A Thesis Submitted for the Degree of PhD at the University of Warwick

Permanent WRAP URL:

http://wrap.warwick.ac.uk/152811

Copyright and reuse:
This thesis is made available online and is protected by original copyright.
Please scroll down to view the document itself.
Please refer to the repository record for this item for information to help you to cite it.
Our policy information is available from the repository home page.

For more information, please contact the WRAP Team at: wrap@warwick.ac.uk
Taking a process-based motivation lens to public service motivation: 
the role of human values and self-sacrifice

by

David Felstead

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the

For the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Warwick Business School
February 2020
### Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>List of Tables</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Figures</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgments</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Declarations</td>
<td>viii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>ix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter One - Public Service Motivation: A Past, Present, and Future</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaps in our Understanding of PSM</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thesis Overview</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Aims of the Thesis</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific Aims of the thesis, Research Questions, and Contributions to Research</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Two - Literature Review</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Historical Beginnings of PSM</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Motives behind PSM</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Three Propositions of PSM</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Three Waves of PSM Research</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wave One: The Definition and Measurement of PSM</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wave Two: PSM’s Nomological Network, Construct Validity, and</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Diffusion</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wave Three: Filling Gaps in our Knowledge</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Three - Putting the Motivation back into Public</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical Framework and Development of Hypotheses</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSM as a form of Pro-Social Motivation</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSM as a Bridge between Values and Behaviours</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Differential Effect of PSM on Service Delivery and Helping Behaviours</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Role of Self-Sacrifice in the Motivation Process</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants and Procedure</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measures of Observed Variables</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations and Future Research Directions</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical implications</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Four - Sacrificing for the Public Good: An Exploration of how Pro-Social Value Fulfilment Influences Well-Being</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theoretical Framework and Development of Hypotheses</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How COR Theory explains Well-Being Outcomes</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Sacrifice as a form of Resource Investment</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Sacrifice/Investment of Resources to Fulfil Pro-Social Values</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro-social Value Fulfilment and Well-Being</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants and Procedure</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measures</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistical Procedures</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlling for Common Method Variance</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations and Future Directions for Research</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical Implications</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Chapter Five - It’s all about the Fit: The Mediating role of Person-Job Fit for the effect of PSM on Organisational Loyalty and Quitting Intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Service Motivation and the Implicit Assumption of Fit</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Mediating role of PJ-Fit in the relationship between PSM and Organisational Attachment</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Mediating role of Pro-Social Values Fulfilment and Job Crafting in the relationship between PSM and PJ Fit</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants and Procedure</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measures</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Analysis</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations and Future Directions for Research</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical Implications</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# Chapter Six - Taking Public Service Motivation Forward

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thesis Findings and Contributions</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Conceptualisation of PSM</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explaining PSM’s Relationship with Well-Being</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addressing Assumptions Regarding Fit</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implications of Research and Future Research Directions</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Clearer Conceptualisation: PSM as a Motivation</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Importance and Role of Self-Sacrifice in PSM</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Service Motivation not Public Sector Motivation</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Importance of PSM Actualisation and the Fulfilment of Pro-Social Values</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Importance and Uniqueness of PSM</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving Existing PSM Instruments</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of Tables

Table 1.1: How Data collected from each wave was used .................. 11
Table 2.1: Comparison of Perry’s (1996) and Kim et al.’s (2013) PSM Conceptualisations .......................... 32
Table 3.1: Means, Standard Deviations, Cronbach alphas, and Correlation for Study ........................................ 60
Table 4.1: Mean, Standard Deviation, Cronbach Alphas, and Correlations of Main Study Variables and Control Variables ................. 87
Table 5.1: Means, Standard Deviations, Cronbach Alphas, and Correlations for study ........................................ 117
Table 5.2: Regression Results for PJ Fit and Organisational Loyalty .......... 118
Table 5.3: Regression Results for PJ Fit and Quitting Intentions ............. 118
Table 5.4: Regression Results for Pro-Social Value Fulfilment and PJ Fit .......................................................... 119
Table 5.5: Regression Results for Job Crafting and PJ Fit .................... 119
Table 6.1: Concepts used to describe PSM with Examples and Comments ......................................................... 139
Table 6.2: Items from the Kim et al. (2013) PSM Instrument, the Dimension they Measure and Comments on Conceptualisation .......... 146
List of Figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>The Motivational Sequence</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Perry and Wise’s (1990) PSM</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>The Relationship between Values, Motivation, and Behaviours</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>Relationships between Pro-social Values, PSM Motives, Self-Sacrifice, Helping Behaviours, and Service Delivery</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Relationships between Self-Sacrifice, Expent Resources, Pro-Social Value Fulfilment, and the Experience of Positive &amp; Negative Emotions</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Summary of Hypotheses</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Acknowledgements

“Public services are never better performed than when their reward comes in consequence of their being performed, and is proportioned to the diligence employed in performing them.”

– Adam Smith, The Wealth Of Nations

This thesis simply would not have been possible without the efforts of Tina Kiefer whose guidance, support, and eternal encouragement proved time and again to be the difference between success and failure. Similarly, I am indebted to Girts Racko whose invaluable input only made this thesis better than it could have otherwise been. I will miss the supervisor meetings the three of us often had. I would also like to thank Karoline Strauss who took a chance on me allowing me to start this journey. This thesis is considerably better for having all three of you be part of it.

I would like to thank my dear friends Andrew, Arianna, Cathy, Danilo, Flo, Iram, Kris, Merle, Miranda, Mona, Rickell, and Sonja. Although some of you are old friends and others new you have all helped me over these last few years in ways that I can never repay. I will always look back to our times together fondly and hope our paths will cross often. My deepest thanks has to go to Kolja Johannsen who proved to be a constant source of light among the mists of insanity and who without Ph.D. would stand for practically half dead. Through all of you, this thesis acts as a testament to the phrase ‘no man is an island’ and in one way or another you are all its co-authors.

I dedicate this thesis to my family, Graham, Louisa, Lucy, Connor, Marion, and Mike. Their love and support has always helped me when I have needed it most and I am eternally grateful for all that you have ever given me.
Declarations

This thesis is submitted to the University of Warwick in support of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. I confirm that I have not submitted the thesis for a degree at another university. All work contained in this thesis is my own.
Abstract

Public Service Motivation (PSM) has increased in popularity over the last few decades. However, questions about PSM conceptualisation, its association with well-being outcomes, and assumptions regarding fit still remain. This thesis therefore fills gaps in our knowledge regarding PSM by directly addressing questions. In the first empirical chapter I empirically support the conceptualisation of PSM as a form of motivation by placing PSM in-between its value antecedents and behavioural outcomes. Results showcase PSM as a conceptual bridge linking pro-social values to pro-social behaviours orientated towards societal good. In the second chapter I explore the relationship between self-sacrifice, through which PSM motives are realised, and both positive and negative well-being outcomes viewed through a resource and pro-social value fulfilment theoretical lens. The results indicate that self-sacrifice is associated with the expenditure of resources and the fulfilment of pro-social values and also that the fulfilment of pro-social values were not found to increase positive well-being experiences however low fulfilment these values increased experiences of negative well-being. This finding highlights the importance of the influence pro-social value fulfilment has on an individual’s well-being outcomes. In the final empirical chapter of this thesis I investigate how the congruence between an individual and their job characteristics helps to explain the relationship between PSM and organisational loyalty and quitting intentions. My findings indicate that person-job fit helps explain the relationship between PSM and organisational loyalty and quitting intentions. These findings highlight the beneficial outcomes associated with having highly pro-social individuals perform work that is personally meaningful to them. Overall this thesis contributes to the current wave of PSM research dedicated to addressing gaps in out PSM knowledge.
Chapter One -
Public Service Motivation: A Past, Present, and Future

Public Service Motivation (PSM) has grown in the attention it has received since it first entered the consciousness of mainstream public administration (PA) (Perry, 2014; Bozeman & Su, 2015; Vandenabeele, Ritz, & Neumann, 2018). Rainey (1982) is credited with first coining the concept, but it was not until the impact of both its conceptualisation by Perry and Wise (1990) and its operationalisation by Perry (1996) that PSM, as a research topic, gained momentum. In the latest data collected on the subject, Ritz, Brewer, and Neumann (2016) calculated that from 2000 to 2014, PSM publications had risen from around 23 to around 325 in total and tripled in terms of annual PSM publications from around 25 per year in 2010 to around 75 a year in 2014, indicating the prevalence of the concept since its conception. Historically, PSM has never had a universal definition that was accepted by all. However, one of the most cited characterisations of PSM refer to it as a motivation that individuals have to contribute towards society (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008b). While attention in PSM has both ebbed and flowed, the concept has left a mark within the PA field as today it is thought of as one of the most researched concepts within the PA literature (Vandenabeele & Skelcher, 2015; Vogel, 2014). Although dominantly researched within the public sector, PSM is pertinent in the private (Anderson, Pallesen, & Pedersen, 2011) as well as the third (Brudney, 2008) sector also. PSM as a construct seems to make sense in contexts or any form of work where individuals feel they can directly contribute to society-at-large.

In their seminal paper first conceptualising PSM, Perry and Wise (1990) place PSM within the context that the paper was written. This was set in an American backdrop that spoke about “The decline in public confidence in American institutions [that] has taken a particularly heavy toll on the civil service.” (Perry & Wise, 1990, p. 365). Therefore, with the general decline of public confidence in public institutions (Newton and Norris, 2000) due, in part but not completely, to the increase in individualistic values and society becoming more guided by economically rational thinking (Aldous, 1987), Perry and Wise (1990) were attempting to use existing motivational theory and literature to emphasise that there were other means by which individuals could be motivated. However, PSM is not a concept that is only perceived to be relevant to 1990’s America as subsequent researchers from around the world adopted the concept (Kim & Vandenabeele 2010; Van der Wal, 2015). This hints at the omnipresence of PSM as a contemporary concept as well as to the central notion of individuals being motivated to work towards the good of society is as old as society itself (Sober & Wilson, 1998).
The next section of this chapter will detail some of the gaps in our current understanding of PSM. Highlighted will be the issues with PSMs ambiguous conceptualisation boundaries, the need to emphasise the pertinence of self-sacrifice within the PSM concept. Then it will detail the want for a better understanding of the relationship PSM has with an individual’s well-being outcomes, before finishing with the importance of congruence between individual and their job characteristics over their organisation or sector characteristics.

Gaps in our Understanding of PSM

Although recent years have seen an increase in the amount of PSM research there remain a number of issues with the concept that hold back its continued progress. The first issue related to PSM is to do with the conceptualisation of the PSM concept. While there has been an increase in critical scrutiny directed at PSM, this has come in the form of scrutiny on the measurement and models of PSM but not on the concept itself (Bozeman & Su, 2015). One manifestation of this is that, while there have been relatively few dedicated PSM instruments (e.g. Perry (1996) and Kim et al. (2013)), there exist many definitions of PSM that do not always highlight the same PSM properties nor do they necessarily share the conceptual assumptions they employ. For example, PSM researchers have conceptualised PSM using disperse concepts such as beliefs, values, and attitudes (Vandenabeele, 2007), needs (Perry & Wise, 1990), reward preferences (Kim & Kim, 2016), or ethical commitment (Houston, 2006). This poses issues for the concept as successive researchers have revised the concept without reconciling the differences their new research brings nor explaining how previous PSM research is erroneous and needing of removal from our understanding of PSM. As any concept is increasingly researched and our knowledge of it expands, it is natural that new insights will replace old insights and what we understand about the concept will become better defined. This seems not to have happened to PSM in a way that would have been expected (Ritz et al., 2016). Instead of having researchers consistently chip away at the conceptual marble that makes up our understanding of PSM we find the concept being consistently added to. This leaves PSM in danger of being perceived as bloated and with a wandering locus rather than a succinct concept that has explanatory power (Bozeman & Su, 2015). Therefore, this thesis aims to contribute to PSM by helping to create the sharper conceptualisations that are needed to shape our understanding of how PSM is conceptually different from other similar concepts that inhabit neighbouring conceptual space. To do this, this thesis will conceptualise and
empirically test PSM as a form of motivation placing it in relation to its theoretical neighbours of human values and behaviours.

Integrating PSM into a clearer theoretical framework would have a myriad of benefits for the concept. For instance, clearer conceptualisation of the PSM concept might allow for clearer pathways to understanding the antecedents and consequences that relate to PSM and would assist with Perry’s (2014) call to expand PSM’s nomological network. Clearer conceptualisation would also help PSM move away from being seen as a concept that only public administration scholars and practitioners use. Clearing up the conceptual confusion surrounding PSM could make the concept easier for those from a non-public administration background to understand and use as well as researchers from the wider motivation and organisational behaviour community. Similarly, a better understanding of PSM would facilitate PSM researchers harness the theories and research of other related fields of study to help advance PSM further. For instance, there are only a few motivational theories that have been applied or used in conjunction with PSM, for example self-determination theory (Chen & Bozeman, 2013; Andrews, 2016; Breaugh, Ritz, & Alfes, 2018). This thesis therefore aims to contribute to a clearer conceptualisation of PSM by integrating the concept more closely with existing motivational research and theory. This will help support the cross pollination of ideas and knowledge between the PSM scholars and the wider motivational research community.

A second gap within PSM research is related to the association, role, and importance of self-sacrifice within PSM. Hailed as foundational to PSM (Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010) there is little theoretical argument and empirical evidence as to why self-sacrifice is important to PSM. There is also a tendency for self-sacrifice to be removed from some PSM research (Wright, 2008). Theoretical argument and supporting empirical evidence for the function and role of self-sacrifice within PSM would help to explain the internal mechanisms of PSM and how the dimensions within it interact with each other. Conducting research on the utility of self-sacrifice within PSM ties up the loose end of having unsubstantiated claims of the pivotal nature that self-sacrifice plays in realising the PSM motives as well as highlighting the mechanisms through which PSM internally operates. To achieve this, the research contained within this thesis will apply a process-based approach of motivation to PSM, dividing the concept up its constituent goal contents and goal striving components. By conceptualising PSM in this way, this thesis aims to demonstrate the importance of self-sacrifice as it is through elements of self-sacrifice that the persistence, drive, and intensity needed for pro-social goals to be achieved occur. In this way, this research contributes to both a better understanding of the internal workings of PSM and the importance of self-sacrifice within the PSM concept.
A third gap in our knowledge of PSM surrounds the relationship between PSM and an individual’s well-being outcomes. There has been a recent trend within PSM research of investigating the influence that PSM has on an individual’s well-being outcomes (e.g. Giauque, Anderfuhrren-Biget, & Varone, 2013; Liu, Yang, & Yu, 2015; van Loon, Vandenabeele, & Leisink, 2015). Research into this area has had mixed findings with some studies finding PSM relates to positive well-being outcomes while other studies have found PSM associates with negative well-being outcomes. While there have been some tentative steps towards explaining why and how PSM influences well-being, this line of inquiry is in its infancy. Giauque et al. (2013) suggest that PSM raises an individual’s expectations and in doing so increases the pressure these individuals place themselves under. Liu et al. (2015) speculate that PSM leads to individuals overloading the limits of their capacity, time, and energy which leads to their eventual fatigue and/or tiredness. While van Loon et al. (2015) propose that individuals with high levels of PSM sacrifice too much for society and experience frustration when they feel unable to have, what they consider to be, meaningful societal impact. This thesis will use self-sacrifice and the fulfilment of pro-social values to argue that individuals with PSM self-sacrifice their personal resources as a means of trying to fulfil their personal pro-social values. When successful in their attempts to fulfil their pro-social values, individuals gain psychological rewards that increase their well-being (Keltner, Kogan, Piff, & Saturn, 2014). However, when unsuccessful, the individual experiences negative well-being because the negative costs associated with the sacrifice of resources is not offset by the positive rewards from the fulfilment of their pro-social values. This research contributes to our understanding of how PSM, via self-sacrifice, interacts with well-being outcomes and offers insights regarding how negative outcomes might be avoided through individuals with PSM experiencing pro-social value fulfilment.

A final identified gap in our PSM knowledge is to do with assumptions regarding fit. Within PSM research there is a lot of emphasis placed on the sector and organisation the individual works within. This has led to an implicit assumption that individuals with PSM who are employed within public organisations will have their PSM actualised because they share a pro-social orientation with their employing organisation. This assumption however carries with it issues because not all jobs in public organisations are inherently pro-socially orientated nor are all pro-social jobs solely located within public organisations. If PSM is understood as a motivation individuals have to help others through pro-social initiatives then PSM research needs to move away from placing as much influence on the sector of employment the individual’s employing organisation is located within and instead focus more on the nature of
the job that they do (Andersen & Kjeldsen, 2013). This research therefore contributes by conducting PSM enquiry outside of the more traditional public sector setting placing emphasis the outputs of an individual’s job over the setting they are employed within.

The next section will detail what the overarching aims of the thesis are. After this, the next section of this chapter will cover the specific aims of this thesis, the research questions it aims to answer, and the contributions the thesis makes to research. The final section of this chapter will discuss the methodology used in the thesis and how this contributes to PSM research, literature, and methodology. The next chapter will serve as a literature review of PSM. It will detail the beginnings of PSM, detailing the motives and propositions first associated with the concept before then moving on to the three waves of PSM research as identified by Perry (2014). After this, the next three chapters will provide empirical evidence that addresses some of the gaps in our PSM knowledge. The thesis will then conclude with a conclusion chapter that will cover the findings of the papers and what this means in deeper detail, as well as discuss what future PSM research can do to advance the concept further.

**THESIS OVERVIEW**

**General Aims of the Thesis**

This overall aim of this thesis is to continue Perry’s (2014) ‘third wave of PSM research’ which seeks to fill in existing gaps in PSM knowledge. To do this, the thesis aims to advance our understanding of PSM by aligning it more closely with current understandings of motivation taken from the wider motivation field and by exploring the relationships that the PSM concept has with other related concepts. Namely, this thesis aims to address some of the issues within the PSM research field and in doing so expand our knowledge of the PSM concept, which fall into three parts. Firstly, the thesis tackles some of the definitional issues which surround PSM by positing it as a motivation, linking values to behaviours and highlighting the role that self-sacrifice plays with the PSM concept. Building upon this, the thesis then investigates the mixed findings that PSM has with both positive and negative well-being outcomes (Giauque et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2015; van Loon et al., 2015) as part of a continued exploration of the role played by self-sacrifice within the concept. The final part of the thesis aim is to assess and address the assumptions made about an individual’s PSM and their employment organisation/sector, namely that individuals with high PSM levels will experience good fit between their characteristics and their organisations characteristics, if the
employing organisation is pro-social in its orientation. These have been the overall aims of this thesis; the next section will discuss these aims in greater detail as well as stating research questions and the contributions this research hopes to achieve.

Specific Aims of the thesis, Research Questions, and Contributions to Research

In addressing issues about the conceptual space inhabited by PSM, this thesis seeks to answer the research questions ‘what are the theoretical antecedent and outcome neighbours of PSM?’, and ‘what function does self-sacrifice play within PSM?’. The thesis addresses the conceptual issues surrounding PSM by positing PSM as a form of motivation, rather than the values, attitudes, beliefs, predispositions, needs, reward preferences, motives, or commitments it has been referred to previously as (e.g. Kim, 2006; Vandenabeele, 2007; Perry & Hondeghem, 2008a; Taylor, 2008), that links pro-social values to pro-social behaviours. Motivation is a disposition to action (Atkinson, 1958), both the representation of a goal and the action directed towards achieving it (Kagan, 1972), an energising force that induces action (Pinder, 2014). Motivation therefore is characterised as eliciting actions. Which actions have motivation behind them are based upon motivational antecedents such as values (Rokeach, 1973; Locke, 1991; Schwartz, 1992; Feather, 1995). Therefore, using the relevant literature and theory from the fields of values, motivation, and behaviours this thesis places PSM, as a motivation that bridges values to behaviours (Rokeach, 1973; Campbell & Pritchard, 1976; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987; 1990; Locke, 1991; Schwartz, 1994; Feather, 1995; Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004; Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004; Latham & Pinder, 2005). The structure of relationships motivation has with concepts such as values and behaviours is just a smaller part of what Locke (1991) refers to as the motivation sequence, which is visually represented below in figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1: The Motivational Sequence

The motivation sequence starts with needs. Human needs are innate and biological (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Latham & Pinder, 2005) and their satisfaction are fundamental to an organism’s survival and well-being (Locke, 1991). Needs shape human values (Locke &
Henne, 1986; Latham & Pinder, 2005) which are their cognitive representation (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987; Rokeach, 1973). Values are learnt stable beliefs (Schwartz, 1994) that certain modes of conduct or end states are preferable to other alternative modes of conduct or end states (Rokeach, 1973) and serve as guiding principles to an individual’s life (Prince-Gibson & Schwartz, 1998). Values influence motivation through being fundamentally motivational (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992; 1994; Feather, 1995), and motivating action (Locke, 1991). Schwartz and Bilsky (1987; 1990) argue that the primary importance of a value is the type of motivational concern that is expressed through it. Hitlin & Piliavin (2004) argue that it is in this way values are expressed through motivational goals. Goals being the cognitive representation of a desired state (Parks & Guay, 2009). Motivation brings about behaviours (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976; Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004; Latham & Pinder, 2005) to try to achieve desired goals. Goals being described as “something attractive that the individual develops a commitment towards attaining” (Moskowitz & Grant, 2009, p.4) and are thought to play a fundamental role in understanding human behaviour (Locke, 1997; Chulef, Read, & Walsh, 2001).

Using this sequence, the relationship PSM has with its conceptual neighbours can be described in the following way. As a pro-social motivation, PSM is embedded within pro-social values (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987) such as benevolence and universalism (Schwartz, 1992, 1994) which emphasise procedural fairness (Du Gay, 2005; Racko, 2015) and a concern with socially responsible behaviours directed towards the public good (Goodsell, 2005). Pro-social values directly influence the strength of the motives behind PSM (Houston & Cartwright, 2007) so that the stronger they are the greater an individual’s PSM is likely to be. PSM motivates individuals to carry out pro-social behaviours, (Naff & Crum, 1999; Houston, 2006; Pandey & Stazyk, 2008) which are aimed at achieving the goal of fulfilling personal pro-social values. Which is why PSM emphasises pro-social goals over other types of goal (Bright, 2008; Rainey & Steinbauer, 1999; Perry & Hondeghem, 2008b; Houston, 2006; Houston & Cartwright, 2007; Scott & Pandey, 2005) as it is only attainment of pro-social goals that fulfil the pro-social values that are the stimulus behind PSM. Therefore, the ultimate purpose of PSM is to motivate behaviours in an individual which fulfil their pro-social values.

PSM has been conceptualised by many different researchers as many different things and this lack of clarity has left the concept at a disadvantage (Vandenabeele et al., 2014; Bozeman & Su, 2015). Through addressing this issue and improving its conceptual clarification this research aims to increase the usefulness of PSM to practitioners and managers alike. Highlighting PSM, within its theoretical sequence, as a motivational bridge between pro-social
values and pro-social behaviours oriented towards the pursuit of public goods will signal to PSM scholars and practitioners which literature bases are more suitable to draw upon (e.g. process-based approach to motivation which argues motivation is made up of what we chose to pursue and how we chose to pursue it (Mitchell, 1997)) and which are less suitable (e.g. beliefs and attitude literature) within a PSM context. Highlighting the internal mechanisms of how PSM internally operates and adheres to a process-based approach to motivation helps place PSM as a motivation that provides the drive and direction needed for values to be enacted through behaviours. Placing PSM within a process-based approach to motivation helps emphasise the central importance of self-sacrifice within PSM, as this is what energises pro-social behaviours. While self-sacrifice has been argued to be ‘foundational’ to realise PSM motives, (Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010) there is distinct lack of empirical evidence for why this is the case. Kim and Vandenabeele (2010) state that public service motives are realised through self-sacrifice, that is individuals perform self-sacrificial pro-social behaviours as a means of satisfying their personal needs, but as stated this remains untested. Positing self-sacrifice as the means by which other PSM dimensions influence pro-social behaviours helps brings PSM under a process-based approach to motivation.

After emphasising the importance of self-sacrifice within the PSM concept, the thesis then seeks to answer the research question of how self-sacrifice influences an individual’s well-being and what the role of value fulfilment is in this relationship. PSM has been found to associate with both positive and negative well-being outcomes (Giauque et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2015; van Loon et al., 2015) but little research has been conducted as to how and why PSM could lead to both positive and negative well-being outcomes. This thesis aims to explore this relationship by investigating the role that self-sacrifice, as the foundation of PSM (Kim & Vandenabeele 2010), plays in the fulfilment of pro-social values and how this relationship influences an individual’s well-being through personal pro-social values being fulfilled. Theory argues that when values are fulfilled they have a beneficial influence on an individual’s well-being, while unfulfilled values have a negative influence on well-being (Keltner et al., 2014). The rationale here being that individuals with high levels of PSM self-sacrifice through pro-social acts for the benefit of others in an attempt to fulfil their own pro-social values. The finding that PSM has associations with negative well-being outcomes was surprising to early PSM researchers as the expectation would be that doing pro-social behaviours would provide positive benefits to individuals, (Schott & Ritz, 2018) even though this possibility was foreseen as far back as Perry and Wise’s (1990) original conceptualisation paper. Therefore, this thesis aims to highlight the process through which PSM relates to well-being so that organisations
and individuals might promote employee well-being through value fulfilment and avoid frustration through having values unfulfilled.

The final overall aim of this thesis is to address the research question of how the congruence between an individual’s motivational desires and the outcomes of their job, better known as their person-job fit, explains the relationship PSM has with an individual’s organisation attachment or more specifically their organisational loyalty and intentions to leave the employment of their organisation. Within PSM research there is an implicit assumption that individuals with PSM have good fit between their PSM characteristics and the opportunities their job gives them to actualise their public service motivations. Stemming from the original Perry and Wise (1990) propositions, PSM research and literature assumes that employment within a public organisation leads to individuals with high levels of PSM having their pro-social values fulfilled. The thesis therefore offers person-job fit as a better alternative to person-organisation fit when it comes to measuring the congruence between an individual’s PSM desires and the pro-social opportunities supplied by their organisation. This is because ultimately, it is the outputs of an individual’s job rather than the ‘publicness’ (Antonsen & Jørgensen, 1997) or pro-social orientation of their employing organisation that is the more pertinent to realising an individual’s PSM desires. Not all jobs within a public organisation are inherently pro-social per se in nature (e.g. administration, cleaning, security, human resource management). Therefore, while variables like person-organisation fit may appear to be useful in assisting a better understanding of the relationship PSM has with other variables, person-organisation fit is primarily a measurement of the congruence between the individual and their employing organisation. Because it ignores the job that an individual does, it is the less relevant congruence test (Carless, 2005) compared to person-job fit.

