MOTIVATION TO SERVE IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT: TESTING THE MEASURES

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ABSTRACT

The public administration literature suggests that the motivation of individuals who serve in public positions may differ in significant ways from individuals in the private sector. The concept of public service motivation, historically also called the public service ethic, has been advanced to explain why individuals seek out and prefer working for such public organizations, in opposition to economics-based theories of rational self-interest (Perry & Wise, 1990; Perry 1996, 2000) or task motivation (Lee &Olshfski, 2002).

There are several purposes for the current project. First, replicating Perry's (1996) development of the public service motivation instrument in a different sample of public servants. Second, replicating the pattern and structure of public service motivation Perry reported, thus contributing to that instrument's measurement validity. Third, testing two other instruments designed to measure other aspects of motivation in this sample. Fourth, testing these three instruments to determine if together they might be measuring the same underlying motivational construct. Finally, comparing the intensity of response to the three measures to determine how the performance of each measure matches with theoretical predictions. Confirmatory factor analysis using principal axis factoring was the primary analytic tool.

The current study is based on the responses (n = 507) to a mailed survey of elected township officials. Surveys were sent as a census to 1,069 officials in 138 townships in 10 Illinois counties. The counties and townships—and therefore the officials—were selected on the basis of theoretical sampling to highlight variables of potential importance to understanding motivation to serve the public; however, these variables were not used in the current study. Almost half of the respondents were elected administrators; the rest were trustees with oversight duties.

The analysis supports the use of all three instruments for investigating motivation, and suggests that all three are measuring a single underlying variable. The intensity of response suggests that public service motivation is a substantial but not the primary motivator, while self-interest appears to be a weak contributor to motivation. Task motivation appears to be the primary motivation for government service in this sample.

I dedicate this dissertation to my love of several lifetimes,

Malinda K. Gilreath Paine

And to my sons,

Jose Vincente Velasquez Paine

and

David Thomas Paine

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the topic of this dissertation by answering the question, "what is this study about?" It begins by stating a meta-question, and then refining it into a research question. Then, the chapter describes the chosen sample and setting for the study. The topic of study is the concept of public service motivation, and the context under which it is being studied is local elected officials in Illinois townships. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary of the rest of the dissertation, as it progresses through the literature review, methodology, data collection and analysis, and the conclusions and recommendations.

The Meta-Question and the Public Administration Question

It would appear that one of the central questions of the social sciences is why people—individually or in groups—do anything, ever. Closely related questions are: When people individually or collectively do something, what is it that they do? How do they do it? Under what conditions (that is, when and where), and with whom? These questions are addressed in various ways in the fields of psychology, sociology, social psychology, anthropology, and so on. In these fields, explanations for individual behavior tend to arise in psychology or economics.

For the field of public administration, the parallel central question is considerably more limited: "Why do people serve in government or other organizations, such as nonprofits, which are organized to serve the public interest?" This is an intriguing question, but it must be considered in light of the larger question, "why do individuals go to work for any organization, public or private?" Any explanation of the behavior of public employees should also be part of the explanation of the behavior of private employees; that is, the model we should be trying to build should explain why anyone works for any organization.

So, what needs to be explained in terms of service to public organizations? In light of the generally negative stereotypes associated with the governmental sector, and some negative stereotypes associated with nonprofits, the fact that people do work for government needs to be explained. Government employees often are stereotyped as being lazy, uncaring, rule-bound bureaucrats who are overpaid for the amount and quality of work they do, and much of that work is considered unnecessary or a burden on society. On the other hand, while often viewed as performing good service for society, nonprofits are often viewed as less-than-ideal places to work, with staff underpaid while working in substandard conditions to assist the poorest and weakest members of society (Krammich & Krammich, 1999). Reality, of course, is far more complex than stereotypes. The following section presents information on the scope of individual contributions to public organizations, whether through employment, voluntary contributions and work, or other methods of participation. What do we know about Americans and the public service?

Americans and the Public Interest

Tocqueville (1945) noted in the 1830s that Americans are very involved in their communities. This involvement can be expressed by being willing and active participants in the civic life of their communities, their states, and the nation as a whole through being aware of public issues, engaging in public debate, supporting political candidates for office and organizations that advocate various policy positions, voting, and so forth. Citizens are also active by taking part not only in the political arena, but the social life of their communities as well, by supporting the education of the young, being active church members, and participating in other social and civic-oriented organizations and activities, donating to charities, obeying the law, and so on. Tocqueville particularly noted the American propensity to form temporary organizations to purposes such as building bridges or roads, which once completed, were turned over to the government for continued operation. Running for and holding elected office is yet another way to serve the community, as is becoming an employee of the government, especially becoming a member of the military, putting oneself in harm's way for period in the defense of the country and its interests. Putnam (2000) expressed concern over the apparent decline in the totality of these contributions to society, which he terms social capital, but whether his thesis is correct or not, it is clear that there are multiple ways individuals can and do contribute to the public interest.

The field of public administration has traditionally been concerned almost exclusively with issues related to government organizations and the individuals who fill them, especially those hired to manage and administer the programs approved by the elected officials. However, organizations in the nonprofit sector are increasingly being included in the public administration literature because of their important role in carrying government programs and governmental purposes (Frederickson, 2003; Salamon, 2002). While not all nonprofits implement government programs or carry out government purposes, nonprofits exist because our society recognizes a positive social value to private organizations that operate under the broad concept of the public interest. For this reason, government grants them several tax-related benefits, including exemption from paying some taxes (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2007). There are two broad categories of nonprofits: charitable and member benefit organizations. Charitable organizations exist to provide support, assistance or other benefits to individuals or groups deemed worthy of such assistance, or to engage in other activities in the public interest. This includes a wide variety of entities, including many hospitals, clinics, and social service agencies. Membership organizations are defined by the service they provide to benefit their members, often with a community focus, although some membership organizations also carry out or support charitable activities (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2007). A neighborhood association or a condominium-owner's association would be representative of the former, while a Rotary or Jaycee's might represent the latter.

Serving as Elected Officials. In the United States, some citizens run for and serve in elected offices, some 513,000 or so such positions at the local, state and federal levels, with almost 96 percent of them at the local level (Census, 1992). The 1992 Census of Governments was the last time the Census Bureau counted the number of elected officials. In the more recent censuses, elected officials are counted as employees if they are compensated, and are not counted if they are uncompensated (Census, 2002). Between 1987 and 1992, the number of elected officials increased by about 4.6 percent as the number of governmental units increased by just over 2 percent (Census, 1992). Between 1992 and the 2002 Census of Governments, the number of units increased by 3 percent, to 87,576, of which all but 52 were units of local government. If the number of elected officials increased at the same proportion, then the number of elected officials grew to about 548,000 in 2002.

Serving as Government Employees. We also know that others work for government; either in positions appointed by elected officials (some of these are compensated positions, others uncompensated), or as employees hired to implement the policies and programs approved by the elected officials. In 2006, there were about 23.4 million employed by government (including both civilian and military) in America, about 61 percent of them at the local level (Census, 2008a, 2008b). Still others work for government as contractors or grant recipients. At the federal level, Light (2003), estimated about 8 million contractors and grantees, while there is no estimate for the number employed in such manner at the state and local levels. The number is likely many millions more.

Working for the government as an elected, appointed, or hired official is what is traditionally considered in political science and public administration to be the field of public service, but increasingly the idea of public service includes involvement in organizations in the nonprofit sector.

Serving as Nonprofit Employees. Many employed by government contractors and grant recipients work for nonprofit organizations. In 1998, there were about 11 million employed in the "independent sector," that is, charitable, social welfare and faith-based organizations in the nonprofit sector (Independent Sector, 2001a, 2001b). In 2006, almost 2.9 million were employed by member benefit organizations, a number little changed over the past decade (Census, 2008a). Thus, with about 23 million employed directly by government and more than 14 million employed directly by nonprofit organizations, we can estimate that at least 37 million people (about 12 percent of the total population and about 28 percent of the employed) are employed in the public interest, with millions more working as contractors, subcontractors, or grant recipients.

Serving as Nonprofit Volunteers. We also know that tens of millions of individuals contribute to organizations through volunteer labor, although two primary estimates differ somewhat. The U.S. Department of Labor (Labor, 2007) reported that about 61.2 million individuals volunteered, or about 27 percent of the adult population 16 years old or older, with a median value of 52 volunteer hours per year. According to Independent Sector (2001a, 2001b), in 1998, more than 109 million Americans volunteered some 19.9 billion hours of service, of which about 60 percent was devoted to nonprofit organizations (the rest was informal volunteering for family, neighbors and friends, or for family-owned businesses). Together, these volunteers accounted for the equivalent of another 5.7 million full-time equivalent positions with nonprofit organizations.

Serving by Making Monetary and In-Kind Contributions to Nonprofits. In addition, many tens of millions more contribute money or other resources to support public causes, usually through nonprofit organizations. Again, the reported statistics vary. Independent Sector (2001a, 2001b) reported that in 1998, about 70 percent of households (almost 72 million) reported making contributions to nonprofit organizations. Giving USA (2007) reported that individuals donated almost $223 billion in 2006. The Internal Revenue Service, on the other hand, reported in 2004 that 40.6 million itemized returns listed total charitable contributions amounting to more than $165 billion (Census, 2008c); obviously, it is likely that some filers who did not itemize also donated money that is not counted by the IRS.

Serving Through Small Organizations and Informal Means. Little is known about the number and activities of the numerous smaller nonprofit organizations that are not required to file formal reports about their finances and activities. The Internal Revenue Service does not require registration of organizations that receive less than $5,000 in annual revenues (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2007). This category includes many organizations such as school parent-teacher associations, small community arts organizations, most neighborhood associations, and numerous self-help member benefit groups, among many others. Although most states require such organizations to file formal papers of incorporation, annual reporting requirements vary and there is no central clearinghouse or standard system of reporting information about these small organizations

Even less is known about the scope and magnitude of informal voluntary activities. This includes activities organized and implemented by community residents without the benefit of formal organizations, such as neighborhood parties and recreational activities. Informal service also includes activities as simple as and individual checking up on elderly or disabled neighbors, offering babysitting services for family or friends, assisting a neighbor with errands, and picking up litter along a neighborhood street or in a nearby park, and the like.

All of these organizations and activities contribute to what is now called the civic or social capital of society (Putnam, 2000), the network of interconnections and relationships between individuals and groups that helps to maintain and reinforce the fabric of our communities, states and nation. Increasingly, government is recognized as part of this network that seeks to address the collective problems of society through a variety of public, private and joint public/private actions and activities, a process now termed governance (Frederickson, 2003). Research into public service motivation, while initially concerned mostly with government service, has increasingly included studies of the motivations of individuals who serve in nonprofit or other organizations that have a voluntary public function (for example, Perry & Lee, 2007).

At the same time that many tens of millions of American adults are engaged in activities in the public interest in both government and nonprofit settings, we also know that empirical data from public opinion surveys and other research suggests that many if not most Americans have negative impressions of government institutions and government service (Pew Research Center for the People and the Press, 1998, summarizes and extends a number of these studies; Hibbing & Theiss-Morse, 2001; Horrigan, 2004; Pew Internet and American Life Project, 2003). On the other hand, data on public opinion about nonprofit organizations is limited, but about two-thirds of adult Americans have a positive feeling toward charitable organizations, about 58 percent think that charitable organizations are ethical and honest in using donated money, and about a third think the nonprofit sector is headed in the wrong direction (Harris 2006). While our society proclaims and encourages volunteering and other giving, data discussed above suggests that at best, about three-quarters of adults make contributions to nonprofit organizations each year, somewhat fewer donate their time, and a still-sizable but smaller fraction serve in the employ of government and nonprofit organizations.

All this serves to empirically demonstrate that many but not all people do, indeed, do things in the public interest. The question is, why do people willingly undertake service in the public interest, which includes what is traditionally considered in public administration to be the field of public service—working for the government as an elected, appointed, or hired official—as well as what is increasingly being considered part of service to the larger public, action in organizations in the nonprofit sector.

Developing the Research Question

The answer may lie in the concept of motivation, the energizing force behind the observable behavior (Steers & Porter, 1983) of seeking and serving in positions with and contributing to organizations that serve public interests. While there is no single standard definition of motivation, most definitions used in the literature note that it consists of three aspects: direction, intensity, and persistence (Locke & Latham, 2004). While motivation is an unseen, internal feature of the individual that cannot be directly detected or measured, its effects can be detected through responses to carefully constructed surveys, careful observation of behavior, and so on. In the current study, the direction of motivation is assumed to be primarily toward behavior in government service, since the individuals surveyed are currently holding government positions. The intensity of motivation should be measurable using the public service motivation instrument and other instruments in this study. Finally, persistence suggests that the individual should continue their direction and intensity of behavior over time. Data was collected with this survey to investigate that aspect of motivation, but it is not included in the current analysis.

Why do people engage in service to the public? There are several possible reasons, of which three will be considered in this dissertation:

1) rational self-interest, that is, the desire to benefit personally in a material way from service (Perry 1996; Perry & Wise, 1990);

2) public service motivation, that is, the desire to fulfill a need for serving others by working for a public organization (Perry 1996; Perry & Wise, 1990); and

3) task motivation, that is, the commitment to and identification with the particular job or role being sought or held (Lee & Olshfski, 2002; Rainey & Steinbauer, 1999).

The hypothesis that these three alternative sources of motivation can each be considered a different aspect of a larger motivational construct, the motivation to serve the public, is tested. If the three instruments do reflect a common underlying factor, there is no reason to assume that these sources are mutually exclusive; that is, individuals will likely display some degree of each motivation when surveyed. It is possible, however, that the intensity of response to each of the measures will be different.

The three theories reflect different ideas about motivation, however, that are inherently separate from each other. First, as presented by Perry and Wise (1990), and Perry (2000), rational choice theory suggests that individuals wish to maximize their personal income and other material benefits, regardless of work setting. Thus, there would be no appreciable difference between individuals in their desire to serve private and public organizations under this theory. Individuals will therefore seek out employment opportunities that allow them to maximize their personal benefits, whether that is in public or private organizations.

Public service motivation theory suggests that while individuals who enter the private sector may be motivated primarily by pecuniary self-interest, individuals who enter the public sector are motivated to satisfy an internal need or drive by serving or fulfilling the nature of the organization and its mission. Thus, there will be a difference between individuals who seek public or private employment, because of the differences in nature between public and private organizations (Perry 1996; Perry & Wise, 1990).

Finally, task motivation theory suggests that individuals are motivated primarily by a commitment to the particular job being sought or held, and the role of that job within the organizational context. Thus, the individual is not primarily motivated by material rewards, nor to satisfy a need to fill a position in a public organization, but rather to carry out a particular task. (Lee & Ohlshfski, 2002; Rainey & Steinbauer, 1999).

The predictions for each of the theories are presented in Table 1.1. Rational choice theory suggests that if individuals in this sample are primarily motivated to serve by self-interest, the mean score (that is, the intensity) should be higher on the material self-interest scale than on the other two measures. Public service motivation theory suggests that if individuals in this sample are motivated to serve primarily by some unique aspect of the organization or its mission, then the mean score should be higher on the public service motivation scale than on the other two. Finally, task motivation theory suggests that if individuals in this sample are motivated to serve primarily by the nature of the job or its role, then the mean score should be higher on the job commitment and role identification scale than the other two scales. Of course, there is no theoretical reason for assuming that these motivations are mutually exclusive in individuals or the sample. Even though rational choice theory and public service motivation theory might appear to be negatively associated, individuals are known to sometimes hold contradictory motives. Perry (2000) cites this as one of the problems underlying the economically based mainstream theory of motivation. However, there may be a pattern to the way individuals score one measure relative to the others, and this pattern, too, can be tested.

Table 1.1
Comparison of Theories, Their Measures, and Testable Predictions

Theory	Focus	Measure	Prediction
Rational Choice Motivation	Self	Material Self-interest	Public employees should score higher on MSI, lower on PSM and JC/RI
Public Service Motivation	Organization/ Mission	PSM	Public employees should score higher on PSM scale, lower on MSI and JC/RI
Task Motivation	Job/Role	Job Commitment/Role Identification	Public employees should score higher on JC/RI scale, lower on MSI and PSM

There are five purposes, each represented by one research question, relating to these three measures of motivation to serve the public. These are laid out here, and further developed in Chapter 3—Methodology. Because this study is primarily an attempt to replicate and extend Perry's public service motivation theory, the first purpose is to replicate Perry's (1996) construction of the public service motivation instrument. The research question is, "Does the public service motivation instrument work in this different sample of public employees?" The second objective is to replicate Perry's (1996) pattern and structure of responses to the public service motivation instrument. The research question is, "Do the findings of the current study match with those in Perry's (1996) original work?"

The third purpose of this study is an extension to determine if the two alternative measures of motivation to serve the public also work in this sample. The research question is, “Do the material self-interest, and job commitment and role identification instruments work in this sample?”

The fourth purpose is to further extend the model by determining whether the items from the three instruments are together measuring the same unseen underlying construct, the motivation to serve the public. The research question is, “Do the 31 items from the three instruments work together as a single measure?”

Finally, this study will attempt to further extend the model by determining how each of the three instruments does relative to the others in measuring the intensity of motivation to serve in government, relative to the other two instruments. The research question is, “How do the three instruments—material self-interest, public service motivation, and job commitment and role identification—perform in comparison to each other in measuring the intensity of motivation to serve in government?”

Organization of this Dissertation

The rest of this dissertation is divided into the following chapters: Literature Review, Methodology, Data and Analysis, and Conclusions and Recommendations.

The literature review begins with a discussion of the definition of motivation and the literature related to work motivation research and theory. Work motivation research and theory can be divided into two branches, the psychologically based and the management based (Steers & Porter, 1983). The majority of research and theory making in this field is now of the psychological variety, while motivation as it is discussed in the public administration and public management literature is based in management theories of human behavior. In the next section, the origins and current understanding of the public service motivation concept are considered. The tradition that individuals in government service are motivated by factors that differ from individuals in the private sector has a long history in public administration (Appleby, 1945; Perry & Wise, 1990; White, 1929). The development of an instrument specifically intended to measure this public service motivation establishes the basis for the current study. The following section is a discussion of the relationship—or in this case, lack of a relationship—between the broader work motivation theory and the research and theory on the public service motivation concept. The exception to this has been recent work that attempts to test the public service motivation using concepts from a theory used in the work motivation field, goal setting theory (Wright, 2001a, 2001b). Following that discussion, several arguments for the importance of the study of the public service motivation are advanced. There are practical and scholarly reasons that clearly identifying and understanding the public service motivation construct is important to the practice and theory of public administration.

The methodology chapter begins with a discussion of the unique or nearly unique features of the elected township officials and their jobs, including the conceptual arrangement into two groups, administrators and oversight, and the division of administrators into generalists and specialists. This is followed by a discussion of the study design. The rationale for selecting the set of subjects for the study is presented, including discussion of the size of sample needed for analysis, and the method used for selecting the counties and individual townships within the counties for distribution of the survey to township officials. Next, the survey instrument is discussed, including its use of items used by earlier researchers, testing and validation of the instrument, a timetable of the data collection process, and the proposed methods of data analysis. Finally, a set of research goals are advanced, research questions formulated, and the methodology is summarized.

The Data and Analysis chapter describes the response received to the survey, and assesses the resulting data, including descriptive analysis, correlation analysis, factor analysis and reliability analysis of the data needed to answer the research questions posed here. Of the 1,069 surveys sent out, 518 were received in time for inclusion in the analysis for this dissertation. Of these, 11 (approximately 1.3 percent) were unusable, leaving a net response rate of 47.4 percent, or 507 responses. Through listwise deletion of surveys with missing responses, a total of 424 surveys (83.6 percent) included responses for all three instruments.

The analysis supports the use of all three instruments for measuring the motivation of individuals in government service, both individually and as a combined scale, but the confirmatory factor analysis does not fully support Perry's (1996) factor structure. Elements of all three instruments seem to overlap the others, suggesting further research may be necessary to clearly separate the three measures. Finally, the measured intensity of the three instruments suggests that material self-interest may be relatively unimportant in this sample. Public service motivation is supported as an important source of motivation, but is not the strongest source. Task motivation appears to be the primary source of motivation in this sample, based on the intensity of the response.

In the Recommendations and Conclusions, the strengths and weaknesses of the current study reviewed, and implications for future research considered. One significant shortcoming is that the measure of material self-interest consists only of reverse-scored items from the public service motivation instrument; clearly, an independent measure would be desirable. Another weakness is the lack of other measured theorized motivations, such as mission motivation, or the desire for power. A third weakness identified is the lack of outside groups for comparison, especially representing the general public and comparable individuals from the private sector. Amongst the strengths of this study is that it tests the full public service motivation instrument, whereas most later studies only use part of the instrument or other measures. Another strength is that this study takes a direct, confirmatory approach to testing the instruments, and directly compares public service motivation against two alternatives that have clear differences in outcomes traceable to theory.

The current study confirms the usefulness and theoretical linkage of the three measures, which suggests that future research should be directed towards establishing the usefulness of other measures of motivation in both public and private settings. Further investigation should also be conducted on what Perry (1997) describes as the antecedents of public service motivation and other motivations to service. In addition, other concepts of the broader field of work motivation theory should be applied in the context of the service in the public sector. Finally, greater effort should be made to connect motivation to service to measurable outcomes of service, such as quality of work, or time devoted to the uniquely public job.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

As one public administration researcher noted, "The notion that public life involves self-sacrifice, devotion to duty, and commitment to the public interest dates back at least to the ancient Greek city-states," (Brewer, 2002, p. 3). Yet despite this observation, the field of public administration is little closer than the Greeks were 2,500 years ago to understanding why this should be so, or why some individuals are willing, and even eager, to engage in service to the public. It can be argued that it has been only in the past three decades or so that significant effort has been expended, and any measurable progress made, toward testing and understanding this notion, beginning with foundational work by writers such as Buchanan (1974a, 1974b, 1975a, 1975b), Rainey, Backoff and Levine (1976), and Rainey (1979, 1982).

The previous chapter established what this dissertation is about: finding evidence of public service motivation among local elected officials, a group suspected for theoretical reasons of demonstrating motivation to serve in government. This chapter reviews the literature related to this effort to understand the behavior of individuals in public organizations, establishing the "why" for this study. The chapter begins with a look at the definition of motivation, and then proceeds to discuss the study of work motivation. This is followed by a review of the relevant literature on public service motivation from the public administration field, and a brief attempt to relate this public administration model to the broader work motivation literature. The relevance of this study of the public service motivation to the public administration literature is established.

Defining Motivation and Work Motivation Theory

What is motivation? If one is to understand the public administration theory of public service motivation, it is necessary to put that theory in context. This begins with the definition of the term, "motivation," which according to Steers and Porter (1983) is "(1) what energizes human behavior; (2) what directs or channels such behavior; and (3) how this behavior is maintained or sustained" (pp. 3-4).

