PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION IN THE VOLUNTEER STATE: AN INQUIRY INTO THE NATURE AND CAUSES OF PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION AMONG ATTORNEYS EMPLOYED BY THE STATE OF TENNESSEE

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate School

of

Tennessee State University

in

Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

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Mark A. Fulks

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To the Graduate School:

We are submitting a dissertation by Mark A. Fulks entitled "Public Service Motivation in the Volunteer State: An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of Public Service Motivation among Attorneys Employed by the State of Tennessee." We recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree, Doctor of Philosophy in Public Administration.

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DEDICATION

For my girls, Mindy, Abbey, and Leyna.

ABSTRACT

MARK A. FULKS. Public Service Motivation in the Volunteer State: An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of Public Service Motivation Among Attorneys Employed by the States of Tennessee (under the direction of Dr. Ann-Marie Rizzo, Ph.D.).

Public Service Motivation is a leading issue in public administration literature. This study uses a mixed-methods research design and survey data to evaluate the existence of Public Service Motivation among attorneys employed by the State of Tennessee. The survey was distributed to the entire population of Tennessee-employed attorneys via e-mail and received 264 responses from 631 participants for a response rate of 41.8%. Data was collected using a survey instrument comprised of Perry's (1996) Public Service Motivation scale, Lewis and Frank's (2002) employment motivation scale, and six open-ended employment motivation questions developed by the researcher. The researcher analyzed the quantitative data using logistic regression and analyzed the qualitative data using content analysis. The quantitative analysis reveals that Perry's scale—attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, and compassion—is not a good fit for the data. Several of Lewis and Frank's predictor variables—provide a valuable public service, job security, high income, an interesting job, helping other people, and flexible working hours—are effective predictors. The qualitative analysis reveals that Perry's scale is not an effective predictor of outcomes in the survey sample, while other motivational factors provide insight, including job characteristics, organizational characteristics, and mission valence. These results demonstrate that, when public sector attorneys in Tennessee are asked to identify

their motivation in their own terms, public service motivation is not a significant motivator among the group as a whole. This study contributes to the literature by extending the study of Public Service Motivation to public sector attorneys employed by the State of Tennessee, using a mixed-methods approach, and answering calls for larger sample sizes, primary data, and contextual realism. The results suggest that additional research is needed to determine why Perry's scale does not fit the data in this particular context.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Motivation among public sector attorneys is a major issue for public sector managers, who handle issues related to the attraction and retention of employees. The theory of public service motivation addresses that question and provides guidance to public administrators in motivating their employees. Scholars have studied public service motivation from many different perspectives. Studies have evaluated the differences among the public, private, and non-profit sectors; the characteristics that engender public service motivation; the impact of public service motivation on career choice; and the industry-specific incidence of public service motivation. One of the most influential works is James L. Perry's (1990) public service motivation scale, which posits that public service motivation is comprised of four factors: (1) Attraction to policy making; (2) Commitment to the public interest; (3) Compassion; and (4) Self-sacrifice. Perry's scale includes twenty-four survey items designed to measure these four factors. The literature is replete with studies that analyze and refine Perry's scale. Among them is Kim's (2012) revised scale, which includes fewer survey items and only the first three Perry's factors.

This study will evaluate the existence of public service motivation among attorneys employed by the State of Tennessee, using Perry's scale and other factors identified in the literature. The other factors are derived from two recent symposia on the subject of public service motivation. The scholars contributing to those symposia identified several areas for further study: (1) Whether public service motivation is static or dynamic; (2) whether public service motivation varies according to agency of employment; and (3) the relationship between public service motivation and other motivational factors. To address these issues, the study will collect data on the impact of motivational factors—salary, job security, promotion, agency or department, and others. This study will also include a qualitative component in the form of open-ended survey questions concerning public service motivation.

Chapter Two presents the public service motivation literature. The chapter begins with the literature that defines the concept of public service motivation and then proceeds through the methodological approaches to the study of public service motivation. It then reviews the literature on the contexts and outcomes of public service motivation. Finally, the chapter discusses the gaps in the literature that inform this study. The literature review will show several ways in which this study will contribute. This study is addressed to the dearth of mixed methods studies, the lack of any studies of the public sector in the state of Tennessee, and the shortage of studies of the legal profession. It also answers calls for the call for studies with larger sample sizes, based on primary data, designed to analyze the complex nature of motivation, within the same government domain, and designed to provide contextual realism.

Chapter Three discusses the research methodology, beginning with the purpose of the study and progressing through the research questions and hypotheses, the survey instrument, conceptual definitions, operational definitions, population and sampling, data collection, and the qualitative and quantitative methods employed. It concludes with the anticipated findings, limitations, strengths, and uniqueness. The research design is mixed methods, combining content analysis of open-ended questions with logistic regression of survey data.

Chapter Four presents the statistical analysis and reports the findings. This study uses logistic regression to analyze the panel data from survey. Logistic regression has been used in the public administration literature, generally, and in the study of public service motivation, in particular. Logistic regression is used because the study seeks to determine the extent to which public service motivation predicts employment outcomes among attorneys working for the state of Tennessee. The study will analyze data using SPSS Graduate Pack 22.0 for Windows.

The logistic regression analysis presented here raises questions about the viability of the Public Service Motivation construct in the context of public sector attorneys in Tennessee. The construct was not a good fit for the data. All three components of the abbreviated construct that were tested—attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, and compassion—and all three reflect this result. In contrast, the quantitative analysis finds several predictor variables drawn from other employment motivation literature—provide a valuable public service, job security, high income, an interesting job, helping other people, and flexible working hours—to be effective predictors. Two other non-Public Service Motivation predictor variables—opportunity for advancement and a job that is useful to society—were not a good fit for the data. Ultimately, the data indicate that, when seeking to attract, retain, and motivate attorneys, the state of Tennessee should focus its efforts on providing its attorneys with opportunities to provide a valuable public service, job security, high incomes, interesting jobs, opportunities to help other people, and flexible working hours.

Chapter Five presents the qualitative data and analysis. More particularly, the study uses qualitative content analysis, a methodology that has been used in the public administration literature. The survey respondents answered five open-ended questions. Content analysis is a process that begins with the definition of the units of analysis and classification categories and proceeds through data coding and analysis. Consistently with this process, the respondents' answers are analyzed by placing their words and phrases into categories drawn from the public service motivation literature. The results are presented according to the prominence of the answers as a percentage of the responses received.

In the end, the results of the qualitative analysis raise questions about the viability of the public service motivation construct as a vehicle to explain motivation among public sector attorneys in the state of Tennessee. The qualitative questions received responses from 264 respondents. Only 26% of the responses fall within categories that correspond to public service motivation. The most prominent public-service-motivation element is self-sacrifice, followed by commitment to public interest, compassion, and attraction to policymaking, in that order. None of these predictor variables appeared in more than eight percent of the survey responses. These results demonstrate that, when public sector attorneys in Tennessee are asked to identify their motivation in their own terms, public service motivation is not a significant motivator among the group as a whole. Yet, the results also demonstrate that public sector motivation is a significant motivation for some individuals.

Likewise, the qualitative analysis raises questions about the explanatory power of the other motivating factors included in the study. The most prevalent factor is usefulness to society. The remaining factors, in descending order of prevalence, are: being able to help others, having an interesting job, flexible working hours, autonomy, job security, an opportunity for advancement, and high income. None of these factors were reported to be significant to the group as a whole. Yet they were significant on the individual level.

Finally, the qualitative analysis shows that motivation is a far more complex concept than the public-service-motivation construct portrays it to be. The results show that an employees' initial motivation for going to work for the state of Tennessee was different than an employee's motivation to excel. The responses reveal that a plethora of factors are at play in employee motivation, including salary, staffing, training, workload, benefits, job characteristics, resources, work environment, professional advancement, collegiality, autonomy, work schedules, management, red tape, interoffice politics, stress, time, boredom, work-life balance, and personal issues. And, based on the number of respondents who identified multiple factors in response to each of the five questions, the results indicated that the public service motivation construct is not capturing a full picture of the phenomenon of work motivation.

Chapter Six presents the conclusions of the study. The study set out to gain insight into the motivation of attorneys in public service in the State of Tennessee. In the end, the logistic regression demonstrated that the Public Service Motivation scale does not fit the data generated by the survey of Tennessee public service attorneys. Moreover, the qualitative analysis found that motivation in this context is far more complex than the Public

Service Motivation construct suggests. This is evident in the large number of responses received that do not fall on the public service motivation scale.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Introduction.

This chapter discusses the literature that guides the study. It begins with the definition of public service motivation and proceeds with a discussion and review of the approaches to the study of public service motivation, including James L. Perry's construct and others. It then reviews the public administration literature related to the various contexts in which scholars have studied public service motivation and its outcomes. Finally, this chapter reviews the research gaps that the literature has identified and those that are pertinent to this study, namely studies of policy type and policy environment and studies of law students, lawyers, and judges. This review of the literature reveals that this study will contribute in several ways, from its qualitative component and study of public service lawyers in Tennessee to its study of policy context using Lowi's policy typology.

B. Defining Public Service Motivation

Employee motivation is one of the big questions of public management (Behn 1995). Although the study of motivation has historical roots tracing back to the beginning of civilization (Horton 2008), the subject became the focus of intense academic scrutiny beginning in 1982 with Rainey's study of reward preferences among managers in the public and private sectors (Rainey 1982). Rainey found that public managers were more concerned with doing "meaningful public service" than receiving higher pay, monetary rewards, status, and prestige. Thus, he concluded that scholars should study the motivation of public managers to facilitate the creation of appropriate incentive systems.

In 1990, the theory of public service motivation "became a more formally established concept in its own right" when Perry and Wise published their seminal study (Vandenabeele 2011: 88-89). They defined public service motivation as "an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations" (Perry and Wise 1990: 368). Many scholars followed their lead but some advanced their own definitions. Brewer and Selden (1998) defined public service motivation as "the motivational force that induces individuals to perform meaningful … public, community, and social service" (p. 417). Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) defined public service motivation as "a general, altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation, or humankind" (p. 23). Vandenabeele (2007) defined it as "the beliefs, values, and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate" (p. 549). Perry (2010) explained, "public service motivation originates from beliefs that unique motives are found among public servants that are different from those of their private sector counterparts" (p. 679). According to Perry (2010), these definitions are "compatible" because the same fundamental supports them: "public officials should set aside their personal interests in the pursuit of the common good and serve the larger community" (p. 679). Moreover, each definition includes the concepts of "other-oriented motives," "pro-social motivation," and "doing good for others and the well-being of society" (p. 679). Public service motivation also includes the concept of altruism (Perry et al. 2010: 682).

Perry and Wise (1990) initiated the contemporary approach to public service motivation with their study of the nature of public service motivation. Several factors inspired them, including the erosion of public trust, the call for a renewed emphasis of the public service ethic, the emergence of public choice theory, and the popularity of financial incentives as a motivational tool (p. 367). Because of the contradiction between these factors and the notion of public service motivation, Perry and Wise sought to clarify the concept of public service motivation. 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 "motives" as "psychological deficiencies or needs that an individual feels some compulsion to eliminate" and classified them as rational, norm-based, or affective (p. 368). They explained, "rational motives involve actions grounded in individual utility maximization," "norm-based motives refer to actions generated by efforts to conform to norms," and "affective motives refer to triggers of behavior that are grounded in emotional responses to various social contexts" (p. 368).

Reviewing the literature, Perry and Wise (1990) identified the following motives in the rational category: Participation in the process of policy formulation; commitment to a public program because of personal identification with the program; and advocacy for a special interest (p. 368). Each of these motives, they explained, could satisfy "an individual's image of self-importance" (p. 368). In the normative category, they identified the following motives: a desire to serve the public interest; a unique sense of loyalty to duty and to the government as a whole; and the desire to promote social equity (p. 369). Turning to the affective category, they found that genuine conviction about a program's social importance and the patriotism of benevolence also motivated public servants (p. 369). After settling on those public service motives, Perry and Wise identified three propositions for study. First, the greater an individual's public service motivation, the more likely the individual will seek membership in a public organization (p. 370). Second, in public organizations, public service motivation positively relates to individual performance (p. 370-371). Finally, 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 (p. 371). They concluded with a call for additional research on the subject of public service motivation and called for scholars to test their propositions and "to refine understanding of the behavioral implications of public service motivation" (p. 371). They also called for "the development of measurement methods that facilitate better understanding of how public service motivation contributes to organizational commitment and performance" (p. 371). Finally, they called for research into the means of instilling public service motives in potential employees (p. 371).

Subsequent studies focused on the relationship between specific aspects of employment and motivation. Baldwin (1990) examined the impact of organizational red tape on employee motivation and found no significant impact. Emmert and Taher (1992) evaluated the effect of job characteristics and job design on the public service motivation of professionals and non-professionals. They concluded that public sector professionals are motivated through satisfaction of social needs and intrinsic needs. Gabris (1995) analyzed the impact of public service motivation on career choice. He concluded that, if public service motivation exists, its impact on motivation is negligible. In addition, given the complex nature of motivation, he questioned the existence of public service motivation. He suggested that, while public service motivation might motivate upper management, extrinsic needs motivate other employees.

Perry (1996) realized that, though public service motivation rhetoric is deeply embedded in the discipline's literature, scientific analysis had yet to support it. Thus, he developed a public service motivation scale for use in future research. He identified six "motives" that were generally associated with public service: attraction to policy-making, commitment to the public interest, civic duty, social justice, compassion, and self-sacrifice. From those motives, he developed a survey instrument comprised of 40 items. As the validity of the instrument was tested, he reduced it to 4 dimensions and 24 items by eliminating the dimensions for civic duty and social justice and determined that public service motivation has four dimensions—(1) attraction to public policy making, (2) commitment to the public interest, (3) compassion, and (4) self-sacrifice.

Perry (1996) also suggested that, because of correlation between the second and fourth dimensions, scholars could refine the scale to three-dimensions by eliminating self-sacrifice. Yet he retained self-sacrifice because "it has a historical connection to how we think about public service that is explicitly preserved by retaining the dimension" (p. 20). He concluded that his scale "has good overall face and construct validity, discriminant validity among four component dimensions, and high reliability" (p. 21). Accordingly, he concluded that it is a "valuable tool for accumulating empirical evidence about important facets of public administration" (p. 21). He suggested that scholars could use the scale as a "dependent variable in both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies of bureaucratic socialization" and "to measure difference in motivational orientation among governmental, business, and nonprofit samples" (p. 21).

Wright and Pandey (2011) studied the issue of mission valence in public organizations, "offering a preliminary but systematic look at how organizational missions become salient and attractive to individual employees" (p. 23). Public service motivation was included in their study as a factor related to mission valence. Mission valence refers to "an employee's perceptions of the attractiveness or salience of an organization's purpose or social contribution that is derived from the satisfaction an individual experiences" (p. 24). Using Wright's (2007) short version of Perry's (1996) public service motivation scale, they found that public service motivation is important "in enhancing the mission valence that employees associate with their organization" (p. 31). "In other words, employee mission valence increases the more that employees hold prosocial values and seek opportunities to help others" (p. 31-32).

Scholars have also studied factors that precede public service motion for their potential to explain the phenomenon. Perry (1997) identified several factors as potential progenitors of public service motivation: parental socialization, religious socialization, professional identification, political ideology, and demographic characteristics. He found that public service motivation emanates from several factors relating to childhood, religion, and profession. He also determined that, although the factors related to public service motivation, some generated anomalous results and some indicated a complex developmental process.

Vandenabeele (2011) studied the origins of public service motivation, analyzing the role of institutions in its development. More particularly, he evaluated the extent to which "individual public service motivation can be related to institutional antecedents" rather than organizational antecedents (p. 88). He evaluated several institutions—family history, organizational values, gender, age, education, and political preference—and found that each plays a role in the development of public service motivation. More particularly, family history and organizational values positively relate to public service motivation, indicating that public service motivation grows both before and during public service employment. Likewise, gender and age have "a significant influence" on public service motivation with men demonstrating higher levels than women do and older employees demonstrating higher levels than younger employees do. Education correlates to public service motivation in terms of both level and field of study. Concerning political preference, a leftwing preference correlates with public service motivation, a moderate rightwing preference has no relationship with public service motivation, an extreme rightwing preference negatively relates to public service motivation, and an anti-political preference negatively relates to public service motivation. Vandenabeele concluded, "The results of the analysis provide support for the role of various institutions in the development of public service motivation" (p. 102). He also concluded that the incorporation of multiple institutions into a single model demonstrated the "complexity of public service motivation as an individual and a societal phenomenon" (p. 102).

Jang (2012) studied the relationship between personality traits and public service motivation. He operationalized personality traits through McCrae and Costa's (1987) Big Five personality model, which is comprised of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience. He surveyed 277 public servants working in three local governments in Taiwan. He measured public service motivation using questions from Perry's (1996) instrument. He measured the personality traits using Gosling, Renfro, and Swann's (2003) Ten-Item Personality Inventory. Respondents rated all items on a seven-point Likert-type scale. Jang found that extraversion, neuroticism, and openness to experience positively relate to public service motivation. Commitment to public interest positively relates to conscientiousness and openness to experience but is negatively associated with neuroticism. Extraversion positively relates to attraction to policymaking but negatively associates with self-sacrifice. Agreeableness positively correlates to compassion. Conscientiousness positively relates to commitment to public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice. Neuroticism was negatively associated with commitment to public interest and compassion, but positively with attraction to policy making. Openness to experience positively correlates with all dimensions of public service motivation. From this, he concluded that personality traits might be strong predictors of public service motivation.

Emerson (2014) surveyed local government employees in Mississippi to study the effect of institutional antecedents on public service motivation. She also studied the role of public service motivation, altruism, and empathy in determining the subject's prosocial activity levels. The participants self-administered the survey, which included thirty-three questions. Emerson drew her sample randomly from a panel of 3,698. She received 927 responses. The survey procured information on public service motivation, altruism, empathy, prosocial acts, incentive preference, intrinsic and extrinsic reward preference, and personal demographic factors. Of note, Emerson operationalized public service motivation using Perry's (1996) construct. Among other things, she found that women have higher PSM, age does not significantly relate to public service motivation, higher education relates to higher PSM, parental modeling relates to higher PSM levels, and spirituality relates to higher PSM. She also found that PSM positively correlates with the number of prosocial acts performed by local government employees.

Scholars have studied public service motivation from other angles, too. Perry (2000) derived four premises from a review of the literature and used those premises to develop a "process theory" of public service motivation. Under this theory, motivation has many sources, including rational choice, normative conformity, affective bonding, and self-concept. In this study, he posited that public service motivation is the result of a process of reciprocal relationships among the individual's socio-historical context, motivational context, individual characteristics, and behavior. He concluded that scholars must fully develop the theory of public service motivation before a new paradigm of motivation will emerge.

Brewer, Selden, and Facer (2000) studied the manner in which people assess the motives generally associated with public service using Q-methodology to analyze the respondents' rankings of motivations established by Perry's (1996) construct. The panel of sixty-nine respondents included employees of local, state, and federal agencies and students of public administration and government. In Q-methodology, the respondents sort statements along a continuum according to their level of agreement. Because the respondents must considered each statement according to its relationship with all others, Q-methodology provides a complete view of the relative importance of each type of motivation. From their analysis, Brewer, Selden, and Facer concluded that public service motivation is a complex phenomenon that appears four different ways, each of which is comprised of multiple motives. They labeled these four types of public service motivation: Samaritans, Communitarians, Patriots, and Humanitarians. Samaritans are motivated to help others, particularly the disadvantaged and underprivileged. Communitarians act out of a sense of civic duty and seek to give to society. Patriots are benevolent and seek to protect, advance, and support the public good. Humanitarians promote social justice and seek to impact society in positive ways. None of these four types of employees reveals economic rewards as significant motivational forces. All evince a general dislike of policy and politics. In light of these findings and conclusions, Brewer, Selden, and Facer suggest that public managers must reevaluate the assumptions that drive reward systems and seek to promote public service motivation.

Pattakos (2004) approached the subject of public service motivation from the perspective of Viktor Frankl's (1959) theory that "man's search for meaning is the primary motivation in life." He found that public servants draw meaning from doing things that make a difference to society. Hence, organizational culture and mission play a role in motivation. He also found that money was not the primary motivating factor of public servants.

Perry, Mesch, and Paarlberg (2006) identified thirteen broad propositions to guide public managers in motivating employees, including the proposition that general financial incentives work moderately to significantly. Individual financial incentives are ineffective. Group incentive systems are effective. Job design is effective. Employee participation has a positive but limited impact. Challenging and specific goals improve performance. Learning goals are effective when tasks are complex. The goal-performance relationship is strongest when employees are committed and receive incentives, input, and feedback related to achievement. In addition, goal setting may face unique challenges in the public sector.

Wright (2007) studied public service motivation within the framework of goal theory. Goal theory posits that the importance employees place on their organization's mission enhances the perceived importance of their jobs, which enhances employee motivation. Wright analyzed survey data from 807 managers and professional in a large New York state agency on the following variables: employee work motivation, persistence of effort, self-efficacy, job-goal specificity, and job-goal difficulty. Wright operationalized Employee Work Motivation with three items from Patchen's (1970) motivation scale. He measured Persistence of Effort with Baldwin's (1991) adaption of Patchen's scale. He measured Self-Efficacy with three items from Sims, Szilagyi, and McKemy's (1976) effort-performance expectancy scale. He measured Job-Goal Specificity with two items from Beehr, Walsh, and Taber's (1976) construct. Finally, he operationalized Job-Goal Difficulty with three items from Wright (2007). Respondents evaluated survey items on a five-point Likert-type scale. From his analysis, Wright found that the importance of an agency's mission increases work motivation by making the job itself appear to be more important. Thus, he concluded that goal theory can help scholars and managers understand how task and mission affect the work motivation and performance of public sector professionals. He explained, "Public employees are more motivated to perform their work when they have clearly understood and challenging tasks that they feel are important and achievable" (p. 60). Accordingly, he suggests that managers should set clear expectations that include explanations of what, how, and why employees should do their assigned tasks, with the explanation of why coming from the organization's mission.

Paarlberg and Lavigna (2010) combined the literature on transformational leadership with the literature on public service motivation, "two inherently value-based perspectives" (p. 711). In doing so, they "indentif[ied] practices that reinforce and strengthen the value systems that motivate individuals to engage in public service behaviors" and "illustrate how a motivational logic based on public service values can be applied" (p. 710). They included the following "key management practices": (1) "aligning employee values and organizational ideology" through "mission, vision, and strategy" (p. 711); (2) "communicating [an] inspirational ideology" to raise awareness of idealized goals and inspire employees "to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of larger goals" (p. 711); (3) "creating value congruence through on-boarding," otherwise called selection and socialization (p. 712-713); (4) "setting clear and important public service goals;" (5) "clarifying the 'line of sight' between work, beneficiaries, and the social significance of the job" through "skill/mission match;" (6) "creating work structures that empower employee participation;" and (7) "modeling prosocial behaviors" through the conduct of managers. This model, the authors suggest, is "a framework for how organizational leaders, using the principles of trans-formational leadership, can apply good management practices to harness the power of employee's public service motivations" (p. 716).

Meyer and her co-authors (2014) studied whether public service motivation is an expression of public service motivational vocabularies. They stated that scholars should not interpret public service motivation from a psychological perspective but through the perspective of sociological and organizational institutionalism. To do so, they fashioned a study from secondary data collected during a study of Vienna, Austria. They explained that Austria provides a unique context because it is the home of legalistic administration. They distributed the survey to 1,890 employees in 14 different organizations via the intranet. To measure public service motivation, they used a fifteen-item subset of Perry's (1996) original instrument, which they selected for the context of their study. They operationalized Institutional Logics via an established methodology to identify the respondents' social identities, using both open and closed questions. Thus, they categorized respondents as exclusively legalistic-bureaucratic (Staatsdiener), mixed legalistic-bureaucratic and managerial (hybrid), distinctly managerial (public manager), and disguised. The latter category responded to the survey items without using any distinct logic. They found that public managers identified as Staatsdiener exhibited significantly lower levels of public service motivation than respondents in the public manager category did. Those in the hybrid and disguised categories differed significantly from the managerial logic, perhaps indicating some connection between these identities and the Staatsdiener logic. Public managers exhibited a much higher attraction to policy making than Staatsdiener respondents. Staatsdiener, hybrid, and disguised respondents exhibited a lower level of compassion than Public Managers. Ultimately, their study revealed that scholars should regard the individual dimensions of public service motivation as micro level manifestations of macro level institutional logics, mediated by social identities. Thus, they concluded that the traditional conceptualization of public service motivation does not completely align with the Austrian legalistic-bureaucratic institutional logic. From this, they conclude that public service motivation varies by region and institutional context, giving rise to concerns about the reliability and generalizability of the construct.

Bakker (2015) developed a model of public service motivation based upon job demands-resources theory and work engagement theory. The former posits that employment contexts comprise job demands and job resources both of which affect employee well-being. The latter contends that work engagement is a fluctuating state of mind manifested in energy, enthusiasm, and excellence. Bakker's theory assumes that "every public servant is confronted with daily job demands and daily job resources and that those with higher levels of [public service motivation] respond differently to daily demands and resources than those with lower levels of [public service motivation]" (p. 727). It advances four propositions concerning the relationship between and among daily job demands, daily exhaustion, performance, self-undermining, daily job resources, work engagement, job crafting, and public service motivation. The fundamental premise of the job demands-resources model of public service motivation is that exhaustion and work engagement influence public service motivation on a daily basis. Bakker contends that public managers should pay particular attention to demand and resources in order to maintain positive levels of public service motivation. He also contended that public managers should recruit and retain employees with high levels of public service motivation because of their ability to weather demand and resources storms more effectively than employees with low levels of public service motivation.

Neumann and Ritz (2015) proposed a rational choice model of public service motivation comprising three dimensions: extrinsic motivation, enjoyment-based intrinsic motivation, and pro-social motivation. In deriving the model, they divided intrinsic motivation into two components, hedonic and eudaimonic. The hedonic component is the motivation for enjoyment and pleasure. Neumann and Ritz dubbed it enjoyment-based intrinsic motivation. The eudaimonic component is the motivation for meaning and purpose. Neumann and Ritz call it pro-social motivation. Neumann and Ritz maintained the generally accepted definition of extrinsic motivation, arguing that their model "provides a better understanding of the roles that different motivations play in person-job fit and job choice, while taking into account that individuals usually pursue mixed motives as opposed to just one" (p. 569). They called for subsequent studies to test the model through randomized experimental research.

Schott, van Kleef, and Steen (2015) studied the difficulty that scholarly studies have had in demonstrating that public service motivation has a positive effect on performance. They opined that the public service motivation construct needs to account for individual variance in the meaning of "meaningful public service." In their view, public service motivation is a "personal orientation or commitment toward the public interest" (p. 692). Thus, because of individual variation in the understanding of its core concepts, the public-service-motivation construct is incapable of generating reliable predictions or explanations of behavioral outcomes. To remedy this limitation, they propose incorporating identity theory as a means of interpreting individual conceptions of meaningful public service: "Identity theory offers a line of reasoning for individual behavior, using the context and the self as explanatory variables" (p. 693). To test their public service motivation model, Schott, van Kleef, and Steen conducted a case study of 32 veterinarian inspectors employed by the Dutch Food and Consumer Product Safety Authority, combining Kim et al.'s (2012) modified public-service-motivation scale with qualitative data gathered during semi-structured interviews. They concluded two things. First, the relationship between behavior and public service motivation depends on the employees' individual understanding of their role in society. Second, "the hierarchical organization of different role identities within the self" (p. 700) influences the relationship between public service motivation and behavior. In the end, they contended that incorporating identity theory in the study of public service motivation would increase scholars' knowledge and understanding of public service motivation and enable scholars to explain the failure of other approaches—including the institutional approach—to generate consistent findings. As a practical matter, their research indicated that public managers need to go beyond merely including public service values in their management systems and endeavor to increase the salience of roles among employees through oaths of office, titles, and other organizational communications.

While these scholars were refining the public service motivation construct, other scholars were applying it to the study of the employment contexts in which they expected to find public service motivation and those in which they expected to find a means of comparison.

C. Public Service Motivation in Context

Scholars have applied the constructs and conceptions of public service motivation to study the employment contexts in which they observe it. Buelens and Van den Broeck (2007) evaluated the existence of public service motivation in Belgium. They evaluated intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards, supportive working environment, organizational commitment, hierarchical level, work-family conflict, and various demographic factors based upon responses to a survey of public and private sector employees. They found that, compared to private sector workers, public sector employees are less motivated by extrinsic rewards, self-development, and responsibility and more motivated by a supportive work environment and fewer working hours. They also found that differences in hierarchical level and job content explain motivation, rather than employment sector. Ultimately, they concluded that gender, age, job content, and hierarchical level might confounded differences in work motivation.

Paine (2009) combined Perry's (1996) construct with instruments used in task motivation theory and rational choice theory. To test the validity of these three instruments, he sent the survey to a sample of 507 locally elected Illinois government officials. The data revealed that the three instruments are useful and linked. From this, Paine opined that future research should seek to establish the usefulness of other measures of motivation in both the public and private sectors.

Johnson (2010) studied the factors associated with public service motivation among city planners in 31 cities in the United States of America. All respondents had participated in the Social Capital Benchmark Survey (Saguaro Seminar 2000). Johnson used Moynihan and

Pandey's (2007) revised version of Perry's (1996) scale—limited to two of Perry's sub-dimensions—with additional variables from the Social Capital Benchmark Survey added to measure differences in community context. Respondents rated the items on a five-point Likert-type scale. Johnson used predictor variables for individual characteristics, job type, organizational context, and community context. She found that public service motivation was associated with being female, the nature of the job, the entrepreneurial nature of the organization, and the extent to which citizens criticize government workers. More particularly, she found the following: Females had higher public service motivation on the overall scale and on the attraction to policy-making sub-dimension. City planners who work on current planning and historic preservation planning are negatively associated with over all public service motivation scores. Organization culture is positively associated with overall public service motivation when the culture is entrepreneurial and dynamic. Finally, the attraction to policy-making sub-dimension is negatively associated with a government-bashing community context.

Houston (2011) studied the implications of occupational locus, occupational focus, and national context for public service motivation among 7,012 employees in eleven North American and Western European. He used data from the International Social Survey Programme's Work Orientation III module to compare public and private sector workers in both public-service and non-public-service roles. The data revealed that government jobs (locus) concerned with public service activities (focus) are important for the development of public service motivation.

Brewer and Brewer (2011) studied "individuals' vigilance when performing work in a government funded research project compared with a business funded research project" (p. i347). To do so, they conducted a randomized true experimental research design of undergraduate students who volunteered to participate for partial credit. They randomly assigned the forty volunteers equally into two treatment groups, a business condition group and a government condition group. The subjects completed a psychomotor vigilance task that required them to press a space bar in response to a visual cue. "The psychomotor vigilance task measures a very simple cognitive ability: keeping a goal in mind" (p. i357). Brewer and Brewer told the subjects that either government or business funded the research. After the task, the subjects completed a questionnaire that included a public service motivation component and a 10-item personality inventory along with demographic information, political affiliation, and ideology. Brewer and Brewer found that the subjects' performance "changed in systematic and reliable ways" based upon the treatment condition (p. i357). They explained that "[i]ndividuals who believed that they were taking part in research which was funded by the government maintained a higher level of vigilance across the whole task, experienced fewer attention lapses, and responded faster overall whenever the counter started increasing" (p. i357). In the end, the study concluded that "there is a sectoral difference affecting the motivation and performance of individuals working for government and business" (p. i358) and that government workers perform better.

Yung (2014) conducted a qualitative study of public service motivation among government employees in Hong Kong. According to Yung, Hong Kong presents a unique context, given its "Chinese population, with a British colonial legacy and a Confucian orientation," which she described as an "integrated East-West dimension." After 32 detailed interviews of a variety of current employees, former employees, union representatives, and non-civil-service contract staff members, she concluded that government employees in Hong Kong may not join the civil service due to public service motivation and instead may be self-interested, given the attraction to job security and high wages. Nevertheless, she recognized that government employees are a diverse bunch, as evidenced by both the variance in public-service-motivation level according to work task and the elevated levels found among direct service providers and high-ranking officials. Ultimately, Yung concluded that multiple motivations may subtly work together to explain work motivation. "Indeed," she explained, "various nuanced combinations of both rational self-interest motivates (as portrayed by public choice theory) and altruistic intentions (embraced by public service motivation) may explain the work motivations of different Hong Kong public servants in different ranks, in different postings with different nature of work, at different times, or under different employment terms" (p. 436-437).

Houston (2014) studied public service motivation, occupational locus, and occupational focus in Russia and four other post-communist Central and Eastern European governments, seeking to apply public service motivation to emerging democracies new to the market economy. These countries are interesting because they lack a public service ethic. Houston's data came from the ISSP 2005 Work Orientations survey. The respondents included 3,412 full-time employees, who completed the survey during personal interviews. Houston operationalized locus of employment by work for government, publicly owned firm, or national industry. He operationalized focus of employment according to employment in a public service occupation, which he defined as services vital for health, safety, and welfare. He included a national-level variable to measure the type of communist legacy present and the stage of economic development. The results revealed that occupational focus correlates to public service motivation more so than occupational locus. This, Houston noted, differed from the results found in developed western democracies in which both locus and focus correlate with public service motivation.

Park and Kim (2015) studied the relationship between public service motivation and goal clarity, goal fit, and accountability in the Korean public sector, drawing their theoretical foundations from public service motivation theory, self-determination theory, and social exchange theory. Korea provided a unique context for the study because of its cultural traditions of Confucianism and collectivism, which inspire benevolence, sympathy, forgiveness, loyalty, and humility in management. Park and Kim distributed a survey on accountability and trust to 350 government employees during a training program. They operationalized accountability as comprising internal and external dimensions. The internal dimension is administrative and professional accountability. The external dimension is legal and political accountability. The survey received 255 responses. From the data, the authors found that all three dimensions of public service motivation increase internal accountability and that public service motivation, goal clarity, and person-organization fit have moderating effects. They also found that public service motivation increases external accountability but only the norm-based and affective dimensions. As a practical matter, the study supports the proposition that public service motivation is an important consideration for selection and retention. While these contextual studies of public service motivation were advancing the theory, other studies focused on identifying observable behavioral outcomes that they could attribute to the phenomenon.

D. Public Service Motivation Outcomes

Many studies of public service motivation have focused on identifying observable outcomes attributable to public service motivation. Brewer and Selden (1998) studied the link between public service motivation and prosocial behaviors as exhibited by whistle-blowers among federal employees, using data from the 1992 Merit Principles Survey by the U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board. Their survey received 2,188 responses from public servants who personally witnesses or gained evidence of wasteful or illegal activities. About half reported the incidents. Brewer and Selden found that whistleblowers are motivated by concern for the public interest, perform at a high level, and report high achievement, high job commitment, and high job satisfaction. They also found that whistleblowers place significantly higher value on the public interest than their non-reporting counter-parts and that whistleblowers also place significantly lower value on job security. Based upon these findings, Brewer and Selden concluded that whistle blowing is a behavioral manifestation of public service motivation.

Crewson (1997) studied the differences in public service motivation between the public and private sectors as seen in the incidence of public service motivation, its consistency over time, its impact on organizational performance, and its ramifications for representative democracy. To do so, he evaluated secondary data from three sources: the General Social Survey, the Federal Employee Attitude Survey, and a Survey of Electrical Engineers. He found that public sector employees and private sector employees have different reward preferences. Public service Motivation among federal government employees is rooted in organizational commitment. More broadly, public sector employees are less interested in financial rewards and more interested in service-based rewards. In other words, Crewson found that public sector employees rate intrinsic rewards higher than extrinsic rewards, except for pay, for which there was no discernible difference.

Houston (2000) studied differences in motivation between public sector employees and private sector employees, analyzing data from the 1991, 1993, and 1994 General Social Survey. Combining the data from these three years provided a sample of 101 public sector employees and 1,356 private sector employees. Upon a review of the data, Houston found that both public sector and private sector employees are likely to rate meaningful work as their most valued job characteristic. He also found that public sector workers tend to favor job security more than high income and short hours and that they are more likely to favor those things more so than private sector employees are. From these findings, he concluded that public service motivation exists and suggested that public managers focus on intrinsic rewards rather than extrinsic rewards when seeking to motivate employees.

Alonso and Lewis (2001) studied the relationship between public service motivation and job performance as evidenced by full-time white-collar employees in the federal government, who completed the 1991 Survey of Federal Employees and the 1996 Merit Principles Survey. They operationalized the variable as follows: Employment grade and performance appraisals operationalized work performance; six questions from Perry's (1996) construct operationalized public service motivation; and earned merit-based promotions operationalized merit. The authors sought to determine whether employees with higher levels of public service motivation perform better, whether employees perform better when they believe performance leads to promotions and salary increases, and whether monetary rewards have less impact on the motivation of employees with high levels of public service motivation. Based on their findings, Alonzo and Lewis question whether public service motivation and job performance correlate positively. They also questioned the claim that individual incentive programs are less effective for high-public service motivation employees. Overall, they concluded that an employee's belief that rewards are based upon performance affects performance as much for high-public service motivation employees as high-merit employees.

Lewis and Frank (2002) studied the demographic and job characteristics that influence the sector choice of public and private sector employees, seeking to connect public service motivation to employment sector choice. They analyzed data from the 1989 and 1998 General Social Survey reported by 2,609 survey participants to evaluate the impact that race, sex, veteran status, age, education, personal contacts to the public sector, high income, job security, and opportunities for public service had upon employment sector preference. From the data, they concluded that job security may be the greatest attraction of the public sector but high income and an opportunity to serve the public also affect sector choice. They also found that minorities, veterans, Democrats, and elderly citizens prefer public-sector employment more significantly than whites, non-veterans, Republicans, and young citizens. Table 4 presents the questions they analyzed from the General Social Survey.

