency and compatible levels of specificity or generality are better suited for predicting behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005).

Although there are a number of definitions, they all recognize evaluation as the core characteristic of attitude (Ajzen, 1989). Attitude is generally regarded as an evaluation of an object which can range from positive to negative (Cooper & Croyle, 1984). We define attitudes as 'an individual's disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution, or event, or to any other discriminable aspect of the individual's world' (Ajzen, 1989, p. 241). According to the theory of reasoned action 'people's attitudes follow spontaneously and consistently from beliefs accessible in memory and then guide corresponding behaviour' (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000, p. 1). Given that evaluations may be formed about any attitude object, there are an immeasurable number of attitudes held by any individual. However, for the purposes of this research, we are only concerned with those

attitudes that may shape subsequent behaviour in an organizational setting or have a potential organizational impact.

While sociologists and psychologists have engrossed themselves in the study of various social attitudes, management scholars have mostly limited their inquiry to specific individual attitudes that directly relate to the workplace or the organizational context. A vast organization management literature has looked at the relationship of attitudes such as job satisfaction and organization commitment with performance and citizenship (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2011). However, in the public sector work context a wider range of individual attitudes are relevant as compared to private sector organizations. For example, the concept of representative bureaucracy is based on the idea that the attitudes of public administrators will generally represent the attitudes of the public and hence the policies implemented will be in line with those attitudes (Meier & Bohte, 2001; Wilkins, 2006). Hence, public management literature deals not only attitudes towards the job and the organization but also with other social and political attitudes held by public sector employees. Our review of literature reveals that in addition to job attitudes, public manager attitudes towards political ideology, citizens and constituents, the public policy are some of the other attitudes that have also been studied extensively due to their salience for public management outcomes.

2.4 Methodology

Over the years there have been periodic review articles on attitudes in political science (Hatemi & McDermott, 2016), organization psychology (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2011) and psychology (Moscovici, 1963; Petty, Wegener, & Fabrigar, 1997; Ajzen, 2001) which consolidate the findings of past literature in these fields. The same, however, has not been done in public management despite an abundance of research on attitudes. Hence, as systematic literature review is undertaken to categorize the various attitudes pertinent in the study of public managers, comprehensively present the findings of past research, and highlight the gaps in existing knowledge.

The ISI Web of Science database was utilized to search for all relevant literature in the top journals in the field of public management, with the keyword 'attitude*s'. The search identified articles which used the keyword in the title, the keywords identified by the author or in the abstract. Clear criteria for inclusion were applied for the selection of articles for review. Firstly, only English language articles published in the top journals in the field of public management were included in this review. The vastness of attitudes literature does not permit us to expand our search to all public management journals. This strategy has also been employed previously by other scholars (Andrews & Esteve, 2015). The journals included are Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory, Governance, Public Administration

Review, Public Administration, Public Management Review, American Review of Public Administration, International Public Management Journal and Review of Public Personnel Administration. Since these selected peer reviewed journals are the leading journals in the field of public management, it is assumed that the research published in these journals will provide a holistic view of attitudes research in public management. This preliminary screening yielded a total of 287 articles. No time limit was placed for the oldest article to be included however few journals provide electronic access to articles older than the 1970's.

Secondly, only empirical studies where attitudes were the assessed dependent or independent variable were included. And finally, only those articles which examined the attitudes of individuals employed in public organizations were included. The attitude of citizens or other individuals not employed in public organizations does not fall within the scope of this review. These criteria were first applied to the title and abstract of each of the articles and then again to the full articles in order to determine if the article met the selection criteria. Some articles referred to 'attitudes' but either fell outside the definition of attitudes used in this research or only made a passing reference to attitudes. This multi-stage screening yielded a list of 132 articles finally included in the literature review spanning the last five decades. A complete list of the articles included in the review is provided in the appendix for this chapter. While we believe that our search keyword was able to identify most public management literature dealing with attitudes, we also acknowledge, that there

may have been some articles not covered in this review as some researchers may not overtly use the term ‘attitude’ while studying its particular manifestation.

2.4 Findings

Kelman (2007, p. 227) notes the usage of primitive empirical methods, an excessive dependence on case studies and ‘essayism’ in public administration research. However, the articles in our review paint a different picture altogether. An overwhelming proportion of the articles use quantitative methods (92%) to empirically test their hypothesis, while very few articles use mixed (2%) or qualitative methods (5%). This supports recent claims on the existing positive bias in public management research towards the use of quantitative methods (see Ospina, Esteve, & Seulki, 2017). More importantly, we clearly witness a positive development towards the usage of a wider variety of empirical methods like experiments (see Gilke, 2016; Nielsen & Baekgaard, 2015; Thaler & Helmig, 2016) as well as more sophisticated quantitative techniques in more recent publications. The fact that most researchers (61%) have used primary research, in the presence of vast government databases is quite encouraging, signifying diversity in the data sets used. However, a point of concern is the continued over-reliance on data from the U.S, with 60% of the studies based on data collected in this country. This may signal an over-reliance on results which may not necessarily be replicable in other contexts.

Table 2.1 Background characteristics of the studies included

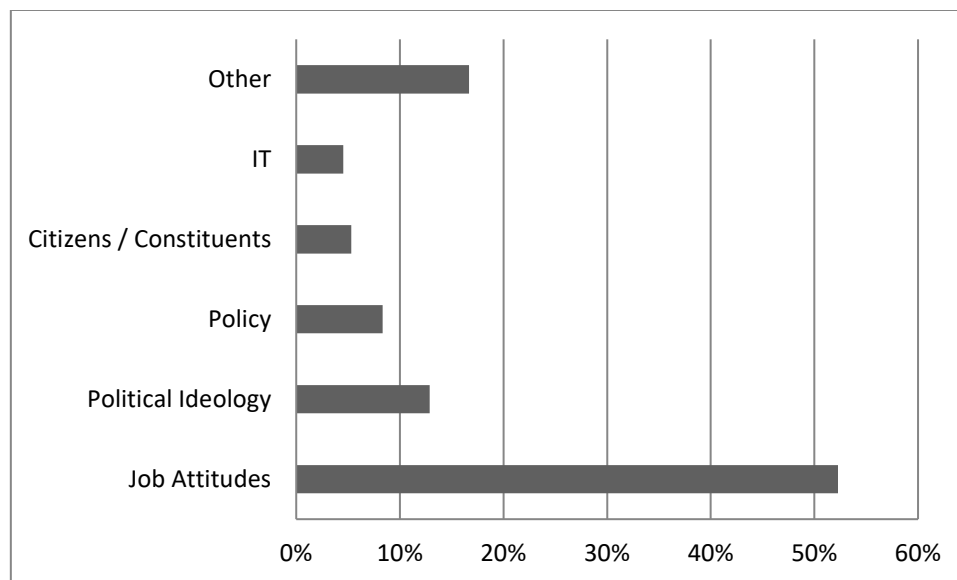
Type	%
<i>Method</i>	
- Quantitative	92%
- Qualitative	5%
- Mixed methods	2%
<i>Country</i>	
- United States	60%
- United Kingdom	7%
- Continental Europe	18%
- Other	15%

The oldest article included in this review dates back to 1974, and the most recent was published in 2017, hence covering a considerable span of time. Reviewing these articles, it is apparent that the quality of public management research has significantly improved over the years. Some of the earlier articles are primarily concerned with documenting the attitudes of public managers rather than necessarily correlating them with other variable (i.e. Wynia, 1974) while employing relatively basic quantitative analysis tools, predominantly relying on averages. Over time, more sophisticated quantitative tools as well as better theoretical foundations for theory testing have infiltrated the field, likely signalling an increase in the quality of the research in the field of public management and administration.

Although public managers' attitudes have been studied for a long time, attitudes research in public management received a boost only in the last decade. Whereas general management attitudes literature primarily deals with job attitudes, the

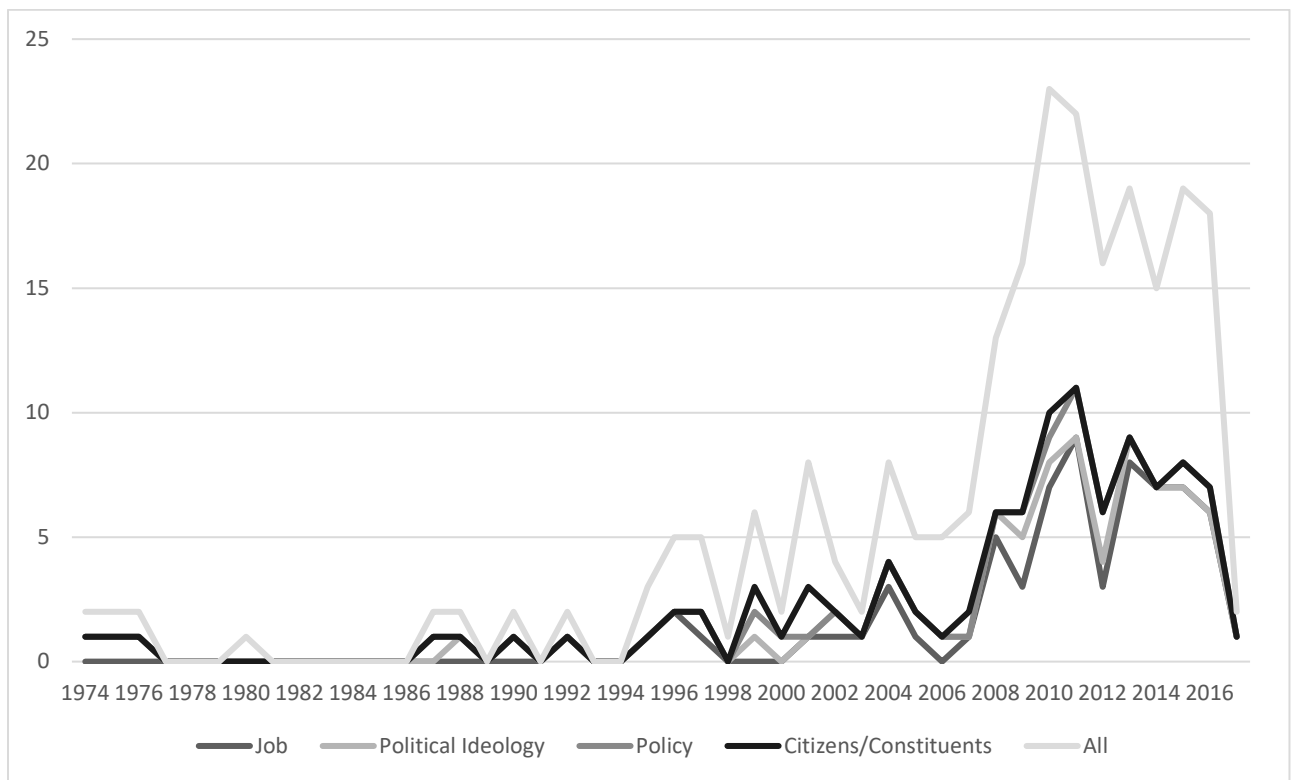
attitudes research in public management is much more diverse. Since no prior research has by and large looked at public management attitudes literature there exists no prior categorization of attitudes relevant to public sector employees. In the absence of any such classifications, we have used the inductive method to arrive at a number of distinct categories of attitudes which characterize public managers. The most recurring ones include attitudes towards the job, political ideology, citizens and constituents, and public policy among others. The number of articles dealing with each of these categories of attitudes is shown in Figure 2.1. We synthesize the findings of each of these categories in the following sections.

Figure 2.1 Articles categorized by different attitude area



Furthermore, there is a trend of changing researchers' interests in various attitudes. While the attitudes regarding certain objects have been periodically studied over time (i.e. the political ideology of public administrators), other attitudinal dimensions have only recently picked up interest from the academic community. Individual attitudes towards policies or practices implemented by the organizations is one such area. This trend of the changing interests in various attitudes is depicted in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2 Publishing trend over the years



As the attitude towards different objects may have varying correlates as well different behavioural and cognitive impacts, we proceed to elaborate on each of them separately. Nevertheless, not each category of attitudes has received equal research attention, hence we try to comprehensively present the research findings of those attitudes which have generated most interest from scholars.

2.4.1 Job attitudes

We use Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller's (2011, p. 344) words to define job attitudes as the 'evaluations of one's job that express one's feelings toward, beliefs about, and attachment to one's job' where the term 'job' encompasses current position, occupation as well as the employer. While we are not denying implications of the affective-cognitive consistency of job attitudes (Schleicher, Watt, & Greguras, 2004), as this distinction has rarely been made in the public management literature we will include both dimensions in our definition of job attitudes.

Job attitudes theorized and empirically measured in the literature generally relate to a number of distinct constructs. The research about job attitudes relates to organization commitment which is a multidimensional construct encompassing affective, normative and continuance commitment. Whereas affective organization commitment is based on an individual's belief in organizational goals and readiness

to achieve them (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979), normative commitment is felt as an obligation towards the organization and not due to any emotional attachment to the organization itself (Boardman & Sundquist, 2009).

The next most recurring construct is job satisfaction, which represents an employee's overall satisfaction with the job and experiences (Locke, 1976). The measurement of job satisfaction ranges from the use of single-item measures to the use of multiple item measures encompassing satisfaction with the work as well as the organization. While some have explicitly named their constructs as 'work satisfaction' to indicate a variance from the composite measure indicating satisfaction with the work as well as the organization, others have not been so specific.

Our results show how job attitudes have been studied in several capacities, with them being considered as antecedents to behaviour or outcomes as well as the products of different organizational, individual and sociological factors. We broadly identify three categories of antecedents of job attitudes, namely people management practices of the organization, the organization or work characteristics and the individual characteristics of the employee. The following sections will present an overview of findings regarding each of these factors.

People management practices

It is only recently that the people management-related practices and policies of public sector organizations are seen to have an impact on results. Many changes have been introduced in the public sector in the past years towards people management practices in order to improve organizational performance (see, for US and UK, Boyne, Jenkins, & Poole, 1999), resulting in an increased interest in this area. The people management practices studied related to employee job attitudes are mainly in two areas. The first is the psychological support received by individuals from the organization (i.e. mentoring and coaching) and the second relates to the impacts of specific people management tools used by organizations.

The concept of coaching has been embraced by managers and researchers and has subsequently seeped into public management. Coaching is the relationship between two individuals where the coachee is helped by a coach, in a goal focused manner, in order to reap a wide variety of possible outcomes, which could include enhancement of professional skills, interpersonal awareness, etc. which are widely acknowledged to ultimately benefit organizations (Joo, 2005). Kim, Egan and Moon (2014) use the path-goal leadership theory's prediction of positive subordinate attitudes in the presence of effective leadership (House, 1996) in the public sector. The results indicate support for a direct impact on employee job attitudes due to the presence of managerial coaching as well as an indirect impact due to increased

role clarity. Their study also demonstrates that these results vary with regards to the cultural contexts, and are not homogenous across different cultural contexts.

Another conceptually similar construct used for achieving similar ends of employee development is mentoring, where a senior employee ‘serves as a role model, provides support direction, and feedback to the younger employee regarding career plans and interpersonal development’ (Noe, 1988, p. 458). While some scholars regard coaching and mentoring as similar practices, others insist on conceptual differences (D’Abate, Eddy, & Tannenbaum, 2003). Reid, Allen, Riemenschneider, and Armstong (2008) assess the impact of psychological and career mentoring as well as that of leader member exchange. Although their role in increasing job attitudes is individually significant, the simultaneous consideration of psychological and career mentoring points to a noteworthy impact of only psychological mentoring. Interestingly, the introduction of leader member exchange dissipates the significance of both forms of mentoring, pointing to the possible over-estimated role of mentoring in shaping individual job attitudes.

In the context of public management where criticism of the public administrative bodies is not unusual, external factors can have emotional and pragmatic consequences at the individual employee level (Garrett, Thurber, Fritschler, & Rosenbloom, 2006). Yang and Pandey (2009) confirmed the positive effect of support received from elected officials on the job attitudes of public sector

officials. Elected officials' support not only reduces the structural bureaucracy of the organization but also improve goal clarity by enabling increased effective communication, both of which result in positive job attitudes. Another mechanism through which elected officials' support leads to positive job attitudes is its impact on the implementation of managing for results (MFR) (Yang & Pandey, 2009). MFR increases employee morale, satisfaction and commitment through a change in the bureaucratic culture (Osborne & Gaebler, 1992) in a manner similar to that in private organizations, however, its susceptibility to support of elected officials from outside the organization highlights an important difference between the public and private sector.

Employee resourcefulness can also be increased by certain people management practices and their impact on employee attitudes. Research has analysed the development of 'high commitment' people management practices as they can shape employee attitudes through the development of a psychological link between the employee and organizational goals (Arthur, 1994). The applicability of high commitment people management practices in the public sector was verified by Gould-Williams (2004). Whereas training and team working enhance positive job attitudes, reduced status and excessive communication undermine them (Gould-Williams, 2004). Although not explicitly labelled as a 'high commitment' HRM practice, empowerment also has positive job attitudes in the public sector (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2013).

As team working has emerged as a popular form of re-organization of work (Procter & Currie, 2004), Gould-Williams and Gatenby (2010) tested the compounded effect on job attitudes of team working and certain traditional people management practices (performance related rewards, performance appraisals, training and development, industrial relations climate and high involvement, high trust culture), and found that although each of them is individually positively linked with job attitudes, the effects are not more pronounced when the two are combined.

Given that employees may not view organizational practices and policies in the same way as the implementing managers, researchers have also studied employee perception of incentivization tools. Ko and Hur (2014) use the social exchange theory to justify a positive link of traditional as well as family friendly benefits with work attitudes. This relationship was found to be moderated by trust in the management as well as perceptions of procedural justice. Other researchers have directly linked all three dimensions of justice; procedural, distributive and informational, with job attitudes (Cho & Sai, 2013).

Organization and work

The structure and characteristics of the organization and the work itself can have far reaching impacts on job attitudes, employee motivation and performance. An

organizational characteristic uniquely linked with public organizations is red tape. Quratulain and Khan (2015) take an alternative view towards the effect of red tape on employees by studying its effect on resigned satisfaction, where individuals react negatively to the work situation by reducing their individual aspiration levels. However, the negative effect of red tape is moderated by the presence of public sector motivation (PSM) in individuals, as it makes them more tolerant of inherent red tape. Another characteristic of the organization, having a direct effect on work attitudes is the perceived public service efficacy of the organization (Boardman & Sundquist, 2009). Boardman and Sundquist (2009) find that as the employees positively perceive the benefit of the organization to the public, this is accompanied by positive changes in job attitudes (job satisfaction and organization commitment), showing that merely having an organizational mission to benefit the public is not enough, and that it must be accompanied by effective service delivery to have a positive impact on worker job attitudes.

As public organizations are within the purview of governments, they are frequently affected by policy announcements. One such policy announcement to have a direct impact on employees is budget announcement, which is made outside the organization, nonetheless shapes job attitudes for better or worse. In a longitudinal study conducted in the U.K. Kiefer, Hartley, Conway, and Briner (2015) see a negative impact of announcements of budgetary reductions on employee attitudes. Interestingly, later clarifications on the type of budgetary reductions can either

exacerbate or alleviate the decline in job attitudes. An innovation related change with focus on adopting newer, more-efficient practices is perceived positively and reverses the decline in job attitudes, but a cutback related change, leading to reduced resource availability further undermines positive job attitudes.

Trust in the organizational management is important for positive job attitudes, however, its exact nature, is still contested. On one hand, it has been seen as a direct antecedent to job satisfaction along with other organizational characteristics like performance orientation, innovation culture and the use of contracting (Yang & Kassekert, 2010). On the other hand, it has been seen to mediate the effect of work characteristics like goal clarity, autonomy, communication and supervisory trust (Cho & Park 2011). Due to the breadth of variables, all these organizational and work characteristics have seldom been considered together in the same study.