This research examines the mediation effect person-job fit has on the relationship between PSM and organisational attachment in the form of organisational loyalty and an employee’s intentions to leave their job. Also tested within this research is the moderation influence that job crafting and the fulfilment of pro-social values have on the relationship between PSM and person-job fit. Because individuals augment the nature of their work to better suit their personal desires, job crafting increases the congruence between PSM and the level of person-job fit individuals experience (Steijn, 2008). Also, individuals with PSM who have their pro-social values fulfilled will perceive greater congruence between their characteristics and those of their organisation. In this way, fulfilment of pro-social values helps to explain the relationship that PSM has with person-job fit.
While not their primary research concern, the thesis has a number of other beneficial aspects that help further drive PSM research. Firstly, these papers represent some of the first pieces of dedicated PSM research conducted within the UK. While PSM research has been predominantly conducted within the West, the majority of this research has been carried out in the US, Benelux countries, and Denmark. Not as culturally individualistic as the US nor as culturally collectivist as the Benelux and Scandinavian countries (Hofstede Insights, 2019), the UK provides a distinctive cultural context for understanding western style PSM. Early PSM research focused on the differences between the motivations of public vs private employees, (e.g. Crewson, 1997; Houston, 2000; Alonso & Lewis, 2001; Frank & Lewis, 2004; Bright, 2005; 2009) however these studies were not sensitive to the cultural and national differences within these sectors. There are meaningful and significant commonalities across all public sectors, however how each country’s public sector organisations fulfil their duties are nuanced and diverse. Their activities are influenced by prevailing national values, and therefore greater examples of how PSM works that are taken from disperse nations and cultures helps in our understanding of PSM as a whole.

Another contribution is made by exploring PSM outside of the public sector environment. Early PSM researchers wanted to legitimise the concept, focusing on distinguishing PSM from other forms of motivation, so the early PSM researchers focused on the motivational differences between private as opposed to public sector employees. Now that PSM has been established as a concept, research insights from other sectors can be sought. After the financial crisis of 2007-2008 a lot of government budgets shrunk and austerity measures were brought in resulting in some duties/responsibilities that were formerly carried out by government being outsourced to external organisations and entities. The organisations that took over these duties were private, joint public-private ventures, or charity/third sector organisations. PSM’s modus operandi has always been to benefit society so while the public sector has a monopoly in terms of the number of pro-social job opportunities, this is not a total monopoly on jobs with positive societal impact potential. PSM research has understandably focused on public sector employees or their private sector employee peers as a natural counterpoint, however relatively little research has been done on individuals that would fit outside of these two sectors. Para-public organisations are similar to public sector organisations in that they draw from the public purse and are charged with providing a public service or good but differ from them in that they run independently from government and may have a board of directors running it. Research within para-public organisations would provide an important nuance to PSM research as findings outside of the dichotomous extremes of the more popular
research area of public verses private sector will help to showcase more universal truths about the relationship PSM has with such concepts as pro-social value fulfilment, pro-social behaviours, and organisational outcomes separating public service motivation from public sector motivation.

A further weakness of PSM research has been its reliance on cross-sectional methodology (Wright, 2008) and lack of data allowing for causal relationships to be ascertained. An exception to this is the work of Bellé (2013a; 2013b) which are among the only pieces of research that have conducted experimental data, finding PSM levels of Italian nurses increased after having contact with beneficiaries and thinking about how their efforts helped them. A significant contribution of this research is that the same individuals will be asked the same questions three times over the course of a year creating longitudinal data that can be used to infer causal relationships PSM has as both an independent and dependent variable. Each chapter will draw upon a different sub-sample due to which time waves they involve. How each wave of data will be used is depicted below in table 1.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Chapter 3 (N = 210)</th>
<th>Chapter 4 (N = 210)</th>
<th>Chapter 5 (N = 133)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wave 1</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wave 2</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wave 3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The vast majority of previous PSM research has used cross-section methodology (Wright, 2008; Ritz et al., 2016) even though there have been ample calls for more stringent and advanced methodologies to be used (e.g. Wright, 2008; Wright & Grant, 2010; Perry, 2014). The abundance and reliance of cross-section methodology used to collect PSM data, while not unusual due to its ease in collecting, was surprising to Ritz et al. (2016) as they state that traditionally when a concept is first conceptualised it is prominently qualitative methodology that is used to refine it. It is only once a concept has been honed and developed enough to create measurement instruments that cross-sectional data is then prominently employed. This was not the case in the development and conceptualisation of PSM as there was no real qualitative research carried out on the concept between the time PSM was first conceptualised (Perry & Wise, 1990) and the first PSM instrument was created (Perry, 1996). This could be a large part of why PSM has the conceptual issues that it does and so moving
away from cross-section methodology would help clarify some of the conceptual and theoretical issues that PSM has. Therefore, the thesis will be made up exclusively of longitudinal data. This has advantages over cross-sectional data because it allows for causal inferences to be made. The ability to infer is particularly valuable when making arguments about a variables causes and effects. An example of PSM research with inference is the work of Bellé (2013a; 2013b) who utilised the interventions to show how the individuals PSM levels could be influenced by contact with beneficiaries and self-persuasion interventions. However, this was a field experiment so lacked a certain level of generalizability and the pre- and post-intervention measurements were taken relatively close together so the length of time this effect lasts for is questionable. To help partially address these issues this thesis will conduct its measurements over a much longer time period (over 12 months), this will allow for the mitigation of temporary fluctuations in measurements to be accounted for. The thesis will collect data from individuals in their natural work setting and so will not use interventions. This will aid in the internal validity claims made about the interaction PSM has with other variables and adds to the contextual realism of the data collected, both of which as weaknesses of cross-sectional methodologies (Wright & Grant, 2010).
REFERENCES


Wright, B. E., & Grant, A. M. (2010). Unanswered questions about public service motivation: Designing research to address key issues of emergence and effects. Public administration review, 70(5), 691-700.
Chapter 2 - Literature Review

This chapter will outline PSM’s historical beginnings by discussing the theoretical motives behind the concept, as well as the original PSM propositions set out by Perry and Wise (1990) before then concluding by discussing the three waves of PSM research as described by Perry (2014). This will provide an oversight into the development and progress of PSM’s conceptualisation, detailing gaps in our knowledge that will be later addressed within this thesis.

The Historical Beginnings of PSM

In writing their paper, Perry and Wise (1990) set out the PSM research agenda for the next few decades as the overwhelming majority of PSM papers during this time can be directly linked to the assertions and assumptions they originally laid down. Their paper made two significant contributions to PSM research. Firstly, it outlined the rational, norm-based, and affective motives from which PSM drew from and second it outlined the three PSM propositions that would help direct and shape most subsequent PSM research for the foreseeable future.

The Motives behind PSM

In their paper, Perry and Wise (1990) identify a typology of three motives they associate with public service, namely rational, norm-based, and affective motives. Motives are described as cognitive representations of goals that are without effort nor affect (Kagan, 1972). Accordingly, Perry and Wise (1990) put motives at the centre of their understanding of PSM. This next section will go through the motives behind PSM as laid out by Perry and Wise (1990). Figure 2.1 below is a visual representation of Perry and Wise’s (1990) conceptualisation of PSM.
Figure 2.1: Perry and Wise’s (1990) PSM

Rational motives are grounded in an individual maximising their utility, that is to say within a PSM context, individuals would be motivated to serve others because they deem it as the most efficient way of fulfilling their personal wants and desires. Seemingly, an individual with aspirations of leadership could rationally decide that it would be easier to seek a life in politics than to join and get promoted within a large private organisation to a position where they have social influence. Also covered within the rational motives is the idea of special interests. Individuals whom might work within and of the space agencies (e.g. NASA, The European Space Agency), for instance, although motivated to serve their society might be primary motivated by their interest in space exploration. Importantly rational motives argue the case that public service is not always completely altruistic in nature and can sometimes be a way for individuals to fulfil other values they may hold.

Norm-based motives are based upon desires to serve the public interest as a result of duty and identifying with one community and/or government. This loyalty to duty is argued to come from the state’s sovereign power and legitimacy and the responsibility of public employees as nonelected guardians and representatives of sections of this power (Buchanan, 1975). Norm-based motives are also concerned with social equality which concerns efforts to enhance and maintain the overall welfare of those who lack the political and economic resources to do it themselves. Frederickson (1971) argues that the duties of those in public administration are to serve efficiently and enhance the social equality of all and so that those individuals with values that encompass these desires will be motivated to act in ways that fulfil them.
The final set of PSM motives laid out by Perry and Wise (1990) were affective motives. These are motives based upon great personal belief and commitment to a particular cause or goal that benefits others in society. As the label would indicate these motives are highly emotive in their nature and trigger behaviours grounded in emotional responses to a number of social contexts. For example, individuals who were exposed as children to a close relative with a medical condition might be motivated to join a profession concerned with the well-being of others.

In laying out their PSM motives Perry and Wise (1990) grounded the PSM concept in motives that were irreducible to instrumental rationality and an individual’s self-interest. In doing so they highlighted how those within the public sector can have motivation which stems from genuine concern for others and what Frederickson and Hart (1985) call patriotism of benevolence or the extensive and non-instrumental love of others.

The Three Propositions of PSM

After laying out the motives behind PSM, the second major contribution of Perry and Wise’s (1990) paper was to offer three propositions about PSM, as it was these propositions that would direct PSM research for the next few decades. The first proposition stated that “the greater an individual’s public service motivation, the more likely the individual will seek membership in a public organization” (Perry & Wise, 1990, p.370). This was a simple attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) argument as it asserts that the more pro-social an individual is the more likely they are to be attracted to organisations that are pro-social as these organisations provide the greatest outlet for the individuals desire to be pro-social. Although the selection-attrition argument is never directly stated by Perry and Wise (1990) subsequent researchers have also included these parts into their thesis as PSM should have just as much to do with applying for and remaining in organisations as it does for finding them attractive employers in the first place. Researchers have found mixed validity and support for the original and expanded proposition. Vandenabeele (2008), for instance, found the PSM of Dutch speaking Belgian college and university students to positively correlate with the preference for prospective public sector employment. For these individuals the greater the ‘publicness’ of the government organisation, that is the degree to which the organisation was perceived to be attached to public values (Antonsen & Jørgensen, 1997), the greater the prediction strength of PSM. Similar findings were identified by Lewis and Frank (2002) and Carpenter, Doverspike, and Miguel (2012) at both the local and national level, but this time within the United States.
Counter to this, Kjeldsen and Jacobsen (2012) found limited evidence for PSM’s sector predictive ability, while separate research by both Wright and Christensen (2010) and Kjeldsen (2014) found PSM to predict preference for and subsequent procurement of public sector jobs; however PSM was not found to predict an individual’s first employment sector. Both of the latter pieces of research are examples of the few that benefit from using panel data, collecting data from participants both before and after they entered the job market. Other pieces of research in this area have relied upon cross-sectional design methodology which has the benefit of only needing to be administered once but can suffer from participants being subjected to organisation socialisation influence, having to predict their future behaviours, or recall their previous behaviours, both of which are highly susceptible to bias (e.g. Vandenabeele, 2008; Clerkin & Coggbum, 2012).

Regarding attrition within public organisations, PSM researchers have also found mixed evidence for PSM keeping employees in their current job through offering employees a person-job experience that can fulfil their needs (Leisink & Steijn, 2008). One study found, for instance, PSM to negatively correlate with job tenure, (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007a) while Bright (2008) found PSM to have no relationship with either job satisfaction nor an individual’s intentions to leave public sector employment. Counter to this, Naff and Crum (1999), using a short 6-item measure of PSM, found limited evidence for PSM predicting both the individual’s intention to remain in a governmental position and their job satisfaction. PSM researchers on the whole have focused more on job satisfaction, as a proxy, than with quitting intentions. A number of studies using job satisfaction as a proxy of job attrition have found PSM to have a positive effect on employee retention rates within public organisations (e.g. Liu, Tang, & Zhu, 2008; Westover & Taylor, 2009; Liu & Tang, 2011; Taylor & Westover, 2011). This relationship is not always clear cut as it is argued that job satisfaction is only increased by PSM when employees feel that they are making an important contribution to their organisations pro-social mission (Bellé, 2013; Perry & Thomson, 2015; van Loon, Kjeldsen, Andersen, Vandenabeele, & Leisink, 2018).

More recent work by Ritz, Vandenabeele, and Neumann (2017) highlights the difference between PSM and public sector motivation, pointing out the two to be distinct concepts. They principally argue that a key difference between the two concepts is that PSM leads to reactive helping behaviours (Koehler and Rainey, 2008) while public sector motivation leads to proactive helping behaviours (Spector 2013). Reactive helping behaviours are altruistic and truly aim to help others based upon what the individual doing them observes others needs to be. Proactive helping behaviours in contrast are behaviours that are of self-interest and are
sought out to help others as a means of ultimately helping the individual whom is performing them (Spitzmuller and Van Dyne, 2013). Ritz et al. (2017) use rational choice theory to point out that public sector motivation stems from an individual’s choice to maximise their utility and that for these individual their motivation to work within the public sector comes from perceiving the public sector as being likely to yield the greatest amount of value to them. Public organisation can be attractive to some individuals as they provide good career perspectives, attractive wages at low to middle level positions, higher job security as well as dismissal protections (Karl and Sutton, 1998; Lewis and Frank, 2002; Buelens and Van den Broeck, Perry and Hondeghem, 2008; French and Emerson 2014). Ritz et al. (2017) therefore define public sector motivation as “the desire to behave in accordance with motives grounded in an individual’s self-interest and directed at extrinsic incentives typically found in the public sector” (p. 8). This distinction between self-interested and other orientated motives is the key differentiation between public sector motivation and PSM although both concepts share associated pro-social behaviour outcomes.

All in all, since first being suggested there is mixed evidence to support the first proposition laid out by Perry and Wise (1990). Criticism of the proposition can come from the idea that all individuals with PSM will want to work within the public sector, which has a number of issues. Firstly, not all jobs within the public sector have societal impact. Public sector institutions and organisations as a rule tend to be large and so will have many technical functions necessary for the management of administrative complexity of the organisation but have little to no direct pro-social impact. For instance, an individual working with the human resource department of a hospital could go their entire career without having any direct professional interaction with a patient of that hospital. Studies have shown the importance of contact with beneficiaries and perceived societal impact for individuals with PSM (Bellé, 2013; Van Loon et al., 2018) so the idea of individuals with high PSM levels taking a job that has no societal impact just because it is within the public sector is mistaken. An argument could be made, in some circumstances, for what could be called by-proxy PSM. This is when an individual with no direct interaction with society-at-large can actualise their pro-social motivation by enabling or assisting others who do directly interact with members of the public in a positive manner. These individuals make sure that work colleagues who do directly interact with the public or directly make public goods are in the best possible position to efficiently carry out their responsibilities to the maximum possible respect. However, while this argument can be made, there has yet to be any research or studies to support the idea of by-proxy PSM. Another issue with this proposition is that while the public sector is argued to have a monopoly
in pro-social job opportunities it also has characteristics that could deter individuals high in PSM from joining. According to Boyne (2002) public sector institutions are less flexible, more bureaucratic, and have higher levels of scrutiny than their private sector counterparts. When this is combined with the research of Giauque, Ritz, Varone, and Anderfuhr-Biget (2012) who support PSM to be associated with higher perceptions of red tape, this could lead to individuals with high PSM levels being put off joining the public sector. Instead, the proposition would have been better served if it emphasised the pro-social ends those in high PSM seek rather than the employment sector means by which these individuals may actualise their PSM. Or as Andersen and Kjeldsen (2013) nicely sum it up, PSM does not stand for public sector motivation.

The second proposition of Perry and Wise (1990) states “In public organizations, public service motivation is positively related to individual performance” (p. 370). This proposition is based upon two premises (Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010). The first is that public jobs would intrinsically motivate individuals with high levels of PSM to perform well because of an alignment between their pro-social desires and the significance of the work they do. The second premise was that PSM positively influences organisational commitment, which in turn influences factors such as role behaviours and innovation, leading to higher performance outcomes.

Of the three propositions given, it is the second that has received the most research interest and support. In their literature review, Ritz et al. (2016) indicated that the combination of individual and organisational performance outcomes were ranked third highest in terms of number of PSM outcome studies conducted up until that point. Combined, these studies made up nearly 14% of the total number of PSM outcome studies. Initial research, using self-reported and/or large pre-collected data sets to assess this proposition, (e.g. Naff & Crum, 1999; Alonso & Lewis, 2001; Steijn, 2008) found PSM to be positively associated with individual performance. Subsequent research has investigated PSM’s positive relationship with aspects of performance such as efficiency (Ritz, 2009) and organisational effectiveness (Kim, 2004). Later, as the research with the concept developed further, researchers started to use more sophisticated methodology. For instance, Bellé (2013a; 2013b) performed field experiments and found Italian nurses with higher PSM levels, when interacting with and thinking about how their efforts help beneficiaries, performed significantly better than their lower level PSM peers. Overall, while PSM can have mixed results with some measurements of performance, (e.g. Alonso & Lewis, 2001; Bright 2007) generally PSM has a positive relationship with performance levels (Ritz et al. 2016).
Within the second proposition is an implicit assumption that public organisations provide the ideal environment for individuals with PSM to perform at a high level. The logic being that, because these individuals are pro-socially motivated and public organisations are orientated towards serving the public good, these individuals will inherently motivated to by the work that they do and so would perform at an optimal level without the need for external motivators. This propositional assumption suffers from the same issues mentioned for the first PSM proposition. Not all jobs within public organisations are pro-social and not all pro-social jobs are in public organisations. Much research has looked at the relationship PSM has with person-environment fit variables, which are measures of the compatibility between and individual’s characteristics and that of their environment. A significant number of researchers have investigated the relationship PSM has with person-organisation fit (e.g. Wright & Pandey, 2008; Mostafa & Gould-Williams, 2014), or person-sector fit which Ritz et al. (2016) state is the second most studied PSM outcome variable. While the majority of jobs within the public sector and public organisations will provide an ideal environment for individuals with high PSM levels to carry out socially meaningful work that motivates them, there are better measures of the congruence of personal and job characteristics. Steijn (2008) argues for the use of both person-organisation and person-job fit as measurements to ascertain the congruence between an individual’s PSM desires and the opportunities provided by the nature of their work because, as he argues, poor person-job fit can be overcome through good person-organisation fit when the organisation contributes towards the public good. Christensen and Wright (2011) however support the use of person-job fit over the other person-environment fit measures due to the effects of PSM being a function of the opportunities the individual is afforded to actualise their PSM through their work experiences. This argument is supported by the research and findings of Paarlberg, and Lavigna (2010), Bellé (2013a; 2013b), Perry and Thomson (2015), as well as van Loon et al. (2018) who highlight the importance that interactions with beneficiaries and perceived societal impact have on the PSM-performance relationship. In other words, PSM boosts performance levels when there is an alignment between the pro-social desires of the individual and the work they do.

The second premise of the second PSM proposition asserts that PSM enhances an individual’s performance levels through increasing their organisational commitment, this has not received as much direct research interest as the first premise but still has received supporting evidence. For instance, Crewson (1997), Castaing (2006), Camilleri (2006), Cerase and Farinella (2006), Moynihan and Pandey (2007b) assessed the PSM-organisational commitment relationship in electrical engineers, civil service employees, secondary school
teachers, police officers, public officials, revenue agency employees, as well as health and human service managers spanning the countries of the USA, France, Malta, and Italy and found PSM to positively associate with organisational commitment. While these researchers did not use organisational commitment as a mediator to explain the relationship between PSM and performance (as the proposition premise would suggest it would) there appears to be a large consensus within the PSM community that PSM links to performance operate through an individual’s sense of organisational commitment. As Pandey and Stazyk (2008) state, organisational commitment is an important correlate of PSM because an individual’s emotional connection to their organisation is an important facet concerning the fostering and maintenance of PSM.

Overall, the PSM-performance relationship proposition is strongly supported by numerous studies. Warren and Chen (2013) conducted a meta-analysis using 16 studies containing 117 effect sizes showcasing the albeit small but significantly positive relationship PSM has with performance. These effects had a Fisher’s Z of .025 for self-reported performance measures and .088 for non-self-reported measures. Warren and Chen (2013) point out that the number of studies used in their meta-analysis could have been significantly higher had it not been for the fact that so many different and diverse measures of performance had been used. Ultimately, of all PSM outcome variables researched, performance has been and still remains the most investigated of them all.

The final of the three PSM propositions was orientated around the reward preferences of those individuals with high levels of PSM. The proposition states “Public organizations that attract members with high levels of public service motivation are likely to be less dependent on utilitarian incentives to manage individual performance effectively” (Perry & Wise, 1990, p.371). Pro-social organisations with pro-social employees do not need to initiate utilitarian incentive schemes as a motivational tool because the pro-social nature of the work already motivates their employees. Wise (2000) points out that this does not mean that these employees are completely disinterested in utilitarian motives or their level of work compensation but instead it is about the degree to which employer incentivisation involving these will boost the performance of those with high PSM. Essentially, as long as highly pro-social individuals get decent enough compensation for their work, that they can support themselves and their dependants, their performance will not be improved through pay related performance schemes.

There was prior research to support this proposition as Rainey (1982) found public managers to less associate performance with extrinsic rewards. Later PSM researchers focused on how public sector employees placed less valence on monetary rewards but as Perry,
Hondeghem, and Wise (2010) state, the findings were mixed. Crewson (1997) found that there was no difference between the public and private sector in terms of importance of pay, what he did find however is that public sector employees place less importance on other extrinsic rewards that their private sector peers. These findings are supported by the research of Alonso and Lewis (2001) as well as Frank and Lewis (2004). Contrary to these, were the findings of Houston (2000) and Bright (2005; 2009) who found significant differences between public and private sector employees when it came to the importance these groups placed upon monetary rewards.

This proposition can be seen as a direct response to the rise in public organisations installing incentivisation initiatives aimed at individuals guided and motivated by instrumental rationality (Steen & Rutgers, 2011). This was a significant turn away from incentivising the traditional altruistic and benevolent values, which had led to some considering public service a calling rather than a means to an end (Van der Wal, De Graaf, & Lawton, 2013). With the rise of new public management in the West, came this new way of thinking about how to best motivate employees (Stoker & Moseley, 2010). Frey (2007) argued that public organisations which emphasised external over internal rewards will attract and motivate only individuals who fit this mould. The subsequent influx of externally motivated employees brought about by the paradigm shift of new public management might help to explain why some researchers found mixed results when looking at the importance public sector employees placed on pay and other external rewards, when historically this might not have been the case. Ultimately, this proposition highlights how public service will attract individuals who are motivated by the nature of the work itself and will not require external motivators.

Since being laid out by Perry and Wise (1990) the three PSM propositions have been tested by many researchers using many different methodologies and data collected from different countries and cultures across the world. Generally, holding up to their claims, these propositions went on to shape PSM research for the next few decades and provided the concept with a solid foundation from which it could advance.

The Three Waves of PSM Research

Perhaps no other researcher is as associated with the PSM concept as James Perry is. Especially during its early formative years, various pieces of seminal research by Perry (e.g. Perry & Wise, 1990; Perry, 1996; 1997) drove PSM research into the public administration mainstream. Fittingly, perhaps it was Perry (2014) that took stock and evaluated the state of
research in the concept he had helped create. Perry (2014) divided PSM research into what he saw as three waves with the first involving the definition and measurement of PSM, the second regarding the exploration, confirmation, and diffusion and the final wave concerning learning from past research and filling weaknesses and gaps within our current PSM knowledge.

**Wave One: The Definition and Measurement of PSM**

The first formal definition of PSM came from Perry and Wise (1990) when they referred to the concept as “an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organization” (p.368) adding the explanation that motives here meant psychological deficiencies or needs that individuals with high PSM levels were driven to eradicate within themselves. This initial definition was deemed by many PSM researchers to be abstract and intangible (Vandenabeele, Ritz, & Neumann, 2018). Therefore, others have defined PSM in alternative ways. There has been significant debate about what PSM is conceptually which has led to definitional issues. Bozeman and Su (2015) point out how PSM concept has detrimentally been confounded with concepts such as service motivation, altruism, helping others, and prosocial motives, thus hampering the development of theoretical and empirical research on PSM. Sharper conceptual boundaries are needed if PSM is to prove to be a distinct and useful concept. While the majority of PSM definitions have similarities, in that individuals with high levels of PSM desire to aid others through their efforts; the relationship these individuals have with the beneficiaries varies. For instance, researchers have used an orientation towards “public institutions” (Perry & Wise, 1990, p.368), “people, a state, a nation, or humankind” (Rainey & Steinbauer, 1999, p.23), “the public” (Houston, 2006, p.67), “society” (Taylor, 2007, p.934) to define PSM. However, individuals can have a very different mindset towards each of these entities. Some individuals may have a strong distrust of large central governments and the institutions that support them but be motivated to help out smaller local level public organisations. While others could be strongly patriotic towards their own society and culture to the extent that they are nationalistic and antagonistic towards other societies and cultures. Therefore, while it is agreed that PSM is an orientation for some individuals to do good for, and support the public, what constitutes as ‘the public’ to these individuals, is debatable.

Similarly, there is also debate regarding how PSM, as a concept, is best described. Despite having the word motivation in the name, PSM has been conceptualised using a number of differential concepts. Generally, however PSM is referred to simply as a motivation some
individuals have to contribute to society (Perry & Hondeghem 2008b). The popularity of the PSM concept, combined with researchers desires to supplement the concept, has historically proven problematic to PSM because in their desire to redefine PSM researchers have pulled PSM increasingly further away from its motivational foundation towards its conceptual neighbours. Conceptually, motivation differs from the values, attitudes, beliefs, predispositions, needs, reward preferences, motives, and commitments that have all been used to define PSM (e.g. Kim, 2006; Vandenabeele, 2007; Perry & Hondeghem, 2008a; Taylor, 2008) and all of which are also themselves conceptually distinct. Accordingly, PSM has suffered greatly from the conceptual confusion that comes from having successive researchers add, at times, contradictory aspects to the concept and having few actively subtract the parts that do not fit the new understanding of the concept (Bozeman & Su, 2015). This leaves the PSM concept in danger of being perceived as bloated rather than succinct.

How PSM was measured within the first wave of PSM research has been less arduous than its formal definition. The vast majority of early PSM research used the PSM instrument created by Perry (1996) which, with its creation, heralded a surge in the amount of PSM research conducted as the for first time PSM was easily measured using a validated, multi-dimensional and multi-itemed instrument (Wright, Christensen, & Pandey, 2013). Perry (1996) operationalised the measurement of PSM into four dimensions. The first three dimensions were Attraction to Policy Making, Commitment to the Public Interest, and Compassion and captured the rational, norm-based, and affective motives originally conceptualised by Perry and Wise (1990). Self-sacrifice, conceptualised as the willingness to substitute tangible rewards for serving the public (Perry, 1996), was introduced as the fourth PSM dimension due to substantive grounds that where based upon its historical connection to how public service was thought about (Perry, 1996).

This measurement was not without its issues however as early PSM research was deemed to be too American centric as the concept's foundation and the vast majority of research being produced was steeped in American culture and institutions which therefore had very limited generalisability to the rest of the world (Coursey & Pandey, 2007; Cerase & Farinella, 2009). This was in part due to PSM being created as a response to, what Perry and Wise (1990) identified as, American citizenry having a lack of confidence in government and because Perry (1996) used American participants to create and validate the instrument (although unstated, it is most likely the case that American participants were used). Subsequent PSM research has suggested that PSM may have culturally different conceptualisations and antecedents as well as consequences (Leisink & Steijn, 2009; Ritz & Waldner, 2011; Liu, Tang,
& Zhu, 2008; Taylor, 2007). Meaning that PSM might exhibit different characteristics, have
different origins, and manifest differently within different cultures/areas of the world.

To help address this issue Kim et al. (2013) created a new PSM instrument aimed at
tackling international measurement invariance found when using Perry’s (1996) instrument. A
comparison of both instruments can be seen on table 2.1 below. The resulting PSM instrument
used participants from 12 different countries. Of Perry’s (1996) instrument two dimensions
were replaced: Attraction to Policy Making became Attraction to Public Participation and
Commitment to the Public Interest became Commitment to Public Values. Compassion and
Self-sacrifice remained but the first three dimensions now instead represented instrumental,
value-based, and affective motives.