Houston (2006) studied the relationship between public service motivation and charitable gifts of time, blood, and money. He analyzed the responses of 1,301 public, private, and non-profit sector employees to questions concerning donations of time, blood, and money on the 2002 General Social Survey. The data showed that, compared to private sector employees, public sector and non-profit sector employees are more likely to volunteer to work for charitable causes and donate blood than public sector employees. But the data showed no difference among the three groups when it came to donating money. Based on these findings, Houston concluded that public service motivation is more prominent in public organizations. He suggested that public managers should hire employees with public service motivation and then motivate them by tapping into their public service ethic.

DeHart-Davis, Marlowe, and Pandey (2006) studied the gender dimensions of public service motivation by analyzing survey data from 570 public managers working in information management in state health and human services agencies. Their data came from Phase II of the National Administrative Studies Project, which used Dillman's comprehensive tailored design to maximize responses to the mailed survey. The 274 respondents came from all fifty stated and Washington, D.C. DeHart-Davis, Marlowe, and Pandey measured public service motivation using Perry's (1996) scale, which they coupled with their own gender-based classifications. They classified attraction to policymaking and commitment to public service as culturally masculine and classified compassion as culturally feminine. They found that gender is a statistically significant predictor for compassion and a marginally significant predictor of attraction to policy making. They found no gender difference on commitment to public service. Race and income had no statistically significant effect in any of their models. Public sector experience was only marginally significant, but education and professionalism were important predictors of public service motivation. They concluded that public service motivation has gender dimensions that the theory should take into account.

Moynihan and Pandey (2007) tested Perry's theory of antecedents of public service motivation. To do so, they studied the role of organizational factors in shaping public service motivation using survey data from Phase II of the National Administration Studies Project in 2002 and 2003, a national survey of state health and human services managers. The 274 respondents came from all fifty states and Washington, D.C., and worked in information management positions. Moynihan and Pandey measured public service motivation using three of Perry's (1996) four dimensions. They evaluated organizational culture, red tape, hierarchy, reform orientation, organizational tenure, education, professional organizations membership, age, gender, and income. They found support for the contention that sociohistorical context, hierarchical authority, and reform efforts positively relate to public service motivation and that organizational institutions, such as red tape and tenure, negatively relate to public service motivation. They also found that public service motivation strongly and positively relates to education level and professional organization membership. Moreover, they found that organizational culture does not predict public service motivation. Based on these findings, they concluded that public service motivation is the result of socio-historical background and organizational environment. Therefore, public organizations can motivate employees by making them feel like they are contributing to the public good.

Houston and Cartwright (2007) studied the relationship between spirituality and public service, looking for a connection between public service motivation and general spiritual attitudes, age, gender, race, family structure, and social status. They analyzed data from the 1998 General Social Survey, which included responses from 215 government employees and 177 non-government employees. They operationalized spirituality in a manner distinct from religiousness, defining it more generally as evinced by transcendence (belief in God), interconnectedness, love and compassion for others, and life purpose. They measured it with eight items from the Brief Multidimensional Measure of Religiousness and Spirituality. They found that public sector employees are more spiritual than private sector employees. They also found that public sector employees exhibit stronger expressions of transcendence and compassion for others. They also enjoy a greater experience of inter-connectedness and life purpose. Ultimately, Houston and Cartwright concluded that spirituality is a key motivating factor for public sector employees. They explained, "Spirituality is evidenced as a key component in the motivating force that inspires commitment to public service rather than abject careerism" (p. 99).

Vandenabeele (2008) sought to determine whether public service motivation influences "attractiveness of different types of government employers" by combining the literature on public service motivation with the literature on person-organization fit (p. 1089). He surveyed master's degree students in their final year of study at Belgian colleges and universities. He distributed the survey by email directing the respondents to a web-based survey. He used public service motivation as his independent variable, drawing upon Perry's public service motivation scale. However, because of problems associated with translating Perry's scale into Dutch, the model was reduced from Perry's four dimensions to three dimensions by collapsing the "public-interest and civic duty" and "self-sacrifice" dimensions into a single dimension. What remained was a three-dimension scale comprised of "compassion," "attraction to policy-making and politics," and a hybrid dimension comprised of "public interest, civic duty, and self-sacrifice." Because of the reformulation of the scale, Vandenabeele's instrument contained 13 items, reduced from Perry's 24 items. Table 5 presents the instrument. After testing the reconfigured scale, he concluded that it was "the best fitting alternative" for his data (p. 1094). He used "employer attractiveness" as his dependent variable. He measured this variable according to responses to the question "To what extent would you like to work for this employer," which included a list of public sector and private sector employers (p. 1096). Finally, he used attitudes towards retirement pay, a fair wage, promotion, and job security as control variables. He used gender and education as dummy variables. The data were analyzed using logistic regression analysis. Ultimately, the study reached several results, including the following: Public service motivation has an important influence on general public sector attractiveness. Perry and Wise were correct in surmising that individuals with high levels of public service motivation are more likely to seek employment in the public sector. The public interest and attraction to policymaking dimensions dominated the study. In addition, public service motivation is already present before people seek employment.

Andersen, Pallesen, and Pedersen (2011) studied whether public service motivation depends upon job task rather than employment sector, using Coursey and Pandey's (2007) abbreviated version of Perry's (1996) measurement scale with the addition of Vandenabeele's customer-orientation element. Table 6 presents the survey instrument. They surveyed physiotherapists employed in both the public and private sectors who performed "almost identical tasks" and differed only with respect to "the ownership of the organization" (p. 14).

They found that public service motivation does not differ between public sector physiotherapists and private sector physiotherapists. However, the type of public service motivation differs. Compared to public sector physiotherapists, private sector physiotherapists exhibited a higher level of public service motivation directed toward the recipient of the service and a lower level of public service motivation directed toward the public interest and compassion. Accordingly, Andersen and his colleagues concluded, "the target of the altruistic behavior may vary according to the sector of employment" (p. 19). They explained, "Private sector physiotherapists seem to be more narrowly oriented toward the user, whereas physiotherapists in the public sector have a broader, more complex orientation toward public interest and compassion" (p. 21).

Jung and Rainey (2011) conducted a study of the relationship between public duty motivation and organizational goal ambiguity among federal employees. With this application of goal-ambiguity theory and goal-setting theory, they sought to determine whether characteristics of the motivational context affect motivation. More particularly, they evaluated job-goal specificity, mission specificity, job-goal commitment, and job-goal importance, controlling for pay satisfaction, promotion satisfaction, training satisfaction, supervision satisfaction, and job satisfaction. They also included gender, education, and supervisory status as demographic variables. They used public duty motivation, rather than public service motivation, because the survey that provided the data they analyzed included a question about motivation arising from the employee's duty as a public employee, the results of which constituted an "indirect measure of public service motivation" (p. 29). They found evidence that "goal ambiguity can reduce public service motivation" because "ambiguous goals can make it difficult to see the effects or results of [employees'] work efforts" (p. 41).

Coursey, Brudney, Littlepage, and Perry (2011) applied functional theory, drawn from the literature on volunteering, to public service motivation in an attempt to determine whether public service motivation varies according to task. They contend that the public service motivation literature had over-emphasized the study of motivation in formal organizations to the exclusion of studies more generally aimed at "attraction to altruistic public service opportunities and activities regardless of the formal organization or sector" (p.49). They also contend that, although scholars base the theory on the attraction-selection paradigm, the literature had failed to evaluate the relationship between work-domain and motivation. To close this gap in the literature, they studied the factors influencing volunteers' selection of volunteer opportunities. More particularly, they asked "whether public service motivation varies across organizational domains" (p. 53), looking for variances in compassion, self-sacrifice, and commitment to public service among four volunteer domains, namely religious organizations, education/school, human service, and other. They opined that evidence of such variation could indicate that volunteer motivation varies according to volunteer service domain and support the conclusion that functional theory drive volunteers toward particular domains. They concluded that differences existed between the domains, especially religious organizations.

Seider, Rabinowicz, and Gillmor (2011) studied the effects of philosophy, theology, and community service on the public service motivation of Ignatius University students enrolled in the SERVE Program. The SERVE Program combines coursework on philosophy and theology with a community service project as a means for students to fulfill their requirement of completing a capstone course in moral philosophy. The university randomly assigns four hundred students to the course from the nearly five hundred who apply. Their experimental group consisted of 362 students. Their control group consisted of thirty-seven students who applied for the program but the university did not assign to participate. The students responded to surveys in the early fall and then again in the late spring. The survey included items from Perry's (1996) public service motivation scale, Peplau and Tyler's (1975) belief-in-a-just-world scale, and the NPR-Kaiser-Harvard (2001) poverty survey. The participants rated the survey items on a five-point Likert-type scale. To increase their response rate, the faculty for the program required the students to complete both surveys. The authors coupled their quantitative study with structured qualitative interviews of thirty students, who the program faculty nominated. Ultimately, the authors concluded that the program had a significant, positive effect on the public service motivation of participating students. "In other words, Ignatius University students who participated in the SERVE Program came away from the experience, on average, with a stronger belief in the importance of community service and a deeper sense of responsibility for the wellbeing of struggling fellow citizens" (p. 617). Additionally, they found three factors to be significant predictors of increases in public service motivation during the program: female gender, self-reported spirituality, and witnessing familial poverty. In an unexpected turn of events, they found that students who classified themselves as religious experienced smaller increases in public service motivation than non-religious students.

Taylor and Taylor (2011) studied the relationship between wages, effort, and public service motivation by applying efficiency wage theory and the public service motivation literature. They considered "whether the effort levels of government employees are influenced more by efficiency wages or public service motivation" (p. 68). Efficiency wage theory posits that the effort exerted by an employee relates to the employee's wages. Likewise, public service motivation suggests that effort relates to the internal drive to serve the public. They found that "public service motivation contributes to a larger change in the effort levels of government workers than wages" (p. 78). Additionally, among other things, they found that public service motivation is more important at supervisory and higher levels than at subordinate levels and that there is a positive relationship between wages and effort.

Kjeldsen and Jacobsen (2012) studied the relationship between public service motivation and employment sector by surveying a panel of Danish physiotherapy students both before and after employment. Their panel included physiotherapists in both the public and private sectors. They combined four items from Perry's (1996) 24-item scale with questions designed to measure attraction effect and reality shock. Additionally, because the physiotherapists perform the same services regardless of their sector of employment, they contend that any differences between sector employees are attributable solely to the sector. They found that public service motivation does not relate to either attraction to public sector or sector of employment. Thus, they concluded that public service motivation is likely more associated with the nature of the work than the sector of employment. They also found that, after employment, public service motivation diminishes significantly due to a "shock effect."

Employment sector moderates the shock effect with less of an effect evident in the public sector.

Park and Word (2012) surveyed non-profit and state government managers to study the role of public service motivation in those sectors. They drew on self-determination theory, public service motivation, and non-profit sector motivation to formulate their study of work motivation and public and non-profit managers. They found that there are four different motivational constructs and that managers in the non-profit and public sectors are similar in their preference for intrinsic motivation over extrinsic motivation. "Public and non-profit employees are both significantly motivated by intrinsic factors" (Park and Word, 2012: 725). The most significant factors were organizational reputation, ability to serve the public, and desire to avoid red tape. They also found that non-profit and public sector managers are differently motivated at work with the former being motivated by work-life balance and the latter being motivated by monetary rewards. They also found that public service managers seek to balance their need for both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

Cun (2012) studied the existence of a cause-and-effect relationship between public service motivation, on one hand, and organizational citizenship behavior and job satisfaction, on the other, among public servants in Guangzhou, China. Cun combined a culturally-modified version of Perry's (1996) scale with a job satisfaction questionnaire and organizational citizenship behavior questionnaire in a survey of randomly selected public servants, rated by respondents along a four-point Likert scale. He found significant differences between employees based on their tenure with new employees exhibiting higher levels of public service motivation than their older counterparts do. He interpreted this to mean that public service motivation decreases over time. He also found that public service motivation significantly influences job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior.

Wright, Christensen, and Isett (2014) studied the role that public service motivation plays during periods of organizational change. Using data from a survey of employees in a city that was undergoing a reorganization and reduction in workforce, they evaluated the relationship between commitment to organizational change and public service motivation. The results showed that employees who scored high on the self-sacrifice dimension of public service motivation were more likely to support organizational change. Thus, the authors concluded that high-public-service-motivation employees might be less likely to oppose personally disadvantageous organizational change more so than being willing to support such change. The practical implication of this finding is that employees with high self-sacrifice scores on the public service motivation scale may be good candidates for fostering support for organizational change among the employees generally.

Kjeldsen (2014) studied public-service-motivation-based attraction-selection and socialization among Danish social work students. She surveyed the students immediately before they completed their education and then again soon after they entered the workforce. She focused on the choice between service-production work and service-regulation work as well as the socializing effects of those work tasks. She defined service production as provision of a specific service to an identified group. In contrast, she defined service regulation as the service eligibility decisions under the law. She based these definitions on Hasenfeld's (1972) theory of people-changing and people-processing governmental functions. Kjeldsen concluded that student public-service-motivation profiles predict student preferences but not first employment. "[T]he work task plays a significant role with respect to PSM-based attraction mechanism" (2013: 108). She found that higher public-interest public service motivation gives rise to attraction to service regulation tasks, whereas higher compassion public service motivation leads to service production tasks. Policy-making public service motivation does not steer students in either direction. Moreover, she found that compassion public service motivation generally decreases after entry into the job market. However, policy-making public service motivation increases.

Kim (2012) studied both public service motivation and person-organization fit to analyze which theory is a better predictor of work attitudes, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. He used a survey of 1,200 full-time, local-government Korean civil servants to test his hypotheses. His survey was comprised of Kim's (2010) twenty-item PSM scale, three items from Cable and DeRue's (2002) person-organization fit scale, three items used by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) to measure organizational commitment, and five items from Agho, Mueller, and Price (1993) to measure job satisfaction. From his analysis, Kim concluded that public service motivation has a direct effect on job satisfaction. He also found that it has an indirect effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment through its influence on person-organization fit. He also found that public service motivation and person-organization fit are each important factors for work attitudes. It that regard they are complementary. On the practical side, Kim suggests that government organizations recruit high-PSM employees and relate the organization's values to its employees.

Nagaruiya and her colleagues (2014) studied motivational differences between undergraduate college students and ROTC cadets by combining the literature on Institutional-Occupational Enlistment and public service motivation. They surveyed 290 students and 104 cadets enrolled in a mid-sized Midwestern public university, using Kim's (2012) twenty-item PSM instrument and questions adopted from Woodruff et al.'s (2006) work. They found that public service motivation is higher for ROTC cadets than for regular undergraduates. They also found that the institutional motivators for enlistment of cadets positively correlate with the three dimensions of public service motivation.

Caillier (2014) studied the way in which various motivators, including public service motivation, interact with transformational leadership. To do so, he conducted a nationwide web-based survey of federal, state, and local government employees in the United States, distributed via SurveyMonkey. The panel came from SurveyMonkey's database. SurveyMonkey provided nominal benefits to the respondents, including a charitable donation and entry into a sweepstakes. The survey consisted of forty-nine questions that included items designed to measure job satisfaction, transformational leadership, mission valence, and public service motivation. The public service motivation questions came from the five-item scale drawn from Perry's (1996) original scale. Caillier received 964 responses from the 3,500 e-mail invitations. He found that transformational leadership and public service motivation had a direct, positive impact on employee evaluations. But public service motivation did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and employee performance. Caillier believed this was so because the goals established by transformational leaders are not always altruistic in nature and do not always align with the altruistic motives of high-PSM employees. Caillier also found that public service motivation directly and positively affects performance.

Quratulain and Khan (2015) studied the relationship between public service motivation and feelings of personal-job fit and the relationship between perceived fit and job satisfaction as mediated by public service motivation. They conducted the study from the institutional perspective of public service motivation. Institutional theory posits that public service motivation is a manifestation of institutional-level values at the individual level. They surveyed 213 employees from nine public service organizations in Pakistan, using the five item short PSM scale, a three-item measure of person-organization fit, two-items to measure job satisfaction, and two items to measure perceived work pressure. They measured all of these items on a five-point Likert scale. They found that public service motivation is a mechanism for transferring the effect of workplace experiences to job relevant attitude. They also found support for the proposition that work context affects individual perception of public service motivation. Moreover, they found that workplace constraints could interact with and affect public service motivation and job satisfaction. Overall, they found support for the theory that organizational factors affect public service motivation.

Liu, Hu, and Cheng (2015) studied the relationship between servant leadership and subordinate public service motivation. They surveyed 659 Chinese public sector employees, some of whom were masters-level public administration students. The survey measured servant leadership, drawing upon several established measurement instruments, and public service motivation, using a Chinese version of Perry's (1996) public service motivation scale. They found that servant leadership is positively associated with public service motivation. In fact, they found that each measure of servant leadership significantly related to subordinates' levels of public service motivation. This indicates that "the behavior of leaders communicates powerfully what is important and how their subordinates should conduct themselves." The authors also found that age has a significant association with public service motivation, indicating that older employees have lower levels of PSM than younger employees do.

French and Emerson (2015) conducted a case study of 272 local government employees in Mississippi to evaluate the relationship between reward preferences and public service motivation. They collected information concerning public service motivation, employee incentive preferences, and personal demographics. The survey measured public sector motivation according to an aggregate measure derived from the average score on Perry's (1996) twenty-four item scale. It measured incentive preference through a series of questions about various extrinsic factors, including job security, high income, chance for promotion, status and prestige, short working hours, and chance for performance awards. It also measured five intrinsic factors, namely the opportunity to accomplish something worthwhile, a job that enables employees to help others, a job that is useful to society, getting a feeling of accomplishment from the job, and work that is important. The survey employed a five point Likert-type scale. They found that local government employees value intrinsic rewards more than extrinsic rewards. Moreover, they found that public sector employees favor job security. They also found that younger employees considered the opportunity for a promotion and job security more important than older employees and that female employees favored job security, helping others, and feelings of accomplishment.

Taylor and her colleagues (2015) combined the literature on the institutional motives implicated in military recruitment and the literature on public service motivation to study the motivations of military recruits. The institutional-occupational literature had studied the motives behind enlistment and re-enlistment decisions. The model focuses on institutional values, including service and civic duty, in a manner that is similar to public service motivation. They surveyed 174 active-duty Special Forces soldiers at Fort Bragg, North Carolina. The survey instrument combined Kim's twenty-four item public service motivation scale with institutional-occupational questions. They found statistically significant correlations between the military-service institutional values and all four dimensions of public service motivation. Notably, they found that institutional values and public service motivation are better predictors of a soldiers' intention not to re-enlist. They also found evidence that the public service motivation construct may be better at identifying subtle differences in military-service decision-making.

Stazyk and Davis (2015) studied ethical decision making among local government managers in the United States, seeking to identify a connection between public values, public service motivation, and employees' ethical obligations. They sought to explain employees' choices between high-road ethical obligations and low-road ethical obligations in response to organizational issues. Relying on data compiled by Phase IV of the National Administrative Studies Project, they analyzed the responses of 1,400 local government managers with Perry's (2000) process model of public service motivation as their guide. According to the process model, values and morals are key components of a comprehensive theory of motivation. They found a positive correlation between public service motivation and high-road ethical obligations, founded upon virtue and integrity. They also found that observed differences according to the employees' level of professionalism indicate that the relationship between public service motivation and behavior is more complex than previously understood. Those with less professional training exhibited a preference for high road approaches to ethics. They attributed this difference to the fact that professional standards are the basis of low road ethics, which more professionalized employees—such as those with advanced degrees—are likely to follow. To apply this research in practice, they suggested that public managers use systems aimed at joining high and low road ethical approaches.

Liu, Zhang, and Lv (2014) studied whether the compassion element of public service motivation is present among Chinese social workers. Social work in China presented an interesting context for the study of the Western tradition of compassion because of China's tradition of the great equity of Confucianism. They surveyed 552 social workers in an eastern China city, using a back-translated Chinese version of Perry's (1996) eight-item compassion scale and the three-item job-satisfaction scale designed by Liu et al. (2008) measured along a six-point Likert-type scale. They found that the compassion dimension of public service motivation is more complex among Chinese social workers than posited by Perry. In the Chinese context, compassion is bi-dimensional, rather than unidimensional. Nevertheless, they validated the affective dimension of public service motivation. They also demonstrated that compassion exists in Chinese culture and tradition and should be a central motive for Chinese social workers.

Brænder and Andersen (2013) opined that exposure to warfare could affect soldiers' perceptions of others and society. To test this hypothesis, they analyzed panel data from two companies of Danish soldiers, totaling 211, on a tour of duty to Afghanistan to determine whether deployment affects public service motivation. They did not include attraction to policy making in their survey because they did not expect deployment to affect that dimension. They expected to find that commitment to the public interest would increase during deployment while compassion would decrease. Upon review of the data, they found their expectations validated. During deployment to war, commitment to the public interest increases and compassion decreases. They attributed the latter finding to the dehumanizing effect of combat. Their findings demonstrated that public service motivation is a dynamic phenomenon that can change considerably accordingly to changes in the employee's environment and work task.

Bellé (2012) conducted a field experiment to study the relationship between public service motivation, job performance, contact with service beneficiaries, and self-persuasion. His subjects were a sample of nurses at a public hospital in Italy. He conducted a randomized control group experiment with control groups for beneficiary contact and self-persuasion interventions. He found that beneficiary contact and self-persuasion have positive impacts on job performance. With respect to public service motivation, he found that beneficiary contact and self-persuasion were more effective at improving job performance—as seen in measures of persistence, output, productivity, and vigilance—for employees who entered the experiment with higher levels of public service motivation. Likewise, those factors were more effective at improving the job performance of those with higher levels of public service motivation generally. He also found that the increase in public service motivation mediates the effects of these two factors. In addition to contributing an experimental design to the literature, Bellé's study also indicates that public service motivation is dynamic, rather than stable. On the practical side, the study supports the use of beneficiary contact and self-persuasion techniques by public managers to increase public service motivation among their employees. More broadly, the study reveals that managers may implement organizational interventions to enhance motivation.

Coursey, Pandey, and Yang (2012) studied the relationship between public service motivation and public managers' attitudes toward citizenship participation in order to test Perry and Vandenabeele's (2008) theory that public service motivation is moderated or mediated by the employee's perception of the fit between the organization and its mission and the employee's public service values. Perry and Vandenabeele's model conceived of public service motivation's antecedents through institutional theory and its dependents through self-regulatory/self-identity models. In other words, public service motivation "values are transmitted through institutional social structures, norms, and rules" (Coursey, Pandey, and Yang 2012: 573). Coursey, Pandey, and Yang conducted a web-based survey of 3,316 city managers, assistant managers, and department heads of U.S. cities with populations of 50,000 or more. The respondents received a letter in the mail that explained the study, invited them to participate, and directed them to a web site and a participant code. They received 1,538 responses. The survey was comprised of five items from Perry's (1996) scale, a question about their perception of the importance of citizen participation to the organization, three items to measure value congruence, and five items to measure views of citizen participation. They found that public service motivation has a significant and positive direct relationship with citizen participation evaluation and value congruence. From this, they suggest that public organizations recruit managers with higher levels of public service motivation and emphasize a commitment to citizen participation. These two things, they opine, will reinforce other strategies for improving managers' opinions of citizen participation activities.

Liu, Du, Wen, and Fan (2012) studied public service motivation among public sector and private sector employees in China, using a comparative design study with two independent samples. Their survey instrument was comprised original items from Perry's (1996) construct. They used a six-point Likert-type scale, using an even number to reduce central tendency among Chinese respondents. Because of the Confucian "doctrine of the mean," Chinese survey respondents tend to avoid extremes. Their overall goal was to provide evidence of the public service motivation construct in China by comparing the two sectors with the expectation that public sector employees would have higher public service motivation than their private sector counterparts. The first study included 250 masters-level public administration students who also worked full time public sector jobs. They administered the survey during class. Their second study was comprised of 256 private sector employees, who completed the survey at work. They found that three of the four dimensions of public service motivation appear in the public and private sectors. But public sector motivation is higher in the public sector. They explained that attraction to policymaking is rooted in Chinese culture because public policymaking is an assertion of power and traditionalism typifies Chinese culture. They also explained that public interest and self-sacrifice in Chinese culture come from the Confucian principle of self-discipline and is likewise consistent with Chinese Communist ideology. Moreover, they explained, according to societal norms, public policymaking and commitment to the public interest are the main missions of the public sector. "So it makes sense that employees in the public sector would have a higher level of attraction to public policymaking and commitment to public interests than would their counterparts in the private sector" (p. 1417).

Hsieh, Yang, and Fu (2011) studied the relationship between public service motivation and two emotional labor activities, namely surface acting and deep acting. Their survey instrument employed Coursey and Pandey's (2007) abridged public-service-motivation scale, which is comprised of three-factors—attraction to policymaking, commitment to public interest, and compassion—and fewer items than Perry's (1996) scale. They measured emotional labor using Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand's (2005) methodology. They analyzed data from a self-reported survey of public service workers enrolled in the certified public manager program at Florida State University. The 243 respondents rated the items on a seven-point Likert-type scale. The data showed that public service motivation positively correlates with deep acting and negatively associated with surface acting. Yet the individual dimensions of public service motivation correlate differently with the two dimensions of emotional labor: Compassion positively correlates with deep acting and negatively correlated with surface acting. Attraction to public policymaking positively correlates with surface acting but does not correlate with deep acting. In addition, commitment to public interest negatively associates with surface acting and does not associate with deep acting. From their analysis, they concluded that employees with higher public service motivation are less inclined to engage in surface acting but more inclined to engage in deep acting. They also concluded that their study "confirms the importance of public service motivation to the practice of public management" (p. 248). In particular, they explained that public organizations could train their employees to convey appropriate emotions and to correctly respond to difficult situations.

Caillier (2015) studied the mediating effect that public service motivation and organizational commitment have on the relationship between transformational leadership and whistle blowing. To do so, he distributed a web-based survey via SurveyMonkey to 3,500 local, state, and federal government employees in SurveyMonkey's database. As an incentive to participation, SurveyMonkey entered the respondents in a drawing and donated fifty cents to each respondents' designated charity. Caillier's respondents numbered 1,106. The survey instrument used the following established measures: Bhal and Dadhich's (2011) two-item whistleblowing scale; Carless, Wearing, and Mann's (2000) multiple-item transformational leadership scale; a modified version of Perry's (1996) public service motivation scale; and Meyer et al.'s (1993) organizational commitment scale. Upon a review of the results, he found that public service motivation had a positive impact on whistle blowing through organizational commitment, which fully mediated the relationship. He also found that public service motivation did not mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and whistle blowing. Turning to the practical implications, he concluded that his study demonstrated the importance of public service motivation to public organizations.

Pedersen (2014) studied the relationship between commitment to public interest and user orientation among a group of local politicians in Denmark. These local politicians provided a unique context for the study of public service motivation because they "play a particularly strong role in defining what the public good is in their communities," especially where the provision of welfare services is concerned (p. 886). Pedersen collected her date through an e-mail based survey of incumbent municipal councilors in 98 Danish cities. She received 1,336 responses. She used working hours and political influence as her dependent variables and commitment to public interest (CPI) and user orientation (UO). She found a positive correlation between commitment to public interest and working hours. Moreover, she found that high-CPI politicians experience a greater person-environment fit than politicians with high UO do. Thus, she concluded, "the relationship between pro-social motivation and behavioral outcomes is moderated by the fit between the type of pro-social motivation and the organizational environment.

Taylor (2014) studied the relationship between public service motivation and job satisfaction and the effect of employee perception of citizen impact and citizen contact on that relationship. In formulating her framework, Taylor borrowed from March and Olsen's (1989) "logic of appropriateness," self-regulation theories, and Perry's (2000) process model of public service motivation, seeking to explain "why and how organizational factors interact with public service motivation to affect a job outcome such as job satisfaction" (p. 903). The 247 respondents came from Australian local government and completed either an online survey or a paper-based survey. In the end, Taylor found that the respondents' perceptions of job impact partially mediated the association between public service motivation and job satisfaction. High PSM employees tend to be high job satisfaction employees. Moreover, "government employees who have strong norms about performing public service were more satisfied with their job, partly based on the extent to which they perceived that their jobs provided avenues for worthwhile accomplishment through the frequency, magnitude, and scope of job impact" (p. 912). Further, high PSM employees want work that benefits others and are more likely to self-monitor. The practical implication of these findings is that it is important for public organizations to empower employees such that they can witness the positive effect of their efforts.

Davis and Stazyk (2014) studied the relationship between reinventing government, bureaucratic red tape, and public service motivation with a goal of learning how reinvention and public service motivation interact. Drawing on data from Phase IV of the National Administrative Studies Project, they analyzed the responses of a national sample of city managers, assistant city managers, and department heads in local governments with populations over 50,000. Their respondents numbered 1,538 and came from 545 different jurisdictions. They found an association between higher levels of reinvention reform and lower levels procurement and human resources red tape. Moreover, they found that market-like reinvention reforms in the public sector lead to higher public service motivation when viewed as minimizing human-resources red tape. Thus, they questioned the conventional wisdom, espoused by some scholars, that reinvention reforms and public service motivation are necessarily at odds.

Ward (2013) studied the means by which employers may cultivate public service motivation and how public service motivation might change over time. He relied upon secondary panel data compiled by the Corporation for National and Community Service concerning motivation and participation in AmeriCorps. The data is from a non-random, quasi-experimental design with treatment and comparison groups involving 4,513 participants who responded to surveys on three occasions from 1999 to 2007. Ward operationalized public service motivation through attraction to policymaking, commitment to public interest, and civic awareness. He found that AmeriCorps service has a positive effect on the participants' commitment to public interest and civic awareness upon completion of the program and for a number of years thereafter. Thus, service appears to cultivate public service motivation, a finding that is consistent with the hypothesis that organizational culture and experiences may raise public service motivation. As Ward explained, "AmeriCorps members appear to leave the program more attached, committed, and willing to participate in their communities. Similarly, they report a deeper and more robust awareness of the issues that their communities face" (p. 120). However, he found that those levels decline over time, indicating that public service motivation begins to dissipate after entry into the public service workforce. Nevertheless, the dissipation is slower than in other groups.

Kroll and Vogel (2014) studied public managers' use of performance information on the premise that an employee's purposeful use of data is an extra-role, extra-effort behavior that employer's do not reward extrinsically. They focused on the manager's motivation as an antecedent of performance information use from a needs-supply perspective. They collected data from 954 German local government managers. They measured public service motivation with three items from Perry's (1996) original construct that represent three of the dimensions. Relying on Van Dooren et al. (2010), they measured purposeful performance data use according to three purposes: steering, controlling, and learning. The operationalization of transformational leadership came from House's (1998) work. They accounted for management task by dividing the subjects into two groups according to their internal or external orientation. They found that public service motivation has a significant, positive direct effect on performance information use and that transformational leadership significantly moderates the relationship. Thus, they concluded that managers with a high level of public service motivation are more likely to use performance data. This effect is stronger for managers working with transformational leaders. In other words, Kroll and Vogel concluded, "transformational leaders can motivate additional extra-role behavior on the part of PSM-driven managers" (p. 985). They also concluded that, even when the relationship is not causal, the fit between high-PSM managers and transformational leaders is beneficial. "Transformational leaders seem to provide what PSM-driven managers look for and are therefore able to strengthen their followers' engagement in extra-role activities, such as the use of performance information" (p. 985). More broadly, they suggest that "leadership style and follower motivation should match" (p. 986).

Bellé (2013) conducted a field experiment of 138 public hospital nurses in Italy to determine whether job design, specifically beneficiary contact and self-persuasion, enhance the performance effects of transformational leadership. As part of that study, he also evaluated the moderating effect of public service motivation. He found that the two job design characteristics, which are designed to increase the participants' awareness of their positive difference in others' lives, greatly enhance the performance effects of transformational leadership. Additionally, he found that the performance effects were greater for nurses with higher public service motivation. He explained, "PSM has this effect independently and when compounded by structural job features that heighten employees' perception that they are making a difference in other people's lives" (2013: 129).

Chen, Hsieh, and Chen (2014) study the relationship between workplace trust and public service motivation. They opine that public managers' trust in citizens, colleagues, and agency leadership enhances public service motivation. They wrote to address the failure of the inherent predisposition and institutional shaping approaches to account for human processes. The predisposition approach, they explained, over-emphasized context-free psychology while the institutional approach portrayed people as passively responding to institutional demands with little choice. To remedy these deficiencies, they proposed the workplace trust model. They tested their hypotheses on data collected during a survey of middle managers in the central government of Taiwan. They distributed the survey by mail, with follow-up postcard in an effort to boost participation. They received 774 valid responses. They measured public service motivation with fourteen items from Perry's (1996) construct. They measured workplace trust with items drawn from Yang (2005) and Nyhan (2000). The authors also evaluated whether managers in street-level, service-delivery agencies express stronger public service motivation due to the nature of their work. In the end, they found that public service motivation positively correlates with all workplace trust variables. They also found that self-sacrifice and commitment to public interest motivate service-agency employees. As a practical matter, the authors concluded that public managers engage the public, modify their trustfulness, and develop their public service motivation. In other words, public service motivation is a result of workplace trust. Thus, public service motivation is a dynamic phenomenon that varies according to employee interactions with citizens, colleagues, and agency leaders from day to day.

Vandenabeele (2014) studied the relationship between the promoting-public-values form of transformational leadership and the development of public service motivation among subordinates. He tested his hypotheses on data from a survey of 3,506 Belgian state employees. They distributed the survey via the Internet and employed Vandenabeele's (2008) instrument, which is comprised of attraction to politics, public interest, compassion, self-sacrifice, and democratic governance. They evaluated public service motivation at the aggregate level, not at the dimensional level, as rated on a five-point Likert-type scale. To gauge promotion of values, the survey asked respondents a series of questions about their supervisors' discussion of public service values. He used a five-point Likert-type scale was used here, too. Finally, to evaluate basic psychological needs satisfaction, they included Deci et al.'s (2001) Basic Psychological Needs at Work scale in the survey. He found that promoting public values has a positive relationship with the development of public service motivation and that a set of basic psychological needs moderates the relationship. This finding demonstrated the validity of the institutional theory of public service motivation.

Jacobsen, Hvitved, and Andersen (2014) studied how perceptions of obligatory student plans—a command system—associate with intrinsic motivation and public service motivation. They opined that if an employee perceives the plans as controlling, the existence of the plan could crowd out intrinsic motivation. Drawing upon a survey of 3,230 Danish teachers from 85 public schools, all of whom are required to make and use student plans. They chose these subjects because previous studies had demonstrated that they have high intrinsic motivation. They also chose these subjects because of the requirement that they prepare an individual educational plan for each student. The plans are a command system because they require a particular behavior on risk of a particular sanction. Moreover, their subjects promised to generate interesting results because the lack of performance pay enables them to control for that confounding variable and focus on the command system itself. They conducted the survey during school staff meetings, generating a response rate of almost 100 percent. They deleted suspicious entries. The survey consisted of items from previous surveys, namely six times from a previous study of teacher perceptions of individual educational plans, seven items from a previous study of intrinsic motivation, and sixteen items from Perry (1996) and Andersen and Pedersen (2012). They found that the perception of individual education plans as controlling has a significant negative association with both intrinsic motivation and public service motivation. Thus, they concluded that crowding out can occur.

Taylor and Clerkin (2011) applied the public service motivation construct to the study of political behavior in the policy process. To do so, they surveyed a sample of undergraduate students in an introductory political science course at North Carolina State University. They looked at four types of political behavior: "communal activities, political discussions, campaigning, and contributing" (p. 720). They distributed the survey electronically and received 234 completed responses, representing a response rate of seventy-one percent. The instrument included Verba and Nie's (1972) political participation typology, as updated by Claggett and Pollock (2006), and Perry's (1996) public service motivation instrument. They also included variables to test for political attitudes and knowledge, namely political knowledge, personal efficacy (internal and external), interest in public affairs, issue intensity, trust, and partisanship. They also collected information on network density and religious attendance. In the end, they found that public service motivation significantly relates to political activity, even after controlling for other factors. Thus, they conclude that the construct serves an important role in analyzing political activity. In this way, they demonstrated that scholars might apply the construct in contexts other than the typical employment-volunteering studies. They concluded that public service motivation affects the overall level of political participation. They also found that the three dimensions of public service motivation affect different types of political activity in different ways. On these findings, they concluded that public service motivation is a means for measuring individual-level responsiveness to civic motivators, an important purposive incentive that inspires political participation.

Bright (2011) studied the effect of public service motivation on occupation choice, seeking to determine whether high-public-service-motivation non-management employees choose public-service occupations over non-public-service occupations in public organizations. He randomly selected 586 potential participants from city and county governments and public health agencies in Indiana, Kentucky, and Oregon. He mailed the survey to the respondents and received 117 usable responses. The survey measured public service motivation with Perry's (1996) twenty-four item scale, using a seven-point Likert-type scale. Bright collected job title information and then determined whether the job tasks included public service as a core function. He classified those positions as "public service occupations." He classified all other jobs as "non-public-service occupations." His control variables included age, race, gender, and education level. He found that public service motivation is not a predictor of his respondents' occupation choice. Education level and male gender proved to be the best predictors of occupation choice.

Georgellis, Iossa, and Tabvuma (2010) studied the effect of intrinsic motivation on employees' employment-sector choice, using higher predicted satisfaction with the nature of the work as a proxy for intrinsic motivation. The British Household Panel Survey, an annual survey of 5,500 British households, provided longitudinal data for analysis. From the data, Georgellis and his colleagues identified 747 voluntary sector transitions of full-time employees from 1991 to 2004. They found that employees are attracted to the public sector by the intrinsic rather than extrinsic rewards that it offers. They explained, "Our findings reveal the extrinsic rewards such as earnings, job security, and working hours are either insignificant in influencing the transition probability into the public sector or they exert a negative effect. In contrast, satisfaction with intrinsic rewards increases the probability of transition into the sector" (p. 487). Thus, they concluded "that intrinsically or public service motivated employees are attracted to public sector jobs because of a higher satisfaction with the nature of the work itself as the public sector could offer greater opportunities for pro-social or altruistic behaviors" (p. 487). They also found support for the crowding-out theory.