Hassan and Rohrbaugh (2011) agree that certain work characteristics like role ambiguity, job challenge and inclusion in decision making are antecedents of organization commitment, furthermore they propose that the strength of the effect of these antecedents varies depending on the level of employment. Whereas the presence of some of these characteristics has an impact on individual job attitudes of certain managerial level, it is insignificant for other managerial levels.

Similarly, the contingent status of contractual staff precludes them from having any meaningful psychological contract with the organization (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler,

2002), which generally leads to lower job attitudes. Besides the employment status, network theorists have also explored the role of network centrality in social networks and its impact on job attitudes. Increased network centrality, which signals higher social support, tends to have a positive effect on job attitudes (Lee & Kim, 2011). However, these social benefits of network centrality decline as increasingly large networks may mean interacting with potentially unpleasant partners, hence making the relationship curvilinear.

Individual characteristics

Bureaucratic attitudes are influenced by individual characteristics, ultimately shaping behaviour (Keiser, 2010). Cooper, Knotts, McCord, and Johnson (2013) discovered relationships between personality and job attitudes of public managers, however, not all the results of this study were in line with the established psychology and general management literature. Employing the Five Factor Model of personality, they find Neuroticism and Conscientiousness to be predictors of employee job satisfaction, while no significant relationship of job satisfaction is found with extraversion, as claimed by management literature. Another unlikely relationship to surface in this study is the positive link between Neuroticism and individually directed citizenship behaviour. This facet of job attitudes has generally been associated with a negative relationship with Neuroticism.

Another individual level characteristic to come to light is that a majority of the public managers perceive inferiority of public sector personnel in terms of creativity, talent as well as autonomy (Chen & Bozeman, 2014), and those employees who have recently made a transition from a private sector organization report lower job satisfaction (Boardman, Bozeman, & Ponomariov, 2010). However, this effect is only transient and wanes with the passage of time and with subsequent promotions. A study of employees with highly positive job attitudes reveals that these employees perceive less red tape and higher client satisfaction than their counterparts with less positive job attitudes (Feeney & Boardman, 2011).

2.4.2 Political ideologies

A line of inquiry on which researchers have been long fixated is the political ideologies of the public sector workforce. While the explicit political allegiances to specific political parties have not been the main focus, associated attitudes towards government spending priorities, citizen and minority rights, or the role of the government have been periodically studied. We broadly label these views as political ideology where it is used as a value-neutral concept which provides ‘competing philosophies of life and how it should be lived’ (Jost, Federico, & Napier, 2009, p. 309). Furthermore, our reference to political ideology alludes to operational and not the systematic aspect of a political ideology. This is because the research in public

administration and management is primarily with respect to operational political ideology, which encompasses attitudes towards ‘concrete policy decisions’ and the ‘appropriate reach of government’ (Ellis, 2012, p. 330) and not ideological self-identification, which constitutes symbolic ideology.

The first article identified in our review which deals with public employee attitudes dates back almost five decades showing a unwavering preoccupation of academics with the political attitudes of public personnel. The earlier articles primarily record the attitudes of bureaucrats and senior civil servants. Using the survey responses of federal executives in the United States Wynia (1974) transcribes bureaucrat attitudes in the United States towards a variety of ideological issues, including attitude towards right to free speech, respect for legal due process, and ethnic and social equality among others. As may be expected, some of the questions as well as the expressed attitudes regarding equality and minority rights were far from the ethical standards governing research today. Although some of the content is may be morally questionable, it is presumed to depict the prevailing federal bureaucrat attitudes at the time. Nevertheless, an interesting insight gained from this research endeavour was the uncovering of a link between longer tenure with the U.S federal service and a lower acceptance of democratic ideals.

Another ideological viewpoint repeatedly tested empirically is the spending priorities, or attitudes towards spending, of government employees. The much

embraced theory of representative bureaucracy dictates that the attitudes of individuals are moulded by their values, one of the sources of which are the individual's social origins. (Meier, Wrinkle, & Polinard, 1999). Meier and Nigro (1976), Lewis (1990) and Dolan (2002) all examine public employees from various institutions and compare their prioritization of government spending across various policy areas. All three studies solicit responses on whether the spending in specific policy areas should be increased, decreased or maintained at the current level. Meier and Nigro (1976) use these responses to note whether these responses are attributable to agency socialization or to social origin and find that while both are predictors of spending priorities, agency socialization is a stronger factor in determining spending priorities. With these results they conclude that representative bureaucracy is inadequate to explain the policy preferences of the bureaucratic elites. The result of subsequent studies however, present much more support for representative bureaucracy. Using data from large-scale surveys Dolan (2002) also test the effect of social origins as compared to representative bureaucracy and analyse the gender gaps in spending priorities. They find that the spending priorities of women in agencies where women hold a critical mass of leadership positions do in fact mirror the preferences of women in the general population. Support for agency socialization was also found, however the impact varies across different government departments. Lewis (1990) had humbler intention while comparing spending attitudes, among other things, of public personnel and the general public. A leading purpose of the

analysis of this article was to combat the negative stereotype of bureaucrats and show that, contrary to widespread belief, bureaucrats are much like ordinary people in their attitude towards spending as well as a variety of other social and personal attitudes.

Civil servant attitudes towards poverty and welfare provision is also an ideological position probed in public sector research. Taylor-Gooby and Bochel (1988) present one of the rare qualitative studies in the review, although much cannot be said of the methodological rigor of their study. They see that UK MPs generally reflect their party positions on welfare and that their attitude towards welfare mirrors that of their political party. Riccucci and Meyers (2004) and Bradbury and Kellough (2008) both look at the disparate attitudes towards poverty and welfare along racial lines. Results reveal that African American welfare workers make higher attributions of poverty to structural causes as compared to welfare workers of non-African American origin and that African American civil servants also favour more active steps to promote African American interests (Bradbury & Kellough, 2008) and such attitudes are also in congruence with the African American citizens.

A parallel stream of research has also been interested in documenting the public personnel attitudes towards state responsibility. Some of this research has gone beyond soliciting opinions about left / right political ideology and recorded the attitude towards the responsibility of the government. Tepe's (2012) comparative

analysis of 11 Western European countries finds weak support for higher government responsibility from public personnel as compared to private citizens. These results provide feeble support for the Bureau Voting Model, which holds that government employees are more likely to support greater public spending and also vote for such political parties who favour higher public sector budgets (Garand, Parkhurst, & Seoud, 1991). However, Tepe's (2012) results show that the attitudinal difference towards state responsibility varies depending on the branch of employment within the public sector, and that public employees in health, education and service production do conform to the BVM.

2.4.3 Attitudes towards citizens / constituents

The push towards higher involvement of citizens and stakeholders in the administrative decision making (Fredrickson, 1982; Denhardt & Denhardt, 2000) has led some to question whether and how administrator attitudes towards citizens and stakeholders is a factor in determining the actual participation of these stakeholders in the process. The positive attitude of public officials towards citizen participation is increasingly regarded as one of the largest predictor of citizen involvement in the administrative process (Yang & Callahan, 2007).

Similarly, in some cases citizen participation may not necessarily follow through even when it is mandated by law, due to the unfavourable attitudes of public officials towards the constituents. Conner (2016) looks at the attitudes of the school personnel towards Native American communities and its impact on collaborations with the native tribes. Although federal legislation requires public schools to actively collaborate with the native tribes, the actual collaboration varies between schools and largely depends on the attitudes of the Indian Education directors at these schools. Those who hold more positive views of the Native American community are also more likely to establish higher levels of interaction and collaboration with them, which is already mandated by federal legislation. Similarly, attitudes towards non-profit organizations has also been linked with lower collaborative arrangements with them in the Bulgarian context (Snaveley & Desai, 2001). Although employment in the public sector may not directly translate into higher support for citizen involvement (Taylor 2010), PSM can directly and indirectly influence attitudes towards citizen participation favourably (Coursey, Yang, & Pandey, 2012). These results clearly signal the critical role played by civil servant attitudes in the implementation of citizen and minority participation programmes.

2.4.4 Attitude towards the policy / practice

The recognition that the success of a policy or policy instrument is dependent not only on the policymakers but also on the policy implementers (Smith, 2003) opened the gates to the analysis of these individuals at the micro level. Attitudes research in this domain has focused on the attitudes of these implementers towards the policy itself. While some research studies have been successful in establishing a relationship between the attitude towards the policy and its subsequent implementation, much less success has been achieved in terms of the antecedents of the attitudes towards the policy.

The attitudes towards policy and its implementation has been studied in the context of policy implementation concerning the constituents as well as with respect to internal policy practices that bring a change in the internal work procedures within the organization. Thomann (2015) looks at the interaction of contextual elements and the individual attitudes towards the policy and the salience of these two factors for implementation. Using a Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA) to analyse data from the Swiss veterinary inspectors to see which variables are associated with scenarios where the veterinary targets for inspections are met. Since these inspections are mandated by law, meeting the required inspection rate is effectively the implementation of a policy. She finds that the attitude towards the policy, as measured by the societal meaninglessness of the policy perceived by the front-line

worker, may be decisive in determining the implementation of the policy measure. In addition to societal meaningfulness Tummers, Steijn and Bekkers (2012) also find support for client and personal meaningfulness, however associating them with the willingness to implement, and not the actual implementation behaviour. Further, they add the subjective norm of the manager as well as that of the colleagues as important attitudinal variables to be considered for determining the willingness to implement policies.

Studies focusing on internal policy adoption have also looked at the attitudinal role in trying to understand the variance in the actual adoption. A key focus here has been attitudes towards administrative reforms introduced within various public sector organizations. Kim and Holzer (2016) find that the intention of the organization for implementing the reform, as perceived by the employees, is key in shaping the individual attitudes towards the reform. Trust in the organization (Condrey, 1995) and perceptions that the implemented reform holds developmental advantages for the employees and employee involvement in the development process can enact positive assessment of the reform (Kim & Holzer, 2016). Furthermore, in instances when the implementation of the reform is not strictly enforceable by the organization, positive attitudes towards the reform serve as strong antecedents to its enforcement (Kearney, Feldman, & Scavo, 2000).

The successful implementation of internal policies and practices is also, at least partly, dependent upon the attitude towards these policies. The technology adoption in the workplace in the last two decades has been accompanied by research into the role of attitudes towards technology in general and computers and computer software in particular in the adoption and success of these technological platforms. Due to the rapid adoption of computers in the workplace the conversation has changed rapidly from the general attitude towards computers and technology and its impact on the adoption to the determinants shaping these attitudes towards the computer platforms and software (Berry, Berry, & Foster, 1998; Lee, 2008).

The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) posits that the perceived usefulness and the perceived ease of use of technology jointly shape attitudes towards the technology (Davis, 1989). Wirtz, Mory, and Ullrich (2012) test the TAM but find only partial support for it. Whereas the effect of perceived usefulness is clear in shaping attitudes, the effect of ease-of-use is not supported in the study. Antón, Camarero, and San José (2014) weigh explanatory power of the TAM with the satisfaction models to see an impact on usage intent. Although they find support for the impact of perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use on attitudes which in turn shapes the usage intent, they also find that the actual satisfaction experienced due to the usage of the technology is a much stronger antecedent of the intent to use it.

2.5 Conclusions and Limitations

Our review of attitudes literature in public administration has yielded a number of insights, not only about new developments in this area but also about the trends in the research over time. Reviewing the literature over the last few decades we clearly notice an improvement in the research methods employed as well as the infiltration of more sophisticated tools for data analysis, a trend which has also been noted by others in the wider field of public administration (Raadschelders & Lee, 2011). A surprising fact however is the overwhelming shift towards quantitative research. We suspect this skewness is only partly due to our selection criteria, which only included articles using explicit measures of attitudes. We believe that there has been a conscious partiality towards employing quantitative methods in public administration attitudes research. While this existing research has yielded useful insights into the relationship between attitudes and behaviour, the mechanisms behind this link remain underexplored. In order to further understand the mechanisms behind this link, we believe it would be fruitful to employ qualitative research methods as they are especially suited to uncovering the underlying dynamics of a relationship (Eisenhardt, 1989).

We have also classified the different types of individual attitudes that have been studied and their significance for the public sector context. The findings reveal that employee job attitudes are largely shaped by the organization's people management

practices, the structural characteristics of work and the organization as well as individual characteristics. However, relatively smaller part of the literature deals with the impact of these employee job attitudes on firm level outcomes. We also find that in addition to the job attitudes of public employees, understanding their attitudes towards political ideology, constituents and towards the policy are crucial to grasp a true understanding of the public sector worker. In our view, a key finding in the review has been the overwhelming support for the impact of attitudes towards the constituents on the implementation on citizen involvement efforts. This highlights the need to maintain or generate positive civil servant attitudes towards the constituents towards whom the involvements efforts are targeted.

Another finding worth highlighting is the importance of positive attitudes towards policies under implementation. Multiple research efforts included in our review have found that for successful implementation of policies, both directed internally in the organization and those geared towards the constituents, buy-in from the workers is key. A positive attitude towards the policy has been shown to have a significant impact in its subsequent implementation. This signals the need to invest organization time and resources to ensure positive employee attitudes towards the implemented policies.

Despite the importance of these attitudes for public sector outcomes, many questions still remain either unanswered or uncontested, leaving the area suitable for

further investigations. A popular preoccupation of management scholars as well as political scientists is the effect on human thought and actions of individual personality. Personality traits are enduring individual characteristics that influence trans-situational individual response to the environment (Allport, 1937). Looking at the bulk of management literature and attention devoted to personality and its influence on various types of employee attitudes, it is curious that a similar trend has not occurred in public management. The fact that political scientists have recognized the role of personality in shaping political attitudes (Gerber et al. 2011), and public administration scholars have seen the effect of political attitudes in policy implementation (Tummers, Steijn, & Bekkers, 2012), it confounds us as to why personality research and its link with political attitudes has not garnered a higher level of interest from public administration scholars. Evidence for the genetic model of transmission of attitudes, in our view, makes such endeavours indispensable. Research exploring the link between personality and job and political attitudes would be beneficial for public administration. The findings of Cooper, Knotts, McCord, and Johnson (2013) concerning personality and job attitudes, of which some run counter to those of psychology and general management scholars, mandate further research into this area.

Another area of inquiry which seems to be missing is the link between individual values and their link with attitudes. Possible differences may exist in the personal values of individuals in employed in the public sector, as compared to those

employed in the private sector (Lyons, Duxbury, & Higgins, 2006). As policy preferences can partly be determined by individual values, this presents an interesting avenue of investigation for researchers. Lastly, future studies incorporating various attitudes simultaneously would inform a more complete picture of the role of attitudes in public administration.

We do acknowledge that there are some limitations in our research. Firstly, it is possible that some authors may have studied particular attitudes without specifically referring to them as 'attitudes' and hence not been identified by our keyword search. Secondly, although the top journals of the field of public administration and management broadly cover the leading research in their field, there are other public administration and management journals which were not included in this review.

Conceding that attitudes are not the sole factor in determining behaviour, the role of attitudes is still regarded as pivotal in ascertaining individual behaviour. Whereas there has been a substantial increase in attention towards public employee attitudes over the years, many gaps remain in the literature regarding the role of attitudes and its consequences for public management outcomes. We have presented the different types of attitudes of public sector which are germane to the study of public sector employees, however there may yet be other attitudes that may be relevant for public management research.

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91. Yang, K., & Pandey, S. K. (2009). How do perceived political environment and administrative reform affect employee commitment? *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 19(2), 335–360.

2.7 Appendix for Chapter 2

List of all articles included in the review

Article	Attitude towards
Fernandez, S., & Pitts, D. W. (2007). Under What Conditions Do Public Managers Favor and Pursue Organizational Change? <i>The American Review of Public Administration</i> , 37(3), 324–341.	Change
Nedovic-Budic, Z., & Godschalk, D. R. (1996). Human Factors in Adoption of Geographic Information Systems: A Local Government Case Study. <i>Public Administration Review</i> , 56(6), 554–568.	Change
Wirtz, B. W., Piehler, R., Thomas, M.-J., & Daiser, P. (2016). Resistance of Public Personnel to Open Government: A cognitive theory view of implementation barriers towards open government data. <i>Public Management Review</i> , 18(9), 1335–1364.	Change
Conner, T. W. (2016). Representation and Collaboration: Exploring the Role of Shared Identity in the Collaborative Process. <i>Public Administration Review</i> , 76(2), 288–301.	Citizens / Constituents
Coursey, D., Yang, K., & Pandey, S. K. (2012). Public Service Motivation (PSM) and Support for Citizen Participation: A Test of Perry and Vandenberg's Reformulation of PSM Theory. <i>Public Administration Review</i> , 72(4), 572–582.	Citizens / Constituents

McCall, C., & Williamson, A. (2001). Governance and democracy in Northern Ireland: The role of the voluntary and community sector after the agreement. <i>Governance</i> , 14(3), 363–383.	Citizens / Constituents
Snavey, K., & Desai, U. (2001). Municipal Government– NonProfit Sector Collaboration in Bulgaria - An Attitudinal Analysis. <i>The American Review of Public Administration</i> , 31(1), 49–65.	Citizens / Constituents
Stewart, D. W., Siemienska, R., & Sprinthall, N. (1999). Women and men in the project of reform - A study of gender differences among local officials in two provinces in Poland. <i>The American Review of Public Administration</i> , 29(3), 225–239.	Citizens / Constituents
Taylor, J. (2010). Public Service Motivation, Civic Attitudes And Actions Of Public, Nonprofit And Private Sector Employees. <i>Public Administration</i> , 88(4), 1083–1098.	Citizens / Constituents
Yang, K., & Callahan, K. (2007). Citizen involvement efforts and bureaucratic responsiveness: Participatory values, stakeholder pressures, and administrative practicality. <i>Public Administration Review</i> , 67(2), 249–264.	Citizens / Constituents
Pail�e, P. (2013). Do Coworkers Make the Service Customer? A Field Study in the Public Sector. <i>Review of Public Personnel Administration</i> , 33(1), 28–57.	Colleagues
Stewart, D. W., Sprinthall, N., & Siemienska, R. (1997). Ethical reasoning in the time of revolution: A study of local officials in Poland. <i>Public Administration Review</i> , 57(5), 445–453.	Colleagues

- Caillier, J. G. (2015). Transformational Leadership and Whistle-Blowing Attitudes: Is This Relationship Mediated by Organizational Commitment and Public Service Motivation. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 45(4), 458–475. Ethical Issues
- Goetz, D. (1981). The shaping of environmental attitudes in air pollution control agencies. *Public Administration Review*, 41(4), 423–430. Ethical Issues
- Thaler, J., & Helmig, B. (2016). Do Codes of Conduct and ethical Leadership Influence Public Employees' Attitudes and Behaviours? - An Experimental Analysis. *Public Management Review*, 18(9), 1365–1399. Ethical Issues
- Kellough, J. E., & Nigro, L. G. (2006). Dramatic reform in the public service: At-will employment and the creation of a new public workforce. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 16(3), 447–466. HR
- Kroll, A. (2015). Explaining the Use of Performance Information by Public Managers: A Planned-Behavior Approach. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 45(2), 201–215. HR
- Poole, M., Mansfield, R., & Gould-Williams, J. (2006). Public and private sector managers over 20 years: A test of the 'convergence thesis'. *Public Administration*, 84(4), 1051–1076. HR
- Yang, K., & Kassekert, A. (2010). Linking management reform with employee job satisfaction: Evidence from federal agencies. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 20(2), 413–436. HR

- Antón, C., Camarero, C., & San José, R. (2014). Public Employee Acceptance of New Technological Processes. *Public Management Review*, 16(6), 1–24. IT
- Chung, H.-Y., Lee, G.-G., & Kuo, R.-Z. (2016). Determinants of Public Servants' Intention to Adopt E-Government Learning. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 36(4), 396–411. IT
- Ho, A. T.-K., & Smith, J. F. (2001). Information Technology Planning and the Y2K Problem in Local Governments. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 31(2), 158–180. IT
- Wirtz, B. W., Mory, L., & Ullrich, S. (2012). eHealth in the public sector: An empirical analysis of the acceptance of Germany's electronic health card. *Public Administration*, 90(3), 642–663. IT
- Boardman, C., Bozeman, B., & Ponomariov, B. (2010). Private sector imprinting: An examination of the impacts of private sector job experience on public manager's work attitudes. *Public Administration Review*, 70(1), 50–59. Job
- Boardman, C., & Sundquist, E. (2009). Toward Understanding Work Motivation - Worker Attitudes and the Perception of Effective Public Service. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 39(5), 519–535. Job
- Borgogni, L., Dello Russo, S., Petitta, L., & Vecchione, M. (2010). Predicting job satisfaction and job performance in a privatized organization. *International Public Management Journal*, 13(3), 275–296. Job

- Bright, L. (2008). Does Public Service Motivation Really Make a Difference on the Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions of Public Employees? *The American Review of Public Administration*, 38(2), 149–166. Job
- Bullock, J. B., Stritch, J. M., & Rainey, H. G. (2015). International comparison of public and private employees' work motives, attitudes, and perceived rewards. *Public Administration Review*, 75(3), 479–489. Job
- Caillier, J. G. (2013). Satisfaction With Work-Life Benefits and Organizational Commitment/Job Involvement: Is There a Connection? *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 33(4), 340–364. Job
- Caillier, J. G. (2015). Transformational Leadership and Whistle-Blowing Attitudes: Is This Relationship Mediated by Organizational Commitment and Public Service Motivation. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 45(4), 458–475. Job
- Caillier, J. G. (2016). Does Public Service Motivation Mediate the Relationship between Goal Clarity and both Organizational Commitment and Extra-Role Behaviours? *Public Management Review*, 18(2), 300–318. Job
- Chen, C.-A. (2012). Explaining the Difference of Work Attitudes Between Public and Nonprofit Managers: The Views of Rule Constraints and Motivation Styles. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 42(4), 437–460. Job
- Chen, C. A., & Bozeman, B. (2014). Am i a public servant or am i a pathogen? Public managers' sector comparison of worker abilities. *Public Administration*, Job

92(3), 549–564.