**Table 2.1: Comparison of Perry’s (1996) and Kim et al.’s (2013) PSM Conceptualisations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Capturing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perry (1996)</td>
<td>Attraction to Policy Making</td>
<td>Rational motives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Commitment to the Public Interest</td>
<td>Norm-based Motives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compass</td>
<td>Affective Motives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-Sacrifice</td>
<td>Willingness to substitute tangible rewards for serving the public</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kim et al. (2013)</td>
<td>Attraction to Public Participation</td>
<td>Instrumental Motives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Commitment to Public Values</td>
<td>Value-Based Values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compass</td>
<td>Affective Motive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-Sacrifice</td>
<td>Willingness to substitute tangible rewards for serving the public</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similar to the instrument it replaced, this instrument is not without its issues as the
creators themselves point out the issue of creating a universal PSM scale and comparing PSM
across different countries each with their own cultures and notions of what constitutes as pro-
social, even as the concept of PSM is considered to be universal (Vandenabeele & Van de
Walle, 2008). The Kim et al. (2013) instrument is based upon the same four-dimension
conceptualisation as Perry’s (1996) instrument however there is concern that the four-
dimension model of PSM might not accurately translate outside of an American setting (Kim
et al., 2013).
Wave Two: PSM’s Nomological Network, Construct Validity, and International Diffusion

Perry (2014) articulated that, once PSM had been satisfactorily defined and operationalise, the next wave of research would be to assess the relationship it has with its antecedents, outcomes and covariates (collectively known as its nomological network), its distinctiveness from similar concepts, and the construct’s validity as assessed through its usage.

As previously covered, PSM’s nomological network has been widely assessed, although the vast majority of this research has placed PSM as a predictor of performance outcomes, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction (e.g. Bellé, 2013a, Camilleri, 2006, Liu et al., 2008). In their book chapter, Pandey and Stazyk (2008) review the antecedents (as well as the correlates) of PSM including socio-demographic, social institution, and organisational factors highlighting the disperse nature of the variables that influence PSM. Researchers investigated the antecedents of PSM by looking at socio-economic variables such as gender, race, age, birth order, number of children living at home, tenure, education, and placement within the organisational hierarchy (Naff & Crum, 1999; Bright, 2005; Camilleri & Van der Heijden, 2007). Of these studies only some of the variables were found to correlate with PSM, namely gender, education level, management level, and age. Ritz et al. (2016) later reviewed PSM antecedent studies and found age, gender and education to be among the most prevalent of the PSM antecedents. Less explored than its socio-demographic antecedents are PSM’s socialisation antecedents. Perry (1997) found parental modelling, and feelings of closeness to god positively associated with PSM, but not other religious variables such as church involvement and religious worldviews. Building on these insights (Perry, Brudney, Coursey, & Littlepage, 2008) Charbonneau and Van Ryzin (2017) investigated what they described as deep antecedents of PSM that are formed within an individual’s impressionable years during their upbringing and influenced by family socialisation, religious activity, and volunteering and general early life experiences. They found growing up in a family with a conservative point of view and being raised by a parent that served in the military were negativity correlated with PSM, while growing up in a religious family was positively associated with PSM.

These mixed and, at times, counter intuitive findings have been used in one of the ongoing debates within the PSM community, regarding if PSM is stable, dynamic, changes slowly over time, or is characterised by both stability and changes depending on contextual factors that shape individuals’ experiences. For this reason, as well as to attain better conceptual
understanding of the PSM concept, many researchers have cited a better understanding of antecedents of PSM to be a fundamental area for future PSM research (Bozeman & Su, 2015; Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010; Ward, 2014). Either way, greater clarity of the beginnings and formation of PSM would provide valuable insight that would help direct future research avenues and methodologies, as stable concepts (such as values) are treated methodologically differently than dynamic ones (such as behaviours). A dynamic PSM would be malleable and organisations through organisational socialisation initiatives would be able to increase PSM levels and the beneficial organisational correlates that come with PSM. Research by Bellé (2013a; 2013b) has indicated that PSM levels increase after individuals were put in contact with beneficiaries of their pro-social efforts and when individuals were asked to think about how their efforts helped individuals. This, however, is among the only pieces of research to investigate changes in PSM in this way, so while these findings would suggest PSM to be a dynamic concept it would be pertinent to seek further evidence that supports this view. A stable PSM, that would only change as a result of long-term exposure to environmental factors, would place more emphasis on making sure that socially orientated organisations recruited individuals with the highest PSM levels. As these individuals would be mostly motivated by the altruistic nature of their work. Until we have a better understanding of PSM’s usefulness as a concept, PSM remains below its maximum potential.

Perry (2014) argues that separating a concept’s validation from its nomological network can be challenging, as part of a concept’s validity comes from the amalgamation of our knowledge regarding its antecedents and outcomes relationships. In other words, PSM should be a valid concept because PSM has consistently related to other variables in ways it has been predicted to and because it is largely considered by researchers and theorists to be a valid concept. Perry (2014) also mentions distinctiveness from similar concepts as part of the concept validation process but this aspect has far less research conducted on it than PSM’s antecedents and outcomes. As mentioned in the section on definition and measurement, PSM has been defined and conceptualised in a number of ways so assessing its distinctiveness has been difficult. Research and literature by Schott, Neumann, Bärtschi, and Ritz (2016) as well as Vandenabeele, Ritz, and Neumann (2018) offer some explanations that perform the equally important job of indicating what PSM is as well as what it is not. They differentiate PSM from similar concepts such as altruism, intrinsic motivation, pro-social behaviour, and pro-social motivation. Essentially they argue that PSM is a motivation and not a behaviour such as altruism and pro-social behaviours, they also argue that nor is PSM an intrinsic motivation as these are done for personal, self-orientated reasons rather than for others. They propose PSM
to be different from pro-social motivation because it is orientated towards unknown beneficiaries whereas pro-social motivation is thought to be directed towards beneficiaries that are known and identified. Similarly, later research by Ritz, Schott, Nitzl, & Alfes (2020) made the case for pro-social motivation focussing on specific individuals or groups within an individual’s direct contact and PSM focuses on collectivism at societal level seeking to increase the welfare of a larger group or society-at-large. Testing their hypotheses, Ritz et al (2020) found that both concepts are theoretically and empirically distinct as PSM was found to be more related to outcomes that were higher level construals or were psychologically further away from the individual, while pro-social motivations were found to more closely associated with outcomes that were psychologically nearer to the individual and less abstract. For example, Ritz et al (2020) found PSM to associate with voting behaviour or signing a petition, and financial donations whereas pro-social motivation was found to correlate with volunteering and correcting mistakes when a cashier gave too much change.

The final part of Perry’s (2014) second wave of PSM research has to do with international diffusion of PSM research; that is to say the way in which PSM has spread out of its original American cultural setting to new ones. Ritz, Brewer and Neumann (2016) estimate that between the years of 1990 and 2012 PSM had been studied in 43 different countries. The uptake of PSM research within English-speaking countries has been relatively unabated, since the original conceptualisation and operationalisation were all in English, resulting in few linguistical barriers for researchers. Kim et al. (2013) cite linguistical issues with conducting PSM research outside of English-speaking countries because PSM takes on different meanings across diverse languages. Culture is also an important factor as PSM research has questioned the cultural differences concerning both the conceptualisation and operationalisation of PSM (Wright, 2008). While the West may consider PSM a motivation to serve society, other eastern cultures may consider it as simple as a civic duty and something expected of them rather than a personal motivation.

**Wave Three: Filling Gaps in our Knowledge**

Perry’s (2014) third wave of PSM research takes lessons from the first two waves and fills in the gaps that remain around our PSM understanding. This current wave is predicted to involve improvement of research designs, increase measurement reliability and validity, further develop international research, better understand PSM incentivisation, and apply better application of theory and research findings (Perry, 2014). These predictions can be argued to
have seen mixed results. The vast majority of PSM researchers have utilised a cross-sectional design methodology, which has made causation claims hard to assert (Wright, 2008; Ritz et al., 2016). There is also a significant imbalance between the amount of quantitative and qualitative PSM research, with the later making up only 4.3% of 323 peer reviewed PSM publications (Ritz et al., 2016). The measurement strength, reliability and validity of PSM have also had a difficult time in their improvements. As Kim et al. (2013) point out, PSM has different meanings across different cultures and languages so the idea of creation of a universal PSM instrument seems doubtful. This raises the question of whether there should be different PSM instruments for different cultures or a single PSM instrument that is weighted differently depending on the country and/or culture in which it is administered.

Regarding the PSM concept itself, it could be argued that few concepts within the public administration and public management community have been as polarising and as challenged as PSM (Wright & Grant, 2010; Moynihan, Vandenabeele, & Blom-Hansen, 2013). Leaving Vandenabeele, Brewer, and Ritz (2014) to divide the PA community into what they would label ‘believers’ and ‘non-believers’, or those that believe that the PSM concept is of use and those that do not. Despite this divide, PSM’s popularity has continued to spread outside the mostly American and European countries that took an early interest to it. Van der Wal (2015) reports that between 2000 and 2014 some 36 non-western countries produced PSM research. While still not as prolific outside of the west as inside of the west, Van der Wal’s (2015) findings indicate what could be considered the beginning of a burgeoning expansion of non-western PSM research (Perry, 2014).

Summary

As detailed above, PSM has seen significant development in its conceptualisation, methodology, and subsequent nomological network connections, which have seen PSM rise in popularity. However, fundamental questions are still within the locus of each of Perry’s three waves of PSM research. These gaps in our knowledge stunt PSMs further conceptual development and hinder engagement with researchers outside of the PSM community.
REFERENCES


Wright, B. E., & Grant, A. M. (2010). Unanswered questions about public service motivation: Designing research to address key issues of emergence and effects. *Public administration review, 70*(5), 691-700.

Chapter Three -
Putting the Motivation back into Public Service Motivation

ABSTRACT

Public service motivation continues to garner attention from the public administration field, yet important questions still remain regarding its conceptualisation and theoretical properties. This study aims to address these issues by using value and motivational literature to advance understanding of the public service motivation concept. Applying a process-based theoretical approach of motivation to panel data collected from 210 housing association employees, this study highlights the role of public service motivation as a bridge that links values to pro-social behaviours. I also underscore the importance of self-sacrifice within the public service motivation concept as it acts as the conduit through which public service motives influence pro-social behaviours. Both theoretical and practical implications are then discussed.
The public administration field has in recent years seen a significant rise in the attention garnered towards the public service motivation (PSM) concept (Bozeman & Su, 2015; Ritz, Brewer & Neumann, 2016). PSM is a form of pro-social motivation that is used to describe an individual’s desire to contribute towards the good of society (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). Individuals with PSM are more likely to be employed within public sector organizations (Vandenabeele, 2008) and exhibit higher efficiency (Ritz, 2009), organisation commitment (Taylor, 2007) and affective commitment (Mostafa, Gould-Williams, & Bottomley, 2015), job satisfaction (Homberg, McCarthy, & Tabvuma, 2015), and performance (Warren & Chen, 2013). As many public and para-public organisations continue to grapple with ongoing and severe austerity measures (Ball, Grubnic, & Birchall, 2014), these organisations may have to increasingly rely on their employees’ pro-social values and motivations in order to deliver ‘more with less’ (Conway, Kiefer, Hartley, & Briner, 2014). Hence, pro-social values and motivations may play a fundamental role in maintaining current public service (Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010).

Despite PSM literature experiencing a renaissance in terms of scholarly interest, there still remains a number of unanswered questions about the concept. In their recent PSM literature review, Vandenabeele, Brewer, and Ritz (2014) argue that the theoretical development of PSM research is hampered by the lack of clarity concerning the theoretical properties of the concept. PSM has been conceptualised as a host of related, yet conceptually distinctive set of concepts, including but not limited to values (Vandenabeele, 2007), needs (Perry & Wise, 1990), or reward preferences (Kim & Kim, 2016). These differing and disperse conceptualisations leave the PSM concept ambiguous and exposed to magnitude of different interpretations limiting the overall utility of the concept for public administration scholarship.

This chapter makes two contributions to PSM research. First, it builds upon the calls of Bozeman and Su (2015) and Vandenabeele et al. (2014) to assist with discerning the exact conceptual nature of PSM, advancing it as form of motivation that is particularly pertinent within pro-social organisations. I aim to do this by exploring PSM from a work motivation perspective and placing it within a human values framework. PSM, as a specific form of pro-social motivation, is conceptually inextricably linked to pro-social human values (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992). Human values represent generic goals that an individual strives to achieve in life (e.g. try new things, follow rules, have autonomy, care for others), while individual motivation provides a specific focus to those generic goals (Latham & Pinder, 2005;
Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004). Looking at PSM through a motivation lens helps to understand the distinctive and unique contribution that PSM can make over other related concepts. While previous research has linked PSM with the normative orientations that are underpinned by pro-social values, such as pro-social ideology, work ethic and institutions (e.g. Charbonneau & Van Ryzin, 2017; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Perry, 1997), the wider theoretical implications of placing PSM within a pro-social values framework have been overlooked. Clarifying the theoretical underpinnings of PSM will help carve out the distinctive contribution that PSM can make in influencing pro-social behaviours above and beyond the effects of pro-social values.

The second contribution of this study is to shed light on the different roles that PSM dimensions play in the motivation process. Self-sacrifice has often been omitted from PSM research (Wright, 2008), possibly because its conceptual role has remained unclear. By drawing on process-based theories of motivation, this chapter posits self-sacrifice as the mechanism through which the other PSM dimensions (attraction to public participation, commitment to public values, and compassion) influence pro-social behaviours. Process-based approaches describe motivation as consisting of two subsystems, which are aimed at helping to achieve the generic goals demarcated through pro-social values (Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004). The first subsystem, goal contents, describes the what (e.g. serve the public), while the second subsystem goal striving, representing the effort put into achieving that goal describes the how (e.g. by making personal sacrifices). Adopting a process-based lens of motivation allows us to identify different roles that self-sacrifice and PSM motives play within a coherent conceptual framework.

**THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES**

**PSM as a form of Pro-Social Motivation**

PSM has been described as an individual’s willingness to work for the benefit of society (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008; Vandenabeele, 2007). Perry and Wise (1990) were the first to formally define PSM calling it “an individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations” (p.368). But this definition was refined by others due to it being too abstract or vague in nature (Vandenabeele, 2007). While most subsequent PSM definitions have focused on the willingness and desires of those with PSM to contribute towards the benefit of society, the conceptualisation of PSM has been less
succinct and uniform and has varied in terms of theoretical background. For instance, PSM has been referred to as a preference for/or reliance on intrinsic over extrinsic rewards (Crewson, 1997; Kim 2006), motives (Perry & Wise, 1990; Ritz, 2009), work related values (Wright & Pandey, 2008), or a mixture of related concepts that include motives, values, attitudes and beliefs (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008; Vandenabeele, 2007). This is one reason why researchers have cited the issue surrounding the different definitional and conceptual directions of PSM as a leading cause for confusion around the concept (Bozeman & Su, 2014; Vandenabeele, Hondeghem, Maesschalck, & Depré, 2004). Here I attempt to re-integrate PSM back into its wider theoretical context by adopting the conceptual lens of process-based motivation theory (Mitchell, 1997), embedded within the theoretical framework of pro-social values. This establishes PSM as a linking pin between pro-social values and pro-social behaviours.

Motivation influences behaviours in an attempt to try and achieve a desired goal, by making decisions about when, how, and why effort is made (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976; Latham & Pinder, 2005; Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004). Goals are inextricably linked to motivation and play a fundamental role in understanding human behaviour (Chulef, Read, & Walsh, 2001; Locke, 1997). They are the cognitive representation of a desired state (Parks & Guay, 2009) and are described as “something attractive that the individual develops a commitment towards attaining” (Moskowitz & Grant, 2009, p.4). The process-based approach to motivation argue that motivation consists of two parts; the first being a notion of what the desired goal is and the second part being the effort put into achieving that goal (Kanfer et al., 2017; Mitchell, 1997; Parks & Guay, 2009). Mitchell (1997) points out that these two categories have been termed differently as goal setting and goal striving, choice motivation and control motivation, as well as goal selection and goal implementation but this chapter, like Parks and Guay (2009), shall refer to these two categories as goal content and goal striving.

Conceptualised as comprising of four dimensions, (Kim et al., 2013; Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010) PSM can be divided into two aspects which fit in neatly with the goal content and goal striving subsystems of process-based motivation. The first aspect encompasses the three PSM motive dimensions (PSMM) which capture the Attraction to Public Participation (APP), Commitment to Public Values (CPV) and Compassion (COM) dimensions, which draw upon rational, value-based and affective motives respectively. Kagan (1972) refers to motives as “cognitive representation of a goal with no necessary relation to either action or affect” (p.51). In this way, the PSMM dimensions represent the subsystem of goal content, focusing on cognitive, normative and/or emotional pro-social intentions. These dimensions give direction to an individual with PSM, directing a sense or idea of what to do.
The fourth dimension of PSM is *Self-Sacrifice* and is unique among the four PSM dimensions in that it does not capture motives per se (Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010), but instead is argued to capture willingness to expend personal resources and to conduct acts of altruism (Kim et al., 2013). It hence describes the means or the *how* by which an individual intends to achieve their desired goal, and therefore fits the goal striving criteria of the process-based motivation. Self-sacrifice fits into the goal striving subsystem of motivation, as opposed to goal content subsystem of motivation, as both self-sacrifice and goal striving require, and are dependent upon, an external source of focus in order to be meaningful. Goal striving without goal contents would achieve little as the effort put forward would be unfocused and wandering while self-sacrifice is done to achieving a higher ideal (Yorges, Weiss, and Strickland 1999; Gecas, 2000) and not for the sake of self-sacrifice itself.

Below, I apply this process-based notion of motivation to further develop PSM as a pro-social motivation embedded in the wider theoretical framework of pro-social values, developing three hypotheses.

**PSM as a Bridge between Values and Behaviours**

Early conceptualisations of PSM recognised it as a form of motivation that is oriented towards the pursuit of pro-social values that emphasise concern for the public good (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008; Vandenabeele, 2007). Values are enduring beliefs about how life ought to be and subsequently guide human motivations and behaviours accordingly (Parks & Guay, 2009; Prince-Gibson & Schwartz, 1998; Schwartz, 1992). Values prescribe normative standards for individual motivations (Rokeach, 1973) that are expressed through motivational goals (Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004). Values directly influence the desirability of different goals, making some more desirable than others, and so bring about motivation and subsequent behaviour to attain the goals that the individual finds particularly desirable (Feather, 1995; Locke & Henne, 1986; Mitchell, 1997). Schwartz and Bilsky (1987; 1990) argue that the primary importance of a value is the motivational concern that is expressed through it.

Pro-social values stress concern for others, their welfare, as well as general equality and equity for all (Racko, 2015; Schwartz, 1992). Individuals with pro-social values are motivated to act pro-socially, which means pursuing the interests of all members of society, and are less likely to act in a self-interested way without regard for the consequences to others (Racko, 2017a; Racko, 2017b; Schwartz, 1992). I therefore suggest that pro-social values shape
the direction of PSM through providing individuals with normative standards about desirable goals that they can draw on to pursue public good (Lewin, Dembo, Festinger, & Sears, 1944; Mitchell, 1997; Parks & Guay, 2009). Pro-social values are also likely to influence individuals’ pro-social motivations by shaping their willingness to exert effort to act in the interests of the public good because these values emphasize the common good of all members of society above their own self-interest (Mitchell, 1997; Parks & Guay, 2009). Values are at the core of what comprise an individual’s personal identity (Hitlin, 2003) and therefore exerting effort in performing behaviours that are consistent with an individual’s values is personally rewarding and provides satisfaction of profound psychological needs that promote happiness and well-being (Kasser, 2002; Ryan & Deci, 2000). In essence, individuals exert effort and may commit acts of self-sacrifice in order to perform behaviours that are personally highly fulfilling because the fulfilment of these core self-identity values is of central importance to their overall sense of identity and psychological health.

**Figure 3.1: The Relationship between Values, Motivation, and Behaviours**

A number of studies have found PSM to be associated with the normative orientations that are underpinned by pro-social values. For instance, previous studies have found links between PSM and the attribution of higher importance to the political ideology, work ethic, and institutional norms that orient towards public good (e.g. Camilleri, 2007; Charbonneau & Van Ryzin, 2017; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Perry, 1997; Perry, Brudney, Coursey, & Littlepage, 2008; Wright, 2003). This research develops this line of enquiry by examining the particular role of pro-social values in the development of PSM. Predicting that PSM is likely to serve as a motivational bridge and the mechanism that links the effect of pro-social values on pro-social behaviours. Specifically, in considering the motivational sequence in which these concepts interact with each other, this research predicts that pro-social values are likely to facilitate engagement in pro-social behaviours, because they influence pro-social motivations, both in terms of drive and direction.

Pro-socially motivated individuals are more likely to engage in pro-social behaviours focused on service delivery and helping others because these behaviours enable them to succeed in achieving the pro-social goals they desire. Service delivery describes how well an
individual provides provision to other individuals such as clients, customers or members of the public (Conway et al., 2014; Kiefer, Hartley, Conway, & Briner, 2014). Helping behaviours, on the other hand, are altruistic behaviours directed towards the benefit of individual co-workers within the individual’s organisation and which indirectly benefit the organisation (Kat, 1964). Service delivery and helping behaviours therefore are similar in that they are both pro-social behaviours but significantly differentiate in that they are orientated towards two different stakeholders. Service delivery are pro-social behaviours orientated towards helping and assisting unknown members of the general public and consequently capture elements of public good creation. Helping behaviours are pro-social behaviours orientated towards individuals known by the individual. These behaviours help and assist the co-worker in their work and so can have beneficial outcomes for the employing organisation. While it could be argued that in assisting a co-worker with their job also helps the organisation and this would have some benefit to the public if the organisation were of a public orientation, this is not argued to be a motivation behind such behaviours. Helping behaviours therefore might not specifically contribute to the creation of public goods, but rather the to fostering individual relationships.

Prior research has linked PSM to the pursuit of a range of pro-social behaviours, such as performing charitable acts (Houston, 2006), whistleblowing (Brewer & Seldon, 1998), organisational citizenship behaviours (Kim, 2006) and various performance outcomes (Naff & Crum, 1999; Warren & Chen, 2013).

To summarise, values are generic beliefs about how life ought to be and motivate individuals to behave in ways that result in the fulfilment of those values (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992). But, beyond this basic association, motivation acts as a conceptual link between values with behaviours (Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004; Locke & Henne, 1986; Lewin, 1942; Mitchell, 1997: Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992). PSM, as a form pro-social motivation with an emphasis on public value and public service, adds content as well as drive to the generic pro-social value and is thus associated with pro-social behaviours such as service delivery and more general helping behaviours that emphasise pro-social goals (Houston, 2006; Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). Thus, I propose:

\[ H1: \text{PSM mediates the relationship between pro-social values and pro-social behaviours, in particular service delivery (H1a) and helping behaviours (H1b).} \]

**Differential Effect of PSM on Service Delivery and Helping Behaviours**
This research also predicts that PSMM dimensions (Attraction to Public Participation, Commitment to Public Values, and Compassion) will have stronger associations with service delivery than with helping behaviours. As argued above (Mitchell, 1997; Parks & Guay, 2009), goal contents determine the type of motivational goal most desirable to an individual. Individuals with high generic pro-social values can potentially fulfil these values via a range of different types of pro-social behaviour. However, PSM is orientated towards behaviours that directly benefit society-at-large and therefore pro-social behaviours, namely those orientated towards the delivering and/or creating of public goods/service, will be better aligned to an individual’s PSM motives than pro-social behaviours that orient towards generic helping behaviours. This is not at the exclusion of these individuals with high PSM levels performing individual level pro-social behaviours, because the pro-social values they hold will still act as an influencer of their behaviour. This is instead because acting in the wider interests of the general public is normatively more central to the fulfilment of the PSMM’s compared to generic helping behaviours that are directed at peers. Although these behaviours may be oriented towards the common good of all members of organisation, they are less directed at benefiting the public, which is the core concern of individuals with PSM. Following this rationale, it is proposed that:

H2: The PSM motive dimensions are more strongly associated with service delivery than with helping behaviours.

The Role of Self-Sacrifice in the Motivation Process

Public service motives are conceived to be underpinned by pro-social values (Du Gay, 2005; Racko, 2015) and are concerned with socially responsible behaviours (Goodsell, 2005). The three PSM motive dimensions (PSMM) capturing instrumental, value-based, and affective motives, supply a corresponding representational goal of how an individual’s pro-social values can be fulfilled. Self-sacrifice acts as a mechanism that enacts or augments behaviours to achieve the goals laid out by the PSMM. Self-sacrifice described by Yorges, Weiss, and Strickland (1999) as “giving up or loss of something important to an individual … to maintain

\footnote{In line with theory, I do not propose a differential effect for self-sacrifice on pro-social outcomes, as self-sacrifice does not provide a specific content or focus (such as the PSMM dimensions), but instead provides the drive or means by which the goals are achieved, which is independent of the public service contents. For the same reason, I would not expect a differential direct effect of pro-social values on pro-social behaviours, given both service delivery and helping behaviours are adequate means to fulfil generic pro-social values.}
personal beliefs and values” (p.428) compliments the PSM motives dimensions as it provides the needed action (the drive, to the PSMM direction) for motivated behaviour to occur. Essentially, the more important the motives, i.e. the more valuable the associated goal is to the individual, (a) the greater the chance that the individual will self-sacrifice to achieve the corresponding representational goal and (b) the greater in intensity these acts of self-sacrifice will be. Therefore a direct and positive relationship between the PSM motive dimensions and self-sacrifice would be expected.

Self-sacrifice can involve an individual giving up or expending their personal resources (e.g. time, energy, money) in order to achieve goals deemed as desirable. Self-sacrifice is responsible for maintaining the effort and persistence needed to achieve desired goals in the face of barriers and setbacks (Latham & Pinder, 2005; Parks & Guay, 2009). Behaviours that individuals perform that are not required and/or listed as part of their work can also be considered self-sacrificing behaviours; be they additional behaviours (e.g. extra role behaviours) or augmentation of existing aspects of their work (e.g. working longer hours than contractually obliged to). The overall quality of service delivery and helping behaviours an individual provides is influenced by the elements of personal resources that the individual sacrifices as a means of fulfilling their motives. In this way, the more resources an individual dedicates to a behaviour (e.g. putting more energy and effort into dealing with/helping members of the public/co-workers), the greater the quality of that interaction. Self-sacrifice involves a willingness to risk personal loss to in order to aid society (Kim et al., 2013) and could translate into an individual going ‘above and beyond’ the expected level of service quality by staying with a service recipient past the end of their official working day or handling a service recipient’s situation until it is finalised themselves as opposed to handing it off to a colleague. The same sacrifices can be made when helping peers, as individuals could stay longer at work than contracted to in order to help a colleague or temporarily take on some of their work commitments in order to assist them.