Ward (2011) studied the effect of organizational experience—operationalized as participation in AmeriCorps—on public service motivation over time. He also sought to test the validity of Perry's (1996) construct using secondary data. He employed a longitudinal, quasi-experimental design to analyze panel data collected by the Corporation for National and Community Service. The treatment group included 2,191 AmeriCorps participants. The comparison group included 1,524 prospective participants who decided not to join. The CNCS collected data four times between 1999 and 2007, before participation, after one year of participation, immediately after service, and three years after service. Ward found that participation in the AmeriCorps program positively affects commitment to the public interest and knowledge of the community, as well as attraction to policy making.

Apfel (2011) studied the relationship between government partiality and other pro-social modes of partiality among a purposeful sample of 50 employees who switched sectors of employment among the public, private, and non-profit sectors. His study was an exploratory, qualitative study that employed phenomenologically oriented interview questions to identify the participants' motivations. He found that sector switchers change jobs for a variety of reasons, including compensation, task variety, desire to serve, desire to enhance professional skills, and desire to advance in their career. He also found that sector switchers change sectors many times during their careers and tend to switch to the non-profit sector late in their careers. He also found that sector switchers held positive views of service, as a general proposition, but held negative or neutral views of government service. They also held positive views of self-sacrifice and working in a helping profession.

Jacobson (2011) studied the effect of organizational action on public service motivation. She conducted an exploratory case-based study in which she collected data though open-ended, semi-structured interviews of employees of the Internal Revenue Service and the U.S. Patent and Trademark Office, which she selected because they do not provide social services. She coded the interview data and analyzed it with QSR NUD*IST. She augmented her study by first administering Perry's (1996) survey, which she used to establish a baseline level of public service motivation. She received 90 survey responses and more than half of the respondents agreed to interviews. She found that the respondents were motivated by public service motivation but to a lesser degree than expected. She also found that public service motivation was rarely the primary factor driving people to the public service. Instead, she found that employees made their initial sector selection based upon economic considerations, subject-matter expertise, and job security and flexibility. Interviewees most often cited the basic need of a job as the reason for choosing to enter public service. Only a small number of interviewees indicated that they were primarily motivated to enter the public service. Thus, Jacobson concluded that, "[a]lthough high levels of [public service motivation] were found within the population, a sense of public service was seldom important to their initial selection of the organization" (p. 223). She also concluded that public service motivation develops over time and is, accordingly, a dynamic phenomenon.

Wardlaw (2008) studied the public service motivation and job perceptions of nineteen retired military service members who pursue a new career in public service after twenty years or more of military service. He conducted a phenomenological study, using a detailed interview process. He asked open-ended questions during personal or telephonic interviews intent upon eliciting the participant's narratives of their employment motives. He employed snowball sampling and found participants in city, county, state, and federal agencies. He analyzed the transcripts of the interviews for meaning statements, grouped with related meaning statement for analysis. He found that participants in his study pursued public service employment for intrinsic reasons, namely the desire to help, job security, challenging work, and mission valence. He concluded that the motivation toward the public sector was rooted in their desire to serve.

Georgellis and Tabvuma (2010) studied whether the initial increase in job satisfaction fades over time among sector switchers who moved from the private sector to the public sector. Drawing on data from 17 waves of the British Household Panel Survey from 1991 to 2007, they sought to determine if public service motivation reverts to its pre-switch level due to adaptation over time, after an initial increase upon accepting the job. They confined their study to full time workers ranging in age from 18 to 65. They used "satisfaction with the nature of the work itself" as a proxy for public service motivation. They found no evidence of adaptation among respondents who switched from the private sector to the public sector. Instead, they observed an increase in both overall job satisfaction and work-nature satisfaction that remained significant for five years. In contrast, they found evidence of adaptation among sector-switchers who moved from the public sector to the private sector. In this group, women, in particular, showed adaptation by the end of the first year in the private sector. Women also experienced this "rapid adaptation" (p. 177) when they changed jobs within the public sector. Men did not. Nevertheless, "for both men and women, the boost in satisfaction with the work itself associated with job switching within the private sector is very short-lived" (p. 177). Based upon their findings, they concluded that "for both men and women, public service motivation is indeed a motivating factor for accepting employment into the public sector" (p. 187).

Liu and Tang (2011) studied the extent to which the love of money moderates the relationship between public service motivation and job satisfaction. To do so, they surveyed 172 full-time public sector professionals in east China who were also part-time M.P.A. students. In addition to twelve items from Perry's (1996) construct, they included Tang's (1992) nine-item love-of-money construct and Bono and Judge's (2003) job satisfaction scale, as modified by Liu, Tang, and Zhu (2008). The respondents completed the survey anonymously for class credit. Liu and Tang found that "public servants with higher public service motivation [have] significantly higher job satisfaction" (p. 723). They found that the love of money moderates the relationship between public service motivation and job satisfaction. In other words, public servants who have a high attraction to money also have a significantly stronger relationship between public service motivation and job satisfaction. This finding supports the crowding-in effect.

Mostafa, Gould-Williams, and Bottomley (2015) studied the means by which high performance human resources practices affect employee outcomes and the extent to which public service motivation mediates that relationship. They formulated their study on social exchange theory and Perry's (2000) process theory of public service motivation. They surveyed a panel of 671 respondents comprised of academics, administrators, physicians, nurses, and pharmacists employed by public sector organizations in Egypt. The respondents completed the written surveys during their working hours. The survey collected data on high performance human resources practices, public service motivation, affective commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and various control variables. They measured public service motivation with Perry's (1996) scale as revised by Giauque and his colleagues (2011). They operationalized high performance human resources practices consistently with social exchange theory by testing practices the promote employee development and wellbeing, namely training and development, job security, autonomous work design, communication, and promotion. They found that high performance human resources practices are positively associated with public service motivation, affective commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. They also found that public service motivation partially mediates the relationship between high performance human resources practices. Moreover, they found that all five high performance human resources practices included in their study had positive impacts on public service motivation. Accordingly, they concluded that, consistent with social exchange theory, "when organizations signal their desire to engage in social exchange relationships by investing in systems of [high performance human resources practices], employees respond by becoming more empathetic toward the organization's mission and reciprocate with attitudes and behaviors of benefit to the organization" (pp. 752-753). In other words, human resources practices positively affect motivation and lead to positive outcomes.

Homberg, McCarthy, and Tabvuma (2015) studied the relationship between public service motivation and job satisfaction via a meta-analysis of twenty-eight studies. They sought to determine whether the studies revealed a publication bias and whether the studies genuinely demonstrated a positive relationship between public service motivation and job satisfaction. They search EBSCOhost, Web of Science, and Google Scholar for research from 1990 through 2013 on "public service motivation," "PSM," "motivation in public service," "public sector motivation," and "civil service motivation." They also searched those terms in the primary public administration academic journals. In addition, they included working papers presented during two academic conferences in 2013. They found that public service motivation has a "moderate and significant effect on job satisfaction when aggregating the various studies" (p. 715). They also found that "applying the 'opportunity to serve' moderator has a strong effect" (pp. 715-716). Moreover, "the relationship between [public service motivation and job satisfaction becomes increasingly pronounced and is stronger when jobs explicitly offer individuals opportunities to serve the public" (p. 716). Finally, they found that the positive relationship between public service motivation and job satisfaction is consistent across many studies.

Ertas (2015) studied the relationship between turnover intentions and public service motivation by comparing millennials and older employees in federal government agencies. To do so, she analyzed data collected by the 2011 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey, which they surveyor distributed by the Internet to 266,000 full-time employees. Ertas included a litany of variables in her study, namely gender, minority status, workplace characteristics, fairness, skill development, creativity, work-life balance, work group, meaningfulness, diversity, job satisfaction, pay satisfaction. She found that millennials are more likely report intentions to leave federal employment than older generations and that work attributes are irrelevant to those intentions. Moreover, she found that millennials are more likely to report intentions to change federal agencies and more likely to report intentions to leave public service entirely. From these results, she concluded that the federal workforce is changing in a way that demands changes in recruitment, training, incentives, and management strategies. She explained, "[t]he most important predictor of quit intention is overall job satisfaction, so the findings imply that managers and organizations should strive to improve workplace characteristics that are valued by all employees and develop [human resource management] practices and policies to handle an increasingly mobile workforce" (p. 418).

Taylor and Taylor (2015) studied the effects of economic conditions, a "situational variable" (p. 333), on public service motivation in the Malaysian civil service, seeking to determine whether public service motivation is a static or dynamic phenomenon. They theorized that, during economic downturns, public service motivation would remain the same, increase, or decrease. With respect to the latter, they theorized that, consistent with Maslow's hierarchy of needs, during periods of economic strife, lower order needs for safety and sustenance would take precedence over the higher order needs where public service motivation resides. They surveyed 109 public university employees and 102 private sector employees, using the vignette technique to evaluate the impact of economic conditions. Consistent with prospect theory, the first hypothetical scenario did not include any economic factors. The second scenario included an economic boom. The third scenario was an economic bust. They measured public service motivation using eleven items from Kim et al.'s (2013) scale. Respondents rated those items on a seven-point Likert-type scale. Taylor and Taylor found that public service motivation related significantly to economic conditions. More particularly, in a good economy, public service motivation was higher than its base level and, in a bad economy, it was lower than the base level. They also found that employment sector significantly relates to public service motivation, with public sector employees revealing higher levels than private sector employees do. Finally, they identified a significant interaction effect between economic conditions and employment sector when economic conditions were bad. They concluded that "the economic cycle is capable of making government employees' public service values more or less salient through its impact on their personal perceptions and experiences" (p. 339).

Shrestha and Mishra (2015) studied public service motivation in the Nepali context, including the viability of Perry's (1996) construct and the interaction effects of perception of organizational politics. They surveyed 1,000 government employees and received 396 useable responses. They measured public service motivation with Perry's twenty-four-item scale. They measured perception of organization politics with Kacmar and Carlson's (1997) nine-item scale. They measured organizational commitment with Meyer and Allen's (1997) six-item scale. The survey asked respondents to rate the survey items on a seven-point Likert-type scale. They found that public service motivation is present in Nepali government but Perry's scale is not perfectly relatable to the Nepalese context because of cultural differences. They found a positive relationship between self-sacrifice, commitment to public interest, and attraction to policymaking. They also found a negative relationship between employees' perception of organizational politics and organizational commitment.

Chen and Hsieh (2015) studied the pursuit of job security and public service motivation among middle managers in the Taipei, Taiwan, City Government, employing the theories of motivation crowding-in and the theory of needs. They mailed their survey to 771 employees and received 514 usable responses. The survey included fourteen items from Perry's (1996) construct that respondents evaluate along a six-point Likert-type scale. Their independent variables were the pursuit of job security and the pursuit of high pay. They found that older employees are more likely to have higher levels of public service motivation and that trust in citizens and trust in colleagues positively relate to public service motivation. They found that the pursuit of high pay negatively relates to public service motivation, whereas the pursuit of stable pay relates to higher levels of public service motivation.

Koumenta (2015) studied public service motivation and organizational citizenship among 517 prison employees in the United Kingdom. In addition to public service motivation, she included the following variables in her study: unpaid overtime, organizational citizenship behavior, deviant behavior, absenteeism, the person-organization fit. She included in her survey Vandenabeele's (2008) five-dimension public service motivation scale, Van Dyne et al.'s (1994) eleven-item organizational citizenship behavior scale, Robinson and Bennett's (1995) five-item deviant behavior scale, and Moorman's (1991) two-item perception of fairness scale. She collected data on the remaining variables with questions directed to collect relevant information. She found that public service motivation has a significant positive effect on unpaid overtime and is highly associated with organizational citizenship behavior. She concluded, among other things, that public service motivation is "not only associated with extra-role behaviors that are conducive to organizational functioning, but also with the absence of deviant ones" (p. 347).

Liu, Yang, and Yu (2015) studied the role off public service motivation in moderating the negative effects of workplace stressors on the mental and physical wellbeing of 412 full time police officers from a big city in eastern China. To do so, they brought together public service motivation research and stressor-wellbeing research. They measured work-related stressors and physical and mental wellbeing with the Occupational Stress

Indicator-2 scale while measuring public service motivation with a Chinese version of Perry's (1996) scale. Their version of Perry's scale included three items for attraction to public policy making, four items for commitment to the public interest, four items for compassion, and seven items for self-sacrifice. They obtained permission and assistance from the government officials and administered their survey in a manner that preserved their respondents' anonymity. They randomly invited 439 of 2,140 potential respondents to participate. Strengthened by the assistant of government administrators, they achieved a response rate of 96.58 percent, representing 424 completed surveys. They deleted responses with missing data, resulting in a panel of 412 responses for analysis through ordinary least squares regression. They found that work stressors relate to physical and mental wellbeing significantly and negatively. They also found that public service motivation did not relate significantly to either physical wellbeing or mental wellbeing, but the interaction term significantly related to both. From these results, they concluded that public service motivation moderates the relationship between stressors and wellbeing. More particularly, among their respondents, employees with higher levels of public service motivation appear more capable of handling increased stress such that their wellbeing decreases at a comparatively slower level. In other words, if public servants are committed and motivated toward public service, "they will be more prepared for the public service stressors" (p. 665). Yet Liu et al. found that employees with high levels of public service motivation have better mental wellbeing but lesser physical wellbeing than their low-public-service-motivation counterparts do. Thus, employees with high levels of public service motivation may be mentally and emotionally satisfied but they are likely to be physically exhausted.

Accordingly, Liu et al. suggested that public administrators should recruit and retain employees with high levels of public service motivation while also working to prevent or alleviate the physical exhaustion to which they may succumb.

Esteve, Urbig, Witteloostuijn, and Boyne (2016) studied the behavioral implications of public service motivation as seen through its relationship with prosocial behavior as moderated by the behavior of colleagues. They conducted a quasi-experimental design that combined an online survey of socio-demographics and personality traits, a written survey of Kim's (2011) 12-item public service motivation survey, and the public goods game. Two hundred sixty-three Dutch first year undergraduate business students participated in the study. The public goods game asked the students to allocate a fixed amount of money between two options: a public good or personal gain and promised the students real financial consequences for each of them. In this way, the game measures the participants' willingness to contribute to their community. The authors found a "strong relationship" between public service motivation and observable behavior (p. 182). They also found that the relationship is moderated by the behavior of cohort colleagues: People with high levels of public service motivation behave pro-socially and they behave more pro-socially when surrounded by other people who also behave pro-socially.

E. Gaps in the Public Service Motivation Literature

Scholars have identified many of the gaps in the literature. According to Perry, Hondeghem, and Wise (2010), a line of public service motivation research that should receive attention concerns the "person-environment fit models," which fall within the parameters of the "attraction-selection-attrition" proposition originally proposed by Perry and Wise (p. 684). As the title suggests, this research focuses on the alignment between employees' values and the mission of the organization (Id.).

Perry and his colleagues also find promise in the line of research that would join studies of individual employees with studies of institutional design (p. 685). They suggest that public administration research could bring these lines of research together by focusing on the "incentive structure in the workplace" (Id.). "Another interesting question is how [public service motivation] and performance interact over time" (Id.). This question is addressed to the means through which organizations "stimulate or inculcate public service motives among their employees and whether [public service motivation] is a static or dynamic attribute" (Id.). Finally, they identify the "strategic question" of motivational complexity and suggest that research should evaluate the relationship among multiple motivational factors, such as the relationship between public service motivation and job security (p. 687). This research should address the "relative importance of [public service motivation] compared to other motives" and whether "there [are] differences among applicants and incumbents related to work roles and tasks" (p. 687-688). This should be part of a "more holistic" and "more substantive" approach to research of public service motivation (p. 688):

> One avenue is to look at other motives and human needs besides public service motives . . . . Another avenue is to look at situational factors that play a role in explaining when public service motives surface and dominate individual behavior and when behavior occurs as a consequence of other motives. A third avenue is to look at contextual factors related to individual actors, situations, events, and organizations in which behavior occurs that influences the strength of [public service motivation].

(Perry et. al, 2010: 688.)

Wright and Grant (2010) commented on the limits on research caused by the heavy reliance on cross-sectional survey research. They argued that this methodological focus cost researchers insight into the causes of "the emergence and effects" of public service motivation (p. 691). They identified the following unanswered questions: (1) Whether public sector employees have higher levels of public service motivation because of attraction to public employment or because public service motivation is cultivated by public organizations over time; (2) Whether public service motivation is a consequence of high performance rather than a cause of high performance; and (3) Whether other variables independently influence both public service motivation and job performance. To answer these questions and over-come the limitations of cross-sectional research designs, they propose that researchers conduct studies using field experiments, quasi-experiments, and policy-capturing designs. Additionally, they call for the implementation of qualitative research designs, such as comparative case studies, that include interviews, non-participant observation, participant observation, and archival documents. They contend that qualitative methods have "untapped potential for building [public service motivation] theory" and "can be quite powerful in providing rich examples" that create "contextual realism to make research findings more credible and persuasive for practitioners" (p. 697).

Wright and Grant (2010) reviewed the public service motivation literature to identify key knowledge gaps for future research. They noted that public service motivation theory serves two primary purposes with respect to employees with higher public service motivation levels. It suggests that they are more likely to work for governmental agencies where the opportunity for meaningful public service are greater, and it suggests that these employees will be more motivated, and hence have improved performance and greater job satisfaction, because the work is intrinsically rewarding. They suggested that future research should seek to determine whether public service motivation is static or dynamic, determine whether it is an antecedent or a consequence of public service, conduct policy-capturing research designs to evaluate the implications of public service motivation, pursue studies of reverse causality and omitted variables, conduct field experiments and quasi-experiments. More particularly, they suggest that scholars should conduct randomized, controlled field experiments with interventions, such as clientele-contact interventions, goal-setting interventions, and self-persuasion interventions. They also suggested that scholars watch for naturally occurring changes that permit the study of public service motivation.

Kim and Vandenabeele (2010) sought to strengthen and sharpen the public service motivation construct in light of developments in research conducted internationally. They explained that, as originally conceived, public service motivation was associated with affective motives, norm-based motives, and rational motives. However, subsequent research exposed limitations in that conception; thus, they contended that public service motivation theory was in need of reformulation. They concluded that "public service motivation is associated with three types of motives: instrumental, value-based, and identification" (p. 703). They explained that instrumental motives are those motives rooted in the performance of meaningful public service and manifested through employment in the public sector, participation in the policy process, participation in community activities, and participation in activities for social development (p. 703). Value-based motives are personal motives that are rooted in public values, such as "public interest, social responsibility, democracy, social equity, fairness, social justice, neutrality, and accountability" (p. 703). Identification motives are motives driven by a "special relationship" between public servants and the "people, groups, or objects" they serve (p. 703). Kim and Vandenabeele explain that "[t]hese three refined motivational components are focused on value (for what), attitude (for whom), and behavior (how): instrumental motives are related to behavior, value-based motives to values and ethics, and identification motives to attitudes" (p. 703).

Kim and Vandenabeele (2010) also proposed redefining the four empirical dimensions of public service motivation. According to Perry (1996), public service motivation was comprised of (1) attraction to public policy making, (2) commitment to the public interest or civic duty, (3) compassion, and (4) self-sacrifice. Kim and Vandenabeele proposed a reconfiguration made up of three dimensions: (1) attraction to public participation, (2) commitment to public values, and (3) self-sacrifice (706).

Andersen and his colleagues (2011) recognized the limitations of their study of Danish physiotherapists and called for more studies that account for ownership of the organization, task, and occupation by extending the research into other professions and occupations (p. 21).

Coursey and his colleagues (2011) suggested that future research should extend the study of volunteer domain to government domain in search of differences within the public sector. In other words, "research should consider the possibility that public service motivation varies across paid work in public agencies" (p. 60). They explained, "[f]unctional theory would hold that public employees may select their agencies based on their perception of the altruistic motivations they may offer workers" (p. 60). They suggested that a study of this nature could have practical application in that agencies could tailor their recruitment strategies to the motivations of prospective employees (p. 60).

Taylor and Taylor (2011) suggested that future research could extend the study of wages and public service motivation to other "aspects of the public sector compensation system, such as promotional opportunities" (p. 81). They also suggested studies of the effect of wages and public service motivation on the quality of effort and other employment behaviors, including "absenteeism, turnover, and whistle-blowing" (p. 81). Finally, they suggested that future studies "should be conducted on a larger sample size, across time, and with stronger and established measures of public service motivation, notably Perry's public service motivation instrument" (p. 82).

Vandenabeele (2011) called for an extension of his institutional analysis to "different environments and with both cross-sectional and longitudinal data" (p. 103). He also called for the incorporation of "more elaborate scales" and the extension of "the search for institutional values to other levels" (p. 103).

Paarlberg and Lavigna (2010) called for future research to test the "relationship between public service motivations, transformational management practices, and individual and organizational outcomes" (p. 716).

Recently, Vandenabeele, Brewer, and Ritz (2014) reviewed the development of public service motivation theory over the course of twenty-five years of research in order to chart the course for the future. They identified several reasons for the proliferation of public service motivation research. Unselfish motives, such as loyalty, identification, and good-spirited cooperation, are important in overcoming issues associated with collective action, such as free riding, moral hazards, and opportunism. Motivation remains one of the big questions of public management. The public service motivation concept helps to connect public institutions with their core values. Finally, public service motivation research is on the cutting edge of research methods and draws from a variety of academic disciplines. They explained that the research falls into three main categories: nature, antecedents, and outcomes. Finally, they identified several continuing debates and unanswered questions. They noted that public service motivation is still a contested concept. In addition, methodologic matters remain. Most notably, most studies are cross-sectional and, thus, do not permit determinations of causality. The heavy emphasis on validating the construct and its measures had come at a cost of investigations into its causes and consequences. Moreover, the study of public service motivation is isolated from other fields that study related concepts, such as altruism. Finally, they proposed several strategies for future research: establish construct validity through additional contextualization, study causality, and move toward integration with other theoretical perspectives.

More recently, Perry and Vandenabeele (2015) expounded on the state of the literature and proposed three directions for future research. First, they contend that scholars should "pursue focused research that disaggregates and unbundles the public service motivation construct" (p. 695). Second, scholars should "study how public service motivation is manifest, on the ground, in different regimes" (Id.). Finally, scholars should seek to "improve current measures to better capture commitment to governance regime as an institutional dimension" (Id.).

Most recently, Ritz, Brewer, and Neumann (2016) conducted a systematic research overview with a view toward helping to structure the literature going forward. They discussed research methods and designs, measurement scales, samples, contexts, antecedents, and outcomes with a view toward identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the literature. Generally speaking, they called for research into the dark side of public service motivation, that being its relationship to negative outcomes. They also called for the development and implementation of more sophisticated studies. More particularly, among other things, they called for the use of mixed methods studies as a means to mitigate the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative studies and as a means of strengthening the evidence theoretical connections between phenomena and the importance of context in shaping public service motivation.

Against this backdrop, two lines of study bear particular emphasis for this study's purposes. This study will delve into the relationship between policy environment and public service motivation while also studying the public sector legal profession. A few studies are of particular importance here.

1. Public Service Motivation and Policy Type or Environment

Biget, Varone, and Giauque (2014) studied whether policy environment affects the public service motivation of civil servants. More particularly they sought to determine if public employees working in different policy domains and at different stages of the policy cycle are motivated differently, as measured by the four dimensions of the public service motivation construct. They surveyed 6,885 municipal and cantonal (state) civil servants in Switzerland, expecting to find that different policy domains and policy-cycle tasks contribute to the attraction, selection, and retention of public sector employees. They distributed the survey both online and on paper. The survey was comprised of fourteen items from Perry's (1996) instrument, rated on a five-point Likert-type scale. They measured data on policy sector according to eleven possibilities divided into four groups: Welfare (health, social, education, and youths); Public utilities, infrastructures, and environment (network industries, environment, agriculture, energy, public transportation, and mobility); Core state functions (security, institutions, legal services, and justice); and General administration (public finances and general administration). They defined policy cycle stage as agenda setting and formulation of policy, policy implementation, and provision of internal services to support the administration. They found that employees in the welfare sector have the highest levels of public service motivation, generally, and on the attraction to politics and compassion dimensions. They found that the highest levels of commitment to public interest and self-sacrifice among employees of the public-utilities-infrastructure-and-environment sector. Turning to policy cycle, they found that those who perform political tasks have the highest levels of public service motivation; those who work on internal services have the lowest levels.

Kjeldsen (2013) studied public-service-motivation-based attraction-selection and socialization among Danish social work students. She surveyed the students immediately before they completed their education and then again soon after they entered the workforce. She focused on the choice between service-production work and service-regulation work as well as the socializing effects of those work tasks. She defined service production as provision of a specific service to an identified group. In contrast, she defined service regulation as the service eligibility decisions under the law. She based these definitions on Hasenfeld's (1972) theory of people-changing and people-processing governmental functions. Kjeldsen concluded that student public-service-motivation profiles predict student preferences but not first employment, explaining, "[T]he work task plays a significant role with respect to PSM-based attraction mechanism" (2013:108). She found that higher public-interest public service motivation gives rise to attraction to service regulation tasks, whereas higher compassion public service motivation leads to service production tasks. Policy-making public service motivation does not steer students in either direction. Moreover, she found that compassion public service motivation generally decreases after entry into the job market. However, policy-making public service motivation increases.

Loon, Vandenabeele, and Leisink (2015) studied the relationship between public service motivation and employee wellbeing, along with the moderating impact of social impact potential, in people-changing and people-processing organizations. They interviewed fifty employees and then conducted an e-mail-based survey of 459 employees of people-changing organizations and 465 people-processing organizations. They measured public service motivation using the scaled developed by Kim et al. (2013). The measured societal impact potential with four items based on Leisink and Steijn's (2009) public service motivation fit scale and Grant's (2008) pro-social impact scale. They operationalized wellbeing through burnout and job satisfaction. They measured burnout with a five item emotional exhaustion scale adapted from Schaufeli and Van Dierendonk (2000). Finally, they measured job satisfaction with a one-time scale. To operationalize the context, they relied upon Hansfeld's (1972) distinction between organizations that engaging in people-processing functions and those that engage in people-changing functions. The former operate at a distance from their clients, whereas the latter deal directly with their clients, when the intensity of client contact relates to burnout. The authors found that the relationship between public service motivation and burnout depends upon the organizational context, or institutional logic. In people-changing organizations, they found that public service motivation relates positively to burnout when societal impact potential is high. They explained that this result emanated from the tendency of employees to over-extend themselves in their efforts to help their clients. In people-processing organizations, they found that public service motivation relates positively to burnout when societal impact potential is low. This result, they explained, came from the disappointment and frustration in being unable to have an impact on society. From these disparate results, they concluded, "a contextualized approach to [public service motivation] is necessary to understand the dynamics of employee motivation and behavior" (p. 355). For their part, "public managers should be aware of the message and logic their organization is communicating to the employees and how this influences their wellbeing" (Id.).

Bozeman and Su (2015) studied public service motivation with a view to determining whether the concepts have explanatory power under Gerring's (1999) framework for concept assessment. Gerring determined that scholars should evaluate concepts based upon the familiarity, resonance, parsimony, coherence, differentiation, depth, theoretical utility, and field utility. Of these criteria, public service motivation is deficient in parsimony and differentiation. Parsimony is an issue because the theory is still relatively new.

Differentiation is a problem because many of the concepts are ambiguous. After reviewing the concepts, Bozeman and Su proposed several directions for research to improve the concepts. They contend that researchers should analyze the causes of public service motivation and its dynamism through longitudinal studies of career paths. They also contend that researchers should seek to validate public service motivation through experimental research. Finally, they contend that researchers should endeavor to expand the universal elements of the theory.

2. Public Service Motivation Studies of Law Students, Lawyers, and Judges

Scholars have studied public service motivation among law students and lawyers on a few occasions, only one of which studied lawyers. The first is Vandenabeele's (2008) study of Belgian master's students. He studied public service motivation's influence on the attractiveness of public service employment within the framework of person-organization fit. He analyzed survey data from 1,714 students from more than 50 academic programs, all of them in their final year of study. The respondents included 95 law students. The survey measured public service motivation with a modified, three-dimension version of Perry's (1996) scale, using a five-point Likert-type scale. The survey collected data on the attractiveness of both government organizations and private organizations as prospective employers. He combined the academic programs into six categories: arts, business, natural and applied sciences, biomedical and health sciences, behavioral sciences, and law. He found that, as a general matter, all three dimensions of public service motivation significantly influence employment-sector preference. More particularly, he found that students of the arts, behavioral sciences, and law prefer public sector employment more than students of business and economics do. Likewise, they are disinclined to private sector employment more so than business and economics students are. He concluded that public service motivation influences public sector attractiveness in support of Perry and Wise's (1990) contention that high-public-service-motivation individuals, including law students, are more likely to pursue public sector employment.

Wright and Christensen (2010) studied the means by which time moderates the relationship between public service motivation and employment-sector choice. They analyzed data collected by the American Bar Association's National Survey of Career Satisfaction in 1984 and 1990, which provided both panel data and cross-sectional data. The panel was a random probability sample of 2,967 lawyers drawn from a population of 569,706. One thousand four hundred sixty-nine lawyers responded to the 1984 survey, 840 of whom responded again in 1990. Wright and Christensen analyze the data to determine if public service motivation predicted the respondents' first legal job, their legal job in 1984, or their legal job in 1990. They also studied whether public service motivation predicts the continued public sector employment of lawyers whose first legal job was in the public sector. They found that "the vast majority of lawyers with [public service motivation] work in the private sector" (p. 165). They also found that public sector lawyers and private sector lawyers are equally as likely to report that financial incentives are important. Lawyers who are interested in performing social service and helping others are more likely to work in the public sector at the time of the survey but were no more likely to have begun their legal careers in the public service. Those who reported in 1984 that they were primarily motivated to serve the public were more likely to work in the public sector in 1990. Yet "a substantial percentage of the lawyers whose first legal job [was] in government and chose their careers because of their interest in social service/helping others eventually left government to take jobs in the private sector" (p. 167). Upon these findings, the concluded "that the relationship between [public service motivation] and sector employment choice is not entirely straightforward" and "may be more or less important . . . at different stages of an employee's career" (p. 168).

Christensen and Wright (2011) studied public service motivation and the effects of person-organization fit and person-job fit among first year law students using a policy capturing design. They conducted a survey that included items designed to manipulate employment sector, service, and salary components of a hypothetical job. They designed the survey to measure likelihood of accepting a job offer, opportunity for service, and salary in addition to public service motivation and various demographic variables, including academic achievement/ability. For public service motivation, they used a shortened version of Perry's (1996) survey instrument. They distributed the survey online and offered a $10 electronic gift card as an incentive to increase the response rate. They received 182 usable responses. Their data did not support the assumption that higher public service motivation inspires individuals to select public service employment. The data indicated that public service motivation acting alone does not increase public sector employment nor does it decrease private sector employment. They found that public service motivation might play a more important role in person-job fit than in person-organization fit. They noted that prospective employees who have higher levels of public service motivation are more likely to accept employment in organizations that put a premium on service to others. This result held true for the private sector organizations that emphasized pro bono work, public sector organizations that emphasize client contact, and non-profit organizations that emphasize client representation. Thus, they concluded that employment sector might not be an accurate proxy for values in the study of public service motivation.

Vandenabeele (2011) studied the antecedents of public service motivation and the role of institutions in its development through an internet-based survey of 3,506 Belgian civil servants, including 243 lawyers. The survey measured public service motivation using Vandenabeele's (2008) instrument. He found that educational level and academic discipline, including legal education, correlate with public service motivation.

Kjeldsen (2012) studied the relationship between higher education and public service motivation, seeking to determine if the former relates to increases in the latter. She analyzed survey data from 3,521 Danish college and graduate school students, including 147 law students, at different years of study in different academic programs. She operationalized field of study by dividing academic programs into two categories: core public service programs and other programs. The variable measuring core public service academic programs includes medicine, nursing, occupational and physical therapy, education, and social work. The variable measuring other academic programs includes administrative assistance, nutrition management, design and business, engineering and technical training, laboratory technician training, law, textile and graphic design, and theology. Kjeldsen measured public service motivation with a shorter variant of Perry's (1996) survey instrument. She also collected data on the respondents' tenure in their academic program. She e-mailed the survey to 21,294 subjects and received 3,521 usable responses. She found that academic tenure does not have a significant, positive association with public service motivation; that core public service academic programs have a strong positive association with public service motivation; and that core public service education moderates the effect of academic tenure on public service motivation. She also found that whether higher education has a socializing effect on public service motivation depends on the nature of the academic program. Students in core public service programs have higher levels of public service motivation that remains stable over time. In contrast, students in other types of programs exhibit lower initial levels of public service motivation that increase over time. Although Kjeldsen did not report individual results for law students, her results indicate that law school, which she placed in the other category, has a socializing effect over time and that public service motivation increases during academic tenure. Kjeldsen explained that students in the non-public service related academic fields "who entered higher education with a fairly low level of [public service motivation], socialization into higher levels of [public service motivation] is exactly what happens as they reach a higher cognitive level and become aware of their identities in relation to society" (p. 513).

Pedersen (2015) studied the means by which public sector managers may leverage public service motivation in their organizations. To do so, he conducted a randomized survey experiment with 528 Danish undergraduate and graduate law students at one university, drawing on public service motivation theory and self-determination theory. The survey asked the students how many minutes they would spend completing a survey about their daily lives. The control group received that question alone. The three treatment groups received that question plus one of three treatments, each of which added an additional element aimed at a particular type of motivation. The first two treatments came from public service motivation and measured the concern for society and concern for other citizens. The third treatment came from self-determination theory and measured feelings of self-importance. Pedersen found that both of the public service motivation interventions increased the amount of times that respondents would spend on the survey. He also found that the self-determination theory intervention increased the respondents' reported contributions of time. However, he did not find a significant difference in the size of the treatment effect of public service motivation and the size of the treatment effect of self-determination theory. Thus, he concluded that managers could implement low-intensity, public-service-motivation interventions to capitalize on public service motivation to positively influence employee behavior.

E. Conclusions

This review of the literature demonstrates that, although the science has made considerable advances since Rainey first broached the subject in the early 1980s, scholars still have much to learn. The initial emphasis on quantitative methodology lead to a lack of qualitative studies and a corresponding dearth of mixed methods studies. Though scholars have studied many contexts, the literature has not evaluated the public sector in the state of Tennessee. In addition, the literature has largely overlooked the legal profession. Moreover, the literature has not studied the relationship between public service motivation and policy environment based upon Lowi's policy typology. Furthermore, the literature lacks significant studies addressing whether public service motivation is dynamic or static, needs studies with larger sample sizes, studies based on primary data, studies designed to analyze the complex nature of motivation, studies of respondents within the same government domain, and studies designed to provide contextual realism.

This study sought to close these gaps in the literature by evaluating the existence of public service motivation among attorneys employed by the State of Tennessee, using survey items from Perry (1996), Lewis and Frank (2002), and Jung and Rainey (2010), and five open-ended questions the researcher developed from the literature. Moreover, drawing upon a recent public-service-motivation symposium, this study sought insight into the following areas: (1) Whether public service motivation is static or dynamic; (2) whether public service motivation varies according to agency of employment; and (3) the relationship between public service motivation and other motivational factors.

The literature informed the research design that is discussed in Chapters Three, Four and Five. The study employed a mixed-methods design comprised of logistic regression and content analysis. Logistic regression was used to analyze panel data from the survey in keeping with the prevalent practice in the study of public service motivation. Qualitative content analysis was used to broaden the methodological spectrum of the public service motivation literature. Along the way, the study extended the study of public service motivation to a new context, public sector attorneys in the state of Tennessee, incorporated a large sample size, collected primary data, provided contextual realism, and explored the complex nature of motivation.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

A. Introduction

This chapter will discuss the methodology employed, beginning with the purpose of the study and progressing through the research questions and hypotheses, the survey instrument, conceptual definitions, operational definitions, population and sampling, data collection, and the qualitative and quantitative methods employed before concluding with the anticipated findings, limitations, strengths, and uniqueness. The research design is mixed methods, combining content analysis of open-ended questions with logistic regression of survey data. As noted in the previous chapter, it addresses several gaps in the literature, including the dearth of mixed methods studies, the lack of any studies of the public sector in the state of Tennessee, the shortage of studies of the legal profession, the lack of studies using Lowi's policy typology, and the lack of studies addressing whether public service motivation is dynamic or static. It also answers calls for the call for studies with larger sample sizes, based on primary data, designed to analyze the complex nature of motivation, within the same government domain, and designed to provide contextual realism. These issues will be addressed in detail throughout this chapter.

B. Purpose of the Study

This study sought to study public service motivation among Tennessee public sector employees. In doing so, it will address several of the gaps in the literature. In response to Taylor and Taylor's (2011) call for studies with large sample sizes and primary data, the survey was distributed to a large sample of public sector lawyers in Tennessee, utilizing Perry's public service motivation scale and extending to aspects of the public sector rewards system other than wages as well as performance indicators. Taylor and Taylor viewed the past reliance on secondary data from surveys not designed to measure public service motivation as a problem. This research addresses these issues in several ways. First, the study uses a survey drawn from Perry's public service motivation scale and other studies to generate a survey for the express purpose of measuring public service motivation. Additionally, it includes data from a significant sample size, comprised of more than 1,500 respondents. Although the parameters of this study are not amenable to time series analysis, the steps taken will lay the groundwork for future research on an annual basis.

Although there are other models of motivation, this study focused on Perry's public service motivation scale. In addition to Taylor and Taylor advocating for its use, other scholars have called it "the most methodologically sophisticated development of the public service motivation construct" (DeHart-Davis, Marlowe, and Pandey, 2006: 874). It has be used as a practical means for assessing the attitudes of government employees and it has been repeatedly relied upon by scholars studying various aspects of public service motivation. (Id. at 875.) In addition, after twenty years, Perry's public service motivation theory and its derivations continue to inform the literature. In a symposium in Review of Public Personnel Administration, Brewer called Perry's scale as "the most dominant and widely used measure of public service motivation reported in the literature" (Brewer, 2011: 6).