Specifically, however, the interest of this dissertation is to understand the motivation of people in work situations, especially in the public service. There is a field of social science—an intersection of organization studies and psychology—called work motivation theory. The purpose of research in the work motivation field is to reach an understanding of why individuals perform as they do for organizations. Work motivation theory is an effort to develop an understanding of human behavior that will apply to all organizational settings (Steers & Porter, 1983), whereas public service motivation is an attempt to explain human behavior in the context of public, especially governmental, organizations (Perry & Wise, 1990; Perry 2000). No single, standardized definition of motivation yet exists across all fields of the social sciences, or even within the work motivation literature (Latham, 2007; Pinder, 1998; Porter, Bigley & Steers, 2003). However, one current definition of work motivation "refers to internal factors that impel action and to external factors that can act as inducements to action. The three aspects of action that motivation can affect are direction (choice), intensity (effort), and duration (persistence). Motivation can affect not only the acquisition of people's skills and abilities but also how and to what extent they utilize their skills and abilities," (Locke & Latham, 2004, p. 388). This definition suggests that individuals have at least two sources of action: internal pressures to act, and external attractions to act. In general, the internal factors can be considered psychological, while the external factors are organizational.

Motivation is a difficult trait of individuals to isolate: it is, after all, an internal state (and thus is psychological). Organizational factors are generally observable, as is individual behavior in response to the interaction between the internal and external factors. In general, motivation can be described as a cycle, as in Figure 2.1, which is based loosely on Steers and Porter (1983).

In a simple sense, according to Steers and Porter (1983), in order to function, organizations need people who will do three things. First, individuals must be attracted to join and stay with the organization. Second, the individual must do the tasks they joined the organization to do, and do so in a dependable manner. Finally, many organizations want individuals in them to go beyond simply fulfilling basic job functions, but to also engage in spontaneous, creative and innovative behavior on behalf of the organization—what is now called organizational commitment and organizational citizenship. Theories related to this understanding fall into two broad categories, psychological and management, and both of these categories derive initially from the same philosophical origins. Understanding these origins is important to understanding where public service motivation theory came from, and how it relates (or does not relate) to broader theories of motivation and work.

History of Work Motivation Theory

The following discussion synthesizes the historical summaries of several authors, including Steers and Porter (1983), Latham (2007), and Porter, Bigley and Steers (2003).

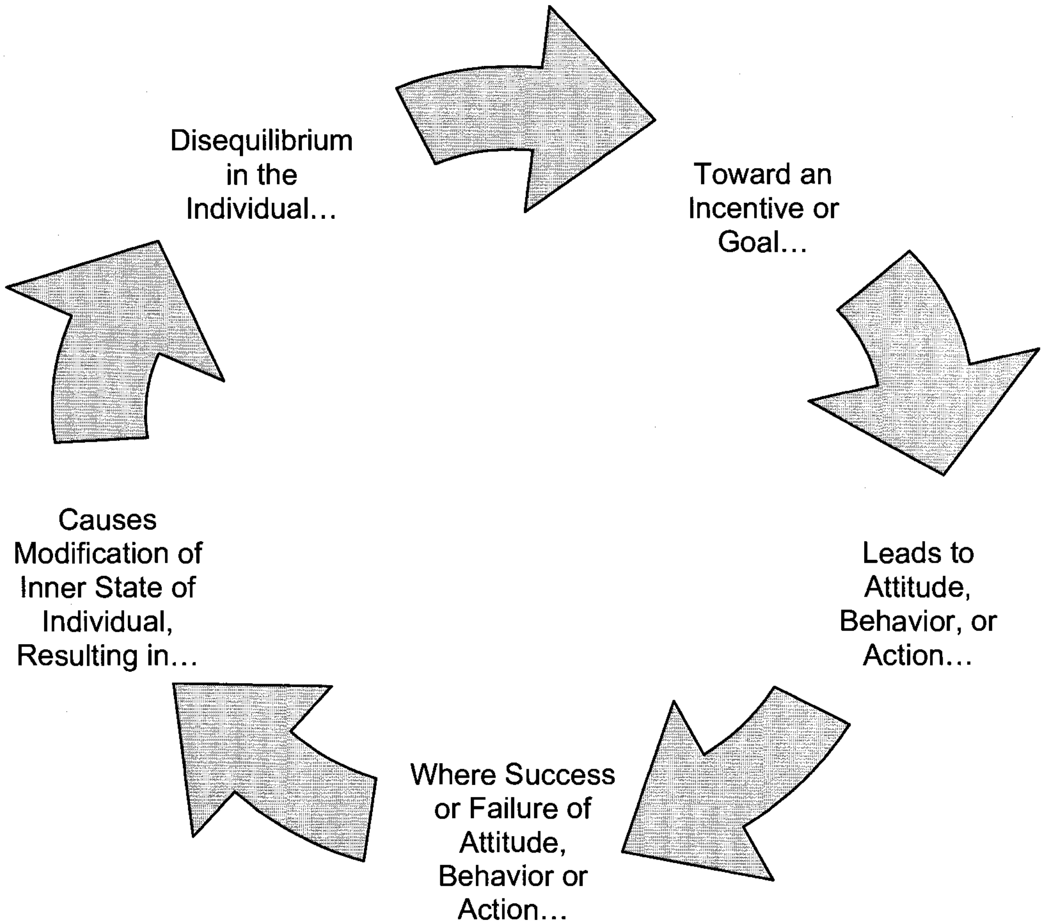


Figure 2.1. Conceptual model of the motivation cycle.

(Adapted from Steers & Porter, 1984.)

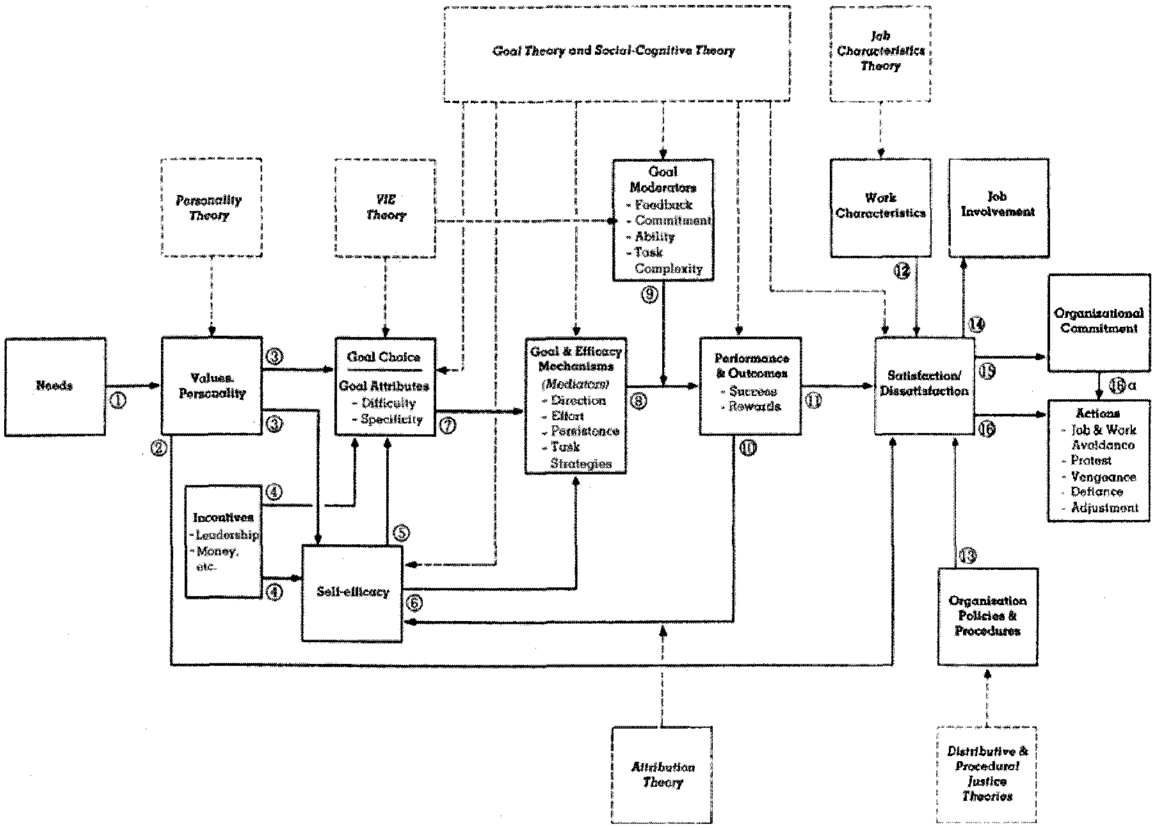
Modern ideas about motivation date back to ancient Greece and Rome, and particularly the philosophical concept of hedonism, which is the normative idea that people should pursue pleasure and avoid pain as the way for living a good life. However, with the rise of modern philosophy during the Enlightenment, early modern thinkers realized that the concepts of "pleasure" and "pain" were vague and subjective at best, and this made it difficult to create a system for selecting correct actions for living. The solution was to move from the attempt to maximize pleasure to the maximization of utility, or the practical benefit for the individual. Thus, Enlightenment thinkers such as Bentham, Mill, Locke, Helvetius and Smith argued that individuals should pursue their own self-interest—not "pleasure"—as a means to living a good life. This utilitarian pragmatism formed the basis of economics, which in the late 1800s became the basis for both the burgeoning social sciences and the increasingly complex and complicated world of industry and commerce. The social sciences gave birth to the psychological theories, while the realm of business gave rise to management theories (Steers and Porter, 1983). The various theories in these two categories have since interacted, as managers have adopted and adapted psychological theories to practical settings, while psychologists and other behavioral researchers have observed workers and their workplaces in action and received input from managers and workers alike that affect their theory building.

Between the late 1880s and the 1930s, while business and commercial management was dominated by utilitarian economics in what is now called the Scientific Management tradition (Denhardt, 2004; Steers and Porter, 1983) epitomized by the work of Taylor, psychological models of instinct (James, 1890; MacDougall, 1908), the subconscious mind (Freud, 1915), and reinforcement (Thorndike, 1911; Watson, 1924) developed and both competed with and complemented the economic model of human behavior. By the 1930s, however, problems with the traditional model of humans as solely economically rational beings, as well as the limits of theories of instinct and the subconscious mind were evident both to academic researchers into individual behavior and to business executives.

Drive theories (Cannon, 1939; Hull, 1943; Woodworth, 1918) and need theories (Maslow, 1943; 1954) of human motivation, the initial beginnings of cognitive theories of motivation (Lewin, 1938; Tolman, 1932, 1959), as well as studies of industrial production, especially the Hawthorne studies (Mayo, 1933, 1945; Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939), helped spawn what are now called the Human Relations theories of business management (Steers & Porter, 1983). Eventually, the rise of diverse psychological needs theories (such as those of Alderfer, 1969, 1972; McClelland, 1951; McClelland, Atkinson, Clark & Lowell, 1953; Murray, 1938), a resurgence of reinforcement theory (Skinner, 1953), and diverse cognitive theories (Locke, 1961; Festinger, 1954; Kelly, 1971; Vroom, 1964) helped managers develop the Human Resources models of organizational behavior (Steers & Porter, 1983), of which McGregor's Theory Y (McGregor, 1960), Ouchi's Theory Z and clans (Ouchi, 1980; Ouchi and Jaeger, 1978), Weick's sensemaking (1969), and Schein's organizational culture (Schein, 1972) are examples.

Current State of the Work Motivation Field

The current state of the work motivation field is still diverse, but is very much structured around psychological models rather than management models of individual behavior. In an attempt to bring theoretical unity to the research, Locke (Locke & Latham, 2004) proposes an integrated model (see Figure 2.2) that includes aspects of personality theory, valence-instrumentality-expectancy theory, goal theory, social-cognitive learning theory, job characteristics theory, attribution theory, and distributive and procedural justice theories. This integrated model was created by connecting the most strongly supported evidence from a number of different streams of research. It is comprehensive, but still leaves out findings from a number of other current theories in the field, and its creator points out a number of areas for further research. It is presented here



1. Needs to values. This is the least empirically researched of the causal connections. Although motivation must start with needs, that is, the objective requirements of the organism's survival and well-being, how work values grow out of needs has not been studied. Although Maslow was partly correct in claiming that people value what they need, there are numerous exceptions to this claim. These exceptions, of course, are one of the reasons why we need both a science of mental health and a code of ethics.
2. Values and personality to satisfaction. This pertains to the relation of self-esteem and neuroticism to job perceptions and job satisfaction.
3. Values and personality to goals and self-efficacy. Values and personality affect goals and self-efficacy and their effects on performance are mediated by goals and efficacy.
4. Incentives to goals and self-efficacy. Like personality, incentives affect goals and self-efficacy which in turn mediate the effects of incentives.
5. Self-efficacy to goals. Efficacy affects goal choice and especially goal difficulty.
6. and 7. Self-efficacy and goals to mechanisms. Goals and efficacy affect performance through their effects on direction, effort, persistence, and task strategies or tactics.
8. Goals, that is, goal mechanisms, to performance. Goals, especially goal difficulty, affect performance and performance, depending on the organization's policies, affects rewards.
9. Goal moderators. Goal effects are enhanced by feedback, commitment, ability, and (low) task complexity.
10. Performance to efficacy. Performance, including the attributions one makes for performance, affects self-efficacy.
11. Performance to satisfaction. Success and rewards produce satisfaction.
12. Work characteristics to satisfaction. Mental challenge and related job attributes enhance satisfaction.

13. Organizational policies to satisfaction. The perceived fairness of the organization's policies, procedural justice, and the perceived fairness of the results of these policies, distributive justice, affect satisfaction.
14. Satisfaction to involvement. Job satisfaction enhances job involvement.
15. Satisfaction to organizational commitment. Satisfaction enhances organizational commitment.
16. and 16a. Satisfaction and commitment to action. Satisfaction and commitment, along with other factors, affect action, especially approach and avoidance of the job or work. Several limitations of this model should be noted:

• To limit cognitive-perceptual overload some causal arrows are omitted. For example, self-efficacy affects commitment and presumably choices among action alternatives in the face of dissatisfaction. Personality and values can also affect action taken in response to job dissatisfaction. Perceived injustice undoubtedly affects goal commitment.
• The various theories, aside from goal theory, are not fully elaborated. For example, there are many complexities involved in procedural justice and a number of competing sub-theories.
• Recursive effects are not shown, except in the case of self-efficacy to performance. In the real world, almost any output can become an input over time. The model is static, not dynamic. Mone (1994) has done dynamic analyses of the goal-efficacy-performance relationship and found the basic static model to hold.
• Ability, knowledge and skill are critical to performance but, with one exception, are not shown in the motivation model. Self-efficacy, of course, reflects how people assess their skills and abilities.
• The model focuses on conscious motivation and omits the sub-conscious, except insofar as it is acknowledged as being involved in emotions.
• The model does not include theories with dubious or highly limited support (e.g., Maslow, Deci).

[a] Reprinted from *Advances in Motivation and Achievement,* vol. 10(1), E. Locke, "The Motivation to Work: What We Know," 375–412, 1997, with permission from Elsevier (see appendix A).

Figure 2.2. An integrated model of work motivation.

to illustrate the complexity of current theory on work motivation, as compared to the considerably more simplistic model developed by Perry (1996, 2000). In this meta-theory of work motivation presented in Figure 2.2, the entire system within which individual behavior in organizations occurs is laid out. Motivation may be influenced by several different factors, including characteristics of the individual (such as interests, attitudes, and needs, which may be inherent, subconscious, or learned, and involve reinforcement of past experience as well as anticipation of future conditions); job characteristics (such as intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, autonomy, performance feedback, and task variety); and characteristics of the work environment (including the immediate work situation, the environment provided by the organization as a whole, and the community in which the organization operates). Motivation itself is seen as part of a complex that involves topics such as job design, employee and organizational performance, and organizational citizenship and job satisfaction.

The richness and complexity of the work motivation field stands in contrast to the comparatively simple model (Wright, 2001a, 2001b) of public service motivation advanced by Perry and others (Perry, 2000; Perry & Porter, 1982; Perry & Wise, 1990) (see Figure 2.3). Perry (2000) noted that an ongoing criticism to his public service motivation construct was that it is atheoretical, although few of these objections appear specifically in the literature.

In the public service motivation model, humans are assumed to have needs that originate with and/or are modified by the socio-historical antecedents (Perry, 1997, 2000). That is, the individual has personal experience and socialization through the family and other significant institutions, such as religious practice or education, that lead to the development of individual characteristics, including motivations. Since the individual feels some psychological compulsion to satisfy those motivations, the individual will seek out certain jobs or work environments with the expectation that the job, work, and/or external environment will provide rewards to satisfy or fulfill those needs. If the job or work environment fail to produce sufficient rewards to satisfy the individual's motivation, the individual will as a result perform less well in their job, and may even choose to leave for another job and work environment with more promise to meet the individual's needs. The model proposed by Perry collapses the detail and complexity of modern work motivation theory in Figure 2.2 into the much simpler construction in Figure 2.3. The center of this relationship is the individual's psychological needs, which can be met only by the primarily or uniquely public nature of a government position.

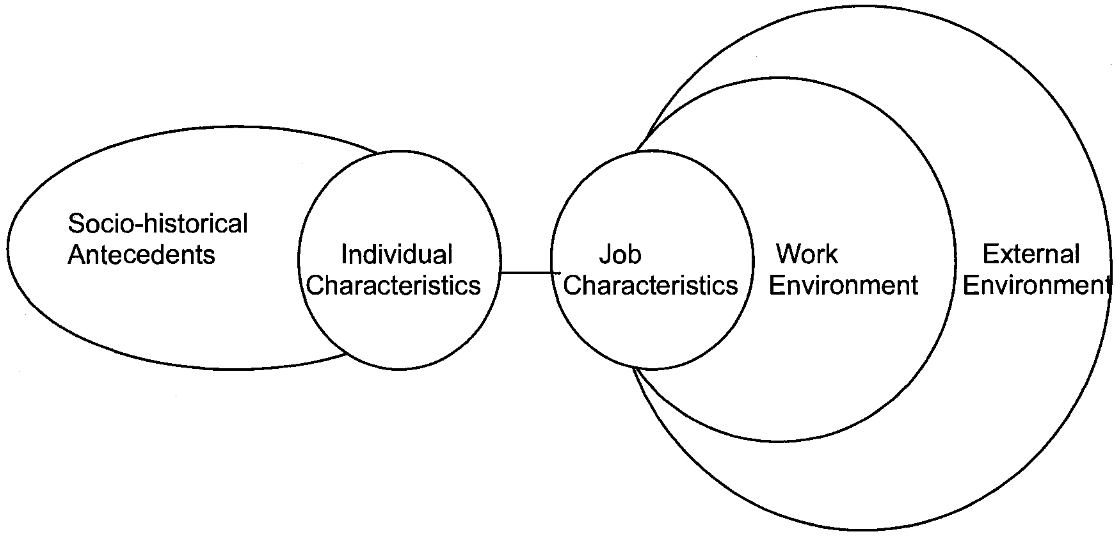


Figure 2.3. Conceptual model of Perry's public service motivation model.

(After Perry 2000; Perry & Porter 1982; Porter & Miles 1974)

Public Service Motivation Theory

Early Ideas in Public Administration about the Public Service

American public administration as a field of study had its origins in the late 1880s, during the time noted above when theories of economic self-interest and scientific management were dominant in both the dawning social sciences and the rapidly growing and changing world of business and industry. This was also a time of governmental reform efforts, fueled by interest in removing the undue influence of partisan politics from the administration of government and increasing the effectiveness and efficiency of government operations. Modern government was seen as being professional in staffing, scientifically based in the design of its policies and programs, and impartial in implementation. From Wilson (1887) onward, the administration and management of government was considered to be identical to the administration and management of business and industry, and the understanding came from theories that equated political behavior with private economic behavior (Denhardt, 2004).

In the 1930s and 1940s, public administration underwent a change. An outward sign of this change was the founding of the American Society for Public Administration when it split off from the American Political Science Association in 1939. Denhardt (2004) identifies two developments that undermined the prior theory of public administration and set public administration on a new course. The first development was the introduction of logical positivism, a philosophy of knowledge that called upon researchers in many social science fields, including political science and public administration, to "contribute to a true science of human behavior, a theoretically coherent body of knowledge produced in much the same manner as knowledge in the natural sciences," (Denhardt, 2004, p. 67). Second was a movement to create a generic approach to the study of management, based on the observed commonalities in public and private management. Simon (1976, original 1947) was an early proponent of this change, challenging the "proverbs" of public administration and modifying the assumptions of economics to more accurately reflect human experience (for example, that humans "satisfice" rather than maximize) (Denhardt, 2004). This positivist approach was centered on the importance of rationality (defined in the utilitarian, economic sense) in individual and collective human behavior, and was focused primarily on the behavior of individuals in the dominant setting of business and government: bureaucratic hierarchies. The key behaviors of interest for this research were decision-making and policy formulation, especially of those at or near the top of the organizational hierarchy (Denhardt, 2004).

In the public administration literature, however, there is a long tradition that challenges the positivist paradigm. Denhardt (2004) terms this stream of thought and research "organizational humanism," a counterpoint to the organizational rationality of the positivist tradition. Denhardt cites the central influence on this stream of public administration literature by Barnard, the Hawthorne experiments, McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, Argyris's research on the interaction between the individual personality and the organization's demands on the individual, and Golembewski's work on organizational change (Denhardt, 2004), all of which are rooted in what is described by Steers and Porter (1983) as management theories of the human resources variety.

Although it has never been a central concern, there is a thread of the public administration literature that challenges the assumption that the public and private sectors are similar enough that a single generic study of management and human behavior can give a complete understanding of why individuals might seek out government service (Boyne, 2002; Denhardt, 2004; Perry & Rainey, 1988). Instead, writers in this thread of the literature assert that there is something fundamentally different about government as a place of employment when compared to the private sector. For example, White (1929) recognized what he called "the prestige value of public employment," which was re-emphasized by Janowitz and Wright (1956). Appleby (1945) boldly asserted that "government is different," that working as an administrator or manager for government, while undoubtedly sharing some traits with similar functions in the private sector, is indeed different in many key aspects and is therefore not simply, as Wilson (1887) put it, a field of business. Guyot (1962) empirically provided support for this argument in an article entitled "Government Employees are Different," using McClelland's learned needs theory.