In conclusion, motives are mental representations of ideal goals that fulfil an individual’s values. The more central and salient the goal contents of the motives are to the individual, the more they will strive to achieve those goals through actions or behaviours that will result in their actualisation. Individuals make self-sacrifices to achieve what is important to them, therefore individuals with strongly held motives are likely to self-sacrifice more in order to achieve them. I therefore hypothesise the following:
**METHOD**

I conducted my research using employees of a housing association operating within the UK. Housing associations are referred to as para-public organisations in that they have capital in both the private and public sectors. Regulated by the government, housing associations are privately owned non-profit organisations which receive money from the public purse. These organisations are orientated towards providing help to those individuals who need a home and so serve a pro-social purpose. Para-public organisations provide an interesting lens to explore PSM though, as many non-public sector organisations conduct similar pro-social work to that of public sector organisations. Because PSM is orientated towards the attainment of desired goals (the creation of public goods) and not the means by how they achieve this, the sector the organisation operates in is less important than the role it performs (Andersen & Kjeldsen, 2013). Therefore, para-public organisations provide a similar level of person-organisation fit congruence to public sector organisations.

**Participants and Procedure**

This research used 210 full time housing association employees. Housing associations are independent non-profit organisations which receive public funding and provide low cost housing for those in need of housing. 56.70% of the participants were female, with an average age of 43 years old and an average length of tenure of nearly 10 years.

Shortly before the start of data collection, the host organisation informed all its employees that they would be contacted by the researchers. The host organisation informed their employees that they could carry out the surveys during their working day and that their participation was entirely optional and not required. All employees were encouraged by both the researchers and their organisation to participate in both waves of data collection regardless of whether they took part in the previous wave or not. Both the researchers and the organisation ensured the participants that their responses would remain confidential and that anything resulting from the research would not contain any information that would identify them.

Measurements were collected over two time periods six months apart in order to collect higher quality data and to limit potential common method variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The first measurement was sent to 1088 employees of which 344 successfully completed the
survey giving a 32% response rate. The second measurement was sent to 999 employees of which 313 successfully completed the survey yielding a response rate of 31.33%. This left us with 210 participants that completed both measurements.

Measurements were taken over different time periods in order to help minimise common method bias. Both Pro-social Values and PSM were taken from the first measurement while Helping Behaviours and Service Delivery were taken six months later in the second measurement.

Measures of Observed Variables

The full survey with all items can be found in the Appendix. Cronbach Alphas are in diagonal in Table 3.1.

Pro-social values (T1). I captured pro-social values using Schwartz’s (1992) measure of self-transcendence values which are motivationally oriented towards public good. Specifically, I used the four-item measure of self-transcendence values including the Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ) (Schwartz, 2002). The PVQ is used in the European Social Survey (Schwartz, 2002; 2007) to capture participant values and is less abstract than the more traditionally used Schwartz Values Survey (Racko, 2015), offers the additional advantage of being easier for participants of all abilities to complete (Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004) and has been used in the PSM context by Witesman and Walters (2014). Numerous previous studies have found the PVQ to be highly reliable as a measure (Racko, 2015; Schwartz, 2007). Instructions asked participants to indicate how personally important particular values were to them (e.g. ‘to ensure people are treated equally). Responses for the PVQ range on a 5-point Likert-type from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Very).

Public Service Motivation (T1). In order to capture PSM I used the 16-item Kim et al.’s (2013) PSM scale. This scale operationalises PSM into four dimensions, three motive dimensions (PSMM) and self-sacrifice. The Attraction to Public Participation dimension captures instrumental motives such as the degree to which individuals want to contribute in public policy or towards their community/society (Kim et al., 2013; Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010). Examples of items include, ‘I admire people who initiate or are involved in activities to aid my community’ and ‘Meaningful public service is very important to me’. Commitment to Public Values captures value-based motives which represent the degree to which an individual is interested in public service that is driven by intrinsic interest in pursuing pro-social values such as accountability, ethics, fairness, justice and concern for future generations (Kim et al.,
2013; Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010). Items include ‘I think equal opportunities for citizens are very important’ and ‘To act ethically is essential for public servants’. Compassion captures affective or identification motives which represent an individual’s concern for the needs of specific individuals and/or groups (Kim et al., 2013). Items include ‘I get very upset when I see other people being treated unfairly’ and ‘Considering the welfare of others is very important to me’. Self-Sacrifice, the final dimension, does not capture motives but captures willingness to the commitment acts of altruism and selflessness. Items include ‘To make sacrifices for the good of society’ and ‘Willing to agree to a good plan to make a better life for the poor, even if it costs you money’. Placing PSM within the process-based theory of motivation, I divided PSM into PSMM and self-sacrifice to fulfil its respective goal context and goal striving subsystems requirements. Wright (2008) points out that previous researchers have omitted self-sacrifice from their PSM measurements. Therefore, while this division of PSM is unorthodox, there is a precedent for the three PSMM’s being grouped together into one construct. An introductory question asked, “Below are statements about different general values people tend to hold. Please state to what extent you agree with each of the below” and participants were given response options ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Service Delivery (T2). I took six items from Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter (2001) scale which were later adapted and used by Conway et al. (2014) and Kiefer et al. (2014). These items capture the extent to which individuals provide quality provision and service to other individuals and include items such as how often participants ‘Follow public service guidelines with extreme care’ and ‘Follow up in a timely manner to the requests and problems of the public’. Response options ranged from 1 (Very Slightly or Not at All) to 5 (A Great Deal).

Helping Behaviours (T2). In order to assess helping behaviours I used four items from Lee and Allen’s (2002) organisational citizenship behaviours towards individuals measure. These are other orientated behaviours aimed at benefitting colleagues within the participants organisation. Items for helping behaviours include how often in the last month have participants ‘Willingly given your time to help others who have work-related problems’ and ‘Assisted others with their duties’. Items were measured on a response scale ranging from 1 (Very Rarely) to 5 (Very often).

Control Variables (T1). I controlled for demographic and employment variables. Gender was coded as 0 (female) or 1 (male) as were if the participants had a customer facing role (coded as 1) or did not (coded as 0). Other control variables, such as involvement of participants in managerial work, managerial span of control, age, and organisational tenure
were originally included in the study but later dropped due to their lack of significance with the independent and dependent variables.

_Data Analysis Procedures._ To assess the hypotheses, I conducted structural equation models (SEM) using Mplus (v.8). SEM is ideal for modelling interlinkages and is capable of managing analysis involving multiple independents, paths and control variables as well as correlated independents, interrelated error terms and measurement errors (Iacobucci, 2009; Heck & Thomas, 2015). SEM is appropriate to use when there are at least five observations per parameter and/or at least 100 participants (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988; Hoyle, 1995). To establish mediation, indirect effects were calculated using a bootstrap estimation approach with 10,000 samples with mediation occurring when the confidence intervals do not cross or contain the zero threshold. This study uses measured variables over latent variables as to not exceed the ration of N to parameters (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988).

Multiple steps were taken to minimise the potential common method bias (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). For example, the items measuring the same concepts were placed within different sections. All items were randomised within their sections, attention check items were also included, participants were informed of the confidentiality of their responses and data was collected from different waves. All participants failing these checks were removed (N = 4).

Panel participation bias was assessed to test whether there were any effects from participation attrition following the survey at T1. I computed a dummy variable indicating employees who completed surveys at T1 and T2 (1) versus those who completed the just the survey at T1 (0). I used logistic regression to test whether demographic characteristics (e.g. age, gender, tenure, management level) predicted the dichotomous variable indicating participation. The participants that completed both survey 1 and 2 did not differ significantly from those that only completed the first survey on any of the demographic variables. The organisation used in this study was unable to provide demographic data for all their employees due to legal constraints. I was therefore unable to assess if the participants of this study were a representative of the organisation as a whole.

RESULTS

The means, standard deviations, Cronbach alphas, and correlations between all of the study variables are presented in Table 3.1 below.
Table 3.1: Means, Standard Deviations, Cronbach alphas, and Correlation for Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Pro-Social Values (T1)</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>(.69)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. PSMM (T1)</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.50**</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Self-Sacrifice (T1)</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>.51**</td>
<td>(.84)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Service Delivery (T2)</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td>.47**</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>(.69)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Helping Behaviours (T2)</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.39**</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.34**</td>
<td>.48**</td>
<td>(.78)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Gender (T1)</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>-.18*</td>
<td>-.17*</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.17*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Customer Facing Role (T1)</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.19*</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>.21*</td>
<td>.17*</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td>-.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* = p < .05; ** = p < .01; Cronbach Alphas are presented on the diagonal

Before hypothesis testing the measurement model was tested for fit. Overall, the measurement model showed adequate fit ($\chi^2 = 580.03; df = 394, p < 0.01, CFI = 0.83, RMSEA = .06$). Heteroscedasticity and multicollinearity issues within the data were assessed. No heteroscedasticity concerns were found as a histogram of the standardised residuals showed there to be a normal distribution of the data while a scatter plot indicated that the errors were both constant and independent of each other. Multicollinearity between the variables was assessed using VIF tests. The highest VIF value found was found between PSMM and Service Delivery (1.71). All VIF scores were well below the score of 3 so there are no multicollinearity concerns (Berk, 2003). AVE tests were conducted in line with the Fornell–Larcker criterion. This indicates there to be discriminant validity so long as each latent constructs has a higher AVE value than the value of the highest squared correlation with any other latent variable. All variables had higher AVE values than the highest squared correlation with any other latent variable (pro-social values AVE = .28 > .25 (with PSMM); self-sacrifice AVE = .28 > .26 (with PSMM); PSMM AVE = .33 > .26 (with self-sacrifice); service delivery AVE = .24 > .23 (with helping behaviours); helping behaviours AVE = .36 > .23 (with service delivery)).

To assess if common method bias was an issue an unmeasured latent method factor approach as suggested by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) was used. Including an unmeasured latent factor did not increase the fit of the model ($\chi^2 = 582.11; df = 395, p < 0.01, CFI = 0.82, RMSEA = .06, \Delta \chi^2 = 2.08, \Delta df = 1, p = .14$). It was therefore concluded that common method bias was unlikely to influence the data for this study.

Figure 3.2 found below shows the direct path relationships between the main study variables used in this research.
H1 proposed that PSM mediated the relationship between pro-social values and (H1a) service delivery and (H1b) helping behaviours. Viewing PSM through a process-based motivational lens, I divided PSM into its goal content (PSMM) and goal striving (self-sacrifice) subsystems. The results show that pro-social values were a significant predictor of PSMM \( (b = .47, SE = .07, p < .01) \) and self-sacrifice \( (b = .14, SE = .06, p = .02) \). Both PSMM \( (b = .28, SE = .07, p < .01) \) and self-sacrifice \( (b = .20, SE = .07, p = .01) \) were positively associated with service delivery. PSMM was not associated with helping behaviours \( (b = .03, SE = .09, p = .70) \) while self-sacrifice was \( (b = .26, SE = .07, p < .01) \). The results show that pro-social values indirectly influenced service delivery, both via PSMM \( (b = .13, SE = .04, 95\% \text{ CI} = .06, .20) \) and self-sacrifice \( (b = .03, SE = .01, 95\% \text{ CI} = .01, .05) \). Pro-social values did not indirectly influence helping behaviours via self-sacrifice at the .05 significance level \( (b = .03, SE = .02, 95\% \text{ CI} = .00, .06) \) however significance at the .10 level was found \( (b = .03, SE = .02, 90\% \text{ CI} = .01, .06) \). Pro-social values did not indirectly influence helping behaviours via PSMM \( (b = .02, SE = .04, 95\% \text{ CI} = -.06, .09) \). Hypothesis 1 was therefore partially confirmed, with results supporting H1a but rejecting H1b.

H2 suggested that the PSM motive dimensions are more strongly associated with service delivery than they are with helping behaviours. Analysis from the model showed that the PSM motive dimensions had a significant and moderately strong association with service delivery \( (b = .28, SE = .07, p < .01) \) but an insignificant association with helping behaviours \( (b = .03, SE = .09, p = .70) \). I subsequently tested whether the two paths differed significantly using a formula that produces t-tests (e.g., Keil et al., 2000). The t-test determined that the path for service delivery was significantly stronger than the one for helping behaviours (respective slope size \( .28/.03 \), standard errors \( .07/.09 \), \( N = 210, t = 2.19, df = 416, p = .02 \)). H2 is therefore confirmed.

H3 predicted that self-sacrifice mediated the relationships of PSMM with service delivery and helping behaviours. Results suggest an indirect effect from PSMM to service delivery \( (b = .09, SE = .04, [95\% \text{ CI} = .02, .18]) \) as well as from PSMM to helping behaviours \( (b = .10, SE = .04, [95\% \text{ CI} = .03, .17]) \) via self-sacrifice. H3 is therefore confirmed.
DISCUSSION

Bozeman and Su (2014) argue that increasing numbers of PSM theorists and researchers “pile up successive concepts and measures, always adding but rarely subtracting” (p.1). Through this process PSM has become seen as many different things to many different researchers which in turn has diluted our understanding of the concept (Vandenabeele et al., 2014). This has led to conceptual vagueness, limiting the usefulness of PSM for PA researchers and practitioners alike. In this chapter, I sought to address some of these concerns. First, this research addresses the conceptual confusion surrounding the PSM concept by placing PSM within its theoretical sequence, as a form of pro-social motivation that acts as a link between pro-social values and pro-social behaviours. Secondly, using the process-based subsystems of goal content (PSMM) and goal striving (self-sacrifice) I take existing mainstream motivational theory and apply it to PSM, advancing our understanding of PSM in doing so. Positioning PSM clearly within the motivation literature renders the concept as both more accessible and useful to management as well as PA and OB scholars more widely, as it more clearly connects PSM with theory and research on work motivation.

This research makes a number of contributions towards public service motivation theory and research. Both the PSMM’s and self-sacrifice were associated with pro-social
behaviours (Houston, 2006; Latham & Pinder, 2005; Warren & Chen, 2013). Public service motivation, as a force to bring about action orientated towards the achievement of pro-social goals, is likely to be actualised by engaging in pro-social behaviours. However, the PSM motive dimensions only predict service delivery and not helping behaviours. This suggests that individuals with high PSM levels are motivated to perform pro-social behaviours that benefit society-at-large but not necessarily behaviours that benefit co-workers, showcasing the fundamental utilitarian nature of the PSMM dimensions. Further evidence for this comes from previous PSM research by Kim (2006) linking PSM with organisation citizenship behaviours which Organ (1988) calls reward expectation free voluntary behaviours aimed at promoting the individual’s employer. These results indicate the predilection PSM had for behaviours that have multiple beneficiaries over those that have just a single beneficiary. These results allude to how conceptually PSM could operate differently from other generic pro-social concepts such as pro-social values in that PSM might be threshold to the number of beneficiaries there needs to be before behaviours will be motivated.

Findings from this research also indicate that PSM is embedded within pro-social values and motivates pro-social behaviours. This helps to establish conceptual clarity by conceiving PSM as specific form of pro-social motivation and therefore avoiding theoretical disarray among existing conceptualisations that confound PSM with theoretically similar concepts. For instance, it does not seem helpful to position PSM as a set of pro-social values because values, as previously discussed, are a general notion of how one ought to act e.g. be pro-social (Parks & Guay, 2009). In contrast, these findings show PSM to discriminate between different types of pro-social behaviours e.g. individual vs. societal level pro-social acts, above and beyond the effects of pro-social values.

The findings of this research advance the field of PSM through a number of ways. Establishing PSM as a mediator between pro-social values and pro-social behaviours adds credence to PSM being conceptualised as a specific form of motivation (as opposed to concepts such as beliefs, attitudes or reward orientation) theoretically in line with what is considered the core function of motivation (Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004; Mitchell, 1997: Rokeach, 1973). A better understanding of PSM will allow for a better conceptualisation through more informed theorisation regarding PSM (Bozeman & Su, 2014; Ritz et al., 2016; Vandenabeele et al., 2004). This chapter advances the understanding of pro-social motivation through integrating insights from motivation theory, by utilising a process-based approach of motivation to highlight how PSM internally operates to influence behaviours. The motive dimensions (acting as the goal content subsystem) and the self-sacrifice dimension (acting as the goal striving
subsystem) produce the orientation towards a desired goal and the effort needed to achieve it respectively. Compartmentalising PSM highlights the under explored importance of self-sacrifice within the PSM concept. This is pertinent due to the proclivity for self-sacrifice to be omitted from PSM research (Wright, 2008). Any of the three PSM motive dimensions could provide the orientation towards a desired goal, however it is the self-sacrifice dimension that explains the relationship between PSMM and subsequent behaviours. It is through self-sacrifice that individuals with high PSM levels attempt to bring the cognitive ideals represented within the PSM motive dimensions to fruition. Self-sacrifice has long been thought to be fundamentally important to public service (Kim et al., 2013; Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010; Piliavin & Charng, 1990) and my findings support this notion and provide some explanation as to how and why this is the case.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

This research is not without its limitations. All participants were from a single organisation that operates within the UK so there are questions regarding the generalisability of the findings akin to that of other pieces of PSM research (Pedersen, 2014; Meyer, Egger-Peitler, Höllerer, & Hammerschmid, 2014; Jensen & Andersen, 2015). While using a single organisation for research has its issues, adding data from a para-public organisation adds to the spectrum of PSM research and some research has even found evidence for para-public employees valuing work that contributes to society more than public servants and private sector employees do (Lyons, Duxbury, & Higgins, 2006). The UK is an understudied area regarding PSM and this research constitutes one of the first pieces of PSM research conducted within the country. Future research could focus on how PSM operates within multiple sectors, countries and cultures, as the majority of PSM comparative research has focused on public vs private sector organisations (Mann, 2006). This would provide important nuanced findings as PSM has been found to interact differently within both country (Kim et al. 2013) and sector contexts (Andersen & Kjeldsen, 2013).

My survey exclusively relied on self-reported measures and questions regarding pro-social values, motivations, and behaviours, which are particularly prone to social desirability biases (Kim & Kim, 2016). To negate this issue a number of methods and techniques were employed such as collecting the IV and DVs from separate time periods, item randomisation and attention checks (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Future research may want to include data from different sources to alleviate this issue.
It was decided to use service delivery and helping behaviours as pro-social variables, to differentiate between pro-social behaviours with and without focus on providing public service. However, future research could use different outcomes. This research study draws a direct link between pro-social values and pro-social behaviours via self-sacrifice, but it is pertinent to mention that anti-social values could also predict the behavioural outcomes used in this research. This would involve self-interested individuals sacrificing to help others for personal gain rather than to benefit society. Future research may therefore want to include different types of motivations and values in order to tease apart the specific significance of pro-social and other values and motives.

This research used the Kim et al.’s (2013) PSM instrument in order to closely connect the study to existing research. This instrument is a commonly used measure of PSM and has been found to have sound validity and reliability. However, a closer alignment of PSM with motivation theory, may require re-visiting PSM instruments to ensure construct validity of the measurement corresponds closely with motivation theory.

The findings of this research also raise several intriguing further research questions. For instance, with the importance of self-sacrifice within the PSM concept, what are individuals sacrificing and do they consider it a sacrifice? Sacrifice is a highly subjective term and what one might consider as a sacrifice another could easily consider a repayment of a debt to society, a moral obligation, or civic duty. A concern could be raised about what the implications of self-sacrifice are. Limited acts of self-sacrifice would not be expected to harm an individual in the long term because the acts would be infrequent and easily mitigated. However, if PSM was an individual’s primary form of motivation, then it would be expected that they would not be performing intermittent, but indeed frequent, acts of self-sacrifice. What the implications for this are currently unknown and untested. Put simply, an individual whose motivation is bounded to acts self-sacrifices would expend ever greater quantities of their personal resources (e.g. time, energy, money). This could involve working longer than expected hours, putting unsustainable levels of verve into daily work, or being paid less than would be expected if the individual worked elsewhere. Over time these behaviours might not sustainable and would eventually result in negative well-being outcomes. This line of enquiry might also shed light on the mechanism for which the growing ‘dark side’ of PSM literature focuses (Giauque, Ritz, Varone, & Anderfuhren-Biget, 2012; van Loon, Vandenabeele, & Leisink, 2015; Ritz, Brewer, & Neumann, 2016). However, this for now is pure conjecture and would need to be tested.
Practical implications

These findings carry a number of implications with them. Firstly, organisations pursuing pro-social goals would be well served by emphasising the societal level impact of their work to their employees regardless of what sector they are employed within. Many roles in the public area may interact with individual members of the public and although their work is of benefit to society employees may perceive their efforts to be individual level pro-social behaviours. Actively linking employee’s work to the benefit of society is one way to ensure that employees with PSM feel highly motivated and energised in their work.

Secondly, the results indicate that self-sacrifice is instrumental to pro-social value fulfilment which rises some potential practical challenges for public institutions. These institutions will have to find a means by which to facilitate their employee’s self-sacrifice enough to perform behaviours that fulfil their values but not so much as to become detrimental to themselves.

Conclusion

A better understanding of how pro-social values and motivations relate to pro-social behaviours is important because it can assist in having a better comprehension of pro-social behaviours at work. In clarifying the PSM concept and offering my model, I placed PSM as a motivational force that mediates the relationship of pro-social values on pro-social behaviours, thus helping sharpen the conceptual boundaries of PSM, and highlighting its distinctive contribution (Bozeman & Su, 2014; Ritz et al., 2016). Addressing this conceptualisation issue can potentially aid PSM’s transition into the social science mainstream through using conceptualisations and terminology that researchers from related fields will be familiar with. This will enable greater levels of integration between PSM related research and research within related fields of literature, and potentially lessen the schism between what Vandenabeele et al. (2014) call PSM ‘believers’ and ‘non-believers’ or namely those who think of PSM as a useful variable and those who view it as an improbable and idealistic concept.
REFERENCES


Chapter Four -
Sacrificing for the Public Good:
An Exploration of how Pro-Social Value Fulfilment Influences Well-Being

ABSTRACT

Research has linked the Public Service Motivation (PSM) concept to both negative and positive well-being outcomes, yet the mechanisms through which PSM might influence both positive and negative well-being remains understudied. To address this issue this research uses conservation of resources (COR) theory to examine how individuals ‘sacrifice’ personal resources as a means of fulfilling their pro-social values. This chapter posits that individuals who fulfil their pro-social values experience positive well-being outcomes, while those with unfulfilled pro-social values elicit negative well-being responses. This is due to the central importance these values have to the individual. Using two-wave study data collected from 210 Housing Association employees, this study highlights that self-sacrifice is associated with the expenditure of personal time and energy resources as well as pro-social value fulfilment. Results show pro-social value fulfilment is found to have a positive relationship with positive well-being and a negative relationship with negative well-being. However, pro-social value fulfilment only mediated the relationship between self-sacrifice and negative well-being experiences not positive well-being. Findings are discussed in light of COR and PSM theory, along with their limitations and future research.
INTRODUCTION

Described as a form of motivation where individuals seek to contribute towards the good of society (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008) PSM has historically been associated with a plethora of beneficial outcomes (e.g. organisational commitment, job satisfaction, performance). Research more recently however has shown PSM to have associations with undesirable outcomes also. The growing literature on the ‘dark side’ of PSM (Giauque, Ritz, Varone, & Anderfuhrer-Biget, 2012; Van Loon, Vandenabeele, & Leisink, 2015; Schott & Ritz, 2017) has largely, but not exclusively, identified PSM to associate with negative well-being outcomes such as stress, frustration, and burnout (e.g. Gould-Williams, Mostafa, & Bottomley, 2013; Giauque, Anderfuhrer-Biget, & Varone, 2013; van Loon, et al. 2015). Such findings raise pertinent questions regarding why PSM, with its multitude of beneficial outcomes, should also have such negative well-being ramifications and also why PSM can have positive as well as negative well-being outcomes (Liu, Yang, & Yu, 2015).

To explore and shed light on the association PSM has with an individual’s positive and negative well-being and the resources that are crucial for well-being, Conservation of Resources (COR) theory is used as a theoretical lens. COR theory is an ideal theory to explore the PSM-well-being relationship because COR theory itself is described as a motivational/well-being theory. The central thesis of COR theory is that individuals try to retain, protect, and increase meaningful resources. Negative well-being outcomes are the result of an individual losing or having the threat of losing resources, while positive well-being outcomes are the result of the fostering or increasing of personal resources (Hobfoll, 1989). As PSM research associates the concept with both positive and negative well-being outcomes, using COR theory which can explain how motivation to behave leads to positive or negative well-being outcomes would prove most fruitful.

This chapter makes two contributions to the PSM field. Firstly, it integrates COR theory into PSM research to help explain mixed results regarding the association PSM has with both positive and negative well-being outcomes (e.g. Giauque et al., 2013; Liu, Yang, & Yu, 2015; van Loon et al., 2015). Existing PSM research has focused on levels of person-environment fit (Schott & Ritz, 2017), societal impact (Leisink & Steijn, 2009), or potential societal impact (van Loon et al., 2015) as the reason why PSM has a mixed relationship with well-being. However, as no attention has been given to building on or integrating well-being concepts and theories into existing PSM research or trying to understand well-being outcomes from theories of well-being this area is ripe for exploration. Given the focus on promoting PSM within public
organisations (Ritz, Brewer & Neumann, 2016) it is important to understand how and why PSM may have negative consequences for individuals. Therefore, this research contributes by incorporating the COR theory of well-being into existing PSM research and in doing so aids in understanding the process and mechanisms through which PSM affects the well-being outcomes of individuals.

The second contribution is a shift in focus from PSM motives to the role that self-sacrifice plays within the PSM concept. This thesis uses COR theory to examine how the sacrifice of resources, made by individuals attempting to fulfil the pro-social values (which underline their PSM motives), illuminates the role and means by which self-sacrifice operates within the PSM concept. Self-sacrifice is inexorably linked with and at the core of well-being. While self-sacrifice has been cited as fundamental within PSM (Wise, 2000; Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010), questions remain regarding how self-sacrifice fulfils its role within our understanding of PSM or what is exactly sacrificed in order that PSM motives may be realised. Using a COR theory lens, this research makes a theoretical contribution in highlighting the key role of self-sacrifice in how individuals with high PSM levels experience either positive or negative well-being outcomes when they sacrifice their resources in order to try and fulfil meaningful pro-social values.

**Theoretical Framework and Development of Hypotheses**

How can sacrificing personal resources with the intention of fulfilling pro-social values influence an individual’s well-being? This question is addressed by firstly drawing on COR theory to highlight well-being consequences associated with attaining or losing resources. Following this, the theoretical role of self-sacrifice within the PSM concept and how this relates to an individual’s pro-social value fulfilment is discussed. Finally, this thesis will outline how both resources and pro-social value fulfilment associate with an individual’s positive as well as negative well-being outcomes.

**How COR Theory explains Well-Being Outcomes**

First proposed by Hobfoll (1989), COR theory is a theory on motivation that has widely been used to help explain employee stress, burnout, and well-being outcomes in general (Hobfoll, Shirom, & Golembiewski, 2000; Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014; Hobfoll & Freedy, 2017). The basic tenet of COR theory is that individuals
are motivated to both acquire new additional resources as well as conserve, or protect, the resources that they already have. Resources being objects, states, conditions or anything that an individual places personal value on (Hobfoll, 1998) or that is perceived by an individual to help attain his or her goals (Halbesleben et al., 2014). Because of this the inherent value of a resource is idiosyncratic and highly subjective to the individual. A classic example is family time, for one individual this might be a highly valuable resource while for someone else family time could be a threat to resources, such as self-esteem (Halbesleben et al., 2014).