Cho, Y. J., & Park, H. (2011). Exploring the Relationships Among Trust, Employee Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment. *Public Management Review*, 13(4), 551–573. Job

Cho, Y. J., & Perry, J. L. (2012). Intrinsic Motivation and Employee Attitudes Role of Managerial Trustworthiness, Goal Directedness, and Extrinsic Reward Expectancy. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 32(4), 382–406. Job

Cho, Y. J., & Sai, N. (2013). Does organizational Justice matter in the federal workplace? *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 33(3), 227–251. Job

Choi, S. (2011). Organizational Justice and Employee Work Attitudes: The Federal Case. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 41(2), 185–204. Job

Choi, S. (2013). Demographic Diversity of Managers and Employee Job Satisfaction: Empirical Analysis of the Federal Case. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 33(3), 275–298. Job

Choi, S., & Rainey, H. G. (2014). Organizational Fairness and Diversity Management in Public Organizations: Does Fairness Matter in Managing Diversity? *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 34(4), 307–331. Job

Cooper, C. A., Knotts, H. G., McCord, D. M., & Johnson, A. (2013). Taking Personality Seriously: The Five-Factor Model and Public Management. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 43(4), 397–415. Job

- Coyle-Shapiro, J. A.-M., & Kessler, I. (2002). Contingent and non-contingent working in local government: Contrasting psychological contracts. *Public Administration*, 80(1), 77–101. Job
- Coyle-Shapiro, J. A.-M., & Kessler, I. (2003). The Employment Relationship in the U.K. Public Sector: A Psychological Contract Perspective. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 13(2), 213–230. Job
- Daley, D. M. (1995). Pay-for-Performance and the Senior Executive Service: Attitudes About the Success of Civil Service Reform. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 25(4), 247–277. Job
- Dehart-Davis, L., Davis, R. S., & Mohr, Z. (2015). Green Tape and Job Satisfaction: Can Organizational Rules Make Employees Happy? *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 25(3), 849–876. Job
- DeSantis, V. S., & Durst, S. L. (1996). Comparing Job Satisfaction Among Public- and Private-Sector Employees. *The American Review of Public Administration*, 26(3), 327–343. Job
- DeSantis, V. S., Glass, J. J., & Newell, C. (1992). City Managers, Job Satisfaction, and Community Problem Perceptions. *Public Administration Review*, 52(5), 447–453. Job
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on Employee Attitude: The Views of Public Sector Workers. *Public
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3

The Benefits of PSM: An Oasis or a Mirage

3.1 Abstract

Scholarly interest in Public Service Motivation has yielded a vast amount of research explicating its benefits for public sector organizations; including increased employee job satisfaction, boosted individual performance, higher intention to stay with the organization, enhanced organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. However, a closer inspection of the literature reveals mixed empirical evidence for each of these impacts of PSM. We perform a meta-analysis on each of these five impacts of PSM in order to explicate the divergence in the results of the extant literature. We find evidence of the existence of a true effect for PSM over negative outcomes, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship. In addition, we also find that contextual variables, legal origin and corruption of the country, along with the measurement related variables, affect each of the five relationships in a unique manner.

3.2 Introduction

In their original conceptualization of Public Service Motivation (PSM), Perry and Wise (1990) suggested a number of behavioral benefits yielded by this distinct form of motivation. Later this list of positive individual outcomes was augmented to include benefits to the organization as well. Consequently, researchers have delved

deep to empirically elucidate the organizational and individual impacts of PSM in the organizational context including job satisfaction, individual and organizational performance, organizational commitment, organization citizenship behavior and ethical behavior (Perry, 2014). However, despite the growth of the research on PSM, scholars have noted the enduring discrepancies and “inconsistent findings in the most frequently analyzed relationships” (Ritz, Brewer, & Neumann 2016, p. 422) and have strongly recommended the use of quantitative meta-analysis to reconcile these inconsistencies. We heed this call for the need to reconcile the variance in results using quantitative meta-analysis method. We are cognizant of the presence of the existing meta-analyses on impacts of public service motivation on various outcomes (see for example Warren & Chen 2013; Homberg, McCarthy, & Tabvuma 2015; Harari et al., 2017) and we use their insights and build upon them to further add nuance to the theory of PSM.

Over the years, PSM has carved out a firm place for itself in the public management arena. Research on PSM has grown dramatically and has become increasingly international, multi-sectored and multidisciplinary (Ritz, Brewer, & Neumann, 2016) providing rich insights into PSM and its relationships with a variety of constructs. As research on PSM has matured, its empirical testing has become increasingly heterogeneous in terms of the measurement method, the country of origin of the data, as well as the statistical methods employed. Recently, scholars have advised on the importance of delving into the contextual factors while looking at the impacts of

PSM (van Loon, 2017) as few studies so far have accounted for them (see for example Vandenberghe & Van de Walle, 2008). This study attempts to shed light on these contextual factors and measurement related choices made by researchers in the empirical studies and see if some part of the variance in the results is attributable to them. We believe that lending consideration to a wider range of contextual factors may yield interesting insights about the factors influencing PSM's impact on various outcomes.

In our meta-analysis we include five key outcome variables frequently associated with PSM, namely job satisfaction, individual performance, turnover, burnout, organizational commitment and organization citizenship behavior. Considering the importance of each of these outcomes in the organizational setting, it is worthwhile to ascertain the contingencies on which the strength of the relationship of each outcome stands. We concur with Harari et al. (2017, p. 81) that "PSM's impact on organizational variables is indeed nuanced" and so we make an attempt to understand it further by incorporating moderators that have not been used in prior meta-analysis.

We consider the salience of two types of factors in the existing studies and how they strengthen or weaken a given individual or organizational impact of PSM. Firstly, we assess the impact of measurement related choices made by the researchers and, secondly, we look at the contextual factors that may be accountable for bringing in

some of the variations in the results of the studies. We note the presence of some studies documenting the cross-country differences in levels of PSM which they attribute to the differences in the institutional contexts of the countries (Vandenabeele & Van de Walle, 2008). We offer further refinement to the public administration literature by looking at two separate country level attributes, namely the legal origins and the level of corruption in the country. We borrow these two well established constructs from the economics and finance literature and see how these have an impact on the strength of the outcomes of PSM. Legal origins theory has been used extensively in the field of finance and economics to explain differences across countries in the quality of government, its impact on shaping the institutional environment, etc. (Botero et al., 2004; La Porta et al., 1999). Bearing in mind the impacts of institutions on individual attitudes (Houston, 2011), we consider the impact of legal origins of the country on the relationship of PSM and its outcomes. The second contextual variable included in this study is the level of corruption in the country. Due to the salience of corruption for the attitudes and behaviors of public sector employees (Gould & Amaro-Reyes, 1980) we explore its effects on the relationship between PSM and its outcomes.

Homberg, McCarthy, and Tabvuma (2015) do a commendable job by incorporating the publication status of the study, the measurement of PSM, the origin of the data and the opportunity to serve the public in the particular job as moderators in their meta-analysis of the relationship between PSM and job satisfaction. Similarly, Harari

et al. (2017) account for the national context as the moderator for the relationship between PSM and various outcome variables. This study takes a step further and breaks-down the information regarding the country of origin into distinct constructs of legal origins and the level corruption in the country. By doing this we add further refinement to the meta-analysis of Homberg, McCarthy, and Tabvuma (2015) which conceptualizes country differences as U.S. and non- U.S. based and that of Harari et al. (2017) which clusters countries into Anglo, Germanic Europe, Latin Europe and Confucian Asia clusters according to similarities in national cultures and traditions. Furthermore, we build on the correlational evidence provided by Harari et al. (2017) by performing regression analysis on the organizational and individual impacts of PSM, while incorporating a wider array of moderating variables to provide more robust evidence of these relationships. Whereas the correlational meta-analysis is an effective tool for a quantitative synthesis of research to establish a mean correlation, meta-regression analysis goes beyond that to explore the heterogeneity in the results and help extend existing theory.

Overall, this research contributes to the existing literature by explicating whether the variation in results of existing research is artefactual and the consequence of measurement choices, or an effect of the environment in which the study was conducted. By using meta-analytic tools, we segregate the impact of measurement choices from the impact of contextual and environmental factors. We find that the measurement related choices made by the researchers as well as the contextual

factors, corruption and legal origin of the country, influence the strength of the relationship of PSM with each of the outcome variables in a different way. We discuss these results and its implications in the later sections.

3.3 Public Service Motivation

The concept of PSM presents an alternative to the rational theories of motivation based on narrow self-interest (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007b) and is instead built upon the altruistic base of doing good for others and benefitting society (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). From among the many definitions of PSM, we use the one presented by Rainey and Steinbauer (1999, p. 20) according to which PSM is “the general altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation or humankind”. It is broader than that originally presented by Perry and Wise (1990, p. 368) defining PSM as “an individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations”. Scholars now recognize that PSM is not unique to employees of government institution, however individuals with higher levels of PSM are more likely to seek employment in the public sector (Christensen & Wright, 2011; Vandenabeele, 2008; Wright & Pandey, 2008).

PSM recognizes and embraces the multiple basis of motivation and is composed of rational, normative and affective foundations. An individual’s attraction towards

participating in the policy making process presents the rational motivation, a sense of duty or obligation to contribute to society presents the normative motivation and the feelings of compassion and self-sacrifice present affective motivations to individuals. In their conceptualization of PSM Perry and Wise (1990) predicted it to yield a number benefits to the individual and the organization including increased individual performance and organizational commitment. This was followed by a flurry of research over the coming years which explored the impact of PSM, among other things, on job satisfaction, individual performance, reducing negative outcomes, organizational commitment and organization citizenship behavior. Despite the considerable amount of attention and research dedicated to these constructs, Ritz, Brewer, and Neumann (2016) note that there are still inconsistencies in the findings of these studies. We discuss the basis of the relationship of PSM with each of these outcome variables and the overall findings separately.

3.3.1 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been defined as the “pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience” (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). It is also seen by some as “the benefits that employees perceive they are receiving from their organization” (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007a). PSM is seen by many as the desire to serve the public interest and the nature of public sector organizations makes

them exceptionally positioned to provide opportunities to work in the public interest (Homberg, McCarthy, & Tabvuma, 2015). Hence employment in the public sector provides individuals the opportunity to contribute towards society through their work, hence helping them “satisfy the individual need of wanting to help others” (Vandenabeele, 2009) leading to increased levels of job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction has been touted to drive a number of positive outcomes including organization commitment, organization citizenship behavior and even increased individual performance (Homberg, McCarthy, & Tabvuma, 2015). These significant benefits of job satisfaction accord much esteem to PSM, which itself is also deemed to directly influence the job satisfaction of individuals. Although a large part of the literature supports the direct positive relationship between job satisfaction and PSM there are also a number of studies which fail to find a significant relationship between the two variables. We recognize the meta-analysis by Homberg, McCarthy, and Tabvuma (2015) based on 28 studies which finds support for a positive relationship between PSM and job satisfaction, and also identifies some study characteristics that impact the relationship between PSM and job satisfaction. However, their review covers the time period from 1990 – 2013. A number of studies have been conducted since then studying this same relationship and again presenting some contradictory findings. For example, while Andersen and Kjeldsen (2013) report a significant direct relationship between PSM and job satisfaction using a sample of Danish public employees, Caillier (2015) uses structural equation

modelling to analyze this relationship and finds no significant support for a direct relationship in a sample of U.S. public employees and instead demonstrates an indirect path through mission valence. The presence of more than 10 new studies and more than 40 new estimations since the last meta-analysis developed by Homberg, McCarthy, and Tabvuma (2015), in our view, validates a re-examination of this relationship with the inclusion of this new evidence.

3.3.2 Individual Performance

When Perry and Wise (1990) first introduced the construct of PSM, they proposed that its significance stems from, among other things, its ability to positively impact individual performance. As PSM is based on the desire to serve society, when individuals are presented with this opportunity to serve society through their work they find their work more meaningful leading them to perform better in their assigned tasks. This link has been explored in literature and has received much support (Ritz, Brewer, & Neumann, 2016). Warren and Chen (2013), the first researchers to perform a meta-analysis of the empirical evidence of this relationship, reported a significant positive effect of PSM on performance. The most recent study included in this meta-analysis was published in 2010, subsequent to which a number of studies have been undertaken regarding this same relationship, hence warranting a re-examination of this link given the new empirical evidence.

Earlier studies examining the link between PSM and performance relied on self-reported and subjective measures of performance. Later however, Anderson, Heinesen, and Pedersen (2014) presented stronger evidence of this relationship by establishing a link between teachers' PSM and student grades. However, not all evidence is unanimous in this regard and a few studies have failed to see any significant impact of PSM on individual performance. Jin, McDonald and Park (2018) did not find any support for a direct effect of PSM on individual performance, whereas Alonso and Lewis's (2001) results about this relationship were at best inconclusive. Using two separate large-scale data sets, each with two different measures of performance, the authors find support only in some of the estimations and conclude that "the links between PSM and performance were clearly not robust enough" (Alonso & Lewis, 2001, p. 376). Petrovsky and Ritz (2014) also raise doubts about the robustness of the relationship between PSM and performance and blame common method bias for an artificial inflation of the true relationship.

Furthermore, some scholars have raised questions about the impact of context on the relationship between PSM and performance and showed that the context of work influences this relationship significantly (van Loon, 2017). We further explore the impact of other contextual factors to see if the variance in results across studies can be attributed to them.

3.3.3 Negative Outcomes

The benefits of PSM are not only restricted to an augmentation of attitudes and behaviors that are beneficial to the organization but also include curtailing or inhibiting attitudes or behaviors that may be harmful to organizational interests. Two such negative outcomes frequently encountered in PSM research are turnover intent and burnout. We consider the impact of PSM on curtailing negative outcomes turnover intent and burnout by aggregating the two together. Researchers have also begun an exploration of the “dark side” of PSM and Schott and Ritz (2018) present a framework to organize the literature on the negative consequences of PSM on the individual and the organization. However, as this stream is relatively new, we only include turnover intent and burnout, two outcomes that have relatively higher number of empirical studies needed for result aggregation. Turnover intent is particularly important for government organizations due to the human capital constraints faced by them (Moynihan & Pandey, 2008). The extant literature on the relationship between PSM and burnout has theorized both, a positive and a negative relationship between the two variables. Van Loon et al. (2015) propose that high PSM individuals who see their jobs to have a high impact on society forego their self-interest and willingly over-expend their energies for the good of society, leading to employee burnout. On the other hand, Palma and Sepe (2017) claim that individuals with higher Public Service Motivation are less likely to burn out from

emotional exhaustion as they are already more motivated to serve the public interest. The authors also empirically show that PSM is negatively related to burnout, that is, a higher presence of PSM leads to lower instances of burnout as these individuals are less impacted by the environmental stressors which lead to emotional exhaustion of public sector employees. However, Rayner, Reimers and Chao (2017) were unable to lend further support to these findings and detected no significant effect of PSM on burnout.

Moving on to turnover intent we see similar fractionalization of literature. Whereas Perry and Wise (1990, p. 371) predicted that individuals with high PSM are “highly motivated to remain with their organizations”, researchers also suggest that employees with high PSM may be more likely to leave public sector organizations due to their inability to contribute to the public good within those organizations (Wright & Grant, 2010). The empirical findings in this regard have also been mixed. Whereas some researchers (for example Campbell, Im, & Jeong, 2014) find a significant negative impact of PSM on turnover intentions, others are more agnostic about the existence of a direct relationship between PSM and turnover intent (for example Bright, 2008).

3.3.4 Organizational Commitment

Organization commitment is defined as the “psychological state that binds the individual to the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 14) or “the strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (Porter et al., 1974, p. 604). This state linking the individual to the organization has important consequences for the organization as more committed individuals make a higher contribution to the organization (Aven, Parker, & McEvoy, 1993). Perry and Wise (1990) predicted a positive effect of PSM on organization commitment of employees and hence indulge in behaviors beneficial to the organization.

When individuals with a higher motivation to serve the public see a match between their values and that of the organization they form an attachment with the organization (Kim, 2012), i.e. organization commitment. This attachment or commitment to the organization subsequently entails the willingness of the individual to contribute towards the well-being of the organization (Kim, 2005). Whereas some scholars have found support for the relationship between PSM and increased organization commitment, there are others who believe either that this relationship is contingent on certain factors or that this relationship is only an indirect one. Taylor (2008) and Leisink and Steijn (2009) concur that PSM has a positive impact on organization commitment, even when accounting for the fit of the individual with the organization. Despite the over-whelming support for this

relationship, other researchers fail to find a significant direct relationship between PSM and organization commitment (see for example Itansa, 2016; Potipiroon & Ford, 2017). We consider the role of measurement and contextual variables in the variance in results.

3.3.5 Organization Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

The theory of public service motivation is “principally based on altruistic motives that lie beyond self-interest” (Brewer & Selden, 1998) therefore it precludes narrow self-interested behavior. This has led to assertions about a relationship of PSM with prosocial behavior, which in the organizational setting has been equated with organization citizenship behavior. Different types of citizenship behavior like whistle-blowing, collaboration and working unpaid over-time are examples of citizenship behavior within the organizational context which have been empirically tested within the organization. Most of the literature on the relationship between PSM and citizenship is united in establishing a positive relationship between PSM and citizenship behaviors, however there are still some studies that find no direct link between PSM and citizenship behavior, neither citizenship behavior directed towards other colleagues nor citizenship behavior directed towards the organization (see for example Potipiroon & Faerman, 2016).

3.4 Overview of studies

We present an overview of the evidence found in the literature on each of these relationships in Table 3.1. It shows a break-down of the studies that find a significant positive relationship, find no significant relationship or find a significant negative relationship between PSM and each of our dependent variable. A glance at the table reveals that while there is a higher level of convergence in the results of some relationships (for example PSM and organization commitment), there is more divergence in the results of other relationships (for example performance and job satisfaction).