The Recent Era of Public Administration Thought on the Public Service

The current era of interest in how those working for government might differ from those in private employment might be traced to Buchanan's (1974a, 1974b, 1975a, 1975b) influential work on organizational commitment, red tape, and the service ethic. Other researchers, such as Rainey, Backoff and Levine (1976) and Rainey (1979, 1982) explicitly compared incentives, attitudes, perceptions and behavior of managers in public and private organizations, generally finding modest but significant differences. Perry and Porter (1982) endeavored to summarize the then-current state of motivation theory as it related to public organizations. Using a descriptive classification framework originated by Porter and Miles (1974), Perry and Porter (1982) discussed the motivational context of public organizations. This framework identified four categories of variables as important in affecting individual motivations. These categories included: 1) individual characteristics, 2) job characteristics, 3) work environment characteristics, and 4) external environment characteristics. The authors survey the results of earlier studies (such as Guyot, 1962) that support the proposition that individuals who work in public organizations have differing motives and responses to incentives than those in the private sphere; that many public sector jobs have different characteristics than the equivalent private sector positions (while some public sector jobs may have no private-sector equivalent); that public sector workplaces (that is, government agencies) are significantly different than private sector organizations in many respects; and that public and private organizations monitor and respond differently to their external environments, especially the political environment. Perry and Porter (1982) proceeded to review the literature on four motivational techniques as applied in the public and private sectors: monetary incentives, goal setting, job design, and participation. They concluded by recommending an agenda for research that included study of the match between individuals and their organizations, measures of individual performance, the importance of goal clarity, the issue of job security, and factors that might moderate the effectiveness of specific motivational techniques. They ended by noting that "generally, the literature on motivation tends to concentrate too heavily on employees within industrial and business organizations," (Perry & Porter, 1982, p. 97) at a time when about 20 percent of American workers were employed in the public sector.

Development of the Public Service Motivation Construct

Perry and Wise (1990)

Perry and Wise (1990) offered a more formal justification for the consideration of the special motivations that individuals serving in the public sector may have, giving the concept the name public service motivation. This justification was considered necessary to counter two developments in the field (Perry & Wise, 1990). The first development was "the rise of the public choice movement, which is predicated on a model of human behavior that assumes that people are motivated primarily by self interest," (p. 367). The second development was the increasing popularity of using monetary incentive systems in public organizations. "These related trends stand in opposition to the view that public service motives energize and direct the behavior of civil servants," (p. 367).

Perry and Wise (1990) therefore undertook to "clarify the nature of public service motivation and to identify and evaluate research related to its effects on public employee behavior," (p. 368). They defined public service motivation as "an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations," (p. 368). They defined the term "motives" to mean "psychological deficiencies or needs that an individual feels some compulsion to eliminate," (p. 368). Following the proposal of Knoke and Wright-Isak (1982), Perry and Wise (1990) suggest that public service motives fall into three "analytically distinct categories: rational, normative, and affective. Rational motives involve actions grounded in individual utility maximization. Normative motives refer to actions generated by efforts to conform to norms. Affective motives refer to triggers of behavior that are grounded in emotional responses to various social contexts," (p. 368).

In their article, Knoke and Wright-Isak (1982) develop a predisposition/opportunity model between individual motives and organizational incentives, and three distinct components each to the individual motives behind purposive social action and the organizational incentives. The individual motives included interests (rational choice), values (normative conformity), and identification (affective bonding). There are also three distinct kinds of organizational incentives: utilititarian, normative and affective. Together, these form an 8-fold typology of pure and mixed incentives, including selective incentives and public goods (rational); moral obligations, value expressions, and principles and purposes (normative); and interpersonal relationships, charismatic leadership, and identification with collective symbols (affective). The authors used data collected on voluntary member-benefit organizations, but argued that the findings should be applicable both to organizations in the private and public sectors as well (Knoke & Wright-Isak, 1982). While Perry (Perry, 2000; Perry & Wise, 1990) use the concepts underlying this model, the concepts were clearly modified somewhat for use in the model of public service motivation. The Knoke and Wright-Isak article apparently garnered little response in the work motivation literature (Social Science Citation Index, 2009).

Perry and Wise (1990) noted that "Little of the literature on public service motivation acknowledges that some of the motives unique to public service are rational in nature: motives are usually treated as wholly altruistic. A strong case can be made, however, that public service motivation is sometimes grounded in individual utility maximization," (p. 368). The authors offer three examples of non-monetary rational interest: participation in policy formulation, personal identification with and commitment to public programs, and advocacy for a special interest. For norm-based motivations, they identified three motives, including the desire to serve the public interest, a sense of loyalty and duty to the government, and the concept of social equity. Finally, for affective motivations, they identified two: commitment to a program derived from belief in its social importance, and, citing Frederickson and Hart (1985), the "patriotism of benevolence," which combines "love of regime values and love of others," (Perry & Wise, 1990, p. 369).

Perry and Wise (1990) argued that "although theory has not been well developed, the literature on public administration has contended that what has historically been called the public service ethic and what is defined more formally in the present study as public service motivation has significant behavioral implications," (p. 370) in terms of individual job choice, job performance, and organizational effectiveness. Thus, the authors make three propositions:

> "1. The greater an individual's public service motivation, the more likely the individual will seek membership in a public organization...;
> 2. In public organizations, public service motivation is positively related to individual performance...; [and]
> 3. 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," (pp. 370-371).

The authors conclude this study with a set of research priorities, starting with confirming and testing the definition of public service motivation and the three propositions. Next, they call for the development of measurement methods that operationalize the rational, norm-based and affective motives that underlie public service motivation. Finally, they argue that means of instilling public service motivation in the general population, especially among youth, is needed. "The relationship between individual value structures and the conduct of government remains a critical concern for administrative states where democracy is largely implemented by the bureaucracy," (Perry & Wise, 1990, p. 372).

Perry (1996)

Perry (1996) described the process by which he developed the instrument for measuring public service motivation. The instrument was initially conceived as a 40-item survey with six subscales (measuring underlying dimensions of public service motivation, termed 1) attraction to policymaking, 2) commitment to the public interest, 3) compassion, 4) self-sacrifice, 5) social justice, and 6) civic duty), but after confirmatory factor analysis was reduced to 24 items and four subscales (measuring dimensions termed attraction to policymaking, commitment to civic duty and the public interest [and incorporating social justice], compassion, self-sacrifice). Several authors have sought to confirm the validity of the instrument for measuring public service motivation (Coursey & Pandey, 2007; Coursey, Perry, Brudney & Littlepage, 2008; Perry & Coursey, 2005; Wright & Davis, 2003; Wright & Pandey, 2005). Several authors have extended the research into non-American settings, including Kim (2004, 2005), Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2003), Kim and Wright (2007), Vandenabeele and Horton (2008), and Camilleri (2006). Generally, the validity of the instrument, either in its full or an abbreviated form, is confirmed. The current study will use the 24-item instrument and the four subscales.

Perry (1997)

Perry (1997) used the instrument to try to identify antecedent conditions for the development of a public service motivation in individuals. Perry looked in part to existing research related to the four dimensions of public service motivation identified in Perry (1996): attraction to policy making, commitment to public interest/civic duty, compassion, and self-sacrifice. In addition, Perry sought antecedents to public service motivation in studies that look at how norm-based motives may be learned, socialized, and changed. He identified five possible sources, including parental socialization (with components of parental modeling and relationships with parents), religious socialization (with components of religious worldview, closeness to God, and church involvement), professional identification, political ideology, and individual demographics (which consisted of gender, age group, education level, and current annual income). He developed subscales to test these antecedent sources against his public service motivation instrument. The instrument was applied to the sample reported in Perry (1996).

Since then, several other researchers have attempted to confirm and expand upon the possible antecedent factors, including those based in demographic characteristics (for example, Houston, 2000; Leete, 2000), characteristics of the job or workplace (for example, Alonso & Lewis, 2001; Brewer & Selden, 1998, 2000; Bright, 2005; Mannheim & Papo, 2000; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Scott & Pandey, 2005; Selden & Brewer, 2000; Wright, 2003, 2004, 2007), and historically unique background experiences of individuals (DeHart-Davis, Marlowe & Pandey, 2006; DeHart-Davis & Pandey, 2005; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Perry & Coursey, 2005).

Perry (2000)

In 2000, Perry offered a more detailed discussion of the theoretical underpinnings of the public service motivation construction. Most of the article utilizes the thinking of others (especially Bandura, 1977, 1986; Knoke & Wright-Isak, 1982; Shamir, 1991) in criticizing the existing mainstream of motivational research, especially research connected with economic theory, and offering premises of an alternative theory of motivation. While Perry draws on certain arguments of Bandura concerning self-image in motivation, he does not connect Bandura's social-cognitive theory—now an important part of work motivation theory and research (Bandura, 1988; Wood & Bandura, 1989)—to his own public service motivation construct.

Drawing on Shamir (1991), Perry identified five shortcomings of motivational research, including 1) a bias towards considering individuals to be rational maximizers; 2) a bias towards "strong" situations in which goals are clear, resources are abundant, and performance is directly rewarded; 3) a failure to identify the behaviors to which motivation theory applies; 4) a conception of intrinsic motivation as task-specific and not symbolic in nature; and 5) the exclusion of values and moral obligations from the understanding of intrinsic motivation.

In unifying these criticisms and alternative ideas concerning motivation, Perry's (2000) theoretical premises include: 1) that rational, normative and affective processes are important to understanding human motivation, especially in relation to public action; 2) that people are motivated by their personal self-concepts; 3) that preferences should be endogenous to motivation theory, rather than exogenous (as they are under rational choice theories); and 4) that preferences are learned by individuals through socialization. These premises lead to what Perry describes as a "process theory" of public service motivation, featuring reciprocal relationships between three factors: environmental influences, cognitive and other personal factors, and behavior. Perry describes four domains of variables: sociohistorical context (including antecedents such as education, family and religious socialization, and life events), motivational context (including institutions such as beliefs, values and ideology, as well as job characteristics, organizational incentives and work environment), individual characteristics (abilities and competencies; self-concept; and self-regulatory processes), and behavior within the organization (including rational choice, rule-based, and obligation-based behavior). After discussing this process theory, Perry concludes that the commonplace statistical study of public service motivation (which defines almost all of the current research, including this study) should give way to qualitative studies that can reveal deeper patterns of motivation and its impact on behavior in public organizations. While this model includes more of the concepts that regularly appear in the broader work motivation literature, this construct does not clearly align with existing work motivation theories that are illustrated earlier in Figure 2.2.

Supporting Conceptions of the Public Service Motivation

Perry's public service motivation construct is also supported by an argument from a very different literature—social psychology rather than motivation theory. Batson, Ahmad, and Tsang (2002) also offer a critique of the rational self-interest model of human motivation, and develop an argument for four motivations for individuals engaging in community involvement. This includes egoism (a desire to increase the welfare of the self), altruism (a desire to increase the welfare of one or more other individuals), collectivism (a desire to increase the welfare of a group or community), and principlism (a desire to uphold a moral or ethical principle). Unfortunately, Batson, Ahmad, and Tsang did not empirically test this model.

This scheme by Batson, Ahmad, and Tsang (2002) seems to parallel Brewer, Selden and Facer (2000), who identify four individual conceptions of public service motivation in a Q-methodology study using Perry's (1996) original 40-item PSM instrument. They identified Samaritans, Communitarians, Patriots, and Humanitarians. Samaritans are primarily motivated to serve through compassion for others and an interest in social justice. Communitarians are primarily motivated by civic duty, commitment to the public interest, and self-sacrifice. Patriots are motivated by a commitment to the public interest, civic duty, compassion and self-sacrifice. Finally, Humanitarians are similar to Patriots, but embrace social justice while Patriots are not as concerned with that motive, and Humanitarians do not seem to be moved by the call of civic duty, while it is central to the Patriot's motivation. In a simple sense, Samaritans are oriented toward helping individuals in need, Communitarians toward helping the group or community, Patriots to helping the nation and its people, and Humanitarians to the higher principles of humankind without regard to borders. These two articles suggest that any study of public service motivation needs to consider these differing constructions of service to the public. Because Perry (1996) eliminated 16 of the original 40 items and combined the original six subscales into four, it is difficult if not impossible to classify individuals responding to Perry's 24-item instrument in the manner proposed by Selden, Brewer and Facer (2000).

Other researchers have attempted to test the public service motivation construct using measures other than Perry's (1996) instrument, including Gabris and Simo (1995), Crewson (1997), Leavitt (1996), Houston (2005), Brewer (2003), and Vinzant (1998). All but Gabris and Simo found support for public service motivation being a significant if modest factor in individual behavior in organizations. The focus of a number of other studies has been on differences between the private and public sectors and whether public service motivation can account for any portion of the sector difference. These studies include Wittmer (1991), Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998), Jurkiewicz, Massey and Brown (1998), Naff and Crum (1999), Selden and Brewer (2000), Lewis and Frank (2002), Frank and Lewis (2004), Buelens and van den Broeck (2007), Perry and Lee (2007). Again, these studies have found varying degrees of evidence supporting differences between sectors in terms of measured levels of public service motivation or other factors, such as job commitment.

Fitting the Public Service Motivation Construct into Work Motivation Theory

Although Perry and Porter (1982) reviewed the then-existing literature of the work motivation field as it related to public organizations, most subsequent work on public service motivation in the public administration literature has ignored developments in the larger work motivation field. Certainly, the central authors in developing the public service motivation concept, Perry and Wise (1990) and Perry (1996, 1997, 2000), do not look extensively to the existing literature in work motivation, except for that originating with public administration or public management scholars, and make no attempt to fit the public service motivation construct into the existing work motivation models discussed above, even in modified form. An exception to this is Wright (2001a, 2001b), who instead of starting with the public administration literature, begins with the work motivation literature, and finds—echoing Perry and Porter's (1982) observations on the matter almost twenty years before—that very little effort has been devoted to researching work motivation in the public sector. According to Wright (2001a, 2001b), the literature that does exist (and includes the work of Perry and his co-authors as well as other researchers) is driven by the distinction between the public and private sectors. He conceives of two streams of work motivation determinants, one focusing on employee characteristics, and the other on the organizational environment. Indeed, he finds that "the very premise of this literature is that the motivational context in one sector is in some way different from that of the other," (Wright, 2001a, p. 563). The two fundamental assumptions of the public sector work motivation research, he notes, are that the characteristics of employees or the work environment are different between the public and private sectors, and that these differences have meaningful, measurable impact on work performed in the two sectors.

After reviewing the relevant literature, Wright concludes that evidence for both of these assumptions is mixed at best, even though there is a strong theoretical basis supporting them. He attributes this weak empirical evidence to poorly defined and operationalized differences between the sectors and, due to the comparative nature of the research, difficulties in clearly separating sector differences from factors having to do with differences in individual traits and demographics, culture, profession or occupation, and industry. To clearly separate these factors requires carefully constructed samples from both sectors for comparison, Wright notes. "Such samples are not only difficult to obtain, they are largely missing in this literature," (2001a, p. 571), and that much of the research is based on samples of convenience instead. In addition, he finds that "much of the research on motivation in the public sector has been grounded in humanistic theories," (p. 572) such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs or Herzberg's two-factor theory. These humanistic theories have been discredited by more recent research, he asserts, which supports models that include goals, self-efficacy, performance and other factors in addition to individual needs and values and the incentives and disincentives of the job and workplace. Work motivation, he writes, "is just one factor that influences [individual and organizational] performance, [but] it is a critical moderator between performance and such other factors as ability or situation," (p. 581). Thus he supports further research, despite what he sees as the weak existing evidence and difficulties in organizing studies to improve that evidence.

Why Public Service Motivation is Important to Study

As noted above, Wright (2001a, 2001b) points out that research on a unique public service motivation is predicated on meaningful differences between individuals, jobs, workplaces and organizational environments in the public and private sectors. He finds the evidence supporting the assumption of differences weak at best, but supports the underlying theory that suggests differences should exist. Echoing Rainey and Steinbauer

(1999), Wright argues that "Greater attention should given [sic] to work motivation if for no other reason than that a better understanding of work motivation is essential to any efforts to understand or even improve the efficiency and effectiveness of public organizations," (2001a, p. 580).

Perry and Wise (1990) argue that pursuing understanding of public service motivation is necessary to challenge the dominance of public choice theory, which is a key part of the New Public Management and the reinvention movement in government, and includes practices such as pay-for-performance, from both theoretical and practical standpoints. Perry (2000) makes rather brief practical and scholarly arguments for the importance of his formalization of a theory of public service motivation. On the practical side, he sees it as helping managers to identify individuals who are most suited to public sector employment, and to understand the motives of their employees. On the scholarly side, he expects it to aid in the broader understanding of the motivational and management differences between the public and private sectors.

Brewer (2002) presents arguments supporting the importance of public service motivation both within public administration and beyond. He suggests four issues of importance in public administration: 1) individual work motivation and public sector productivity; 2) improved management practices; 3) enhanced political accountability; and 4) improved citizen trust in government. Beyond public administration, two broad implications are of importance to the study and practice of government in a democracy. First is the challenge to the self-interest model of human motivation, and second is broad application of the public service motivation concept to the whole of society, because many people not serving in government may also have motivation to serve the public.

These motivations are expressed through the creation of social capital, meaning participation in public, community and social services that occur primarily through nonprofit organizations (Putnam, 2000; Putnam, Leonardi & Nanetti, 1993).

There are two possible outcomes of this research into the public service motivation concept: the concept may be supported, or it may not. The implications are significant. If public service motivation is supported as an important factor in the motivation of individuals working in the public sector, then public administration will have a second viable explanation (in addition to rational self-interest) for individual attitudes and behaviors. This alternative explanation could have application in other social sciences, and could improve understanding of organizational behavior and dynamics as well as individual behavior in political science and economics. Certainly, a clearly detectable and important effect would have implications for the broader field of work motivation theory. Second, support of public service motivation theory would support the continued discussion about the distinction between the public and private sectors by reinforcing the idea that the two arenas are substantially different. Finally, there are implications for many management theories and practices having to do with the structure and organization of work activities, the incentives needed to produce optimum performance from employees, and the organizational practices needed for public organizations to meet their goals of efficiency, effectiveness and equity. By supporting the presence of a significant public service motivation, some management theories and practices would be reinforced, while others might be undermined.

On the other hand, if public service motivation is not supported as an important explanation for individual behavior in public organizations, then there is no viable second explanatory model for human behavior, the differentiation between public and private organizations is not supported, and other management theories and practices, including many of those featured in the New Public Management and reinvention, such as performance incentives, may be justified.

The current study takes steps toward resolving these issues, by seeking to replicate Perry's (1996) findings, and thus extend the external validity of the public service motivation model to a clearly different population. In addition, the current study seeks to test two other measures of motivation, and determine whether all three of the measures may be part of a larger motivational construct herein termed "motivation to serve the public."

Conclusion

The idea of a separate and distinct motivation to public service, based on non-material self-interest as well as normative and affective motives, on its face could be a powerful explanation for why individuals service in the public interest, whether through government or nonprofit sector organizations. The theory of public service motivation, as it has been stated by Perry and Wise (1990; Perry, 2000), and operationalized by Perry (1996, 1997), and tested and extended by numerous others, has thus far seen only weak (as argued by Wright, 2001a, 2001b) to modest (as summarized by Perry, 2000) levels of empirical support. The following chapter lays out the methodology of the study, the reasoning and actual steps that will be taken to collect and analyze data about motivation to serve the public.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

The introductory chapter of this dissertation answered the "what is this study about," question: the public service motivation construct, tested in the context of local elected officials, as well as two alternative measures of motivation. The literature review then answered the "why is this study important," question: public service motivation is an interesting, important concept for understanding why individuals expend effort to work for and otherwise support public organizations. This chapter answers the questions of who, how, when, and where the public service motivation construct and the alternative measures were tested. The chapter begins by identifying the subjects of the study and the basis for their selection and the design of the study. Next, the creation of the survey instrument used in the study is discussed, including identification of the variables and how they relate to the concepts used in the study. The following section lays out the purposes and research questions of this study. Finally, the primary method of data analysis is described.

Who Was Studied?

From a theoretical standpoint, elected local officials, especially township officials, provide a good pool of subjects for study of public service motivation. While the fields of public administration and public management are traditionally concerned with individuals hired by government to carry out administrative and management functions, there are two reasons justifying the study of elected township officials. First, four of the five township positions (supervisors, clerks, assessors and highway commissioners) are administrative in nature. In most townships, there are four elected administrators and four elected trustees. The primary function of the trustees is oversight of the activities of the administrators. At least in smaller and perhaps even many mid-sized townships, the elected official is also the front-line service providers, the implementer of the township's programs. In larger townships with more employees, the elected administrator may be a manager of hired staff that carries out programs. Second, and in a broader sense, public administration and public management are increasingly about governance, the coordination of various public and private elements of society in selecting and directing public purposes (Frederickson, 2003), and not solely about the management of government agencies and implementation of government programs. In the literature on public service motivation itself, the concept has evolved from being tested only among government and private sector employees (as a comparison) (Falcone, 1991; Gabris & Simo,1995; Perry, 1996, 1997; Wittmer, 1991) to including volunteers and employees associated with nonprofit organizations (Jones & Hill, 2003; Lee & Olshfski, 2002; Perry & Coursey, 2005). This study further extends the studied groups to include elected officials (who, it can be argued, might have a motivation to serve the public) as well as a specific group of local-level administrators.

In Illinois, 85 of 102 counties have active township governments. There are 1,433 active townships (a mean of just under 17 per county), and a total of about 10,800 elected township officials (most townships have 7 or 8, and about 127 per county). The five kinds of elected township officials each have a different function or functions. These can be classified into three categories of officials: generalists (supervisors and clerks, who have multiple responsibilities for different township programs), specialists (road commissioners and assessors, who each have responsibility for only one program or activity), and oversight (the trustees). Generalists and specialists can further be grouped together as elected administrators, while trustees are a separate category of oversight. It is conceivable that generalists might have differing motivation to serve than specialists based on the number and kind of responsibilities of the different roles. Likewise, administrators, in their particular roles or in general, might differ in motivation from trustees.

Because part of the definition of public service motivation rests on the uniquely public nature of the job (Perry, 1997, 2000; Perry & Wise, 1990), some consideration must be given here to the question of whether the township positions being studied are indeed primarily or uniquely public. One potential answer comes from the federal Office of Management and Budget, an agency of the executive branch, which to implement the provisions of the Federal Activities Inventory Reform Act of 1998 (Office of Management and Budget, 2008) provides direction to federal agencies in determining which activities are "inherently governmental" and therefore not subject to privatization. According to the text of OMB Circular No. A-76 (Revised) (Defense Logistics Agency, 2008), inherently governmental activities are "so intimately related to the public interest as to mandate performance by government personnel," (section B.1.a). The section goes on to note "these activities require the exercise of substantial discretion in applying government authority and/or in making decisions for the government." The guidance identifies two categories of inherently governmental activities: those involving the exercise of sovereign government authority, and those involving "procedures and processes related to the oversight of money transactions or entitlements." This includes 1) decisions or actions that bind the government to take or not take some action, 2) determining, protecting and advancing government interests through a variety of means, including military action, diplomatic action, legal or administrative proceedings, contract management, and so on, 3) that may significantly affect the life, liberty or property of individuals, and/or 4) exerts control over government property, whether real or personal property, and whether tangible or intangible. Section B.1.c notes that inherently governmental activities or authority may be specified by statute, among other limitations on what can be considered governmental or commercial activities. Using this definition, it seems clear that because townships and their official positions are established in the Illinois state constitution, and the Illinois General Assembly has provided specific statutory mandates as well as options for other program areas, it would seem that township officials—as individuals charged with using considerable discretion in the exercise of sovereign government authority and being involved with oversight of money transactions and entitlements that fit the description of the four specifications in section B.1.a.—are indeed engaged in inherently governmental activities. Table 3.1 compares the township positions and their functions and services with private and nonprofit sector equivalent positions, if any.