This study also sought to close the gaps identified by Perry and his colleagues (2010) and Wright and Grant (2010). As previously noted, Perry and his colleagues posed the related questions: (1) whether the public sector stimulates or inculcates public service motivation among employees over time and (2) whether public service motivation is a static or dynamic phenomenon. Similarly, Wright and Grant (2010) questioned whether public service motivation relates to an employee's attraction to public service or the cultivation of public service attitudes within public service organizations. Perry and his colleagues also called for the examination of the complex nature of motivation, directing researchers toward the relationship among multiple motivational factors. These questions will be analyzed by collecting data on employment tenure and examining the relationship between the length of an employee's tenure and the level of public service motivation. If public sector organizations stimulate or inculcate public service motivation, long-tenured employees should exhibit a higher level of public service motivation than short-tenured employees. In other words, if it is determined that long-tenured employees have higher public service motivation, that finding would suggest that public service motivation is stimulated or inculcated by public sector organizations and public service motivation is a dynamic attribute.

Coursey and his colleagues (2011) called for studies of differences within the "government domain" in contrast to the studies of differences between public and private sectors. They posited that, in accordance with functional theory, an employee might seek employment in a particular agency because of a perceived ability to satisfy altruistic motives. To answer this question, this survey collected data concerning agency of employment from all attorneys employed by the State of Tennessee. The population includes attorneys employed as public prosecutors, public defenders, and other attorneys in agencies from across the executive branch. The study classifies the respondents according to their agency of employment using Lowi's public policy typology to determine whether public service motivation is more or less prevalent in a particular type of agency.

Wright and Grant (2010) call for supplementation of the literature with the addition of field experiments, quasi-experiments, and policy-capturing designs. They also call for the implementation of comparative case studies that incorporate, among other things, interviews. Qualitative methods, they suggest, will provide a bit of "contextual realism" to the literature. This research answers this call by coupling a qualitative component with the quantitative component. The survey includes several open-ended questions designed to gather information concerning the respondents' motivation and their feelings about their compensation, job design, work environment, and other characteristics of employment.

C. Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study seeks to understand public service motivation among attorneys in public service in the State of Tennessee. The research question is, "Are attorneys in the State of Tennessee's public service motivated by a public service ethic, as evidenced by the public service motivation construct? To answer that question, this study tests the following hypotheses:

Ho_1: Public Service Motivation is not an effective predictor of motivation among Tennessee public sector attorneys.

Ho_2: Attraction to policy making is not a significant motivator of Tennessee public sector attorneys.

Ho_3: Commitment to the Public Interest is not a significant motivator of Tennessee public sector attorneys.

Ho_4: Self-sacrifice is not a significant motivator of Tennessee public sector attorneys.

Ho_5: Compassion is not a significant motivator of Tennessee public sector attorneys.

Ho_6: Job Security is not a significant motivator of Tennessee public sector attorneys.

Ho_7: High Income is not a significant motivator of Tennessee public sector attorneys.

Ho_8: A Good Opportunity for Advancement is not a significant motivator Tennessee public sector attorneys.

Ho_9: An Interesting Job is not a significant motivator of Tennessee public sector attorneys.

Ho_{10}: A Job that Allows Someone to Work Independently is not a significant motivator of Tennessee public sector attorneys.

Ho_{11}: A Job that Allows Someone to Help Other People is not a significant motivator of Tennessee public sector attorneys.

Ho_{12}: A Job that is Useful to Society is not a significant motivator of Tennessee public sector attorneys.

Ho_{13}: A Job with Flexible Working Hours is not a significant motivator of Tennessee public sector attorneys.

D. Survey Instrument.

The survey collected data about the respondents' attitudes toward intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. The survey includes all of the items included in Perry's (1996) original public service motivation construct, except the items on self-sacrifice. These items measure the respondents' public service motivation levels. The survey includes items from Lewis and Frank (2002) that measure respondents' attitudes about various job characteristics and personal characteristics. The survey also includes 15 items from Jung and Rainey's (2010) instrument on organizational goal characteristics and six items from Wright and Pandey's (2010) instrument on mission valence. Finally, the survey includes items to collect data on demographic variables and agency of employment. They are all defined in the section on conceptual definitions that follows. The survey instrument is included in Appendix 1. Perry's construct is included in Appendix 2. Lewis and Frank's items are included in Appendix 3. The respondents read statements and indicated their degree of agreement on a five-point Likert-type scale: strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, or strongly disagree. A few questions solicited answers in a yes-or-no format.

To include a qualitative component, the survey included a few open-ended questions that allowed the respondents to provide their own answers. The researcher developed these questions based on the employment motivation literature, generally, and the public service motivation literature, specifically, as reported in the literature review, to gather primary data concerning the issues affecting attraction, selection, and retention in the context of public service in Tennessee. The first question sought insight into the elements of attraction and self-selection in the context of the employees' decision to enter the public service in

Tennessee. The second and third questions elicited responses related to de-motivators in the context of the respondents current employment. The fourth and fifth questions were aimed at gathering information related to motivation more broadly without a specific reference to the employment context. The questions were:

> Please explain the reasons you first went to work for the state of Tennessee.
>
> In answering the following question, please consider your salary and benefits; work environment; job characteristics and responsibilities; managers, supervisors, and co-workers; mission; work hours; opportunities for training and advancement; and any other characteristics of your employment. If you could change one thing about your current employment, what would it be? Please explain your answer.
>
> How would you design your own job to make yourself more effective and efficient?
>
> What motivates you to be the best employee you can be?
>
> What prevents you from being the best employee you can be?

The study evaluated the responses to these questions to evaluate public service motivation in Tennessee as the respondents described it in their own words. These questions should verify the validity of the PSM construct and to seek further refinements to the construct, if any prove necessary. The unit of analysis was individual attorney. The survey instrument is included in Appendix 1.

E. Conceptual Definitions

This study measured the original six variables identified in Perry's (1996) public service motivation scale and the job characteristic variables identified tested by Lewis and Frank (2002) and other scholars.

Independent Variables: The independent variables in this study will be public service motivation (PSM), measured according to respondents' scores on the four sub dimensions: attraction to policymaking, commitment to the public interest, self-sacrifice, and compassion. This study defines these variables as follows:

1. *Attraction to Policy Making* (PSM1): The individual's desire to participate in a policy-making organization because of the excitement associated with the policy process and the individual's belief in the importance of the government's role in society (Perry 1996).

2. *Commitment to the Public Interest* (PSM2): The individual's altruistic desire to serve to the benefit of society (Perry 1996).

3. *Self-sacrifice* (PSM3): The individual's willingness to place the interests of others ahead of the individual's self-interest (Perry 1996).

4. *Compassion* (PSM4): The individual's love for fellow citizens and belief that their rights must be protected (Perry 1996).

Dependent Variables. The dependent variables is political ideology, job security, high income, good opportunities for promotion, an interesting job, a job that allows someone to work independently, a job that allows someone to help other people, a job that is useful to society, and a job with flexible working hours. The definitions of these variables are:

5. *Political Ideology* (POLID): The individual's beliefs as expressed in political affiliations, measured on a liberal-conservative continuum (Lewis and Frank, 2002).

6. *Job Security* (JOBSEC): The individual's desire for assurances of future employment (Lewis and Frank, 2002).

7. *High Income* (HI-INC): The individual's desire for individual economic rewards, particularly salary (Lewis and Frank, 2002).

8. *Good Opportunities for Promotion* (PROMO): The individual's desire for professional development through a hierarchical organizational structure (Lewis and Frank, 2002).

9. *An Interesting Job* (INTJOB): The individual's desire for an intellectually engaging employment subject matter (Lewis and Frank, 2002).

10. *A Job that Allows Someone to Work Independently* (INDPND): The individual's desire for discretion in work assignments and freedom from micromanagement (Lewis and Frank, 2002).

11. *A Job that Allows Someone to Help Other People* (HELPOP): The individual's desire for employment in a field with opportunities for altruistic work (Lewis and Frank, 2002).

12. *A Job that is Useful to Society* (USEFUL): The individual's desire for work in the public's interest (Lewis and Frank, 2002).

13. *A Job with Flexible Working Hours* (FLXHRS): The individual's desire for freedom from a structured work schedule (Lewis and Frank, 2002).

Demographic Variables. This study collected data on the following demographic variables: Gender, Age, Race, and Income. These variables permit the research to determine whether the survey sample is representative of the actual population. According to Babbie, "a sample is representative if the aggregate characteristics of the sample closely approximate those same characteristics in the population (2007: 189). Additionally, demographic variables have been the focus several studies of public service motivation (Perry 1997; Lewis and Frank 2002; DeHart-Davis, Marlowe, and Pandey 2006; Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Buelens and Van den Broeck 2007; Houston and Cartwright 2007).

Policy Context. The study collected data concerning the department or agency of employment (DEPT) in accordance with the public service motivation literature to facilitate comparisons among departments or agencies of the State of Tennessee. In accordance with Lowi's policy typology, this research classifies agencies as redistributive, distributive, regulatory, or constituent based upon agency mission and the attorneys role within that mission. Public prosecutors work in a regulatory policy context because of their role in enforcing the criminal laws. Public defenders work in a distributive context because they provide legal services directly to their clients. Generally speaking, agency general counsel, associate general counsel, and staff attorneys work in a constituent policy context because they are engaged in the creation, modification, and support of the agencies and institutions they serve. However, Department of Revenue attorneys work in a redistributive policy context because the department collects the tax revenue that the state redistributes through various state programs and the departments' agencies enforce the state's tax laws. In this regard, their roles is more redistributive than constituent.

F. Operational Definitions

Public Service Motivation (PSM): Public Service Motivation is a means of employment motivation in which the individual employee prefers intrinsic rewards, such a performing socially meaningful work. The study collected the data through a survey designed to collect information concerning public service motivation. It measures public service motivation according to the survey results indicating: attraction to policymaking, commitment to public interest, self-sacrifice, and compassion for other people.

G. Population and Sample.

The study employed purposive sampling and included all attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee with publicly available e-mail addresses. The survey population is comprised of 1,525 state employed attorneys. This number represents all attorneys employed by the State of Tennessee in practicing attorney roles for whom publicly available e-mail addresses could be found. The survey population did not included trial or appellate court judges, administrative law judges, or attorneys employed in non-legal administrative roles. The legal profession was chosen because its public service ethic, which was ingrained over many years through tradition and eventually codified into the rules of professional conduct. This service ethos is stated in the Rule 8 of the Rules of Professional Conduct that govern attorneys, which include the following expressions of the public service ethic:

> [2] A lawyer, as a member of the legal profession, is a representative of clients, an officer of the legal system, and a public citizen having special responsibility for the quality of justice.
>
> [7] As a public citizen, a lawyer should seek improvement of the law, access to the legal system, the administration of justice, and the quality of service rendered by the legal profession. As a member of a learned profession, a lawyer should cultivate knowledge of the law beyond its use for clients, employ that knowledge in reform of the law, and work to strengthen legal education. In addition, a lawyer should further the public's understanding of and confidence in the rule of law and the justice system because legal institutions in a constitutional democracy depend on popular participation and support to maintain their authority. A lawyer should be mindful of deficiencies in the administration of justice and of the fact that the poor, and sometimes persons who are not poor, cannot afford adequate legal assistance. Therefore, all lawyers should devote professional time and resources and use civic influence to ensure equal access to our system of justice for all those who because of economic or social barriers cannot afford

> or secure adequate legal counsel. A lawyer should aid the legal profession in pursuing these objectives and should help the bar regulate itself in the public interest.
>
> [14] Lawyers play a vital role in the preservation of society.

More particularly, the Rule 6.1 of the Rules of Professional Conduct espouses the aspirational goal of pro bono publico legal services:

> A lawyer should aspire to render at least 50 hours of pro bono publico legal services per year. In fulfilling this responsibility, the lawyer should:
>
> (a) provide a substantial portion of such services without fee or expectation of fee to:
>
> (1) persons of limited means; or
>
> (2) charitable, religious, civic, community, governmental, and educational organizations in matters that are designed primarily to address the needs of persons of limited means; and
>
> (b) provide any additional services through:
>
> (1) delivery of legal services at no fee or at a substantially reduced fee to individuals, groups, or organizations seeking to secure or protect civil rights, civil liberties, or public rights, or charitable religious, civic, community, governmental, and educational organizations in matters in furtherance of their organizational purposes, where the payment of standard legal fees would significantly deplete the organization's economic resources or would be otherwise inappropriate;
>
> (2) delivery of legal services at a substantially reduced fee to persons of limited means; or
>
> (3) participation in activities for improving the law, the legal system, or the legal profession.
>
> (c) In addition to providing pro bono publico legal services, a lawyer should voluntarily contribute financial support to organizations that provide legal services to persons of limited means.

The first comment to Rule 6.1 explains, "Every lawyer, regardless of professional prominence or professional work load, has a responsibility to provide legal services to those unable to pay, and personal involvement in the problems of the disadvantaged can be one of the most rewarding experiences in the life of a lawyer." Because of this public service ethic, the legal profession provides fertile ground for analysis of public service motivation.

The study created an e-mail distribution list by consulting several publicly available sources, including the privately published Tennessee Attorney's Directory, the on-line state employee directory, agency websites, and the website of the Tennessee Board of Professional Responsibility. The Tennessee Attorney's Directory lists over 16,000 attorneys licensed to practice law in Tennessee. The directory provides listings by individual attorney or law firm, and includes listings for Federal, state, and local judges, district attorneys general and their assistants, district public defenders and their assistants, paralegals and legal secretaries, court clerks, court reporters, and other government officials, including listings for individual state agencies. The study generated the e-mail distribution list by first consulting the Tennessee Attorney's Directory's lists for public prosecutors, public defenders, and state agency attorneys. Because the Tennessee Attorney's Directory relies on self-reported information, the study cross-referenced the original e-mail distribution list with the listings available on the on-line state employee directory, which permits searches by position, name, and agency. It also cross-referenced the original list with the information available on the state's on-line employee database, which permits searches by name, agency, and position, and with individual state department and agency websites. Finally, the it cross-referenced the original list with the public attorney database provided by the Tennessee

Board of Professional Responsibility. From these sources, this study generated a comprehensive e-mail distribution list that includes 1,525 state employed attorneys.

H. Data Collection and Survey Procedures.

The study collected data using the Qualtrics online survey program. The survey is a self-administered Internet-based survey, distributed via electronic mail, using the Qualtrics e-mail system. The e-mails contained a hyperlink to the Qualtrics survey website. The survey went to the entire population of Tennessee public service employees with publicly available e-mail addresses. The study distributed the survey on November 22, 2014, and December 1, 2015, with e-mail reminders sent on December 9, 2015, December 17, 2015, January 13, 2015, and January 20, 2015. After the initial distribution, several e-mails returned undeliverable. The study attempted to verify those respondents' e-mail or determine if the employee left state employment. When possible, such respondents were included in subsequent distributions. The survey closed on January 27, 2015. It distributed the survey to 1,527 attorneys, of whom 631 opened it, 357 started it, and 274 submitted their responses. However, of the 274 surveys received, 13 were more than half incomplete and included no responses to the qualitative questions. The researcher deleted those surveys, leaving 264 completed surveys in the study. Thus, based upon the 264 completed surveys received from the 631 respondents who opened the survey, the response rate was 41.8 percent. This response rate is comparable to the response rates generated by e-mail distributed, Internet-based surveys.

I. Qualitative Analysis

To include a qualitative component, the survey included five open-ended questions that asked respondents to provide information concerning their motives and preferences. As previously discussed in section D, the researched developed these guestions based on the relevant literature. The questions were:

> Q54. Please explain the reasons you first went to work for the state of Tennessee.
>
> Q55. In answering the following question, please consider your salary and benefits; work environment; job characteristics and responsibilities; managers, supervisors, and co-workers; mission; work hours; opportunities for training and advancement; and any other characteristics of your employment. If you could change one thing about your current employment, what would it be? Please explain your answer.
>
> Q56. How would you design your own job to make yourself more effective and efficient?
>
> Q57. What motivates you to be the best employee you can be?
>
> Q58. What prevents you from being the best employee you can be?

These questions should provide insight into the public service motivation in Tennessee. The study uses these questions to verify the validity of the PSM construct and to seek further refinements to the construct, if any prove necessary.

The respondents' answer are analyzed using a qualitative content analysis process, drawing on the works of several scholars (Babbie 2007; Willig 2003), drawing particularly upon the process of grounded theory (Willig 2003; Thornberg and Charmaz 2003), phenomenological analysis (Willig 2003), and content analysis (Schreier 2003). In qualitative Babbie (2007) explained that coding the data is "the key process in the analysis of qualitative social research data" (p. 384). This study will code the data using categories generated by the public service motivation theory (Babbie 2007). It will begin with open coding, a process in which the responses are reviewed repeatedly to identify the core concept reflected by the answer (Id.). After open coding, it will proceed to axial coding. Axial coding seeks to distill from the core concepts from open coding the primary analytical concepts (Id. at 386).

J. Quantitative Analysis

The study analyzed data using SPSS Graduate Pack 22.0 for Windows. Initially, the study will screen the data for missing data, outliers, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity before running descriptive statistics.

The study will analyze the data using logistic regression analysis. Logistic regression classifies subjects according to group membership (Mertler and Vannatta 2005). A set of predictor variables, which may be continuous, discrete, or dichotomous, determines whether the categorical criterion variable falls into one of two or more classifications. The logistic regression equation calculates the probability—ranging from zero to one—that a particular observation will fall into a particular group. A probability value of one indicates a high probability that the criterion variable will fall into a particular group. A probability value of zero excludes the criterion variable from a particular group. (Mertler and Vannatta 2005.)

Logistic regression has several advantages that increase its utility over other statistical models. First, it "does not require the adherence to any assumptions about the distributions of predictor variables" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 314 & 317). This means the data do not have to be normally distributed; the variables do not have to have a linear relationship; and the variances do not have to be equal (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 314). Second, the probabilities generated by the equation are positive; it cannot calculate negative probabilities

(Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 314). Third, it can accommodate models comprised of any types of predictor variables: continuous, discrete, or dichotomous (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 314). Finally, it is a good substitute for discriminate analysis when the criterion variable is non-linear (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 314).

The regression analysis creates a "resulting model" from the "overall model," which is comprised of all identified predictor variables. The resulting model is comprised of a subset of predictor variables. Logistic regression analysis generates three primary outputs (Mertler and Vannatta 2005). The first output of concern is a Goodness-of-Fit test of the resulting model, which the study interprets according to the significance value. Additionally, the quality of the overall model is determined based upon several statistics. First, the -2 Log Likelihood measures how appropriate the model is for the data under analysis; a value of zero indicates that the model is a perfect fit. According to Mertler and Vannatta, a value of 25.211 indicates a "fairly good fit" (2005: 315). Second, the Goodness-of-Fit test "compares the actual values for cases on the [criterion variable] with the predicted values on the [criterion variable]." Here, Mertler and Vannatta state that a value of 26.407 is indicative of a "fairly good fit" (2005: 315). Third, the Cox and Snell statistic and the Nagelkerke statistic are interpreted to determine "the proportion of variability in the [criterion variable] that may be accounted for by all predictor variables included in the equation" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 315).

Next, the researcher looks to the classification table of the criterion variables. This table "compares the predicted values for the [criterion variable] … with the actual observed values from the data" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 315). It displays the percentage of correctly predicted cases and the overall percentage of correctness. This table indicates how accurately the model predicts class membership. The higher the percentage of correctness, the more accurate the model is at predicting membership.

Finally, the logistic regression equation generates a table of regression coefficients, most importantly β, Wald, *R*, an Exp(β) (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 315). The β statistic represents the regression coefficient. This statistic indicates the effect that the predictor variable has on the criterion variable (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 320). The Wald statistic represents the significance level. Wald is a "measure of significance for β and represents the significance of each variable in its ability to contribute to the model" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 320). The *R* value indicates "the partial correlation coefficient between each predictor variable and [the criterion variable], holding constant all other predictors in the equation." The Exp(β) coefficient is called the "odds ratio" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 315, 318). The odds ratio "is defined as a ratio of the odds of being classified in one category of the [predictor variable] for two different values of the [criterion variable]" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 318). In other words, it represents the "odds of being classified in a category when the predictor variable increases by one" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 320). The odds ratio determines the increase in the chances of classification in the group when the predictor variable increases by one.

According to Babbie, internal validity refers to the risk that the results do not accurately reflect what actually occurred in the study. This risk arises when something other than the independent variable may affect the dependent variable, thereby representing an alternative explanation for the results. The threats to internal validity include history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, regression, selection bias, attrition, and additive effects with selection.

Logistic regression has several limitations that may affect internal validity. In accordance with the procedure recommended by Mertler and Vannatta, this study evaluates all pairs of discrete variables to ensure that all cells have expected frequencies greater than one and that no more than twenty percent have frequencies less than five. It screens the data for multi-collinearity and outliers. Moreover, logistic regression is sensitive to the "ratio of cases to variables" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 317). If this ratio is too small, the analysis may generate "large parameter estimates and standard errors" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 317). When this happens, the study reassesses the variables to increase the ratio. The study may eliminate categories or variables to remedy the problem. Additionally, the ability of the analysis to generate usable results is contingent upon the cells having an appropriate number of expected frequencies; all cells should have expected frequencies greater than one and "no more than 20%" should be less than five (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 317). The remedies include accepting "a lower level of power for the analysis," reassessing categories, or deleting variables. Logistic regression is also sensitive to multicollinearity among predictor variables. When multicollinearity exits, the remedy is to delete redundant variables. (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 317.) Finally, logistic regression is sensitive to outliers. Extreme values will negatively affect model fit and should be scrutinized (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 317).

Babbie defines external validity as the risk that the results may not be generalizable to the entire population. The threats to external validity include selection, history, testing, and reactive effects. This study will control for external validity by relying upon questions from previous surveys identified in the literature, random selection of survey respondents, sampling a sufficient number of respondents to support generalization to the entire population, and pretesting the survey instrument.

K. Anticipated Findings

This study anticipated that it would find that, as a general matter, employees of the State of Tennessee are motivated by a public service ethic and that this is, in part, related to the state's history and tradition of volunteerism. It also anticipates finding that public service motivation drives employees of agencies with a primary policy objective of redistribution more than those in distributive, regulatory, and constituent agencies. The objectives of agencies that implement redistributive policies focus directly on providing meaningful service to their beneficiaries than agencies implementing other types of policies. The study also anticipated that employees of agencies that implement constituent policies are the least motivated by public service motivation. They focus their missions less on public service and more on supporting other agencies.

The question of how to motivate public sector employees is one of the big questions of public management. If this research is successful in identifying the existence of a public service ethic among public employees in Tennessee, administrators can apply this research in a practical manner to devise recruitment and hiring strategies and to develop compensation and benefits packages that will tap into their employees' intrinsic desire for meaningful public service. Additionally, this research will contribute to the literature on employee motivation and establish a foundation for future studies by extending the research into a previously ignored but significant employment sector: the legal profession.

L. Limitations

The geographical region limits this study. The sample comes from a single state, the State of Tennessee, in the southern region of the United States of America. For that reason, it takes care in generalizing the results to the general population of public employees. However, the level of specificity will increase the study's amenability to practical application.

The researcher's past employment limits this study. Before the survey was distributed, the researcher worked for the Tennessee Attorney General and Reporter for twelve and a half years. During the survey period, the researcher received direct contact from two or three respondents. Thus, respondents who know the researcher may have hesitated at being honest, candid, and forthcoming in their answers, despite the assurances of anonymity. They may have been concerned that their responses may not be completely anonymous.

Researcher bias limits the study. The researcher's past employment may affect the researcher's ability to be neutral and unbiased when interpreting the responses to the qualitative questions. The study controlled for this bias by understanding that it is present and taking extra care in the analysis of the results.

Cross-sectional survey data limits the study. Cross-sectional survey data does not support inferences of causality. Relatedly, the use of self-reported survey answers limits this study. Self-reported survey data implicates the social desirability bias, according to which respondents may provide the answers that they view most socially desirable instead of providing truthful responses.

Perceptual data limits the study. This survey collected perceptual data rather than objective data. The respondent's perceptions may be skewed and misrepresent what was actually occurring.

M. Strengths and Uniqueness of the Study

The use of a mixed methodology strengthens this study. Mixed methodology provides the benefits of both quantitative and qualitative research methods. These methods complement each other, lessening the impact of each method's weaknesses.

The large sample size strengthens this study. It draws upon a sample size of 1,525. This sample size reduces the margin of error and generates statistically significant results. The low response rate weakens it somewhat, but the response rate is within the acceptable range for Internet-based surveys.

This study was unique for several reasons. It is the first systematic research into public service motivation in Tennessee. The state of Tennessee is an excellent subject for analysis, given its history and traditions of volunteerism. It relied upon primary data, which is still rare in the literature. The majority of previous studies relied upon secondary data collected for a purpose other than the examination of public service motivation. This study is also one of a few studies to implement Perry's public service motivation scale. Additionally, it was one of the first studies to rely upon personal interviews in the pursuit of "contextual realism." It also contained a policy-capture component, a methodology that the public service motivation literature has not previously employed. Finally, it was one of the first studies to conduct a case study of public service motivation.

CHAPTER IV

QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

A. Introduction

This chapter discusses the statistical method employed in this study and report the findings. This study used logistic regression, a statistical method that is often used in the study of public service motivation. Logistic regression was used because the study seeks to determine the extent to which public service motivation predicts employment outcomes among attorneys working for the state of Tennessee.

B. Logistic Regression.

The study analyzed data using SPSS Graduate Pack 22.0 for Windows. Initially, the study will screen the data for missing data, outliers, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity before running descriptive statistics.

The study will analyze the data using logistic regression analysis. Logistic regression classifies subjects according to group membership (Mertler and Vannatta 2005; Menard 2002; Pampel 2000). A set of predictor variables, which may be continuous, discrete, or dichotomous, determines whether the categorical criterion variable falls into one of two or more classifications. The logistic regression equation calculates the probability—ranging from zero to one—that a particular observation will fall into a particular group. A probability value of one indicates a high probability that the criterion variable will fall into a particular group. A probability value of zero excludes the criterion variable from a particular group.

Logistic regression has several advantages that increase its utility over other statistical models. First, it "does not require the adherence to any assumptions about the distributions of predictor variables" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 314, 317). This means the data do not have to be normally distributed; the variables do not have to have a linear relationship; and the variances do not have to be equal (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 314). Second, the probabilities generated by the equation are positive; it cannot calculate negative probabilities (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 314). Third, it can accommodate models comprised of any types of predictor variables: continuous, discrete, or dichotomous (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 314). Finally, it is a good substitute for discriminate analysis when the criterion variable is non-linear (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 314).

The regression analysis creates a "resulting model" from the "overall model," which is comprised of all identified predictor variables. The resulting model is comprised of a subset of predictor variables. Logistic regression analysis generates three primary outputs (Mertler and Vannatta 2005). The first output of concern is a Goodness-of-Fit test of the resulting model, which the study interprets according to the significance value. Additionally, the quality of the overall model is determined based upon several statistics. First, the -2 Log Likelihood measures how appropriate the model is for the data under analysis; a value of zero indicates that the model is a perfect fit. According to Mertler and Vannatta, a value of 25.211 indicates a "fairly good fit" (2005: 315). Second, the Goodness-of-Fit test "compares the actual values for cases on the [criterion variable] with the predicted values on the [criterion variable]." Here, Mertler and Vannatta state that a value of 26.407 is indicative of a "fairly good fit" (2005: 315). Third, the Cox and Snell statistic and the Nagelkerke statistic are interpreted to determine "the proportion of variability in the [criterion variable] that may be accounted for by all predictor variables included in the equation" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 315).

Next, the researcher looks to the classification table of the criterion variables. This table "compares the predicted values for the [criterion variable] … with the actual observed values from the data" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 315). It displays the percentage of correctly predicted cases and the overall percentage of correctness. This table indicates how accurately the model predicts class membership. The higher the percentage of correctness, the more accurate the model is at predicting membership.

Finally, the logistic regression equation generates a table of regression coefficients, most importantly *β*, Wald, *R*, an Exp(*β*) (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 315). The *β* statistic represents the regression coefficient. This statistic indicates the effect that the predictor variable has on the criterion variable (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 320). The Wald statistic represents the significance level. Wald is a "measure of significance for *β* and represents the significance of each variable in its ability to contribute to the model" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 320). The *R* value indicates "the partial correlation coefficient between each predictor variable and [the criterion variable], holding constant all other predictors in the equation." The Exp(*β*) coefficient is called the "odds ratio" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 315, 318). The odds ratio "is defined as a ratio of the odds of being classified in one category of the [predictor variable] for two different values of the [criterion variable]" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 318). In other words, it represents the "odds of being classified in a category when the predictor variable increases by one" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 320). The odds ratio determines the increase in the chances of classification in the group when the predictor variable increases by one.

According to Babbie, internal validity refers to the risk that the results of a study do not accurately reflect what actually occurred in the study. This risk arises when something other than the independent variable may affect the dependent variable, thereby representing an alternative explanation for the results. The threats to internal validity include history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, regression, selection bias, attrition, and additive effects with selection.

Logistic regression has several limitations that may affect internal validity. In accordance with the procedure recommended by Mertler and Vannatta, this study evaluates all pairs of discrete variables to ensure that all cells have expected frequencies greater than one and that no more than twenty percent have frequencies less than five. The study screens the data for multi-collinearity and outliers. Moreover, logistic regression is sensitive to the "ratio of cases to variables" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 317). If this ratio is too small, the analysis may generate "large parameter estimates and standard errors" (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 317). When this happens, the study reassesses the variables to increase the ratio. The study may eliminate categories or variables to remedy the problem. Additionally, the ability of the analysis to generate usable results is contingent upon the cells having an appropriate number of expected frequencies; all cells should have expected frequencies greater than one and "no more than 20%" should be less than five (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 317). The remedies include accepting "a lower level of power for the analysis," reassessing categories, or deleting variables. Logistic regression is also sensitive to multicollinearity among predictor variables. When multicollinearity exits, the remedy is to delete redundant variables. (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 317.) Finally, logistic regression is sensitive to outliers. Extreme values will negatively affect model fit and should be scrutinized (Mertler and Vannatta 2005: 317).

Babbie defines external validity as the risk that the results of the study may not be generalizable to the entire population. The threats to external validity include selection, history, testing, and reactive effects. This study will control for external validity by relying upon questions from previous surveys identified in the literature, random selection of survey respondents, sampling a sufficient number of respondents to support generalization to the entire population, and pretesting the survey instrument.

C. Demographic Characteristics

As previously mentioned, 277 of 631 respondents who opened the survey completed it. However, thirteen surveys were deleted because they were more than half incomplete and included no responses to the qualitative questions, leaving 264 responses for a response rate of 41.8 percent. The demographic data indicate that 54.2 percent (n=143) of the respondents are male and 45.8 percent (n=121) are female. The racial composition of the respondents breaks down like this: 93.6 percent (n=247) are white, 4.2 percent (n=11) are black, 0.4 percent (n=1) are Hispanic, 0.4 percent (n=1) are Native American, and 1.5 percent (n=4) are other races. The income composition is as follows: 1.1 percent (n=3) earn less than $40,000 per year, 19.3 percent (n=51) earn between $40,000 and $60,000, 36 percent (n=95) earn between $60,000 and $80,000, 17.8 percent (n=47) earn between $80,000 and $100,000, and 25.8 percent (n=68) earn more than $100,000. Finally, 37.5

percent (n=99) are in management positions and 62.5 percent (n=165) are non-management. The demographic data are presented in Table 5.1

TABLE 5.1
Frequency Tables

Please indicate your gender.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	143	54.2	54.2	54.2
	Female	121	45.8	45.8	100.0
	Total	264	100.0	100.0	

Please indicate your race or ethnicity.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	White or Caucasian	247	93.6	93.6	93.6
	Black or African-American	11	4.2	4.2	97.7
	Hispanic or Latino	1	.4	.4	98.1
	Native American	1	.4	.4	98.5
	Other	4	1.5	1.5	100.0
	Total	264	100.0	100.0	

Please indicate your income level.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	under $40,000	3	1.1	1.1	1.1
	$40,000 to $60,000	51	19.3	19.3	20.5
	$60,001 to $80,000	95	36.0	36.0	56.4
	$80,001 to $100,000	47	17.8	17.8	74.2
	over $100,000	68	25.8	25.8	100.0
	Total	264	100.0	100.0	

Please indicate if you are in a managerial or supervisory position.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	99	37.5	37.5	37.5
	No	165	62.5	62.5	100.0
	Total	264	100.0	100.0	

According to Census Bureau statistics for 2015, the population of Tennessee is 48.7 percent male and 51.2 percent female. The population breaks down along racial lines like so: 77 percent are white, 16 percent are black, 4 percent are Hispanic, less than 1 percent are Native American, and 3 percent fall into other racial categories. The median income in

Tennessee is $44,361. Based upon these numbers, whites are over-represented in the sample population and minorities, particularly blacks, are under-represented. Additionally, the median income of the sample population is higher than the median income for the state's general population, but this is to be expected because the sample population is drawn from attorneys, a profession that has a median income of about $80,000 in the state.

D. Screening the Data

The data were screened for missing responses. As previously noted, 631 respondents opened the survey and 277 submitted survey responses through Qualtrics. However, thirteen of the submitted surveys were more than half incomplete and included no responses to the qualitative questions. The researcher deleted these 13 surveys, leaving a total of 264 completed surveys for analysis, a response rate of 41.8 percent. In the completed surveys, a total of 68 missing responses were found in the 47 substantive questions of the survey. Thirteen questions were missing one response. Ten questions were missing two responses. Six questions were missing three responses. Three questions were missing four responses. One question was missing five responses. The number of missing responses for each question with missing data is presented in Table 5.2. The missing data was coded with the statistical mean for each question.

TABLE 5.2

Missing Data

Question	Number	Question	Number	Question	Number	Question	Number	Question	Number
3	2	10	2	18	1	28	1	40	1
4	1	11	1	19	2	33	1	42	1
5	3	12	3	20	2	35	1	43	1
6	3	13	4	22	1	36	2	44	2
7	2	14	2	23	4	37	1	45	1
8	3	15	3	24	4	38	2		
9	3	16	2	26	1	39	5		

Several respondents did not respond to one or more of the demographic questions. These responses were coded either based upon publicly-available information obtained in conjunction with the e-mail distribution list or using the statistical mean for the variable. Three respondents did not indicate the type of organization in which they work. This information was coded using the employment information gathered when the e-mail distribution list was compiled. Three respondents did not answer the question on gender. These responses were coded using publicly-available information. Five respondents did not indicate their age. Because no information was publicly available concerning the age of the respondents, these answers were recoded using the statistical mean of the other responses. Three respondents did not indicate their race. One of these respondents was is personally known to the researcher and an appropriate response was entered. The other two responses were coded using the statistical mean of the responses in the race category. Twelve respondents did not provide salary information. These responses were coded using publicly available salary information downloaded from the State Employee Salary Search database available on the state of Tennessee's website at https://apps.tn.gov/salary/. Salary information for all respondents was downloaded when the e-mail distribution list was generated. Five respondents did not provide information in response to the question concerning managerial status. These responses were also recoded using publicly available information concerning their position.

The data were screened for multicollinearity. The screen was performed in SPSS by running a linear regression (Analyze – Regression – Linear). Organization Type served as the case study and was entered as the dependent variable. All independent variables were entered as independent variables. Collinearity diagnostics was selected from the Statistics menu, along with Mahalanobis distances, and the liner regression analysis was calculated. The results generated by SPSS are presented in Table 5.3. The tolerance for all variables exceeds 0.1. Therefore, multicollinearity is not a problem.

TABLE 5.3
SPSS Output for Collinearity

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	Job security is very important to me.	.671	1.490
	High income is very important to me.	.714	1.401
	Good opportunities for advancement are very important to me.	.674	1.484
	Having an interesting job is very important to me.	.634	1.578
	Having a job that allows me to help other people is very important to me.	.472	2.117
	Having a job that is useful to society is very important to me.	.446	2.242
	Having a job with flexible work hours is very important to me.	.841	1.190
	I know what is expected of me on the job.	.439	2.277
	I understand what I must do to receive a high performance rating.	.465	2.151
	I understand my agency's mission.	.241	4.148
	I understand how I contribute to my agency's mission.	.182	5.483
	I have a desire to help my work unit meets its goals.	.511	1.955
	Overall, I am satisfied with my pay.	.461	2.168
	My organization takes steps to ensure that employees are appropriately paid.	.428	2.339
	In the past two years, I have been treated fairly regarding opportunities for advancement.	.390	2.563
	I receive the training I need to perform my job.	.388	2.578
	In the past two years, I have been treated fairly regarding opportunities for training.	.308	3.244
	My supervisor keeps me informed about how well I am doing.	.200	5.006
	My supervisor provides constructive feedback about my job performance.	.210	4.766
	Overall, I am satisfied with my job.	.226	4.417
	I can see how my work contributes to the performance of my organization.	.220	4.539
	I can see how my work contributes to the performance of my work unit.	.218	4.581
	This organization provides valuable public service.	.313	3.195
	This organization's mission is exciting to me.	.318	3.145
	This organization has clearly defined goals.	.397	2.518
	In general, I like working here.	.207	4.823

a. Dependent Variable: Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.