Table 3.1 Synthesis of the main results in studies about PSM and the dependent variables

	Estimations		Studies	
<i>Job Satisfaction</i>				
Positive significant	34	58%	18	64%
Not significant	25	42%	10	36%
Negative significant	0	0%	0	0%
<i>Total</i>	59	100%	28	100%
<i>Individual Performance</i>				
Positive significant	34	49%	12	67%
Not significant	30	43%	5	28%
Negative significant	6	9%	1	6%
<i>Total</i>	70	100%	18	100%
<i>Negative Outcomes</i>				
Positive significant	8	22%	2	14%

Not significant	17	46%	8	57%
Negative significant	12	32%	4	29%
<i>Total</i>	37	100%	14	100%
 <i>Org Commitment</i>				
Positive significant	35	70%	16	80%
Not significant	14	28%	4	20%
Negative significant	1	2%	0	0%
<i>Total</i>	50	100%	20	100%
 <i>OCB</i>				
Positive significant	33	87%	13	87%
Not significant	5	13%	2	13%
Negative significant	0	0%	0	0%
<i>Total</i>	38	100%	15	100%

Researchers have presented evidence of some contingencies, for example the societal impact of the job (van Loon et al., 2018), yet many others remain unexplored. In order to advance the literature on PSM, a reconciliation of current results, using the information provided in these studies is not only useful, but critical. The evidence for these studies on PSM has come from across continents and from different levels of government, and we believe that some of the inconsistencies in the extant literature may be reconciled by taking these differences into account. We attempt to explain some of the divergence in the results using the legal traditions and corruption literature. We were unable to use the level of government as an explanatory variable due to the insufficient data available.

3.5 Explaining contextual differences between PSM and Organizational Outcomes: Legal Origins and Corruption

Legal traditions around the world are widely seen to emerge from two distinct legal families, namely common law and civil law. Common law has its roots in the English law while civil law is seen to be derived Roman law (Glaeser & Shleifer, 2002). Civil law has further sub-traditions, namely the French, German, Socialist and Scandinavian legal origin (La Porta, Lopez-de-Silanes, & Shleifer, 2008). Over time these legal traditions have spread across the globe as a result of conquest, imperialism and at times imitation. Some of the differences between the different legal families, as seen by scholars, are quite stark. La Porta et al. (1999, p. 231–32) juxtapose the two and see the basis of the civil legal tradition in the “intent to build institutions to further the power of the State” as compared to the common legal tradition with its basis on “the intent to limit rather than strengthen the State”.

A relevant development of the theory of legal origins is that presented by La Porta et al. (1997) primarily to explain the differences in access to financial capital and showed that the adoption of the legal tradition has an impact on the flow of financial capital in the economy due to the differential rights, obligations and protections accorded to different groups of stakeholders across different legal systems. Subsequently legal origins theory has been attributed to be helpful in explaining a number of cross country differences with respect to the quality of government, and

structure of corporate ownership patterns, among others (Roe, 2006; La Porta et al., 1999).

The theory of legal origins is also seen to influence the institutional evolution in countries (Botero et al., 2004). In the field of public administration and management a few multi-country studies have been conducted with the aim of looking at the difference in the levels of public service motivations across countries. Vandenabeele and Van de Walle (2008) noticed a difference in PSM levels across 38 countries, and suspected institutional reasons behind the difference, however refraining from specifying which ones. Similarly, Houston (2011, p. 769) looked at the impact of welfare regime on PSM and work motives and found that national context matters for PSM and that the “institutions used to deliver public services affect social attitudes”. Considering the role of institutions in shaping the behavior of individuals (Bonin, Jones, & Putterman, 1993; Dal Bó, Foster, & Putterman, 2010) and the impact of legal rules on economic and social outcomes (La Porta, Lopez-de-Silanes, & Shleifer, 2008), we would like to see the moderating role of legal origins on the relationship between PSM and the various individual and organizational outcomes.

A classification of countries based on shared common administrative traditions has also been done in public administration. However, this classification is not exhaustive and scholars believe that whereas some of these categories are well identified, others need further scholarly refinement (Painter & Peters, 2010). The

advanced state of research on legal origins theory, as well as the exhaustive list of countries categorized by it makes it more suitable for our analysis.

Legal origins is not the only contextual factor that may influence the relation between PSM and positive organizational outcomes. In this study, we also consider at the effect of the country levels of corruption. Corruption is commonly defined in literature as “the misuse of public office for private gain” (Treisman, 2000, p. 399). Corruption in the government has wide-ranging impacts such as distortions in the spending allocation between projects (Mauro, 1998), lower financial investment in those economies (Gould & Amaro-Reyes, 1980) and it leads to lower economic growth (Mauro, 1995). These detrimental effects of corrupt practices outweigh the benefits associated with corrupt practices proposed earlier, such as raising the speed of services and more effort on part of government employees in order to receive higher bribes. Besides these more obvious impacts of corruption on the economy, corruption also has undesirable impacts within the government institutions. Corruption within the organization generates an environment of inefficiency in the organization and “contributes to frustration on the part of otherwise professionally competent and honest civil service” (Gould & Amaro-Reyes, 1980, p. 33). Furthermore, Gould and Amaro-Reyes (1980) hold corruption responsible for a feeling of distrust within all levels of the bureaucracy and along with a reduction in the administrative efficiency of the organization. This makes corruption, or rather the civil servant’ perception of corruption in the government, a variable of interest while

studying individual and organizational outcomes in public organizations (Lederman, Loayza, & Soares, 2005).

However, one of the complications in the empirical analysis of corruption is the lack of observable indicators (Lederman, Loayza, & Soares, 2005). Hence subjective measures of perceived corruption are often used for such analyses. We use the Corruption Perception Index (CPI) published by Transparency International. The CPI scores are based on data gathered from 13 different organizations and is a composite of subjective evaluations of business executives and experts regarding a variety of corrupt practices in the public sector as well as the preventative mechanisms in place to control corruption. In their analysis of different perceptual measures of corruption used in the literature, Judge, McNatt and Xu (2011) note a higher reliability and validity of the CPI measure and recommend its use to future researchers.

3.6 Methodology

We conduct a meta-analysis in order to study the impacts on PSM on various individual and organizational outcomes within organizations. Meta-analysis is the “empirical analyses that attempts to integrate and explain the literature about some specific important parameter” (Stanley & Jarrell, 1989, p. 163). It is used in instances where there exists some divergence in the results of existing studies, and then attempts to integrate and reconcile these results, and in the process look for variables

that may be moderate the relationship (Geyskens et al., 2009). Meta regression analysis presents a systematic and objective manner of making judgments and attaching weights to empirical results of different magnitudes, having different sample sizes, belonging from different countries and having different level of significance (Roberts, 2005). Hence, meta-regressions are generally more objective than the traditional qualitative review of literature (Stanley, 2001).

As this process utilizes existing quantitative studies generally using regression analysis, it is also sometimes referred to as a regression analysis of regression analyses (Stanley & Jarrell, 1989). Although the technique is used extensively in disciplines such as economics (Bel, Fageda, & Warner, 2010), it is a relatively new method in public administration. Another benefit of the meta-regression analysis is the ability to add moderating variables to the analysis which do not exist in the original studies. This technique allows researchers to collect data about certain contextual and specification characteristics of each study and then analyze their role in introducing variance in the results.

3.6.1 Sampling criteria

Although PSM is primarily grounded in the public sector studies, scholars outside the field of public administration and management such as those in economics,

education, management, political science, public policy and sociology have taken notice and have incorporated it in their research (Ritz, Brewer, & Neumann, 2016). Keeping in mind the wide variety of journals that have published articles regarding PSM, we decided to use a different approach for compiling our database of PSM articles. We utilize what we believe to be the most accurate record of studies using PSM, i.e. the online data base maintained by one of the originators of PSM theory, professor James Perry, which includes not only published but also unpublished articles and thesis. Using the database maintained by professor Perry, the co-originator of the term PSM, gives us an advantage as it includes studies not only from the field of public administration and management, but also from other disciplines.

The online database was accessed in November 2017 and in the first step a single reviewer read the abstracts of all research items listed. In this stage all research looking at the impacts of PSM on any individual or organizational factor was noted yielding a total of 135 scholarly works including published and unpublished research. With the intent of being more inclusive, no minimum criteria for selection of journals was set, and all scholarly journals were considered for inclusion. Additionally, a supplementary search was also run on online repositories specializing in PhDs and master theses including E-Theses Online (ETHOS), DART Europe, Open Access Theses and Dissertations (OATD), and European Science Research Council. We used as key words for the search “Public Service Motivation” and

“PSM”. The search was finally completed on June 2018. We carefully followed the MAER reporting guidelines from Stanley et al. (2013).

Articles which used constructs which were similar to Public Service Motivation (for example work motivation in the public sector or prosocial motivation) were excluded, as a basic requirement for conducting a meta-regression is the homogeneity of the dependent variable (Bel & Warner, 2016). Next, different outcome variable used by researchers were grouped together in order to arrive at five distinct category of outcome variables which had garnered a substantial amount of research attention, namely job satisfaction, individual performance, negative outcomes, organizational commitment and organization citizenship behavior. This yielded a total of 82 published and unpublished studies whose data were subsequently coded into an excel sheet. The coding scheme was discussed and finalized between all three researchers at multiple instances and the final coding was performed by a single researcher. Those studies that presented difficulties in coding were again discussed and resolved by consultations between the three researchers.

Although leading scholars recommend that all empirical research utilizing regression analysis should include the standard errors and actual p-values with each coefficient (Meyer, van Witteloostuijn, & Beugelsdijk 2017), these guidelines are not followed by all researchers. In the coding process we found a number of studies which neither reported the standard errors nor the t-values for the coefficient, which is required for

conducting the meta-regression analysis. In that case we use some further techniques in order to retain the maximum number of studies and estimations. Using a p-value estimator and with the given degrees of freedom and the p-value disclosed in the study, we estimate the t-statistic for each of the estimations where it was not disclosed. Regrettably, all such articles which neither reported the exact p-value, nor the standard error or t-value had to be removed from further analysis due to the lack of this critical information. The studies where the sample respondents included private or non-profit sector workers were also excluded. After this step our sample included 47 articles estimating the impact of PSM on at least one of our five outcome variables of interest. The last screening criterion applied was the removal of studies that included multiple measures (dimensions) of PSM in the same regression equation. As these yielded multiple coefficients from the same estimation it violates the principle of independence of estimations, and hence these estimations were also excluded from the final sample, bringing the total sample size to 42 studies.

3.6.2 Method of Analysis

Our meta-regression analysis has two objectives. First, we would like to observe the impact of the model specification in the studies and explore whether part of the divergence in results can be attributed to them. We consider a number of variables namely the sample size of the study (*SampleSize*), the impact factor of the journal

(*ImpactFactor*), the use of logistic regression (*LogisticReg*) and whether only one-dimensional measure of PSM was used or a composite measure of multiple dimensions (*CompositeMeasure*). Whereas the variables *SampleSize* and *ImpactFactor* are continuous variables, *LogisticReg* and *CompositeMeasure* are dummy variables. We initially wanted to include other variables, such as the government level of the organization (federal organization, state level or municipal level) where the data was collected, and the type of work performed by the employee, but we found inadequate information reported on these variables in the studies.

The second objective is to discern the impact of two other study characteristics that we believe may be pertinent for our relationships of interest. We have introduced these variables in the earlier sections, the legal origin of the country where the data was collected and the perceived level of corruption in the country. As the French, German, Socialist and Scandinavian legal origin are sub-traditions all hailing from civil law, we use the two broad legal families of common law and civil law for reasons of parsimony, an approach also favored by earlier researchers (for example La Porta, Lopez-de-Silanes, & Shleifer, 1999). We use a dummy variable for *CommonLaw* where the value of 1 connotes a common law legal origin and 0 connotes a civil law legal origin.

The second study characteristic that we consider is the perceived level of corruption in the country. In line with the recommendation of Judge, McNatt and Xu (2011), who look at the suitability of various indices for corruption used in the literature, we use the Corruption Perception Index (CPI) published by Transparency International. Each country is scored on a scale ranging between 0 and 100 where a higher score signifies a lower level of perceived corruption in the country.

A list of all the studies included in the meta-regression is presented in Appendix 1. One of the critical decisions faced by the researchers in a meta-regression is the choice of metric to be used in the analysis (Geyskens et al., 2009). Stanley and Jarrell (1989) warn about the non-comparability of the regression coefficients across studies due to differences in units of measurement and instead recommend the usage of the t-statistic as it is a standardized measure and we follow this advice in our analysis.

Our final sample has a total of 162 estimations with 41, 41, 28, 25 and 20 estimations for job satisfaction, individual performance, negative outcomes, organizational commitment and organization citizenship behavior respectively.

We estimate the following equation for the impact of the moderator variables on the relationship between PSM and job satisfaction:

$$t_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{SampleSize}_i + \alpha_2 \text{ImpactFactor}_i + \alpha_3 \text{LogisticRegression}_i + \alpha_4 \text{CompositeMeasure}_i + \alpha_5 \text{Corruption}_i + \alpha_6 \text{CommonLaw}_i + \varepsilon_i$$

The t_i is the t-value of the coefficient of PSM reported for each estimation. We test for multicollinearity and a mean value of 1.50, which is very low, was obtained for the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). Next, we estimate a similar equation for the impact of these moderators on the relationship between PSM and individual performance. Here, as all the estimations rely on a composite measure of PSM, the variable *CompositeMeasure* was dropped from the equation. The resulting equation was:

$$t_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{SampleSize}_i + \alpha_2 \text{ImpactFactor}_i + \alpha_3 \text{LogisticRegression}_i + \alpha_4 \text{Corruption}_i + \alpha_5 \text{CommonLaw}_i + \varepsilon_i$$

The test for multicollinearity showed a VIF of 1.64 which is also very low. To look at the impact of moderating factors on the relationship between PSM and negative outcomes, we first homogenized the signs such that a higher coefficient depicts a decrease in negative behavior and then we estimated the following equation:

$$t_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{SampleSize}_i + \alpha_2 \text{ImpactFactor}_i + \alpha_3 \text{LogisticRegression}_i + \alpha_4 \text{CompositeMeasure}_i + \alpha_5 \text{Corruption}_i + \alpha_6 \text{CommonLaw}_i + \varepsilon_i$$

Next, we regress the moderators on the relationship between PSM and organizational commitment excluding the variable *LogisticReg* as there are no studies employing

that approach. However, we are confronted with a somewhat high VIF (mean VIF 4.63), signalling high multicollinearity between the variables (6.03 for *CommonLaw*) and so a decision was made to exclude the variable *CommonLaw* from this regression. The regression equation finally estimated for the effect of moderators on the relationship between PSM and organization commitment is hence:

$$t_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{SampleSize}_i + \alpha_2 \text{ImpactFactor}_i + \alpha_3 \text{CompositeMeasure}_i + \alpha_4 \text{Corruption}_i + \varepsilon_i$$

After the elimination of *CommonLaw* the VIF was reduced to an average of 2.22. The last equation we estimate is for the impact of moderators on the relationship between PSM and organization citizenship. Since all estimations in this analysis use a composite measure, the variable *CompositeMeasure* is excluded from the regression. The resultant equation again had an unacceptable high VIF (109.73) and so once again we exclude the variable *CommonLaw* (individual VIF 264.71) for the resultant equation:

$$t_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{SampleSize}_i + \alpha_2 \text{ImpactFactor}_i + \alpha_3 \text{LogisticRegression}_i + \alpha_4 \text{Corruption}_i + \varepsilon_i$$

The exclusion of the variable *CommonLaw* reduced the average VIF to 2.64. These values indicate that we can now meaningfully interpret the results of these regressions.

3.7 Results

The meta-regression analysis was conducted with Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) in Stata 12. Before conducting the main analysis all our meta-regression models were tested for heteroscedasticity. The results showed that heteroscedasticity does not pose a threat in our data, for any of the models. Nonetheless, OLS robust estimation results are offered as way of check. Nelson and Kennedy (2009) warn against the problem of autocorrelation presented in many meta-analytic studies and also discuss the root cause of this problem. The presence of multiple estimations from a single study, use of common data sets and multiple studies by the same group of researchers are some of these problems that we are also faced with in our study. To address the issue of auto-correlation within the estimations belonging to the same study we follow the advice of Ringquist (2013) and use Generalized Estimating Equations (GEE) which clusters together the estimations belonging to the same study. As we conduct five distinct meta-regressions, we discuss the results of each of them in turn.

3.7.1 Job Satisfaction

The results of the meta-regression for the relationship between PSM and job satisfaction are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Meta Regression estimates for Job Satisfaction

	OLS Robust	GEE
Sample size	0.0005* (0.0003)	0.0006** (0.0003)
Impact Factor	-0.2127 (0.4280)	-0.6081 (0.6312)
Logistic Regression	2.4510 (1.9646)	2.4631 (1.6112)
Composite Measure	-0.9895 (0.9336)	-1.5766 (1.1729)
Corruption	-0.0970*** (0.0257)	-0.1059*** (0.0383)
Common Law	0.2809 (0.8499)	-0.5466 (0.8680)
Constant	9.4790*** (2.4801)	11.4988*** (4.0361)
N	41	41
R ²	0.2689	
F	5.11	
Wald chi ²		37.17
Prob> chi ²		0.0000

Note: Standard errors in parenthesis. * $p \leq .10$ **; $p \leq .05$; and *** $p \leq .01$.

Using the GEE we estimate a random effects model for the meta-regression and it can be noted that the results for the estimates change only slightly with the more robust GEE method (as a way of checking we run GLS estimations for all models, with very similar results to those with GEE; these are available upon request). The results for the meta-regression show that the only model specification variable that has a significant impact on the relationship between PSM and job satisfaction is *SampleSize* ($p < 0.05$), where a bigger sample size studies detect a stronger positive relationship. The other moderating variable that is significant is *Corruption* ($p < 0.01$).

To analyze the results, we need to keep in mind that the index used to measure perceived corruption, CPI, is measured such that a higher score signifies lower perceived corruption and a lower score signifies higher perceived corruption. Hence the negative moderation denotes a stronger link between PSM and job satisfaction when a higher amount of corruption is perceived in the country. We discuss the significance of this relationship in detail in our discussion section.

3.7.2 Individual Performance

Since all the estimations use a composite measure of PSM, the dummy *CompositeMeasure* was excluded from the equation. The resulting meta-regression was estimated using the GEE and the GLS also produced the same results. We present the results of the Table 3.3.

SampleSize is once again a significant moderator ($p < 0.01$), however, it is interesting to note that this time sample size is negatively moderating the impact of PSM on individual performance. Another specification characteristic also found significant ($p < 0.10$) is *Logistic*, where logistic regression method employed increases the strength of the relationship. We explore this further in the discussion section. The study characteristics perceived corruption and the civil law legal origin also moderate the impact of PSM on individual performance ($p < 0.10$ and $p < 0.01$

respectively). A positive coefficient for perceived corruption indicates that lower perceived corruption strengthens the relationship between PSM and individual performance, and higher perceived corruption weakens this relationship. Also, common law legal tradition is found to lower the strength of this relationship.

Table 3.3 Meta Regression estimates for Individual Performance

	OLS Robust	GEE
Sample size	-0.0002** (0.0001)	-0.00014*** (0.00004)
Impact Factor	-0.8159 (0.9265)	-0.1126 (0.6733)
Logistic Regression	3.1353** (1.4883)	3.0174* (1.6949)
Corruption	0.0878* (0.0446)	0.0705* (0.0398)
Common Law	-3.4673** (1.5314)	-2.8228*** (1.0637)
Constant	-1.8072 (4.3152)	-2.4589 (3.5767)
N	41	41
R ²	0.2845	
F	3.08	
Wald chi ²		781.83
Prob> chi ²		0.0000

Note: Standard errors in parenthesis. * $p \leq .10$ **, $p \leq .05$; and *** $p \leq .01$.