This distinction is important to understanding the conceptual difference between public service motivation and the alternative measure of task motivation advanced by Lee and Olshfski (2002) and Rainey and Steinbauer (1999). While public service motivation focuses on the contribution the individual gives to society, task motivation is related to the enjoyment or satisfaction the individual derives from performing the job itself. Rainey and Steinbauer offer a further distinction between public service motivation, task motivation, and mission motivation, which has to do with the individual's alignment with the organization's stated or implicit purpose. As an illustration, one might consider

Table 3.1
Comparison of Township Positions with Nonprofit and Private Sector Equivalents

Position Title (and type)	Selected Function(s)	Selected Service(s)	Nonprofit/Private Sector Equivalent
Supervisor (General administrator)	-Budget preparation -Treasurer for township -Voting member of board (chief executive officer)	-Administers general assistance program* -Administers other programs as directed by trustees and electors (such as cemeteries, commodity distribution, fire protection, etc.)	Chief executive officer/chief administrative officer
Clerk (General administrator)	-Keeper of records -Oversees bidding process -Convenes annual meeting	-Administers other programs as directed by trustees and electors	Chief operating officer/Vice-president of operations
Assessor (Specialist administrator)	Sets value of property for tax assessment *	None	Real estate appraiser; insurance appraiser
Highway Commissioner (Specialist administrator)	-Build and maintain township roads and bridges* -Prepares own budget	-Driveway culverts for property owners (free or for fee)	None
Trustee (Oversight)	-General oversight of programs -Approval of budget and spending	None	Board of Directors

* State mandated services

the possible motives of an individual lawyer. If the individual is task motivated, he or she will like doing legal work, and the exact setting is not of particular importance. If the individual is mission motivated, then he or she might want to work to advance the purposes of the organization, for example, perhaps as a prosecutor in a state's attorney's office because a personal interest in law and order coincides with the purposes of the organization. Finally, a lawyer who wants to advance the good of the government, the state, or society as a whole might be motivated to work in a public organization because that is where they see their efforts having the greatest impact.

While Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) note that these three motivations are not mutually exclusive and can be closely intertwined, Lee and Olshfski (2002) challenge the explanatory power of the public service motivation model, and instead assert that task motivation—commitment to the job and identification with the role the job represents—is a stronger explanation of behavior than is public service motivation, at least in the case of firefighters. Under this model, we would expect to find that township trustees become trustees because they identify with and are committed to the task of oversight, to the job of being a trustee. Likewise, assessors identify with the task of assessing property, highway commissioners with road construction and maintenance, supervisors with those tasks associated with the position, and clerks with their tasks.

Study Design

There are two general ways to study public service motivation among elected township officials in Illinois. One way would be to attempt to ascertain how frequently and how intensely it appears among members of the population of interest. The other way would be to determine what factors most contribute to its occurrence when and where it does appear, regardless of its frequency in the population. The former is investigated through the application of probability sampling, while the latter would be investigated through the application of theoretical sampling. Probability sampling seeks to identify the distribution of characteristics in the population being studied, while theoretical sampling requires the specification of terms of selection, to ensure that the pool of subjects reflects the variety of characteristics that exist in the population, rather than the distribution of those characteristics in the population.

Theoretical sampling was used in the selection of the individuals and locations sampled for this dissertation project. Analysis of other data collected through the survey instrument required the use of sampling logic. However, the current study does not rely on this. Theoretical sampling represents the use of replication logic rather than sampling logic (Yin 2003). Sampling logic, according to Yin, "demands an operational enumeration of the entire universe or pool of potential respondents and then a statistical procedure for selecting the specific subset of respondents to be surveyed," and is applicable when attempting to determine "the prevalence or frequency of a particular phenomenon," (p. 47). Replication logic, on the other hand, seeks to establish the parameters within which a phenomenon might or might not be observed. Therefore, subjects are selected so that the results might be used to predict similar results, or different but predictable (on theoretical grounds) results.

There are two general weaknesses to theoretical sampling, and they are essentially the inverse the strengths of the method. First, while the results can be used to build and support theory, the results cannot be used to generalize the findings to the population as a whole without careful attention to the variables of interest, because the sample was not drawn to represent the population, but the range of variation on key variables. Thus, even though the sample in this study amounts to roughly 10 percent of the pool of subjects, generalization to that larger population is not immediately supported. Second, while the strength of the method lies in selecting cases on the basis of variation in key parameters, if that set of key variables is not complete or contains extraneous variables, or the information on the range of variation on those key variables is not complete or accurate, then the analytic results will be of reduced value for theory building. Again, because the current study is not analyzing the variables relevant to the theoretical sampling, this is not a concern for this dissertation.

It would be possible to select a probability sample from this pool of approximately 10,800 township officials in Illinois. However, as was discussed in the introductory chapter, such a study would still suffer from the problem of not being able to identify many potential influences on the individual, or on the job and workplace, that stem from the community, work environment, and societal levels. Thus, theoretical sampling rather than probability sampling of the population was selected for this study.

There is no current demographic or other data available on elected township officials in Illinois. Therefore, a proxy must be used to select township officials that may have significant variation on the characteristics of interest. That is, by selecting representative townships, the individuals will be selected with the intent to find a wide variety of conditions at the environmental (township and county) levels, which would thus maximize the variability from those levels. By then conducting a census of the individuals, the relationships between the various levels should become more clearly delineated.

The primary limitation of theoretical sampling in this case is that the results may not be easily generalizable to the population as a whole, and thus may tell us little about the prevalence of public service motivation among elected township officials as a population. While this is not pertinent to the current analysis, future studies using data from this study would benefit from careful analytic construction of the variables, which would allow results to be generalized to the population as a whole.

Selection of Subjects

Sample Size

While each Illinois township should have eight elected officials, state law (especially the provision of multi-township assessors) provides that some townships will have fewer, or in a few counties, more (those with township tax collectors). Thus, most townships have either seven or eight elected officials, with a few having as few as six or as many as nine. As well, at any given time, there may be some vacant positions, such as when an individual retires with part of a term remaining. Any study that attempts to understand the local influences—in this case township- and county- level influences—on individual public service motivation of those officials must attempt to survey every available individual. Thus, a census of elected officials in the selected townships was deemed necessary, although no census will result in a 100 percent response. Clearly, in an individual township, only response rates approaching 100 percent would allow for any statistical conclusions. The best hope for sufficient response in a limited geographical area is the county level. Since each county contains many townships, lower response rates per township is allowable while still providing some control over local sources of influence.

Prior estimate of response rates is apparently unreliable, but a suggested expected response rate of 60 percent (Salant & Dillman 1994) may be overly optimistic for a public administration study, compared to rates often reported in the literature. A more conservative estimate of 30 percent overall was assumed to develop the sampling for this study. Thus, of seven or eight officials in a township, about two responses might be expected. But, at the county level, with on the order of a hundred officials available, at least several dozen responses might be collected, which would allow for significant statistical analysis. To have a minimum of three expected responses for each position (supervisor, etc.), at a 30 percent response rate, officials in at least 10 townships would need to be surveyed in each county.

Factors Used in Selection of Sampling Locations

The optimum number of counties to be included in this study was problematic. At a minimum, a selection of three would seem to be needed, and while larger numbers might be desired, the cost and logistics of surveying officials in even a quarter of all 85 counties with townships would be prohibitive. Several criteria for grouping counties for selection were considered: population, population change, wealth, minority population, poverty rate, unemployment rate, political culture, geography (with the state arbitrarily divided into three to six regions) and so on. In the end, interest in variations in community level attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors related to government suggested that a measure of political culture against population class would give a 9-square distribution of counties, from which in theory one county could be selected from each category.

According to Elazar (1970, 1972), political culture represents the attitudes and beliefs held collectively by a community's residents regarding government and political institutions. This is therefore of interest in relation to the individual measures of motivation to serve the public, which might be influenced by local culture. One might expect individualistic, moralistic or traditionalistic cultures would support different motivations for entering government service, since for example, individualistic culture considers government and political service as a place for professionals, moralistic culture considers such service as a moral responsibility for everyone, and traditionalists consider political service the venue of traditional elites carrying out their public responsibilities. Thus, who is eligible to serve, and why they as an individual might seek to serve, can be impacted by the political culture of the community.

Monroe's (1977) operationalization of Elazar's three streams of political culture in Illinois counties was used because it was the only county-level operationalization found for Illinois, even though it is over 30 years old and was based on analysis of county conditions only up to the 1870s. A more recent study of counties in Illinois and several other states and based on more recent indicators has been presented at a conference [Brown & Palmer, 2004], but not otherwise published. Efforts to acquire a copy of the paper and the associated data have not been successful to date. Under Monroe's system, each county has three scores, corresponding to the Northern (Elazar's Moralistic), Middle (Individualist), and Southern (Traditionalistic) political streams. A positive score indicates a relatively stronger presence in the county's political culture of that particular stream, while a negative score suggests that the stream is not strongly associated with the county's political culture. The three scores are independent, and therefore it is possible that the three scores for a county can be positive, negative, or in some combination, and a county may have positive scores in one, a combination of two, all three, or none of the streams. A total of eight mixed political culture categories exist. Only those counties with a single positive score were selected as possible sampling locations for this study.

Difference in population is one of the obvious categories for classifying and analyzing communities. It is intuitive that individuals living and working in a township consisting of a few hundred individuals has a fair chance of knowing at least by sight most if not all of the other community members, while individuals living in a township of 100,000 cannot possibly know more than a small fraction of the total. This difference on its face has importance for an individual's motivation to serve the public: serving known individuals and serving an abstract population, an issue suggested by Putnam, Leonardi and Nanetti (1993). Because of this, the three political streams were divided across three population classifications (Table 3.2, below).

To classify counties based on population, a modification of standard definitions of noncore, micropolitan and metropolitan counties laid out by the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Economic Research Service (Economic Research Service, 2007) was used. In Table 3.2, "small" counties are those with populations of 49,999 or fewer residents. Medium counties have populations between 50,000 and 249,999. Large counties have populations greater than 250,000 residents.

Originally, it was expected that the nine-fold classification of counties would result in the selection of one from each of the nine cells. However, as seen in Table 3.2, the 46 counties classified with a "pure" political culture are unevenly distributed across the three population categories and three political cultures. This asymmetric distribution required careful consideration of factors for each county. For both the moralistic and individualistic political cultures, one county would be selected for each of the population categories. For the traditionalistic culture, Jackson County was selected as the medium-sized county. Because there was no large county in this culture category, the second-

Table 3.2
*Illinois Counties by Size Class and Political Culture Classification**

	Single Positive Political Culture Score		
Population Class	Moralistic (M)	Individualistic (I)	Traditionalistic (T)
Small (49,999 and under)	***Bureau***	Cass	Brown
	Lee	***Ford***	Clay
	Grundy	Hancock	Crawford
		Henderson	***Effingham***
		Jo Daviess	Fayette
		Marshall	***Franklin***
		Stark	Gallatin
		Stephenson	Greene
		Warren	Hamilton
			Jasper
			Jefferson
			Macoupin
			Marion
			Saline
			Shelby
			Washington
			Wayne
Medium (50,000 to 249,999)	DeKalb	Knox	***Jackson***
	Kankakee	***Rock Island***	
	Kendall	Whiteside	
	LaSalle		
	Peoria		

Table 3.2
Continued

Large	Cook**	***Madison***	
(250,000+)	DuPage		
	Kane		
	Lake		
	McHenry		
	St. Clair		
	Will		
Total	15	13	23

* Classification based on Monroe 1977.
** Excluded from consideration; see discussion in text.
Bold Italics indicate county selected for study.

highest county (Macoupin) was also selected, even though it is classified as a small county. Because of the large number of small traditionalistic counties, it was decided that two other counties from this cell would be included.

Where a choice between counties was possible, a number of characteristics of each county had to be considered, including such factors as household and per capita income, poverty rates, equalized assessed valuation (EAV) of property per capita (a proxy measure of resources available for local government units as well as wealth of the community), the fraction of white non-Hispanic residents (a proxy for population diversity), political party preference in recent elections, population change, the number of organizations per 1,000 residents (a proxy measure for social capital). Cook County was eliminated from consideration because it is an extreme outlier in terms of population and many other factors. In addition, because the townships within the City of Chicago were deactivated in 1902, many of the 29 townships are partial, being the remainders of townships that were outside of the Chicago city limits during that process and have not been annexed since.

From a statistical standpoint, it was decided that several hundred responses would be required for a sufficient analysis, and an expected response of 300 was selected as a target. To achieve that response at an expected rate of 30 percent, approximately 1,000 individuals would have to be included. Assuming 7.5 officials per township, a minimum of 137 townships would be required. To have an equal number of townships for each political culture stream, 138 were needed (with approximately 1,100 individual officials expected), roughly evenly divided between the three political culture types. On this basis, a total of 10 counties were selected for inclusion in this study (see Table 3.3). These counties contain 203 townships and approximately 1,600 individual elected officials. The 46 townships for each type of political culture were allocated to counties on as even a basis as possible within the class. The sample from townships for each political type was about 336 officials, with an expected return of about 101 completed surveys each.

Of the 203 townships in the 10 counties, all 43 of those with populations above 5,000 were included. The remaining 95 townships were divided roughly evenly between townships with populations of 999 and under, and those with between 1,000 and 4,999 residents. Selection was based on the same method used to select the individual counties: significant variation on the various population, economic and social factors, with the

Table 3.3
Comparison of Counties Selected for Study on Number of Townships and Officials

County	Pol. Culture Type	Pop. Class	Total Twps.	Total Est. Officials	Twps. Used	Officials Surveyed
Bureau	Moral.	Small	25	183	15	110
Effingham	Tradition.	Small	15	110	11	80
Ford	Individ.	Small	12	88	12	88
Franklin	Tradition.	Small	16	117	12	88
Jackson	Tradition.	Medium	16	117	11	80
LaSalle	Moral.	Medium	36	270	16	117
Macoupin	Tradition.	Small	25	183	12	88
Madison	Individ.	Large	24	175	17	124
McHenry	Moral.	Large	16	117	15	110
Rock Island	Individ.	Medium	18	131	17	124
Total	10	10	203	1,604	138	1,069
Political	3 Moral.		77	608	46	357
Culture	3 Individ.		54	427	46	366
Total	4 Trad.		72	569	46	346
Population		5 Small	93	679	62	453
Class		3 Med.	70	511	47	343
Total		2 Large	40	292	29	212

Columns and Rows may not add due to rounding.

exception of political preference and the number of organizations per 1,000 residents, factors for which no data is available at the township level.

The 138 selected townships contained 1,093 elected positions, of which 24 were at the time of the survey vacant or contracted out. Thus, the mailing list for the survey included 1,069 individual officials, or about 7.7 officials per township. This amounts to about two-thirds of the officials in the 10 selected counties.

The Survey Instrument

An anonymous mail survey was chosen for the data collection phase of this study. Township Officials of Illinois, a membership education and advocacy organization for elected township officials, provided a mailing list of all township officials in the selected townships. A total of 99 items were included in the instrument (see Appendix B). Of these, 28 comprise the items used in this analysis; see Appendix C for the items and the wording used in the tables in chapter 4. Permission to use these two instruments were granted by the cited authors (Lee & Olshfski, 2002; Perry, 1996) see Appendix A. The items used in this study sought responses on a 5-point Likert-type scale, from strongly disagree to strongly agree. A few of the items were reverse-worded in the original to address the problem of socially preferred responses.

Testing and Validation of the Instrument

A preliminary test of the instrument using twelve volunteer Master of Public Administration and Doctor of Public Administration students highlighted problems with wording consistency and clarity on several items, but suggested a short time to complete: the longest time was about 30 minutes, the shortest less than 15 minutes. Corrections and clarifications were made in response to those comments. As a test of the instrument on actual township officials, surveys were sent to a convenience sample of officials in one township (n = 9) in Sangamon County, Illinois. Eight responses were received, with six respondents noting that it had taken between 15 and 20 minutes to complete the survey, while one said it had taken 45 minutes. The other respondent did not indicate how long it took to complete the instrument. While several offered comments or asked questions regarding the survey items, no significant problems were identified.

The Survey Process

Following the recommendations of Salant and Dillman (1994), a simple booklet design was selected for the mail survey, of a size to easily fit the provided pre-paid return envelope. The survey instrument, the prepaid return envelope, and a two-sided cover letter, including messages from the researcher and the executive director of Township Officials of Illinois (see Appendix B), were included in each envelope, which was addressed to each recipient using the mailing list data provided by Township Officials of Illinois. Each survey instrument included a number identifying the respondent. Initially, it was planned that as completed instruments were returned, the names would be marked off the mailing list, so that the second mailing would only include those who had not returned their surveys. The file containing the identification numbers and the individual name and address information were maintained on a password-secured computer in a locked office. Printed documentation was maintained in a locked file cabinet in a locked office.

Again following the recommendations for mail surveys presented by Salant and Dillman (1994), a multiple-mailing campaign was selected. A preliminary notification postcard was sent out on April 4, 2008, about one week prior to the first mailing of the survey. The survey instrument, return envelope and cover letter were mailed out on April 11, and the first responses were received about a week later. One week following the mailing of the survey instrument, a reminder postcard was sent to all individuals, thanking those who might have already returned their surveys, and encouraging those who had not, to do so soon. While the initial schedule called for a second mailing, consisting of another cover letter, a copy of the survey, and a prepaid return envelope, response over the first three weeks following the initial mailing rapidly surpassed the target response rate (30 percent) for the entire survey campaign. By the beginning of May, the response rate had surpassed 40 percent, and by the time the acceptance period was closed in mid-May, 518 surveys had been received, for a gross response rate of almost 48.5 percent. Of these, 11 proved unusable, for a net response of 507, or 47.4 percent. The second mailing, and a final reminder postcard encouraging the remaining subjects to complete and return their surveys and thanking them for their participation, were deemed unnecessary and were not sent out.

Data Entry and Analysis

As survey responses were received, data was coded and entered into an Excel spreadsheet and verified. When all responses were received and entered, the data was converted into SPSS, in which data manipulations and transformations were conducted, such as the creation of index scores for the various scale variables, and statistical analyses including descriptive analysis, factor analysis, and reliability analysis were performed. The results of these analyses are reported in Chapter 4, Data and Analysis.

Variables

The model of motivation advanced by Perry and Wise (1990) and Perry (1996, 1997, 2000) contrasts the rational choice model of motivation against motivations that arise in rational, normative and affective interests in the public interest. Later, Lee and Olshfski (2002) argued that task motivation was a better explanation of public-oriented behavior than public service motivation.

The first variable of study is a measure of motivation to serve the public. The instrument used to measure this orientation toward working for public and nonprofit organizations is Perry's (1996) public service motivation instrument. The instrument consists of 24 items scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale, and indexed by averaging to determine a mean score. The 24-items are also organized in four subscales (measuring dimensions labeled attraction to policymaking, commitment to civic duty and the public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice) that index responses to varying numbers of questions. In most studies using the public service motivation construct, only parts of three or four of the subscales are used. The items used are combined in a total scale (of less than the 24 original items), as well as three or four abbreviated scales. In studies of public service motivation using some or all of Perry's instrument, the authors create index scores for the subscales and composite scale by one of two methods: averaging the responses, or summing the responses. Perry (1997), for example, uses the mean of the item responses for the subscale and the full 24-item composite public service motivation scale. Others sum the responses, such as Scott and Pandey (2005) using only part of Perry's full instrument and a 5-point Likert scale, and Bright (2005) using the full instrument and a 7-point Likert scale. From a practical standpoint, it appears to make little difference which method is used. In this project, the mean scores rather than the sums are used. In all cases, the implication seems to be that public service motivation is being measured at all levels, from a low of "virtually none" with a score of 1, to the maximum possible with a score of 5, when averaged rather than summed.

As discussed earlier, there are many possible sources of motivation within individuals. This study considers the public service motivation theory in relation to two other measures proposed as dimensions of a larger unseen construct, a motivation to serve the public. First is a test of rational self-interest, using a newly created material self-interest instrument. According to Perry and Wise (1990) public choice theory is the primary explanation of individual work behavior in the field of public management. Several items in the survey instrument were considered potentially useful as measures of material self-interest, if appropriately recoded and used in conjunction with each other. Four items from Perry's self-sacrifice subscale and one item from the commitment to civic duty subscale of the public service motivation instrument were recoded to emphasize an orientation toward self-interest. Two other items taken from the Dran, Albritton and Wyckoff (1991) individualistic political culture scale were included to create an index of material self-interest. Using existing items in this manner creates the potential for multicollinearity during analysis. Multicollinearity is the high intercorrelation between variables, so that the effect cannot be separated (Elliot & Woodward, 2007). This is primarily a problem in analyses such as regression, but can also make analyses, such as the comparison of means, used in this study, difficult to interpret.

The second alternative explanation was Lee and Olshfski's (2002) task motivation, measured with a four-item job commitment and role identification instrument. The four items were taken from their article, modified slightly to fit the township situation, and indexed using a five-point Likert-type scale.

Research Questions

There are five purposes, each represented by one research question, relating to these three measures of motivation to serve the public. The first purpose is an attempt to replicate Perry's (1996) construction of the public service motivation instrument. The research question is, "Does the public service motivation instrument work in this different sample of public employees?" The scores of individual respondents on the entire 24-item instrument will be determined, with those who did not respond to all 24 items being deleted from the analysis. The results will then be subjected to a confirmatory factor analysis using principle axis factoring of a model with a single factor. Cronbach's alpha will also be determined for the model. Replication will be achieved if the items show acceptable communalities and factor loadings, and Cronbach's alpha is within acceptable bounds.

The second objective is to replicate Perry's (1996) pattern and structure of responses. The research question is, "Do the findings of the current study match with those in Perry's (1996) original work?" To replicate the pattern, the means, standard deviations and item-total correlations for each item in the current study will be compared to those reported in Perry (1996). Replication will be achieved if the results of the two studies appear to be similar. To replicate Perry's (1996) structure, a confirmatory principle axis factor analysis of the current data will be conducted to see if the current data loads onto four distinct factors. Replication will be achieved if the items load in substantially the same manner on four factors in the same combinations as established in Perry (1996).

The third purpose of this study is an extension, to determine if the two alternative measures of motivation to serve the public also work in this sample. The research question is, "Do the material self-interest, and job commitment and role identification instruments work in this sample?" The scores of individual respondents on the seven-item material self-interest instrument and the four-item job commitment and role identification instrument will be determined, with those who did not respond to all items being deleted from the analysis. The results will then be subjected to a confirmatory factor analysis using principle axis factoring of a model with a single factor for each instrument. Cronbach's alphas will also be determined for the two models. Validation of the instruments will be achieved if the items show acceptable communalities and factor loadings on their respective models, and the Cronbach's alphas are within acceptable bounds.