COR theory argues that individuals have a finite amount of resources, therefore, the loss of resources is psychologically detrimental to an individual. This is in line with psychological ideas such as loss salience (e.g. Cacioppo & Gardner, 1999) and theories such as prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 2013). The reason given for this is that resources themselves are used to maintain and grow existing levels of resources. Therefore, any loss of resources results in the individual having less resources at their disposal to deal with a particular situations and at the same time, make the maintenance or increasing of resources significantly harder to achieve. This resource depletion leaves individuals susceptible to further loss of resources or negative effects that further decrease resources available to them (Hobfoll, 2001).

While individuals seek to avoid resource depletion they also seek to maintain and gain additional resources they may have at their disposal (Hobfoll, 2001). Resource investment is the term used for when individuals invest their resources with the aim of either maintaining resources (e.g. spending time at the gym to maintain health levels) or to gaining additional resources (e.g. working longer at work to earn overtime money). In this way, COR theory argues that individuals will invest their resources in order to try and get additional resources and/or replenish lost resources.

**Self-Sacrifice as a form of Resource Investment**

Self-sacrifice is referred to as “to suffer the loss of types of things to maintain personal beliefs and values” (Yorges, Weiss, & Strickland, 1999, p 428). This definition ties directly into existing theories of human value and motivation, depicting self-sacrifice as an active behaviour aimed at achieving desirable goals and anything of value to an individual (Gecas, 2000). Self-sacrifice can be carried out through both large and small acts (donating an organ vs allowing someone to go in front of you in a queue), but ultimately all self-sacrifice actions are carried out by an individual in an attempt to fulfil importantly held central tenets they hold (Yorges, Weiss, & Strickland, 1999). In order to self-sacrifice, an individual has to forgo
something which is of importance to them (Mizruchi, 1998). Viewing self-sacrifice through the lens of COR, the notion of sacrifice is a misnomer as it has implications of “martyrdom” and forgoing of resources. However, as previously argued individuals are motivated to protect, maintain, and increase their resources, not to surrender them for no gain (Hobfoll, 1998). Instead, drawing on COR, this thesis argues that self-sacrifice is a form of resource investment and that the act of ‘sacrificing’ resources can mean individuals investing the same resources in an attempt to either maintain, protect, or increase their resources. For instance, a volunteer donating their time for charitable work could be seen as sacrificing their time and energy resources but at the same time, from a COR perspective, they might gain social capital resources from doing charity work, or self-esteem resources from being needed, and psychological well-being resources from feeling connected to others. In this manner, COR theory would argue that when individuals give away or relinquish their resources there is also an opportunity for a return in the resources invested/sacrificed.

Within PSM literature, self-sacrifice is referred to as individuals behaving in a beneficial way to others that results in the forfeit of tangible rewards on the part of the individual (Perry, 1996; Wise, 2000). Self-sacrifice is prominent and pertinent within the PSM concept because it is through self-sacrificing behaviours that the PSM motives are actualised (Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010), with motives being a cognitive representation of a desired goals that is without any associated action (Kagan, 1972). As outlined in chapter three, PSM can be fitted into the duel subsystem process-based theory of motivation through being divided into its two conceptual subsystems. The three PSM motive dimensions of Attraction to Public Participation, Commitment to Public Values, and Compassion fit in nicely into the goal contents subsystem role as they respectively represent rational, value-based and affective motives individuals have to serve the public (Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010; Kim et al., 2013). This first subsystem defines what an individual is motivated towards achieving. The second subsystem, goal striving, represents the effort put into achieving the goal dictated by the goal contents subsystem and represents how the desired goal is to be achieved. Self-sacrifice as a PSM dimension is unique in that it does not capture motives per se (Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010) but instead captures an individual’s willingness to make personal sacrifices and conduct acts of altruism in pursuit of public service (Kim et al., 2013). Hence, self-sacrifice should be considered a crucial part of PSM as it is self-sacrifice that provides the goal striving component that gives the effort needed for motives to become motivation.

This process-based motivational interpretation of PSM when viewed through COR would insinuate that individuals sacrifice, or invest, their resources as a way of actualising their
PSM motives. This means individuals sacrifice with conscious or unconscious assumptions, that as a result of investing their resources into their PSM motives, they will replenish the resources originally used or garner additional resource beyond those used. While the value of any particular resource is highly subjective upon the individual, the situation they find themselves in, and their cultural background (Ten Brummelhuis, & Bakker, 2012; Halbesleben et al., 2014), individuals will seek to invest lower value resources and seek to gain higher value or more resources. For instance, some individuals might view time as an abundant and low value resource and might therefore invest in to achieve something that gives the individual a sense of pride or accomplishment, which as a resource is more valued by them. In part due to their relative abundance, practicality, associability, and history of investment within employment situations (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007), time and energy resources would be among the most commonly invested by employees.

The Sacrifice/Investment of Resources to Fulfil Pro-Social Values

As detailed in chapter three, values motivate behaviours that orientate towards the achievement of desirable goals. Values serve as guiding principles to an individual’s overall life (Prince-Gibson & Schwartz, 1998) and through this guidance values evoke motivation which elicits behaviours aimed at achieving desirable goals (Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004; Latham & Pinder, 2005). Goals are cognitive representations of desirable states (Parks & Guay, 2009) that individuals develop commitments towards attaining (Moskowitz and Grant, 2009). The overall desirability of a goal is determined by an individual’s values (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1994). Therefore, the achievement of the goal should fulfil the individual’s values. See Figure 1.1 in chapter one for visual representation of this. Applying this rational to individuals with pro-social values; the individual’s pro-social values will, through pro-social motivations such as PSM, motivate pro-social behaviours as these are most likely to achieve the goal of fulfilling the individual’s pro-social values (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990; Locke, 1991; Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004).

In conclusion, individuals are motivated to protect, maintain, and increase their resources and will invest resources as a means of doing so. Human values motivate behaviour by making certain goals more desirable to individuals than other alternative goals. PSM motives, embedded within pro-social values, are realised through self-sacrifice behaviours that serve the public, because public service is something individuals with high PSM levels desire to do (as it fulfils their pro-social values). Departing from PSM, but following COR theory
these resources are not sacrificed at a loss but are instead “invested” with the aim of achieving the goal of fulfilling an individual’s pro-social values. Time and energy resources are among the most abundant, practical, and assessable resources an individual has to invest in their work environment (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). These will be invested by individuals in the pursuit of fulfilling their values. Practically, the sacrifice/investment of time resources would be an individual dedicating time (beyond that of their contract of employment) to their job, thus dedicating more of their time to fulfilling their pro-social values. The sacrifice or investment of energy resources would manifest as an individual putting more effort into their work and in doing so increasing their pro-social value fulfilment. Therefore, the expenditure of these resources helps to explain the relationship that self-sacrifice has with the fulfilment of pro-social values as individual’s self-sacrifice or invest their personal resources in an attempt to fulfil their pro-social values. Therefore the following is hypothesised:

**H1: The relationship between self-sacrifice and the fulfilment of pro-social values will be mediated by the expenditure of personal resources (i.e. time and energy).**

**Pro-social Value Fulfilment and Well-Being**

Values are central to an individual’s overall sense of identity (Hitlin, 2003) and motivate individuals to fulfil these values by behaving in ways that are consistent and coherent with them. When values are fulfilled, individuals deride intrinsic reward and satisfaction of psychological desires (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Which is why Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser, and Deci (1996) argue for values playing an important part in the understanding of overall well-being. Pro-social values particularly have had their fulfilment linked to the improvement of both physical and mental well-being (for review see Keltner et al., 2014) as well as positive emotional well-being responses (Dunn, Aknin & Norton, 2008; Aknin et al. 2013; Le, Impett, Kogan, Webster, & Cheng, 2013). The fulfilment of pro-social values are argued to have greater associated well-being outcomes than the fulfilment of non-pro-social values. This is due to of the greater opportunities these values provide to harness intrinsic motivation and the higher need satisfaction they elicit which both enhance individuals well-being (Kasser & Ryan, 1993; Kasser, 2002; Keltner et al., 2014).

Drawing again from COR theory as an overall framework it would be expected that individual’s self-sacrifice/invest their resources in an attempt to fulfil PSM’s underlaying pro-social values because the fulfilment of pro-social values produces additional psychological and
well-being resources. Fredrickson, Tugade, Waugh, and Larkin (2003) assert that the daily benefits from value fulfilment accumulate over time to produce consequential personal resources, therefore there is a cumulative effect in regards to pro-social value fulfilment. Therefore, the fulfilment of pro-social values helps to explain the relationship self-sacrifice has with positive well-being outcomes. This is because individuals sacrifice/invest personal resources which, when successful in fulfilling their pro-social values, results in the individual experiencing increased positive well-being outcomes. Thus the following is hypothesised:

**H2: The fulfilment of pro-social values will mediate the positive relationship between self-sacrifice and positive well-being.**

When an individual invests/sacrifices their resources in an attempt to try and fulfil their pro-social values, they leave themselves exposed to negative well-being outcomes. There are two possible mechanisms through which this may happen. The first is that lost resources leave individuals vulnerable to the negative effects of resource depletion (Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Aspinwall, 1998). Resources are used to deal with any day-to-day stressors that might negatively affect an individual, therefore if an individual experiences stressful situations and does not have the resources available to counter them they experience negative well-being outcomes (Freedy & Hobfoll, 2017). The second reason is that resources invested in unsuccessful pro-social value fulfilment will result in negative well-being outcomes due to the individual experiencing negative self-evaluation and distress, resulting prominently in feelings such as guilt (Tangney, Stuewig, & Mashek, 2007). Individuals become disheartened and frustrated if they attempt but are unable to fulfil their pro-social values. This is amplified by aspects such as interaction with difficult beneficiaries, excessive organisational constraints, and a lack of organisational support (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Kjeldsen & Jacobsen, 2012; Giauque et al., 2013). Individuals can have high expectations regarding their value fulfilment which leads to an increased risk of employee burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Negative emotions are particularly evoked when an individual’s expectations are not met (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). This is the case because values are at the central core of an individual’s sense of identity (Hitlin, 2003) and experiences of not being genuine to their self-concept causes an individual to experience distress. Therefore, the fulfilment of pro-social values helps to explain the relationship self-sacrifice has with negative well-being outcomes, because individuals who sacrifice/invest their personal resources but do not fulfil their pro-
social values experience increased levels of negative well-being outcomes. Therefore the following is hypothesised:

\[ H3: \text{The fulfilment of pro-social values will mediate the negative relationship between self-sacrifice and negative well-being.} \]

**METHOD**

**Participants and Procedure**

This research consists of 210 full time employees from a para-public organisation. The organisation is an independent non-profit organisation which receives public funding. Their remit is to provide social housing for people and families who are in need of housing. All participants were directly emailed by the researchers after having obtained their email addresses through the organisation. Participants were ensured that their responses would remain confidential and that any data collected would not contain any personally identifying information. The sample were all employed full time, 56.70% were female with an average age of 43 years, and an average organisational tenure of nearly 10 years.

Measurements were collected over two time periods six months apart. Self-sacrifice, and expended resources were taken from T1 while fulfilled pro-social values and positive and negative well-being were taken from T2. The first survey was sent out to 1088 employees to which 344 responses were received, this constituted a 32% response rate. The second survey was sent out to 999 employees of which 210 of the 344 the participants who did the first measurement also did the second. This gave us a response rate of first wave participants who then did the second wave of 61.05%.

**Measures**

Unless otherwise indicated, all items used 5-point Likert-type scales with anchors of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). A full list of scales can be found in the Appendix section of this thesis.

*Self-Sacrifice (T1):* The 4 self-sacrifice items of Kim et al.’s (2013) PSM scale were used to measure self-sacrifice, as these capture the self-sacrifice dimension. Items include “I
am prepared to make sacrifices for the good of society” and “I believe in putting civic duty before self”.

*Expended Resources (T1):* Expenditure of time resources were measured as overtime hours worked per week. The measure of overtime work assessed the amount of personal time, as a resource, participants gave to their organisation as this is considered time that the individual is not contractually obliged to put in.

Expenditure of energy resources were measured using a 6-item scale created and validated by Patchen, Pelz, and Allen (1965). Designed to capture the working intensity level of employees, the items of this scale focus on how much personal energy resources an individual invests in to their work. Example items include, “I put forth my best effort to get my job done regardless of the difficulties” and “I do extra work for my job that isn’t really expected of me”.

*Pro-Social Value Fulfilment (T2):* Pro-social value fulfilment were captured using 4 items from an amended version of Schwartz’s (1992) Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ) measure which captures self-transcendence values. These are values that are oriented towards other individuals, their welfare, well-being and the general public good. The items remained the same as the original, however the instructions asked participants to indicate how their current job allowed them to fulfil the particular value. Items included asking participants to what extent their job fulfilled desires “to ensure people are treated equally and have equal opportunities” and “to understand different people”. Responses for the PVQ range on a 5-point Likert-type from ‘Not at all’ to ‘Very’.

*Positive and Negative Well-Being (T2):* A shortened version of Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, and Kelloway’s (2000) Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS) was used to measure the experience of both positive and negative emotional well-being. Emotions are a critical part of an individual’s well-being as they are an indication of goal progression or hindrance and are a reflection of an individual’s self-concept (Scherer, 1984; Lazarus, 1991). With answers given on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Very Often), participants were given the question of “Looking back on your job over the last month. How often have you felt the following at work?” and then asked to score how Angry, Frustrated, Disappointed, Anxious, Fed Up, and Betrayed, they had been. These scores were combined to compute negative well-being. While Happy, Excited, Proud, and Grateful were used to capture positive well-being.

*Control Variables (T1):* Gender (0 for female, 1 for male) were controlled for as studies have shown difference between men and women in self-reported emotional measures (Shields,
Pro-social values, as measured by Schwartz’s (1992) Portrait Values Questionnaire captured similarly to Self-Transcendent Value Fulfilment using a 5-point Likert-type from ‘Not at all’ to ‘Very’. Self-Transcendent Values, were also controlled for because it was important to control for the strength of the values held when assessing the degree to which they were being fulfilled. The Revised Life Orientation Test (LOT-R) created by Scheier, Carver, and Bridges (1994) was also used to control for short term emotional states such as if were the participants were having a particularly good or bad day emotionally. Other control variables, such as involvement of participants in managerial work, managerial span of control, age, and organisational tenure were originally included in the analysis but later dropped due to their lack of significance with the independent and dependent variables (Becker, 2005).

Statistical Procedures

This research used structural equation models (SEM) using Mplus (v.8) to test the statistical model with measured variables. SEM was used over regressions due to its ability to handle multiple paths between independent, dependent, and control variables simultaneously (Bentler & Stein, 1992) as well as correlated independents, interrelated error terms and measurement errors (Iacobucci, 2009; Heck & Thomas, 2015). To establish mediation, indirect effects were calculated using a bootstrap estimation approach with 10,000 samples with mediation occurring when the confidence intervals do not cross or contain the zero threshold (Imai, Keele, & Tingley, 2010). Measured variables were used over latent variables in the model to remain within the recommended number of observations per estimate parameter (Bentler & Chou, 1987).

Controlling for Common Method Variance

Steps to control for common method bias were taken in accordance with (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). For instance, dimensions from the same concept were placed within different sections of the questionnaire, some items were reverse coded, and where it was possible, scale items were presented in randomised order to reduce order effects and common method bias (Fraley, 2007). Attention check items were also included with the participants who failed having their data removed.

Panel participation bias was assessed using the same procedure as in chapter three. I computed a dummy variable indicating employees who completed surveys at T1 and T2 (1)
versus those who completed the just the T1 survey (0). A logistic regression analysis indicated that there were no difference in the demographic characteristics (e.g. age, gender, tenure, management level) of the participants that did both surveys vs those that only did the first survey.

RESULTS

Below Table 4.1 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations between all of the main study variables.

Table 4.1: Mean, Standard Deviation, Cronbach Alphas, and Correlations of Main Study Variables and Control Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Self-Sacrifice (T1)</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Expenditure of Time Resources (T1)</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Expenditure of Energy Resources (T1)</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.21**</td>
<td>.25**</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Fulfilment of Pro-Social Values (T2)</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.33**</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Positive Well-Being (T2)</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.16*</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Negative Well-Being (T2)</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>- .31**</td>
<td>-.59**</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Revised Life Orientation Test (T1)</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.14*</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td>.25**</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>-.44**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Pro-Social Values (T1)</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.21**</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Gender (T1)</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>.17*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: * = p < .05, ** = p < .01; Cronbach Alphas are presented on the diagonal

Before proceeding to hypotheses testing, I tested the measurement model consisting of seven multi-item variables. The measurement model was found to have adequate fit ($\chi^2$ = 756.68; df = 379, $p < .01$, CFI = .78, RMSEA = .06). The data was also examined for heteroscedasticity and multicollinearity issues. A histogram of the standardised residuals showed there to be a normal distribution of the data, while a scatter plot indicated that the errors were constant and independent of each other and there were therefore no heteroscedasticity concerns. To detect any multicollinearity between the variables of this study, VIF tests were employed. The highest VIF value was found between expenditure of time resources and experience of positive emotions (1.65). All VIF scores were below the score of 3, so there are no multicollinearity concerns (Berk, 2003). AVE tests, in accordance with the Fornell–Larcker criterion, indicated there to be discriminant validity as all latent constructs had a higher AVE value than the value of the highest squared correlation with any other latent variable (self-sacrifice AVE = .64 > .07 (with pro-social value fulfilment); expenditure of energy resources
AVE = .63 > .10 (with pro-social value fulfilment); pro-social value fulfilment AVE = .52 > .10 (with expenditure of energy resources); positive well-being outcomes AVE = .58 > .34 (with positive well-being outcomes); positive well-being outcomes AVE = .53 > .34 (with positive well-being outcomes)).

To assess if common method bias was an issue, an unmeasured latent method factor approach as suggested by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) was employed. Including an unmeasured latent method factor was found to significantly decrease the fit of the model ($\chi^2 = 764.04; \text{df} = 380, p < .01$, CFI = .78, RMSEA = .06. $\Delta \chi^2 = 7.36, \Delta \text{df} = 1, p = < .01$). It was therefore concluded that common method bias was unlikely to influence the data for this study.

To test the hypotheses I ran the path model as depicted in Figure 4.1, which also summarises the results. Hypothesis 1 asserted that the association between self-sacrifice and the fulfilment of pro-social values will be mediated by the expenditure of time and energy. The results indicate that self-sacrifice positively associates with the fulfilment of pro-social values ($b = .15, \text{SE} = .07, p = .03$). The expenditure of time was not found to relate to pro-social value fulfilment ($b = -.00, \text{SE} = .06, p = .95$), however the expenditure of energy was found to associate with pro-social value fulfilment ($b = .24, \text{SE} = .07, p = < .01$). Self-sacrifice was positively correlated with the expenditure of time ($b = .10, \text{SE} = .05, p = .03$) and with the expenditure of energy ($b = .11, \text{SE} = .07, p = .10$). Neither the expenditure of time ($b = .00, \text{SE} = .00, [95\% \text{ CI} = -.01, .01]$) nor energy ($b = .03, \text{SE} = .01, [95\% \text{ CI} = -.01, .06]$) were found to mediate the relationship between self-sacrifice and the fulfilment of pro-social values. Therefore hypothesis 1 is rejected.

As the expenditure of energy resources was better at predicting pro-social value fulfilment than self-sacrifice and the expenditure of time resources were; a post hoc test was used to explore this relationship further. Post hoc tests of the model indicate that the fulfilment of pro-social values mediated the relationship between expenditure of energy resources and both negative well-being ($b = .07, \text{SE} = .02, [95\% \text{ CI} = -.10, -.03]$) and positive well-being outcomes ($b = .05, \text{SE} = .02, [95\% \text{ CI} = .01, .09]$).

The second hypotheses argued that the fulfilment of pro-social values would mediate the relationship between self-sacrifice and positive well-being. Figure 4.1 shows that self-sacrifice is positively associated with the fulfilment of pro-social values ($b = .15, \text{SE} = .07, p = .03$). The fulfilment of pro-social values was found to have a positive direct relationship with positive well-being ($b = .19, \text{SE} = .07, p = .01$), but pro-social values did not mediate the
relationship between self-sacrifice and positive well-being ($b = 0.03$, SE = 0.02, [95% CI = 0.00, 0.06]). Therefore, hypothesis 2 is rejected.

The third and final hypothesis states that the fulfilment of pro-social values mediate the relationship between self-sacrifice and negative well-being. Figure 4.1 shows that self-sacrifice was positively associated with the fulfilment of pro-social values ($b = 0.15$, SE = 0.07, $p = 0.03$). The fulfilment of pro-social values was found to have a negative relationship with negative well-being ($b = -0.27$, SE = 0.06, $p = <0.01$). Pro-social value fulfilment was found to mediate the relationship between self-sacrifice and negative well-being ($b = -0.04$, SE = 0.02, [90% CI = -0.08, -0.01]). Hypothesis 3 was supported.

**Figure 4.1: Relationships between Self-Sacrifice, Expent Resources, Pro-Social Value Fulfilment, and the Experience of Positive & Negative Emotions**

![Diagram showing relationships between self-sacrifice, time resources, pro-social value fulfilment, energy resources, and positive and negative well-being.]

Notes: † = $p < 0.10$, * = $p < 0.05$, ** = $p < 0.01$, ns = non-significant, values in parentheses represent $R^2$

**DISCUSSION**

Self-sacrifice is hailed as important within the PSM concept (Perry, 1996; Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010), but to sacrifice something is to lose it. Humans are argued to be loss adverse, preferring to avoid losing something over gaining something of similar value (Kahneman & Tversky, 2013). According to COR theory, the loss of resources without return is associated with great psychological distress and negative well-being outcomes (Hobfoll, 1989). Most PSM research, exploring the concepts relationship with well-being outcomes, has found there to be more undesirable negative well-being outcomes (e.g. Giauque et al., 2013; van Loon et al., 2015) than positive well-being outcome associations (e.g. Liu, Yang, & Yu,
While this ‘dark side’ of PSM has for some time been known about, the mechanism through which PSM leads to undesirable outcomes has previously only been speculated upon.

To address this issue I used COR theory as a theoretical lens to argue how individuals with high levels of PSM self-sacrifice their personal resources as a means of trying to fulfil their pro-social values. With fulfilment of their pro-social values individuals yield a return of psychological resources that result in positive well-being outcomes, while failure to fulfil their pro-social values incur negative well-being outcomes. Results from this research found self-sacrifice to associate with both the expenditure of time and energy as well as the fulfilment of pro-social values, although neither time nor energy resource expenditure helped to explain the relationship between self-sacrifice and pro-social value fulfilment, as was hypothesised. The fulfilment of pro-social values was found to associate with the experience of positive and negative well-being outcomes, in the ways consistent with my hypotheses. The fulfilment of pro-social values was not found to explain the relationship between self-sacrifice and positive well-being outcomes; however it did help explain the relationship between self-sacrifice and negative well-being outcomes.

This study contributes to the advancement PSM literature in a number of ways. Firstly, it contributed by using COR theory, and its emphasis on resources, as a theoretical lens through which to examine the associations PSM has with well-being outcomes. Previous PSM research has used the job demands-resources model (Giauque et al., 2013; Bakker, 2015; Quratulain, & Khan, 2015) to explain the PSM-well-being relationship. However, a limitation with integrating the job demands-resources model into PSM theory is that there is debate as to whether PSM, as a motivation, is considered as a job resource or instead as a job demand due to its associated increased expectations of doing pro-social good. This research overcomes this issue and contributes by incorporating both value fulfilment and COR theory into existing PSM theory.

Using a COR theoretical lens helps to shed light on the underlying mechanisms through which PSM motives are realised through elements of self-sacrifice (Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010) and associates with well-being outcomes. The exact nature of self-sacrifice within PSM is understudied, therefore integrating COR theory into PSM offers a significant contribution as it COR with its focus on resources offers a means through which we can understand how PSM interacts with associated outcomes. Acting as a type of currency that is exchanged for pro-social value fulfilment, resources can also be used to help explain the relationships PSM has with other outcome variables than the ones tested within this research.
The second contribution this research makes to PSM literature is to directly highlight the role of self-sacrifice in fulfilling an individual’s pro-social values. There has been a dearth of research regarding self-sacrifice within PSM research and literature; self-sacrifice has even historically been omitted from PSM research (Wright, 2008). Therefore, in being among the first pieces of PSM research to explore self-sacrifice, this research starts the process of exploration into self-sacrifice and clarifies its role. Using COR theory, this research argued that individuals sacrifice or invest time and energy resources as part of an attempt to fulfil their pro-social values, meaning individuals would stay longer and exert themselves more in the pursuit of their work duties as a means of fulfilling their pro-social values. My findings, that both time and energy expenditure associate with self-sacrifice, are consistent with the previous research. For instance, Gregg, Grout, Ratcliffe, Smith, and Windmeijer (2011) found PSM to positively associate with individuals working longer hours in their jobs. Although, this research used PSM in its four dimensional state instead of just using the self-sacrifice. Similarly, although only significant at .10 significance level, my findings also suggest self-sacrifice can be associated with the energy expenditure. Wright (2007) found a relationship between work motivation and elements important to public sector employees working within the public sector (namely task, mission, and public service) but neither PSM nor any of its dimensions were directly tested.

Limitations and Future Directions for Research

No research is without limitations and it is important to acknowledge them. The participants for this study were taken from a single organisation operating within the UK para-public sector, so there are issues with the generalisability of these findings, akin to that of other pieces of PSM research (Jensen & Andersen, 2015).

The survey this research uses exclusively relies on self-reported measures and might suffer from social desirability bias (Kim & Kim, 2016). To help alleviate some of these issues, future research might want to use more objective measurements. For instance, well-being could be measured using sick days taken, and/or other non-intrusive general health measures such as blood pressure machine or through tracking heart rate via personal health devices. While this research tested for emotional well-being outcomes, future research could explore other well-being consequences, both positive and negative, of sacrificing resources in order to fulfil pro-social values. Similarly, resource expenditure could be collected more robustly through organisational data such as employee clocking in/out times, number of overtime hours submitted, or from the use of devices such as pedometers. These data, although harder to
capture, would significantly add to the robustness of any study involving well-being and/or resource expenditure.

The measurement of the expenditure of time could be improved by future researchers. To capture time expended at work this study used overtime as its measure, but this does not account for such time expenditure as skipping lunch breaks or coming to work early. There is also the possibility that participants do not perceive the additional time that they give to their vocational work as a sacrifice. For instance, participants might stay on at work until a particular task is finished, similar to a nurse or doctor finishing work once they have finished with a patient and not once their shift has officially finished.

While time and energy resources were used to explore how self-sacrifice might lead to value fulfilment, future researchers could explore how additional resources other than these might explain this relationship. For instance, pro-social motivation has been linked with deep acting emotional labour (Hsieh, Yang, & Fu, 2012), so emotional resources might provide a fruitful research variable. Another resource that could be investigated could be financial resources. Individuals entering the public sector might do so with the knowledge that they could garner a higher wage doing a similar job within the private sector and so in this way are constantly sacrificing monetary resources in order to do work that has high societal impact. However, this would be measured post hoc and might be retroactively justified as such, a better current measure of monetary sacrifice could be such things as unclaimed overtime, benefits, and/or expenses.

Items from Kim et al.’s (2013) PSM scale were used to measure an individual’s self-sacrifice however these items come with some issues. These items aim to capture if the participant ‘is prepared’, ‘believes’, ‘is willing’, or ‘would agree to’ do self-sacrificial acts for the benefit of society. However, these items measure the individual’s thoughts about their willingness to sacrifice and not their actual sacrifices. Individuals could, when the time comes, not be willing to sacrifice as much as they say they are willing to or opposingly, through pressures from social norms and organisational culture, sacrifice more than they are willing to. The amount an individual self-sacrifices is not something easy to measure, but there is room for improvement over current instruments.