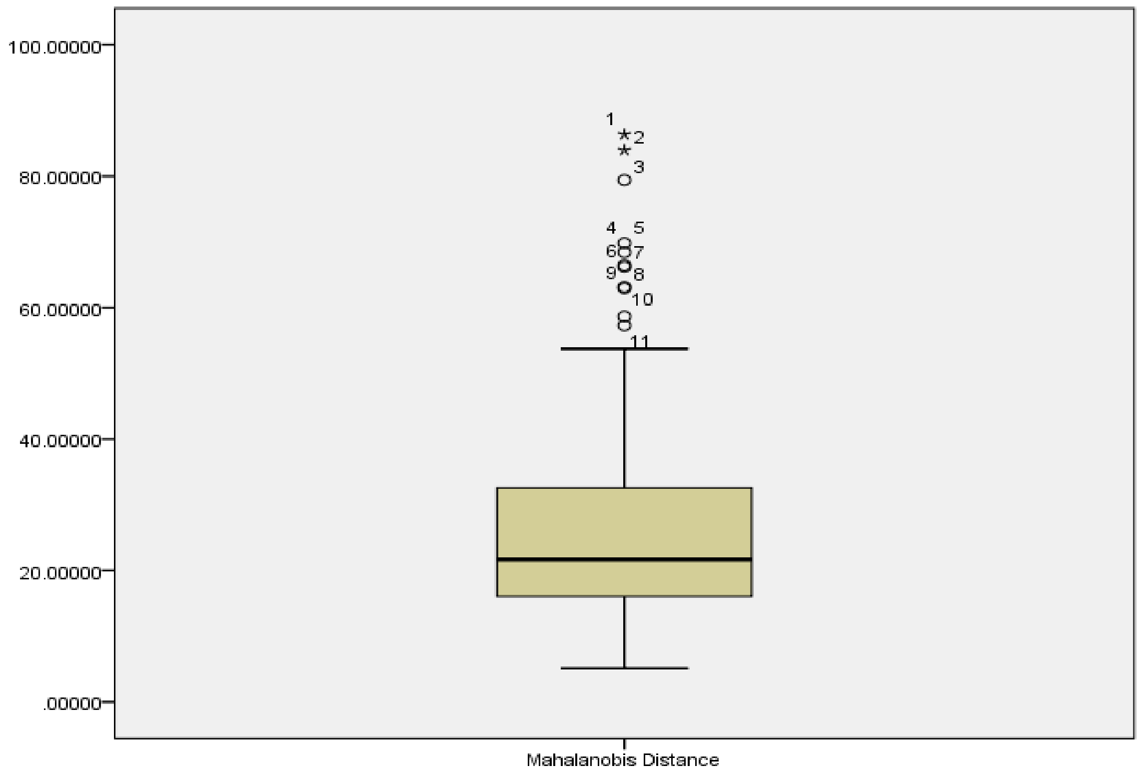
The data were also screened for outliers, calculating the Mahalanobis distances in conjunction with the linear regression analysis used to screen for multicollinearity. The Mahalanobis distances generated by SPSS were used to calculate a chi-square distribution with a critical value of $p < .001$. The calculation was performed in SPSS by transforming the

Mahalanobis distance into a chi-square distribution (Transform – Compute Variable – sig.chisq (Mah_1, 26)). The chi-square distribution was then transformed (Transform – Compute Variable – Prob_MD < .001) into a probability distribution with a critical value of $p < .001$ to identify the outliers. Cases with a critical value below 0.001 are outliers. Eleven cases with Mahalanobis distances greater than 53.73980 emerged as outliers ($p < .001$) and were deleted. The results generated by SPSS are presented in Table 5.4.

TABLE 5.4
SPSS Output for Outliers

Extreme Values

			Case Number	Value
Mahalanobis Distance	Highest	1	1	86.34067
		2	2	83.95617
		3	3	79.42629
		4	4	69.81665
		5	5	68.43010
	Lowest	1	255	5.12421
		2	254	5.12421
		3	253	6.69086
		4	252	6.89082
		5	251	7.78581



E. Hypotheses Tested

Ho_1: Providing Valuable Public Service is not an effective predictor of motivation among Tennessee attorneys.

Providing Valuable Public Service was measured using the predictor variable coded as Pub.Serv_1 for the question, "This organization provides valuable public service." The criterion variable is organization type. The respondents were asked to identify whether they were employed in prosecutor's offices, public defender's offices, legislative branch, the executive branch, the judicial branch, or the Attorney General & Reporter's Office. The latter serves as the reference category. A logistic regression analysis was conducted to determine if this variable is a predictor of government agency employment among Tennessee attorneys. The SPSS output is presented in Table 5.5.

TABLE 5.5
SPSS Output for Predictor Public Service

Case Processing Summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.	Prosecutor	115	43.6%
	Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	43	16.3%
	Legislative Branch	7	2.7%
	Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	59	22.3%
	Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	12	4.5%
	Attorney General & Reporter	28	10.6%
Valid		264	100.0%
Missing		0	
Total		264	
Subpopulation		5[a]	

a. The dependent variable has only one value observed in 2 (40.0%) subpopulations.

Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	69.666			
Final	56.296	13.370	5	.020

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	8.368	15	.908
Deviance	9.840	15	.830

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	8.368	15	.908
Deviance	9.840	15	.830

Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria -2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Likelihood Ratio Tests Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept	101.447	45.151	5	.000
PUB.SERV_1	69.666	13.370	5	.020

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

Parameter Estimates

Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B) Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Prosecutor	Intercept	2.635	.542	23.637	1	.000			
	PUB.SERV_1	-.893	.347	6.632	1	.010	.410	.208	.808
Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	Intercept	1.436	.627	5.246	1	.022			
	PUB.SERV_1	-.722	.412	3.072	1	.080	.486	.217	1.089
Legislative Branch	Intercept	-.412	1.120	.135	1	.713			
	PUB.SERV_1	-.696	.786	.785	1	.376	.498	.107	2.326
Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	.779	.565	1.900	1	.168			
	PUB.SERV_1	-.022	.337	.004	1	.947	.978	.505	1.894
Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	-.429	.865	.245	1	.620			
	PUB.SERV_1	-.284	.548	.269	1	.604	.753	.257	2.202

a. The reference category is: Attorney General & Reporter.

The results indicate that the overall model was statistically reliable in distinguishing between governmental agency of employment based upon a -2 Log Likelihood of 56.296. The low value on the -2 Log Likelihood indicates that the model is a good fit. The Goodness of Fit coefficient of 8.368 and corresponding chi square and significance level (χ^2 (5) = 13.370, and p<.020) also indicate that the model is a good fit. When the model is a good fit, the Goodness of Fit statistic is not significant. The pseudo R square statistics (Cox and Snell $R^2 = 0.049$; Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.052$) show that the model accounts for about five percent of the variance.

The regression analysis produced the following coefficients for Prosecutors: PUB.SERV (*B* =-0.893; S.E.=0.347; Wald=6.632; $p<0.010$; Exp(*B*)=0.410). Wald statistics show that the predictor variable providing a valuable public service significantly predicts employment as a public prosecutor. The statistic is significant at the 90% confidence level. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of the predictor variable increases the odds of the criterion variable decreases. Prosecutors are 59% less likely to be motivated by the provision of a valuable public service than attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for Public Defenders: PUB.SERV (*B* =-0.722; S.E.=0.412; Wald=3.072; $p<0.080$; Exp(*B*)=0.486). Wald statistics show that the predictor variable providing a valuable public service significantly predicts employment as a public defender. The coefficient is significant at the 80% confidence level. Odds ratios that as the odds of the predictor variable increase the odds of the criterion variable decreases. Public Defenders are 51.4% less likely to be motivated by the provision of a valuable public service than attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Legislative Branch: PUB.SERV (*B* =-0.696; S.E.=0.786; Wald=0.785; $p<0.376$; Exp(*B*)=0.498). Wald statistics show that the predictor variable providing a valuable public service does not significantly predict employment in the legislative branch. The Wald statistic is less than one, indicating very little effect. Moreover, the statistic is significant at the 63.4% confidence level, which is to say not significant.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Executive Branch: PUB.SERV (B =-0.022; S.E.=0.337; Wald=0.004; $p<0.947$; Exp(B)=0.978). Wald statistics show that the variable does not significantly predict employment of attorneys in the state of Tennessee's executive branch. The variable is statistically significant at the 5.3% confidence level, indicating a lack of significance. The Wald statistic is less than one, indicating very little effect.

Finally, the analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Judicial Branch: PUB.SERV (B =-0.284; S.E.=0.548; Wald=0.269; $p<0.604$; Exp(B)=0.753). Wald statistics show that the variable providing a valuable public service does not significantly predict employment of attorneys in the state of Tennessee's Judicial Branch. The Wald statistic is less than one, indicating very little effect. The variable is significant at the 39.6% confidence level, which indicates a lack of significance.

These statistics indicate that the variable Provision of Valuable Public Service, which is not one on Public Service Motivation predictor variables, is useful in predicting employment outcomes among attorneys employed in the Tennessee Attorney General's Office, the Tennessee District Attorney General's offices, and the Tennessee Public Defender's offices. Attorneys who are motived to provide a valuable public service are more likely to work for the Attorney General & Reporter.

Ho_2: Attraction to policy making is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

Attraction to Policymaking was measured using the following four questions, which are coded PSM.11.APM, PSM.27.APM, PSM.31.APM, and PSM.16.APM, respectively:

Politics is a dirty word.

The give and take of public policymaking doesn't appeal to me.

I don't care much for politicians.

It is hard for me to get intensely interested in what is going on in my community.

These are the predictor variables. The criterion variable is organization type. The respondents were asked to identify whether they were employed in prosecutor's offices, public defender's offices, legislative branch, the executive branch, the judicial branch, or the Attorney General & Reporter's Office. The latter served as the reference category. The study conducted a logistic regression analysis to determine which variables are predictors of agency employment among attorneys in the state of Tennessee. The SPSS output is presented in Table 5.6.

TABLE 5.6

SPSS Output for Predictor Attraction to Policymaking

Case Processing Summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.	Prosecutor	115	43.6%
	Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	43	16.3%
	Legislative Branch	7	2.7%
	Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	59	22.3%
	Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	12	4.5%
	Attorney General & Reporter	28	10.6%
Valid		264	100.0%
Missing		0	
Total		264	
Subpopulation		119[a]	

a. The dependent variable has only one value observed in 80 (67.2%) subpopulations.

Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	555.953			
Final	512.665	43.289	20	.002

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	512.715	570	.959
Deviance	394.776	570	1.000

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.151
Nagelkerke	.160
McFadden	.056

Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept	527.109	14.445	5	.013
PSM.11.APM_1	528.791	16.126	5	.006
PSM.27.APM_1	516.007	3.342	5	.647
PSM.31.APM_1	533.534	20.869	5	.001
PSM.16.APM_1	518.906	6.241	5	.283

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

Parameter Estimates

Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B) Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B) Upper Bound
Prosecutor	Intercept	.783	1.208	.420	1	.517			
	PSM.11.APM_1	-.466	.293	2.537	1	.111	.627	.353	1.113
	PSM.27.APM_1	-.326	.250	1.700	1	.192	.722	.443	1.178
	PSM.31.APM_1	.523	.280	3.480	1	.062	1.687	.974	2.923
	PSM.16.APM_1	.420	.250	2.825	1	.093	1.522	.933	2.485
Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	Intercept	-1.002	1.446	.480	1	.488			
	PSM.11.APM_1	-.321	.331	.937	1	.333	.726	.379	1.389
	PSM.27.APM_1	-.111	.288	.150	1	.699	.895	.509	1.572
	PSM.31.APM_1	.440	.318	1.920	1	.166	1.553	.833	2.895
	PSM.16.APM_1	.390	.297	1.723	1	.189	1.477	.825	2.643
Legislative Branch	Intercept	-9.044	3.663	6.097	1	.014			
	PSM.11.APM_1	.031	.572	.003	1	.957	1.031	.336	3.161
	PSM.27.APM_1	.031	.579	.003	1	.957	1.032	.332	3.208
	PSM.31.APM_1	1.106	.594	3.469	1	.063	3.021	.944	9.673
	PSM.16.APM_1	.888	.745	1.420	1	.233	2.429	.564	10.458
Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	.457	1.294	.125	1	.724			
	PSM.11.APM_1	.108	.312	.119	1	.730	1.114	.604	2.052
	PSM.27.APM_1	-.158	.269	.345	1	.557	.854	.505	1.445
	PSM.31.APM_1	-.232	.299	.604	1	.437	.793	.441	1.424
	PSM.16.APM_1	.271	.265	1.040	1	.308	1.311	.779	2.205
Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	-.274	1.791	.023	1	.878			
	PSM.11.APM_1	.973	.480	4.098	1	.043	2.645	1.031	6.782
	PSM.27.APM_1	-.437	.391	1.247	1	.264	.646	.300	1.391
	PSM.31.APM_1	-.565	.445	1.610	1	.204	.569	.238	1.360
	PSM.16.APM_1	-.245	.389	.396	1	.529	.783	.365	1.678

a. The reference category is: Attorney General & Reporter.

The results indicate that the overall model was not statistically reliable in distinguishing agency of employment based upon a -2 Log Likelihood of 512.665. The high value on the -2 Log Likelihood indicates that the model is not a good fit. Likewise, the Goodness of Fit statistic of 512.715 and corresponding chi square and significance level (χ^2 (20)=43.289, p<.002) indicate that the model is not a good fit. For a good fit, the Goodness of Fit statistic should be not significant. The pseudo R square statistics (Cox and Snell R^2=0.151; Nagelkerke R^2=0.160) indicate that the model acccounts for 15% of the variance.

The analysis produced the regression coefficients for Prosecutors presented in Table 5.6.: Wald statistics show that all variables significantly predict employment as public prosecutors among Tennessee attorneys. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of PSM.31.APM and PSM.16.APM increase the odds of employment as a public prosecutor occurring increases. But as the odds of PSM.11.APM and PSM.27.APM occurring increases, the odds of employment as a public prosecutor decreases. These two variables measured the contra-positive; therefore, the results indicate the opposite result. PSM.11.APM indicates that Prosecutors are 37.3% less likely to be motivated by an attraction to policy making than attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PSM.11.APM indicates that Prosecutors are 37.3% less likely to be motivated by an attraction to policy making, PSM.27.APM indicates that they are 27.8% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.31.APM indicates that they are 68.7% less likely to be so motivated, and PSM.16.APM indicates that they are 58% less likely to be so motivated.

The analysis produced the regression coefficients for Public Defenders presented in Table 5.6. Wald statistics show that all variables significantly predict the outcome of employment as a public defender. Odds ratios reveal the same results as generated for public prosecutors. As the odds of PSM.31.APM and PSM.16.APM increase the likelihood of the outcome employment as a public defender increases, and as the odds of PSM.11.APM and PSM.27.APM increase, the likelihood of the outcome decreases. The latter two variables were reversed for measurement purposes and, therefore, indicate the opposite outcome. When compared to attorneys employed in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PSM.11.APM indicates that Public Defenders are 27.4% less likely to be motivated by an attraction to policy making, PSM.27.APM indicates that they are 10.5% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.31.APM indicates that they are 44.7% less likely, and PSM.16.APM indicates that they are 52.3% less likely.

The analysis produced the regression coefficients for the Legislative Branch presented in Table 5.6. Wald statistics show that all predictor variables significantly predict the criterion variable. Odds ratios reveal that, as PSM.11.APM and PSM.27.APM increase, the odds of the outcome of employment in the Legislative Branch occurring also increases. However, as the odds of the reversed variables increase, the likelihood of the outcome also increases. When compared to attorneys employed in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PSM.11.APM indicates that attorneys in the Legislative Branch are 3.1% more likely to be motivated by an attraction to policy making, PSM.27.APM indicates that they are 3.2% more likely to be so motivated, PSM.31.APM indicates that they are 302.1% more likely to be so motivated, and PSM.16.APM indicates that they are 242.9% more likely to be so motivated.

The analysis produced the regression coefficients for the Executive Branch presented in Table 5.6. Wald statistics show that all variables significantly predict the criterion variable of employment in the Executive Branch. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of PSM.11.APM increase the odds of the outcome increase, as PSM.31.APM increase the odds of the outcome decreases, as the odds of PSM.31.APM occurring increases the odds of the outcome decreases, and as PSM.16.APM increases the odds of the outcome increases. When compared to attorneys employed in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PSM.11.APM indicates that attorneys employed in the Executive Branch are 11.4% more likely to be motivated by an attraction to policy making, PSM.27.APM indicates that they are 14.6% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.31.APM indicats that they are 20.7% less likely, and PSM.16.APM indicates that they are 31.1% more likely to be so motivated.

Finally, the analysis produced the regression coefficients for the Judicial Branch presented in Table 5.6. Wald statistics show that all variables significantly predict the criterion variable of employment in the Judicial Branch. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of PSM.11.APM occurring increase, the odds of the outcome increases; as the odds of PSM.27.APM increases, the odds of the outcome decreases; as the odds of PSM.31.APM occurring increases, the odds of the criterion variable occurring decreases; and, as the odds of PSM.16.APM occurring increases, the odds of the outcome occurring decreases. When compared to attorneys employed in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PSM.11.APM indicates that attorneys employed in the Executive Branch are 11.4% more likely to be motivated by an attraction to policy making, PSM.27.APM indicates that they are 14.6% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.31.APM indicates that they are 20.7% less likely, and PSM.16.APM indicates that they are 31.1% more likely to be motivated by an attraction to policy making.

As noted at the outset of this subsection, the model is not a good fit for the data. For that reason, the study cannot draw reliable conclusions concerning the motivation of attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee based upon these Public Service Motivation predicator variables. This results calls the viability of the Public Service Motivation construct into question when applied to attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee.

Ho_3: Commitment to the Public Interest is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

Commitment to the Public Interest was measured using the responses to four questions, coded PSM.23.CPI, PSM.30.CPI, PSM.34.CPI, and PSM.39.CPI, respectively:

> I unselfishly contribute to my community.
>
> Meaningful public service is important to me.
>
> I would prefer seeing public officials do what is best for the whole community even if it harmed some individuals.
>
> I consider public service my civic duty.

These are the predictor variables. The criterion variable is organization type. The respondents were asked to identify whether they were employed in prosecutor's offices, public defender's offices, legislative branch, the executive branch, the judicial branch, or the Attorney General & Reporter's Office. The latter served as the reference category. The study conducted a logistic regression analysis to determine if this variable is a predictor of government agency employment among Tennessee attorneys. The SPSS output is presented in Table 5.7.

TABLE 5.7
SPSS Output for Predictor Commitment to Public Interest

Case Processing Summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.	Prosecutor	115	43.6%
	Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	43	16.3%
	Legislative Branch	7	2.7%
	Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	59	22.3%
	Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	12	4.5%
	Attorney General & Reporter	28	10.6%
Valid		264	100.0%
Missing		0	
Total		264	
Subpopulation		68[a]	

a. The dependent variable has only one value observed in 35 (51.5%) subpopulations.

Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	401.593			
Final	370.435	31.157	20	.053

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	303.003	315	.676
Deviance	241.754	315	.999

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.111
Nagelkerke	.118
McFadden	.040

Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria: -2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Likelihood Ratio Tests: Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept	403.776	33.341	5	.000
PSM.23.CPI_1	381.446	11.011	5	.051
PSM.30.CPI_1	375.228	4.793	5	.442
PSM.34.CPI_1	371.448	1.013	5	.961
PSM.39.CPI_1	381.468	11.033	5	.051

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

Parameter Estimates

Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B): Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B): Upper Bound
Prosecutor	Intercept	3.090	.908	11.583	1	.001			
	PSM.23.CPI_1	-.307	.320	.924	1	.336	.735	.393	1.376
	PSM.30.CPI_1	.052	.429	.015	1	.903	1.054	.454	2.445
	PSM.34.CPI_1	-.150	.286	.275	1	.600	.861	.491	1.509
	PSM.39.CPI_1	-.405	.332	1.481	1	.224	.667	.348	1.280
Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	Intercept	1.335	1.036	1.660	1	.198			
	PSM.23.CPI_1	-.049	.362	.018	1	.892	.952	.468	1.936
	PSM.30.CPI_1	.041	.491	.007	1	.934	1.042	.398	2.727
	PSM.34.CPI_1	-.179	.330	.293	1	.589	.836	.438	1.598
	PSM.39.CPI_1	-.241	.381	.400	1	.527	.786	.373	1.658
Legislative Branch	Intercept	-.570	1.780	.103	1	.749			
	PSM.23.CPI_1	.196	.600	.107	1	.744	1.216	.375	3.940
	PSM.30.CPI_1	-.866	.915	.896	1	.344	.421	.070	2.527
	PSM.34.CPI_1	.152	.551	.076	1	.783	1.164	.395	3.430
	PSM.39.CPI_1	-.132	.679	.038	1	.846	.876	.232	3.315
Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	.284	1.010	.079	1	.778			
	PSM.23.CPI_1	.348	.334	1.083	1	.298	1.416	.735	2.728
	PSM.30.CPI_1	-.173	.452	.147	1	.701	.841	.346	2.040
	PSM.34.CPI_1	-.233	.308	.572	1	.450	.792	.434	1.448
	PSM.39.CPI_1	.211	.346	.372	1	.542	1.235	.627	2.432
Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	-2.060	1.643	1.572	1	.210			
	PSM.23.CPI_1	.744	.470	2.503	1	.114	2.105	.837	5.293
	PSM.30.CPI_1	-1.120	.717	2.443	1	.118	.326	.080	1.329
	PSM.34.CPI_1	-.258	.473	.297	1	.586	.773	.306	1.954
	PSM.39.CPI_1	.804	.490	2.691	1	.101	2.235	.855	5.841

a. The reference category is: Attorney General & Reporter.

The results indicate that the overall model was not statistically reliable in distinguishing between agency employment among Tennessee attorneys based upon a -2 Log Likelihood of 370.435 and Goodness of Fit of 303.003 ($\chi^2(20)=31.157$; $p<.053$). The high values on the -2 Log Likelihood and Goodness of Fit test indicate that the model is not a good fit. The pseudo R^2 statistics (Cox and Snell $R^2=0.111$; Nagelkerke $R^2=0.118$) indicate that the model accounts for 11% of the variance.

The analysis produced the regression coefficients for Prosecutors presented in Table 5.7. Wald statistics show that all variables significantly predict the outcomes of the criterion variable. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of PSM.23.CPI occurring increase, the odds of the criterion variable occurring decreases; as the odds of PSM.30.CPI occurring increase, the odds of the criterion variable occurring increase; as the odds of PSM.34.CPI increase, the odds of the criterion variable occurring decrease; and, as the odds of PSM.39.CPI increase, the odds of the criterion variable occurring decrease. When compared to attorneys employed in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PSM.23.CPI indicates that public prosecutors are 26.5% less likely to be motivated by a commitment to the public interest, PSM.30.CPI indicates that they are 105.4% more likely to be so motivated, PSM.34.CPI indicates that they are 15.9% less likely to be so motivated, and PSM.39.CPI indicates that they are 33.3% less likely to be so motivated.

The analysis produced the regression coefficients for Public Defenders presented in Table 5.7. Wald statistics show that all variables significantly predict the outcomes of the criterion variable. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of PSM.23.CPI occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender decrease; as the odds of PSM.30.CPI occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender increase; as the odds of PSM.34.CPI increase, the odds of employment as a public defender decrease; and as the odds of PSM.39.CPI increase, the odds of employment as a public defender decrease. When compared to attorneys employed in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PSM.23.CPI indicates that public defenders are 4.8% less likely to be motivated by a commitment to the public interest, PSM.30.CPI indicates that they are 4.2% more likely to be so motivated, PSM.34.CPI indicates that they are 16.4% less likely to be so motivated, and PSM.39.CPI indicates that they are 21.4% less likely.

The analysis produced the regression coefficients for the Legislative Branch presented in Table 5.7. Wald statistics show that all variables significantly predict the criterion variable. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of PSM.23.CPI occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender increase; as the odds of PSM.30.CPI occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender decrease; as the odds of PSM.34.CPI increase, the odds of employment as a public defender increase; and as the odds of PSM.39.CPI increase, the odds of employment as a public defender decrease. When compared to attorneys employed in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PSM.23.CPI indicates that attorneys employed in the Legislative Branch are 21.6% more likely to be motivated by a commitment to the public interest, PSM.30.CPI indicates that they are 67.9% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.34.CPI indicates that they are 16.4% more likely to be so motivated, and PSM.39.CPI indicates that they are 12.4% less likely.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Executive Branch presented in Table 5.7. Wald statistics show that all predictor variables for commitment to the public interest significantly predict the criterion variable of employment in the Executive Branch. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of PSM.23.CPI occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch increase; as the odds of PSM.30.CPI occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch decrease; as the odds of PSM.34.CPI increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch increase; and as the odds of PSM.39.CPI increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch decrease. When compared to attorneys employed in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PSM.23.CPI indicates that attorneys working in the Executive Branch are 41.6% more likely to be motivated by a commitment to the public interest, PSM.30.CPI indicates that they are 15.9% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.34.CPI indicates that they are 20.8% less likely to be so motivated, and PSM.39.CPI indicates that they are 23.5% more likely to be so motivated.

Finally, the analysis produced the regression coefficients for the Judicial Branch presented in Table 5.7. Wald statistics show that all of the commitment to public interest predictor variables significantly predict the criterion variable of employment in the Judicial Branch. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of PSM.23.CPI occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch increase; as the odds of PSM.30.CPI occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch decrease; as the odds of PSM.34.CPI increase, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch decrease; and as the odds of PSM.39.CPI increase, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch increase. When compared to attorneys employed in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PSM.23.CPI indicates that attorneys working in the Judicial Branch are 210.5% more likely to be motivated by a commitment to the public interest, PSM.30.CPI indicates that they are 67.4% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.34.CPI indicates that they are 22.7% less likely to be so motivated, and PSM.39.CPI indicates that they are 223.5% more likely to be so motivated.

As noted at the outset of this subsection, the model is not a good fit for the data. For that reason, the study cannot draw reliable conclusions concerning whether attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee based are motivated by a commitment to the public interest. This result calls the viability of the Public Service Motivation construct into question when applied to attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee.

Ho_5: Compassion is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

Compassion was measured according to the responses to the following eight questions, coded PSM.02.COMP, PSM.03.COMP, PSM.04.COMP, PSM.08.COMP, PSM.10.COMP, PSM.13.COMP, PSM.24.COMP, and PSM.40.COMP, respectively:

I am rarely moved by the plight of the underprivileged.

Most social programs are too vital to do without.

It is difficult for me to contain my feelings when I see people in distress.

To me, patriotism includes seeing to the welfare of others.

I seldom think about the welfare of people who I don't know personally.

I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on one another.

I have little compassion for people in need who are unwilling to take the first step to help themselves.

There are few public programs that I wholeheartedly support.

The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with these statements on a five-point Likert-type scale. These are the predictor variables. The criterion variable is organization type. The respondents were asked to identify whether they were employed in prosecutor's offices, public defender's offices, legislative branch, the executive branch, the judicial branch, or the Attorney General & Reporter's Office. The latter served as the reference category. The study conducted a logistic regression analysis to determine if this variable is a predictor of government agency employment among Tennessee attorneys. The SPSS output is presented in Table 5.8.

TABLE 5.8
SPSS Output for Predictor Compassion

Case Processing Summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.	Prosecutor	115	43.6%
	Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	43	16.3%
	Legislative Branch	7	2.7%
	Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	59	22.3%
	Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	12	4.5%
	Attorney General & Reporter	28	10.6%
Valid		264	100.0%
Missing		0	
Total		264	
Subpopulation		238[a]	

a. The dependent variable has only one value observed in 224 (94.1%) subpopulations.

Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria: -2 Log Likelihood	Likelihood Ratio Tests: Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	746.473			
Final	644.674	101.799	40	.000

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	1157.089	1145	.395
Deviance	619.825	1145	1.000

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.320
Nagelkerke	.338
McFadden	.131

Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
Intercept	660.118	15.444	5	.009
PSM.02.COMP_1	655.595	10.921	5	.053
PSM.03.COMP_1	648.200	3.526	5	.619
PSM.04.COMP_1	649.515	4.841	5	.436
PSM.08.COMP_1	645.409	.735	5	.981
PSM.10.COMP_1	648.253	3.579	5	.612
PSM.13.COMP_1	656.096	11.422	5	.044
PSM.24.COMP_1	672.310	27.636	5	.000
PSM.40.COMP_1	656.565	11.891	5	.036

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

Parameter Estimates

Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
								Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Prosecutor	Intercept	5.097	2.646	3.711	1	.054			
	PSM.02.COMP_1	-.020	.398	.003	1	.959	.980	.449	2.137
	PSM.03.COMP_1	.267	.252	1.120	1	.290	1.306	.797	2.141
	PSM.04.COMP_1	.051	.263	.038	1	.845	1.053	.629	1.762
	PSM.08.COMP_1	.029	.318	.009	1	.926	1.030	.552	1.922
	PSM.10.COMP_1	-.253	.429	.348	1	.555	.777	.335	1.799
	PSM.13.COMP_1	-.727	.311	5.488	1	.019	.483	.263	.888
	PSM.24.COMP_1	-.168	.229	.538	1	.463	.845	.539	1.324
	PSM.40.COMP_1	-.472	.242	3.803	1	.051	.624	.388	1.002

Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	Intercept	-2.180	3.310	.434	1	.510			
	PSM.02.COMP_1	1.052	.542	3.772	1	.052	2.864	.990	8.284
	PSM.03.COMP_1	.178	.286	.388	1	.533	1.195	.682	2.094
	PSM.04.COMP_1	-.318	.305	1.088	1	.297	.727	.400	1.323
	PSM.08.COMP_1	.103	.398	.067	1	.796	1.108	.508	2.418
	PSM.10.COMP_1	-.770	.524	2.159	1	.142	.463	.166	1.293
	PSM.13.COMP_1	-.534	.384	1.929	1	.165	.586	.276	1.246
	PSM.24.COMP_1	.762	.274	7.740	1	.005	2.142	1.252	3.662
	PSM.40.COMP_1	-.003	.283	.000	1	.992	.997	.572	1.737
Legislative Branch	Intercept	-.010	5.407	.000	1	.999			
	PSM.02.COMP_1	-.735	.798	.847	1	.357	.480	.100	2.293
	PSM.03.COMP_1	-.052	.503	.011	1	.918	.950	.354	2.546
	PSM.04.COMP_1	-.074	.496	.022	1	.882	.929	.351	2.457
	PSM.08.COMP_1	.175	.634	.076	1	.782	1.191	.344	4.131
	PSM.10.COMP_1	.570	.930	.376	1	.540	1.768	.286	10.939
	PSM.13.COMP_1	-.524	.659	.632	1	.427	.592	.163	2.155
	PSM.24.COMP_1	.324	.452	.515	1	.473	1.383	.570	3.354
	PSM.40.COMP_1	-.154	.456	.114	1	.736	.857	.351	2.095
Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	3.530	2.838	1.547	1	.214			
	PSM.02.COMP_1	-.352	.448	.618	1	.432	.703	.292	1.692
	PSM.03.COMP_1	.171	.274	.389	1	.533	1.187	.693	2.030
	PSM.04.COMP_1	-.291	.282	1.065	1	.302	.748	.430	1.299
	PSM.08.COMP_1	.222	.350	.402	1	.526	1.248	.629	2.478
	PSM.10.COMP_1	-.278	.472	.346	1	.556	.757	.300	1.912
	PSM.13.COMP_1	-.704	.347	4.113	1	.043	.494	.250	.977
	PSM.24.COMP_1	.508	.247	4.220	1	.040	1.663	1.024	2.700
	PSM.40.COMP_1	-.068	.264	.066	1	.797	.934	.557	1.567
Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	-4.675	4.768	.961	1	.327			
	PSM.02.COMP_1	.370	.718	.265	1	.607	1.448	.354	5.916
	PSM.03.COMP_1	-.354	.435	.662	1	.416	.702	.299	1.647
	PSM.04.COMP_1	.214	.424	.256	1	.613	1.239	.540	2.846
	PSM.08.COMP_1	.161	.546	.087	1	.767	1.175	.403	3.424
	PSM.10.COMP_1	-.313	.725	.187	1	.666	.731	.177	3.026
	PSM.13.COMP_1	.489	.514	.906	1	.341	1.631	.596	4.465
	PSM.24.COMP_1	.288	.375	.589	1	.443	1.334	.639	2.781
	PSM.40.COMP_1	.394	.470	.703	1	.402	1.482	.590	3.722

a. The reference category is: Attorney General & Reporter.

The results indicate that the overall model was not statistically reliable in distinguishing between agency of employment outcomes among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee based upon a -2 Log Likelihood of 644.674 and Goodness of Fit of 1157.089 ($\chi^2(40)=101.799$, p<.000). The high values on the -2 Log Likelihood and

Goodness of Fit test indicate that the model is not a good fit. Likewise, the significance level indicates that the model is not a good fit. For a model to be considered a good fit, the significance level is expected to reflect lack of significance. The pseudo R^2 statistics (Cox and Snell $R^2 = 0.320$; Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.338$) indicate that the model explains 32% of the variance.

The analysis produced the regression coefficients for Prosecutors presented in Table 5.8. Wald statistics show that all compassion predictor variables significantly predict employment outcomes by agency among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of PSM.02.COMP occurring increase, the odds of the criterion variable outcome decrease; as the odds of PSM.03.COMP occurring increase, the odds of the criterion variable outcome decrease; as the odds of PSM.04.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public prosecutor increases; as the odds of PSM.08.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public prosecutor increase; as the odds of PSM.10.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public prosecutor decrease; as the odds of PSM.13.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public prosecutor decrease; as the odds of PSM.24.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public prosecutor decrease; and, as the odds of PSM.40.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public prosecutor decrease.

When compared to attorneys employed in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PSM.02.COMP indicates that public prosecutors are 2% less likely to be motivated by compassion, PSM.03.COMP indicates that they are 30.6% more likely to be so motivated, PSM.04.COMP indicates that they are 5.3% more likely to be so motivated, PSM.08.COMP indicates that they are 3% more likely to be so motivated, PSM.10.COMP indicates that they are 22.3% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.13.COMP indicates that they are 51.7% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.24.COMP indicates that they are 15.5% less likely to be so motivated, and PSM.40.COMP indicates that they are 37.6% less likely.

The analysis produced the regression coefficients for Public Defenders presented in Table 5.8. Wald statistics show that all compassion predictor variables significantly predict employment as a public defender among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of PSM.02.COMP occurring increase, the odds of the criterion variable outcome being public defender increase; as the odds of PSM.03.COMP occurring increase, the odds of the criterion variable outcome increase; as the odds of PSM.04.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender decrease; as the odds of PSM.08.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender increase; as the odds of PSM.10.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender decrease; as the odds of PSM.13.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender decrease; as the odds of PSM.24.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender increase; and, as the odds of PSM.40.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender decrease.

When compared to attorneys employed in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PSM.02.COMP indicates that public defenders are 186.4% more likely to be motived by compassion, PSM.03.COMP indicates that the are 19.5% more likely to be so motivated, PSM.04.COMP indicates that they are 27.3% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.08.COMP indicates that they are 10.8% more likely to be so motivated, PSM.10.COMP indicates that they are 53.7% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.13.COMP indicates that they are 41.4% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.24.COMP indicates that they are 114.2% more likely to be so motivated, and PSM.40.COMP indicates that they are 0.3% less likely to be so motivated.

The analysis produced the regression coefficients for the Legislative Branch presented in Table 5.8. Wald statistics show that all compassion predictor variables significantly predict the employment outcome of employment in the Legislative Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of PSM.02.COMP occurring increase, the odds of the criterion variable outcome being employment in the Legislative Branch decrease; as the odds of PSM.03.COMP occurring increase, the odds of the criterion variable outcome being employment in the Legislative Branch decrease; as the odds of PSM.04.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Legislative Branch decrease; as the odds of PSM.08.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Legislative Branch increase; as the odds of PSM.10.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Legislative Branch increase; as the odds of PSM.13.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Legislative Branch decrease; as the odds of PSM.24.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Legislative Branch increase; and, as the odds of PSM.40.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Legislative Branch decrease.

When compared to attorneys working in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PSM.02.COMP indicates that attorneys working in the Legislative Branch are 52% less likely to be motivated by compassion, PSM.03.COMP indicates that they are 5% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.04.COMP indicates that they are 7.1% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.08.COMP indicates that they are 19.1% more likely to be so motivated, PSM.10.COMP indicates that they are 76.8% more likely to be so motivated, PSM.13.COMP indicates that they are 40.8% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.24.COMP indicates that they are 38.3% more likely to be motivated by compassion, and PSM.40.COMP indicates that they are 14.3% less likely to be so motivated.

The analysis produced the regression coefficients for the Executive Branch presented in Table 5.8. Wald statistics show that all compassion predictor variables significantly predict employment in the Executive Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of PSM.02.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch decrease; as the odds of PSM.03.COMP occurring increase, the odds of the criterion variable outcome being employment in the Executive Branch increase; as the odds of PSM.04.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch decrease; as the odds of PSM.08.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch increase; as the odds of PSM.10.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch decrease; as the odds of PSM.13.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch decrease; as the odds of PSM.24.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch increase; and, as the odds of PSM.40.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch decrease.

When compared to attorneys working in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PSM.02.COMP indicates that attorneys working in the Executive Branch are 29.7% less likely to be motivated by compassion, PSM.03.COMP indicates that they are 18.7% more likely to be so motivated, PSM.04.COMP indicates that they are 25.2% less likely, PSM.08.COMP indicates that they are 24.8% more likely, PSM.10.COMP indicates that they are 24.3% less likely, PSM.13.COMP indicates that they are 50.6% less likely, PSM.24.COMP indicates that they are 66.3% more likely, and PSM.40.COMP indicates that they are 6.6% less likely to be motivated by compassion.

Finally, the analysis produced the regression coefficients for the Judicial Branch presented in Table 5.8. Wald statistics show that all compassion predictor variables significantly predict employment in the Judicial Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of PSM.02.COMP occurring increase, the odds of the criterion variable outcome being employment in the Judicial Branch increase; as the odds of PSM.03.COMP occurring increase, the odds of the criterion variable outcome being employment in the Judicial Branch decrease; as the odds of PSM.04.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch increase; as the odds of PSM.08.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch increase; as the odds of PSM.10.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch decrease; as the odds of PSM.13.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public prosecutor decrease; as the odds of PSM.24.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch increase; and, as the odds of PSM.40.COMP occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch increase.