3.7.3 Negative Outcomes

This category is an amalgamation of two outcome variables found in the literature, namely intentions to leave the organization and burnout. For purposes of consistency

the signs for burnout were inverted before conducting the meta-regression. Although the number of estimations included here seems low, Hedges, Tipton and Johnson (2010) provide evidence that meta-regression analysis with 20 – 40 estimations provide robust confidence intervals for the coefficients. Additionally, previous meta-regression studies in public administration and management have also used a similar number of estimations for their analysis (see for example Homberg, McCarthy, & Tabvuma, 2015).

Table 3.4 Meta Regression estimates for Negative Outcomes

	OLS Robust	GEE
Sample size	-0.0002 (0.0002)	-0.0002 (0.0001)
Impact Factor	-4.7960** (2.0908)	-5.2290** (2.1259)
Logistic Regression	-1.1371 (1.6094)	-1.3199 (0.8440)
Composite Measure	-0.8130 (0.6210)	-0.9634** (0.4119)
Corruption	0.0217 (0.0555)	-0.0162 (0.0480)
Common Law	3.1721* (1.5957)	3.8459*** (0.8496)
Constant	0.3910 (2.2817)	0.5923 (1.6956)
N	28	28
R ²	0.3851	
F	4.88	
Wald chi ²		21302.95
Prob> chi ²		0.0000

Note: Standard errors in parenthesis. * $p \leq .10$ **; $p \leq .05$; and *** $p \leq .01$.

The relationship between PSM and negative outcomes is generally an inverse relationship. The results of our meta-regression show that the strength of this relationship diminishes in common law countries and is stronger in civil law countries ($p < 0.01$). It is also worth noting that published articles in higher impact factor journals are also likely to present evidence for a weaker relationship ($p < 0.05$). This indicates that those studies that are unpublished or were published in lower impact factor journals and went through a less rigorous review process portray the relationship to be stronger. Lastly, using a composite measure of PSM also increases the chances of detecting this relationship ($p < 0.05$).

3.7.4 Organization Commitment

In our sample none of the estimations employed the logistic regression method so the dummy variable *LogisticReg* was excluded. A preliminary meta-regression had an excessively high VIF. This problem was resolved by the exclusion of the variable *CommonLaw*. The resulting equation was run using GEE and again the results were broadly similar to the OLS.

The perceived corruption in the country impacts the relationship ($p < 0.05$) such that a lower perception of corruption increases the impact of PSM on an individual's commitment towards the organization. This relationship is also found to be stronger

in studies which rely upon a composite measure ($p < 0.10$) as opposed to uni-dimensional measure of PSM.

Table 3.5 Meta Regression estimates for Organizational Commitment

	OLS Robust	GEE
Sample size	-0.0011 (0.0015)	-0.0004 (0.0019)
Impact Factor	-2.2380 (1.4920)	-2.1387 (1.4651)
Composite Measure	5.5804 (3.2502)	4.8835* (2.9261)
Corruption	0.2314** (0.0852)	0.1924** (0.0862)
Constant	-10.1475* (4.9829)	-7.4194* (4.9710)
N	25	25
R ²	0.2819	
F	5.03	
Wald chi ²		6.27
Prob> chi ²		0.1796

Note: Standard errors in parenthesis. * $p \leq .10$ **; $p \leq .05$; and *** $p \leq .01$.

3.7.5 Organization Citizenship Behavior

Our sample for testing the relationship between PSM and organization citizenship behavior is again relatively small. However, we again reiterate the acceptability of this small sample to its robustness shown by Hedges, Tipton and Johnson (2010). Since all the estimations were using a composite measure of PSM the dummy variable *CompositeMeasure* was excluded. The meta-regression was performed,

however, it showed an unacceptably high VIF, and so the variable with the highest VIF, *CommonLaw* was subsequently excluded from the equation. The resulting meta-regression was then used and produced acceptable VIFs (mean VIF is 2.64 and the single highest VIF is 3.48). The results were once again similar for the robust GEE and the OLS method. The only significant moderator of the relationship between PSM and an individual's citizenship behaviour in the organization is the sample size ($p < 0.01$). Studies with larger sample sizes detect a stronger relationship between PSM and organization citizenship behavior.

Table 3.6 Meta Regression estimates for Organization Citizenship Behavior

	OLS Robust	GEE
Sample size	0.0126*** (0.0027)	0.0125*** (0.0028)
Impact Factor	1.1388 (0.6174)	1.2676 (1.7915)
Logistic Regression	1.4685 (3.8378)	1.5613 3.5326
Corruption	0.0403 (0.0987)	0.0365 (0.0100)
Constant	-5.0126 (3.5443)	-4.9127 (3.5816)
N	20	20
R ²	0.7757	
F	50.49	
Wald chi ²		167.21
Prob> chi ²		0.0000

Note: Standard errors in parenthesis. * $p \leq .10$ **; $p \leq .05$; and *** $p \leq .01$.

3.7.6 Publication Bias

Publication bias may be a relevant limitation of meta-regression analysis, because of the possibility that studies finding significant relationships between variables could be more likely to be published (Stanley, 2005). Funnel asymmetry tests – FAT- may be used to examine publication bias (Stanley, 2005; Stanley & Doucouliagos, 2012). FAT tests are based on the study's estimation of the reported effect and its standard errors.

Table 3.7 displays the result we obtained for FAT tests for each of our estimations; we report results both in terms of precision of the study (FAT 1) and of sample size (FAT 2) [using $1/SE$ and $\sqrt{\text{sample size}}$, respectively]. What matters regarding publication bias is whether the intercept is significantly different from zero. In this regard we find no indication of publication bias for Job Satisfaction, for which both FAT (1) and FAT (2) intercepts do not differ significantly from zero. We find weak indication of publication bias for the four other estimations, as the intercept is significant in one of the FAT tests.

We can filter publication bias by estimating a multivariate FAT meta-regression model (Stanley, 2005), which we do following methodological guidelines in Bel, Fageda, and Warner (2010). We re-estimate the corresponding equations replacing sample size with inverse standard errors $-1/SE-$ (for Organizational Commitment) or with square root of sample size $-SQR-$ (for Individual Performance, Negative

Outcomes, and Organization Citizenship). All our previous results are confirmed, and all other results from our original equations are robust.

Table 3.7 Funnel asymmetry (FAT) and meta-significance (MTS) tests

	FAT(1) Dep Var. t- value	FAT(2) Dep Var. t- value	MTS DepVar. LogAbs t-value
<i>Job Satisfaction</i>			
Precision (1/SE)	0.0766*** (0.0208)		
SQR SampleSize		0.0386 (0.0433)	
Log df			-0.0063 (0.2344)
Constant	0.7403 (0.4572)	1.4832 (0.9747)	0.1197 (0.5835)
Observations	41	41	41
R-squared	0.2576	0.0395	0.0000
<i>Individual Performance</i>			
Precision (1/SE)	0.0424** (0.0163)		
SQR SampleSize		-0.0166 (0.0113)	
Log df			0.1671 (0.1673)
Constant	-0.3155 (0.8017)	2.4727** (1.0856)	-0.5231 (0.6043)
Observations	41	41	41
R-squared	0.1258	0.0283	0.0001
<i>Negative Outcomes</i>			
Precision (1/SE)	-0.0262*** (0.0084)		

SQR SampleSize		-0.0731**	
		(0.0297)	
Log df			0.6853*
			(0.3872)
Constant	0.2866	2.0571**	-0.0558
	(0.4957)	(0.8710)	(1.1178)
Observations	28	28	28
R-squared	0.0572	0.2367	0.0665

Organizational Commitment

Precision (1/SE)	0.3104***		
	(0.0365)		
SQR SampleSize		0.0679	
		(0.0893)	
Log df			1.3098*
			(0.6923)
Constant	-1.6310**	2.3405	-3.4572*
	(0.7301)	(1.5057)	(2.0197)
Observations	25	25	25
R-squared	0.6798	0.0255	0.1040

Organization Citizenship

Precision (1/SE)	0.1718		
	(0.1634)		
SQR SampleSize		0.6879***	
		(0.0855)	
Log df			2.1058*
			(1.0544)
Constant	5.6252	-9.4986***	-5.3426
	(3.5187)	(2.2054)	(3.1152)
Observations	20	20	20
R-squared	0.0413	0.6746	0.3199

Note: Standard errors in parenthesis. * $p \leq .10$ **; $p \leq .05$; and *** $p \leq .01$

Furthermore, we use meta-significance tests (MTS) to analyze the presence of a genuine empirical effect – regardless of the ‘publication bias’. MTS test is based on the ability of the statistical power to give evidence of a genuine empirical effect based on the relation between the t-value and the degrees of freedom. The MTS results shown in Table 3.7 do show a significant positive true effect of PSM over negative outcomes, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship. Interestingly, there does not seem to be a true effect of PSM over job satisfaction, and neither for individual performance.

3.8 Discussion

Is PSM a desirable feature in the workplace? The answer is yes, although there are certain substantive caveats that apply. First of all, the analysis of existing empirical evidence reveals that PSM has a genuine effect over organizational commitment and organizational citizenship, although it also shows how it is related to higher negative outcomes. Hence, while it has some positive effects, it is also related with higher levels burnout and turnover intentions. PSM could act then as a double-edged sword; while high levels of PSM will ensure greater commitment towards the organization and more behaviors in favor of helping its members, it could cause frustration among employees delivering public services.

In addition, our results show that perceived corruption moderates the impact of PSM on three of our outcome variables: job satisfaction, individual performance and organization commitment. At first glance, the moderating impact of perceived corruption on the relationship between PSM and job satisfaction seems counter-intuitive. The coefficient for the moderating variable is negative, implying that a lower level of corruption perceived to be prevalent lowers the strength of the relationship and a higher level of perceived corruption strengthens the relationship. To understand this relationship, it is important to consider the other factors that influence job satisfaction. Whereas PSM is one of the factors influencing job satisfaction, other contextual factors like the organization culture (Lok & Crawford, 2001) and trust in other colleagues and management (Gould-Williams & Gatenby, 2010) are also important antecedents of employee job satisfaction. The pervasiveness of corruption within organizations creates a general feeling of distrust within the levels of the bureaucracy (Gould & Amaro-Reyes, 1980). The results of our meta-regression point to the increased importance of PSM for influencing the job satisfaction of employees in such an environment where other contextual factors important to garner employee job satisfaction may be absent. So, in more corrupt countries, a higher level of public service motivation is required for employees to be satisfied with their jobs. Conversely, in countries where there is lower corruption, the role played by PSM in influencing employee job satisfaction is reduced due to the prevalence of other positive factors.

On the other hand, when we look at the relationship of PSM with individual performance and with organization commitment, we see a positive moderating role of perceived corruption, denoting a stronger relationship between the variables when there is CPI score is high (signifying lower corruption). This result is much more intuitive, considering the impact of corruption within organizations. Some researchers (for example van Loon, 2017) have already highlighted the importance of contextual factors when looking at the impact of PSM on individual performance. The meta-regression results also correspond with this assertion and show that an environment of high perceived corruption can weaken the link between PSM and performance. A possible explanation for this could be the link between corruption and administrative inefficiency (Gould & Amaro-Reyes, 1980), however, we feel that the reasons behind this need to be explored further. Similarly, lower perceived corruption also strengthens the link between PSM and organizational commitment. As the prevalence of corruption is linked to inefficient resource allocation decisions (Mauro, 1998), lower perceived corruption may signal an efficient use of state resources for the benefit of society. Thus, employees may perceive a higher alignment of individual and organizational values, which forms the basis of an individual's commitment to the organization (Kim, 2012).

The other contextual factor that moderates the impact of PSM on outcomes in the organization is the legal origin. Legal origin theory stipulates that the two main types of legal origins, common law and civil law, are not only distinct in the way that they

are moulded, but also in their impact on the institutional environment in the country (Botero et al., 2004). The underlying purpose served by institutions impacts the way these institutions function. Whereas the common law tradition mirrors “the intent to build institutions to further the power of the State” the civil law tradition mirrors “the intent to limit rather than strengthen the State” (La Porta et al., 1999, p. 231–32). Consequently, the role of the government in a common law tradition is seen to be providing market support and dispute resolution function, whereas in the civil law tradition the government is seen as the policy implementers (Damaška, 1986). Presumably the way the role of the government and institutions is perceived within society also has an impact within the institution as well. Our results show that within our sample studies the countries with the civil law tradition have a stronger relationship between PSM and individual performance, whereas the strength of the relationship is diminished in common law countries. Furthermore, the role of PSM in reducing negative attitudes like burnout and turnover intent is also diminished in common law countries and is significantly stronger in countries with a civil law legal tradition. This is a notable result, which indicates that the positive impacts of PSM are stronger in countries whose legal codes are based on the civil law traditions. A bulk of literature in economics and finance presents the positive impacts of a common law legal origin on various outcomes like the attraction of financial capital, stability of the financial markets, etc. (Botero et al., 2004; La Porta, Lopez-de-Silanes, & Shleifer, 2008; La Porta et al., 1999). Our results point that it is countries

with a civil law legal origin that actually reap the benefits of PSM on individual performance and on reducing negative employee attitudes.

Some of the characteristics of the study like sample size and the impact factor also had a significant impact on the relationship of PSM with some of the outcome variables. The results show that large samples are more likely to be able to detect the relationship of PSM with job satisfaction and with organization citizenship. However, the opposite is true for individual performance, and larger sample studies are in fact less likely to detect a relationship between PSM and individual performance. Here we also note that the impact of sample size on each of these relationships is very small, as indicated by the size of the coefficients. Albeit the statistical significance of sample size, one should question its relevance given these extremely small coefficients (Combs, 2010).

Another interesting insight that has emerged pertains to the measurement method used across the different studies. For parsimony we only distinguished between multi-dimensional measure using two or more dimensions and uni-dimensional measures using any one of the four dimensions. Kim and Vandenberg (2010, p. 706) note that PSM is a formative construct and that all four dimensions need to be retained as even “dropping one dimension may alter the meaning of PSM”. Wright (2008) also mentions the importance of equivalence of measurement for the comparability of results. However, our results indicate that other than the

relationship of PSM with organizational commitment and with negative outcomes, using a multi-dimensional measure as compared to a uni-dimensional one did not have a significant impact on the findings. This result partially supports that of Harari et al. (2017), who support the “equivalence of different measurement methods” and deem it appropriate to compare the results of studies using multi-dimensional and uni-dimensional measures.

3.9 Limitations

Although we have tried to conduct this review with the utmost rigour, we acknowledge that our research does have some limitations. Despite the fact that meta-regression analysis is more objective and requires fewer judgment calls as compared to narrative reviews (Stanley 2001), there is still some element of subjectivity involved along the way. First, we have relied primarily on the online PSM database maintained by Professor James Perry to select research for our analysis. This database is very comprehensive and includes published and unpublished research not only from public management but also from other disciplines like human resource management. Although we have supplemented list with searches on other online portals, we acknowledge that there may be studies that may have been left out by error.

Second, despite our attempt to include all relevant studies on PSM in our review, a number of studies did not have all the relevant information for inclusion in our quantitative analysis. For this reason, our results and analysis are unable to consider the estimations from these studies. Third, since the meta-regression analysis requires a degree of uniformity in the measurement of the independent variable, we were unable to include studies which used similar but different motivational construct (e.g. Prosocial motivation or public service-oriented motivation). This led to the exclusion of some studies that otherwise had interesting insights into the relationship of PSM with our dependent variables. Lastly, the adherence to standardized guidelines for conducting meta-analyses decreases the risk posed from subjectivity (Aytug et al., 2012), and so we have adhered to the MAER reporting guidelines while conducting our study.

3.10 Conclusions

Recently Perry (2014, p. 38) conceived a third wave of PSM research, which “involves learning from past research and filling shortcomings and gaps” in the current research. Concurrently, scholars have pointed out that the Popperian principal of falsification requires not only the publication of null findings and negative results but also a synthesis of these results by means of meta-analyses (van Witteloostuijn, 2016). Keeping these in mind, we have made an effort to delve into

the existing PSM research, spanning more than two decades of scholarly work, in an attempt to reconcile the current literature and also highlight gaps which remain unexplored. We have shown that despite overall support for the individual benefits of employee PSM, there are variations in these findings which are brought on by measurement as well environmental causes. While we can say that there exists a relationship between PSM and beneficial outcomes in the organizational context, these benefits are concentrated or diluted depending on the level of corruption and the legal origins of the country. We find that the role of PSM in enhancing the job satisfaction of individuals employed in the public sector is even greater in corrupt countries, as compared to countries that rank lower in corruption. This finding is valuable for practitioners in countries faced with a higher risk of corruption as it signifies that managers in such countries need to invest more in strategies to nurture PSM in order to boost the job satisfaction of their workforce. We have also found that lower perceived corruption strengthens the impact of PSM on individual performance and organizational commitment. This indicates that the prevalence of corruption not only has a directly impact on the organization (via the mechanisms outlined earlier), but also has indirect effects via reduced individual performance and organizational commitment. Furthermore, our findings also show that countries with civil law traditions reap more benefits of PSM in terms of increased individual performance and reducing burnout and turnover intentions as compared to countries with common law legal traditions.

We would like to acknowledge that although we have introduced some moderators into our meta-regression analysis, we were unable to include others due to a lack of information. However, we see much value in considering other contextual factors like the level of government (for example municipal, local or federal level) in which the respondents are employed to observe whether that has an impact on the effects of PSM on the variables that we discuss. Furthermore, we believe that the type of service provided by the government organization and its role as a moderator for PSM's impact on organizational and individual outcomes is also worthy of research attention for future studies.

Our analysis has shown that each of the individual and organizational benefits of PSM can be reaped in certain environmental settings. The exact mechanisms through which these environmental factors (perceived corruption and the legal origin) impact the relationship of PSM with the outcome variables is still unclear, however, we hope that future scholars will delve deeper in order to elucidate upon this further. Despite the widespread research on perceived corruption and legal origin theory in economic literature, they have mostly been ignored in public management research. Kelman (2007) points out the isolation of public administration from mainstream organization studies and economic research, which has been also shown in more recent assessments of the public administration field (see Andrews and Esteve, 2015). We believe a greater effort to incorporate wider concepts from these fields

may play a role not only in advancing public administration scholarship but also bridging them together.

3.11 References

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3.12 Appendix for chapter 3

List of all studies included in the analysis

	Study	Type	Method	Year (data)	Country
1	Alonso, Pablo, and Gregory B Lewis. 2001. "Public Service Motivation and Job Performance: Evidence from the Federal Sector." <i>American Review of Public Administration</i> 31 (4): 363–80.	Article	Logit & OLS	1991 - 1992	U.S
2	Alreshoodi, Saleh Abdullah. 2016. "Negative Institutional Influences in the Saudi Public Sector: Wasta, Public Service Motivation and Employee Outcomes." Cardiff University.	Dissertation	OLS		Saudi Arabia
3	Andersen, Lotte Bøgh, EskilHeinesen, and Lene HolmPedersen. 2014. "How Does Public Service Motivation among Teachers Affect Student Performance in Schools?" <i>Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory</i> 24 (3): 651–71.	Article	Fixed effects regression	2009 - 2011	Denmark
4	Birhane, Lakew Alemu. 2017. "Citizenship Behavior and Turnover Intention: The Role of Public Service Motivation and Career Commitments." Tilburg University.	Dissertation	OLS		Ethiopia
5	Brewer, Gene A., and Sally Coleman Selden. 2000. Why Elephants Gallop: Assessing and Predicting Organizational Performance in Federal Agencies. <i>Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory</i> , 10(4), 685-714.	Article	OLS	1996	U.S.
6	Bright, Leonard. 2007. Does Person-Organization Fit Mediate the Relationship Between Public Service Motivation and the Job Performance of Public Employees? <i>Review of Public Personnel Administration</i> , 27(4), 361-379.	Article	SEM	2006	U.S.
7	Bright, Leonard. 2008. Does Public Service Motivation Really Make a Difference on the Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions of Public Employees? <i>The American Review of Public Administration</i> , 38(2), 149-166.	Article	SEM	2006	U.S.