The results of this study indicated pro-social value fulfilment to explain the relationship between self-sacrifice and negative well-being outcomes but not positive well-being outcomes. These differing results could only be established because I theorised and empirically tested both for positive and negative well-being outcomes in the same model. Well-being research is finding positive and negative well-being outcomes to be independent of each other, therefore
it is important for future PSM research exploring well-being outcomes to assess both types of well-being (Huppert & Whittington, 2003).

**Practical Implications**

The results of this research imply that organisations working towards the public good should anticipate their employees self-sacrificing as a means of trying to fulfil their pro-social values. While facilitating their employees with this will not bring their employee’s positive well-being outcomes, it will influence the incurrence of negative well-being outcomes in a beneficial way. The degree to which an individual experiences pro-social value fulfilment is subjective, therefore organisations should try their best to help their employees fulfil their pro-social values. This can be done through increasing employee exposure to beneficiaries (Bellé, 2013a, 2013b) and/or increasing the societal impact potential employees perceive their work to have (van Loon et al, 2015), as both these have been found to give employees a sense of their efforts having meaning.

While self-sacrifice was found to associate with the fulfilment of pro-social values, the expenditure of energy resources was a better predictor of pro-social value fulfilment. This could be in part due to the active nature of expending energy resources, as individuals who expend their energy resources have a more tangible experience of fulfilling their values than individuals who might passively self-sacrifice. It is interesting that the expenditure of energy resources, but not time resources, were associated with perceived pro-social value fulfilment. This could be interpreted as employees who physically exert themselves feel they are fulfilling their pro-social values while individuals spending additional time at work do not. Therefore with these results in mind, organisations should not make assumptions regarding their highly pro-social employees fulfilling their pro-social values through additional hours at work. Perhaps time is an indicator of quantity of effort, while energy is more of an indicator of quality. Instead, overtime could be an indication of work overload which is not conducive to value fulfilment. Spending additional time on a task does not always result in achieving more while putting more effort into a task usually brings results.

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, previous PSM research has highlighted self-sacrifice as important and shown PSM to relate to positive as well as negative well-being outcomes. Using COR theory,
and its focus on resources, this research argued that individuals sacrificed personal resources in order to try and fulfil their pro-social values, which has subsequent positive or negative well-being implications depending on if the individuals succeeded with their value fulfilling attempts or not. The fulfilment of pro-social values is something rarely, if ever measured, within the public administration field but something that has been shown to be important in explaining how pro-social individuals incur negative well-being outcomes. Having a better understanding of how self-sacrifice and pro-social value fulfilment interact to influence an individual’s well-being can therefore help pro-social individuals and their employing organisations lessen the incidences of negative well-being outcomes.
REFERENCES


Chapter Five - It’s all about the Fit: The Mediating role of Person-Job Fit for the effect of PSM on Organisational Loyalty and Quitting Intentions

ABSTRACT

Public Service Motivation (PSM) has long been associated with beneficial outcomes including performance, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. However, the reason why PSM has such associations is understudied. To help explain these relationships, this research proposes that it is the congruence between these highly pro-socially motivated individual’s personal and job characteristics, their person-job fit (PJ fit), which leads them to experience higher organisational loyalty and lower quitting intentions. Furthermore, it is argued that pro-social value fulfilment and job crafting behaviours are mechanisms through which this fit can be enhanced. Results indicate that PJ fit mediates PSM’s association with organisational loyalty and quitting intentions, while pro-social value fulfilment, but not job crafting, mediates the PSM-PJ fit relationship. This chapter concludes that it is the congruence of an individual’s pro-social goals and the pro-social opportunities their job provides them with which acts as a mechanism through which PSM associates with elements of organisational attachment.
INTRODUCTION

Within the field of public administration (PA), public service motivation (PSM) has garnered increasing amounts of attention from researchers and practitioners alike (Ritz, Brewer, & Neumann, 2016). PSM is described as a form of motivation that focuses on contributing towards the good of society and has been associated with such beneficial organisational outcomes as job satisfaction (Homberg, McCarthy, & Tabvuma, 2015), whistle blowing (Brewer & Selden, 1998), organisational commitment (Camilleri, 2006), and performance (Brewer, 2008; Ritz, 2009; Bellé, 2013a). While the popularity garnered by PSM has advanced our understanding of PSM in some ways, successive researchers trying to drive the concept forward has left some gaps in our fundamental PSM knowledge (Bozeman & Su, 2015). For example, little is known as to why PSM is associated with the beneficial outcomes it has been found to correlate with.

Scholars have argued that PSM is related to beneficial organisational outcomes because individuals with high levels of PSM seek and apply for jobs that fulfil the pro-social values which underlie their PSM (Moynihan, Pandey, & Wright, 2012). Chapter three of this thesis argued and provided supporting evidence for the relationship between pro-social values, PSM, and subsequent behaviours. The rationale here was that pro-social values, via PSM, motivate behaviours that are orientated towards the goal of fulfilling them. This chapter builds on this notion and provides some evidence using the PJ fit concept to help explain how adhering to their pro-social values leads to beneficial outcomes for individuals with high PSM levels and their organisations.

This research makes two contributions to PSM research. First, it aids in the understanding of why PSM is associated with stronger employee attachment to their organisation. Focusing on two forms of organisational attachment, higher organisational loyalty and lower quitting intentions. Much PSM research and theory operates with the assumption that individuals with high PSM levels seek to work in public organisations because their motivation to do pro-social good aligns with the organisations pro-social outputs. It is this high level of congruence that is thought to be primarily responsible for PSMs association with positive outcomes such as organisational commitment (Camilleri, 2006) and performance (Ritz, 2009; Bellé, 2013a). The implicit assumption here is that, individuals with high PSM levels will also consistently experience their work to actualise their pro-social motivations. This study therefore advances PSM research by theoretically explaining and empirically testing how the congruence between an individual’s PSM levels and the opportunities they perceive
at work to be pro-social can explain the relationship between PSM and desirable outcomes such as organisational loyalty and quitting intentions.

Second, this chapter explores two mechanisms that help explain why PSM relates to PJ fit. Focusing on how both the fulfilment of pro-social values and job crafting influence how individuals with high PSM levels perceive their work to match their personal characteristics. On the one hand, these individuals are concerned with the fulfillment of their pro-social values as these underpin their PSM. PSM as a motivation means that individuals have the drive and direction to achieve the goal of fulfilling their pro-social values, so the higher the levels of PSM an individual has, the more likely their pro-social values are to be fulfilled. If individuals with high levels of PSM fulfil their pro-social values they have increased perceptions of PJ fit. On the other hand, not all jobs may be conducive to pro-social goals. This suggests that individuals with high PSM levels will be highly motivated to job craft their job, shaping it in order to experience increased levels of PJ fit. Job crafting can include augmenting daily work routines to maximise time spent helping others (e.g. having more face-to-face time with members of the public) or minimising time spent doing other aspects of the job that do not enact PSM (e.g. paperwork). Job crafting can increase an individual’s PJ fit through tailoring the job based upon personal characteristics and preferences. Through highlighting how pro-social value fulfilment and job crafting link PSM to PJ fit, this chapter offers theoretical insights into how PSM may guide pro-social individuals to achieve their goal of adhering to their pro-social values.

In the remainder of the chapter, I will first outline PSM and the other main variables in this study, detailing how they relate to each other before developing hypotheses. I then draw on a field study spanning over three time waves to test the hypotheses, before then discussing the results and their practical implications.

**Public Service Motivation and the Implicit Assumption of Fit**

Described as an individual’s willingness to work for the benefit of society (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008; Vandenabeele, 2007), PSM is a form of intrinsic motivation (Houston, 2000) in that it galvanises pro-social behaviours primarily for internal satisfaction and not for external reward (Deci & Ryan, 2010). Early PSM research sought to explore the PSM propositions laid out by Perry and Wise (1990) in their conceptualisation paper. These propositions were to do with individuals high in PSM seeking employment within public organisations, performing well, and being less dependent upon utilitarian incentives (Perry &
Wise, 1990). These propositions shaped the landscape of subsequent PSM research for the next two decades (e.g. Naff & Crum, 1999; Houston, 2000; Bright, 2005; Vandenabeele, 2008; Steijn, 2008; Wright & Christensen, 2010). Later PSM research explores the relationship between PSM and outcome variables, ranging from job satisfaction (Liu, Tang, & Zhu, 2008) to work related stress (De Simone, Cicotto, Pinna, & Giustiniano, 2016). Generally, PSM has been found to have advantageous or beneficial associative relationships with the vast majority of outcome variables it has been tested with.

As aforementioned, there has been an underlying assumption built into the understanding of PSM (Steijn, 2008) that individuals with high levels of PSM will “automatically” experience congruence between their personal and organisational characteristics if they work within a publicly orientated organisation. This is thought to be because both share a pro-social orientation. However, this assumption can be problematic for two main reasons. Firstly, any individual perceptions of fit can change over time. An individual could have joined an organisation as they initially perceived a good match between their pro-social motivations and what the employing organisation provided. However, there is no guarantee that this perceived level of congruence will materialise nor will it persist after joining an organisation (Leisink & Steijn, 2008). People and jobs change and alter over time, and levels of fit that were previously good can deteriorate to a point of dissatisfaction (van Dam, 2008). New organisational members can discover that the actual priorities of their job and organisation are not aligned with their formally proclaimed pursuit of public good. Employees can also become disillusioned with their organisation if they join with a strong commitment to public service which over time persistently remain frustrated (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007). This could be especially true of individuals with high amounts of PSM, whom might have higher expectations of creating public goods. For these individuals anything associated with the job that is not perceived as benefitting society could lead towards feelings of frustration. This could explain why PSM has been associated with the heightened perception of burdensome administrative rules and procedures (Giauque, Ritz, Varone, & Anderfuhren-Biget, 2012).

Secondly, not all jobs and roles in public service organisations directly contribute to public value in the same way. There is an implicit assumption about the role of the organisation in actualising an individual’s PSM. Perry and Wise’s (1990) first PSM proposition is that “the greater an individual's public service motivation, the more likely the individual will seek membership in a public organization” (p.370). Undoubtedly, public organisations produce public goods and provide many individuals with means through which to actualise their PSM. However public organisations, through necessity, will have job roles that do not directly entail
the pursuit of public good but are instrumental to the maintenance of bureaucratic and technical functions within an organisation, such as administration, security, or human resource management roles. These roles are guided by the principles of instrumental rationality which can be discordant with the principles of public good (Racko, 2017a). Current notions of PSM would make the assumption that an individual working in the HR department of a hospital would have their PSM actualised to the same extent as a doctor or nurse who interacts with members of the public every day might. Experimental research by Bellé (2013a; 2013b) showcases how job design, particularly that of exposure to beneficiaries, increases PSM as well as aspects like employee persistence, output, productivity, and vigilance. Therefore, the nature and design of the job is important when it comes to individuals actualising their PSM.

There is existing research that explores the match between an individual’s desire to actualise their PSM and the opportunities provided by their employment (their PSM-Fit; Steijn, 2008). However, this research also places emphasis on the employing organisation or employment sector as providing a supply of opportunities for individuals to be pro-social (e.g. Bright, 2007; Vandenabeele, 2008; Kim, 2012; Gould-Williams, Mostafa, & Bottomley, 2013). Kristof (1996) argues that there are many work environment levels that individuals can be matched to. For instance, one of these, person-environment fit is defined by Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson (2005) as “the compatibility between an individual and work environment that occurs when their characteristics are well matched” (p. 281) and may encompass fit between an individual and their job, group, organisation, and vocation work environment levels. Research by Cable and DeRue (2002) and Kristof-Brown (2000) has shown that different levels of fit have distinct relationships with different attitudes and behaviours and thus should not be thought of nor treated as the same as each other. As expressed earlier, high individual-organisation or high individual-sector fit does not categorically mean that there will be high fit between an individual’s pro-social motivational desires and the opportunities their work gives them to actualise these. Similarly, not all employees with PSM will work within the public sector (Brewer & Seldon, 1998; Mann, 2006; Kjeldsen, & Jacobsen, 2012) and not all pro-social jobs are within the public organisations/sector (Steen, 2008). Due to the nature of PSM, a good indicator of fit between an individual’s PSM and the opportunities to actualise it would be at the level of their job, their PJ fit. The day-to-day work experiences that an individual has in their job are more tangible and more personally meaningful to that individual than the outputs of their organisation or the orientation of the sector they are employed within. Hence, the construct that is likely to be most explanatory is PJ fit and not the fit between person and their organisation nor person and their
sector of employment (Bright, 2007; Westover & Taylor, 2010; Christensen & Wright, 2011; Quratulain & Khan, 2015). A better understanding of the relationship between PJ fit and PSM allows PSM researchers to better understand the relationship that PSM has with subsequent outcome variables. In the next section, this chapter will argue for the links between PJ-fit is and attachment to the organisation, in particular, organisational loyalty and quitting intentions. Figure 5.1 shows a summary of the hypotheses.

The Mediating role of PJ-Fit in the relationship between PSM and Organisational Attachment

PJ fit is defined as “the relationship between a person’s characteristics and those of the job or tasks that are performed at work” (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p.284). Individuals with good fit have been shown to have high job satisfaction, motivation, performance, work engagement levels and low job stress (Edwards, 1991; Warr & Inceoglu, 2012). PJ fit is conceptualised in terms of needs vs. supply fit or the congruence between the employee’s needs, values, and/or preferences and the characteristics of the job that they do (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Due to PJ fit being a subjective and idiosyncratic evaluation of the compatibility between their needs and the characteristics of their job (French et al., 1974; Kristof, 1996; Kristoff-Brown et al., 2005), it provides valuable insights into how well an individual perceives their job as being a good match for them. Drawing on PSM theory, for individuals with high PSM, their PJ fit evaluations will be significantly influenced by the level to which their job allows them to actualise their PSM. This would mean favourable PSM outcomes, such attachment to the organisation, might not be due to PSM per se but are in part due also to individuals with high PSM experiencing higher levels of fit between their PSM goals and their work role. Therefore, individuals with high PSM levels will be motivated to seek jobs that are pro-socially orientated, enhancing the likelihood of them experiencing good PJ fit levels when their job caters for their desires to be pro-social (Carless, 2005; Leisink & Steijn, 2008; Wright & Christensen, 2010).

PJ fit, in turn, is likely to have positive effects on individuals’ attachment to their organisation. While past PSM research has focused on perceived positive attitudes towards the organisation, such as organisational commitment (Camilleri, 2006) and job satisfaction (Homberg et al., 2015), here focus will be on behaviour-related indicators of attachment to the organisation, namely loyal behaviours towards the organisation and quitting intentions. Organisational loyalty is a form of attachment, stemming from identification with the goals
and values of an organisation, that results in individuals exerting effort in order to help the organisation succeed (Kalleburg, Berg, & Kalleberg 1987; Mueller, Wallace, & Price, 1992). This attachment to the organisation is indicated by loyal behaviours such as promoting the employing organisation to outsiders, guarding it from both external and internal threats, and remaining committed to it during hard times (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Research suggests that individuals with high PJ fit show more organisational loyalty behaviours (Edwards, 1991; Warr & Inceoglu, 2012). Individuals with high levels of PJ fit can exhibit organisational loyalty for a number of reasons. Organisational loyalty might be due to an individual’s appreciation and gratitude towards their organisation for facilitating the opportunity for them to do something personally meaningful. Further, individuals with good PJ fit will want to maintain this level of fit, therefore loyal behaviours help to ensure the ongoing health and success of their organisation and safeguard their current PJ fit so that they have to find a new job. Additionally, individuals that share common goals with their organisation are likely to identify with that organisation because they share the same goal orientation and mission, which is likely to increase their overall attachment to that organisation through the individual fostering an affinity towards the organisation (Druckman, 1994).

Similarly, it would be expected that individuals with high PJ fit will want to remain with their organisation due to their job matching their personal characteristics. Quitting intentions are not per se a behaviour, but represent an individual’s intent, desire, or plan for behaviour, namely, to leave their current organisation (Igbaria & Greenhaus, 1992). An employee’s intentions to leave could be the result of many reasons, for example, lack of job and career satisfaction (Igbaria & Greenhaus, 1992), low commitment to the organisation (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979), or perceived attractive job alternatives (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Research and literature regarding employee intentions to leave their organisation also contends that employees will want to leave their organisation when their expectations are not met (van Dam, 2008). As outlined above, individuals are likely to apply for jobs partly based upon expectations of the job actualising their motivation. Not having those expectations met would indicate a low PJ fit, which under certain circumstances, could motivate individuals to seek employment elsewhere. Hence, quitting intentions indicate a PJ misfit (Wang, Hall, & Rahimi, 2015).

In summary, I argue that individuals with high PSM levels are likely to demonstrate higher attachment (i.e. loyalty and absence of quitting intentions) because of a good PJ fit. PJ fit is a more appropriate mediator than other measures of person-environment such as person-organisation fit because the congruence between an individual and their job has more
pertinence for fulfilling their underlying pro-social motivations than the congruence between an individual and their organisation and this would lead to increased organisational loyalty and decreased likelihood of leaving their organisation. There is a higher probability that a pro-social individual will have their PSM actualised (increasing their loyalty and decreasing their desires to leave their organisation) through having a pro-socially orientated job than it would be for them working within a pro-socially orientated organisation because their job outputs can directly actualise their PSM in a way that the congruence between the individual and their organisation (their person-organisation fit) does not. Therefore, the following is hypothesised:

\[ H1: \text{PJ Fit mediates the positive relationship between Public Service Motivation and Organisational Loyalty (H1a) and the negative relationship between Public Service Motivation and Quitting Intentions (H1b).} \]

The Mediating role of Pro-Social Values Fulfilment and Job Crafting in the relationship between PSM and PJ Fit

There is substantial research exploring outcomes associated with pro-socially motivated individuals having good PJ fit (e.g. Bright, 2007; Steijn, 2008; Christensen, & Wright, 2011; Kim, 2012). I apply these insights here to better understand the relationship between pro-social concepts, such as PSM, and PJ fit, focussing on two of those mechanisms, pro-social value fulfilment and job crafting.

As explained in chapter four, PSM, like all forms of motivation, is derived from the goal of fulfilling personally held values (Rokeach, 1973). Individuals with high PSM levels are interested in fulfilling their pro-social values as these are aligned with their desire to benefit others (Vandenabeele, 2007; Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). In this way, pro-social values guide motivation towards pro-social behaviours and actions over non-pro-social alternatives (Prince-Gibson & Schwartz, 1998; Schwartz, 1992) as a means of fulfilling their pro-social values (Parks & Guay, 2009). The fulfilment of values results in the gratification of psychological desires and rewards (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Keltner et al., 2014). The goal contents and goal striving sub-components of PSM combine to give individuals with high levels of PSM the drive and direction needed to energise and persist in behaviours that fulfil their pro-social values. This fulfilment of their pro-social values signals that individuals with high PSM levels might also have high PJ fit (Cable & Judge, 1996). I therefore propose that:
The relationship between PSM and PJ fit is also likely to be mediated by job crafting. Job crafting theory argues that individuals, when given the opportunity, will redesign aspects of their job to be more personally meaningful, engaging, and satisfying (Demerouti, 2014). Job crafting is about changing aspects of the job that are within the individual’s discretion and control to better match an employee’s desires (Berg & Dutton, 2008). PSM can elicit job crafting behaviours to facilitate the fulfilment of the pro-social values that underpin PSM. For example, a pro-socially motivated individual may job craft so that he/she spends more of their time at work directly interacting with members of the public, rather than doing administrative work, in order to better fulfil their pro-social values. I therefore argue that the higher an individual’s PSM, the more motivated they would be to job craft in order to achieve better levels PJ fit.

PJ fit is directly influenced by job crafting because it represents a means of increasing aspects of person-environment fit (Chen, Yen, & Tsai, 2014; Lu, Wang, Lu, Du, & Bakker, 2014; Tims, Derks, & Bakker, 2016). Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) argue that employees craft their jobs in three different ways, crafting the tasks their job requires, crafting their working interpersonal relationships, and crafting their cognitive attitude towards their work. When given the opportunity to job craft these aspects of their work, employees experience increased PJ fit through altering the design and social environment of their job to better fit their own notion of what it should be (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) and shaping it to meet one’s ability and needs (Lu, Wang, Lu, Du, & Bakker, 2014). No job is designed to perfectly fit the characteristics of an individual, therefore there will always be a certain level of incongruency between an individual and the job that they do. Individuals with high PSM levels are therefore likely to attempt to augment aspects of their work to better facilitate their PSM actualisation and increasing their PJ fit in the process. Based on this rationale I propose the following hypothesis:

H3: Job Crafting mediates the relationship between Public Service Motivation and PJ Fit.
METHOD

Participants and Procedure

This research used 133 full time housing association employees as participants. Housing associations are not-for-profit organisations that operate independently of government but receive money from the public purse. They are responsible for housing people and families who are in need of it. Of the participants 56.9% were female, with a mean age just under 46 years, and a mean organisational tenure of nearly 10.5 years.

Prior to each wave of data collection, all employees of the organisation were informed, by the organisation, that they would be contacted in the near future by the researchers. All employees were informed by the organisation that they could carry out the surveys during their working day and that their participation was entirely optional and not compulsory. All participants were encouraged by the researchers and the organisation to participate at each data collection stage, regardless of whether they took part in the previous wave or not. Participants were ensured, by both the researchers and the organisation, that their responses would remain confidential and that any results or outputs from the research would not contain any information that could be personally linked back to them.
Measurements were collected over three time periods, tracking participant answers via their email address. Each of the measurements was collected six months apart from each other. The first measurement was sent to 1088 employees of which 344 successfully completed the survey, giving a 32.00% response rate. The second measurement was sent to 999 employees of which 313 successfully completed the survey, yielding a response rate of 31.33%. The third and final measurement was sent to 1003 employees of which 244 participants successfully completed the survey, giving a 24.33% response rate. This left us with 133 participants that completed all three measurements.

Measurements were taken over different time periods in order to help minimise common method bias. PSM was taken from the first measurement while PJ fit, fulfilment of pro-social values, and job crafting behaviours were taken six months later in the second measurement, with both organisational loyalty and quitting intentions being measured in the third measurement taken six months after the second measurement and 12 months after the first measurement.

Measures

The full survey with all items can be found in Appendix. Cronbach Alphas are in diagonal in Table 5.1.

Public Service Motivation (T1): To measure PSM, I used the 16-item Kim et al. (2013) PSM scale. An introductory question asked, “Below are statements about different general values people tend to hold. Please state to what extent you agree with each of the below” and participants were given response options ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Examples of items used include “I admire people who initiate or are involved in activities to aid my community” and “I think equal opportunities for citizens are very important”. This measure is argued to be more international and less American centric in its scope than the alternative Perry (1996) PSM instrument, although both have been shown to have more than adequate validity and reliability.

Person-Job Fit (T2): In order to capture PJ fit I utilised the needs–supplies fit measure by Cable and DeRue (2002), who developed items based upon the work of Edwards (1991) and Kristof (1996). These three items consist of “There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job”, “The attributes that I look for in a job are fulfilled very well by my present job”, and “The job that I currently hold gives me just about everything that I want from a job”. Response anchors ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).
agree). This measurement was used due to the validity it has demonstrated in the past (e.g. Latham and Pinder, 2005; Greguras and Diefendorff, 2009).

**Organisational Loyalty (T3):** five items from Lee and Allen’s (2002) widely used Organisational Citizenship Behaviours beneficial to the Organisation (OCBO) scale were used to measure organisational loyalty. Participants were asked to read the items and to indicate how often in the last month they enacted the behaviours indicated in the items using a five point response scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (a great extent). Examples items include “Expressed loyalty toward your organisation”, and “Took action to protect your organisation from potential problems”.

**Quitting Intentions (T3):** Participants were asked the single item “within the next 2 years, how likely are you to leave your current organisation for a job in another organisation?” in order to measure their quitting intentions. Response anchors ranged from 1 (extremely likely) to 5 (extremely unlikely). This item was reverse coded so that a higher score would indicate a participant wanting to leave their organisation (rather than wanting to stay there). Single items have been shown to act as both a succinct and reliable way in which to capture an individual’s intention to leave (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Nagy, 2002).

**Pro-social Values Fulfilled (T2):** I amended Schwartz’s (1992) Portrait Values Questionnaire measure which captures self-transcendence values. These are values that are oriented towards other individuals, their welfare, well-being, and the general public good. These items remained the same as in the original instrument, however the instructions asked participants to indicate to what extent their current job allowed them to fulfil a particular value (e.g. ‘to ensure people are treated equally). Responses for the PVQ range on a five point Likert-type from ‘Not at all’ to ‘Very’. The measures of the PVQ have been validated in over 60 countries (Racko, 2017b) and provide an accurate measure to use.

**Job Crafting (T2):** I used 10 items from Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli, and Hetland’s (2012) who adapted from Tims, Bakker, and Derks’ (2012) job crafting instrument. Participants indicated how often they conducted each behaviour during the last month, with items including “Tried to learn new things are work”, and “Asked for more responsibilities”. Items were measured on a five point ratings scale ranging from 1 (never’) to 5 (very often).

**Control Variables:** Age and organisational tenure were assessed and used as control variables in the study because they are perceived to be theoretically relevant. Tenure was used as a control for organisational loyalty because participants who had been with the organisation a long time might be loyal to their organisation due to their long tenure (Wright & Bonett, 2002) and not due to PJ fit as was predicted. Age was used to control for quitting intentions as
age has been shown to predict thoughts an employee has about leaving their current organisation (Camerino et al., 2008).

Following suggestions by Podsakoff and Organ (1986) and Fraley (2007), steps were taken to ensure common method bias and social desirability were kept to a minimum. These steps included taking such measures as item randomisation, attention check items, combining dimensions from different concepts within the same section of the questionnaire, and collecting data over different waves.

Data Analysis

To test mediation predictions, I used the PROCESS v.2 add on to SPSS (Version 24) software. Bootstrapping analysis (using 10,000 bootstrapping samples) was utilised as this procedure deals with the non-normality that can be present in mediated effects (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Significant mediation takes place when the confidence intervals do not cross, nor contain, zero. I utilised measured variables over latent variables in the model to remain within the recommended number of observations per estimate parameter (Bentler & Chou, 1987).

Panel participation bias was assessed using the same procedure as in chapter Three. I computed a dummy variable indicating employees who completed all three surveys (1) versus those who completed the just the first survey (0). A logistic regression analysis indicated that there were no difference in the demographic characteristics (e.g. age, gender, tenure, management level) of the participants that that did all three surveys vs those that only did the first survey.

RESULTS

The means, standard deviations, Cronbach alphas, and correlations between all of the study variables are presented in Table 5.1 below.
Before turning to the hypotheses, the quality of the measurement model was examined. The measurement model consisting of the six core variables had an adequate fit ($\chi^2 = 819.79; \text{df} = 535, p < .01, \text{CFI} = .83, \text{RMSEA} = .06$). The measures were examined for any possible heteroscedasticity and multicollinearity issues. A histogram of the standardised residuals indicated a normal distribution of the data and the errors were assessed as constant and independent of each other via a scatter plot, indicating there to be no heteroscedasticity concerns. To detect any multicollinearity between the variables of this study, VIF tests were employed. The highest VIF value found was found between pro-social values fulfilled and quitting intention (1.77). All VIF scores were well below the score of 3 so there are no multicollinearity concerns (Berk, 2003). AVE tests showed there to be discriminant validity in accordance with the Fornell–Larcker criterion. All latent constructs had a higher AVE values than the value of the highest squared correlation with any other latent variable (PSM AVE = .22 > .19 (with pro-social value fulfilment); Pro-social value fulfilment AVE = .43 > .19 (with PSM); PJ Fit AVE = .78 > .18 (with pro-social value fulfilment); Job Crafting AVE = .64 > .04 (with quitting intentions); Organisational Loyalty AVE = .50 > .13 (with PSM)).