When compared to attorneys working in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PSM.02.COMP indicates that attorneys working in the Judicial Branch are 44.8% more likely to be motivated by compassion, PSM.03.COMP indicates that they are 29.8% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.04.COMP indicates that they are 23.9% more likely to be so motivated, PSM.08.COMP indicates that they are 17.5% more likely to be so motivated, PSM.10.COMP indicates that they are 26.9% less likely to be so motivated, PSM.13.COMP indicates that they are 63.1% more likely to be so motivated, PSM.24.COMP indicates that they are 33.4% more likely to be so motivated, and PSM.40.COMP indicates that they are 48.2% more likely to be motivated by compassion.

As noted at the outset of this subsection, the model is not a good fit for the data. For that reason, the study cannot draw reliable conclusions concerning the motivation of attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee based upon the Compassion Public Service Motivation predicator variables. This result calls the viability of the Public Service Motivation construct into question when applied to attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee.

Ho_6: Job Security is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

Job Security was measured according to the responses to the following question, coded Job.Sec: Job security is very important to me. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with that question on a five-point Likert-type scale. This is the predictor variable. The criterion variable is organization type. The respondents were asked to identify whether they were employed in prosecutor's offices, public defender's offices, legislative branch, the executive branch, the judicial branch, or the Attorney General &

Reporter's Office. The latter served as the reference category. The study conducted a logistic regression analysis to determine if this variable is a predictor of government agency employment among Tennessee attorneys. The SPSS output is presented in Table 5.9.

TABLE 5.9
SPSS Output for Predictor Job Security

Case Processing Summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.	Prosecutor	115	43.6%
	Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	43	16.3%
	Legislative Branch	7	2.7%
	Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	59	22.3%
	Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	12	4.5%
	Attorney General & Reporter	28	10.6%
Valid		264	100.0%
Missing		0	
Total		264	
Subpopulation		5[a]	

a. The dependent variable has only one value observed in 1 (20.0%) subpopulations.

Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria: -2 Log Likelihood	Likelihood Ratio Tests: Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	71.099			
Final	65.004	6.095	5	.297

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	11.674	15	.703
Deviance	13.932	15	.531

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.023
Nagelkerke	.024
McFadden	.008

Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria: -2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Likelihood Ratio Tests: Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept	98.730	33.726	5	.000
JOB.SEC_1	71.099	6.095	5	.297

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

Parameter Estimates

Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B): Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Prosecutor	Intercept	2.383	.566	17.710	1	.000			
	JOB.SEC_1	-.589	.306	3.712	1	.054	.555	.305	1.010
Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	Intercept	.569	.640	.790	1	.374			
	JOB.SEC_1	-.079	.335	.056	1	.813	.924	.479	1.780
Legislative Branch	Intercept	-.610	1.135	.289	1	.591			
	JOB.SEC_1	-.464	.655	.501	1	.479	.629	.174	2.272
Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	1.306	.610	4.584	1	.032			
	JOB.SEC_1	-.329	.327	1.013	1	.314	.719	.379	1.366
Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	.222	.934	.057	1	.812			
	JOB.SEC_1	-.655	.554	1.400	1	.237	.519	.175	1.537

a. The reference category is: Attorney General & Reporter.

The results indicate that the overall model was statistically reliable in distinguishing between the agency of employment among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee based upon a -2 Log Likelihood of 65.004 and Goodness of Fit of 11.674 ($\chi^2(5)=6.095$, $p<.297$). The low value on the -2 Log Likelihood and Goodness of Fit statistic indicate that the model is a good fit. Likewise, the significance level of the Goodness of Fit statistic supports the model fit. The pseudo R square statistics (Cox and Snell $R^2=0.23$; Nagelkerke $R^2=0.024$) indicate that the model accounts for 24% of the variance in the criterion variable.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for Prosecutors: Job.Sec (B=-0.589; S.E.=0.306; Wald=3.712; $p<0.054$; Exp(B)=0.555). Wald statistics show that the Job Security predictor variable significantly predicts employment outcome as a public prosecutor. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increases, the odds of employment as a public prosecutor decreases. When compared to attorneys working in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, this variable indicates that public prosecutors are 44.5% less likely to be motivated by Job Security.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for Public Defenders: Job.Sec (B=-0.079; S.E.=0.335; Wald=0.056; $p<0.813$; Exp(B)=0.924). Wald statistics show that the Job Security predictor variable significantly predicts employment as a public defender. Odds ratios reveal that when the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender occurring decreases. When compared to attorneys working in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, public defenders are 7.6% less likely to be motivated by Job Security.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Legislative Branch: Job.Sec (B=-0.464; S.E.=0.655; Wald=0.501; $p<0.479$; Exp(B)=0.629). Wald statistics show that the Job Security predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Legislative Branch. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Legislative Branch occurring decrease. When compared to attorney's working in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, attorneys employed in the Legislative Branch are 37.1% less likely to be motivated by job security.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Executive Branch: Job.Sec (*B*=-0.329; S.E.=0.327; Wald=1.013; p<0.314; Exp(*B*)=0.719). Wald statistics show that the Job Security predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Executive Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch occurring decrease. When compared to attorneys working in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, attorneys employed in the Executive Branch are 28.1% less likely to be motivated by job security.

Finally, the analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Judicial Branch: Job.Sec (*B*=-0.655; S.E.=0.554; Wald=1.400; p<0.237; Exp(*B*)=0.519). Wald statistics show that the Job Security predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Judicial Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch decrease. When compared to attorneys working for the Attorney General & Reporter, attorneys employed in the Judicial Branch are 48.1% less likely to be motivated by job security.

These statistics indicate that the predictor variable Job Security, which is not one on Public Service Motivation predictor variables, is useful in predicting employment outcomes among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. The model is a good fit for the data, and the variable is significant for all agencies. Attorneys who are motived by job security are more likely to work for the Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys employed as public defenders are slightly less motivated by job security than attorneys working for Attorney

General & Reporter. In contrast, attorneys employed as public prosecutors, in the Legislative Branch, the Executive Branch, and the Judicial Brach are considerably less likely to be motivated by job security than attorneys working for the Attorney General & Reporter.

Ho_7: High Income is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

High Income was measured according to the responses to the following question, coded HI.INC: High income is very important to me. Respondents were asked to indicated their level of agreement with that statement on a five-point Likert-type scale. This is the predictor variable. The criterion variable is organization type. The respondents were asked to identify whether they were employed in prosecutor's offices, public defender's offices, legislative branch, the executive branch, the judicial branch, or the Attorney General & Reporter's Office. The latter served as the reference category. The study conducted a logistic regression analysis to determine if this variable is a predictor of government agency employment among Tennessee attorneys. The SPSS output is presented in Table 5.10.

TABLE 5.10
SPSS Output for Predictor High Income

Case Processing Summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.	Prosecutor	115	43.6%
	Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	43	16.3%
	Legislative Branch	7	2.7%
	Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	59	22.3%
	Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	12	4.5%
	Attorney General & Reporter	28	10.6%
Valid		264	100.0%
Missing		0	
Total		264	
Subpopulation		6[a]	

a. The dependent variable has only one value observed in 2 (33.3%) subpopulations.

Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	89.659			
Final	84.724	4.934	5	.424

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	19.092	20	.516
Deviance	22.030	20	.339

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.019
Nagelkerke	.020
McFadden	.006

Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept	106.135	21.411	5	.001
HI.INC_1	89.659	4.934	5	.424

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

Parameter Estimates

Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
								Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Prosecutor	Intercept	2.401	.667	12.941	1	.000			
	HI.INC_1	-.353	.218	2.618	1	.106	.702	.458	1.077
Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	Intercept	1.223	.757	2.610	1	.106			
	HI.INC_1	-.280	.251	1.254	1	.263	.755	.462	1.234
Legislative Branch	Intercept	.945	1.182	.639	1	.424			
	HI.INC_1	-.918	.479	3.679	1	.055	.399	.156	1.020
Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	1.643	.718	5.232	1	.022			
	HI.INC_1	-.319	.237	1.811	1	.178	.727	.456	1.157
Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	.035	1.041	.001	1	.973			
	HI.INC_1	-.313	.356	.775	1	.379	.731	.364	1.468

a. The reference category is: Attorney General & Reporter.

The results indicate that the overall model was statistically reliable in distinguishing agency of employment among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee based upon a -2 Log Likelihood of 84.724 and Goodness of Fit of 19.092 ($\chi^2(5)=4.934$, $p<0.424$). The low value on the -2 Log Likelihood and Goodness of Fit statistic indicate that the model is a good fit. Likewise, the significance level reflects lack of significance, which supports the model fit. The pseudo R square statistics (Cox and Snell $R^2 = 0.19$; Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.020$) indicate that the model accounts for about 20% of the variance.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for Prosecutors: HI.INC (B=-0.353; S.E.=0.218; Wald=2.618; $p<0.106$; Exp(B)=0.702). Wald statistics show that the High Income predictor variables significantly predicts employment as a public prosecutor. Odds ratios reveal that, as the odds of High Income occurring, the odds of employment as a public prosecutor decrease. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, public prosecutors are 29.8% less likely to be motivated by high income.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for Public Defenders: HI.INC (*B*=-0.280; S.E.=0.251; Wald=1.254; $p<0.263$; Exp(*B*)=0.755). Wald statistics show that the High Income predictor variable significantly predicts employment as a public defender. Odds ratios indicate that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender decrease. When compared to attorneys working in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, public defenders are 24.5% less likely to be motivated by high income.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Legislative Branch: HI.INC (*B*=-0.918; S.E.=0.479; Wald=3.679; $p<0.055$; Exp(*B*)=0.399). Wald statistics show that the High Income predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Legislative Branch. Odds ratios indicate that as the odds of the predictor variable increase, the odds of employment in the Legislative Branch decrease. When compared to attorneys working in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, attorneys employed in the Legislative Branch are 60.1% less likely to be motivated by high income.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Executive Branch: HI.INC (*B*=-0.319; S.E.=0.237; Wald=1.811; $p<0.178$; Exp(*B*)=0.727). Wald statistics show that the High Income predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Executive Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios indicate that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch decrease. When compared to attorneys working in the

Attorney General & Reporter's office, attorneys in the Executive Branch are 27.3% less likely to be motivated by high income.

Finally, the analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Judicial Branch: HI.INC (*B*=-0.313; S.E.=0.356; Wald=0.775; $p<0.379$; Exp(*B*)=0.731). Wald statistics show that the High Income predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Judicial Branch. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch occurring decrease. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, attorneys in the Judicial Branch are 26.9% less likely to be motivated by high income.

These statistics indicate that the predictor variable High Income, which is not one on Public Service Motivation predictor variables, is useful in predicting employment outcomes among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. The model is a good fit for the data, and the variable is significant for all agencies. Attorneys who are motived by high income are more likely to work for the Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys employed as public defenders, public prosecutors, in the Executive Branch, and in the Judicial Branch are moderately less motivated by high income than attorneys working for Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys employed in the Legislative Branch, however, are considerably less likely to be motivated by high income than attorneys who working in the Attorney General & Reporter's office.

> **Ho_8: A Good Opportunity for Advancement is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.**

A Good Opportunity for Advancement was measured according to the respondents response to the following question, coded Promo1 and Promo 2, respectively:

> Good opportunities for advancement are very important to me.
>
> In the past two years, I have been treated fairly regarding opportunities for advancement.

Respondents indicated their agreement with these two statements on a five-point Likert-type scale. These are the predictor variables The criterion variable is organization type. The respondents were asked to identify whether they were employed in prosecutor's offices, public defender's offices, legislative branch, the executive branch, the judicial branch, or the Attorney General & Reporter's Office. The latter served as the reference category. The study conducted a logistic regression analysis to determine if this variable is a predictor of government agency employment among Tennessee attorneys. The SPSS output is presented in Table 5.11.

TABLE 5.11
SPSS Output for Predictor Opportunity for Advancement

Case Processing Summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.	Prosecutor	115	43.6%
	Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	43	16.3%
	Legislative Branch	7	2.7%
	Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	59	22.3%
	Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	12	4.5%
	Attorney General & Reporter	28	10.6%
Valid		264	100.0%
Missing		0	
Total		264	
Subpopulation		20[a]	

a. The dependent variable has only one value observed in 3 (15.0%) subpopulations.

Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	219.566			
Final	197.231	22.335	10	.013

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	86.630	85	.430
Deviance	83.480	85	.526

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.081
Nagelkerke	.086
McFadden	.029

Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria: -2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Likelihood Ratio Tests: Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept	215.667	18.436	5	.002
PROMO1_1	209.959	12.728	5	.026
PROMO2_1	205.887	8.656	5	.124

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

Parameter Estimates

Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B): Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Prosecutor	Intercept	3.060	.872	12.325	1	.000			
	PROMO1_1	-.502	.265	3.591	1	.058	.605	.360	1.017
	PROMO2_1	-.217	.210	1.067	1	.302	.805	.533	1.215
Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	Intercept	1.086	.983	1.221	1	.269			
	PROMO1_1	-.042	.290	.021	1	.886	.959	.543	1.695
	PROMO2_1	-.218	.245	.795	1	.373	.804	.497	1.299
Legislative Branch	Intercept	1.688	1.592	1.124	1	.289			
	PROMO1_1	-.845	.624	1.835	1	.176	.430	.126	1.459
	PROMO2_1	-.547	.441	1.538	1	.215	.579	.244	1.374
Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	2.038	.971	4.408	1	.036			
	PROMO1_1	-.834	.313	7.092	1	.008	.434	.235	.802
	PROMO2_1	.153	.223	.474	1	.491	1.166	.753	1.804
Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	1.192	1.376	.750	1	.386			
	PROMO1_1	-.727	.488	2.216	1	.137	.483	.186	1.259
	PROMO2_1	-.197	.334	.347	1	.556	.822	.427	1.581

a. The reference category is: Attorney General & Reporter.

The results indicate that the overall model was not statistically reliable in distinguishing between agency of employment among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee, based upon a -2 Log Likelihood of 197.231 and Goodness of Fit of 86.630 ($\chi^2(10)=22.335$, p<.013). The high values on the -2 Log Likelihood and Goodness of Fit test indicate that the model is not a good fit. Likewise, the significance level, which reveals significance at the 99% confidence level, indicates that the model is not a good fit. The pseudo R square statistics (Cox and Snell $R^2 = 0.081$; Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.086$) indicate that the model accounts for about 8% of the observed variance.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for Prosecutors: PROMO1 (B=-0.502; S.E.=0.265; Wald=3.591; $p<0.058$; Exp(B)=0.605) and PROMO2 (B=-0.217; S.E.=0.210; Wald=1.067; $p<0.302$; Exp(B)=0.805). Wald statistics show that both opportunity for advancement predictor variables significantly predict employment as a public prosecutor among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios indicated for both variables that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public prosecutor decrease. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PROMO1 indicates that public prosecutors are 39.5% less likely to be motivated by an opportunity to advancement and PROMO2 indicates that they are 19.5% less likely to be so motivated.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for Public Defenders: PROMO1 (B=-0.042; S.E.=0.290; Wald=0.021; $p<0.886$; Exp(B)=0.959) and PROMO2 (B=-0.218; S.E.=0.245; Wald=0.795; $p<0.373$; Exp(B)=0.804). Wald statistics show that both opportunity for advancement variables significantly predict employment as a public defender among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios indicate for both predictor variables that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender occurring decrease. When compared to attorneys working in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PROMO1 indicates that public defenders are 4.1% less likely to be motivated by an opportunity for advancement and PROMO2 indicates that they are 19.6% less likely to be so motivated.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Legislative Branch: PROMO1 (*B*=-0.845; S.E.=0.624; Wald=1.835; $p<0.176$; Exp(*B*)=0.430) and PROMO2 (*B*=-0.547; S.E.=0.441; Wald=1.538; $p<0.215$; Exp(*B*)=0.579). Wald statistics show that both opportunity-for-advancement predictor variables significantly predict employment in the Legislative Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios indicate for both predictor variables that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Legislative Branch occurring decrease. When compared to attorneys working in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PROMO1 indicates that Legislative Branch attorneys are 57% less likely to be motivated by an opportunity for advancement and PROMO2 indicates that they are 42.1% less likely to be so motivated.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Executive Branch: PROMO1 (*B*=-0.834; S.E.=0.313; Wald=7.092; $p<0.008$; Exp(*B*)=0.434) and PROMO2 (*B*=0.153; S.E.=0.223; Wald=0.474; $p<0.491$; Exp(*B*)=1.166). Wald statistics show that both opportunity-for-advancement predictor variables significantly predict employment in the Executive Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios indicate that as the odds of PROMO1 occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch occurring decreases, and as the odds of PROMO2 occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch occurring increase. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PROMO1 indicates that Executive Branch attorneys are 56.6% less likely to be motivated by an opportunity for advancement and PROMO2 indicates that they are 16.6% less likely to be so motivated.

Finally, the analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Judicial Branch: PROMO1 (B=-0.727; S.E.=0.488; Wald=2.216; $p<0.137$; Exp(B)=0.483) and PROMO2 (B=-0.197; S.E.=0.334; Wald=0.347; $p<0.556$; Exp(B)=0.822). Wald statistics show that both opportunity-for-advancement predictor variables significantly predict employment in the Judicial Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios indicate for both predictor variables that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch occurring decrease. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, PROMO1 indicates that attorneys working in the Judicial Branch are 51.7% less likely to be motivated by an opportunity for advancement and PROMO2 indicates that they are 17.8% less likely to be so motivated.

As noted at the outset of this subsection, the model is not a good fit for the data. For that reason, the study cannot draw reliable conclusions concerning whether attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee based are motivated by an opportunity for advancement.

Ho_9: An Interesting Job is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

An Interesting Job was measured according to the responses to the following questions, coded as INT.JOB: Having an interesting job is very important to me. Respondents indicated the extent to which they agree or disagree with that statement along a five-point Likert-type scale. This is the predictor variable. The criterion variable is organization type. The respondents were asked to identify whether they were employed in prosecutor's offices, public defender's offices, legislative branch, the executive branch, the judicial branch, or the Attorney General & Reporter's Office. The latter served as the reference category. The study conducted a logistic regression analysis to determine if this variable is a predictor of government agency employment among Tennessee attorneys. The SPSS output is presented in Table 5.12.

TABLE 5.12
SPSS Output for Predictor Interesting Job

Case Processing Summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.	Prosecutor	115	43.6%
	Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	43	16.3%
	Legislative Branch	7	2.7%
	Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	59	22.3%
	Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	12	4.5%
	Attorney General & Reporter	28	10.6%
Valid		264	100.0%
Missing		0	
Total		264	
Subpopulation		5[a]	

a. The dependent variable has only one value observed in 2 (40.0%) subpopulations.

Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria: -2 Log Likelihood	Likelihood Ratio Tests: Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	63.529			
Final	59.944	3.585	5	.611

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	13.791	15	.541
Deviance	15.701	15	.402

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.013
Nagelkerke	.014
McFadden	.005

Likelihood Ratio Tests

	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
Effect	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept	94.083	34.139	5	.000
INT.JOB_1	63.529	3.585	5	.611

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

Parameter Estimates

Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B) Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B) Upper Bound
Prosecutor	Intercept	1.969	.557	12.494	1	.000			
	INT.JOB_1	-.389	.351	1.226	1	.268	.678	.341	1.349
Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	Intercept	.864	.643	1.804	1	.179			
	INT.JOB_1	-.301	.409	.539	1	.463	.740	.332	1.652
Legislative Branch	Intercept	-1.097	1.121	.958	1	.328			
	INT.JOB_1	-.198	.720	.076	1	.783	.820	.200	3.364
Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	1.282	.609	4.435	1	.035			
	INT.JOB_1	-.375	.388	.931	1	.335	.688	.321	1.472
Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	-1.433	.883	2.636	1	.104			
	INT.JOB_1	.371	.505	.539	1	.463	1.449	.538	3.903

a. The reference category is: Attorney General & Reporter.

The results indicate that the overall model was statistically reliable in distinguishing agency of employment among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee, based upon a -2 Log Likelihood of 59.944 and Goodness of Fit of 13.791 ($\chi^2(5)=3.585$, $p<0.611$). The low value on the -2 Log Likelihood and Goodness of Fit statistic indicate that the model is a good fit. The significance level of the Goodness of Fit also supports the fit of the model. The pseudo R square statistics (Cox and Snell $R^2 = 0.13$; Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.014$) indicate that the model predicts about 1.4% of the observed variance in the criterion variable.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for Prosecutors: INT.JOB (B=-0.389; S.E.=0.351; Wald=1.226; p<0.268; Exp(B)=0.678). Wald statistics show that the Interesting Job predictor variable significantly predicts employment as a public prosecutor among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public prosecutor occurring decrease. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, public prosecutors are 32.2% less likely to be motivated by an interesting job.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for Public Defenders: INT.JOB (B=-0.031; S.E.=0.409; Wald=0.539; p<0.463; Exp(B)=0.740). Wald statistics show that the Interesting Job predictor variable significantly predicts employment as a public defender among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender decrease. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, public defenders are 26% less likely to be motivated by an interesting job.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Legislative Branch: INT.JOB (B=-0.198; S.E.=0.720; Wald=0.076; p<0.783; Exp(B)=0.820). Wald statistics show that the Interesting Job predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Legislative Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios indicate that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increases, the odds of employment in the Legislative Branch occurring decreases. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, Legislative Branch employees are 18% less likely to be motivated by an interesting job.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Executive Branch: INT.JOB (B=-0.375; S.E.=0.388; Wald=0.931; $p<0.335$; Exp(B)=0.688). Wald statistics show that the Interesting Job predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Executive Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios indicate that, as the odds of the predictor variable Interesting Job occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch decreases. When compared to the Attorney General & Reporter's office, Executive Branch attorneys are 31.2% less likely to be motivated by an interesting job.

Finally, the analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Judicial Branch: INT.JOB (B=0.371; S.E.=0.505; Wald=0.539; $p<0.463$; Exp(B)=1.449). Wald statistics show that the Interesting Job predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Judicial Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios indicate that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch occurring increase. When compared to the Attorney General & Reporter's office, attorneys working in the Judicial Branch are 44.9% more likely to be motivated by an interesting job.

These statistics indicate that the predictor variable Interesting Job, which is not one of the Public Service Motivation predictor variables, is useful in predicting employment outcomes among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. The model is a good fit for the data, and the variable is significant for all agencies and departments. The results indicate that attorneys who are motived by an interesting job are more likely to work for the Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys employed as public defenders and in the Legislative Branch are slightly less motivated by having an interesting job than attorneys working for Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys employed as public prosecutors, in the Executive Branch, and the Judicial Branch are moderately less likely to be motivated by having an interesting job than attorneys who work in the Attorney General & Reporter's office.

Ho_{11}: A Job that Allows Someone to Help Other People is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

The preference for a job that allows someone to help other people was measured by responses to the following question, coded HELP.OP1: Having a job that allows me to help other people is very important to me. The respondents indicated their level of agreement or disagreement with that statement on a five-point Likert-type scale. This is the predictor variable. The criterion variable is organization type. The respondents were asked to identify whether they were employed in prosecutor's offices, public defender's offices, legislative branch, the executive branch, the judicial branch, or the Attorney General & Reporter's Office. The latter served as the reference category. The study conducted a logistic regression analysis to determine if this variable is a predictor of government agency employment among Tennessee attorneys. The SPSS output is presented in Table 5.13.

TABLE 5.13
SPSS Output for Predictor Help Other People

Case Processing Summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.	Prosecutor	115	43.6%
	Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	43	16.3%
	Legislative Branch	7	2.7%
	Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	59	22.3%
	Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	12	4.5%
	Attorney General & Reporter	28	10.6%
Valid		264	100.0%
Missing		0	
Total		264	
Subpopulation		5[a]	

a. The dependent variable has only one value observed in 2 (40.0%) subpopulations.

Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	86.722			
Final	71.229	15.492	5	.008

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	21.463	15	.123
Deviance	23.074	15	.083

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.057
Nagelkerke	.060
McFadden	.020

Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria -2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Likelihood Ratio Tests Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept	114.932	43.703	5	.000
HELP.OP1_1	86.722	15.492	5	.008

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

Parameter Estimates

Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B) Lower Bound	 Upper Bound
Prosecutor	Intercept	2.703	.665	16.537	1	.000			
	HELP.OP1_1	-.697	.326	4.584	1	.032	.498	.263	.943
Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	Intercept	2.396	.753	10.119	1	.001			
	HELP.OP1_1	-1.112	.394	7.955	1	.005	.329	.152	.712
Legislative Branch	Intercept	-.119	1.264	.009	1	.925			
	HELP.OP1_1	-.684	.673	1.031	1	.310	.505	.135	1.889
Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	1.272	.717	3.147	1	.076			
	HELP.OP1_1	-.271	.346	.613	1	.434	.762	.387	1.503
Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	-1.585	1.114	2.024	1	.155			
	HELP.OP1_1	.354	.501	.500	1	.479	1.425	.534	3.802

a. The reference category is: Attorney General & Reporter.

The results indicate that the overall model was statistically reliable in distinguishing between agency of employment among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee, based upon a -2 Log Likelihood of 71.229 and Goodness of Fit of 21.463 ($\chi^2(5)=15.492$, $p<.008$). The low value on the -2 Log Likelihood and Goodness of Fits statistic indicate that the model is a good fit. The significance level of the Goodness of Fit statistic also supports the model fit. The pseudo R square statistics (Cox and Snell $R^2 = 0.057$; Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.060$) indicate that the model accounts for 6% of the variance observed in the criterion variable.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for Prosecutors: HELP.OP1 (B=-0.697; S.E.=0.326; Wald=4.584; $p<0.032$; Exp(B)=0.498). Wald statistics show that the Help-Other-People predictor variable significantly predicts employment as a public prosecutor among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public prosecutor decrease. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, public prosecutors are 50.2% less likely to be motivated by a job that allows them to help other people.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for Public Defenders: HELP.OP1 (B=-1.112; S.E.=0.394; Wald=7.955; $p<0.005$; Exp(B)=0.329). Wald statistics show that the Help-Other-People predictor variable significantly predicts employment as a public defender among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender occurring decrease. When compared to attorneys working in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, public defenders are 67.1% less likely to be motivated by having a job that allows them to help other people.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Legislative Branch: HELP.OP1 (B=-0.684; S.E.=0.673; Wald=1.031; $p<0.310$; Exp(B)=0.505). Wald statistics show that the Help-Other-People predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Legislative Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increases, the odds of employment in the Legislative Branch decreases. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, Legislative Branch attorneys are 49.5% less likely to be motivated by having a job that allows them to help other people.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Executive Branch: HELP.OP1 (B=-0.271; S.E.=0.346; Wald=0.613; $p<0.434$; Exp(B)=0.762). Wald statistics show that the Help-Other-People predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Executive Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch occurring decreases. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, Executive Branch attorneys are 23.8% less likely to be motivated by having a job that gives them the opportunity to help other people.

Finally, the analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Judicial Branch: HELP.OP1 (B=0.354; S.E.=0.501; Wald=0.500; $p<0.479$; Exp(B)=1.425). Wald statistics show that the Help-Other-People predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Judicial Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that, as the odds of the predictor variable increases, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch increases. When compared to attorneys working in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, Judicial Branch attorneys are 42.5% more likely to be motivated by having a job that enables them to help other people.

These statistics indicate that the predictor variable Help Other People, which is not one on Public Service Motivation predictor variables, is useful in predicting employment outcomes among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. The model is a good fit for the data, and the variable is significant for all agencies. Attorneys who are motived by high income are more likely to work for the Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys employed as in the Legislative Branch, the Executive Branch, the Judicial Branch are moderately less motivated by high income than attorneys working for Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys employed in as public prosecutors and public defenders are considerably less likely to be motivated by high income than attorneys who working in the Attorney General & Reporter's office.

Ho_{12}: A Job that is Useful to Society is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

The respondents were asked to identify whether they were employed in prosecutor's offices, public defender's offices, legislative branch, the executive branch, the judicial branch, or the Attorney General & Reporter's Office. The latter served as the reference category. The study conducted a logistic regression analysis to determine if this variable is a predictor of government agency employment among Tennessee attorneys. The SPSS output is presented in Table 5.14.

TABLE 5.14
SPSS Output for Predictor Useful to Society

Case Processing Summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.	Prosecutor	115	43.6%
	Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	43	16.3%
	Legislative Branch	7	2.7%
	Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	59	22.3%
	Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	12	4.5%
	Attorney General & Reporter	28	10.6%
Valid		264	100.0%
Missing		0	
Total		264	
Subpopulation		4	

Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	84.428			
Final	63.816	20.612	5	.001

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	12.257	10	.268
Deviance	15.424	10	.117

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.075
Nagelkerke	.079
McFadden	.027

Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	Df	Sig.
Intercept	118.197	54.380	5	.000
USEFUL.SOC_1	84.428	20.612	5	.001

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

Parameter Estimates

Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B)	
								Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Prosecutor	Intercept	3.586	.702	26.083	1	.000			
	USEFUL.SOC_1	-1.190	.344	11.989	1	.001	.304	.155	.597
Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	Intercept	2.398	.787	9.294	1	.002			
	USEFUL.SOC_1	-1.064	.397	7.180	1	.007	.345	.158	.751
Legislative Branch	Intercept	.967	1.285	.567	1	.452			
	USEFUL.SOC_1	-1.303	.730	3.181	1	.075	.272	.065	1.138
Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	1.615	.737	4.805	1	.028			
	USEFUL.SOC_1	-.441	.349	1.592	1	.207	.644	.325	1.276
Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	-.900	1.099	.670	1	.413			
	USEFUL.SOC_1	.025	.502	.003	1	.960	1.026	.384	2.742

a. The reference category is: Attorney General & Reporter.

The results indicate that the overall model was statistically reliable in distinguishing between agency of employment among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee, based upon a -2 Log Likelihood of 63.816 and Goodness of Fit of 12.257 ($\chi^2(5)=20.612$, $p<.001$). The low value on the -2 Log Likelihood and the Goodness of Fit statistic indicate that the model is a good fit. However, the significance level of the Goodness of Fit statistic indicates that the model is not a good fit. When the model is a good fit, the Goodness of Fit statistic is expected to be insignificant. The pseudo R square statistics (Cox and Snell $R^2 = 0.075$; Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.079$) indicate that the model accounts for 7% of the variance observed in the criterion variable.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for Prosecutors: USEFUL.SOC (*B*=-1.190; S.E.=0.344; Wald=11.989; p<0.001; Exp(*B*)=0.304). Wald statistics show that the Useful-to-Society predictor variable significantly predicts employment as a public prosecutor among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios indicate that, as odds of the predictor variable occurring increases, the odds of employment as a public prosecutor decreases. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney Genreal & Reporter's office, public prosecutors are 69.6% less likely to be motivated by having a job that is useful to society.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for Public Defenders: USEFUL.SOC (*B*=-10.64; S.E.=0.397; Wald=7.180; p<0.007; Exp(*B*)=0.345). Wald statistics show that the Useful-to-Society predictor variable significantly predicts employment as a public defender among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios indicate that, as the odds of thep predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender occurring decrease. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, public defenders are 65.5% less likely to be motivated by having a job that is useful to society.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Legislative Branch: USEFUL.SOC (*B*=-1.303; S.E.=0.730; Wald=3.181; p<0.075; Exp(*B*)=0.272). Wald statistics show that the Useful-to-Society predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Legislative Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Legislative Branch occurring decreases. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, Legislative Branch attorneys are 72.8% less likely to be motivated by having a job that is useful to society.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Executive Branch: USEFUL.SOC (*B*=-0.441; S.E.=0.349; Wald=1.592; $p<0.207$; Exp(*B*)=0.644). Wald statistics show that the Useful-to-Society predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Executive Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch occurring decrease. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, Judicial Branch attorneys are 35.6% less likely to be motivated by having a job that is useful to society.

Finally, the analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Judicial Branch: USEFUL.SOC (*B*=0.025; S.E.=0.502; Wald=0.003; $p<0.960$; Exp(*B*)=1.026). Wald statistics show that the Useful-to-Society predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Judicial Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios indicate that, as the odd of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch increase. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General & Reporter's office, Judicial Branch attorneys are 2.6% more likely to be motivated by having a job that is useful to society.

As noted at the beginning of this subsection, the goodness of fit statistic returned conflicting results with one statistic indicated that the model is a good fit and another indicating that the model is not a good fit. Under these circumstances, the study cannot draw reliable conclusions related to the Useful to Society predictor variable.

Ho_{13}: A Job with Flexible Working Hours is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

The preference for a job with flexible working hours was measured according to the responses to the following question, coded FLEX.HRS: Having a job with flexible work hours is very important to me. This is the predictor variable. The criterion variable is organization type. The respondents were asked to identify whether they were employed in prosecutor's offices, public defender's offices, legislative branch, the executive branch, the judicial branch, or the Attorney General & Reporter's Office. The latter served as the reference category. The study conducted a logistic regression analysis to determine if this variable is a predictor of government agency employment among Tennessee attorneys. The SPSS output is presented in Table 5.15.

TABLE 5.15
SPSS Output for Predictor Flexible Hours

Case Processing Summary

		N	Marginal Percentage
Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.	Prosecutor	115	43.6%
	Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	43	16.3%
	Legislative Branch	7	2.7%
	Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	59	22.3%
	Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	12	4.5%
	Attorney General & Reporter	28	10.6%
Valid		264	100.0%
Missing		0	
Total		264	
Subpopulation		5[a]	

a. The dependent variable has only one value observed in 1 (20.0%) subpopulations.

Model Fitting Information

Model	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	83.778			
Final	82.270	1.508	5	.912

Goodness-of-Fit

	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	18.759	15	.225
Deviance	20.171	15	.165

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.006
Nagelkerke	.006
McFadden	.002

Likelihood Ratio Tests

Effect	Model Fitting Criteria	Likelihood Ratio Tests		
	-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Model	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept	109.870	27.600	5	.000
FLX.HRS_1	83.778	1.508	5	.912

The chi-square statistic is the difference in -2 log-likelihoods between the final model and a reduced model. The reduced model is formed by omitting an effect from the final model. The null hypothesis is that all parameters of that effect are 0.

Parameter Estimates

Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B) Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B) Upper Bound
Prosecutor	Intercept	1.292	.558	5.354	1	.021			
	FLX.HRS_1	.058	.249	.054	1	.817	1.059	.651	1.725
Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender	Intercept	.031	.650	.002	1	.962			
	FLX.HRS_1	.186	.284	.430	1	.512	1.205	.691	2.101
Legislative Branch	Intercept	-2.425	1.196	4.114	1	.043			
	FLX.HRS_1	.463	.475	.947	1	.330	1.588	.626	4.031
Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	.504	.611	.680	1	.409			
	FLX.HRS_1	.114	.270	.180	1	.671	1.121	.661	1.902
Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender)	Intercept	-1.363	.937	2.118	1	.146			
	FLX.HRS_1	.239	.397	.363	1	.547	1.270	.583	2.764

a. The reference category is: Attorney General & Reporter.

The results indicate that the overall model was statistically reliable in distinguishing between agency of employment among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee, based upon a -2 Log Likelihood of 82.270 and Goodness of Fit of 18.759 ($\chi^2(5)=1.508$, $p<0.912$). The low value on the -2 Log Likelihood and Goodness of Fit statistic indicate that the model is a good fit. The goodness of fit is also supported by the significance level of the Goodness of Fit statistic. The pseudo R square statistics (Cox and Snell $R^2 = 0.006$; Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.006$) indicate that the model accounts for less than one percent of the variance observed on the criterion variable.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for Prosecutors: FLEX.HRS (B=0.058; S.E.=0.249; Wald=0.054; p<0.817; Exp(B)=1.059). Wald statistics show that the Flexible- Hours predictor variables significantly predicts employment as a public prosecutor among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios indicate that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public prosecutor occurring increase. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General's office, public prosecutors are 5.9% more likely to be motivated by flexible hours.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for Public Defenders: FLEX.HRS (*B*=0.186; S.E.=0.284; Wald=0.430; $p<0.512$; Exp(*B*)=1.205). Wald statistics show that the Flexible-Hours predictor variable significantly predicts employment as a public defender among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that, as the odds of the predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment as a public defender increases. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General's office, public defenders are 20.5% more likely to be motivated by flexible hours.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Legislative Branch: FLEX.HRS (*B*=0.463; S.E.=0.475; Wald=0.947; $p<0.330$; Exp(*B*)=1.588). Wald statistics show that the Flexible-Hours predictor variable significantly predict employment in the Legislative Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios reveal that as the odds of the predictor variable Flexible Hours increases the odds of employment in the Legislative Branch occurring increases. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General's office, Legislative Branch attorneys are 58.8% more likely to be motivated by flexible hours.

The analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Executive Branch: FLEX.HRS (*B*=0.114; S.E.=0.270; Wald=0.180; $p<0.671$; Exp(*B*)=1.121). Wald statistics show that the Flexible-Hours predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Executive Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios indicate that, as the odds of the predictor variable Flexible Hours occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Executive Branch occurring increases. When compared to attorneys the Attorney General's Office, Executive Branch employees are 12.1% more likely to be motivated by flexible hours.

Finally, the analysis produced the following regression coefficients for the Judicial Branch: FLEX.HRS (B=0.239; S.E.=0.397; Wald=0.363; $p<0.547$; Exp(B)=1.270). Wald statistics show that the Flexible-Hours predictor variable significantly predicts employment in the Judicial Branch among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Odds ratios indicate that, as the odds of the Flexible Hours predictor variable occurring increase, the odds of employment in the Judicial Branch occurring increase. When compared to attorneys in the Attorney General's office, Judicial Branch attorneys are 27% more likely to be motivated by flexible working hours.