8	Bright, Leonard. 2013. Where does public service motivation count the most in government work environments? A preliminary empirical investigation and hypotheses. <i>Public Personnel Management</i> , 42(1), 5-26.	Article	SEM	2006	U.S.
9	Caillier, James Gerard. 2011. Are state government workers satisfied with their jobs when the organization is effective? <i>Public Administration Quarterly</i> , 35(1), 93-127.	Article	OLS	2009	U.S.
10	Caillier, James Gerard. 2014. Toward a better understanding of the relationship between transformational leadership, public service motivation, mission valence, and employee performance: A preliminary study. <i>Public Personnel Management</i> , 43(2), 218-239.	Article	Ordinal Logit	2012	U.S.
11	Caillier, James Gerard. 2015. Towards A Better Understanding of Public Service Motivation and Mission Valence in Public Agencies. <i>Public Management Review</i> , 17(9), 1217-1236.	Article	SEM	2012	U.S.
12	Caillier, James Gerard. 2015. Transformational Leadership and Whistle-Blowing Attitudes: Is This Relationship Mediated by Organizational Commitment and Public Service Motivation. <i>The American Review of Public Administration</i> , 45(4), 458-475.	Article	SEM	2012	U.S.
13	Caillier, James Gerard. 2016. Does Public Service Motivation Mediate the Relationship between Goal Clarity and both Organizational Commitment and Extra-Role Behaviours? <i>Public Management Review</i> , 18(2), 300-318.	Article	SEM	2012	U.S.
14	Caillier, James Gerard. 2017. Public Service Motivation and Decisions to Report Wrongdoing in U.S. Federal Agencies: Is This Relationship Mediated by the Seriousness of the Wrongdoing. <i>American Review of Public Administration</i> , 47(7), 810-825.	Article	Logistic	2010	U.S.
15	Campbell, Jesse W., Tobin Im, and Jisu Jeong. 2014. Internal efficiency and turnover intention: Evidence from local government in South Korea. <i>Public Personnel Management</i> , 43(2), 259-282.	Article	Fixed and random effects & ordinal logistic	2012	Korea

16	Gould-Williams, Julian Seymour, Paul Bottomley, Tom Redman, Ed Snape, David J. Bishop, Thanawut Limpanitgul, and Ahmed Mohammed Sayed Mostafa. 2014. Civic duty and employee outcomes: Do high commitment human resource practices and work overload matter? <i>Public Administration</i> , 92(4), 937-953.	Article	SEM	2006-2007	U.K
17	Im, Tobin, Jesse W. Campbell, and Jisu Jeong. 2016. Commitment Intensity in Public Organizations: Performance, Innovation, Leadership, and PSM. <i>Review of Public Personnel Administration</i> , 36(3), 219-239.	Article	Nested OLS	2012	Korea
18	Jin, Myung H., Bruce D. McDonald, Jaehee Park, and Kang Yang Trevor Yu. 2017. Making public service motivation count for increasing organizational fit: The role of followership behavior and leader support as a causal mechanism. <i>International Review of Administrative Sciences</i> .	Article	OLS	2014	U.S.
19	Jin, Myung H., Bruce McDonald, and Jaehee Park. 2018. Does Public Service Motivation Matter in Public Higher Education? Testing the Theories of Person-Organization Fit and Organizational Commitment Through a Serial Multiple Mediation Model. <i>American Review of Public Administration</i> , 48(1), 82-97.	Article	OLS	2014	U.S.
20	Kim, Sangmook. 2012. Does Person-Organization Fit Matter in the Public Sector? Testing the Mediating Effect of Person-Organization Fit in the Relationship between Public Service Motivation and Work Attitudes. <i>Public Administration Review</i> , 72(6), 830-840.	Article	Partial least square	2010	Korea
21	León-Cázares, Filadelfo. 2011. "Organizational Citizenship Behaviors among Public Employees in Guadalajara Metropolitan Area, Mexico." University of North Texas.	Dissertation	SEM	2011	Mexico
22	Levitats, Zehavit, and EranVigoda-Gadot. 2017. Yours Emotionally: How Emotional Intelligence Infuses Public Service Motivation and Affects the Job Outcomes of Public Personnel. <i>Public Administration</i> 95 (3): 759–75.	Article	OLS	2014-2015	Israel

23	Liu, Bangcheng, Thomas Li-Ping Tang, and Kaifeng Yang. 2015. When does Public Service Motivation Fuel the Job Satisfaction Fire? The Joint Moderation of Person- Organization Fit and Needs- Supplies Fit. <i>Public Management Review</i> , 17(6), 876-900.	Article	Hierarchical	2008, 2011 & 2012	China
24	Lynggaard, Mikkel, Mogens Jin Pedersen, and Lotte Bøgh Andersen. 2016. Exploring the Context Dependency of the PSM-Performance Relationship. <i>Review of Public Personnel Administration</i> , 1-23.	Article	Fixed effects & OLS	2011	Denmark
24	Morrison, Jennifer Caroline. 2012. The Impact of Public Service Motivation on the Turnover Intentions of Federal Employees. The University of Alabama.	Dissertation	OLS	2012	U.S.
25	Mostafa, Ahmed Mohammad Sayed. 2013. The Relationship between High Performance HR Practices and Employee Attitudes: The Mediating Role of Public Service Motivation and Person-Organization Fit. Cardiff University.	Dissertation	SEM	2012	Egypt
26	Naff, Katherine C., and John Crum. 1999. Working for America: Does Public Service Motivation Make a Difference? <i>Review of Public Personnel Administration</i> , 19(4), 5-16.	Article	Logistic	1996	U.S.
27	Palma, Raffaella, and Enrica Sepe. 2017. Structural Equation Modelling: A Silver Bullet for Evaluating Public Service Motivation. <i>Quality & Quantity</i> , 51(2), 729-744.	Article	SEM	2015 - 2016	Italy
28	Pandey, Sanjay K., Bradley E. Wright, and Donald P. Moynihan. 2008. Public Service Motivation and Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior in Public Organizations: Testing a Preliminary Model. <i>International Public Management Journal</i> , 11(1), 89-108.	Article	SEM	2006	U.S.
29	Potipiroon, Wisanupong, and Sue Faerman. 2016. What Difference Do Ethical Leaders Make? Exploring the Mediating Role of Interpersonal Justice and the Moderating Role of Public Service Motivation. <i>International Public Management Journal</i> , 19(2), 171-207.	Article	HLM	2014	Thailand

30	Potipiroon, Wisanupong, and Michael T. Ford. 2017. Does Public Service Motivation Always Lead to Organizational Commitment? Examining the Moderating Roles of Intrinsic Motivation and Ethical Leadership. <i>Public Personnel Management</i> , 46(3), 211-238.	Article	OLS	2014	Thailand
31	Rayner, Julie, Vaughan Reimers, and Chih-Wei Fred Chao. 2017. Testing an International Measure of Public Service Motivation: Is There Really a Bright or Dark Side? <i>Australian Journal of Public Administration</i> , 77(1), 87-101.	Article	SEM	2015	Australia
32	Roh, Chul-Young, M. Jae Moon, Seung-Bum Yang, and Kwangho Jung. 2016. Linking Emotional Labor, Public Service Motivation, and Job Satisfaction: Social Workers in Health Care Settings. <i>Social Work in Public Health</i> , 31(2), 43-57.	Article	SEM	2007	U.S.
33	Stazyk, Edmund C. 2012. Crowding Out Public Service Motivation? Comparing Theoretical Expectations with Empirical Findings on the Influence of Performance-Related Pay. <i>Review of Public Personnel Administration</i> , 33(3), 1-23.	Article	Ordered logistic	2007	U.S.
34	Steijn, Bram. 2008. Person-Environment Fit and Public Service Motivation. <i>International Public Management Journal</i> , 11(1), 13-27.	Article	OLS	2006	Netherlands
35	Taylor, Jeannette. 2007. The impact of public service motives on work outcomes in Australia: A comparative multi-dimensional analysis. <i>Public Administration</i> , 85(4), 931-959.	Article	OLS	2004	Australia
36	Taylor, Jeannette. 2014. Public service motivation, relational job design, and job satisfaction in local government. <i>Public Administration</i> , 92(4), 902-918.	Article	OLS	2010	Australia
37	Taylor, Jeannette, and Jonathan H. Westover. 2011. Job satisfaction in the public service: The effects of public service motivation, workplace attributes and work relations. <i>Public Management Review</i> , 13(5), 731-751.	Article	OLS	2000 - 2005	Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Norway, U.K., & U.S.

38	van Loon, Nina, Anne Mette Kjeldsen, Lotte Bøgh Andersen, Wouter Vandenaabeele, and Peter Leisink. 2018. Only When the Societal Impact Potential Is High? A Panel Study of the Relationship Between Public Service Motivation and Perceived Performance. <i>Review of Public Personnel Administration</i> , 38(2), 139-166.	Article	OLS & Panel fixed effects	2010 & 2012	Netherlands
39	van Loon, Nina. 2016. Is Public Service Motivation Related to Overall and Dimensional Work-Unit Performance as Indicated by Supervisors? <i>International Public Management Journal</i> , 19(1), 78-110.	Article	OLS	2014	Netherlands
40	Wright, Bradley E., Shahidul Hassan, and Robert K. Christensen. 2017. Job Choice and Performance: Revisiting Core Assumptions about Public Service Motivation. <i>International Public Management Journal</i> , 20(1), 108-131.	Article	OLS	2012	U.S.
41	Zhu, Chunkui, and Chen Wu. 2016. Public service motivation and organizational performance in Chinese provincial governments. <i>Chinese Management Studies</i> , 10(4), 770-786.	Article	OLS	2011	China

4

Talking the Talk but not Walking the Walk

4.1 Abstract

The claim that Public Service Motivation is an antecedent of prosocial behavior has often been empirically tested and supported. However, close inspection of this literature reveals large disparities in relating the two constructs. One reason that could explain such differences is that the relationship between PSM and prosocial behaviors has been primarily tested using self-reported cross-sectional, single-rater and same-survey data. While all of these are widely used methodological approaches in social sciences, they are also susceptible to potential biases. We conduct two comparative studies to re-examine this relationship. Study 1 utilizes self-reported cross-sectional, single-rater and same-survey data linking PSM and prosocial behaviors, revealing a positive relationship with PSM's Compassion dimension. Study 2 involves observing actual prosocial behavior in a real-life setting. Then, the correlation between PSM and prosocial behavior disappears. We conclude by discussing the possible reasons that could lead to the differences found between the two studies.

4.2 Introduction

The acknowledgement that Public Service Motivation (PSM) broadly entails doing good for others (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008) has led Public Administration (PA)

scholars to embrace the idea that prosocial behavior is inherent to (public) employees with high PSM. This positive relationship has been substantiated on the basis of the PSM construct, which predisposes high-PSM individuals to indulge in meaningful public service actions such as community and social service (Brewer & Selden, 1998). Indeed, an impressive series of empirical studies largely provide support for a positive relationship between PSM and prosocial behavior. However, a close inspection of this empirical work reveals certain potentially critical inconsistencies, which makes a re-examination of this fundamental link necessary. Specifically, we find at least two types of important potential weaknesses in the extant literature. The first is related to the measurement of prosocial behavior, and the second to the different dimensions of PSM that serve as antecedents of prosocial behavior.

A careful analysis of the existing PA literature on the topic reveals that the vast majority of the studies dealing with prosocial behavior rely on self-reported single-rater and same-survey measures of this concept in the context of a cross-sectional design. This lends credibility to the comments of previous scholars regarding the lack of maturity of the empirical and methodological tools used in the PA field (Kelman, 2007). Rather surprisingly, close to none of the studies has used observable individual prosocial behavior in a real-life setting. A rare exception from the standard cross-sectional, self-reported and same-survey design is Esteve et al. (2016). However, although they study the effect of PSM on incentivized behavior in

a computer lab setting (i.e., investments in a public goods game), they still do not observe actual prosocial behavior in a real-life setting.

The usage of self-reported data from a single rater in combination with the collection of the dependent as well as independent variables in the same survey makes the measures susceptible to several possible biases. The reliance on a common rater may introduce systematic variance between the two variables, known as common-method bias (CMB) or variance (CMV), giving an indication of a relationship between the two that may not actually exist, hence threatening the validity of the results (Chang et al., 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Despite these well-established risks associated with the usage of cross-sectional self-reported, single-rater and same-survey data, PA research has heavily relied on this methodological approach, and still does so, for empirical theory testing (Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015). This gives us reason to re-examine the relationship between PSM and prosocial behavior.

We are cognizant of the warnings against the exaggeration of the threats posed by CMB (Spector, 2006) and against the avoidance of single-survey method in all circumstances (George and Pandey, 2017). George and Pandey (2017, p. 260) argue that some variables like judgments and feelings are “by their very nature, perceptual”, and so the usage of self-reported surveys is an appropriate method of measurement for these variables. However, our variable of interest does not fall into that category and does, in fact, involve overt behavior. Spector (2006) proposes that

rather than accepting the presence of CMB, alternative methods should be used to control for the source of the bias, citing the example of the usage of observational data in the presence of the threat of social desirability bias, which is precisely the strategy that we use in our study.

Furthermore, the multidimensional nature of PSM is still an unsettled issue. While there is a widespread support in the extant literature for the positive impact of PSM on individual prosocial behavior, consensus about which dimensions of PSM are more strongly linked with prosocial behavior is not in sight. We suspect that a differential understanding of what constitutes prosocial behavior across studies, resulting in measurement incongruence, may contribute to the inconsistencies in the findings of previous studies. While some researchers have operationalized prosocial behavior as financial donation and volunteering intentions, other scholars have taken whistle-blowing behavior as their measure. An interesting take is Andersen and Serritzlew's (2012). Their novel operationalization is based on the rationale that while Danish physiotherapists receive the same fee for servicing disabled and ordinary clients, more time and effort are invested in servicing disabled clients. This implies that physiotherapists who serve more disabled clients make a larger contribution toward the public good.

The different operationalizations and associated measurements of prosocial behavior in combination with the possible exposure to common-method bias may be the

reason behind the contradictory evidence in the literature. For instance, Clerkin et al. (2009) associate prosocial behavior with the PSM dimension Compassion, whilst Esteve et al. (2016) report a stronger link of PSM with prosocial behavior when the Compassion dimension is excluded. Yet Andersen and Serritzlew (2012) report evidence of a positive impact of the PSM dimension Commitment to the Public Interest (CPI) on Danish physiotherapists' prosocial behavior. Given the possible exposure to CMB in extant PSM work in combination with inconsistent evidence regarding PSM's dimensionality, further investigation of the link between PSM and prosocial behavior using a novel design with more precise measurement instruments is necessary. Clearly, the salience of prosocial behavior for (public) organizational performance (Podsakoff et al., 2000) warrants clarification of the role of PSM in influencing individual prosocial behavior.

In this research, we aim to provide a first step toward resolving this conundrum by designing and conducting two studies of prosocial behavior, one using self-reported measures of prosocial behavior and the other targeting observed real-life prosocial behavior. Moreover, we use a measure of prosocial behavior that is seen by some as the purest case of prosocial behavior (Masser et al., 2008): i.e., blood donation. This has been used in numerous economic and sociological studies pertaining to prosocial behavior (see, for example, Bénabou & Tirole, 2006; Stutzer et al., 2011). Scholars regard blood donation as an “important expression of prosocial behavior in modern society” (Blackie & Cozzolino, 2011, p. 998) and is hence frequently used by

economists and sociologists in their attempts to understand the voluntary provision of public goods (Lacetera et al., 2012; Stutzer et al., 2011). Of course, blood donation is not directly relevant for organizations, but due to the costly valuation process involved in the donation process (Stutzer et al., 2011), it is similar to at least some types of prosocial behavior performed in the organizational context that require the use of individual resources from the employee (Bolino & Grant, 2016).

Additionally, we run analyses for both PSM overall and the underlying dimensions. In so doing, by comparing the results from both studies and across PSM overall and the underlying dimensions, we provide further clarity with respect to the role of PSM in fostering prosocial behavior. Hence, our contribution is twofold. First, we examine the potential impact of CMB by comparing findings for self-reported vis-à-vis actual prosocial behavior. Second, we contribute to resolving the discrepancy between the results of previous studies regarding the dimensions of PSM that are claimed and found to act as an antecedent of prosocial behavior. Specifically, we conduct two experiments that differ in an important and crucial way with respect to their design and measurement. Both studies use questionnaires to measure individual PSM (and its dimensions), but the measurement of prosocial behavior differs. The first study utilizes self-reported (cross-sectional, single-rater and same-survey) measures of past prosocial behavior, in line with extant work. Conversely, the second study relies on observed actual prosocial behavior displayed by the analyzed individuals in a real-life context. The two different research designs and measurement methods yield

varying results, leading to different conclusions regarding the impact of (the dimensions of) PSM on prosocial behavior. We argue that these varied results have important implications for public sector researchers measuring both their independent and dependent variables with the same (and single-rater) survey instrument. We also discuss how the results of our study highlight issues related to the measurement of PSM. Lastly, looking at the extant literature on prosocial behavior, we argue that making the distinction between different types of prosocial behavior can help in reconciling the differential results in the literature.

4.3 PSM and Prosocial Behavior

The concept of PSM was first introduced by Perry and Wise in 1990, who defined this construct as an “individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations” (1990, p. 368). It was built on prior scholarly arguments that the motivations of individuals involved in the delivery of public services differ significantly from those working in private organizations (Perry, 1996). PSM offered an alternative to the rational theories of motivation based on self-interest (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007), and was embraced as an important contribution to the existing theories of human behavior in PA (Brewer, Selden, & Facer II, 2000). Since then, an impressive stream of work has emerged, with an abundance of empirical studies regarding the measures of PSM and its

dimensionality, as well as the antecedents and consequences of both PSM and its dimensions.

Initial theoretical PSM work drew a clear distinction between public and private sector employees in terms of motivations and intentions. Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) expanded the scope of PSM to be more inclusive, defining the concept as the “general altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation or humankind” (1999, p. 23). In so doing, they again emphasized the distinctive motivations of individuals engaged in the public sector to provide services that benefit others. However, what was unique about this definition was the allusion to the wider concept of altruism, which had not been done previously. The earlier definitions presented PSM as the unique domain of public sector personnel, and this restriction was now lifted by the newer conceptualization. This broader conception is echoed in the recent literature, which defines PSM as the “belief, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate” (Vandenabeele, 2007, p. 547). Throughout this process of an evolving conception of PSM, what has remained unchanged is the affirmation that PSM entails an individual motivation to engage in acts to benefit others, and society at large (Jensen & Vestergaard, 2017).

The four-dimensional PSM construct rests on co-existing rational, normative and affective motives of individuals (Perry & Wise, 1990), and is conceptualized as a formative construct with the dimensions “attraction to public making”, “commitment to public interest”, “compassion” and “self-sacrifice”. Attraction to Policy Making (APM) reflects an individual’s desire to participate in the policy formulation process. Engaging in the policy formulation process can be exciting and can bolster self-image, hence satisfying personal needs (Perry, 1996). This utility maximization by engaging in policy formulation provides the rational motivation for involvement in public service. Commitment to Public Interest (CPI) is borne out of a sense of duty and obligation that is felt toward society at large, which represents the normative foundation of PSM. Another motivation to engage in public service stems from a sincere belief in the social importance of public programs (Perry & Wise, 1990). This affective component, based on individual emotional responses to the social context (Perry, 1996), is reflected in Compassion (COM) and Self-Sacrifice (SS).