To assess if common method bias was an issue, I employed the unmeasured latent method factor approach as suggested by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003). Including an unmeasured latent method factor did not improve the fit compared to the measurement model ($\chi^2 = 821.01; \text{df} = 536, p < .01, \text{CFI} = .82, \text{RMSEA} = .07; \Delta \chi^2 = 1.22, \Delta \text{df} = 1, p = .26$). I conclude that model fit common method bias was unlikely to influence the data for this study.

The hypotheses are depicted in Figure 5.1 and the results are summarised in Table 5.2 through to Table 5.5. Hypothesis 1a states that PJ fit mediates the relationship between PSM and organisational loyalty. Results indicate that PSM had a positive association with PJ fit ($b = .43, t(130) = 2.25, p = .03$), and PJ fit was only found to have a marginally significant association with organisational loyalty ($b = .16, t(129) = 1.76, p = .08$). The mediation analysis established an indirect effect from PSM to organisational loyalty via PJ fit ($b = .07, \text{SE} = .04$).

### Table 5.1: Means, Standard Deviations, Cronbach Alphas, and Correlations for study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Public Service Motivation (T1)</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Pro-Social Values Fulfilled (T2)</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.44**</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Job Crafting (T2)</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.17*</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>(82)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Person-Job Fit (T2)</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.21*</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>(.88)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Organisational Loyalty (T3)</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.25**</td>
<td>(.81)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Quitting Intentions (T3)</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.34**</td>
<td>-.22**</td>
<td>-.26**</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Age (T1)</td>
<td>45.80</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>.27*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Tenure (T1)</td>
<td>10.41</td>
<td>9.49</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.19**</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: N= 133; * = p < .05, ** = p < .01; Cronbach Alphas are presented on the diagonal
H1a was supported. Hypothesis 1b states that PJ fit mediated the relationship between PSM and quitting intentions. Results indicate that PSM has a positive relationship with PJ fit ($b = .41$, $t(130) = 2.17$, $p = .03$) and that PJ fit has a negative relationship with quitting intentions ($b = -.32$, $t(129) = 2.43$, $p = .02$). The mediation analysis established an indirect effect from PSM to quitting intentions via PJ fit ($b = -.13$, SE = .08, [95% CI = .02, .34]). H1b was supported.

The second hypothesis predicted that pro-social value fulfilment mediates the relationship between PSM and PJ fit. Results indicate that PSM has a positive relationship with pro-social value fulfilment ($b = .58$, $t(131) = 5.57$, $p = < .01$) and that pro-social value fulfilment is positively associated with PJ fit ($b = .64$, $t(130) = 4.78$, $p = < .01$). The indirect effect from PSM to PJ fit via pro-social value fulfilment was significant ($b = .37$, SE = .11, [95% CI = .20, .63]). H2 was supported.

The third hypothesis predicted that job crafting mediated the relationship between PSM and PJ fit. PSM has a significant relationship with job crafting behaviours ($b = .24$, $t(131) = 2.00$, $p = .05$) and job crafting behaviours has a significant relationship with PJ fit ($b = -.23$, $t(130) = -1.83$, $p = .07$), though both only significant at the 10% level. The indirect effect from PSM to PJ fit was not significant ($b = -.05$, SE = .05, [95% CI = -.20, .01]). H3 was rejected.

### Table 5.2: Regression Results for PJ Fit and Organisational Loyalty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>PJ Fit</th>
<th></th>
<th>Organisational Loyalty</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$b$</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>$t$</td>
<td>SE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>- .01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.67</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSM</td>
<td>.43*</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>.51**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-J Fit</td>
<td>.16†</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>9.03**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: † = $p < .10$, * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$

### Table 5.3: Regression Results for PJ Fit and Quitting Intentions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>PJ Fit</th>
<th></th>
<th>Quitting Intentions</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$b$</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>$t$</td>
<td>$b$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>.02†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSM</td>
<td>.41*</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>-.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-J Fit</td>
<td>-.32*</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>3.99*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>3.98*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.99*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: † = $p < .10$, * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$
DISCUSSION

PSM research is built upon the idea that there are individuals who are strongly motivated to do work that benefits society-at-large and, through this work, positive employee and organisational outcomes occur. There is, however, an implicit assumption that individuals with high PSM levels will be in positions where they are able to actualise their PSM and contribute to society as much as they are motivated to. This chapter addresses this assumption and develops a rationale for how PSM associates with beneficial organisational outcomes. I used PJ fit as a theoretical explanation for why PSM relates to organisational attachment (i.e. organisational loyalty and quitting intentions), further predicting that pro-social value fulfilment and job crafting behaviours can explain the relationship between PSM and PJ fit.

PJ fit was found to help explain why individuals with high levels of PSM exhibited organisational attachment behaviours of organisational loyalty and quitting intentions. Meaning, when these individuals experience high levels of congruence between their personal and job characteristics they behave in a way that is more loyal to their organisation and are less likely to intend to quit. I also found empirical evidence that the fulfilment of an individual’s pro-social values, but not their job crafting behaviours, helps explain why PSM associates with PJ fit. Results of this study suggest that high PSM individuals experience better congruence between their own and their organisations characteristics, because their pro-social values are fulfilled.
This research contributes to PSM theory and research in a number of ways. PJ fit matters in explaining why PSM links to organisational loyalty and quitting intentions. This brings with it a number of implications for PSM theory. First, it clarifies and confirms assumptions made about the relationship between PSM and beneficial outcomes. PSM research builds on the assumption that individuals with high levels of PSM, that are employed within pro-social organisations, should experience beneficial organisational outcomes due to the pro-social orientation shared between them both. This research provides evidence that PJ fit explains this relationship for two types of behaviour-related outcomes, organisational loyalty and quitting intentions. Assumptions regarding fit between individuals with high levels of PSM and their pro-social organisations should not only be made based upon symmetry between the individual and their organisations pro-social orientation. Instead more attention should be paid to the nature/design of the work that the individual with high PSM levels does. This is also a way to understand how PSM research can flourish outside of public organisations, as ultimately it is the fit between individual and job that matters, in addition to the fit between individual and organisation.

Combining the results from H1a and H1b together raises the question as to whether PJ fit matters more for the quitting intentions of individuals with high PSM levels than it does for their organisational loyalty. Exploring the relationship between PSM and loyalty behaviours further, I found no direct link between PSM and quitting intentions (please see Table 5.1), however a significant indirect effect via PJ fit was found. While for organisational loyalty this research found PSM to have both a significant direct and indirect effect via PJ fit (see Table 5.2), the direct effect was much stronger. This could mean that organisational loyalty is less of an indicator of organisational attachment and more a conduit through which individuals with high PSM levels pursue their pro-social goals. Meaning, individuals with high PSM are loyal to their organisation more due to their PSM being facilitated than because their personal characteristics are matched well with their job characteristics. This finding is in line with the findings of chapter three in which service delivery individualistic behaviours but not helping behaviours were associated with PSM motives. This suggests that, for individuals with high PSM levels, their efforts are very much orientated towards helping the needs of society-at-large and not the needs of individuals, be they colleagues (via helping behaviours) or even themselves (via the increased satisfaction from increased PJ fit). Another explanation for this could be that PJ fit matters less than pro-social value fulfilment does. A post hoc test indeed ascertained a direct effect from pro-social value fulfilment to organisational loyalty \( (b = .26, t(124) = 2.40, p = 02) \), and a mediation analysis established a significant indirect effect from
PSM to organisational loyalty via pro-social value fulfilment \((b = .15, \ SE = .09, [95\% \ CI = .01, .37])\). These post-hoc results suggest that, given the indirect effect of PSM on organisational loyalty was significant but small (i.e. \(b = .07, \ SE = .04, [95\% \ CI = .01, .20]\), pro-social value fulfilment might be an equally good explanation for why PSM is associated with organisational loyalty compared to PJ fit at explaining this relationship.

In summary, both pro-social value fulfiment and PJ fit can be seen as relevant concepts in explaining the relationship individuals with high PSM levels have with quitting intentions and organisational loyalty respectively. This renders some support of the implicit assumptions within PSM research and literature regarding fit explaining the relationship PSM has with beneficial outcomes. However, future research will have to endeavour not to take fit for granted.

Counter to expectations, instead of finding job crafting to have a positive relationship with PJ fit a negative relationship with found. Additionally, counter to expectations the relationship job crafting had with PSM that was only significant at the .10 level. This could suggest a number of things. Perhaps participants felt there was not much scope within their job in which they could job craft. Tight managerial control and lack of autonomy might give very little scope for participants to exhibit job crafting behaviours. Another reason might be that individuals with high PSM levels, for whatever reason, do not engage with job crafting behaviours, or if they do they are unsuccessful in their efforts. Alternatively, the relationship job crafting has with PJ fit could be the result of participants not being able/allowed to job craft the aspects of their job that are meaningful to them. Here job crafting efforts might draw these individuals away from the aspects of their job that are meaningful to them (increasing their PJ fit levels) and towards aspects of their job that, although they have more agency over, decrease their overall PJ fit. Research carried out by Tims, Derk and Bakker (2016) suggest that job crafting creates job resources which allows individuals to better and more easily go about doing their work, this in turn lessens burden of the job demands placed on that individual doing their job and subsequently increases their PJ fit. When looking at the results from this study through the lens of Tims et al. (2016), it could be the case that the participants of this study job crafted, but were unable to increase their job resources or unable to decrease their job demands resulting in decreased PJ fit. This could be the result of the participants evaluating negatively the fit of their work in conjuncture with their own characteristics because of the failure of their job crafting behaviours to yield increased job resources and/or decrease the demands of their job. This has implications for future research that will be discussed in the next section.
Limitations and Future Directions for Research

No research is without its limitations and it is important to acknowledge these. The participants for this study were all from a single para-public organisation so there are generalisability issues with these findings. However, the inclusion of data collected from outside the traditional public sector mainstay of PSM significantly adds to the texture and nuance of the PSM research. Research by Lyons, Duxbury, and Higgins (2006) examining employee values found para-public employees to value their pro-social work more than their private or public sector counterparts did. Furthermore, collecting and publishing PSM data from outside of the public sector helps to diminish the belief that PSM is exclusively a public organisation/sector concept, by increasing the incidences of non-public sector data that is collected (Andersen & Kjeldsen, 2013).

The data was exclusively collected through self-reported measures and asked questions that were of a sensitive nature. Such questions are prone to social desirability biases (Kim & Kim, 2016). To help combat this, there was emphasis on the externality and independence of the researcher from the host organisation and participants were made aware that their data could not be tracked back to them by the organisation. A better alternative in future would be to, where possible, collect objective data.

Job crafting behaviours were not found to mediate the relationship between PSM and PJ fit. The results could be due to a number of factors. Public institutions are less flexible than their private counterparts (Boyne, 2002), therefore the opportunities individuals get to meaningfully job craft in a way that would increase their PJ fit might prove to be negligible. Alternatively, the results might reflect a mix of participants, some that succeed in job crafting and those who do not. Future research should examine the causal relationships more specifically.

While this study highlights the importance of PJ fit when it comes to PSM and attachment-related outcomes, it does not specifically address the experience and processes of individuals who are high on PSM but experience low PJ fit. Attraction-selection-attrition literature (Schneider, Smith, & Goldstein, 2000) proposes individuals with low levels of PJ fit would leave their job and either take up a new career or join a new organisation with the same job, but there are many reasons that can prevent employees from doing so. For instance, healthcare jobs can require years of training before individuals are able to obtain a job (e.g. Doctors, nurses, etc.), therefore an early career change due to poor PJ fit may not be possible due to the amount of time and effort that has already been invested by the individual. Highly
pro-socially motivated employees will still have strong desires to do pro-social work despite their poor PJ fit. Although the results of the study were inconclusive, I speculate that these individuals might job craft in an attempt to try and increase their PJ fit. There is a dearth of research concerning the outcomes associated with individuals who are high in PSM experiencing a lack of PJ fit. Research in this area could help instruct public orientated organisations on how to retain highly motivated individuals who may otherwise leave.

**Practical Implications**

This research highlights the importance of PJ fit for individuals with high PSM. Public organisations therefore should not assume positive benefits associated with PJ fit simply because they have selection procedures aimed at recruiting employees with high PSM levels. This point is also pertinent considering a recent review of PSM literature by Ritz et al. (2016), which identifies the most mentioned practical implication of PSM research (18.6% of all PSM research they looked at) is to consider an individual’s PSM as a selection criteria. Individuals high in PSM who work within public organisations will not inevitably experience high incidences of PJ fit; therefore, in order for individuals to obtain the benefits associated with good PJ fit, it is pertinent to examine and then utilise factors which help explicate this relationship and its subsequent outcomes (Warr & Inceoglu, 2012).

Organisations should take measures to make sure that the jobs their employees carry out are designed in a way that assist the organisation and fulfils their employees, if they wish to increase their employee’s organisational attachment. This research indicates that this can be achieved through the fulfilment of pro-social values. Doing so will help employees perceive greater levels of congruence between their characteristics and their organisations characteristics. Similarly, organisations should make attempts to not degrade their employees’ perceptions of PJ fit by introducing work aspects that could be perceived as barriers to them achieving greater levels of PJ fit. Both the fulfilment of pro-social values and the amount of PJ fit experienced by an individual are based upon that individual’s subjective evaluation. These can both be influenced by organisations communicating to their employee’s how their work efforts are helping benefit society. By providing their pro-social employees with a better understanding of the pro-social good their work does, organisations can assist individuals in having a sense of fulfilling their pro-social values and leading to a better sense of PJ fit and subsequent organisational attachment. Pro-social organisations face more scrutiny and can be more bureaucratic than non-pro-social organisations (Boyne, 2002) and these factors could be
perceived as organisational barriers by individuals, stopping them from achieving higher incidences of PJ fit. This might help to explain why PSM is associated with higher perceptions of red tape (Giauque, Ritz, Varone, & Anderfuhrren-Biget, 2012).

Conclusion

PSM theory and research links PSM with evermore beneficial outcomes (Ritz et al., 2016), therefore a better understanding of the processes by which PSM might relate to these outcomes aids researchers in better understanding the PSM concept per se and its boundary conditions. Establishing PJ fit as an explanation as to why PSM associates with higher rates of organisation loyalty and lower quitting intentions adds credence to the notion that individuals with high PSM levels need to be in jobs, and not necessarily just organisations, in which they share similar characteristics if they are to feel loyalty to their organisation and not want to leave.
REFERENCES


Chapter Six -

Taking Public Service Motivation Forward

The popularity and prevalence of PSM continues to grow (Kroll & Vogel, 2014; Bozeman & Su, 2015; Vandenabeele & Skelcher, 2015; Vandenabeele, Ritz, & Neumann, 2018). However, important questions about PSM still remain. This thesis sought to address current issues surrounding PSM as well as to advance our knowledge and understanding of the concept. A deeper conceptual and theoretical understanding of PSM would bring a number of benefits for various PSM stakeholders. First, researchers and theorists can build upon the insights of this thesis to highlight a conceptual space that is unique to PSM, differentiating it from other similar concepts (Bozeman & Su, 2014). Second, insights from this thesis can aid in the creation of new PSM instruments to better capture the drive and direction elements associated with motivation (Parks & Guay, 2009) and which are less susceptible to measuring related concepts like values, attitudes and beliefs. Third, insights from the thesis might be beneficial to organisations and practitioners alike in helping to develop better create working environments and practices that are conducive to individuals with high PSM. These will facilitate the alignment of the pro-social work that highly pro-social individuals do in a way that harnesses their PSM and benefits the individual, organisations, and society as a whole. Finally, the insights can help individuals with high PSM levels to pay attention to how self-sacrifice affects themselves, in particular, how they potentially may incur negative well-being outcomes through self-sacrificing. This information would allow individuals with high PSM levels to protect and guard themselves from the negative well-being consequences associated with PSM.

In this chapter I will briefly reiterate the main findings and contributions of each of the three empirical chapters contained within this thesis before further detailing the contributions of the thesis as a whole with suggestions of future directions PSM research could take based upon them.
THESIS FINDINGS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

The Conceptualisation of PSM

The first empirical chapter (chapter three) of this thesis aimed to address one of the core concerns related to PSM, namely its conceptualisation and theoretical properties (Vandenabeele, Ritz, & Neumann, 2018). Results from this chapter found PSM to be embedded within pro-social values and lead to behavioural outcomes. Conceptualising PSM up in accordance with a process-based approach to motivation, I suggested to split the concept into its goal content (i.e. PSM motive dimensions) and goal striving subsystems (i.e. self-sacrifice). From this division I found that the PSM motives dimensions had no association with helping behaviours, a pro-social behaviour aimed a society individuals, but associated with service delivery, a type of societal pro-social behaviour. Conceptualising PSM in this way also allowed me to theorise that self-sacrifice explained the relationships between PSM motives dimensions and both service delivery and helping behaviours. Results confirmed these assumptions.

Chapter three contributes to the understanding of PSM in two main ways. Firstly, placing PSM between its conceptual neighbours, values and behaviours, contributed by sharpening the conceptualisation of PSM as a form of motivation. PSM was found to bridge the relationship between pro-social values and subsequent pro-social behaviours, thus fulfilling the role of motivation and supporting the conceptualisation of PSM as a form of motivation. Second, applying a process-based approach to motivation and breaking PSM down into goal contents and goal striving subsystems contributed by highlighting the specific role of self-sacrifice within PSM. While PSM motives orient individuals towards their pro-social goal, self-sacrifice provides a means through which these goals can be achieved. Previous research had signposted self-sacrifice as important (Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010) but never detailed why.

Explaining PSM’s Relationship with Well-Being

Somewhat surprisingly to the research who first tested it (Giauque, Anderfuhren-Biget, & Varone, 2013), PSM can associate with negative well-being outcomes. Subsequent researchers have found similar findings (Liu, Yang, & Yu, 2015; van Loon, Vandenabeele, & Leisink, 2015). Building upon the findings from the previous chapter my second empirical chapter (Chapter four) sought to explore whether self-sacrifice of resources explained the
This chapter found self-sacrifice to associate with the expenditure of personal time and energy resources as well as the fulfilment of pro-social values. Interestingly, the fulfilment of pro-social values was found to mediate the relationship self-sacrifice has with negative well-being outcomes but not the relationship it has with positive well-being outcomes.

Chapter four makes the following contributions to PSM theory and research. First, through the integration of conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989) it highlights the role resources play in explaining how PSM influences well-being outcomes. This contributes to PSM theory by emphasising resources and how they provide a mechanism through which PSM’s influences well-being outcomes. Individuals with high PSM levels self-sacrifice their resource in order to fulfil their pro-social values. Resources act as a type of currency in which individuals with high PSM levels invest into their pro-social value fulfilment. Second, this chapter makes a conceptual contribution to PSM through drawing attention to the part that self-sacrifice plays in fulfilling the pro-social values which underpin PSM. Within PSM research self-sacrifice has thus far largely been ignored (Wright, 2008). By demonstrating the role of self-sacrifice, my research contributes by highlighting and advocating for its inclusion within PSM research.

**Addressing Assumptions Regarding Fit**

The final empirical chapter of this thesis (chapter five) aimed to test implicit assumptions made within PSM research, namely that individuals with high levels of PSM will experience high levels of fit between their and their employers characteristics when they share public orientation. Using person-job fit (PJ fit) as a measure of the congruence between an individual and their job characteristics, my research tested the relationship between PSM and organisational loyalty and quitting intentions. This study also investigated how pro-social value fulfilment and job crafting behaviours explained the relationship between PSM and PJ fit. I found that fulfilment of pro-social mediated the relationship between PSM and PJ fit, however job crafting did not.

Chapter five contributes to the understanding of PSM in the following ways. First, through using PJ fit as a conceptual lens my research clarifies assumptions made how PSM relates to its associated beneficial outcomes such as organisational loyalty and quitting intentions. PSM researchers have made the implicit assumption that individuals with high PSM levels will experience positive outcomes from working within a pro-social organisation. I here
focused on fit with between individual and their job, rather than individual and their organisation. My research contributes by showing that the match between an individuals and the characteristics of their job plays in explaining the relationships PSM has with beneficial outcomes. Second, it emphasises the use of PJ fit as a more suitable measurement of person-environment fit due to job characteristics theoretically being more tangible to individuals. Placing importance on the characteristics of the job instead of on the characteristics of the organisation, or sector, an individual works in, contributes to PSM theory by highlighting the possible impact of PSM research outside of the traditional public sector area. Third, bringing to light how the fulfilment of pro-social values helps to explain the relationship between PSM and PJ fit underscores the significance that comes from value fulfilment.

In the next section I will discuss the overall contributions of my thesis, the implications of my research, and directions future PSM research can take to further our understanding of the PSM concept.

**Implications Of Research And Future Research Directions**

**A Clearer Conceptualisation: PSM as a Motivation**

Previous PSM research has defined PSM using a number of different and at times theoretically inconsistent constructs. For instance, values (Vandenabeele, 2007), needs (Perry & Wise, 1990), reward preferences (Kim & Kim, 2016), attitudes (Taylor, 2008), and commitment (Scott & Pandey, 2005) have all exclusively or in combination been used to describe and define PSM. In the third column of Table 6.1 (see below) I have taken definitions of PSM from PSM research and literature and highlighted in bold concepts have been used in defining PSM. In the column before this, I have placed a definition of this concept used within its own theory and literature field. This was done to help demonstrate how disperse in conceptual meaning the concepts used to describe PSM are, and in doing so highlight why there is need to better conceptualise and define PSM as a concept. Though there is some overlap between these concepts, they all have strong conceptual backgrounds, and are considered to be distinct phenomena, with potentially different antecedents, consequences, and processes. Bozeman and Su (2015) argue that in order for PSM to be considered a useful concept outside of its core scholarly audience it must offer its own distinctive contribution to move beyond being the contested concept that it is (Wright and Grant, 2010; Moynihan, Vandenabeele, & Blom-Hansen, 2013; Vandenabeele, Brewer, & Ritz, 2014).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Definition outside of PSM research</th>
<th>Definition of PSM within PSM research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>An evaluation targeted at a given object or person (Ajzen, 2005)</td>
<td>“PSM is a cluster of motives, values, and attitudes on serving the public interest” (Taylor, 2008, p. 67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief</td>
<td>Something taken to be the case or regard it as true (Schwitzgebel, 2011)</td>
<td>PSM is defined as “the belief, value 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. 549)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Desirable trans-situational goals that vary in importance and serve as guiding principles (Schwartz, 1994)</td>
<td>“Operationalized public service motivation as work-related values or reward preference such as the employees’ desire to help others, benefit society, or engage in meaningful public service” (Wright and Pandey, 2008, p. 503–4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“Public service motivation is an expression of prosocial and other-oriented motives and values and actually represents an individual’s predisposition to enact altruistic or pro-social behaviors regardless of setting” (Liu, Tang, and Zhu, 2008, p.720)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need</td>
<td>A biological requirement needing satisfaction in order to ensure survival and well-being (Locke, 1991)</td>
<td>“PSM consists of [the] fulfilment of higher-order needs…. The will to act in congruence or consistency with public value is a specific need or motivates of public employees” (Anderfuhr-Biget et al., 2010, p.217)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>Cognitive representation of a desired state (Parks &amp; Guay, 2009)</td>
<td>PSM is a “specific expression of prosocial, other-oriented motives, goals and values. PSM understood either as institutionally unique motives associated with public service, or beliefs and values that transcends self and organizational interests on behalf of a larger political entity, could be conceived as a subset, for instance, of the overarching idea of altruism” (Perry and Hondeghem, 2008b, p.295)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethic</td>
<td>A moral set of rules to live by (Singer, 2011)</td>
<td>“Consistent with conventional wisdom in public administration that government employment is a calling, public service motivation assumes bureaucrats are characterized by an ethic to serve the public. They act out of a commitment to the common good rather than mere self-interest.” (Houston, 2006, p.67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>A state of being in which the individual becomes bound by their actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the involvement activities (Salancik, 1977)</td>
<td>The public service motive assumes that “public employees are public servants who are committed to the public good and characterized by an ethic that is built on benevolence, life in the service of others, and a desire to affect the community” (Houston and Cartwright, 2007, p.89)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PSM is a “concept that denotes the idea of commitment to the public service, pursuit of the public interest, and the desire to perform work that is worthwhile to society” (Scott and Pandey, 2005, p.156)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motive</td>
<td>Cognitive representation of a goal that is detached from either action or affect Kagan (1972)</td>
<td>“An individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations” (Perry and Wise, 1990, p. 368)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>“PSM is a cluster of motives, values, and attitudes on serving the public interest” (Taylor, 2008, p. 67)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This thesis has sought to contribute to PSM theory and research by conceptualising and empirically testing PSM as a form of motivation. This sharpens the conceptual boundaries of PSM and operates as a starting point where later subsequent conceptual distinctiveness can be established. Throughout the three empirical chapters contained within my thesis, PSM consistently fulfilled the function of a motivation, in that it bridged and performed as a conduit between values (as its antecedent) and behaviours (as its outcomes). For instance, chapter three showcased how PSM motives helped to explain the relationship pro-social values had with pro-social behaviours. Chapter four highlighted how self-sacrifice, as part of PSM, influenced behaviours that expended time and energy resources. While chapter five found PSM (through PJ fit) to influence organisational attachment behaviours. This body of research provides a great deal of empirical support for PSMs conceptualisation as a motivation and thus offers a contribution through this sharper conceptualisation (Vandenabeele, Ritz, & Neumann, 2018).

Conceptualising PSM as a form of motivation also facilitates the use of wider mainstream motivation theory and research to help gleam new insights into PSM. For instance, conceptualising PSM as a motivation allowed me to use a process-based approach of motivation as rationale of why to divide the PSM motive dimensions and self-sacrifice up into goal content and goal striving subsystems. Doing this brought with it invaluable insights into how the PSM motive dimensions provide an orientation for action while self-sacrifice provides the drive and effort needed to make that action happen. In this way using a process-based approach of motivation allowed me to shed light on the internal workings of PSM. This division and alternative understanding of PSM provided a significant contribution to PSM theory as it integrates pre-existing motivation research into PSM. This thesis therefore offers the first tentative steps towards reconciling the differences between PSM and wider motivational theory, opening up the doors for further cross pollination of ideas and understanding.

**The Importance and Role of Self-Sacrifice in PSM**

One of the most important contributions of this research is to bring attention to the importance of self-sacrifice within the PSM concept. Absent within Perry and Wise’s (1990) PSM conceptualisation paper but later theorised to pivotal to the realisation of PSM motives (Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010), self-sacrifice has had a varied history within PSM theory and research. Self-sacrifice is unique within the PSM concept in that it does not capture motives (Perry, 1996; Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010; Kim et al., 2013) but instead is more behavioural in nature due to individuals sacrificing through action or non-action. Building upon this, my thesis
contributes to PSM theory and literature by empirically indicating how self-sacrifice acts as the goal striving element needed for there to be motivation.