These statistics indicate that the predictor variable Flexible Hours, which is not one on Public Service Motivation predictor variables, is useful in predicting employment outcomes among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. The model is a good fit for the data, and the variable is significant for all agencies. Attorneys who are motived by flexible working hours are more likely to work for the Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys employed as public prosecutors and in the Executive Branch are slightly less likely to be motivated by flexible working hours than attorneys working for the Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys who work as public defenders and in the Judicial Branch are moderately less likely to be motivated by flexible working hours that attorneys who work for the Attorney General & Reporter. Finally, attorneys who work in the Legislative Branch are considerably less likely to be motivated by flexible working hours than attorneys who work in the Attorney General & Reporter's office.

F. Conclusions

The results of this statistical analysis call the viability of the Public Service Motivation construct into question. The construct was not a good fit for the data. All three components of the construct that were tested—attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, and compassion—reflect this result. In contrast, several predictor variables drawn from other employment motivation literature—provide a valuable public service, job security, high income, an interesting job, helping other people, and flexible working hours—are effective predictors of employment outcomes among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Two other non-Public Service Motivation predictor variables—opportunity for advancement and a job that is useful to society—were not a good fit for the data.

As a practical matter, when seeking to attract, retain, and motivate employees, the Attorney General & Reporter should focus its efforts on providing its attorneys with opportunities to provide a valuable public service, job security, high incomes, interesting jobs, opportunities to help other people, and flexible working hours. Attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, and compassion need not be matters of concern. The same holds true for the other branches of government included in the study, albeit to a lesser extent. District Attorneys General and District Public Defenders should look to opportunities for providing a valuable public service, job security, high incomes, an interesting job, opportunities to help other people, and flexible working hours when seeking to attract, retain, and motivate their attorneys. Except for providing a valuable public service, which is not a significant motivator for them, the Legislative Branch, Executive Branch, and Judicial Branch should seek to leverage the same factors while affording little, if any, consideration to the Public Service Motivation construct.

CHAPTER V

QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

A. Introduction

This chapter presents the qualitative data and analysis. The survey included five open-ended questions to provide a qualitative component to complement the quantitative analysis. The respondents' answers are analyzed using a qualitative content analysis process that draws upon several fields of study (Babbie 2007; Willig 2003; Weber 1990; Krippendorff 1980), particularly grounded theory (Willig 2003: 145; Thornberg and Charmaz 2003), phenomenological analysis (Willig 2003: 143), and content analysis (Schreier 2003). Content analysis has been used in public administration research (Bingham and Bowen 1994; Miller and Whicker 1999; Moynihan 2006; Borins 1995; Candler 2006; Sun and Lin 2014). Content analysis is a process that begins with the definition of the units of analysis and classification categories and proceeds through data coding and analysis. This study analyzes the respondents' words and phrases and places them into categories drawn from the public service motivation literature. It allows for analysis of the results according to the prominence of the answers as a percentage of the responses received.

B. Coding and Analysis

The open-ended questions asked respondents to provide information concerning their work motives and preferences. This study coded the data using categories generated by the public service motivation theory literature (Babbie 2007: 385). It began with open coding, a process in which the responses are reviewed to identify the core concept reflected by the answer (Id.). After open coding, the study will proceed to axial coding. Axial coding seeks to distill the primary analytical concepts from the core concepts (Id. at 386). The study presents the results for each question first, and then proceeds to analyze the data as it relates to the thirteen hypotheses the study examines. The questions are:

> Q54. Please explain the reasons you first went to work for the state of Tennessee.
>
> Q55. In answering the following question, please consider your salary and benefits; work environment; job characteristics and responsibilities; managers, supervisors, and co-workers; mission; work hours; opportunities for training and advancement; and any other characteristics of your employment. If you could change one thing about your current employment, what would it be? Please explain your answer.
>
> Q56. How would you design your own job to make yourself more effective and efficient?
>
> Q57. What motivates you to be the best employee you can be?
>
> Q58. What prevents you from being the best employee you can be?

The study evaluates the responses to these questions for insight into public service motivation among public sector attorneys in Tennessee.

Q54. Please explain the reasons you first went to work for the State of Tennessee.

The survey asked respondents to explain their motivation for going to work for the State of Tennessee. The researcher categorized the data generated by Question 54 in three rounds of coding. The first round of coding identified the response categories and placed each response into the appropriate category. The second and third rounds of coding reviewed and analyzed each response to ensure that it was placed in the appropriate category. Finally, the study generated descriptive statistics of the responses.

The first round of coding identified the following twenty categories: Job, Public Service, Mission, Change, Geography, Experience, Recruited, Multi, Idiopathic, Prior Experience, Job Security, Interesting Work, Subject Matter, Good Opportunity, Good Working Hours, Benefits, Stability, Income Security, Environmental, and Luck. In the second and third rounds of coding, the categories were refined and combined to produce the following final thirteen categories: Public Service, Job, Mission, Multi, Subject Matter, Experience, Geography, Benefits, Change, Recruited, Income Security, Job Security, and Miscellaneous. The study defines these categories as follows:

Public Service. Responses in the Public Service category express a desire to make a difference in the community, to help others, to pursue justice, to work in government, or to work in politics and public policy. They reflect the motives identified by Perry and others as typical of public service motivation.

Job. Responses in the Job category express a desire or need to be employed without reference to the nature or characteristics of the job. Many of the respondents state that the state of Tennessee provided their first job offer, or they described their motivation generally as accepting an "opportunity."

Mission. Responses in the Mission category express a particular attraction to the mission of the agency of employment. For example, a respondent employed by the Department of Children's Services stated a desire to help children and families in need. This category also includes public prosecutors, who state a desire to be a prosecutor or to seek justice for crime victims, and public defenders, who state a desire to be a public defender or to work for indigent criminal defendants.

Subject. Responses in the Subject category express a desire to work in a particular field or specialty. Often, the responses state the preference generically as "the field" or "the work." But some responses state the preference more particularly, such as "criminal justice."

Experience. Responses in the Experience category express a desire to pursue a particular type of experience or generally "professional development" and "learning." The respondents seeking a particular type of experience include those seeking "trial experience."

Geography. Responses in the Geography category express a desire to relocate to Tennessee from another state.

Benefits. Responses in the Benefits category specifically mention insurance benefits.

Change. Responses in the Change category express either a desire to switch employment sectors from the private sector to the public sector or a general disdain for their previous employer.

Recruited. Responses in the Recruited category express a motivation to work for the State of Tennessee based upon affirmative steps by the employer to attract them to their agency, either through official channels or peers.

Income Security. Responses in the Income Security category express a desire for stable income as opposed to the uncertainty and risk of other job opportunities.

Job Security. Responses in the Job Security category express desire for stability in employment.

Miscellaneous. Responses in the Miscellaneous category express various motivations that either did not fit easily into any other category or were not prevalent enough to justify an individual category. This category includes the following responses: (1) "luck;" (2) "I got tired of the brightest legal minds being defense attorneys;" (3) collegiality of the office; (4) uniqueness of the job opportunity; and (5) working hours or work-life balance. Here, uniqueness is included because it conveys a distinguishable sentiment than those who received only one job offer or a generic opportunity.

Multiple Responses. Responses in the multiple responses category express more than one reason for seeking employment with the State of Tennessee. Responses in this category include, among others, the following combinations of other categories: (1) experience and geography; (2) meaning and benefits; (3) public service and job; and (4) public service and geography. Several responses in this category identified three or more motivators, including the following combinations: (1) meaning, subject, and benefits; (2) income, mission, and geography; (3) experience, income, and benefits, (4) and public service, benefits, and job security.

Upon completion of the coding and analysis process, the study generated the following results. The survey received 277 responses, of which 206 included responses to this question. This represents a response rate of 74.3 percent. The four most prominent categories are Multi (n=48, 0.233), Mission (n=38, 0.184), Public Service (n=36, 0.174), and Job (n=25, 0.121). The next two most prominent categories are Subject (n=15, 0.073) and Experience (n=11, 0.053). Finally, the remaining categories, which individually failed to generate more than a three-percent response rate, are Miscellaneous (n=7, 0.033), Recruited (n=6, 0.03), Change (n=5, 0.024), Job Security (n=4, 0.019), Income Security (n=3, 0.015), Geography (n=3, 0.015), and Benefits (n=2, 0.01).

These results lead to several observations. First, the majority of respondents (0.713) fall within four major categories, namely Multi, Mission, Public Service, and Job. The prominence of the Multi category indicates that, in many instances, an employee's motivation for accepting employment with the state of Tennessee is multi-faceted and complex. The varied combinations of motivations revealed by this category demonstrates that motivation is very much an idiopathic concept. This conclusion is buttressed by the existence of 13 different categories, one of which is a miscellaneous category comprised of seven different responses.

Second, the prominence of the Public Service and Mission categories supports the existence of public service motivation among lawyers employed by the State of Tennessee. Combined, these categories demonstrate that thirty-five percent (n=77) of the respondents accepted employment expressly because of a public service motivation. Additionally, twenty-two of the responses in the Multi category include either public service or mission as one of the identified motivators. Thus, almost half of the attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee (n=99, 0.481) were motivated in the first instance, either primarily or partially, by a public service motivation.

Third, Job Security, Income Security, and Benefits do not appear to be major motivational factors among attorneys entering employment for the state of Tennessee until the responses in the Multi category are fully considered. Of the responses in the Multi category, twenty-eight included a reference to job security, income security, benefits, or a combination of the three. Overall, thirty-seven respondents (0.18) indicated that job security, income security, and benefits motivate them.

Q55. In answering the following question, please consider your salary and benefits; work environment; job characteristics and responsibilities; managers, supervisors, and co-workers; mission; work hours; opportunities for training and advancement; and any other characteristics of your employment. If you could change one thing about your current employment, what would it be? Please explain your answer.

The survey asked respondents to identify one change that they would make to their employment, if empowered to do so. The study coded the data in three rounds of coding. Initially, the study identified the following 22 categories: Multi, Salary, Resources, Civil Service System, Executive Service System, Inter-Office Transfer, Collegiality, Public Policy Environment, Management, Task, Staffing, Professional Advancement, Training, Workload, Client Interaction, Office Environment, Nothing, Flexible Vacation Time, Geography, Flexible Work Hours, Telecommuting, and Mission. After reviewing and revising the categories, the study settled on the following 14 categories: Management, Multi, Nothing, Salary, Staffing, Training, Workload, Benefits, Job Characteristics, Resources, Public Policy Environment, Professional Advancement, Miscellaneous, and Collegiality. These categories are defined as follows.

Management. Responses in the Management category express changes that relate to the manner in which the office, agency, or department is managed. The responses range from general issues with bosses or supervisors to issues such as micromanaging, autonomy, communication, office politics, feedback, assignments, and performance evaluations.

Multi. Responses in the Multi category express more than one thing that the respondent would change about their employment. The responses include issues, such as pay, workload, office space, opportunities for advancement, recognition, appreciation, flexibility, telecommuting, assignments, and resources. One respondent also included criminal justice system reform, while another included geography.

Nothing. Responses in the Nothing category express no perceived need for changes.

Salary. Responses in the Salary category express a desire to change aspects of their salary. Some responses called for increased salaries. Some responses called for changes in the manner in which salaries are determined, including performance-based pay, experience-based pay, and pay equity. The responses that express a need for pay equity include calls equal pay between the public and private sectors, within the public sector, and between co-workers performing the same functions. The responses also include subcategories for student loan debt and broken promises. The latter being a reference to years in which the General Assembly suspended statutory step raises for prosecutors and defenders to balance the budget.

Staffing. Responses in the Staffing category call for additional support staff, additional attorneys, or both. Some responses generally called for hiring more people.

Training. Responses in the Training category call for more training, whether about office policies and procedures, continuing legal education, or specialized training in a particular area of law or related to particular skills.

Workload. Responses in the Workload category express the lack of control that attorneys have over their case assignments and the amount of work they are expected to complete. Most responses say that the work load is excessively burden-some. But one response calls for "more work to do."

Benefits. Responses in the Benefits category express the need to change various aspects of fringe benefits, including calls for more flexibility in vacation policies, civil service protection, executive service, flexible working hours, and intra-office transfer.

Job Characteristics. Responses in the Job Characteristics category express a desire for changes in various job characteristics, such as telecommuting, rotating job tasks, providing diverse experiences, reducing the amount of litigation, increasing the amount of client contact, and changing the nature of job assignments.

Resources. Responses in the Resources category express the need for more resources. Many responses identify the lack of resources generally. Other responses identify specific resources, including office space, dictation equipment, and case management software.

Public Policy Environment. Responses in the Public Policy Environment category express a desire for changes in the external environment in which the respondents work. The proposed changes include the Governor's view of the agency, the impact of public opinion on policy, and the conduct of the courts.

Professional Advancement. Responses in the Professional Advancement category call for more opportunities for professional advancement. The responses include calls for more opportunities to advance and calls for merit application instead of political appointment.

Miscellaneous. Responses in the Miscellaneous category call for a variety of changes that individually are not prevalent enough to warrant separate categories. The proposed changes include geography, vending machines, and mission.

Collegiality. Responses in the Collegiality category call for more collegiality between co-workers in terms of camaraderie, divisiveness, professionalism, and respect.

Upon completion of the coding and analysis process, the study generated the following results. Overall, the survey received 277 responses, 226 of which include responses to this question, representing a response rate of eighty-two percent. By far, the most prominent category is Salary (n=83, 0.367). The next four categories are Multi (n=27, 0.119), Management (n=23, 0.101), Staffing (n=17, 0.075), and Workload (n=13, 0.057). The remaining categories are Benefits (n=9, 0.039), Resources (n=9, 0.039), Public Policy Environment (n=8, 0.035), Professional Advancement (n=7, 0.03), Collegiality (n=7, 0.03), Training (n=6, .026), and Nothing (n=5, 0.22). Additionally, a review of the Multi category reveals that more than half of the responses in that category (n=18, 0.667) listed salary as one of the things they would change.

A few observations are apparent from the data. First, salary is a major issue for attorneys employed by the State of Tennessee. When the Salary category (n=83) is combined with the salary subset of the Multi category (n=18), the study shows that almost half (0.446) of the state's attorneys view their salary as something that they would change. Respondents are aware that they are paid less than their private sector counterparts. Many of them commented about their desire to be paid comparable to the private sector or otherwise noted the disparity between the two sectors. Respondents are also aware of inter-agency disparities and intra-office disparities. Some shared observations about disparities in pay for the same employment classification in different agencies, such as an Attorney III being paid less by the Department of Children's Service than attorneys in the same class in other agencies. Many respondents decry the prevalence of tenure-based pay and call for performance-based pay. In other words, the state's attorneys believe they are both underpaid and unfairly paid.

Second, responses in the Workload and Staffing categories indicate that the state's attorneys believe they are over-worked. These two categories could have been combined because they both emanate from the common theme of being over-worked. However, for purposes of reporting the raw data, they were kept separate to maintain the distinction in the manner in which the respondents expressed the issue. Those in the Workload category state their concern in terms of the amount of work they are expected to perform. In contrast, the responses in the Staffing category reveal their concern in terms of the people available to bear the workload. Nevertheless, the two categories may be combined for analysis, given the unifying theme that undergirds them. In doing so, the study reveals that a fair number of the state's attorneys (n=30, 0.132) consider themselves over-worked.

Finally, a fair number of the state's attorneys (n=23, 0.101) view the most immediate need for change to be in areas related to the manner in which their department or agency is managed. And many of those responses were directed at the respondents' bosses. For example, one respondent writes:

> My boss. Unfortunately my boss seems to believe she works for the NSA. Thus no one in our unit has any idea about what anyone else in the unit is doing. My boss almost always seems angry and abrupt and it is difficult to know if this is related to me, work, or something else. Her general attitude of exasperation really discourages any interaction with her.

Another respondent expresses a desire "not to work for a vicious manipulative liar." Still another states that "My supervisor has a personal relationship with a colleague that affects work assignments and possibly promotional opportunities." Other responses, though not directed at managerial behavior, calls for changes in management practices, such as open communication, consistent feedback, uniform performance standards, and elimination of office politics.

Q56. How would you design your own job to make yourself more effective and efficient?

The survey next asked the respondents to explain how they would design their job to make themselves more effective and efficient. The study reviewed the responses and initially coded the data into the following twenty-two categories: Multiple Responses; Staffing; Autonomy; Management; Training; Red Tape; Resources; Grant Restrictions; Telecommuting; Flexible Work Hours; Policy Environment; Efficiency; Reorganize; Nothing; Professional Advancement; Scheduling; Task Variety; Flexibility; Performance Evaluation; Workload; Culture; and Work-Life Balance. After two more rounds of review and re-coding, the study settled on the following fourteen categories: Resources, Staffing, Telecommuting, Training, Workload, Autonomy, Flexible Hours, Management, Multi, Professional Advancement, Red Tape, Miscellaneous, Policy Environment, and Nothing. The categories are defined as follows:

Resources. Responses in the Resources category call for more resources, infrastructure, and technology, including computer networks, Internet access, software, and hardware. The responses also call for more resources for use at trial, including resources to retain expert witnesses.

Staffing. Responses in the Staffing category call for more human resources, whether support staff, professional staff, or both.

Telecommuting. Responses in the Telecommuting category call for the ability to work remotely, mostly calling for the ability to work from home at least one day a week.

Training. Responses in the Training category generally call for more or improved training opportunities. Some responses call specifically for intra-office training or training within a particular specialty, such as trial advocacy.

Workload. Responses in the Workload category call for adjustments in responsibilities, generally, and reductions in the number of assigned cases, specifically. The category is adequately represented by the following comments: "I would reduce caseloads so I had more time to spend on individual clients and their cases" and "A lighter case load would allow more consideration of each individual case." The responses also describe caseloads as "insurmountable" and call for it to be "lower" and "spread . . . among more" employees.

Autonomy. Responses in the Autonomy category call for the ability to control work through decision-making, delegating, and supervisory authority.

Flexible Hours. Responses in the Flexible Hours category call for flexible work schedules.

Management. Responses in the Management category call for changes to the manner in which the office is managed, including calls for defined organizational plans, mission statements, goals, priorities, and other operational issues, such as personnel decisions.

Multi. Responses in the Multi category express more than one change in the design of the office. The responses include combinations of issues, such as staffing and workload, telecommuting and flexible hours, staffing and resources, and salary and promotion.

Professional Advancement. Responses in the Professional Advancement category express a desire for opportunities for professional advancement through work-task opportunities and otherwise.

Red Tape. Responses in the Red Tape category call for the elimination of paperwork and meetings.

Miscellaneous. Responses in the Miscellaneous category express idiopathic responses that are not prevalent enough for a distinct category. They mention experience, grant restrictions, pay for performance, performance evaluations, politics, task variety, work-life balance, and scheduling.

Public Policy Environment. Responses in the Public Policy Environment category call for changes in the external work environment, namely changes in court operations and procedures.

Nothing. Responses in the Nothing category express no need for change.

The responses to Question 56 generated the following results. The survey received 277 total responses, of which 192 included answers to this question. The response rate was 69.3 percent. The three most prominent categories are Staffing (n=43, 0.223), Management (n=29, 0.151), and Resources (n=20, 0.104). The second group is comprised of Nothing (n=17, 0.088), Workload (n=16, 0.083), Multi (n=13, 0.067), Autonomy (n=11, 0.057), and Miscellaneous (n=10, 0.052). The final group of responses is Training (n=9, 0.046), Telecommuting (n=7, 0.036), Red Tape (n=5, 0.026), Public Policy Environment (n=5, 0.026), Flexible Hours (n=3, 0.015), and Professional Advancement (n=2, 0.010).

These results lead to two observations. First, a considerable number (n=79) of attorneys working for the state of Tennessee believe they are over-worked. The Staffing, Workload, and Resources categories share the same underlying premise about the nature of employment in Tennessee: Employees are stretched thin and work with limited resources. Collectively, these three categories are comprised of 41 percent (n=79) of survey respondents. Second, a fair number (n=55) of state-employed attorneys believe they are poorly managed. The Management, Autonomy, Red Tape, Flexible Hours, and Telecommuting categories share means of management as their underlying premise. These five categories are comprised of 28.5 percent (n=55) of survey respondents.

Q57. What motivates you to be the best employee you can be?

The survey asked respondents to identify the motivating factors that drive them to be the best employee they can be. The study coded the answers and placed them into the following 45 categories: Work Ethic, Professional Reputation, Results, Support Family, Answer, Team, Clients, Fear, Feedback, Public Service, Professionalism, God, Mission, Peers, Integrity, Money, Promotion, Supervisor, Family Respect, Office Culture, Collegiality, Continued Employment, Obligation, Internal Recognition, Competiveness, Success, Empowerment, Impactfulness, Justice, Subordinates, Achievement, Altruism, Effectiveness, Meaning, Satisfaction, Excellence, Acknowledgment, Enjoyment, Ambition, Legal Ethics, Fear of Failure, Recognition, Ego, and Winning. After five rounds of analysis and coding, the study placed the responses into the following 15 categories: Clients, God, Justice, Meaning, Mission, Multi, Family, Peers, Professionalism, Rewards, Employment, Management, Results, Personal Work Ethic, and Public Service. These categories are defined as follows.

Clients. Responses in the Clients category express a motivation to help or serve clients. One respondent conveyed this sentiment by explaining that she was motivated by "knowing that the citizens of this state count on me to play my part."

God. Responses in the God category relate their motivation to their religious beliefs. The sentiment is expressed in many different ways, including "God," "My own personal beliefs and spirituality," Catholic duty, "Biblical values," "being a follower of Jesus," and, more generally, "morals."

Justice. Responses in the Justice category express a motivation to pursue justice, using the words justice or fairness, mentioning a properly functioning justice system, or referring to constitutional rights. The sentiment was expressed by one respondent, a prosecutor, thusly: "I feel that sometimes my effort makes a difference, be it for the defendant, the victim, or the rest of us."

Meaning. Responses in the Meaning category explain motivation in terms of the "meaningfulness of work," a sense of purpose, intellectual challenges, and the importance of the work. One respondent remarks, "I am at my best when I have a strong sense of purpose."

Mission. Responses in the Mission category relate work motivation to the mission of the agency or department of employment. A public defender says, "The knowledge that I am helping the underprivileged and indigent." A public prosecutor states, "Knowing that the decisions that I make in my job have a direct and tangible effect on the safety of citizens in my district." An employee of the Department of Health and Human Services identifies a "desire to successfully complete litigation to protect the disabled."

Multi. Responses in the Multi category explain motivation as a byproduct of several factors. The responses include, among others, the following combinations: (1) mission and success; (2) importance of the work and protecting citizens; (3) duty and reputation; (4) work ethic and results; (5) professionalism and work ethic; (6) serving and recognition; (7) clients, peers, and pride; (8) justice and mission; (9) boss and clients; (10) God and justice; and (11) family and public service. One respondent explains, "I care about the work and my division. Personally, I want my work to be of high quality and to be accomplished efficiently. Corporately, I like seeing my division succeed, as I care about the people in the division." Another respondent states, "I want to earn my pay and the respect of victims." A third identifies "personal responsibility and faith" as primary motivating forces.

Family. Responses in the Family category state that work motivation comes from family, whether that desire to make family proud or the need to support the family.

Peers. Responses in the Peers category relate motivation to peers. One respondent explains, "The people I work with—from attorneys to [law enforcement] officers to clerks and judges. Camaraderie." Another states, "I enjoy (and love) all the professionals I deal with in the system. They are simply the best people I have known my entire life." A third identifies subordinates as a motivating force, identifying "[a] sense of responsibility to the other employees that I supervise."

Professionalism. Responses in the Professionalism category couch motivation in terms of professionalism, using terms like "legal ethics," "fiduciary duty," and "professional reputation." One respondent draws motivation from "the desire to maintain an excellent reputation." Another expresses a motivation to "demonstrat[e] excellence to my colleagues and the public."

Rewards. Responses in the Rewards category connect motivation to incentives, such as achievement, ambition, advancement opportunities, and money.

Employment. Responses in the Employment category relate motivation to "fear" or "concern" that they could lose their employment for poor performance.

Management. Responses in the Management category express a connection between motivation and supervision. Some respondents phrase the concept in terms of feedback, appreciation, and empowerment. Other respondents express it in terms of being part of a team. A third group connects motivation directly to their supervisor. For example, one respondent states simply, "A great boss." Another explains, "I want to do a good job for my supervisor because he is a pretty good boss and a really decent man."

Results. Responses in the Results category connect motivation to results, fulfilling responsibilities, and winning. One respondent states, "feeling as if I can effectively perform my duties and fulfill my responsibilities." Another explains, "I enjoy solving problems and achieving the desired result."

Work Ethic. Responses in the Work Ethic category state that motivation is purely an intrinsic phenomenon, emanating from a personal sense of duty, integrity, pride, self-worth, self-respect, drive, desire, personal standards, personal values, and work ethic. One respondent states, "there's no sense doing something if you aren't going to do it right." Another respondent relates motivation to "a sense of duty and responsibility to all of those around me." A third explains, "I want to be proud of the job I do."

Public Service. Responses in the Public Service category express motivation as a product of either the desire to perform public service or a civic duty. One respondent explains that motivation relates to "serv[ing] the people of my community." Another respondent states, "my duty to do my job for the community."

The responses to Question 57 generated the following results. The survey received 277 responses. Of that number, 232 answered this question. Thus, the response rate was 83.7 percent. The most prominent category, with almost one-third of the responses (n=75, 0.323), is the Work Ethic category. That category was followed by Multi (n=42, 0.181), Clients (n=22, 0.095), Public Service (n=16, 0.069), Mission (n=13, 0.056), Professionalism (n=11, 0.047), and Justice (n=10, 0.043). The remaining categories are Meaning (n=9, 0.039), Rewards (n=7, 0.030), Management (n=7, 0.030), God (n=6, 0.026), Peers (n=4, 0.017), Results (n=4, 0.017), Family (n=3, 0.013), and Employment (n=2, 0.009). Another result that bears noting is the composition of the Multi category. Most notably in this regard, only two responses included extrinsic rewards among the multiple motivators identified.

The responses to this question support the following observations. First, almost one third (n=75) of the responses fall within the category for an intrinsic work ethic that is not connected to public service motivation. Second, 60% of the responses fall within one of three categories, namely Work Ethic (n=75), Multi (n=42), and Clients (n=22). Third, the responses that cited extrinsic rewards as motivators are negligible, even accounting for the responses in the Multi category that include extrinsic rewards. Fourth, the Protestant work ethic (Weber, 1905) is alive and well, at least among about 3% of public sector attorneys in Tennessee. Fifth, 4% percent of state-employed attorneys in Tennessee identify the search for meaning (Frankl, 1946) as their chief motivator. Sixth, 7% of survey respondents explicitly identified public service motivation as a motivator. Seventh, the question generated a wide variety of responses. The study initially identified 45 categories of responses and subsequently took five rounds of coding to winnow the field to 15. Even so, the number is remarkable and supports those scholars who have commented on the need for an individual conception of public service motivation. Finally, the dichotomy between the expression of motivations for beginning work for the state of Tennessee and striving to be the best employee indicates that motivation is a complex phenomenon, perhaps dependent on context, and may be dependent upon the manner in which the question is posed. In response to the former question, two of the most prominent responses were mission and public service. In response to the latter, the most prominent response was an intrinsic work ethic unrelated to public service motivation; public service and mission were minor. In general, the responses here suggest that public service motivation is individualistic, contextual, and complex.

Q58. What prevents you from being the best employee you can be?

The final open-ended question asked the respondents to identify obstacles to their effectiveness. In the first round of coding, the researcher reviewed the data and coded the responses into the following thirty categories: Work Environment, Time, Workload, Lack of Autonomy, Multiple Responses, Work-Related Stress, Red Tape, Management, Nothing, Politics, Self, Lack of Resources, Lack of Training, Work-Life Balance, Co-Workers, Boredom, Fatigue, Staffing, Personal Stress, Health, Turnover, Pursuit of Perfection, Policy Environment, Burn Out, Office Politics, Unspecified Stress, Lack of Appreciation, Task Ease, External Obstacles, Office Culture, and Ego. After four rounds of review, analysis, and re-coding, the study settled on the following sixteen categories: Management, Public Policy Environment, Politics, Red Tape, Resources, Self, Staffing, Stress, Time, Co-workers, Boredom, Miscellaneous, Work-Life Balance, Workload, Nothing, and Multi. The study defines these categories as follows:

Management. Responses in the Management category identify obstacles to effectiveness that emanate from the management of the office. The responses include the boss, unpredictable discipline, favoritism, silly rules, micro-management, institutional barriers, poor leadership, lack of recognition, lack of autonomy, and a poor work environment. Several responses identify the boss, personally, as an obstacle. One respondent remarks, "I cannot depend on my supervisor to support me." Another states, "A supervisor who chronically complains about everyone and everything. This individual makes the atmosphere toxic." A third comments about "bureaucrats with personality disorders that are allowed to work here for 25 years and actually supervise people."

Policy Environment. Responses in the Policy Environment category identify obstacles that originate in the external public policy environment, including opposing counsel, critics, public misunderstanding of agency mission, issues with agency clients, and courts. One respondent sums up the issue like so: "Outside obstacles set by the other groups we have to work with." Another explains that "public misunderstanding of the mission of this office which causes myself and other employees to spend an inordinate amount of time responding to complaints and misconceptions."

Politics. Responses in the Politics category identify politics, politicians, and political pressure as the obstacles in their employment. One respondent describes "having to dodge political bullets." Another mentions "political crap." A third identifies the General Assembly in particular, explaining that it is "interested in what can help them!"

Red Tape. Responses in the Red Tape category mention red tape, bureaucracy, and administrative distractions. One respondent explains that "government processes are often arbitrary, duplicative, and very slow." Another remarks about "bureaucratic inertia or indifference."

Resources. Responses in the Resources category identify obstacles related to lack of support staff, poor or unreliable technology, and antiquated equipment. Most responses simply state, "lack of resources."

Self. Responses in the Self category identify the respondent as the only obstacle to effectiveness and efficiency in employment. The responses include lack of motivation, stubbornness, procrastination, laziness, impatience, introversion, perfectionism, pride, and health as individual obstacles. One respondent explains, "I alone am responsible for meeting my full potential in completing whatever task is in front of me." Another states that the obstacle is "being hesitant to step out of my comfort zone."

Staffing. Responses in the Staffing category identify lack of support staff as an obstacle to their effectiveness, whether described as support staff or clerical assistance.

Stress. Responses in the Stress category identify stress, either work related or personal, as an obstacle to their effectiveness. One respondent states, "The amount of time I spend each day banging my head against my office wall." Another explains, "Getting depressed, frustrated, and filled with anxiety, thinking about crime and wrongdoing all the time."

Time. Responses in the Time category identify time constraints as the primary obstacle to effectiveness. One respondent states, "too much to do in so little time." Another identifies "time or lack thereof to devote to preparation" as the obstacle.

Co-workers. Responses in the Co-workers category identify co-workers as obstacles to effectiveness. These responses focus on the ineffectiveness of co-workers or their negative attitudes. One response comments on the ineffectiveness of investigators. Another identifies the demotivating effect of negative attitudes: "Negativity from co-workers that brings down my morale or distracts me from my work."

Boredom. Responses in the Boredom category identified the lack of challenging work and repetitiveness as an obstacle to effectiveness. One respondent explains, "The work is not challenging, so I have free time." Another states that the work is "boring and complicated."

Miscellaneous. Responses in the Miscellaneous category are too vague to support categorization or received too few similar response to justify an individual category. One respondent remarks, "different things at different times." Two respondents identify burnout. And two others identify the lack of training or inadequate training as an obstacle.

Work-life balance. Responses in the Work-Life Balance category identify poor work-life balance as an obstacle to effectiveness, including familial obligations and other life priorities that draw employees away from their work. One respondent explains, "Commitments outside of work prevent me from staying at work as late as I need to sometimes." Another states that "personal life can interfere with duties."

Workload. Responses in the Workload category identify the heavy workload as an obstacle to effectiveness. The respondents describe workloads as insurmountable, crushing, unrealistic, overwhelming, heavy, and hectic. One public defender explains:

> The caseload is simply crushing. I have to make snap judgments on whether a case is worth significant amounts of my time. These judgments are often made within 15 or 20 minutes in the chaos of a crowded courtroom, with clients who are often angry, frightened, or bewildered by a system they do not understand.

A public prosecutor remarks that "there is too much to do. Too many cases to do them all to the best of my ability."

Nothing. Responses in the Nothing category state that there are no obstacles to effectiveness and efficiency. One respondent explains, "Nothing. Every day I work to be the best that I can be." Another explains, "Despite the lack of knowledgeable supervision and leadership, I am still the best employee when serving the public. It's a matter of personal satisfaction."

Multi. Responses in the Multi category identify a combination of obstacles to their effectiveness. For example, some respondents report the following combinations: (1) staffing and salary; (2) workload and management; (3) lack of support, salary, and management; (4) workload and resources; (5) red tape and client issues; (6) salary, training, technology, and disrespect; (7) salary and promotion; (8) training, mentoring, and red tape; (9) and self and red tape. One public prosecutor explains that "concerns over finances, inadequate training, inadequate peer support, and inadequate support staff" are obstacles. A public defender states that "high caseload, ineffective support staff, lack of training, and lack of advancement" are obstacles.

Question 58 generated the following results. The survey received 277 responses. Of those responses, 224 answered this question, for a response rate of 80.9 percent. Most of the responses were dispersed among five categories: Multi (n=32, 0.143), Management (n=32, 0.142), Nothing (n=26, 0.116), Workload (n=24, 0.107), and Self (n=21, 0.93). Collectively, these categories account for 60.2 percent (n=135) of the responses. Another 20% of the responses fall within the following four categories: Time (n=15, 0.067), Public Policy Environment (n=10, 0.044), Red Tape (n=10, 0.044), and Resources (n=10, 0.044). The remaining responses fall within the following seven categories: Work-Life Balance (n=9, 0.040), Staffing (n=8, 0.035), Co-Workers (n=7, 0.031), Politics (n=5, 0.022), Miscellaneous (n=5, 0.022), Stress (n=4, 0.018), and Boredom (n=4, 0.018).

These results support several observations. First, a significant fraction of the state's attorneys report multiple obstacles to their effectiveness and a similar fraction report no obstacles. Second, a significant fraction report obstacles to effectiveness that relate to either the manner in which their department is managed or the people who manage it. Third, resources, staffing, and time, which all relate to the ability to perform job tasks, are individually negligible but emerge as a sizable factor when combined (n=33, 0.147). The study could have combined these categories based upon their relatedness but decided to keep them separate to remain faithful to the respondents' expression of their answer.

C. Hypotheses

Public Service Motivation is defined variously as "an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations" (Perry and Wise 1990: 368), "the motivational force that induces individuals to perform meaningful … public, community, and social service" (Selden 1998: 417), "a general, altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation, or humankind" (Rainey and Steinbauer 1999: 23), and "the beliefs, values, and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate" (Vandenabeele 2007: 549). Perry (2010) explained that these various definitions are based upon the same fundamental idea: "public officials should set aside their personal interests in the pursuit of the common good and serve the larger community" (p. 679). At its core, public service motivation is comprised of concepts such as "other-oriented motives," "pro-social motivation," and "doing good for others and the well-being of society" (Perry 2010: 679) and altruism (Perry et al. 2010: 682). Perry and Wise (1990) clarified the concept of public service motivation when the explained that motives are psychological needs that are either rational, norm-based, or affective (p. 368). They explained, "rational motives involve actions grounded in individual utility maximization," "norm-based motives refer to actions generated by efforts to conform to norms," and "affective motives refer to triggers of behavior that are grounded in emotional responses to various social contexts" (p. 368).

Rational motives are participation in the process of policy formulation, commitment to a public program because of personal identification with the program, and advocacy for a special interest (p. 368). Normative motives are the desire to serve the public interest, a unique sense of loyalty to the government as a whole, and the desire to promote social equity (p. 369). Affective motives are a genuine conviction about a program's social importance and the patriotism of benevolence (p. 369). Most importantly, Perry (1996) developed a public service motivation scale that is based upon six motives, namely attraction to policy-making, commitment to the public interest, civic duty, social justice, compassion, and self-sacrifice. These principles guide the analysis of the qualitative data that follows. The study seeks to determine if the respondents' answers to the open-ended questions support the hypotheses under consideration.

Ho_1: Public Service Motivation is not an effective predictor of motivation among Tennessee employees.

A substantial number of responses (n=282) indicate that public service motivation drives public sector attorneys in Tennessee. Overall, 282 of 888 responses fit within the concept of public service motivation. In response to Question 54, 101 of 206 responses (0.49) provide a total of 105 answers that fall on the public service motivation scale. Question 54 garnered two responses that express an attraction to policymaking, 66 that express a commitment to the public interest, two that express civic duty, eight that express a desire to promote social justice, and 26 that express a motive of self-sacrifice.

In response to Question 57, 69 of 232 responses (0.297) provide answers on the public service motivation scale. Question 57 received one response indicative of attraction to policymaking, 26 that convey commitment to public interest, 15 that express civic duty, two that reveal a drive toward social justice, and 21 that convey a sense of compassion. Six respondents convey a pursuit of meaning, which is a more generic form of commitment to public interest, civic duty, social justice, and compassion.

In response to Question 55, 103 of 226 respondents (0.455) provide a total of 105 answers that fall on the public service motivation scale. Question 55 generated two responses that indicate attraction to policy making, twelve that relate to commitment to public interest, three each that express civic duty, social justice, and compassion, and eighty-three that show self-sacrifice. In response to Question 56, two of 192 responses (0.01) provide answers on the public service motivation scale, both of which express a sense of civic duty. In response to Question 58, nine of 224 respondents (0.04) convey an answer on the public service motivation scale, eight of which relate a commitment to public interest and one of which conveys self-sacrifice.