The introduction of PSM also fueled debate regarding its implications for public sector organizations and the specific benefits accrued to public organizations due to a distinctly motivated workforce. As Ritz, Brewer, and Neumann (2016) note, a number of behavioral implications of PSM have been established as a result of two decades of international, multi-disciplinary, and multi-sector research on PSM (i.e. Clerkin et al., 2009; Esteve et al., 2015; Pandey et al., 2008). One behavioral manifestation tested repeatedly is the link of PSM with prosocial behavior, in

different forms and shapes. Rainey and Steinbauer's (1999) reference to PSM as an altruistic motivation led to the acknowledgement that individuals with high levels of PSM are predisposed to act in a prosocial manner (Pandey et al., 2008) as, by definition, individuals with a high level of PSM are "characterized by an ethic built on benevolence", and hence indulge in behaviors that benefit others (Houston, 2006, p. 68).

To the best of our knowledge, the first such study was conducted by Brewer and Seldon (1998), who noted the lack of behavioral outcomes of PSM documented in literature, and hence proceeded to find evidence. They supplied "hard behavioral evidence" linking PSM with "an actual behavior that occurs in the public sector" by looking at whistle-blowing as a form of prosocial behavior of public sector employees (Brewer & Seldon, 1998, p. 414). They used archival data measuring self-reported whistle-blowing behavior and what they described as "PSM-related attitudes", namely the regard for public interest and job security. Their findings revealed that whistle-blowers are characterized by a lower regard for job security (implying a higher willingness to accept self-sacrifice) and a higher regard for the public interest. These measures are taken as an indicator for the presence of PSM. Without any doubt, this early study of the behavioral implications of PSM is commendable. However, no direct and explicit measurement of PSM was conducted, leaving room for further investigations into this relationship. Additionally, the

proxies used in this study originated from archival data based on individual self-reported whistle-blowing behavior.

Although Brewer and Seldon conclude only that PSM is a cluster of attitudes that lead to prosocial behavior (1998, p. 422), their study is widely used to justify the assertion that PSM itself, and not the cluster of attitudes, is an antecedent of prosocial behavior. Houston (2006) employed a different approach and analyzed prosocial behavior of public sector employees in comparison with their counterparts employed in the private and non-profit sector. The results indicate a higher likelihood of individuals employed by government or government agencies to engage in volunteering, triggering the conclusion that “public service motivation is evident in the charitable acts of public administrators” (Houston, 2006, p. 82). Again, although individual PSM was not explicitly measured and employment in the public sector is regarded as an indication of higher PSM, the results of this study reporting higher self-reported donations of time and money by public sector employees have become a standard reference providing a testament of the positive link between PSM and prosocial behavior.

Taking an angle different from the above meso-level sector perspective, the micro-level organizational implications of PSM with respect to individual prosocial behavior have been examined by, for instance, Kim (2006) and Pandey et al. (2008). Both studies look at the impact of PSM on the incidence of organizational citizenship

behavior of public sector employees. Their findings are similar, as they both report a positive link between PSM and organizational citizenship behavior. Given that a one-dimensional measure of PSM was used in both studies, no specific dimension was singled out to be more strongly linked with this specific aspect of prosocial behavior. Both studies rely on self-reported, cross-sectional and single-rater measures with questionnaire items regarding both the dependent as well as the independent variables collected via the same survey instrument.

Clerkin et al. (2009) empirically test the link between PSM and donation behavior in a student sample. Their results reveal a significant positive relation of donating time and money with two dimensions of PSM: Compassion and what they refer to as Civic Duty. These findings correspond with the arguments developed in the PSM conceptualization literature, which purport that PSM predisposes individuals to act in a manner beneficial to others (Pandey et al., 2008; Rainey & Steinbauer, 1999). This study provided much needed empirical evidence of the relationship between PSM and prosocial behavior. However, the sample respondents were informed beforehand that the purpose of the study was to understand individual motivations for donating money or volunteering time, being asked to read information about a fictional organization and subsequently reveal their intent to donate a hypothetical sum of money or amount of time to this organization. In so doing, consistency and desirability concerns may have been induced among respondents (Batson & Powell, 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2003). A unique way of looking at organizational prosocial

behavior was employed by Andersen and Serritzlew (2012) by studying two types of patients serviced by Danish physiotherapists. A key strength of their design is that they use actual client data, rather than self-reported assessments. Since servicing disabled patients is more time-consuming for physiotherapists as compared to other patients, while receiving the same payment, a higher proportion of disabled patients serviced by a physiotherapist is regarded as higher prosocial behavior. However, this type of prosocial behavior can be argued to fall in the category of role-prescribed prosocial behavior, as opposed to extra-role prosocial behavior (Katz, 1964). While extra-role prosocial behavior is not specified in the formal role requirements, role-prescribed prosocial behavior is part of the individual's formal role. The care-providing professions are considered good examples of jobs where helping and cooperating are considered as "legitimate dimensions of job performance" (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986, p. 712). Furthermore, Andersen and Serritzlew (2012) concede that the ethical code of the professional body governing the conduct of physiotherapists directs physiotherapists to cater to those in need, and to allocate a fair share of resources to those in need. Hence, this form of role-prescribed prosocial behavior, which is part of the individual's professional role, is very different from extra-role prosocial behavior that has been studied by a majority of scholars of prosocial behavior in the public sector. Perhaps, this is the reason why Commitment to the Public Interest and not Compassion, as hypothesized in earlier work (Wright & Grant, 2010), is linked with this specific type of prosocial behavior.

The most recent investigation into the relationship between PSM and prosocial behavior is Esteve et al.'s (2016) incentivized experimental lab design, utilizing the well-established public goods game. In line with previous studies, they find that individuals with higher PSM are more likely to act prosocially in the sense of investing more in the public good. Their findings show that the composite measure of PSM is significantly related with prosocial behavior, but that this relationship is further strengthened with the exclusion of Compassion from PSM. This contrasts with the results of Clerkin et al. (2009), who find empirical support for a positive relationship between Compassion and prosocial behavior. Moreover, Esteve et al. (2016) indicate that the prosocial behavior of high-PSM individuals is contingent on the prosocial behavior of others. Although this study relies on a solid and incentivized experimental design, their conceptualization of prosocial behavior has a few limitations. According to Batson and Powell (2003), due to the problems of “demand characteristics, evaluation apprehension, social desirability, self-presentation, and reactive measures”, the solicitation of intended responses while being presented with a hypothetical scenario, even when incentivized, is inadequate for the purpose of studying real-life prosocial behavior. Instead, an actual commitment to behavior is necessary (2003, p. 479). Individual responses in a public goods game reflect hypothetical (albeit incentivized) and not actual situations faced by individuals, making the responses non-representative of “natural” behavior. This

is the classic question regarding the external validity of findings reported in artificial lab studies (van Witteloostuijn, 2015).

4.4 Study 1 – Talking the Talk

4.4.1 Methods and Measures

Research Design. Study 1 adopts the cross-sectional, self-reported, single-rater and same-survey design that is standard in much of the PA literature and PSM work. The participants are undergraduate students in Business Administration enrolled in either the first, second or third year of study at a major Spanish university. The participants were administered a pen-and-paper questionnaire pertaining to their demographics, as well as the dependent and independent variables. Although participation in the survey study was voluntary, a few minutes of class time were dedicated to complete the questionnaire. Participants also signed a consent form before proceeding with the questionnaire. The questionnaires were filled in anonymously, and each participant was asked to generate a unique identifying code only known to her or him (this was needed for Study 2). The code was based on personal information, asking for the first two letters of the respondent mother's and father's first names, respectively, the participant's birth date, and the year of enrollment in the undergraduate program. The usage of a unique code guaranteed anonymity to the participants, and hence

reduced the risk of common-method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Furthermore, the participants were informed that the data analysis would be performed using aggregated data in order to further decrease their identification concerns. Respondents were administered the English or the Spanish version of the questionnaire, depending on their program of enrollment. Participants were informed that the purpose of the research was to gather information about individual habits and personalities. No incentives were offered for completing the questionnaire.

Dependent Variable. In the extant literature, prosocial behavior is operationalized and measured in various ways, including blood donations, monetary gifts to charity, number of hours volunteered, contributions to public goods games, whistle-blowing behavior, and number of unpaid over-time hours worked. We use blood donation to the local blood bank as our measure of prosocial behavior. Study 1 operationalizes this as self-reported retrospective blood donation during the earlier blood donation drive at the university campus. The act of donating blood is a voluntary, intentional and extra-role act performed in order to benefit someone else, placing this act within the purview of the widely accepted definition of prosocial behavior (Eisenberg & Miller, 1987). Blood donation has also been used as a classic example of prosocial behavior in numerous prior studies, being well recognized as a prosocial act (i.e. Bénabou & Tirole, 2006; Lacetera & Macis 2010a; Lacetera & Macis 2010b; Houston 2006). Accordingly, the participants were asked in the questionnaire to

indicate whether they had donated blood in the campus blood donation drive in the previous academic term.

Study 1 measures prosocial behavior with the blood donation behavior of an individual, an act in which some people are unable to partake due to certain personal characteristics and / or specific restrictions imposed by the blood collection entity. These restrictions include having traveled to certain countries in the past few years prior to blood donation, usage of certain medicines, a minimum body weight, and the like. Additionally, some individuals are apprehensive of needles, making them highly unlikely to donate blood, notwithstanding their potential desire to help others. Those participants who had not donated blood were asked to indicate the reason for their decision to refrain from doing so. The respondents were given several options, which included “unable due to use of medication”, “unable due to recent piercing / tattoo”, and “unable due to travelling history”. All these participants were excluded from the sample before proceeding with the data analysis, as their abstinence from donating blood would not adequately reflect their (lack of) desire to indulge in prosocial behavior. After removing these cases, the sample size was reduced from 671 to 395 respondents.

Explanatory Variables. A number of PSM scales circulate in the PA literature. For instance, both three-dimensional and four-dimensional scales have been validated and used in prior work. We employ the four-dimensional scale to be able to examine

the relationship of prosocial behavior with each of the four theoretically identified dimensions of PSM. We took a 12-item PSM measure from a prior study (van Witteloostuijn et al., 2017), which we slightly modified by adapting the wording to undergraduate respondents. The responses were indicated on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree”. The Cronbach’s α of the 12-item measure is 0.83. The individual dimensions have reliability coefficients of 0.60, 0.74, 0.58 and 0.76 for Attraction to Policy-Making (APM), Commitment to Public Interest (CPI), Compassion (COM) and Self-Sacrifice (SS), respectively. While these values are not particularly high for APM and COM, they are broadly in line with the reliability estimates of PSM reported in previous studies (e.g., Jensen & Andersen, 2015; van Witteloostuijn et al., 2017). Next, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted and the four-dimensional model proved to be a good fit with CFI = 0.950, RMSEA = 0.058 and SRMR = 0.046. All items loadings were also statistically significant.

Control Variables. In prior work, a few personal characteristics have been linked with blood donation in particular, and prosocial behavior in general. Religious affiliation has been related to higher prosocial behavior (Ahmed, 2009), and religious socialization has also been identified as an antecedent of PSM (Perry 1997). This extant work suggests that the religiosity of the individual in general matters, and not so much any particular religion. Therefore, we coded individuals as religious (1) or not (0). As the questionnaires were administered in English or Spanish depending on

the respondents' command over either language, this was also added to the control variables (with Spanish coded as 0, and English as 1). Additionally, gender was added as a control variable (female coded as 1, and male as 0). The descriptive statistics reveal that approximately 63% of the sample is composed of males as opposed to 37% females, and 60% of the respondents have a religious affiliation and 40% of the respondents do not affiliate themselves with any religion.

4.4.2 Results

According to the survey data, a total of 96 participants (24.30%) reported having donated blood, whereas 299 participants (75.70%) indicated not having donated blood in the previous academic term. The descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations of the variables are displayed in Table 4.1. Before running the statistical analysis to assess the relationship between PSM and self-reported blood donation behavior, a preliminary comparison of the two groups (donors vis-à-vis non-donors) was performed. The results suggest that the two groups differ significantly only in Compassion ($p < 0.01$) with individuals who report having donated blood, on average, scoring higher on Compassion. So, the results of this preliminary intuitive non-parametric bivariate analysis reveal that the two groups differ significantly with respect to motivation.

Table 4.1 Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations Study 1 and Study 2

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Blood donation reported	.24	.43									
Blood Donation observed	.11	.32	.21*								
PSM	4.56	.85	.06	.08							
PSM_APM	5.07	1.11	.04	.04	.70*						
PSM_CPI	4.24	1.20	.01	.10	.82*	.46*					
PSM_COM	4.80	1.04	.16*	.07	.71*	.32*	.42*				
PSM_SS	4.14	1.17	-.03	.04	.79*	.35*	.58*	.45*			
Gender	.36	.48	.14*	.08	.06	-.09	.10	.16*	.01		
Religious	.59	.49	-.03	-.12	.03	-.05	.06	.01	.05	.05	
Language	.29	.45	-.08	.02	-.03	-.03	.07	-.15*	.02	-.09	.07

Note: * $p \leq .01$

To further analyze the data, the probit model using the maximum likelihood estimation is utilized as the binary nature of the dependent variable makes this the appropriate technique to test for our relationships (Aldrich & Nelson, 1984). The use of the probit model relaxes a number of assumptions necessary for OLS regression. The requirements of a large enough data set and independent observations are met by our data set. Three separate models were estimated in order to test for the absence or presence of a relationship between PSM and prosocial behavior. Model 1 includes only the control variables to identify their explanatory power for prosocial behavior. In addition to these control variables, Model 2 incorporates the aggregate PSM measure, whereas Model 3 disaggregates PSM to discern the relationship of each separate dimension of PSM with prosocial behavior.

Although there is no measure corresponding to the R^2 of a traditional OLS model, there are a number of alternatives known as pseudo- R^2 's that are reported for probit models (Hoetker, 2007). Based on the strength of the relationship of various pseudo- R^2 's with the OLS- R^2 , McKelvey and Zaviona's R^2 is seen as the most appropriate pseudo- R^2 for probit models (Veall & Zimmermann, 1996). Accordingly, we report the McKelvey and Zaviona's R^2 for each of the estimated probit models. All findings are provided in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Regression analysis for self-reported blood donations Study 1

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
	Coefficient (SE)	Coefficient (SE)	Coefficient (SE)
Gender	.402 (0.146)***	.395 (0.147)***	.354 (0.153)**
Religious	-.082 (0.146)	-.086 (0.146)	.066 (0.149)
Language	-.180 (0.167)	-.178 (0.167)	-.074 (0.173)
PSM		.077 (0.084)	
PSM_APM			.043 (0.078)
PSM_CPI			-.036 (0.082)
PSM_COM			.282 (0.089)***
PSM_SS			-.131 (0.083)
McKelvey & Zavoina R^2	.046	.051	.106
<i>n</i>	395	395	395

Note: * $p \leq .10$; ** $p \leq .05$; and *** $p \leq .01$. Non-donor $n = 299$, donor $n = 96$

Model 1 shows that gender is significantly linked with self-reported prosocial behavior. We test for a relationship of PSM with self-reported prosocial behavior in Model 2, in line with previous work that found a positive association between PSM and prosocial behavior (Brewer & Selden, 1998; Esteve et al., 2016; Houston, 2006). Interestingly, the results of Model 2 do not show support for this relationship. Hence,

on this basis, we cannot conclude that the aggregate measure of PSM is significantly related to individual prosocial behavior, as self-reported retrospectively by our respondents.

Next, we disaggregate the PSM construct to analyze the impact of each dimension of PSM separately on self-reported prosocial behavior. We test for a positive relationship of each of the four dimensions of PSM with prosocial behavior, as self-reported retrospectively by our respondents. On the one hand, we find no evidence for a relationship of Attraction to Policy Making, Commitment to Public Interest, and Self-Sacrifice with prosocial behavior. On the other hand, however, the regression results show a significantly positive relationship of Compassion ($p < 0.01$) with prosocial behavior. Hence, overall, the results provide partial support for a relationship between PSM and self-reported prosocial behavior, particularly for PSM's Compassion dimension.

4.4.3 Discussion

Kim (2006) and Pandey et al. (2008) reported evidence to support the link between the aggregate measure of PSM with prosocial behavior, albeit operationalized as organizational citizenship behavior. No such support was received in our Model 2. Esteve et al. (2016) also found a positive relationship between PSM and prosocial

behavior in a computer lab setting. However, their results differ markedly from our Study 1. Their aggregate measure of PSM is significantly related with individual prosocial behavior, but this relationship is further strengthened with the omission of Compassion from the aggregated PSM measure. Conversely, in Model 3, we find support for a positive relationship between only Compassion and prosocial behavior. This corresponds to the findings of Clerkin et al. (2009), who also revealed a positive relationship between prosocial behavior and Compassion. However, they also report a significantly positive relationship with Commitment to Public Interest, as well as a significantly negative relationship with Attraction to Policy Making.

4.5 Study 2 – Walking the Walk

4.5.1 Method and Measures

The participants in Study 2 were the same as those in Study 1, hence yielding the same descriptive information and reliability estimates relating to the control and independent variables as reported above (see Table 4.1). In addition, the same self-reported survey measure of PSM (our central independent variable) was utilized across Study 1 and Study 2. The point of departure of Study 2 vis-à-vis Study 1 is the measure of prosocial behavior. In order to keep the findings across both studies comparable, the operationalization of prosocial behavior is again done using blood

donation. However, Study 2's measure follows from observing the actual blood donations made by the participants. This implies two crucial design differences of Study 2 versus Study 1. First, the dependent variable is measured at a different point in time from the measurement of the independent variable. Second, we use another rater and source for measuring prosocial behavior, which is now actual rather than self-reported. Both design elements imply that we avoid important roots of common-method bias.

The blood bank responsible for running the on-campus campaign was contacted at an earlier date and their explicit permission to observe actual blood donation behavior was received. As always, the date of the blood donation drive was decided in coordination with the university to ensure that no other student event was organized on the same day and that classes were planned as per normal schedule. Additionally, this event was more than four months after the previous blood donation drive, making the participants eligible to donate once again. This gave the students maximum opportunity to take part in the blood donation drive. On the day of the blood donation drive, one medical doctor, three nurses and two staff members of the blood bank were present to examine the donors, carry out the donation procedure, and facilitate the donors.

As the respondents' data pertaining to the independent variable(s) had been collected earlier in the context of Study 1, only observing blood donation behavior was

required for Study 2. In order to avoid invoking desirability concerns, the participants were initially unaware of the observation of their behavior. It was only once the participants approached the blood donation stand and indicated their intent to donate blood that they were asked: (a) the permission to be included in Study 2, and (b) to recall the unique identifier generated by them whilst answering the questionnaire in Study 1. This was done by a single researcher during the time the respondents were queued in line to donate blood. Since this was done only after they had revealed their intention to donate blood, we deliberately avoided any impact relating to desirability concerns that might have been triggered would they have been aware of the observation of their behavior.