The fourth purpose is to further extend the model by determining whether the items from the three instruments are together measuring the same unseen underlying construct, the motivation to serve the public. The research question is, "Do the 31 items from the three instruments work together as a single measure?" To validate and thus extend the model, the means, standard deviations and item-total correlations for each item in the current study will be compared. In addition, a principle axis factor analysis using a single factor will be conducted, as well as determination of the Cronbach's alpha for the scale. Extension of the model will be achieved if the analysis suggests that the items do hold together as an overall scale with an acceptable reliability. To examine the structure of the underlying motivation to serve the public, a confirmatory principle axis factor analysis of the current data will be conducted, to determine if there is a clean, easily identifiable factor structure for the model.

Finally, this study will attempt to further extend the model by determining how each of the three instruments does relative to the others in measuring motivation to serve the public. The research question is, "How do the three instruments perform in comparison to each other in measuring the motivation to serve the public?" That is, how intense is the expression of motivation as measured by each of the instruments. This comparison will be achieved through examination of the descriptive statistics for each scale, especially the means, and the determination of correlation between them. Because each of the three instruments originates in a different theory of motivation, each theory makes a prediction about the relative intensity that it's own measure should display. For example, public choice theory suggests that individuals are motivated primarily by material self-interest; therefore, the material self-interest instrument should display the highest mean score. Comparison of the mean scores should demonstrate which of the three theories may be supported as relatively the primary "motivation to serve the public" for the individuals in this sample.

Principal Axis Factor Analysis of the Data

The current study is a test of measures of motivation to serve the public. Three alternative theories recommend three different measurement instruments to measure different motivations. However, all three motivations may be related, in that they may all contribute to the individual subjects of this study having sought out their elected administrative offices. Because motivation is an unseen, internal feature of individuals, evidence for the motivation must come from observed variables, such as a response to a questionnaire (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow & King, 2006). The unseen variable that is pointed to by the observable variables is called a factor, or construct (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow & King, 2006). Factors can also be described as groups of observable variables that together measure some otherwise unseen construct or structure (Julnes, 1999; Mertler & Vanatta, 2003). Factor analysis is a process to determine which observed variables are describing an unseen structure or construct by detecting the overlapping, shared variability between them.

Perry (1996) reported using maximum likelihood estimation analysis in the process of testing items and developing the public service motivation instrument. In this study, the dimensionality of the scales was investigated using the principal axis factor extraction method with varimax (orthogonal) rotation. Principal axis factoring is a preferred analytic method in situations where assumptions of multivariate normality are or may be violated (Costello & Osborne, 2005). The method appears to perform equally to maximum likelihood factoring in situations where multivariate normality is not violated, and substantially better than maximum likelihood when normality assumptions are violated (Costello & Osborne, 2005), and therefore should be preferred. In the current study, the responses to the job commitment and role identification instrument appeared to not fully meet normality assumptions (specifically, the data were skewed significantly to the right and highly kurtotic, with a double-peaked distribution). However, the public service motivation and material self-interest scales appeared to meet normality assumptions. Given the sample size (n = 507), assertion of the central limit theorem suggests that the distribution will generally meet normality assumptions. Principle axis factoring was favored over maximum likelihood estimation because of this potential problem.

As a test of the factor structure of the instruments, separate analyses were run for each scale specifying different numbers of factors, a method recommended by Costello and Osborne (2005). This allowed for the comparison of the different factor structures in an attempt to identify a "clean" structure (Costello & Osborne, 2005), even though the delineation of underlying constructs was not the primary purpose of this study. Costello and Osborne (2005) define a clean factor structure as one in which there is little or no crossloading between factors, no freestanding factors (only one or two items loading on the factor), and few items that fail to load well on any of the factors. In addition, as the analysis was an attempt to replicate Perry's (1996) factor structure, a "clean" result from the current data would be expected to have those items related to Perry's subscales (e.g, attraction to public policymaking) load on their own factors, and not with items from the other subscales.

Rotation of factors is used to improve the understandability of the factor analysis output and generally is necessary for factor interpretation (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Orthogonal rotation produces factors that are uncorrelated (Costello & Osborne, 2005), while oblique rotation allows factors to correlate, a situation that should be expected in social science research. In situations where factors are uncorrelated, both methods appear to derive very similar results; whereas when factors are correlated, orthogonal rotation will result in the loss of important information about the factors (Costello & Osborne, 2005). However, oblique introduces difficulties in interpretation of factor loadings compared to orthogonal because the rotation may be more or less than 90 degrees in variable space. Also, as the current study is attempting to replicate Perry's (1996) foundational work, it was deemed appropriate to replicate the methods of the original study as closely as possible; thus, orthogonal rotation was selected.

Conclusion

This chapter presents the methodology proposed for this research project, which centers on use of an anonymous survey sent to 1,069 elected township officials in 138 townships in 10 counties. The study attempts to replicate the performance of the public service motivation instrument as developed by Perry (1996) in a different, theoretically interesting population. It then attempts to extend the model by testing two alternative measures and proposing that the three measures together are part of a larger unseen motivation construct, the motivation to serve the public. The following chapter reports the data collected and its analysis to answer the five research questions posed in this study.

CHAPTER 4 DATA AND ANALYSIS

The previous chapter laid out the method used to collect data for this study, including the sample used in the study, the variables of interest, the survey instrument, and the analytic approach to be used to investigate the variables. The first section of this chapter describes the data collected, beginning with descriptive information on the respondents who returned the surveys. The analysis then moves on to answering the project's research questions, which focus on replicating Perry's (1996) original work on the public service motivation instrument. The next sections deal with assessing the material self-interest, and job commitment and role identification instruments separately, and then together with the public service motivation instrument to determine if the three instruments could be measuring different aspects of the same underlying construct, motivation to serve the public. Finally, the performance of the three instruments are compared, suggesting which of the three motivational theories might be most significant among this sample of government officials.

Characteristics of the Respondents

As was discussed in an earlier section, this study selected township officials in 10 counties on a theoretical basis. The total number of subjects included in the survey mailing list was 1,069. The subjects amounted to about 9.9 percent of all elected township officials in the state, and the 138 townships are 9.6 percent of the state's townships.

A total of 518 surveys were returned by the data collection deadline, for a gross return rate of almost 48.5 percent. Of these, 11 were unusable because they were returned completely unmarked or because the respondent returned the partially completed survey but declined participation. The remaining 507 surveys each provided enough information for analysis, and so were scored and entered into the database. Thus, the net response rate is calculated as 47.4 percent.

Demographic Characteristics

There is little existing information on the characteristics of township officials in Illinois. Township Officials of Illinois, which provided the mailing list for these officials, does not collect nor distribute demographic information about its members. Therefore, no data was available on the gender, age, ethnicity, race, education level, socioeconomic status or other variables of potential interest related to the individual officials in the sample from that source. The current survey asked 31 questions that provided socioeconomic and demographic information on the respondents. Table 4.1 presents descriptive data on a selection of variables. This information is not used in the current study, but will be used in future analyses to investigate any relationship between these variables and the measures of motivation. For example, data was collected on a range of demographic variables, as well as using several scale instruments to measure such things as political culture and sense of community, with the intention of replicating and extending Perry's (1997) proposed antecedents to public service motivation.

A cursory analysis of the demographic data suggests that the population of township officials may be on many variables significantly different than the average population of Illinois. For example, while the general population of the state and most counties is slightly biased towards more females than males (the statewide numbers in this discussion come from Census, 2000), the respondents to this survey are overwhelmingly male (about 72 percent). African-Americans make up almost 16 percent of the population, yet only 1 percent of respondents identified themselves as African-American. Likewise, with about 12 percent of the state population being Hispanic, only 1 percent of respondents identified themselves as such. In Illinois, the overall median age is about 34.7, while the median age of individuals 18 years and older appears to be in the low 40s. Respondents to this survey appear to have a median age close to 60 years of age. In terms of personal income, almost two-thirds of the respondents report income in excess of $35,000 a year, and almost half report more than $45,000 a year, while the per capita income level in Illinois is just over $23,100 per year. Finally, the education level of the respondents appears to be close to that of the general population of Illinois, with almost 26 percent having a high school diploma (compared to almost 28 percent in the population; 43 percent (compared to statewide just under 28 percent) have some college or technical schooling, including earned associate's degrees; 15.4 percent (compared to 16.5 percent statewide) have earned bachelor's degrees; and 9 percent (compared to 9.5 percent) have earned a master's degree or higher.

Overall, this suggests that, as a group, township officials have more education, are predominantly white males, are older, and have higher income levels than the general population. Although this analysis does not address these issues, it is possible that these traits may be related to public service motivation and the other measures analyzed in this study. Thus, future research should look into the ways in which public-sector employees differ from those in the private sector.

Table 4.1
Descriptive Statistics for Selected Individual Characteristics of Respondents

Variable	N =	Percent
Gender	*484*	*95.5*
Female	136	28.1
Male	348	71.9
Age	*485*	*95.7*
Under 18	0	0
18-30	3	0.6
31-45	43	8.9
46-60	215	44.3
61-75	175	36.1
76 and over	49	10.1
Education	*489*	*96.4*
Less than High School	15	3.0
High School	132	26.0
diploma/GED	218	43.0
Some college/technical		
school	78	15.4
Bachelor degree	24	4.7
Master degree	22	4.3
Beyond master degree		
Township weekly work	*480*	*94.7*
hours		
0-9 hours	321	66.9
10-19 hours	54	11.3
20-29 hours	44	9.2
30-39 hours	28	5.8
40+ hours	33	6.9

Table 4.1 *(continued)*

Professional organization member related to township job	*488*	*96.3*
Yes	324	66.4
No	164	33.6
Professional organization member not related to township	*491*	*96.8*
job	271	55.2
Yes	220	44.8
No		
Non-township jobs held	*484*	*95.5*
Does not apply	152	30.0
Self-employed	135	26.6
A business	88	17.4
A nonprofit organization	24	4.7
Another government	48	9.5
Two or more of the above	37	7.3
Other job weekly work hours	*483*	*95.3*
0-9 hours	186	36.7
10-19 hours	26	5.1
20-29 hours	31	6.1
30-39 hours	43	8.5
40+ hours	197	38.9

Table 4.1 *(continued)*

Ancestry	*388*	*388*
English	65	16.8
German	147	37.9
Irish	39	10.1
Italian	19	4.9
French	4	1.0
Mexican	1	0.3
Puerto Rican	0	0
American or U.S.	79	20.4
Polish	4	1.0
Scandinavian	16	4.1
Japanese	0	0
Chinese	0	0
Other	11	2.8
Don't know	3	0.8
Personal Income	*441*	*87.0*
Less than $15,000	28	6.3
$15,000 to $24,999	49	11.1
$25,000 to $34,999	70	15.9
$35,000 to $44,999	89	20.2
$45,000 to $54,999	60	13.6
$55,000 and over	145	32.9
Political ideology	*488*	*96.3*
Very liberal	10	2.0
Liberal	39	8.0
Moderate	212	43.4
Conservative	199	40.8
Very Conservative	28	5.7

Table 4.1 *(continued)*

Political Affiliation	*478*	*94.3*
None	13	2.7
Democrat	184	38.5
Republican	191	40.0
Independent	75	15.7
Other	15	3.1
Politically active	*493*	*97.2*
Yes	236	47.9
No	257	52.1
Volunteer weekly hours	*481*	*94.9*
0-9 hours	384	75.7
10-19 hours	73	14.4
20-29 hours	18	3.6
30-39 hours	4	0.8
40+ hours	2	0.4

Response rate by geography and elected position

Distribution of the respondents by county and position type was investigated using descriptive statistics and cross tabulations. Table 4.2 displays the number of individuals included in the survey from each county, the number of responses and the response rate. The rates varied from a low of 41.6 percent in Franklin County to a high of 59.3 percent in McHenry County. The number of responses varied from 37 each in Franklin and Jackson counties, to a high of 74 in Madison County, with a mean of 50.7 per county.

Table 4.2
Response Rate by County

County	Positions	Responses	Percent
Bureau	112	52	46.4
Effingham	81	40	49.4
Ford	88	46	52.3
Franklin	89	37	41.6
Jackson	85	37	43.5
LaSalle	127	55	43.3
Macoupin	91	43	47.3
Madison	150	74	49.3
McHenry	118	70	59.3
Rock Island	128	53	41.4
Total	1,069	507	47.4

Table 4.3 compares the number of individuals in each elected position with the number of responses and displays the percentage of responses. Because of multi-township assessor districts, as well as 13 townships where the assessor function is contracted out, there were considerably fewer assessors included in the survey. However, the response rate for assessors was the highest of the five groups, at 51.6 percent, but only 48 responses. Highway commissioners had the lowest response rate, at 41.7 percent and 55 responses.

Table 4.3
Response Rate by Elected Position

Elected Positions		Responses	Percent
Supervisors	138	65	47.1
Clerks	138	69	50.0
Assessors	93	48	51.6
High. Comm.	132	55	41.7
Trustees	565	270	47.8
Total	1,069	507	47.4

Table 4.4 compares the respondents on the basis of classifying positions, in the first three columns, as generalist administrators (supervisors and clerks), specialist administrators (assessors, highway commissioners and tax collectors), and oversight (trustees), and in the second three columns, administrators and oversight. This distinction between the groups is important for theoretical reasons: while generalists have diverse duties of their own as well as in relation to the trustees and the specialists, the specialists each have essentially one function. Trustees, on the other hand, have no specific duties beyond general oversight of the activities of the four administrators. These differing roles could attract significantly different individuals, thus requiring a test to determine if this is so. Response rates were highest for generalists (48.6 percent), lowest for specialists (45.2 percent), and close to the overall response rate for oversight (47.8 percent). Administrators overall had a response rate slightly below the total rate, while oversight response was slightly above.

Of the 507 respondents, not all answered all items for all three of the instruments. As a result, after listwise deletion of those with missing items, there were only 424 valid responses for individuals with all three scales.

Table 4.4
Response Rate by Position Type

Position Type (number surveyed)	Responses	Percent	Position Type (number surveyed)	Responses	Percent
Generalists (276)	134	48.6	Administrators (504)	237	47.0
Specialists (228)	103	45.2			
Oversight (565)	270	47.8	Oversight (565)	270	47.8
Total (1,069)	507	47.4	Total (1,069)	507	47.4

Restating and Answering the Research Questions

As was laid out at the end of the last chapter, there are five research questions in this project. Table 4.5 presents the purposes and research questions of this study, along with the method used to answer those questions.

Table 4.5.
Research Purposes, Questions and Methods for this Analysis

Purpose	Research Question	Method used	How answered
Replication: Determine if Perry's PSM instrument works in this different sample	1) Does PSM scale work in this population?	Overall Scale: Factor and Reliability analyses	The scale is validated if the factor analysis shows items load together, with an adequate Cronbach's

Table 4.5 *(continued)*

Replication: Determine how well it works in this sample; does it work the same way	2) Do the findings of this study match with those of Perry's (1996) original work?	Overall scale: Reliability (mean, SD, Item-total correlation); Factor Structure: Factor Analysis (loading of items into factors)	a) Direct comparison of results for individual items, showing how results are similar/different b) Does current data load into factors similar/identical to Perry's dimensions?
Extension: Determine if the other proposed measures work in this sample	3) Do the other scales work in this population?	Overall MSI and JCRI scales: Factor and reliability analysis	The scales work if the FA shows items load together, with an adequate Cronbach's
Extension: Determine if the three scales together measure the same thing, a "motivation to serve the public"	4) Do the 3 scales together work as a measure of "Motivation to serve the public"?	All 31 items as a scale: Factor and reliability analysis;	a) Suggest whether the larger construct, "Motivation to serve the public" is really composed of these three factors. b) Is there an easily identifiable factor structure

Table 4.5 *(continued)*

Extension: Determine how each scale performs in measuring the intensity of motivation to serve	5) How do scales compare (and therefore the theories behind the scales) in explanation of "motivation to serve the public"?	All 3 scales: Comparison of descriptive statistics, esp. means	a) Comparison of descriptive statistics and correlation b) Each scale represents a different theoretical premise about motivation, and thus superior performance (a higher mean = the stronger the influence) of one suggests that theory may be better supported.

Research Objective 1: Replication of the Public Service Motivation Scale

Replicating the results found by Perry (1996) is the first objective of this dissertation. Research question: does the public service motivation scale work in the current sample? To determine whether factor analysis is appropriate in the given data, it is necessary to measure the sampling adequacy of the sample (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). Sampling adequacy is an index in which correlation coefficients and partial correlation coefficients are compared. Sampling adequacy measures, such as the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin, range in value between 0 and 1, with higher scores indicating greater adequacy. Hutcheson and Sofroniou denote Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin scores of 0.8 and greater as "meritorious," and those of 0.9 and greater are "marvelous," which suggests that factor analysis will be productive. Scores lower than 0.8 are termed middling, mediocre, and miserable as they decline in value, suggesting that factor analysis may be increasingly less reliable, and those of 0.5 or less are deemed unacceptable.

Taken as a single scale, the 24 items of the public service motivation instrument have a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy of 0.87, well within the acceptable range for factor analysis to proceed. The single-factor model explains about 22.1 percent of the variance. Table 4.6 displays the communalities and factor loadings for the model. Extraction communalities for the model range from a low of 0.03 to a high of 0.45. Factor loadings range from a low of 0.16 to a high of 0.67. The same five items score lowest on both measures, suggesting that the items are not greatly contributing to the scale and might be candidates for deletion. However, reduction of items was not the purpose of the factor analysis. Reliability of the scale was tested using Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha is a comparison of the ability of the scale items to describe the underlying factor, compared to the potentially infinite number of items that could be used to measure that factor. The higher the number, the better the items are at describing the factor; an alpha of 1.0 would be a perfect description of the factor. Generally, the minimal acceptable value for alpha is set at 0.6 or 0.7, while a value over 0.9 suggests that one or more of the items are redundant and could be dropped (Bland & Altman, 1997). The value for the 24-item scale was 0.84, within the acceptable range. The removal of any single item caused only minor change in the alpha score.

This analysis answers the research question in the positive: the instrument is measuring public service motivation in this sample. This potentially supports the external

Table 4.6
Communalities and Factor Loadings for 24 Items of the Public Service Motivation Scale

Item	Communality	Loading
Don't like politicians (r)	0.03	0.18
Politics is dirty (r)	0.03	0.18
Don't like give and take (r)	0.03	0.16
Contribute to community	0.30	0.55
No interest in community (r)	0.18	0.43
Officials do what's best	0.04	0.21
Meaningful service important	0.44	0.66
Public service is a civic duty	0.27	0.52
Social programs vital	0.17	0.41
Patriotism includes others' welfare	0.33	0.57
I feel it when people are distressed	0.07	0.27
Not concerned about those I don't know (r)	0.15	0.39
I support few public programs (r)	0.11	0.32
Not moved by others' needs (r)	0.26	0.51
No compassion if don't help selves (r)	0.10	0.32
People depend on each other	0.17	0.41
Society's good more important than personal achievements	0.43	.65
Serving is a good feeling	0.34	0.58
Ready to sacrifice for others	0.45	0.67
Duty before self	0.41	0.64
Risk personal loss to help others	0.17	0.41
Doing well financially is most important (r)	0.19	0.44
I work for bigger causes	0.33	0.57
Give more than you take	0.31	0.56

validity of the public service motivation concept by extending the model to the population of township officials.

Research Objective 2: Replication of the Pattern and Structure of the Public Service Motivation Scale

The next step in replicating Perry's (1996) development of the public service motivation scale is to investigate whether the current data matches the pattern and structure found in that study.

The first aspect of this is the pattern of response to the instrument. Table 4.7 compares the means, standard deviations and item-total correlations reported in Perry (1996) to the figures derived in the analysis of the current dataset. Inspection of the table shows considerable similarity between the results of the two studies. The instrument is made up of Likert-type five-step responses to items, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree with the wording of the statement) through 3 (neither agree nor disagree with the statement) to 5 (strongly agree with the statement). Thus, the mean for an item is determined by the sum of all individual scores, divided by the number of respondents. The mean can therefore be any value between 1.0 and 5.0. The means of the items are similar between the two studies, with the standard deviations of the current data appearing generally equal to somewhat smaller than in the original study. The item-total correlations, which are the correlation between each individual item with the scores of all the other items, are also generally similar, although a few items in the current data score differently than those reported by Perry. This analysis suggests that the pattern of response to each item is similar, thereby supporting the internal validity of the

Table 4.7
Comparison of Public Service Motivation Scale Item Means, Standard Deviations and Item-Total Correlations Between Perry (1996) and the Current Study

	Mean		Standard Deviation		Item-Total Correlation	
Item	Perry 1996	Current	Perry 1996	Current	Perry 1996	Current
Don't like politicians (r)	2.7	2.8	1.2	1.2	0.31	0.24
Politics is dirty (r)	3.1	3.2	1.3	1.0	0.31	0.26
Don't like give and take (r)	3.1	3.1	1.2	1.0	0.40	0.21
Contribute to community	3.5	4.2	1.0	0.6	0.46	0.46
No interest in community (r)	3.7	4.2	1.1	0.7	0.42	0.41
Officials do what's best	3.8	3.7	0.9	0.8	0.45	0.17
Meaningful service important	3.8	4.1	1.0	0.6	0.64	0.60
Public service is a civic duty	3.5	3.9	1.0	0.7	0.58	0.47
Social programs vital	3.2	3.5	1.2	1.0	0.32	0.40
Patriotism includes others' welfare	3.9	4.1	1.0	0.8	0.49	0.53
I feel it when people are distressed	3.5	3.6	1.1	0.8	0.33	0.22
Not concerned about those I don't know (r)	3.8	3.9	1.1	0.8	0.40	0.38

Table 4.7 *(continued)*

I support few public programs (r)	3.1	3.3	1.2	1.0	0.39	0.35
Not moved by others' needs (r)	4.2	3.9	1.0	0.9	0.42	0.49
No compassion if don't help selves (r)	2.5	2.5	1.3	1.0	0.38	0.36
People depend on each other	4.1	3.9	0.9	0.7	0.45	0.37
Society's good more important than personal achievements	3.5	3.9	1.1	0.8	0.43	0.53
Serving is a good feeling	3.9	4.1	1.0	0.6	0.47	0.48
Ready to sacrifice for others	2.9	3.5	1.0	0.8	0.55	0.57
Duty before self	3.6	3.8	1.0	0.7	0.32	0.56
Risk personal loss to help others	3.5	3.3	1.0	0.8	0.44	0.32
Doing well financially is most important (r)	3.8	3.9	1.0	0.8	0.38	0.39
I work for bigger causes	3.6	3.7	1.1	0.8	0.46	0.50
Give more than you take	3.9	3.8	0.9	0.7	0.48	0.48

instrument. Variation from that pattern on its face would be expected, given the differences in the populations sampled for the two studies.