Self-sacrifice operates as the part of PSM through which gives the individual the intensity and persistence they need achieving a chosen goal and encompasses the self-regulatory process needed to ensure that sufficient energy and attention are applied should any challenges arise. In this way self-sacrifice is the vital how part needed for motivation to bring about behaviour. Of all the PSM dimensions self-sacrifice is the only dimension to do this, essentially meaning that it is through self-sacrifice that the PSM motives become motivation which lead to PSM outcomes. This is why self-sacrifice is so important within PSM research, why it should be measured within PSM research, and why empirically highlighting this is a contribution this thesis makes.

Public Service Motivation not Public Sector Motivation

Early research (e.g. Perry & Wise, 1990) as well as more recent research (e.g. Vandenabeele, Ritz, & Neumann, 2018) has placed heavy conceptual emphasis on the institutional embeddedness of PSM. This thesis contributes to PSM theory and literature through the use of concepts such as PJ fit and pro-social value fulfilment. Findings for my research support the idea of PSM being orientated towards the pro-social value fulfilment rather than the means by which they are fulfilled. While public institutions provide the greatest number of job opportunities in which individuals might be able to actualise their PSM, the motivation to work within the public sector, or public sector motivation, is fundamentally different from a conceptualisation of PSM where PSM is orientated on benefitting society and not the means by which they do this (Brewer & Selden 1998; Perry & Hondeghem 2008). Using this rationale and building upon the calls of PSM researchers such as Christensen and Wright (2011) and Kjeldsen and Jacobsen (2012), this thesis contributes to PSM theory and literature through expanding the research scope of PSM research outside of its traditional public sector domain highlighting how data collected from participants outside of the public sector can be used to further PSM theory and literature.
The Importance of PSM Actualisation and the Fulfilment of Pro-Social Values

The research contained within this thesis takes a significant departure from previous PSM research and in doing so contributes to PSM research by focusing on the actualisation of PSM and the individual’s ultimate goal of pro-social value fulfilment. Failing to measure if the behaviours influenced by PSM result in pro-social value fulfilment misses the purpose of PSM. PSM influences behaviours in order to achieve the goal of fulfilling pro-social values, so the behaviour itself is not the final goal but a means of its achievement (see figure 1.1). Pro-social behaviours can lead to the fulfilment of pro-social values, but this is not a certainty. Behaviours can be frustrated in their attempts to achieve the goals they are orientated towards. The idea that pro-social behaviours will always actualise PSM and fulfil subsequent pro-social values is, although never directly asserted, built into our current understanding of PSM as evidenced by the lack of research testing and exploring this aspect of PSM. Some PSM studies have used person-environment fit variables (e.g. Steijn, 2008; Christensen & Wright, 2011; Quratulain & Khan, 2015), as a proxy to partly address this issue. However, as detailed within chapter five of this thesis, person-organisation and person-sector fit can prove to be poor indicators of an individual’s value fulfilment. Even person-job fit as a proxy of value fulfilment has limitations because as a subjective evaluation it also includes non-PSM related characteristics that are important to the individual (e.g. autonomy). Ultimately, while measuring PSM’s behavioural outcomes is a step in the right direction for assessing if an individual is fulfilling their values, it stops short of actually measuring if PSM as a motivation accomplishes what it is meant to.

This thesis contributes to PSM theory by going beyond measuring behaviours to measuring pro-social value fulfilment. This is important because the fulfilment of pro-social value helps to explain the relationship between PSM and its outcomes. This thesis demonstrated how pro-social value fulfilment helped to explain the relationship between PSM and PJ fit as well as the relationship self-sacrifice had with negative well-being outcomes. This highlights the importance of pro-social value fulfilment as a variable in explaining the relationship PSM has with other variables.

Before PSM research can fully utilise PSM actualisation it must overcome some methodological issues. There currently exist no dedicated PSM instrument that measures PSM actualisation and existing PSM instruments proved hard to adjusted to perform such a task. For example, items from the Kim et al, (2013) PSM instrument such as ‘I admire people who initiate or are involved in activities to aid my community’ and ‘It is important that citizens can rely on the continuous provision of public services’ would be difficult to adapt in order to make
them measure PSM actualisation. For this, and the reason that it would directly measure the 
fulfilment of pro-social values I augmented Schwartz’s (1992) Portrait Values Questionnaire 
(PVQ). Items within the PVQ was simple to adjust so that they measured the fulfilment of pro-
social values without changing the items so much as to warp their validity. For PSM’s 
actualisation to be quantifiably measured either a current PSM instrument would need to be 
augmented or a dedicated PSM actualisation instrument would have to be created. Otherwise, 
as this thesis did throughout, the fulfilment of pro-social values can be used as a meaningful 
alternative.

The Importance and Uniqueness of PSM

Bozeman and Su (2014) argue that for PSM to prove to be a useful concept it needs to 
offer something distinctive that separates it from other similar concepts. This thesis therefore 
contributes by offering two distinct areas in which PSM is unlike other similar concepts. The 
first, showcased within chapter three of this thesis is that the PSM motives discriminate 
between different types of pro-social behaviour associating with societal level pro-social 
behaviours but not individual level pro-social behaviours. For some, PSM is a synonym for 
pro-social motivation (Wright, Christensen, and Pandey, 2013; Jensen and Andersen, 2015) 
while others state they are different concepts and need to be better disentangled (Awan, Esteve, 
& van Witteloostuijn, 2020). This thesis goes some way to helping with this call through 
demonstrating that individuals with high levels of PSM are motivated to perform pro-social 
behaviours that help society-at-large but not known work colleagues. These findings were in a 
similar vein to the findings of Ritz, Schott, Nitzl, & Alfes, (2020) who found PSM and pro-
social motivation to differ in whom associated behavioural outcomes were orientated towards 
benefitting. In their research they found that PSM associated with societal related pro-social 
behaviours, while pro-social motivation related to individual or psychologically more familiar 
individuals. This suggests that pro-socially orientated organisations should be aware that 
depending on what type of end user they are orientated towards (individuals vs. larger groups), 
the type of motivation they should seek when making hiring decisions and what type of 
motivation they will need to try and draw from their employees, will be different. The findings 
of this thesis in conjunction with research such as Awan et al. (2019) and Ritz et al. (2020) 
would indicate that some pro-social jobs might not be suitable for individuals with high levels 
of PSM just as some pro-social jobs might not be suitable for individuals without PSM. Other 
pro-social concepts such as pro-social values are not theorised to have predilections towards
whom subsequent behaviours should benefit. Results from chapter three (see figure 3.2.) show pro-social values to equally predict both service delivery and helping behaviours which represent societal and individual level pro-social behaviours therefore in line with the motivational sequence (Locke, 1991) shown in figure 1.1 perhaps it is pro-social values that is higher order to both PSM and pro-social motivation. This means that PSM is unique in that it is exclusively orientated towards doing influencing behaviours that benefit large numbers of people (society) over individuals, even when these individuals are personally known to the individual (work colleagues). This characteristic remains to be understudied with PSM researchers and theorists and therefore is an area that could conceptually be developed further.

The second unique area of PSM is how self-sacrifice brings about behaviour within the concept. Mainstream motivation theories and models argue that motivation is the manifestation of attention, effort, and persistence used to achieve a desired goal (Steers et al., 2004). PSM alternatively cites acts of self-sacrifice as the mechanism through which PSM motives are brought to fruition (Kim & Vandenabeele, 2019). In this way PSM fits in with other motivational theories in that all motivational theories are about what the individual will do to achieve their desired goal. The difference is that self-sacrifice with PSM could be classed as a more extreme manifestation of the attention, effort, and persistence used to achieve desired goals. The vast majority of motivation theories and models do not discuss motivation in terms of it possibly being detrimental to the individual. Intrinsic motivation for instance is characterised as pleasurable and inherently satisfying (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Therefore, it can be argued that the notion of being motivated to achieve desired goals through acts of sacrifice is something conceptually unique to PSM. For PSM to gain traction within mainstream organisational behaviour more research needs to be done to develop and highlight such unique contributions and characteristics of PSM; lest the concept be forever only in the domain of public administration.

**Improving Existing PSM Instruments**

With a clearer conceptual understanding of PSM as a motivation, researchers could seek to re-evaluate existing PSM instruments in order to better encapsulate an individual’s motivational aspects to serve society. Existing instruments (e.g. Perry (1996) and Kim et al (2013)) do not capture an individual’s motivation but instead measure aspects of their values, attitudes, beliefs, etc (see Table 6.1 for examples of this). The existing measures are in line with the traditional conceptualisation of PSM, which drew on a number of different concepts.
In Table 6.2 I list all 16 Kim et al. (2013) items and the dimension it belongs to before giving my opinion on the concept the item measures and then making additional comments. Motivation is the expression of attention, effort, and persistence and therefore any measurement of PSM conceptualised as motivation should consider factors which energise, channel, and sustain behaviours over time (Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004). While existing measures could be argued to use attitudes and beliefs as a proxy for capturing the motives, these are different to motivation and do not capture motivation per se. Some of the Kim et al. (2013) items succeed in capturing either the drive or direction elements that are the hallmarks of motivation, however, others are more aligned with attitudes and/or beliefs (see Table 6.1 for examples).

Below I outline some suggestions on how to develop PSM instruments to better align with process-based approaches of motivation. Attraction to public participation, commitment to public values, and compassion could still remain as motive capturing dimensions capturing the instrumental, value-based, and affective motives behind PSM (Kim et al., 2013). These items could draw from the individual’s pro-social values but not to the extent where they operationalise values. Values are generic beliefs about how things ought to be (Parks & Guay, 2009) and are less specific than motives. Therefore items would need to have an element of specificity. For example, an item that states ‘It is important to help others…’ could be argued to measure an individual’s generic pro-social values. But an item asking ‘Helping others who are in need is something that I desire to do’ captures pro-social motives better as it is more specific (others in need) and has a goal element to it (something that I desire).

Self-sacrifice too should remain as the dimension of the instrument that captures the effort put into achieving the pro-social goals as directed to by the PSM motive dimensions. Items for the self-sacrifice dimension would need to encapsulate the drive or goal striving subsystem of a process-based approach of motivation. To do this, they should measure an individual’s action, perseverance, and sustained effort while also measuring the willingness to self-sacrifice for the benefit of society. An example of possible items could be ‘I am willing to risk personal losses through my actions if they benefit society’, ‘I would persistently incur a personal cost for the good of society’, or ‘I would put societies needs before my own’. The suggested self-sacrifice items contain hypotheticals (‘I would’/‘I am willing to’) because they do not capture motives and so do not measure something that is known but instead measure the drive or striving to bring about the pro-social goals of the individual. Without the hypothetical elements to these questions there would be bias issues as individuals with pro-social jobs would score higher on this dimension than individuals without pro-social jobs due to the opportunities
their job gives them to do good for society. However, the hypothetical formulation of the items raise issues regarding their construct validity as hypothetical questions bring in elements of an individual’s attitudes and beliefs. This is a compromise that the creators of future PSM instruments will have to make or circumnavigate.

**Table 6.2: Items from the Kim et al. (2013) PSM Instrument, the Dimension they Measure and Comments on Conceptualisation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Concept it Measures</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I admire people who initiate or are involved in activities to aid my community</td>
<td>Attraction to Public Participation</td>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>Admiration is a positive evaluation of one element of public life. Admiration does not necessarily equate to a motive as an individual can admire a group without being motivated to do as they do e.g. law enforcers, firefighters, Military Personnel, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important to me to contribute to activities that tackle social problems</td>
<td>Attraction to Public Participation</td>
<td>Belief/Value</td>
<td>This item measures beliefs and values that are captured within a motive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaningful public service is very important to me</td>
<td>Attraction to Public Participation</td>
<td>Belief/Values</td>
<td>Something that is important to an individual is indicative of a belief or value they have. This item could accentuate its motive capture by making it more personal to the respondent. E.g. Giving meaningful public service is very important to me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important for me to contribute to the common good</td>
<td>Attraction to Public Participation</td>
<td>Belief/Values</td>
<td>Placing Importance on something signifies a belief or value system attached to it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think equal opportunities for citizens are very important</td>
<td>Commitment to Public Values</td>
<td>Attitude/Belief</td>
<td>This item showcases the individual’s positive evaluation of equal opportunities (an attitude) and how they regard equal opportunities to be important (a belief).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important that citizens can rely on the continuous provision of public services</td>
<td>Commitment to Public Values</td>
<td>Belief</td>
<td>Here the strength on an individual’s belief that citizens can rely on the provision of public services is ascertained (belief).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is fundamental that the interests of future generations are taken into account when developing public policies</td>
<td>Commitment to Public Values</td>
<td>Belief/Value</td>
<td>Considering public policy to fundamentally future orientated could be considered to be a belief. While placing importance on the interests of future generations falls within the remit of.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To act ethically is essential for public servants</td>
<td>Commitment to Public Values</td>
<td>Attitude/Belief/Ethic</td>
<td>This item asks participants about how ethical public servants should be. Unless the participant is a public servant it has no bearing on their themselves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel sympathetic to the plight of the underprivileged</td>
<td>Compassion</td>
<td>Affect</td>
<td>These items draw upon emotional states but do not ask about subsequent action making them good measures of motives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I empathize with other people who face difficulties</td>
<td>Compassion</td>
<td>Affect</td>
<td>These items draw upon emotional states but do not ask about subsequent action making them good measures of motives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get very upset when I see other people being treated unfairly</td>
<td>Compassion</td>
<td>Affect</td>
<td>These items draw upon emotional states but do not ask about subsequent action making them good measures of motives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considering the welfare of others is very important to me</td>
<td>Compassion</td>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>Considering is a form of evaluation therefore this item partly measures attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am prepared to make sacrifices for the good of society</td>
<td>Self-Sacrifice</td>
<td>Drive/Ethic</td>
<td>This item measures willingness to action in the form of sacrifice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe in putting civic duty before self</td>
<td>Self-Sacrifice</td>
<td>Belief/Ethic</td>
<td>Putting others before oneself hints at an ethic. This could also be seen as something the individual might take to be true and therefore has elements of belief about it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am willing to risk personal loss to help society</td>
<td>Self-Sacrifice</td>
<td>Belief/Ethic/Value</td>
<td>An individual would be willing to risk personal loss to help society if they believed society to be worth the loss (Belief), is something important to them (Value) and is something they should do (Ethic)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would agree to a good plan to make a better life for the poor, even if it costs me money</td>
<td>Self-Sacrifice</td>
<td>Ethic/Commitment</td>
<td>Making life better for others at a personal cost is an ethical held view. Sticking to the plan despite the cost would be considered a commitment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusion

PSM has been the subject of both excitement and critique both inside and outside of the public administration field. This has led to a rift between those who are referred to as PSM ‘believers’ and PSM ‘non-believers’ or those who believe PSM to be a useful concept and those who do not (Vandenabeele et al., 2014). This thesis aimed to reconcile the differences between these two groups while at the same time seeking gaps in PSM knowledge in accordance with the call of Perry’s (2014) third wave of PSM research. Through the integration of mainstream motivational theory and literature this thesis explored the internal mechanisms through which PSM operates. This provided evidence for PSM being conceptualised as a form of motivation, and illuminated the importance of self-sacrifice within the PSM concept as self-sacrifice behaviour provides the means through which PSM motives are realised. Subsequent, integration of COR theory introduced the notion of the sacrifice of resources mechanism through which PSM relates to well-being outcomes. At the same time applying theory to PSM from mainstream motivation literature makes the concept more palatable to PSM non-believers as it is brought closer to the central locus of wider understanding of motivation.

This thesis has empirically demonstrated PSM to have both undesirable and desirable outcomes, highlighting the double-edged sword nature of the concept. Negative well-being outcomes were found to arise when individuals with high PSM levels sacrifice personal resources in order to fulfil their underlining pro-social values but fail to succeed in their attempts. PSM was also shown to associate with an increase in an individual’s organisational loyalty and a decrease in their intentions of quitting. In highlighting both the positive and negative aspects of PSM, and the mechanisms through which both of these occur, this thesis contributes to understanding how highly pro-social individual’s and the organisations that seek to employ them can maximise the positive associations and minimise the negative associations of PSM.
REFERENCES


Wright, B. E., & Grant, A. M. (2010). Unanswered questions about public service motivation: Designing research to address key issues of emergence and effects. Public administration review, 70(5), 691-700.

APPENDIX

Q3 Do you work ...

- Full Time (1)
- Part Time (2)
- Other: Please specify... (3)

Q4 Do you consider yourself to have a customer facing role?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)
- I don't know (4)
Q5 Please indicate the extent of your agreement with each statement below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree (1)</th>
<th>Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Neutral (3)</th>
<th>Agree (4)</th>
<th>Strongly Agree (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In uncertain times, I usually expect the best (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If something can go wrong for me, it will (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I'm always optimistic about my future (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I hardly ever expect things to go my way (4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I rarely count on good things happening to me (5)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad (6)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q6 Please read the following statements about different kinds of values that people tend to hold. First indicate how personally important they are to you in general and then indicate to what degree these are fulfilled by your job.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>It is important to me in general...</th>
<th>The extent does my job fulfil my need...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not At All (1)</td>
<td>Not At All (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly (2)</td>
<td>Slightly (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat (3)</td>
<td>Somewhat (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mostly (4)</td>
<td>Mostly (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very (5)</td>
<td>Very (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Completely (5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
...to be able to think of new ideas and be creative (1)

...to be rich, have money and expensive things (2)

...to ensure people are treated equally and have equal opportunities (3)

...to show my abilities and be admired (4)

...to live in secure and safe surroundings (5)

...to try new and different things (6)

...to do what I am told and follow the rules (7)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>...to understand different people (8)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>...to be humble, modest and to not draw attention to myself (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...to have a good time (10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...to be free in making my own decisions (11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...to help people and care for others well-being (12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...to be successful and have people recognise my achievements (13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...to feel safe and secure (14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...to seek adventures and have excitement (15)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
...to behave properly (16)
...to receive respect from others (17)
...to be loyal to my friends and devoted to people close to me (18)
...to care for nature and environment (19)
...to follow traditions and customs (20)
...to seek fun and things that give me pleasure (21)

...Calibration Test:
Please select both of the 'Slightly' Options (33)
Q7 Think about the department in which you work. This department may be an office group, a maintenance group, an academic department and so on. When responding to the following items answer in reference to this group's work related ability.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree (15)</th>
<th>Agree (16)</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree (17)</th>
<th>Neither Agree Nor Disagree (18)</th>
<th>Somewhat Disagree (19)</th>
<th>Disagree (20)</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree (21)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It is important for our group to do good work (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many people will benefit when our group does good work (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No one would notice if our group did its work poorly (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This organisation depends heavily on the quality of work my group does (4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This organisation does not need the work done by this group (5)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My group expects good outcomes when we do good work (6)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q8 Overall, how satisfied are you with each of the following...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Completely Unsatisfied (1)</th>
<th>Slightly Unsatisfied (2)</th>
<th>Neutral (3)</th>
<th>Slightly Satisfied (4)</th>
<th>Completely Satisfied (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Your Life (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your Job (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q9 How healthy do you feel...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not Well At All (1)</th>
<th>Slightly Well (2)</th>
<th>Moderately Well (3)</th>
<th>Very Well (4)</th>
<th>Extremely Well (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mentally (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physically (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q10 Below are statements about different general values people tend to hold. Please state to what extent you agree with each of the below.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree (1)</th>
<th>Somewhat Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Neither Agree Nor Disagree (3)</th>
<th>Somewhat Agree (4)</th>
<th>Strongly Agree (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I admire people who initiate or are involved in activities to aid my community (1)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important to me to contribute to activities that tackle social problems (2)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaningful public service is very important to me (4)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important for me to contribute to the common good (5)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think equal opportunities for citizens are very important (6)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is important that citizens can rely on the continuous provision of public services (7)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is fundamental that the interests of future generations are taken into account when developing public policies (8)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To act ethically is essential for public servants (10)

I feel sympathetic to the plight of the underprivileged (11)

I empathize with other people who face difficulties (12)

I get very upset when I see other people being treated unfairly (13)

Considering the welfare of others is very important to me (14)

The attributes that I look for in a job are fulfilled very well by my present job (16)

The job that I currently hold gives me just about everything that I want from a job (17)

There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job (18)
**Calibration Test:** Please select the 'Somewhat Agree' option (27)

**Calibration Test:** Please select the 'Somewhat Disagree' option (28)

Q11 How regularly, over the last month have you...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q11</th>
<th>Never (1)</th>
<th>Sometimes (2)</th>
<th>About Half The Time (3)</th>
<th>More Often Than Not (4)</th>
<th>Very Often (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>...Asked others for feedback on your job performance (1)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Asked colleagues for advice (2)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Asked your supervisor for advice (3)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Tried to learn new things at work (4)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Asked for more tasks if you finished your work (5)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Asked for more responsibilities (6)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Asked for more odd jobs (7)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Tried to ensure that your work is emotionally less intense (8)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Made sure that your work is mentally less intense (9)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Tried to ensure that your work is physically less intense (10)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q12 Over the past month, to what extent have you...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not At All (1)</th>
<th>A Little (2)</th>
<th>Some (3)</th>
<th>Significantly (4)</th>
<th>A Great Deal (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>...Come up with ways of increasing efficiency within the organisation? (1)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Made suggestions to improve the overall effectiveness of the organisation (e.g., by suggesting changes to administrative procedures)? (2)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Involved yourself in changes that are helping to improve the overall effectiveness of the organisation? (3)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q13 Please read each description and think about how often you...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Very Slightly Or Not At All (1)</th>
<th>A Little Bit (2)</th>
<th>Somewhat (3)</th>
<th>Quite A Bit (4)</th>
<th>A Great Deal (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>...Follow public service guidelines with extreme care</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Conscientiously follow guidelines</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Follow up in a timely manner the requests and problems of the public</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Perform duties with unusually few mistakes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Have a positive attitude at work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Behave exceptionally courteously and respectfully to members of the public</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q14 Please read each description and think about how often in the last month you have...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Very Rarely (1)</th>
<th>Rarely (2)</th>
<th>A Few Times (3)</th>
<th>Often (4)</th>
<th>Very Often (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>...Willingly given your time to help others who have work-related problems</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Adjusted your work schedule to accommodate other employees’ requests for time off</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Showed genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even when working under high pressure</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Assisted others with their duties</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q15 Please read each description and think about how often in the last month you have...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Not At All (1)</th>
<th>Rarely (2)</th>
<th>Sometime (3)</th>
<th>Often (4)</th>
<th>A Great Extent (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>...Expressed loyalty toward your organisation</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Kept up with developments in your organisation</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Offered ideas to improve the functioning of your organisation</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Showed pride when representing your organisation in public</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Took action to protect your organisation from potential problems</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q16 Have you recently...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not At All (1)</th>
<th>No More Than Usual (2)</th>
<th>Rather More Than Usual (3)</th>
<th>Much More Than Usual (4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>...Lost much sleep over worry? (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Felt constantly under strain? (2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Felt you couldn’t overcome your difficulties? (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Been feeling unhappy or depressed? (4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Been losing confidence in yourself? (5)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Been thinking of yourself as a worthless person? (6)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q17 Have you recently...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>More So Than Usual (1)</th>
<th>Same As Usual (2)</th>
<th>Less Than Usual (3)</th>
<th>Much Less Than Usual (4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>...Felt capable of making decisions about things? (1)</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Been able to enjoy your normal day to day activities? (2)</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Been able to face up to your problems? (3)</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered? (4)</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Been able to concentrate on what you're doing? (5)</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Felt that you are playing a useful part in things? (6)</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
<td>☒</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q18
Looking back over the last month, how often have you felt the following?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotion</th>
<th>Never (1)</th>
<th>Rarely (2)</th>
<th>Sometimes (3)</th>
<th>Often (4)</th>
<th>Very Often (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Angry</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frustrated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disappointed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxious</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fed up</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Betrayed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surprised</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excited</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proud</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grateful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unpleasant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sad (18)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afraid (19)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joyful (20)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contented (21)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q19 To what extent do you do/are you...?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never/Almost Always (1)</th>
<th>Rarely (2)</th>
<th>Sometimes (3)</th>
<th>Often (4)</th>
<th>Almost Always/Always (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>...Put forth your best effort to get my job done regardless of the difficulties. (1)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Willing to start work early or stay late to finish a job (2)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Find it hard to get very involved in your current job. (3)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Do not work as hard as others who do the same type of work as you do (4)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Do extra work for your job that isn’t really expected of you (5)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Find that time seems to drag while you are on the job (6)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Make sacrifices for the good of society (7)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Believe in putting civic duty before self (8)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Willing to risk personal loss to help society (9)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...Willing to agree to a good plan to make a better life for the poor, even if it costs you money (10)</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Q20 How many hours (including meal breaks) are you contracted to work in a normal working week?

________________________________________________________________

Q21 How many additional hours overtime do you usually have in a normal working week? (Using numbers only)

________________________________________________________________

Q22 How much of that overtime (usually worked) is usually unpaid overtime? (Using numbers only)

________________________________________________________________

Q23 Red tape is defined as burdensome administrative rules and procedures that have negative effects on the organisation’s performance. Please assess the level of red tape in your organisation, with 0 signifying no red tape and 10 signifying the highest level of red tape.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amount of Red Tape ()</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q24 In your main job, do you have any responsibility for supervising the work of other employees?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q25 What level management do you consider yourself?

- Line Manager (1)
- Middle Manager (2)
- Senior Manager (3)
Q26 Please indicate how many people you are responsible? (Using numbers only)

________________________________________________________________

Q27 Including yourself, how many people do you feel are employed at your place of employment? (Using numbers only)

________________________________________________________________

Q28 Please indicate how much you feel your organisation allows you to…

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No Influence</th>
<th>Complete Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- decide how your own daily work is organised?
- influence policy decisions about the activities of the organisation?

Q29 Within the next 2 years, how likely are you to leave your current organisation for a job in another organisation?

- Extremely Likely (1)
- Somewhat Likely (2)
- Neither Likely Nor Unlikely (3)
- Somewhat Unlikely (4)
- Extremely Unlikely (5)
Q30 Gender (This is to be used as demographic data only)

- Male (1)
- Female (2)
- Other (Please describe if you wish) (3)
- I'd prefer not to say (4)

Q31 Age, using numbers (This is to be used as demographic data only)

- 

Q32 Choose one or more races that you consider yourself to be: (This is to be used as demographic data only)

- White/White British/Irish White (1)
- Black/African/Caribbean/Black British (2)
- Asian/Asian British (4)
- Mixed/Multiple Ethnic Groups (5)
- Arab (7)
- Prefer Not To Say (9)
- Other (Please specify) (6)
Q33
Please indicate the highest and most equivalent level of education you have completed (This is to be used as demographic data only)

- O Levels/GCSE's (2)
- AS/A Levels (6)
- Technical College (e.g. trade work) (3)
- Undergraduate Degree (e.g. BA, BSc, B.Eng, MB) (4)
- Graduate Degree (e.g, MSc, MBA, PhD) (5)
- Other (Please State) (10) ____________________________________________

Q34 How many years have you worked within Organisation X? (Using numbers only)

__________________________________________

Q35 Do you have caring responsibilities at home? Please tick as many as are relevant.

☐ No (1)
☐ Yes, Children (2)
☐ Yes, Elderly Relative (3)
☐ Yes, Disabled Relative (4)
☐ Yes, Other (5)

Q37 If you have any thoughts or comments regarding this survey, please share them here.

________________________________________________________________________