4.5.2 Results

Our observation of blood donations shows that 45 (11.39%) out of a total of 395 participants actually donated blood in this blood donation drive. As in Study 1, a preliminary comparison of the two groups (donors and non-donors) was performed to examine if the two groups significantly differ. The mean comparisons reveal that the two groups differ significantly only with respect to Commitment to Public Interest ($p < 0.05$). The individuals who were observed to have donated blood scored, on average, higher on Commitment to Public Interest. The absence of any further between-group differences goes against the intuitive bivariate findings in Study 2. As

in Study 1, to further analyze the data, we again estimated three separate probit models with the observed blood donation behavior. Model 4 only includes the control variables. In Model 5, we add the aggregate PSM measure, and Model 6 uses the disaggregated measures of PSM to identify potential links of actual prosocial behavior with each dimension. As in Study 1, McKelvey and Zavoina's R^2 's are reported. All results are reported in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Regression analysis for observed blood donations Study 2

	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
	Coefficient (SE)	Coefficient (SE)	Coefficient (SE)
Gender	.339 (.180)*	.339 (.180)*	.308 (.186)*
Religious	-.454 (.180)**	-.454 (.180)**	-.466 (.181)***
Language	.063 (.201)	.063 (.201)	.050 (.206)
PSM		.147 (.107)	
PSM_APM			-.044 (.096)
PSM_CPI			-.071 (.101)
PSM_COM			.065 (.105)
PSM_SS			.048 (.010)
McKelvey & Zavoina R^2	.066	.082	.088
<i>n</i>	395	395	395

Note: * $p \leq .10$; ** $p \leq .05$; and *** $p \leq .01$. Non-donor $n = 350$, donor $n = 45$

In Model 4, all the control variables were regressed on actual prosocial behavior, whereas the aggregate measure of PSM was added to the regression in Model 5. In line with Study 1, the estimates reveal no significant findings with respect to the aggregate measure of PSM and blood donation behavior, albeit now actual rather than self-reported. In Model 6, each of the dimensions of PSM is regressed on actual blood donation behavior. In contrast with Study 1 with self-reported prosocial behavior as the dependent variable, Study 2's results show that none of the dimensions is significantly related to actual blood donation behavior. This presents a noteworthy difference in results when compared to the self-disclosed blood donations used in Study 1.

4.5.3 Discussion

The (lagged) direct observation of actual prosocial behavior was utilized in Study 2 in order to minimize the threat to validity as posed by common-method bias. The results indicate meaningful non-findings or nulls (Meyer et al., 2017) that, we believe, are important as these do present evidence that goes against prior empirical work purporting a positive link between PSM and prosocial behavior. Our Study 2 reveals that observed prosocial behavior has no significant relationship with the aggregate PSM measure, nor with any of its underlying dimensions. These non-findings may point toward a possible overestimation of PSM's relationship with

prosocial behavior, being an artefact of the biases associated with the dominant use of self-reported measures of the dependent variable in the context of a cross-sectional single-rater and same-survey design. As a result, the published findings may, to a large (but unknown) degree, be false positives (van Witteloostuijn, 2016). We further discuss this issue, including the possible causes and implications for future research, in our general discussion and conclusion section.

When presenting non-findings in what is essentially an extended replication study, it is important to see if the study has adequate statistical power to able to reject the null hypothesis (Walker et al., 2018). An established convention for acceptable statistical power is 0.80 (Cohen, 1992). Using Stata tools, we find that Study 1 has adequate statistical power (0.97), but Study 2 is underpowered (0.45), as smaller sample sizes have a lower likelihood of detecting a statistically significant relationship (Balkin & Sheperis, 2011) (donor $n=45$ in Study 2 compared to donor $n = 96$ in Study 1). This indicates the possibility of committing a Type II error, which means that the statistical test may fail to detect a relationship that does actually exist. This signals that the results of this Study 2 should be interpreted with caution.

Having said that, to further probe into this issue, we also calculated the effect sizes to compare standardized effect sizes for the two studies, a suitable measure for which is the Cohen's d . We also plotted the mean and standard deviations of the donors and non-donors of the two studies in Figures 4.1 and 4.2, respectively. We see a decrease

in the Cohen's d from 0.380 from Study 1 to 0.207 in Study 2. This points to the possibility that even if a relationship between PSM and prosocial behavior would exist, it is weaker when an observable measure of prosocial behavior is used.

Figure 4.1 Mean comparison of donors and non-donors in Study 1

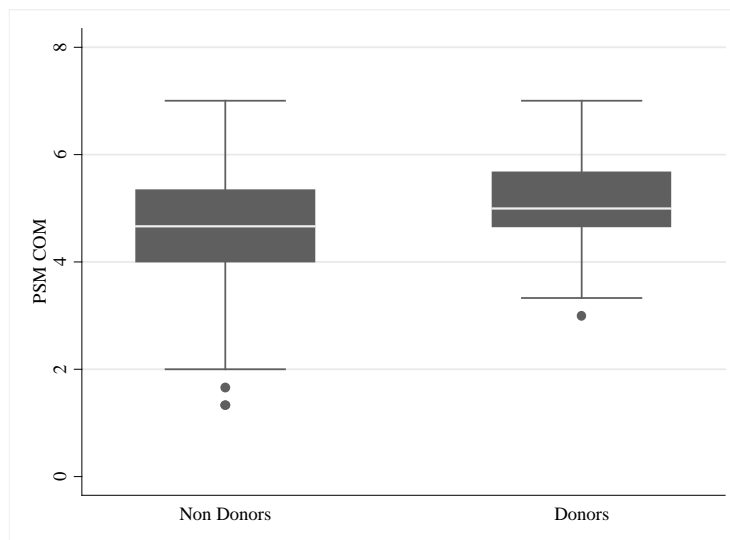
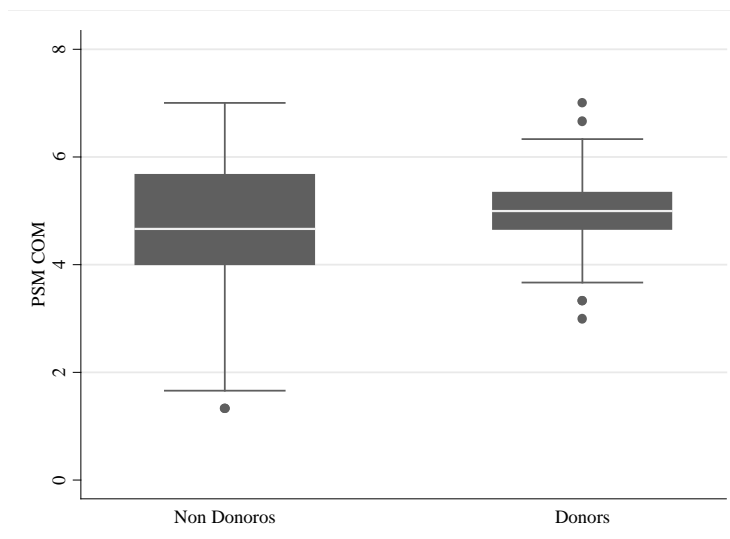


Figure 4.2 Mean comparison of donors and non-donors in Study 2



4.6 Discussion and Conclusions

Although our two studies examine the very same relationship, they yield meaningful differences in the key result: the significantly positive association of PSM's Compassion in Study 1 is no longer significant in Study 2 (which gives no PSM-related significant results at all). We suspect that a number of reasons could be responsible for this. One possible reason for this is the different measurement methods across the two studies. Study 1 employed cross-sectional self-reported (single-rater and same-survey) measures for all the variables, including the predictor as well as the criterion, as done in most prior studies testing the relationship between PSM and prosocial behavior, whilst Study 2 adopts an observational and other-source measure of prosocial behavior.

True, reliance on self-reported measures for the independent as well as the dependent variables is not always discouraged (Conway & Lance, 2010), and scholars warn against the over-estimation of CMV as this bias does not manifest in all single-method and self-reported surveys (Spector, 2006; George & Pandey, 2017). But certain settings and variables are more prone to measurement bias in self-reported data than others. This design is particularly problematic when the common source of bias is shared by the two measured variables. In our study, where the constructs measured through self-reported survey scales are PSM as the independent and prosocial behavior as the dependent, the common source of bias is relevant due to

social desirability and response consistency concerns, which both bias the responses to the items measuring the pair of central constructs. Moreover, the theory here involves simple main effect hypotheses, and not complicated mediation and / or moderation relationships, making CMV more likely (Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010).

The bias introduced due to measurement error poses a risk to the results of Study 1, as “measurement error threatens the validity of the conclusions” (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 879). The systematic variance due to the measurement method, or common-method variance (CMV), is a challenge in behavioral research, potentially indicating a relationship between variables where none exists (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Hence, CMV may produce false positives (van Witteloostuijn 2016). The positive relationship between the Compassion dimension of PSM and prosocial behavior in Study 1 may well be an artefact due to CMV, as both variables are prone to common-source bias. Our suspicion is that the basis for this bias lies in the response consistency and social desirability motives highlighted by Podsakoff et al. (2003). The response consistency motive implies that respondents attempt to seem consistent and rational in their answers, thus “creating” a relationship that does not exist in reality. The social desirability motive induces individuals to present a more favorable image of themselves, resulting in the potential indication of spurious relationships. The nature of the PSM construct as well as that of prosocial behavior make them highly susceptible to both these biases.

A suggested way to reduce common-method variance is the use of a self-reported measure for either one of the key variables (independent or dependent), and employing another measuring techniques for the other variable (Spector, 2006; for other possible remedies, please consult Chang et al. 2010). This research strategy was adopted in the design elements of Study 2, which relies on linking a self-reported measure of PSM with observable actual prosocial behavior, effectively reducing common-method variance to zero. Of course, as any measure, this measurement technique of observing behavior may be prone to other biases, but what is critical here is that variance due to sourcing data from the same rater is eliminated from Study 2. Hence, we can attribute higher validity to the findings of Study 2 vis-à-vis Study 1, as both studies shared all other design elements. Of course, we concede that Study 2 has lower statistical power to detect our relationship of interest. However, the decrease in the effect size across the two studies lends further support to our assertion of a reduction of the impact of Compassion on blood donation behavior when observed behavior is used.

We believe that this conclusion has wider ramifications for PA at large. Indeed, Meier and O’Toole (2013) acknowledge the potentially high frequency of spurious results published in the PA literature. Moreover, “although estimates of the strength of the impact of common method biases vary, their average level is quite substantial” (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 897). Correspondingly, in a recent study examining the impact of the usage of subjective data for research, Jakobsen and Jensen (2015) also

found that the significant relationships indicated by relying on subjective data disappeared when objective data was employed to measure the same behavior. This implies that PA would benefit from designs that avoid CMV (Chang et al., 2010), as well as reporting practices that involve (comparison of) effect sizes (Meyer et al., 2017) in tandem with systematic replication (Walker et al., 2018).

Despite the large downsides associated with the use of self-reported data, there has been an over-reliance on single-rater and same-survey data in the PA literature (Favero & Bullock, 2015). This can be clearly seen in our analysis of prior work that sought to examine the foundation of the widely held belief that PSM serves as an antecedent of prosocial behavior. As we extensively argued above, the systematic measurement error due to the methods employed in past research is not unlikely to have led to an inflation of the estimated strength of the true relationship between PSM and prosocial behavior. Of course, we are not the first to argue that “how we measure variables matters” (Favero & Bullock, 2015, p. 303), but this advice has not been heeded and a large portion of PA’s empirical literature still utilizes self-reported data where the independent and the dependent variables are both collected from the same respondent (Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015). In future work, we hope to see PA research move away from the dominance of the single-rater – same-survey design, adopting other designs next to the survey-only ones.

Another noteworthy aspect of existing research on prosocial behavior is that much of the literature has treated prosocial behavior as a homogenous interchangeable group of behaviors. In fact, prosocial behavior is a behavioral category entailing different types of behavior. For instance, management scholars have distinguished between two fundamentally different types of prosocial behavior in organizational settings: prosocial behavior targeted toward a specific person, on the one hand, and prosocial behavior targeted toward an organization or larger entity, on the other hand (Organ, 1997; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Moreover, these different types of prosocial behavior are also triggered by different underlying emotional and psychological mechanisms (McNeely & Meglino, 1994). Similarly, in their review of literature on prosocial behavior, Penner et al., (2005) conclude that the antecedents and facilitating mechanisms of prosocial behavior differ depending on context: i.e., whether the behavior is performed within a dyad or in the context of a larger group or organization.

In the PA literature, Kim (2006) and Pandey, Wright, and Moynihan (2008) emphasize the importance of this distinction, but these studies are the exception rather than the norm. Making this demarcation in the study of prosocial behavior in the public sector will indeed lend clarity as to the antecedents of various types of prosocial behaviors. This may also explain the variation in the results of previous studies. Blood donation is a specific instance of prosocial behavior directed at society, and not at a specific person. This differs significantly from the decision

made by physiotherapists to treat disabled patients, or donations to charity and whistle-blowing behavior. Hence, a clearer demarcation of the type of prosocial behavior and its link with the dimensions of PSM could further contribute to reconciling the divergent results of past PA research. Another concern shared by scholars relates to the measurement of PSM. Using experimental survey research, Kim and Kim (2016) assess the bias induced in the measurement of PSM using survey methodology and point out that the PSM dimensions of Compassion, Self-Sacrifice and Commitment to Public Interest are especially prone to social desirability concerns due to their ethical and normative associations. This raises the fundamental question of the suitability of the measurement techniques used so far to measure PSM. For instance, scholars in other management disciplines have demarcated the two types of motives for individual action: explicit and implicit motives. Explicit motives are consciously held, and so can be easily measured using self-reports; however, the same cannot be said of implicit motives that operate at a sub-conscious level (Slabbinck et al., 2018). As individuals are not fully aware of their implicit motives, indirect measurement of these motives is required. Marvel and Resh (2018) have recently presented an implicit measure of public service motivation, and recommended its use to supplement traditional survey measures of PSM. Future PSM scholars may consider the suitability of using such implicit measures for obtaining richer proxies of PSM and for evaluating its true impact on individual outcomes.

We acknowledge that, just like all empirical examinations, our pair of studies too have certain limitations. The main limitation is the different statistical power of the two studies. Due to the relatively low number of individuals donating blood in Study 2, its statistical power may be too low to detect an effect. Hence, we cannot claim to have provided clear evidence of the non-existence of the relationship between PSM and prosocial behavior, but only an indication that further examination of this relationship is needed. In addition, Study 2's longitudinal design implies that we were unable to keep track of the students present on campus on any given day, which may have resulted in attrition from our Study's 1 sample in the second study. Therefore, without any doubt, our study cannot be but a first step toward the unraveling of the "true" relationship between PSM and prosocial behavior, by using designs that are not plagued by a high likelihood of common-method bias.

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5

General Conclusions

The aim of this thesis was to critically look at the impacts of PSM on employee attitudes and behaviors vital for organizational outcomes. The first essay highlighted the various employee attitudes that are pertinent in the organizational context. The next two studies then proceeded to empirically test the impacts of PSM in molding some of the organizationally relevant attitudes and behavior, finding support for some of these outcomes and not for others. The following sections present the cohesive contribution of these studies and a synopsis of the theoretical and practical implications of the three essays.

5.1 Theoretical implications

The first essay takes stock of the attitudes literature in public administration. Despite the large amount of extant research on the topic, it is evident in the course of this review that this literature remains fragmented, with no clear categorization of the different attitudes that are relevant to the study of public sector outcomes. This essay presents an inductive classification of the various attitudes held by public sector employee in order to assist future researchers in analyzing the various types of attitudes that ultimately influence the delivery of goods and services by the public sector.

The second essay examines the impact of PSM on five distinct attitudes and behaviors, and identifies a genuine positive impact of PSM over organizational commitment and organizational citizenship, and also a genuine impact of PSM in increasing certain negative outcomes. Furthermore, this meta-analysis helps reconcile the inconsistencies in the empirical results of past literature while also offering explanations for these inconsistencies by highlighting the moderating role of national context specifically, that of corruption and legal origins. This study indicates that the impacts of PSM in shaping the attitudes and behaviors of individuals should be studied keeping in mind the country context. Thus, this essay brings further refinement to the theory of PSM by including these contextual variables not previously considered in the study of PSM. Moreover, the negative effects of PSM remains a key debate for PSM scholars (Schott & Ritz, 2018) and this meta-analysis furthers this discussion by providing empirical evidence for the role of PSM in increasing burnout and turnover intentions of employees.

The third essay critically examines past literature which signals a positive relationship of PSM with prosocial behavior and then employs two different measurement methods to re-inspect this link. The results suggest that the strength of this relationship may be weaker than that established in prior literature. Moreover, we build upon the work of previous scholars (Andersen & Serritzlew, 2012; Brewer & Selden, 1998; Clerkin, Paynter, & Taylor, 2009; Houston, 2006; Kim, 2006; Pandey, Wright, & Moynihan, 2008) and suggest that prosocial behavior is not a

homogenous category of behaviors as previously considered by public administration scholars. As different types of prosocial behaviors are triggered by distinct underlying emotional and psychological mechanisms, it is important to distinguish between the types of prosocial behavior. So, whereas PSM may be an antecedent of some types of prosocial behaviors, it may not be so strongly linked with other types of prosocial behaviors.

5.2 Practical, managerial and policy implications

Taken collectively, the essays highlight the fact that PSM's impact on cultivating positive individual attitudes and behaviors is not as straightforward as previously assumed. Scholars have previously made calls for the utilization of PSM as a tool for personnel selection in order to capitalize on the benefits brought by PSM (Christensen, Paarlberg, & Perry, 2017). On the contrary, the results of the studies in this thesis show that the relationship between PSM and certain organizational benefits is far more nuanced and dependent upon certain environmental factors. So, practitioners and policymakers need to be cognizant of these environmental factors as well as the risks posed by PSM's role in increasing negative behaviors and attitudes and so exercise caution in the usage of PSM as a tool for personnel hiring.

This thesis also holds important lessons for academics engaged in studying PSM. Firstly, the results of the studies on PSM are not replicable across different countries and so the country context of the research is an important element for consideration while planning future studies. Secondly, comparative examination of self-reported, cross-sectional, single-rater and same-survey data with observed behavior highlights the importance of utilizing improved measurement techniques in future studies. Lastly, essay 3 demonstrates that the study of prosocial behavior needs further refinement and future scholars should look separately into the impacts of PSM on the different types of prosocial behavior instead of generalizing prosocial behavior as the donation of blood, or giving to charity or citizenship behavior inside the organization.

5.3 Limitations and Future Directions

While this thesis has presented a number of insights into the attitudinal and behavioral impacts of PSM, it should be noted that more scholarly research is needed in a number of areas. Although the two empirical essays together look at a broad range of attitudes and behaviors, it does not exhaust all the organizational impacts of PSM. While the first essay categorized the attitudes literature into several distinct types of attitudes held by public employees, the empirical studies only considered

PSM's relationship with job attitudes. As attitudes towards the policy itself (Thomann, 2015; Tummers, Steijn, & Bekkers, 2012) and the policy beneficiaries (Conner, 2016; Snavely & Desai, 2001) significantly shape policy implementation more research is needed to explore PSM's role in shaping employee attitudes towards the policy and the constituents benefiting from those policies.

While the empirical examination of the relationship between PSM and prosocial behavior in essay 3 yields some interesting insights, the study suffers from low power. This leaves room for further exploration of the link between the PSM and prosocial behavior. Future studies can delve deeper into the relationship between PSM and specific types of prosocial behavior in order to bring more clarity on this issue.

Another limitation of this thesis is with regards to the variables that regulate PSM's ability to influence attitudes and behaviors. While two environmental factors namely corruption and legal origins have been included in the analysis we recognize that there are other forces that also play an important role in PSM's ability to shape outcomes. Some of these are with respect to the nature of the job, the level of government, employment tenure in the public sector, etc. In order to have more clarity about the role of PSM in influencing attitudes and behaviors it is important to investigate the impact of these variables.

Lastly, the meta-analysis is only able to take into account those relationships that have a substantial amount of empirical literature available. Due to this only two types of negative outcomes, burnout and turnover intent, have been included in the analysis. Given the recently proposed theoretical frameworks on the unfavorable impacts of PSM (see for example Schott & Ritz, 2018) a new wave of studies on the “dark side” of PSM is expected. Scholars can thus analyze other negative outcomes like stress and unethical behavior not included in this meta-analysis.

In closing, we would like to say that PSM research has considerable ground to cover in terms of measurement techniques. It is time that researchers move beyond self-disclosed same-survey measures for the correlates of PSM and employ more innovative measurement methods, including observable measures, 360 degree measurement etc. Furthermore, this thesis has presented evidence that PSM can confer benefits in the public sector work context, but more work needs to be done to explore the relationship of PSM with other attitudes and behaviors in order to understand why public servants are willing to expend higher effort towards their jobs.

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