The second aspect is replication of the factor structure proposed by Perry (1996), based on the original analysis. Perry's results were that the 24 items loaded into four distinct factors: attraction to public policymaking (three items), commitment to civic duty and the public interest (five items), compassion (eight items) and self-sacrifice (eight items). While Perry's work gives a theoretical base for assuming four factors, the Kaiser rule with this data would suggest that six factors, all those with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, should be retained (Mertler & Vannatta, 2004). Inspection of the scree plot, however, suggests that only two factors are identified (Mertler & Vannatta, 2004). Rather than relying on rules of thumb for determining the number of factors to be included, following the suggestion of Costello and Osborne (2005), several iterations of the factor analysis were run, specifying different factor structures consisting of two, three, four, five and six factors, which were then inspected for the "cleanest" factor loadings. Clean factor structures display little or no crossloading between factors, no freestanding items (only one or two items loading on the factor), and few items that fail to load well on any factor (Costello & Osborne, 2005).

Of the five iterations run, the four-factor model was the cleanest, although the distribution of the items over the factors did not fully match Perry's (1996) structure, nor avoid the problems of crossloading and nonloading items. A common rule of thumb for determining adequate loading of an item on a factor is 0.7, and values considerably lower probably reflect random noise and error in the data, unless the sample is large (Mertler & Vannatta, 2004). Costello and Osborne (2005), however, citing earlier work by

Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), suggest 0.32 for a minimum loading of an item on a factor. Using 0.7 as the cutoff would in the four-factor model allow only three items to load in the model, thus failing to validate Perry's original work. However, using a level as low as 0.3 would result in crossloading of many items over two or more factors, and items from Perry's factors loading together on single factor in this data, again failing to validate the original work. Since the purpose of this analysis is to confirm Perry's structure, adjusting this criterion is justified, even if it increases the possibility of error. Even relaxing this criterion to 0.5 would leave 10 items not loading sufficiently for inclusion. Therefore, for the purposes of this example, "strongly loaded" is arbitrarily set at equal to or greater than 0.40. Using a lower value would greatly increase the problem of crossloading and increase the overlap between theoretically proposed factors based on values that might be error or random noise in the data. Table 4.8 displays the pattern matrix results of the four-factor model in the current data, with the individual items arranged in groups based on

Table 4.8
Results of Principal Axis Factor Analysis of the Public Service Motivation Instrument with Four Factors Extracted.

		Rotated Factor Loadings			
Subscale/Item	Communality	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
		Attraction to Public Policymaking			
Don't like politicians (reversed)	.53	.04	**.73**	.02	.01
Politics is dirty (reversed)	.52	-.01	**.71**	.09	-.04
Don't like give and take (reversed)	.20	.01	**.41**	.03	.17

Table 4.8 *(continued)*

	Commitment to the Public Interest and Civic Duty				
Contribute to community	.35	**.56**	.14	.10	.08
No interest in community (reversed)	.27	.34	.27	-.01	.29
Officials do what's best	.06	.20	-.09	.09	.08
Meaningful service important	.48	**.59**	.24	.11	.26
Public service is a civic duty	.27	.39	.18	.26	.14
	Compassion				
Social programs vital	.39	.14	.13	**.58**	.14
Patriotism includes others' welfare	.63	.32	.08	**.72**	.07
I feel it when people are distressed	.14	.16	-.13	.23	.19
Not concerned about those I don't know (reversed)	.35	.18	.06	.11	**.55**
I support few public programs (reversed)	.30	.09	.20	.09	**.49**
Not moved by others' needs (reversed)	.39	.23	.10	.34	**.46**

Table 4.8 *(continued)*

No compassion if don't help selves (reversed)	.22	.09	.30	.24	.25
People depend on each other	.17	.29	.09	.26	.13
		Self-Sacrifice			
Society's good more important than personal achievements	.52	**.60**	-.08	.38	.10
Serving is a good feeling	.37	**.56**	.02	.23	.07
Ready to sacrifice for others	.53	**.68**	.05	.24	.04
Duty before self	.49	**.66**	-.01	.10	.22
Risk personal loss to help others	.27	**.50**	-.13	.04	.06
Doing well financially is most important (r)	.24	.36	.00	.06	.32
I work for bigger causes	.35	**.53**	.04	.12	.24
Give more than you take	.34	**.55**	.09	.13	.11

Perry's (1996) structure. Scores in bold identify items that have strongly loaded onto a factor.

Several items were identified in the prior section with low item-total correlations, and in the current table, several display low communalities and low rotated factor loadings (six of which do not load well on any of the four factors). While it is not the purpose of this study to reduce the number of items in the public service motivation instrument, this analysis is suggestive: several items probably should be removed from the instrument as they do not appear to be contributing significantly to the model.

In this model, the first factor consists of seven of the eight items from the self-sacrifice subscale, as Perry's (1996) model predicts, but also two of the five items from the commitment to civic duty subscale, which violates Perry's structure. The second factor is identical to Perry's attraction to public policymaking, with only those three items loading on the factor. The third factor consists of two items from Perry's compassion subscale, and thus is a freestanding factor. The fourth factor consists of three other items from the compassion subscale. Therefore, seven items fail to load strongly on any of the four theoretically based factors: three from the commitment to civic duty and the public interest, three from compassion, and one from self-sacrifice.

Because of the differences in the samples in this study and Perry (1996), it is perhaps not unexpected that there would be some differences in both the pattern of response as well as the structure of the factors derived from the data. On its face, the results of this analysis suggest that Perry's original structure may need to be further investigated. The findings here may suggest that there was something unusual about the sample in the foundational study, or in this study. Further analysis may suggest a different arrangement of items in the factors, the removal of some items from the scale, and new labels to identify the resulting factors.

The results of this analysis show that while the pattern of response to the items in the instrument found in Perry's (1996) original study is generally replicated, the factor structure derived from those results is not fully replicated. The answer to the second research question is therefore a qualified affirmative.

Research Objective 3: Validation of the Material Self-Interest, and Job Commitment and Role Identification Instruments

To extend the model of public service motivation, it is necessary to test two other sources of motivation that have been advanced in the literature: rational choice and task motivation. Factor analyses of the instruments for measuring these dimensions of motivation are presented in this section.

Measuring rational choice required the development of a new instrument for this study. Rather than creating an entirely new instrument, seven existing items were identified in the survey instrument that could be scored as indicating material self-interest. As discussed in a prior chapter, Perry and Wise (1990) originally conceived of the public service motivation as an alternative to what they described as the increasingly dominant scholarly and practical theory used to explain individual work behavior—public choice theory, also known as rational choice or self-interest. To date, no study of motivation to serve the public has directly tested self-interest in comparison to public service motivation.

As originally conceived, the material self-interest scale was to consist of seven items from the existing scales that had face appropriateness as measures of self-interest, with five being items from the public service motivation instrument that were re-scored so that a high score represented a higher level of self interest, and two items being from the individualistic political culture scale (Dran, Albritton & Wyckoff, 1991).

Table 4.9 displays the results of the single-factor, seven-item model. Principal axis factor analysis of this seven-item scale extracted one factor with an eigenvalue of 1

Table 4.9
Results of Principal Axis Factor Analysis of the Proposed Material Self-Interest Scale (Single Factor Model)

Items	Communality	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha if item not included*
Not prepared to make big sacrifices for society	.46	.68	.50
Put self before duty	.51	.71	.50
Won't risk personal loss to help others	.32	.57	.52
Officials do what's right, even if it hurts my interests	.09	.30	.63
Doing well financially is more important than doing good deeds	.20	.45	.57
It is okay for people to benefit from holding government office	.02	.15	.52
Corruption in politics should be tolerated, if the job gets done	.01	.11	.60

* Cronbach's alpha for the seven-item scale was .59

or greater. The seven items had communalities ranging from 0.01 to 0.51. Factor loadings for the seven items ranged from 0.11 to 0.71. Inspection of the scree plot validated the one-factor model. Cronbach's alpha for the seven-item scale was below acceptable levels, at 0.59.

Several other iterations were run, using two or even three factors, and then reducing the number of items included in the model. The model that was cleanest in the existing data required the removal of four items (the four with lower communalities and loading scores), leaving only the three higher-scoring items intact in a single factor. This resulted in an improved Cronbach's alpha (.70), just within the acceptable range. As a result, the material self-interest scale was adjusted from seven to just three items.

Measuring task motivation is the purpose of the third scale, the job commitment and role identification scale. As was discussed above, Lee and Olshfski (2002) advanced task motivation as a "better" explanation of service to the public, at least in the iconic case of firefighters and police involved in the events of September 11, 2001. Lee and Olshfski used a set of four items to measure commitment to the specific job and identification with the role of that job in the employment context. The four items, with minor modification to make them appropriate to the township setting for the study's participants, were used in this study.

Table 4.10 displays the results of the factor analysis of this scale. In the current data, the four items of this scale showed moderate communalities of between 0.39 and 0.47. One factor was extracted that explained 43 percent of the variance, with all items loading on the factor between 0.62 and 0.68. Cronbach's alpha for the measure was 0.74, suggesting adequate reliability. Deletion of any single item reduced the value of alpha slightly, to below 0.70.

Table 4.10
Results of Principal Axis Factor Analysis of the Job Commitment and Role Identification Scale (Single Factor Model)

Items	Communality	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha if item not included*
This work is important to the community	.39	**.62**	.69
I am willing to put in extra effort	.43	**.65**	.68
My family and friends support my work	.47	**.68**	.67
I want to do this work for a long time	.45	**.67**	.69

* Cronbach's alpha for the four-item scale was .74

This analysis suggests that the two scales are measuring something about motivation in this sample, and thus the third research question can be answered in the affirmative.

Research Objective 4: Determination of the Validity of the Proposed "Motivation to Serve the Public" Variable.

In order to assess whether the three scales are measuring the same underlying construct, and whether they are measuring separate dimensions of that construct, factor and reliability analyses were conducted. For the 31-item, one-factor model, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy is acceptable, at 0.85, suggesting that factor analysis can proceed. The model explains about 24.1 percent of the variance, and Cronbach's alpha for the scale is 0.79, also within commonly accepted limits.

Table 4.11 compares the communalities, factor loadings, means, standard deviations and item-total correlations for the 31 items of the public service motivation, material self-interest motivation, and task motivation scales. Communalities ranged from a low of 0.02 to a high of 0.57. Factor loading absolute values ranged from a low of 0.2 to a high of 0.75, with ten items scoring below 0.40. Means range between 2.2 and 4.5, with standard deviations between 0.61 and 1.2. Item-total correlations range between absolute values of 0.20 and 0.62, with only three having negative direction. A negative direction suggests a need to recode the items in the opposite direction. In this case, the three negative items are the three items from the material self-interest scale.

Table 4.11
Communality, Loading, Mean, Standard Deviation and Item-Total Correlation for 31 Items of Proposed Variable "Motivation to Serve the Public"

Item	Communality	Factor Loading	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-Total Correlation
Don't like politicians (reversed)	0.03	0.16	2.8	1.2	0.26
Politics is dirty (reversed)	0.02	0.15	3.2	1.0	0.28
Don't like give and take (reversed)	0.02	0.14	3.1	1.0	0.21
Contribute to community	0.36	0.60	4.2	0.6	0.51
No interest in community (reversed)	0.17	0.42	4.2	0.7	0.46
Officials do what's best	0.04	0.20	3.7	0.8	0.13
Meaningful service important	0.43	0.66	4.1	0.6	0.62

Table 4.11 *(continued)*

Public service is a civic duty	0.25	0.50	3.9	0.7	0.48
Social programs vital	0.15	0.38	3.5	1.0	0.42
Patriotism includes others' welfare	0.29	0.54	4.1	0.8	0.53
I feel it when people are distressed	0.07	0.26	3.6	0.8	0.20
Not concerned about those I don't know (reversed)	0.13	0.36	3.9	0.8	0.36
I support few public programs (reversed)	0.07	0.27	3.3	1.0	0.33
Not moved by others' needs (reversed)	0.20	0.44	3.9	0.9	0.48
No compassion if don't help selves (reversed)	0.08	0.28	2.5	1.0	0.36
People depend on each other	0.14	0.38	3.9	0.7	0.37
Society's good more important than personal achievements	0.43	0.65	3.9	0.8	0.51
Serving is a good feeling	0.35	0.59	4.1	0.6	0.47
Ready to sacrifice for others (a)	0.56	0.75	3.5	0.8	0.50
Duty before self (b)	0.49	0.70	3.8	0.7	0.46
Risk personal loss to help others (c)	0.23	0.48	3.3	0.8	0.20

Table 4.11 *(continued)*

Doing well financially is most important (reversed)	0.17	0.41	3.9	0.8	0.35
I work for bigger causes	0.31	0.56	3.7	0.8	0.46
Give more than you take	0.29	0.54	3.8	0.7	0.46
Not ready to sacrifice for others (a)	0.57	-0.75	2.5	0.8	-0.62
Self before duty (b)	0.48	-0.69	2.2	0.7	-0.56
Won't risk personal loss for others (c)	0.23	-0.48	2.7	0.8	-0.35
This work is important to the community	0.17	0.41	4.5	0.7	0.40
Will put in extra effort on job	0.35	0.59	4.2	0.7	0.52
Family and friends support my work	0.21	0.46	4.4	0.6	0.43
Want to work here a long time	0.21	0.46	4.1	0.9	0.41

a, b, c—same items, scored in opposite direction

The foregoing suggests that the items are measuring the same underlying construct, although not without some issues. For example, several items display very low communalities, loading factors and item-total correlations, suggesting those particular items might not be contributing much to the model. This is not surprising, as 24 of the items are from the public service motivation instrument, which was discussed earlier.

This is especially true of the three items from the attraction to public policymaking dimension (the first three in the table) of the public service motivation scale.

One of the clearest problems is posed by the three items from the material self-interest scale. As the factor analysis described above showed, only three of the proposed items contributed to a meaningful scale. These three items are reversed-scored items from the public service motivation scale, and thus display very similar to identical communalities, means and standard deviations, and nearly-identical but negative factor loadings. The item-total correlations, also negative, are somewhat more robust than the correlations for the direct-scored items.

The inverse relationship between these three pairs of items becomes apparent in attempting to identify an acceptable factor structure for the 31-item scale. Because the three items are measuring the same variables in the opposite direction, they preferentially pair up when testing various factor arrangements. This means three of the factors will be freestanding (that is, consisting of only two items, each of which with very high loading factors, but with opposite directions). This is not unexpected since the three pairs of items are each measuring the same aspect of the underlying dimension, but in opposite directions.

However, by removing one of each of the pairs, it becomes easier to model the factor structure without the pairs dominating the analysis. Thus, a series of factor analyses specifying different numbers of factors was run using just 28 of the items, and excluding the three items of the material self-interest scale. As discussed above, the items from the public service motivation scale do not load onto the factors as originally described by Perry (1996). This pattern continues in this analysis, which makes intuitive sense, because 24 of the items are from the public service motivation scale.

Table 4.12 displays the loading results of a five-factor model in the current data on 28 of the 31 items, excluding the three reverse-scored items from the public service motivation instrument that make up the material self-interest instrument. Scores in bold identify items that have strongly loaded on a factor. As above, for the purposes of this

Table 4.12
Pattern Matrix Factor Loadings for 28-Item Instrument and a Five-Factor Model of the Variable Motivation to Serve the Public

		Rotated Factor Loadings				
Variable	Communality	1	2	3	4	5
	Attraction to Public Policymaking					
Don't like politicians (reversed)	0.63	.02	.08	**.80**	-.00	-.02
Politics is dirty (reversed)	0.49	-.06	.09	**.68**	.09	.06
Don't like give and take (reversed)	0.21	-.02	.05	.39	.02	.20
	Commitment to Civic Duty and the Public Interest					
Contribute to community	0.52	.31	**.61**	.05	.04	.13
No interest in community (reversed)	0.39	.11	**.44**	.17	-.03	.39
Officials do what's best	0.09	.27	-.04	-.04	.09	.04
Meaningful service important	0.52	**.42**	**.43**	.19	.09	.29

Table 4.12 *(continued)*

Public service is a civic duty	0.33	.29	.28	.15	.25	.15
			Compassion			
Social programs vital	0.41	.08	.18	.11	**.59**	.13
Patriotism includes others' welfare	0.60	.29	.21	.08	**.68**	.06
I feel it when people are distressed	0.13	.20	.03	-.11	.23	.16
Not concerned about those I don't know (reversed)	0.41	.15	.09	.04	.12	**.56**
I support few public programs (reversed)	0.30	.11	-.01	.21	.11	**.47**
Not moved by others' needs (reversed)	0.38	.24	.08	.11	.35	**.43**
No compassion if don't help selves (reversed)	0.23	.08	.07	.31	.24	.23
People depend on each other	0.22	.28	.12	.11	.26	.12
			Self-Sacrifice			
Society's good more important than personal achievements	0.51	**.51**	.32	-.09	.35	.11

Table 4.12 *(continued)*

Serving is a good feeling	0.38	**.43**	.36	-.01	.20	.10
Ready to sacrifice for others	0.66	**.63**	.33	.07	.21	.03
Duty before self	0.53	**.67**	.19	.03	.07	.19
Risk personal loss to help others	0.34	**.58**	.07	-.07	.01	.02
Doing well financially is most important (reversed)	0.26	.37	.08	.02	.07	.31
I work for bigger causes	0.36	**.48**	.22	.04	.11	.25
Give more than you take	0.42	**.49**	.24	.09	.12	.12
Job Commitment and Role Identification						
This work is important to the community	0.41	.06	**.62**	.04	.13	.01
Will put in extra effort on job	0.48	.29	**.60**	.07	.10	.10
Family and friends support my work	0.47	.09	**.67**	.06	.11	.02
Want to work here a long time	0.47	.08	**.66**	.06	.15	-.01

example, “strongly loaded” is arbitrarily set at equal to or greater than 0.40. Using a lower value increases the problem of crossloading and increases the overlap between the theoretically factors, while a higher value increases the number of freestanding and nonloading items.

Seven of the 28 items fail to load on any of the five factors in the model. In factor one, seven of the items from the self-sacrifice dimension of the public service motivation scale load well together, while in factor two, the four job commitment and role identification items load strongly together. However, three items from commitment to civic duty also load on factor two with the job commitment and role identification items. One of those three items also crossloads with the self-sacrifice items in the first factor. Factor three includes two of the three items from the attraction to public policymaking scale, with the third item from that subscale loading at 0.39, just under the arbitrary 0.4 cutoff. The fourth factor includes only two items from the compassion subscale, while the fifth is composed of three items from that subscale. A fourth item, from the commitment to civic duty subscale, loads at 0.39. This item also loads—at 0.44—on the second factor, with the job commitment and role identification items.

Thus, the factor structure of this set of items is not completely clear, but suggests that the theoretical categories to explain the factors are not entirely satisfactory. Overall, however, the analysis presented here suggests that the answer to the fourth research question is an affirmative: the three scales do measure dimensions of a larger underlying variable, termed here “motivation to serve the public.”

Research Objective 5: Comparison of the Scales and Determination of Relative Intensity of Motivations to Serve the Public

The final research objective is to compare the intensity of the response to the three measures of motivation in this sample. Table 4.13 displays the descriptive data for the three instruments being examined in this study. Using listwise deletion, the valid N for respondents answering all items for all three of the scales was 424, or almost 84 percent of the sample.

Table 4.13
Descriptive Statistics for the Three Instruments

	Public Service Motivation	Material Self-interest Motivation	Job Commitment and Role Identification
Valid N	425	486	495
Missing	82	21	12
Mean	3.7	2.5	4.3
Std. Error of Mean	0.02	0.03	0.02
Median	3.7	2.3	4.3
Mode	3.5	2.0	4.0
Std. Deviation	0.38	0.59	0.54
Variance	0.15	0.35	0.29
Skewness	0.02	0.02	-0.49
Std. Error of Skewness	0.12	0.11	0.11
Kurtosis	0.31	0.19	-0.15
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.24	0.22	0.22
Range	2.6	3.3	2.5
Minimum	2.4	1.0	2.5
Maximum	5.0	4.3	5.0

All three instruments display some departure from normal distributions in the data, but the size of the sample allows assertion of the central limit theorem, which suggests that departures from normality assumptions will not be significant (Elliott & Woodward, 2007).

Pearson's correlation was selected as the appropriate measure of correlation between the three measures. Strong correlations between the measures could make interpretation of the intensity of response difficult. As Table 4.14 shows, public service motivation and task motivation are positively correlated at a moderate level of 0.50, significant at the 0.001 level. Material self-interest, however, is negatively correlated with both of the other scales. The correlation with public service motivation is a robust –0.68, while that with task motivation is a more moderate –0.3. Both are significant at the 0.001 level. These correlations are displayed in the following scatterdot graphs (Figures 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3).

The overlap of items between the factors discussed earlier (that is, that the three material self-interest items are simply reverse-scored items from the public service motivation instrument, and several of the items from the public service motivation instrument load on the same factor as the items from the job commitment and role identification instrument) may account for much of the correlation in this analysis.

Table 4.14

Pearson Correlations Between the Public Service Motivation, Material Self-Interest, and Job Commitment and Role Identification Instruments

	Public service motivation	Job commitment and role identification	Material self-interest
Public service motivation	1.00	0.50*	-0.68*
Job commitment and role identification		1.00	-0.38*
Material self-interest			1.00

N = 424 * Significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed)

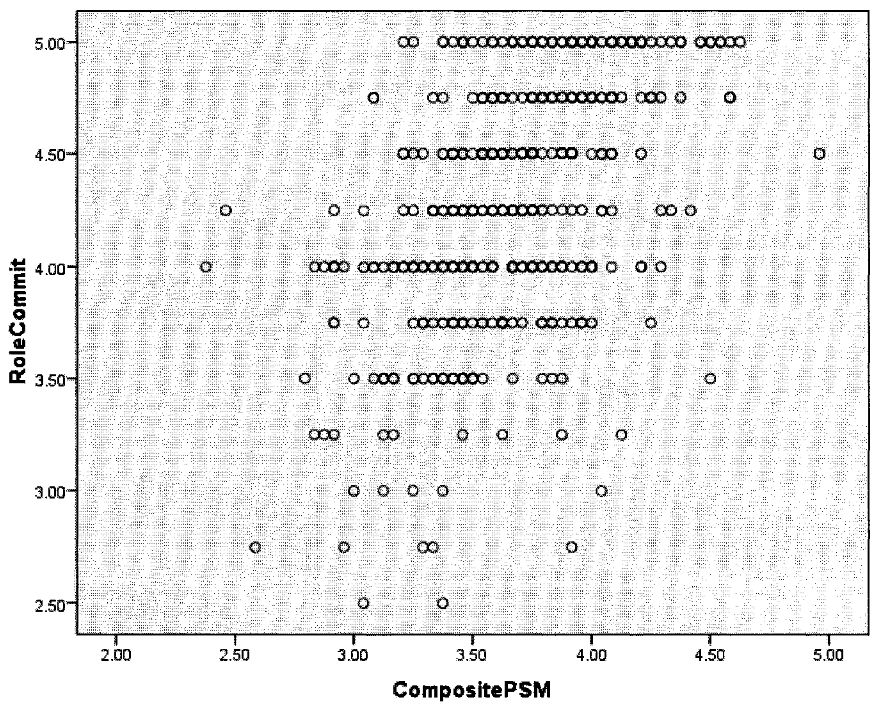


Figure 4.1. Distribution of scores for job commitment and role identification (RoleCommit) and public service motivation (CompositePSM).

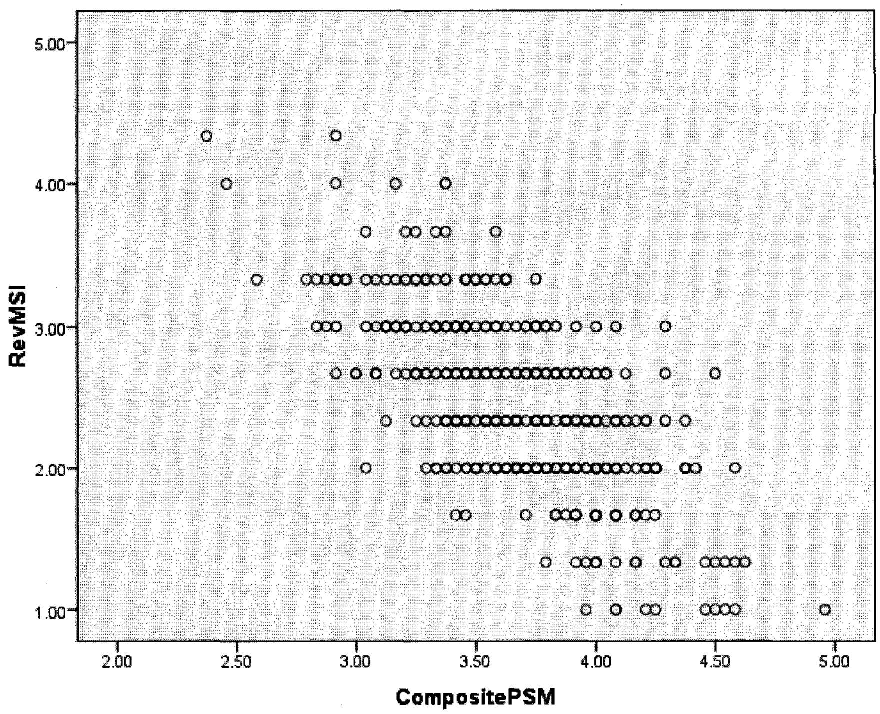


Figure 4.2. Distribution of scores for material self-interest (RevMSI) and public service motivation (CompositePSM).

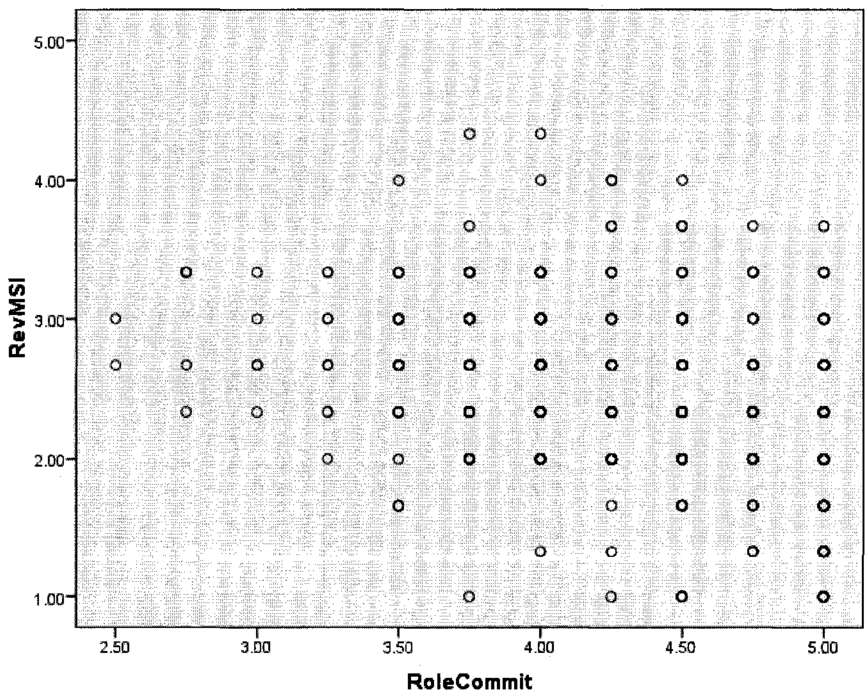


Figure 4.3. Distribution of scores for material self-interest (RevMSI) and job commitment and role identification (RoleCommit).

The prior analysis suggests that all three of the scales used in this study, even though they are representing different theories regarding motivation, do appear to be measuring dimensions of the larger underlying concept motivation to serve in local government. While there is moderate correlation between the variables, this does not appear to be a significant problem in determining and comparing the intensity of motivation. As originally developed and applied, each measures a different aspect of the underlying concept of motivation, and also asserts the dominance of the particular theoretical basis for motivation. Thus, comparison of the means should suggest how strongly or intensely the respondents are motivated by each of the theoretical bases.

Rational choice theory, for example, would assert that the primary if not exclusive source of individual motivation is material rewards for the individual, and thus show the highest mean score. At the same time, we would expect that the other two alternatives would display much lower mean scores. Public service motivation theory, on the other hand, would argue that individuals serving in the public sector do so for primarily non-material reasons, some of which are based in rational self-interest, but also others based in normative and affective motivations. Thus, we would expect that the mean for the public service motivation scale would be the highest, while that for material self-interest would be the lowest, and job commitment and role identification would score somewhat below public service motivation. Finally, task theory would assert that the job commitment and role identification scale would have the highest mean and the others would be lower, although it probably would not make a prediction about order.

The comparison of these three theories requires the comparison of the intensity of motivation on each of the three measures, using the means of the three instruments. The results are displayed in Table 4.15. The results of this comparison suggest that material self-interest is probably not the predominant motivation for the public officials in this sample, as its intensity is low, at 2.5 (standard deviation 0.6). Public service motivation theory is only partially supported ($M = 3.7$, $SD = 0.4$), because the theory would argue that the material self-interest score should be lowest of the three. However, the public service motivation scale does not have the highest mean. Because it has the higher mean ($M = 4.3$, $SD = 0.5$), it appears that task motivation is the dominant source of motivation for the township officials in this sample.

Table 4.15
Comparison of Predictions Related to the Theory Underlying the Measurement Scale, and the Results of the Comparison

Theory	Measure	Prediction	Mean	SD	Result
Rational Choice Motivation	Material Self-interest	Public employees should score highest on MSI, lower on PSM and JC/RI	2.5	0.6	Not supported: MSI is lowest mean
Public Service Motivation	PSM	Public employees should score highest on PSM scale, lowest on MSI, and JC/RI lower than PSM	3.7	0.4	Not fully supported: PSM is high, but not highest, while MSI is lowest

Table 4.15 *(continued)*

Task Motivation	Job Commitment/Role Identification	Public employees should score higher on JC/RI scale, lower on MSI and PSM	4.3	0.5	Supported: Mean is highest and others are lower and outside SD range.

Conclusion

In his original study of public service motivation, Perry (1996, 1997), set out to discover—in a population made up of undergraduate and graduate students, local, state and federal employees and managers, and some business executives, and thus representing a variety of positions and governmental levels—evidence of a set of distinctive motivational attitudes toward government service. As was discussed earlier in this dissertation, motivation to work has three measurable outcomes: 1) direction of behavior, in this case held constant, as all the respondents demonstrated the behavior of running for and holding elected township office; 2) intensity of behavior, in this study measured by the scores on the three indexed variables measuring motivation; and 3) persistence of behavior, which was measured in the survey but not included in the current analysis. Other researchers, using parts or all of Perry's original instrument, or using other measures of motivation among local, state and federal employees, business employees, and volunteers and employees of nonprofit organizations have also found that public employees show some degree of public service motivation, as well as task motivation.

The public service motivation concept and instrument were created in large part as an alternative to the reputed predominant model of human motivation, rational self-interest (Perry 1996, 1997, 2000; Perry & Wise, 1990). To date, no study of public service motivation has attempted to compare the measure of public service motivation with a comparable measure of material or rational self-interest. This appears to be the first study as well to directly test public service motivation against the alternative of task motivation advanced by Lee and Ohlshfski (2002). The analysis reported in this chapter supports all three measures of motivation, and determines that task motivation may indeed be a stronger explanation of individual motivation than public service motivation, as was asserted by Lee and Ohlshfski.

This chapter began by describing some of the characteristics of the sample of Illinois township officials who responded to the survey instrument. The chapter then proceeded to address each of the five research questions and describe the analyses used to answer the questions. Table 4.16 summarizes the five questions and the answers obtained

Table 4.16
Research Questions and Results

Research Question	Result
1) Does PSM scale work in this population?	Factor analysis demonstrates that the 24-item instrument is working as a measurement scale in this sample.
2) Do the findings of this study match with those of Perry's (1996) original work?	The pattern of responses to the individual items appears similar to the pattern reported in Perry (1996). However, the factor structure does not match Perry's model.

Table 4.16 *(continued)*

3) Do the other scales work in this population?	Factor analyses demonstrate that the 3-item material self-interest instrument and the 4-item job commitment and role identification instrument are both working as measurement scales in this sample.
4) Do the 3 scales together work as a measure of "Motivation to serve in local government"?	Factor analysis demonstrates that the 31 items from the three instruments do work as a measurement scale in this sample. The material self-interest items measure the same underlying dimension as three of the items from the public service motivation instrument (because they are the same items, reverse-scored), which contributes to problems in modeling a factor structure.

Table 4.16 *(continued)*

5) How do scales (and therefore the theories behind the scales) compare in measuring the intensity of motivation in this sample?	Correlation analysis shows a moderate positive correlation between the public service motivation instrument and the job commitment and role identification instrument, and moderate to strong negative correlations between those two instruments and the material self-interest instrument. Because the theories behind each of the instruments asserts that the related measure is the primary explanation of motivation to serve the public, comparison of the mean scores shows that individuals score highest on task motivation, supporting that theory as the primary source of motivation. Public service motivation scores slightly lower, and so may still be a significant source of motivation. Material self-interest does not appear to be a significant source of motivation for most individuals.

through the foregoing analyses. The findings provide support for the notion that individuals who serve in government positions may be motivated by public service motivation, as advanced by Perry and Wise (1990), and Perry (1996, 1997, 2000), but may also be motivated by the tasks associated with particular job they seek and hold. The distinction here may appear minor, but may actually be significant. Under public service motivation theory, individuals are expected to seek out government positions because service in government will satisfy their drive to provide service. Under task motivation theory, individuals are expected to seek out government positions because there is something about the task itself that the individual identifies and is willing to commit to. To differentiate between these two theories, a clear distinction needs to be made between the task, and the public or private nature of the task. For example, attorneys and accountants can seek out and serve in very similar jobs, doing essentially identical tasks, in organizations in the public and private sectors. The question becomes, what influence does the "publicness" or "privateness" of the position have on job choices.

As the conclusion to this study, the following chapter will review the entire dissertation, and then discuss weaknesses and strengths of this study, and possible directions for future research.

CHAPTER 5 RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

This chapter briefly summarizes the preceding four chapters and then considers the weaknesses and strengths of the current study, and the implications of this study's findings for future research.

Summary of the Dissertation

This dissertation began with the introduction, which established the "what" this dissertation is about: finding evidence of public service motivation and its causes. The study began by connecting the broadest formulation of the question that this study attempts to illuminate—why people do things for public organizations—to a set of specific questions that might be answered. Table 5.1 restates the purpose, research questions and methods used in this study. In essence, this study sought to replicate Perry's (1996) instrument in another population, confirm the usefulness of two alternative measures of the intensity of motivation, and determine which of the three measures has the highest intensity in this sample.

The literature review began with a discussion of the definition of motivation and the literature related to work motivation research and theory. Work motivation research and theory can be divided into two branches, the psychologically based and the management based (Steers & Porter, 1983). Theory developed in the work motivation field is rich and complex, driving research in a number of directions, while motivation as it is discussed in the public administration and public management literature is comparatively simple, based on a largely assumed rather than proven differences between the individuals and work environments in the public and private sectors. In the next section, the origins and current understanding of the public service motivation concept

Table 5.1

Research Purposes, Questions and Methods for this Analysis

Purpose	Research Question	Method used	How answered
Replication: Determine if Perry's PSM instrument works in this different sample	1) Does PSM scale work in this population?	Overall Scale: Factor and Reliability analyses	The scale is validated if the factor analysis shows items load together, with an adequate Cronbach's
Replication: Determine how well it works in this sample; does it work the same way	2) Do the findings of this study match with those of Perry's (1996) original work?	Overall scale: Reliability (mean, SD, Item-total correlation); Factor Structure: Factor Analysis (loading of items into factors)	a) Direct comparison of results for individual items, showing how results are similar/different b) Does current data load into factors similar/identical to Perry's dimensions?
Extension: Determine if the other proposed measures work in this sample	3) Do the other scales work in this population?	Overall MSI and JCRI scales: Factor and reliability analysis	The scales work if the FA shows items load together, with an adequate Cronbach's

Table 5.1 *(continued)*

Extension: Determine if the three scales together measure the same thing, a "motivation to serve the public"	4) Do the 3 scales together work as a measure of "Motivation to serve the public"?	All 31 items as a scale: Factor and reliability analysis;	a) Suggest whether the larger construct, "Motivation to serve the public" is really composed of these three factors. b) Is there an easily identifiable factor structure
Extension: Determine how each scale performs in measuring the intensity of motivation to serve	5) How do scales (and therefore the theories behind the scales) compare in explanation of motivation to serve	All 3 scales: Comparison of descriptive statistics, esp. means	a) Comparison of descriptive statistics and correlation b) Each scale represents a different theoretical premise about motivation, and thus superior performance (a higher mean = the stronger the influence) of one suggests that theory may be better supported.

are considered. The tradition that individuals in government service are motivated by factors that differ from individuals in the private sector has a long history in public administration. The testing and extension of an instrument specifically intended to measure this public service motivation establishes the basis for the current study. The following section is a discussion of the relationship—or in this case, lack of a relationship—between the broader work motivation theory and the research and theory on the public service motivation concept. The exception to this has been recent work that attempts to test the public service motivation using concepts from a theory used in the work motivation field, such as goal setting theory. Following that discussion, several arguments for the importance of the study of public service motivation are advanced. There are practical and scholarly reasons that clearly identifying and understanding the public service motivation construct is important to the practice and theory of public administration.

The methodology chapter began with a discussion of the unique or nearly unique features of the elected township officials and their jobs, including the conceptual arrangement into two groups, administrators and oversight, and the division of administrators into generalists and specialists. This was followed by a discussion of the study design as a confirmatory test of the public service motivation instrument and the other measures of motivation used in the study. Then, although not relevant to the analysis presented in this dissertation, the rationale for selecting a set of subjects for the study was presented, including discussion of the size of sample needed for analysis, and the method used for selecting the counties and individual townships within the counties for distribution of the survey to township officials. Next, the survey instrument was discussed, including its use of items used by earlier researchers, testing and validation of the instrument, a timetable of the data collection process, and the proposed methods of data analysis. Then, the discussion turns to the variables, and how the data collected in the study relates to those variables. Finally, a set of research hypotheses is advanced, and the methodology is summarized in the conclusion.

Chapter 4 presented the data collected through the survey, and its analysis. The chapter begins with descriptive information about the survey's 507 respondents (out of 1,069 who were sent the survey instrument, a response rate of 47.4 percent), including personal and demographic characteristics as well as information about they positions they hold.

We begin the discussion of recommendations and conclusions with a discussion of the weaknesses of the current study. This is followed by a discussion of the study's strengths. Finally, several proposals for future research are laid out that will build on the strengths and bolster those areas where the current work was weaker.

Weaknesses of the Current Study

According to Locke and Latham (2004), motivation "refers to internal factors that impel action and to external factors that can act as inducements to action. The three aspects of action that motivation can affect are direction (choice), intensity (effort), and duration (persistence). Motivation can affect not only the acquisition of people's skills and abilities but also how and to what extent they utilize their skills and abilities," (p. 388).

One of the first criticisms of the current study is that it studies only one group—individuals who have pursued a particular direction of service, as elected township officials, and had that pursuit approved by the voters of their townships. To determine whether or not public service motivation, task motivation or material self-interest are strongly related to this public service would require comparison groups within the same setting. Such groups might include those who have sought election to a township position, but were rejected by voters; those who are inclined to seek such an elected position, but have not yet run for election; those who have served and have chosen to end that service; members of the general public of the township; those who are elected to serve in other local government units that serve the township; those who are employed by local government units, including the township and other governmental units; and, individuals who are active in comparable level administrative or professional roles in private-sector and non-profit organizations. Because the internal and external factors related to service might be different for these different groups, we might suspect for theoretical reasons that individuals in some of these groups might display different levels of intensity in response to the instruments. Many studies in the literature compare individuals working in different public organizations, and several have studied the responses of individuals in different sectors, such as government and private business. Ideally, the study could have contributed much more to understanding motivation to serve if individuals from some of these other groups had been included in the study.

The demographic information collected on the respondents to the survey hint at potentially significant differences between those who are serving in these positions and the "average" resident as defined using data from the census and other sources. The possible import of this lack of comparison to other groups can be illustrated with the following questions: What would it mean for the idea of public service motivation if the other residents of the community had been included and were found to have substantially identical response to the public service motivation scales? What if their scores were higher? Clearly, the lack of one or more external comparison groups weakens the explanatory power of this study in the broader sense.

This issue was considered during the development of the dissertation methodology. The significant problem was in finding a way to sample comparable individuals and groups from different government, nonprofit and private sector organizations. First, comparable groups might be difficult to identify, and once identified, difficult to survey in an affordable and effective manner. These logistical problems resulted in focusing only on measuring intensity and duration of behavior in a single, clearly identifiable and logistically relatively easy to contact group.

However, other groups that might be comparable were also considered. For example, the study could have sought to survey public and private sector educators involved in K-12 education, where the role of teacher, principal, board of directors, and support staff are very similar. Other groups that were considered were volunteer and paid firefighters, nurses (who may be employed in government, non-profit or for-profit organizations), and fiscal officers and staff of public and private organizations. The key for this study, however, was finding a group that was engaged in roles that could be considered primarily or uniquely public (after Perry & Wise, 1990).

A second criticism of the current study is that it relies to a very great degree on others' survey items. No effort was made in the current study to develop new measures of motivation to serve the public, only to identify existing instruments that might be of value in understanding public service motivation and its origins. In that sense, the current study is simply a test of existing instruments and models, and does not significantly expand the empirical body of knowledge on this subject.

Related to this is the problem that one of the measures used in this study—material self-interest—consists entirely of items that exist in the public service motivation instrument, but have been reverse scored to emphasize service to the self rather than to the public. Thus, this instrument is not really a separate measure, which resulted in a high level of correlation between the instruments, and which contributed to the difficultly of modeling the factor structure of the variables when taken together. While this was not an intractable problem in the current study, an entirely separate measure of material self-interest would be of great value in examining the sources of motivation to serve.

At the same time, although the instruments were developed separately, several items from the public service motivation instrument loaded together with the items from the job commitment and role identification instrument, demonstrating that the two instruments, while originating from different theories, are in part measuring the same aspect of the underlying motivational construct. This resulted in correlation between these two instruments as well, which could represent a weakness in this study's analysis.

A further limitation in this vein is that this study lacked measures of other possible sources of motivation direction and intensity, such as a desire for power, mission motivation, belongingness, or other alternatives that have been suggested as motivators for those seeking public and private positions. For example, Harold Lasswell asserted more than 60 years ago that the primary motivation for government service was, simply, the desire for power (Lasswell, 1948). As power does not necessarily connote a desire for personal benefits (although it often does), determining the intensity of this motivator could be very informative to the theory of public service motivation and work motivation in general.

Perry (2000) and others (e.g., Wright 2001a, 2001b) have criticized the current research on public service motivation for its reliance on the collection of numerical data and statistical analysis to drive studies. The current study continues that trend by collecting survey data and analyzing it to confirm and extend the statistical understanding of the public service motivation construct. A more productive approach at this level, and more in line with the direction Perry especially has been encouraging, might have been to engage in ethnographic or grounded theory method research to build up an understanding of how individuals themselves experience and understand their motivations to service. That is, instead of relying on the pre-existing theoretical construction of motivation to serve the public, investigating whether a clearer understanding can come from looking at individual's own knowledge and experiences.

There have been a number of studies addressing the concept of public service motivation. Wright (2008) identifies 16 empirical studies published on the subject using all or parts of Perry's (1996, 1997) original instrument, while a number of additional studies have investigated the concept using other measures or indicators of motivation to serve the public. However, the focus of this study is based almost entirely on Perry's initial explication of public service motivation, largely ignoring subsequent work by other researchers. The subsequent work provides valuable extensions and tests of the construct under varying conditions, yet to fully address this research would have required a much longer document and project, perhaps beyond the purposes of a dissertation.

Finally, despite bringing it up as an important issue, the current study does not make any effort to connect its findings to the existing broader field of work motivation theory. Clearly, any theory of motivation to service in the public sector needs to fit into the larger theories that explain work motivation in all situations. This is a weakness of much of the work in the study of motivation to public service, and a weakness of the current study as well, that can only be filled through future research.

Strengths of the Current Study

The results of the current study support the notion that one or several unseen motivations for serving the public exist. Some individuals may be motivated by material self-interest, something that can be satisfied by holding a public position. Others appear to be motivated by an attraction to policymaking, a sense of civic duty, self-sacrifice, or compassion. Or, the may be motivated by the task of serving the public in one of several different ways (such as clerk, or road commissioner, etc.). Alternatively, individuals may be motivated by any and all of these constructs, to differing degrees and in different situations. By providing supporting evidence that these motivational constructs do indeed exist, and that the instruments do indeed measure something about these constructs, this study supports the ongoing research into the concept of public service motivation and the idea that there may be a difference between individuals who choose to work in the public or private sectors.

First and foremost, this study is a test of the full public service motivation instrument developed by Perry (1996). Wright (2008) notes that only three of 16 empirical studies using Perry's instrument have used the entire instrument, while many others have used other measures of public service motivation entirely. This study, unlike the three others that have used the entire instrument, takes a direct, confirmatory approach, testing whether the instrument works in this sample, and whether the data shows a similar pattern and factor structure.

Third, the current study compares the performance of the public service motivation instrument to two alternative measures, rooted in different theories of motivation, that predict different outcomes in terms of the intensity of the measure of motivation. This contributes to the understanding of what factors might motivate individuals to seek out government service.

While reliance on existing instruments was in the previous section identified as a weakness of the current study, it may also be considered a strength. By using the entire existing public service motivation instrument (Perry, 1996, 1997) as well as Lee and Olshfski's (2002) job commitment and role identification items, this study seeks more direct comparability and consistency with the prior research that has used those elements. By using the same instruments and testing them using confirmatory factor analysis, this study has contributed to the confirmation of the validity of those measures, while demonstrating at the same time that some of the underlying constructs may be more complex than previously assumed, and thus may require further careful study to delineate.

In addition, the current study tests the three measures to determine if there might be a deeper underlying connection between them. That is, different theories of motivation might all contribute to a broader underlying construct of motivation, even if the different scales measure different portions of that construct. The analysis

Another strength of this study is that it used an appropriate data collection method (a carefully constructed mail survey of a theoretically interesting sample), as well as appropriate analysis methods, including descriptive statistics, and factor analysis. Such a study builds credibility for the results.

The current study fills a gap in the literature by studying elected officials, albeit a special case, that of elected administrators as well as elected legislative oversight positions. Other studies have looked at employees and managers in government organizations, as well as employees and volunteers associated with nonprofit organizations in the public sector. Some studies have compared the responses of individuals in these public organizations with those of equivalent level in private, for-profit firms. Whether the concept of public service motivation should apply to elected officials has not previously been addressed.

Directions for Future Research

This study has demonstrated that the public service motivation instrument and the job commitment and role identification instrument both work in study sample. The first implication for future research must be that, since the measurement of motivation does indeed work, there is additional information to be extracted from the data collected in this survey, data that was not used in the current study. Specifically, the next step of analysis will be to 1) examine factors that may contribute to the development of public service motivation and/or task motivation, termed by Perry (1997) as antecedents; and 2) examine behavioral outcomes to determine if these motivations result in measurable differences in behavior. The former calls for using the measures of motivation as dependent variables in regression analysis, while the latter means the measures will be independent variables in the analyses. Perry (1997) identified five groups of antecedents, including parental socialization (parental modeling), religious socialization (closeness to god and church involvement), professional identification, political ideology, and individual demographic characteristics (gender, age, education level and income). The survey included items to expand the set of possible antecedents by including measures of political culture, political identification, sense of community, religious affiliation, and national, racial and ethnic ancestry. Behavioral outcome variables included military service, years in government service, hours per week devoted to government position, volunteer and job duties, and number of government positions held during career.

Perry and Wise (1990) and Perry (1996, 1997) were efforts to provoke discussion and empirical research in relation to motivation to serve the public, in the hopes that the following work would result in improved understanding of motivation in the public sector. Perry's original constructs were based on theoretical arguments largely derived from the literature, not empirical evidence, and as such, he may have missed several important motivations for service. One that comes to mind is the affective state of fear, in which the individual pursues public service because of an emotional fear that, for example, government will (or will not) perform particular desired (or undesired) actions, or that a particular group will (or will not) have influence on the development and implementation of policy the individual deems necessary (or unnecessary). As was mentioned earlier, two other obvious missing motivations are an individual's need and/or desire for recognition by others, and the desire to hold and wield power, a source of motivation that public administration has recognized at least since Lasswell (1948) asserted it as the primary motive for government service more than 60 years ago.

Obviously the way to overcome one of the shortcomings of this study is to include other comparable groups in the public, non-profit and private sectors. The sources of motivation investigated in this dissertation, as well as others such as fear or power, should apply to all groups, but perhaps in different combinations and intensities. The overall goal should be to connect these findings about motivation in service to the public to the larger work motivation literature.

Another aspect of future research would be to further investigate the factor structure of the public service motivation instrument, on its own (since the items load differently than in Perry, 1997) and in conjunction with the job commitment and role identification instrument (since the two instruments have some items that load together).

Finally, Perry and Wise's (1990) construction of public service motivation is predicated not only on the individual's rational, normative and affective needs for public service, but also on the aspects of public service that can uniquely fulfill those needs. Little effort has been expended in the literature on public service motivation to the specification of what constitutes a uniquely or primarily public job, and why such a job or role might fulfill an individual's need. Lee and Olshfski (2002), for example, touched on the individual's identification with a particular job or role, and his or her commitment to that position as an alternative to the public service motivation construct, but did not specifically test the concepts side by side, as this study has done. Firefighters, of course, are a uniquely governmental or public role, as are police and health inspectors, for example. A logical next step in studying motivation in the public setting would be to investigate the differences between individuals holding such clearly public roles and those who hold related but nongovernmental functions in the private sector (police detectives versus private detectives, for example), or between individuals serving in largely similar roles that are not uniquely governmental, such as accountants, attorneys, engineers, computer technicians, and so on, in the different sectors.

Conclusion

This study is the first step in analyzing and presenting the data collected using this survey instrument with this sample. The analysis confirms that the public service motivation instrument, the material self-interest instrument, and the job commitment and role identification instrument all measure underlying constructs of motivation. The next step is to conduct further analyses of the data, perhaps first looking into the factor relationships between the items used in this study, then investigating the performance of the resulting factors as dependent and independent variables, compared to the original instruments. This study, and the analyses that will come later, contributes to the literature on work motivation in the context of public organizations.

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APPENDIX A

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University of Illinois at Springfield
1 University Plaza
62703
Springfield
United States

Contact Details:
Telephone: 2172067805
Fax:
Email Address: jpain01s@uis.edu

To use the following material:
ISSN/ISBN:
Title: Advances in Motivation and Achievement
Author(s): Locke
Volume: 10
Issue: 1
Year: 1997
Pages: 375 - 412
Article title: The Motivation to Work: What We Know

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Figure that was later used as figure 1 in Latham and Locke (2004). What should we do about motivation theory? Six recommendations for the Twenty-First Century. Academy of Management Review, 29(3): 390-391.

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Details:

Used in doctoral dissertation while discussing relationship of Public Service Motivation theory to broader Work Motivation Theory.

Additional Info:

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- end -

Perry (1996) Public Service Motivation Instrument

From: Perry, James L. [perry@indiana.edu] Sent: Fri 3/7/2008 9:55 AM

To: Paine, Jeffrey Robert

Cc:

Subject: RE: Use of PSM instrument

Attachments:

View As Web Page

Jeff,

Good to hear from one of Brent's students.

I'm also pleased to hear you are using the public service motivation instrument. You have my permission to use the 24-item public service motivation instrument. You may also use the 1997 antecedents items. Although some of the items in the antecedents instrument are adapted from items developed by others, I am not sure they are protected by copyright. I suggest you confer with your IRB to determine their requirements, but you have my permission to use anything in the 1997 survey that I developed exclusively.

I would certainly be willing to share with you my data from the 1996 and 1997 studies. A more fundamental issue is where the data are now. It may take me some time to find the data set if it still exists. I believe the data may be on old floppy disks. If I could locate the disks, then there's a question of the integrity of the data on the disks. I've been operating off university servers since about 1999, but materials before 1999 are on old technologies. As you move forward, let me know if you still want these data and I can do some searching. Because the data set is not one of your immediate needs, however, I will hold off trying to find the data set. Be aware, however, that it is possible that the original data set may not be useable.

If you want to trek to Bloomington at a later date to talk about the research, then we can arrange a time. June looks like a relatively good month for me if that is not too late. If you were to come here, then we could spend some time trying to fish the old data set off the many, largely unorganized disks that I have.

Please give my regards to Brent. He may have told you that my twin brother is Village Manager in Woodridge, IL, and immediate past president of the Illinois Managers Association. He may be able to give you some help in making contacts when you get into the field.

Best,

Jim

James L. Perry
Chancellor's Professor
Indiana University, Bloomington
School of Public and Environmental Affairs
Room 410E
1315 E. Tenth Street
Bloomington, IN 47405-1701
Phone: 812-855-5971
E-mail: perry@indiana.edu

From: Paine, Jeffrey Robert [mailto:jpain01s@uis.edu]
Sent: Thursday, March 06, 2008 11:58 AM
To: Perry, James L.
Subject: Use of PSM instrument

Dear Dr. Perry,

My name is Jeff Paine. I am a doctoral student of one of your former pupils, Dr. Brent Never, who is both my advisor and dissertation chair here at the University of Illinois at Springfield. I am currently working on my dissertation, which involves testing the public service motivation construct in the context of elected township officials, some of whom are elected administrators and some of whom fulfill an oversight role. I find that to use your published PSM instrument, the university's IRB requires written evidence of permission to use from the copyright holder, in this case you. May I have permission to use your 24-question instrument as published in your 1996 and 1997 JPART articles? I would also like permission to use your antecedents instrument from your 1997 study. As some of the items come from other researchers, will I need to get their permission as well?

On a related but not as immediate question, I was wondering if the dataset for your 1996 and 1997 studies is available for review and reanalysis? This wouldn't be for the dissertation, but I'd like to take a look at the data and perhaps take another tack in analysis (in light of Selden, Brewer and Facer, 2000, and their individual conceptions findings).

I thank you very much for your time and consideration. I'd be glad to answer any questions you have, and would love to have the opportunity to talk about the PSM construct at some point in the future.

Sincerely,

Jeff

Jeffrey R. Paine
Doctoral Research Assistant
Doctoral Student, Doctor of Public Administration Program
Office PAC 427
(217)206-7805
Cell: (217)899-2206
email: jpain01s@uis.edu

From: Seok-Hwan Lee [palee@kookmin.ac.kr] Sent: Mon 3/10/2008 7:33 PM

To: Paine, Jeffrey Robert

Cc:

Subject: [RE]Permission to use survey items

Attachments:

View As Web Page

Dear Mr. Paine,
I am sorry for the late response.
It's really good to learn that you are using my survey items.
This emaill is to give you permission to use survey items identified in my coauthored article in Public Administration Review.
I would also appreciate it if you would send me your dissertation file by this email later.
Please say hello to everyone that knows me at UIS.
Thanks,
Seok-Hwan Lee

------------------------------- [ ] ------------------------------

(From) : "Paine, Jeffrey Robert" < jpain01s@uis.edu >
(To) : palee@kookmin.ac.kr
(Date) : 2008-03-07 02:26:06
(Subject) : Permission to use survey items

Dear Dr. Lee,

My name is Jeff Paine. I am a doctoral student in the DPA program here at UIS. I started in January 2004, so I never got to meet you while you were here. I am working on my dissertation, and I would like to use the four survey items on job commitment that were published in Lee and Olshfski (2002) in PAR. IRB here requires that I have written permission for use of prior-published survey from a copyright holder for the items before I can use them in my instrument. My study is on the motivation of local elected officials, specifically Illinois township officials, some of whom are elected administrators and some of whom have an oversight role. The use of your items would require some rewording to fit the township situation.

I would like to thank you in advance for your time and consideration in this matter. I would be glad to answer any questions that you might have.

Sincerely,

Jeff

Jeffrey R. Paine
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Doctoral Student, Doctor of Public Administration Program
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APPENDIX B

COVER LETTERS AND SURVEY INSTRUMENT

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
AT SPRINGFIELD

Department of Public Administration
College of Public Affairs and Administration
Public Affairs Center, Room 420
One University Plaza, MS PAC 420
Springfield, Illinois 62703-5407

April 10, 2008

Dear Township Official:

I am Jeff Paine, a graduate student in the Public Administration program at the *University of Illinois at Springfield*. I am conducting research as part of my doctoral dissertation project and want to ask for your help. Attached is a short survey regarding your service as an elected township official. It should take you between 15 and 30 minutes to complete.

I want to keep your response anonymous. Do NOT write your name on the survey. Your copy of the survey is identified by a code number used for tracking purposes, but your response will not be associated to your name. The results of the survey will be reported in aggregate only, not by individual response.

Please fill out the survey as completely as possible. I realize some of the questions may seem a little personal, but I believe that the information I am seeking from you is important to understanding local officials. Remember, the answers you provide will not be associated with you in any way.

By filling out the survey you are consenting to participate in the project. There are no negative consequences if you decide not to participate. If you do complete the survey, please return it in the stamped, pre-addressed return envelope provided.

The results of my research will be available at http://students.uis.edu/jpain01s or look for an article in an upcoming issue of *Township Perspective* magazine, from Township Officials of Illinois. If you would like a copy of the results of my research or have any questions, please contact me at (217) 899-2206 or my adviser, Dr. Brent Never, at (217) 206-7394.

The study has been reviewed by the UIS Human Subjects Review Officer. Dr. Lynn Pardie can answer questions about your rights as a volunteer participant in this project. She can be reached at (217) 206-7230.

Thank you for your help with this project.

Sincerely,

Jeffrey R. Paine
University of Illinois at Springfield

Township Officials of Illinois

BRYAN E. SMITH
Executive Director

Toll Free (866) 897-4688
Telephone (217) 744-2212
Fax (217) 744-7419
Website www.toi.org

OLEN KIBLER
President

April 10, 2008

Dear Township Official,

Jeff Paine, a doctoral candidate at the *University of Illinois at Springfield*, is conducting a study of factors affecting the motivation of township officials to serve their communities. *Township Officials of Illinois* is supporting this research by providing information about townships in the state and contact information so he may conduct a survey of elected officials in selected townships.

Townships are, of course, a unique form of direct government. However, townships and township officials are rarely the subject of scholarly research. Mr. Paine has identified townships to be a nearly ideal natural laboratory for studying why people want to serve their local communities through government positions, as township officials carry out their township duties within the community in which they live. Most studies of motivation study elected and hired officials who may live in one community, work in another, where the effect of their work is felt in yet another.

I encourage you to take the time to fully fill out the enclosed questionnaire today and promptly mail it back to Mr. Paine in the enclosed return envelope. Mr. Paine will write an article for our *Township Perspective* magazine summarizing the results of his study later this year. Results of his study will also be posted on his web site.

Sincerely,

Bryan E. Smith,
Executive Director

What Brings You Into Public Service?

A Survey of Township Officials in Illinois

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Please return your completed questionnaire in the enclosed envelope to:

Township Officials Survey
Department of Public Administration
University of Illinois at Springfield
One University Plaza, MS PAC 420
Springfield, IL 62703-5407

No.	Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I think the work of this township is important to the welfare of the community.	___	___	___	___	___
2	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help this township succeed.	___	___	___	___	___
3	My neighbors and I want the same things from this township.	___	___	___	___	___
4	I feel a strong sense of community with others in my township.	___	___	___	___	___
5	My family and friends support my work in this township.	___	___	___	___	___
6	I would like to work for this township for a long time.	___	___	___	___	___
7	If there is a problem in this township, the people who live here can get it solved.	___	___	___	___	___
8	It's important that I feel a sense of community with the people in this township.	___	___	___	___	___
9	I unselfishly contribute to my community.	___	___	___	___	___
10	I don't care much for politicians.	___	___	___	___	___
11	Most social programs are too vital to do without.	___	___	___	___	___
12	To me, patriotism includes seeing to the welfare of others.	___	___	___	___	___
13	Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements.	___	___	___	___	___

No.	Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
14	Serving other citizens would give me a good feeling even if no one paid me for it.	___	___	___	___	___
15	I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society.	___	___	___	___	___
16	Very few of my neighbors know me.	___	___	___	___	___
17	People in this township pretty much go their own way.	___	___	___	___	___
18	I think residents of my township don't get involved enough in local government.	___	___	___	___	___
19	People who don't vote should be ashamed of themselves.	___	___	___	___	___
20	Government should regulate personal behavior that violates the community's sense of right and wrong.	___	___	___	___	___
21	Each of us makes progress only when the whole of society makes progress.	___	___	___	___	___
22	People in this township watch after each other and help out when they can.	___	___	___	___	___
23	Politics is a dirty word.	___	___	___	___	___
24	It is hard to get me genuinely interested in what is going on in my community.	___	___	___	___	___
25	It is difficult for me to contain my feelings when I see people in distress.	___	___	___	___	___
26	I believe in putting duty before self.	___	___	___	___	___

No.	Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
27	I am one of those rare people who would risk personal loss to help someone else.	___	___	___	___	___
28	My parents actively participated in volunteer organizations (such as the Red Cross, March of Dimes, etc.)	___	___	___	___	___
29	My parents frequently discussed moral values with me (values like the "Golden Rule," etc.).	___	___	___	___	___
30	I have almost no influence over what this township is like.	___	___	___	___	___
31	It is okay for people to benefit from holding government office.	___	___	___	___	___
32	One of our biggest problems is that too many people don't have enough respect for authority.	___	___	___	___	___
33	Politicians and elected officials should remember their friends and supporters first when they make governmental decisions.	___	___	___	___	___
34	The give and take of public policymaking doesn't appeal to me.	___	___	___	___	___
35	I would prefer seeing public officials do what is best for the community, even if it harms my interests.	___	___	___	___	___
36	I seldom think about the welfare of people whom I don't know personally.	___	___	___	___	___
37	There are few public programs I wholeheartedly support.	___	___	___	___	___
38	Doing well financially is definitely more important to me than doing good deeds.	___	___	___	___	___

No.	Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
39	One or both of my parents treated their jobs (in home and/or out of home) as ones in which they helped other people.	___	___	___	___	___
40	When I was younger, my parents urged me to donate money or get involved with volunteer projects for children (for example, UNICEF, walkathons, March of Dimes, etc.)	___	___	___	___	___
41	I recognize most of the people who live in my township.	___	___	___	___	___
42	Corruption in politics should be tolerated if the job gets done.	___	___	___	___	___
43	All citizens have a duty to take an active interest in government and politics.	___	___	___	___	___
44	Meaningful public service is very important to me.	___	___	___	___	___
45	I am rarely moved by the plight of the underprivileged.	___	___	___	___	___
46	Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself.	___	___	___	___	___
47	I think people should give back to society more than they get from it.	___	___	___	___	___
48	In my view, professional organizations are of little benefit to the average member.	___	___	___	___	___
49	In my family, we always helped one another.	___	___	___	___	___
50	Government and politics are best left to political party professionals.	___	___	___	___	___

No.	Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
51	Concerning strangers experiencing distress, my parents generally thought that it was more important to "not get involved."	___	___	___	___	___
52	I consider public service a civic duty.	___	___	___	___	___
53	I have little compassion for people in need who are unwilling to take the first step to help themselves.	___	___	___	___	___
54	I regularly attend professional meetings at the local level.	___	___	___	___	___
55	I regularly attend professional meetings at the state or national level.	___	___	___	___	___
56	I feel close to God while being with a person I love.	___	___	___	___	___
57	I feel close to God while gathering with the congregation during services.	___	___	___	___	___
58	I feel close to God while obeying church rules.	___	___	___	___	___
59	I feel close to God while helping individuals in need.	___	___	___	___	___
60	I feel close to God while being absolved or anointed, etc.	___	___	___	___	___
61	I feel close to God while working for justice and peace.	___	___	___	___	___
62	My parents rarely donated money to charitable causes.	___	___	___	___	___
63	I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on one another.	___	___	___	___	___

No.	Item	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
64	I systematically read the professional journals.	___	___	___	___	___
65	I believe that professional organizations should be supported.	___	___	___	___	___

No.	Item	Yes	No
66	I am a member of a professional association in relation to my township duties.	___	___
67	I am a member of a professional association in relation to a non-township job or profession.	___	___
68	I am active in my local political party (for example, by attending organizational meetings, campaigning for candidates, collecting signatures, soliciting donations, etc.)	___	___
69	I am a member of a church or other religious organization.	___	___
70	I take part in the activities or organizations of my church or other religious organization.	___	___
71	I received some of my grade or high school education in a parochial or other school run by a religious group.	___	___
72	I am currently in the military, the reserve, National Guard, or am a veteran of military service.	___	___

No.	Item					
73	I consider my political point of view to be:	Very Liberal ___	Liberal ___	Moderate ___	Conservative ___	Very Conservative ___
74	I consider my political affiliation to be:	None ___	Dem. ___	GOP ___	Independent ___	Other ___
75	My position with the township is:	Supervisor ___	Clerk ___	Assessor ___	Road Commissioner ___	Trustee ___

No.	Item					
76	I have held my current position with this township for:	0-4 years ___	5-9 years ___	10-14 years ___	15-19 years ___	20+ years ___
77	The number of other elected, appointed, or employed positions I have held or currently hold with any other government units is:	None ___	1-2 ___	3-4 ___	5+ ___	
78	The total number of years I have held elected, appointed, or employed positions in government is:	0-4 years ___	5-9 years ___	10-14 years ___	15-19 years ___	20+ years ___
79	The total number of years I have lived in my current township is:	0-9 years ___	10-19 years ___	20-29 years ___	30-39 years ___	40+ years ___
80	My current home is about ___ miles from where I grew up:	0-4 miles ___	5-9 miles ___	10-19 miles ___	20-49 miles ___	50+ miles ___
81	I spend about ___ hours per week on township duties:	0-9 hours ___	10-19 hours ___	20-29 hours ___	30-39 hours ___	40+ hours ___
82	Not counting the time I spend on township activities, I spend about ___ hours a week on volunteering activities (such as with a church, clubs, etc.)	0-9 hours ___	10-19 hours ___	20-29 hours ___	30-39 hours ___	40+ hours ___
83	Not counting the time I spend on township activities, I spend about ___ hours a week in another job or jobs.	0-9 hours ___	10-19 hours ___	20-29 hours ___	30-39 hours ___	40+ hours ___
84	In other job(s) that I have, I am employed by:	Does not apply ___	Self-Employed ___	A business ___	A nonprofit organization ___	Another government ___

No.	Item					
85	I consider my race to be:	White ___	African-American ___	Asian ___	Other ___	More than one ___
86	I consider my ethnicity to be:	Hispanic ___	Non-Hispanic ___			
87	I consider my ancestry to be primarily:	English ___	German ___	Irish ___	Italian ___	French ___
		Mexican ___	Puerto Rican ___	American or U.S. ___	Polish ___	Scandinavian ___
		Japanese ___	Chinese ___	Other ___	Don't know ___	
88	I consider my religious affiliation to be:	None ___	Roman Catholic ___	Baptist ___	Methodist ___	Lutheran ___
		Presbyterian ___	Pentecostal ___	Episcopalian ___	Mormon ___	Other Christian ___
		Judaism ___	Islam ___	Buddhist ___	Other Religion ___	
89	When I was growing up, I attended Sunday school or religious instruction classes:	Regularly ___	Most of the time ___	Some of the time ___	Never ___	

No.	Item					
90	Please check all family members that have run for elected office: (check only once if more than one of a category has run)	None ___	Spouse ___	Parent ___	Brother or Sister ___	Grandparent or other older relative ___
		Child or other younger relative ___	Other relative ___	Don't Know ___		
91	I think the biggest problem areas for my township are: (please check three)		___ Population growth		___ Uncontrolled growth	
			___ Population loss		___ Loss of infrastructure	
			___ Population stagnation		___ Aging infrastructure	
			___ Economic growth		___ Growing tax base	
			___ Economic loss		___ Shrinking tax base	
			___ Economic stagnation		___ Stagnant tax base	
			___ Change in primary industries		___ Relations with the federal government	
			___ Large and/or growing elderly population		___ Relations with state government	
			___ Large and/or growing youth population		___ Relations with neighboring local governments	
			___ Other (Please specify) ______________________ ______________________			