Here, the responses to Questions 54 and 57 reveal an interesting dichotomy. Almost half of public sector attorneys in Tennessee provide a public service motivation-based explanation for their initial decision to work for the state. But less than 30 percent provide a public-service-motivation-based explanation for their current drive to be the best employee they can be. More particularly, the responses to these two questions indicate that a commitment to the public interest motivates employees to enter public service (n=66, 0.32) but that commitment fades over time such that the commitment to the public interest motivates fewer employees to be the best they can be (n=26, 0.112). Moreover, civic duty, which was negligible in response to Question 54 (n=2, 0.01) becomes far more pronounced as a motivator of performance (n=15, 0.064). Furthermore, compassion motivates about the same number of employees to enter public service (n=26) as it motivates to perform well (n=21).

The responses to Questions 55, 56, and 57 reveal only one remarkable thing. Self-sacrifice appears as a motivator indirectly in response to Question 55, which asked respondents to identify something they would change. Eighty-three respondents provide an answer indicative of self-sacrifice as a motivator. Those respondents comment on their salary, describing it variously as inadequate or unfair. One respondent remarked, "It is a personal fiscal sacrifice to represent the state of Tennessee."

Ho_2: Attraction to policy making is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

Overall, four respondents provided answers that reveal attraction to policy making. Question 54 received two. Question 55 received one. Question 57 received one. Questions 56 and 58 received none. The responses to Question 54 state: "I first went to work for the State of Tennessee as a State Representative, so at that time, I was interested in bringing about positive changes politically" and "Involvement in the legislative process and interest in politics." The response to Question 55 states a preference for "the ability to do more policy work." The response to Question 57 explains that the respondent first went to work for the state of Tennessee for "the chance to see the criminal justice system work in the manner that it should." While attraction to policymaking was no doubt a compelling factor for these four respondents, because only four of 1,080 potential responses include attraction to policymaking, it appears that attraction to policy making is not a significant motivator of attorneys who enter public service in Tennessee.

Ho_3: Commitment to the Public Interest is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

A fair number of responses (n=114) indicate a commitment to the public interest among public sector attorneys in Tennessee. Question 54 received sixty-six, Question 57 received twenty-six, Question 55 received twelve, Question 56 received two, and Question 58 received eight. One response to Question 55 states, "The mission of government shouldn't be political—is to provide services to citizens [sic]. Government is not and can't be run like a business—it's not designed to be profitable or even completely efficient." This answer indicates that government should transcend politics and serve the public interest. Several respondents comment on the need for more training. One explained:

> I think the office and our clients would be better served if the legal staff had more flexibility in obtaining their annual [continuing legal education]. Presently, we have to attend State sponsored programs to obtain our CLEs. Having flexibility to attend CLE programs focused on a current need that we individually or office has need for would be more beneficial.

These respondents view continuing education as a means for better serving the public interest of the state of Tennessee. Other respondents express their commitment to the public interest in their comments about caseloads and resources, which they relate to the quality of their job performance for both their clients and the state.

One respondent to Question 56 would change his or her job to be permitted to work more hours, and another called for a general improvement to the criminal justice system. Both of these respondents reveal their commitment to the public interest in their answers.

The answers to Question 58 include a respondent who calls for courts to take drug crimes seriously, a respondent who calls for judges and prosecutors to take more interest in individual cases, and several respondents who would give themselves more time to dedicate to individual cases. One respondent explains:

> The caseload is simply crushing. I have to make snap judgments on whether a case is worth significant amounts of my time. These judgments are often made within 15 or 20 minutes in the chaps of a crowded courtroom, with clients who are often angry, frightened, or bewildered by a system they do not understand. It is very frustrating to be part of a "justice" system that seems to run everything on a deadline that I am increasingly unable to keep up with. I understand that "justice delayed is justice denied," but justice administered with a "shot clock" may be justice denied as well.

All of these responses evince a commitment to the public interest because the respondents would implement systemic changes or identify systemic issues as obstacles to their performance.

Ho_4: Self-sacrifice is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

A fair number of responses (n=85) indicate a motivation rooted in self-sacrifice. Questions 54 and 58 received one each, while Questions 56 and 57 received none. But Question 55 received eighty-three. The response to Question 54 explains, "I never expected to be rich but it's disturbing to get nervous every year about whether or not the legislature is going to fund our meager step raises which hardly cover the cost of living increases." The response to Question 58 identified insufficient pay as a major concern that impacts family life: "The pay does not really allow me to support my family."

Self-sacrifice appears as motivator indirectly in response to Question 55, which asked respondents to identify something they would change. Eighty-three respondents provide an answer indicative of self-sacrifice as a motivator. Those respondents comment on their salary, describing it variously as inadequate or unfair. One respondent remarks:

> Pay at least somewhat close to what attorneys make in the private sector. I have the same student loans as other attorneys, and the pay I make here, even with the possibility of eventual loan forgiveness, is not enough for me to pay on loans and thing about owning a house/starting a family as this time.

Another respondent explains, "I would increase the pay. I feel like the pay is not competitive, and I'm constantly torn between staying in a job that I LOVE and wondering how I'm ever going to be able to pay my student loans off or save for retirement." A third respondent says, "I would like to see our office better funded to encourage retention of our superb lawyers and aid in recruiting more just like them." Still another says, more directly, "It is a personal fiscal sacrifice to represent the State of Tennessee." These responses indicate that self-sacrifice may be a motivator as much as it is a reality of public service.

Ho_5: Compassion is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

A minimal number of responses (n=50) indicate that compassion motivates public sector attorneys in Tennessee. Question 54 received twenty-six. Question 55 received three. Question 57 received twenty-one. Questions 56 and 58 received zero.

The answers to Question 54 express a desire to make a difference in peoples' lives or to help those in need, the less fortunate, the disadvantaged, or crime victims. One public defender explains that he or she first went to work for the state of Tennessee "to serve the disadvantaged that find themselves in the legal system." One prosecutor remarks, "to help children and families." Another prosecutor says, "to help victims of violent crime." A third prosecutor describes his or her motivation this way, "I like helping the victims of crime in this area (Memphis). There is great economic disparity here. It causes people to fall into the criminal world. I see the difficulties and challenges of both victims and defendants. I like helping domestic violence victims to develop more self-esteem."

The responses to Question 55 express motivation rooted in compassion by describing proposed changes in terms of the impact that the changes will have on the clientele. One prosecutor explains that he or she would work to reduce his or her caseload "to allow more time with victim's issues." A public defender expresses a similar sentiment, explaining a desire to "lower case load because I find it unfair to my clients."

The responses to Question 57 express compassion by relating their drive to be the best to the impact their drive has on their clients, whether in terms of helping or caring for them or obtaining justice or a good result. An attorney in the Department of Children's Services (DCS) explains that he or she is motivated to be the best by the opportunity for "helping children out of unsafe situations." Another DCS attorney expresses the same sentiment, saying "I want to see children and families do well." A third DCS attorney states, "I want to provide the highest quality outcomes that I can for the client and the families that we serve. I want to be the best employee that I can be because I think it matters. Pushing paper and winning court cases has a measurable impact on people's lives." A prosecutor explains that he or she is motivated by the ability to have a direct and tangible effect on the safety of citizens in my district." Another prosecutor explains, "A sense of duty and responsibility to all of those around me, most importantly victims of crime and those dealing with addiction issues caught in a cycle within the system."

Ho_6: Job Security is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

A negligible number of responses (n=16) reveal job security as a motivational factor among public sector attorneys in Tennessee. Question 54 received fourteen. Question 57 received two. Questions 55, 56, and 58 received zero. The responses to Questions 54 and 57 identified job security as a motivating fact in plain terms, "job security," with little, if any, explanation or elaboration. Ten of the 14 responses to Question 54 were in the Multi category and identified job security as one of multiple motivators. Likewise, one of the responses to Question 57 was in the Multi category. The other was in the Family category: "I have to keep working to support my family.'

Ho_7: High Income is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

The survey did not receive any responses that show high income to be a motivational factor among public sector attorneys in Tennessee. Questions 54 and 57 received no responses that would indicate that high income is a significant motivator. However, the other questions received a total of 109 responses addressed to low income and the need to increase salaries. Question 55 received 99 responses on the subject of inadequate pay. Question 56 received two. Question 58 received ten. The responses to Question 55 repeatedly stated that they would "increase pay" or commented that pay is inadequate. Sixteen of these responses fell in the Multi category. The other 83 responses fell in the Salary category and provided a variety of explanations for the need to increase or change salaries, from calls for performance pay and pay comparable to the private sector to receipt of pay raises promised by statute. One response explains, "Performance should be the basis upon which employees are judged and rewarded and not longevity." Another comments that salaries should be "on par with private attorneys with my level of experience." A prosecutor states that "the state should pay what was promised. I had my salary frozen and apparently there is no mechanism to get it back." Another attorney explains,

> To make more money. The state does not take into consideration that us [*sic*] newer attorneys had to pay considerably more for our education than the older attorneys. Further, directors with high school educations are paid considerably more than the attorneys that are assisting with the administration of programs.

A DCS attorney explains, "I would change the pay scale. I am an attorney 3. The average salary for attorney 3 is $75,000/year. I make less than $60k. I am in a female dominated position working for DCS and none of us are paid commensurate with our male counterparts in other agencies."

The responses to Question 56 were in the Multi category and the Miscellaneous category. The former identifies "higher pay" as a change that he or she would implement and ties the pay scale to burnout. The latter calls for pay for performance.

The responses to Question 58 that raise the issue of salary do so in the Multi category. The majority of these responses comment in simple terms, such as salary, income, pay, or finances. One respondent says, "compensation which is not at market level for this job." Another respondent explains, "The pay does not really allow me to support my family."

Ho_8: A Good Opportunity for Advancement is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

The survey received a negligible number of responses (n=6) on the matter of professional advancement. Questions 54, 56, and 57 received no responses that indicate that a good opportunity for advancement is a significant motivator among public sector attorneys in Tennessee. However, Questions 55 and 58 received a total of six responses that address the issue of opportunities for advancement. Question 55 received four. Question 58 received two. The responses to Question 55 all appeared in the Multi category and simply state a desire for opportunities for advancement. The responses to Question 58 also appear in the Multi category. They identify the lack of opportunities for advancement as de-motivators.

Ho_9: An Interesting Job is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

The survey questions received few responses (n=30) on the issue of whether an interesting job is a significant motivator among public sector lawyers in Tennessee. Question 54 received twenty-four. Question 58 received six. Questions 55, 56, and 57 received zero. Fifteen of the responses to Question 54 fell in the Subject category. The other nine were in the Multi category. These respondents express a motivation to work in a particular field of law. One respondent explains, "Constitutional law has always been my favorite, so when the opportunity arose to be a part of implementing it, I took it." Four of the six responses to Question 58 are in the Boredom category. The other two are in the Burnout category. One respondent explains, "Lack of interest in what I'm working on; it gets repetitive." Another respondent remarks that "the work is not challenging, so I have free time." A third explains, "My job is monotonous and at some point you just can't keep moving from one file to the next so you do a survey :) ."

Ho_{10}: A Job that Allows Someone to Work Independently is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

The qualitative questions received few responses (n=18) on the matter of autonomy. Questions 54 and 57 received no responses that indicate that ability to work independently is a significant motivator among public sector attorneys in Tennessee. However, Questions 55, 56, and 58 received a total of 18 responses that addressed the issue. Question 55 received three. Question 56 received eleven. Question 58 received four.

The responses to Question 55 indicate that increased autonomy is a change that the respondents would implement to their jobs. Two of these responses were in the Management category. The third was in the Multi category. One response states, "even minor decisions must be approved by higher-ups." Another explains that "more autonomy with regard to discretion in handling cases" is a desired change. A third simply says, "more autonomy."

The responses to Question 56 were classified into the Autonomy category and the Policy Environment category. The Autonomy category includes ten responses from respondents employed in a variety of departments. The comments includes calls for more control over the prosecution of cases, control over scheduling deadlines, more delegated authority, more opportunities to make decisions, and more authority to manage subordinate employees. The Policy Environment category had only one autonomy-rooted response. That response comes from a prosecutor, who explains, "I have a lot of autonomy, so I've already designed procedures, forms, etc., for efficiency. "

The responses to Question 58 all fell into the Management category. These responses identified institutional barriers, micromanaging, subservience, and controlling superiors as obstacles to their performance.

Ho_{11}: A Job that Allows Someone to Help Other People is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

The survey received a fair number of responses (n=58) that indicate that helping others is a motivator among public sector attorneys in Tennessee. Question 54 received thirty-two. Question 57 received twenty-seven. Questions 55, 56, and 58 each received zero. The responses to Question 54 (n=31) are found in the Public Service, Mission, and Multi categories. The responses express a desire to help, to make a difference at both the individual and the societal level. Some responses are more specific and express a motivation to help "children and families" or "victims of violent crime." The responses to Question 57 (n=27) are found in the Clients and Multi categories. The answers to this question, like the answers to Question 54, express a drive to help people, whether clients, generally, or children, families, crime victims, and indigent defendants, specifically.

Ho_{12}: A Job that is Useful to Society is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

The survey received a fair number of responses (n=71) on the vitality of usefulness to society as a motivator among public sector attorneys in Tennessee. Questions 54 and 57 received 39 and 29, respectively. Questions 55, 56, and 58 each received zero. The responses to Question 54 are found in the Public Service, Mission, and Multi categories. These responses express a desire for work that makes a difference, serves the public, impacts a large population, pursues justice, contributes to society, and promotes public safety. A prosecutor captured the essence of these responses: "I work for the state of Tennessee because I believe in the concept of justice for the People; someone must stand up for the Peace and Dignity of the state of Tennessee." The responses to Question 57 are found in the Justice, Meaning, Mission, Multi, and Public Service categories. The responses convey a motivation based on the importance of the work to the state or community, public service, or civic duty.

Ho_{13}: A Job with Flexible Working Hours is not a significant motivator of employees in the State of Tennessee.

The qualitative questions received a fair number of responses (n=21) on flexible hours as a motivator among public sector attorneys in Tennessee. Question 54 received eight responses that addressed working hours, and Question 56 received eight. Questions, 55, 57, and 58 each received zero. The responses to Question 54 are found in the Multi and Benefits categories. Four of these eight responses indicate that flexible working hours is a motivating factor in their employment. Three of the other four indicate that fixed working hours is a motivating factor. The final response states, "to have a lawyer job that left plenty of time for family." This response appears more indicative of a preference for fixed hours than flexible hours. The responses to Question 56 that address working hours are found in the Flexible Hours, Management, and Multi categories. One response explains:

> Flexible work hours. Allow weekend flex hours to work on files at home and in return have an afternoon off in the week. I am on call every day and work often at night. Yet I still work my 8:00 to 4:30 shift at the office. It's frustrating when I see others in my office not on call yet still receiving the same pay. There has to be flexibility as it is easy to burn out. A two hour lunch would be nice on some days to allow me to actually exercise as well.

Similarly, a public defender states, “I would have flexible hours that fit the times when I am most productive. 5:30 to 2:00 instead of 8:00 to 4:30, or currently 6:00 to 4:30 because I’m forced to stay.”

D. Conclusion

This chapter raises serious questions about the viability of the public service motivation construct as a vehicle to explain motivation among public sector attorneys in the state of Tennessee. As noted in previous chapters, the survey received 264 completed surveys from the 631 respondents who opened the survey, for a response rate of 41.8 percent. From those 264 surveys, the qualitative questions received a total of 1,080 concept responses in the answers to the five questions. To determine the prevalence of the various work-motivation factors, the survey calculated the number of concept responses for each category as a percentage of the total. Only twenty-six percent of the responses fall within categories that correspond to public service motivation. The most prominent public-service-motivation element is self-sacrifice, which received eighty-five (0.0787) responses. Commitment to Public Interest received 114 responses (0.105). Compassion received fifty (0.046). Attraction to Policymaking received four (0.003). These results demonstrate that, when public sector attorneys in Tennessee are asked to identify their motivation in their own terms, public service motivation is not a significant motivator among the group as a whole. However, the results also demonstrate that public sector motivation is a significant motivation for some individuals.

Likewise, this chapter raises serious questions concerning the explanatory power of the other motivating factors included in the study. The most prevalent factor is usefulness to society, which received 71 responses (0.0657) from the 277 Respondents who answered the question. The remaining factors, in descending order of prevalence are being able to help others (n=58, 0.0537), an interesting job (n=30, 0.0277), flexible hours (n=21, 0.0194), autonomy (n=18, 0.0166), job security (n=0.0148), an opportunity for advancement (n=6, 0.005), and high income (n=0, 0.000). None of these factors appears to be significant to the group as a whole. Yet they are significant on the individual level.

Moreover, this chapter shows that motivation is a far more complex concept than the public-service-motivation construct portrays it to be. First, as previously noted, the responses to Questions 54 and 57 demonstrate that an employee's initial motivation for going to work for the state of Tennessee is different than an employee's motivation toward excellence. Second, the responses to Questions 55, 56, and 58 reveal that a plethora of factors are at play in employee motivation, including salary, staffing, training, workload, benefits, job characteristics, resources, work environment, professional advancement, collegiality, autonomy, work schedules, management, red tape, interoffice politics, stress, time, boredom, work-life balance, and personal issues. Third, the number of respondents who identified multiple factors in response to each of the five questions indicates that the public service motivation construct is not capturing a full picture of the phenomenon of work motivation.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

A. Introduction

This study set out to gain insight into the motivation of attorneys in public service in the State of Tennessee. The research question is, "Are attorneys in the State of Tennessee's public service motivated by a public service ethic, as evidenced by the public service motivation construct?" The leading scholar in the field, James L. Perry, developed a public service motivation construct comprised of four factors: (1) Attraction to policy making; (2) Commitment to the public interest; (3) Compassion; and (4) Self-sacrifice. Perry's scale includes twenty-four survey items designed to measure these four components of public service motivation. Subsequently, other scholars refined the scale by reducing the number of survey items and focusing on the first three factors. This study used Kim's (2012) abbreviated scale in combination with other motivation factors studied by Lewis and Frank (2002), namely provision of a valuable public service, job security, high income opportunities for advancement, an interesting job, an opportunity to help other people, a job that is useful to society, and flexible working hours. The responses to the public-service-motivation construct questions were analyzed using logistic regression. The survey also included several open-ended questions. The responses to these questions were analyzed using a content analysis. In the end, the study found that the Public Service Motivation scale does not fit the data generated by the survey of Tennessee public service attorneys. Moreover, the qualitative analysis found that motivation in this context is far more complex than the Public Service Motivation construct suggests.

B. Contributions to the Literature

This study contributes to the literature in six important ways. First, and most notably, the study employed a mixed methods approach. Very few qualitative studies are reported in the public-service-motivation literature. Likewise, very few mixed methods studies can be found. This study also contributes to the literature through its reliance on primary data. Most of the studies reported in the literature rely upon secondary data, drawn from surveys that were not specifically designed and implemented to measure public service motivation. This study set out to collect primary data from a panel of attorneys for the express purpose of studying public service motivation.

Second, this study contributes to the literature because it is the first systematic study of public service motivation in the state of Tennessee. Relatedly, this study expands on the few studies that have been directed at the legal profession. Third, this study answered calls in the literature for studies with larger sample sizes, based on primary data, designed to analyze the complex nature of motivation, within the same government domain, and designed to provide contextual realism. Fourth, this study also answers the call for studies of the complex nature of motivation, directing researchers toward the relationship among multiple motivational factors. Fifth, the study also answers the call for studies of differences within the "government domain." To answer this question, this survey collected data concerning agency of employment from all attorneys employed by the State of Tennessee. The population includes attorneys employed as public prosecutors, public defenders, and other attorneys in agencies from across the executive branch. Finally, this study also contributed through the inclusion of a qualitative component to provide "contextual realism." This research answers this call by coupling a qualitative component with the quantitative component. The survey includes several open-ended questions designed to gather information concerning the respondents' motivation and their feelings about their compensation, job design, work environment, and other characteristics of employment.

C. Logistic Regression Results

The quantitative data raise questions about the efficacy of the Public Service Motivation construct in this context. The construct is not a good fit for the data generated by the survey of attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. The logistic regression analysis revealed that the each of the three components of the construct that were tested—attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, and compassion—proved to be poor fits. For that reason, the study cannot draw reliable conclusions concerning the existence of public service motivation among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. This result calls the viability of the Public Service Motivation construct into question when applied to attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. In contrast, the other employment motivation factors that were analyzed proved to be effective predictors of employment outcomes among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee.

Provision of Valuable Public Service is useful in predicting employment outcomes among attorneys employed in the Tennessee Attorney General's Office, the Tennessee District Attorney General's offices, and the Tennessee Public Defender's offices. Attorneys who are motived to provide a valuable public service are more likely to work for the Attorney General & Reporter.

Job Security is useful in predicting employment outcomes among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Attorneys who are motived by job security are more likely to work for the Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys employed as public defenders are slightly less motivated by job security than attorneys working for Attorney General & Reporter. In contrast, attorneys employed as public prosecutors, in the Legislative Branch, the Executive Branch, and the Judicial Brach are considerably less likely to be motivated by job security than attorneys working for the Attorney General & Reporter.

High Income is useful in predicting employment outcomes among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Attorneys employed as public defenders, public prosecutors, in the Executive Branch, and in the Judicial Branch are moderately less motivated by high income than attorneys working for Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys employed in the Legislative Branch, however, are considerably less likely to be motivated by high income than attorneys who work in the Attorney General & Reporter's office.

An Interesting Job is useful in predicting employment outcomes among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. The results indicate that attorneys who are motived by an interesting job are more likely to work for the Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys employed as public defenders and in the Legislative Branch are slightly less motivated by having an interesting job than attorneys working for Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys employed as public prosecutors, in the Executive Branch, and the Judicial Branch are moderately less likely to be motivated by having an interesting job than attorneys who work in the Attorney General & Reporter's office.

A Job that Allows One to Help Other People is useful in predicting employment outcomes among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Attorneys who are motived by high income are more likely to work for the Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys employed as in the Legislative Branch, the Executive Branch, the Judicial Branch are moderately less motivated by high income than attorneys working for Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys employed in as public prosecutors and public defenders are considerably less likely to be motivated by high income than attorneys who work in the Attorney General & Reporter's office.

Flexible Working Hours is useful in predicting employment outcomes among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Attorneys who are motived by flexible working hours are more likely to work for the Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys employed as public prosecutors and in the Executive Branch are slightly less likely to be motivated by flexible working hours than attorneys working for the Attorney General & Reporter. Attorneys who work as public defenders and in the Judicial Branch are moderately less likely to be motivated by flexible working hours that attorneys who work for the Attorney General & Reporter. Finally, attorneys who work in the Legislative Branch are considerably less likely to be motivated by flexible working hours than attorneys who work in the Attorney General & Reporter's office.

The results of this statistical analysis revealed that the construct was not a good fit for the data. All three components of the construct that were tested—attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, and compassion—reflect this result. In contrast, several predictor variables drawn from other employment motivation literature—provide a valuable public service, job security, high income, an interesting job, helping other people, and flexible working hours—are effective predictors of employment outcomes among attorneys employed by the state of Tennessee. Two other non-Public Service Motivation predictor variables—opportunity for advancement and a job that is useful to society—were not a good fit for the data. This finding could result from the unique context of public service attorneys in Tennessee or characteristics of the legal profession more genearally.

As practical matter, when seeking to attract, retain, and motivate employees, the Attorney General & Reporter should focus its efforts on providing its attorneys with opportunities to provide a valuable public service, job security, high incomes, interesting jobs, opportunities to help other people, and flexible working hours. Attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, and compassion need not be matters of concern. The same holds true for the other branches of government included in the study, albeit to a lesser extent. District Attorneys General and District Public Defenders should look to opportunities for providing a valuable public service, job security, high incomes, an interesting job, opportunities to help other people, and flexible working hours when seeking to attract, retain, and motivate their attorneys. Except for providing a valuable public service, which is not a significant motivator for them, the Legislative Branch, Executive Branch, and Judicial Branch should seek to leverage the same factors while affording little, if any, consideration to the Public Service Motivation construct.

This study set out to address several questions concerning the Public Service Motivations construct: Whether public service motivation is static or dynamic; whether public service motivation varies according to tenure; whether public service motivation varies according to agency of employment; and the relationship between public service motivation and other motivational factors. Because the construct was not a good fit for the survey data, these questions remain unanswered here.

D. Content Analysis Results of Qualitative Survey Data

The content analysis raises serious questions about the viability of the Public Service Motivation construct as a vehicle to explain motivation among public sector attorneys in the state of Tennessee. Out of 888 responses, only 26% fall within categories that correspond to public service motivation. The most prominent public-service-motivation element is self-sacrifice, which received eighty-five (0.0787) responses. Commitment to Public Interest received 114 responses (0.105). Compassion received fifty (0.046). Attraction to Policymaking received four (0.003). These results demonstrate that, when public sector attorneys in Tennessee are asked to identify their motivation in their own terms, public service motivation does not appear to be a significant motivator among the group as a whole. However, the results also demonstrate that public sector motivation is a significant motivator for some individuals.

The content analysis also raises serious questions about the explanatory power of the other motivating factors included in the study. The most prevalent factor is usefulness to society, but it only appeared in 6.6% of the total responses. The remaining factors, in descending order of prevalence, are being able to help others (5.4%), an interesting job

(2.8%), flexible hours (1.9%), autonomy (1.7%), job security (1.5%), an opportunity for advancement (0.5%), and high income (0.001%). None of these factors appears to be significant to the group as a whole. Yet they are significant for a few individuals.

The content analysis shows that motivation is a far more complex concept than the public-service-motivation construct portrays it to be. First, the study observed that an employee's initial motivation for accepting a job is different from an employee's motivation toward excellence. Second, the study found that many motivating factors are at play. These include salary, staffing, training, workload, benefits, job characteristics, resources, work environment, professional advancement, collegiality, autonomy, work schedules, management, red tape, interoffice politics, stress, time, boredom, work-life balance, and personal issues. Third, the number of respondents who identified multiple factors in response to each of the five questions indicates that the public service motivation construct is not capturing a full picture of the phenomenon of work motivation.

In the final analysis, the results of the content analysis suggest that the respondents are primarily motived by fairness. They want to be paid fairly in comparison to their co-workers, other state employees, and professional colleagues. They also want to be treated fairly when it comes to staffing and resources. In other words, they do not want to be set up for failure. They want a sufficient number of attorneys employed to handle the work, sufficient support staff to work efficiently, and sufficient resources to work effectively.

E. Limitations

The utility of this study is limited in sevearal ways. First, the focus on public sector attorneys limits the genearlizability of the study. The results may not be representative of other public sector professions and non-pwithin the public sector in Tennessee. Likewise, the results may not be generalizable to non-professional public servants. Moreover, the results may not be representative of non-public sector attorneys in Tennessee. Furthermore, the results may not be representative of he general population in the state of Tennessee. In other words, the results may be limited to the selected sample, which may be different in critical ways from other samples of public sector attorneyes, other public sector professionals, non-professional public servants, and the general population of attorneyss.

Second, the geographical region limits this study. The sample comes from a single state in the southern region of the United States of America. The results may not be applicable to attorneys in other regions of the United States. Moreover, the results may not be tranferrable to other southern states in the United States. Likewise, the results may not be applicable internationally. The state of Tennessee may have character traits endemic to its culture that differentiate it from other states and nations. Indeed, the finding of this study that the public service motivation construct is not a good fit for the data may suggest that public sector attorneys in Tennessee are different than counterparts in the legal profession elsewhere.

Third, the researcher's past employment may limit this study. Before the survey was distributed, the researcher worked for the Tennessee Attorney General and Reporter for twelve and a half years. During the survey period, the researcher received direct contact from two or three respondents. Thus, respondents who know the researcher may have hesitated at being honest, candid, and forthcoming in their answers, despite the assurances of anonymity. They may have been concerned that their responses may not be completely anonymous. However, by the time this study was completed, the researcher had been out of public service for over four years. The researcher believes that the effects of prior employment are sufficiently mitigated.

Similarly, researcher bias may limit the study. The researcher's past employment may affect the researcher's ability to be neutral and unbiased when interpreting the responses to the qualitative questions. The study controlled for this bias by understanding that it is present and taking extra care in the analysis of the results.

Fourth, the reliance upon cross-sectional survey data may limit the study. Cross-sectional survey data does not support inferences of causality. Relatedly, the use of self-reported survey answers limits this study. Self-reported survey data implicates the social desirability bias, according to which respondents may provide the answers that they view most socially desirable instead of providing truthful responses.

Finally, the use of perceptual data limits the study. This survey collected perceptual data rather than objective data. The respondent's perceptions may be skewed and misrepresent what was actually occurring.

E. Conclusions

This study anticipated that it would find that, as a general matter, attorneys employed by the State of Tennessee are motivated by a public service motivation. Both the qualitative analysis and the quantitative analysis reveal that to not be the case.

Administrators can apply this research in a practical manner to devise recruitment and hiring strategies and to develop compensation and benefits packages that will tap into their attorneys' intrinsic desire for meaningful public service. Additionally, this research will contribute to the literature on employee motivation and establish a foundation for future studies by extending the research into a previously ignored but significant employment sector: the legal profession.

Despite the questions raised here, scholars should continue to study public service motivation in reliance on the Public Service Motivation construct. This study is only one of a limited few that call the construct into question. Future studies should seek to confirm these results. Subsequent studies should seek to measure changes in pay, staffing, and resources relative to this study. It is conceivable that the concerns of respondents in these areas overwhelmed any public service motivation that exists. Motivation could be so dynamic that as one need is satisfied another need emerges to take its place. If this is discovered to be so, then remedial measures with respect to salary, staffing, and other resources could result in an increased focus by employees on other motivating factors. Additionally, scholars should seek to build on the qualitative results through similar studies and other qualitative methods. The content analysis presented here provides insight into the complex and individualistic nature of employment motivation and suggests that, in the broader context, public service motivation may be of negligible import. If future studies confirm this finding, the efficacy of the study of public service motivation in isolation, as generally done, will be undermined.

F. Future Research

Future studies should repeate this study to determine if the construct is the issue or if this study suffered from a problem with its instrument. If subsequent studies confirm the finding on the fitness of the construct, additional lines of inquiry will arise concerning the reasons that the construct, which fits other data sets from a variety of employment settings, does not fit the data in this study. The comments received in response to the qualitative questions may provide insight into the poor fit. It could be possible that the contextual factors, such as issues with management, fairness in compensation, and overbearing workloads, supercede public service motivation when the perception of those factors reaches elevated or excessive levels. Perhaps implementing organizational changes addressed to resolving or alleviating those issues would allow public service motivation to prosper.

As noted in the literature review, as a general matter, the legal profession has not received much attention in the academic literature. As public servants, attorneys may be driven by different motivational factors than other public servants, both professional and non-professional. Thus, the literature will benefit from additional studies of attorneys in the state of Tennessee and elsewhere. Among other things, future studies may analyze the relationship between the legal profession's service ethic and the general public service ethic represented by the public service motivation construct and the other motivational factors included in this study. Studies of the relationship between attorneys' perception of equity in compensation—interagency, intra-agency, and inter-sectoral—may shed some light on the findings presented here. The other factors identified in the qualitative finds establish similarly fertile ground for academic study.

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APPENDIX 1
Survey Instrument

Public Service Motivation

Q1 Thank you for participating in this survey. The objective of this research is to gather and analyze data concerning the factors that affect employment motivation in the public sector.

Your participation will require the completion of a web-based survey. It should take you about 15 to 20 minutes to complete the survey. If you need to take a break during the survey, you may sign off and resume the survey later.

Your participation is voluntary. You may choose not to answer some questions. You may withdraw from participating in the survey at any time. Survey responses will be submitted anonymously. All of the information will be kept confidential. The data will be kept in a secure location. Only the student researcher and faculty adviser will have access to the data.

There is no known risk or discomfort associated with the taking of this survey. You may experience mental or physical discomfort, harm, or inconvenience in recalling information to answer the questions.

Your participation will not result in any direct benefit to you.

If you have any questions concerning your rights as a participant in this research, you should contact the Chairman of the Institutional Review Board, Dr. Pamela Burch-Sims. You may contact Dr. Burch-Sims by telephone at (615) 963-5611 or by e-mail at irb@tnstate.edu.

Any other questions about this study should be directed to the study investigators:

Student Researcher:

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I have read this consent form, and I agree to participate in this study.

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q2 In the questions that follow, you will be asked to read a statement and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by choosing one of five responses.

Q3 Politics is a dirty word.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q4 The give and take of public policy making doesn't appeal to me.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q5 I don't care much for politicians.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q6 It is hard for me to get intensely interested in what is going on in my community.

- Strongly Agree (1)

- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q7 I unselfishly contribute to my community.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q8 Meaningful public service is important to me.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q9 I would prefer seeing public officials do what is best for the whole community even if it harmed my interest.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q10 I consider public service my civic duty.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q11 I am rarely moved by the plight of the underprivileged.

- Strongly Agree (1)

- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q12 Most social programs are too vital to do without.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q13 It is difficult for me to contain my feelings when I see people in distress.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q14 To me, patriotism includes seeing to the welfare of others.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q15 I seldom think about the welfare of people who I don't know personally.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q16 I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on one another.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)

- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q17 I have little compassion for people in need who are unwilling to take the first step to help themselves.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q18 There are few public programs that I wholeheartedly support.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q19 Job security is very important to me.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q20 High income is very important to me.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q21 Good opportunities for advancement are very important to me.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)

- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q22 Having an interesting job is very important to me.
- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q23 Having a job that allows me to work independently is very important to me.
- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q24 Having a job that allows me to help other people is very important to me.
- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q25 Having a job that is useful to society is very important to me.
- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q26 Having a job with flexible work hours is very important to me.
- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)

- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q27 I know what is expected of me on the job.
- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q28 I understand what I must do to receive a high performance rating.
- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q29 I understand my agency's mission.
- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q30 I understand how I contribute to my agency's mission.
- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q31 I have a desire to help my work unit meets its goals.
- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)

- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q32 The work I do is meaningful to me.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q33 Overall, I am satisfied with my pay.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q34 My organization takes steps to ensure that employees are appropriately paid.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q35 In the past two years, I have been treated fairly regarding opportunities for advancement.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q36 I receive the training I need to perform my job.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)

- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q37 In the past two years, I have been treated fairly regarding opportunities for training.
- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q38 My supervisor keeps me informed about how well I am doing.
- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q39 My supervisor provides constructive feedback about my job performance.
- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q40 Overall, I am satisfied with my job.
- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q41 I can see how my work contributes to the performance of my organization.
- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)

- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q42 I can see how my work contributes to the performance of my work unit.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q43 This organization provides valuable public service.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q44 This organization's mission is exciting to me.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q45 This organization has clearly defined goals.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q46 This organization's mission is easy to explain to others.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q47 In general, I like working here.

- Strongly Agree (1)
- Agree (2)
- Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)
- Disagree (4)
- Strongly Disagree (5)

Q48 Please choose the response the best describes the organization in which you work.

- Prosecutor (1)
- Public Defender or Post-Conviction Defender (2)
- Legislative Branch (3)
- Executive Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender) (4)
- Judicial Branch (non-prosecutor & non-public defender) (5)
- Attorney General & Reporter (6)

Q49 Please indicate your gender.

- Male (1)
- Female (2)

Q50 Please indicate your age.

- 18 to 30 (1)
- 31 to 40 (2)
- 40 to 50 (3)
- 50 to 60 (4)
- over 60 (5)

Q51 Please indicate your race or ethnicity.

- White or Caucasian (1)
- Black or African-American (2)
- Hispanic or Latino (3)
- Native American (4)
- Asian (5)
- Other (6)

Q52 Please indicate your income level.

- under $40,000 (1)
- $40,000 to $60,000 (2)
- $60,001 to $80,000 (3)
- $80,001 to $100,000 (4)
- over $100,000 (5)

Q53 Please indicate if you are in a managerial or supervisory position.

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q54 Please state the reason or reasons that you first went to work for the State of Tennessee.

Q55 In answering the following question, please consider your salary and benefits; work environment; job characteristics and responsibilities; managers, supervisors, and co-workers; organizational mission; work hours; opportunities for training and advancement; and any other characteristics of your employment. If you could change one thing about your current employment, what would it be? Please explain your answer.

Q56 How would you design your job to make yourself more effective and efficient?

Q57 What motivates you to be the best employee you can be?

Q58 What prevents you from being the best employee that you can be?

APPENDIX 2

PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION SCALE
Perry (1996)

Attraction to Policy Making

1. Politics is a dirty word.

2. The give and take of public policy making doesn't appeal to me.

3. I don't care much for politicians.

Commitment to the Public Interest

4. It is hard for me to get intensely interested in what is going on in my community.

5. I unselfishly contribute to my community.

6. Meaningful public service is very important to me.

7. I would prefer seeing public officials do what is best for the whole community even if it harmed my interests.

8. I consider public service my civic duty.

Compassion

9. I am rarely moved by the plight of the underprivileged.

10. Most social programs are too vital to do without.

11. It is difficult for me to contain my feelings when I see people in distress.

12. To me, patriotism includes seeing to the welfare of others.

13. I seldom think about the welfare of people whom I don't know personally.

14. I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on one another.

15. I have little compassion for people in need who are unwilling to take the first step to help themselves.

16. There are few public programs that I whole heartedly support.

Self-Sacrifice

17. Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements.
18. I believe in putting duty before self.
19. Doing well financially is definitely more important to me than doing good deeds.
20. Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than me.
21. Serving citizens would give me a good feeling even if no one paid me for it.
22. I feel people should give back to society more than they get from it.
23. I am one of those rare people who would risk personal loss to help someone else.
24. I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society.

APPENDIX 3

GSS QUESTIONS ON PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION

Lewis and Frank (2002)

Suppose you were working and could choose between different kinds of jobs. Which of the following would you personally choose?

(a.) Working in a private business or
(b.) working for the government or civil service?

On the following list there are various aspects of jobs. Please circle one number to show how important you personally consider it in a job (1=Not important; 5=Very important).

(a.) Job security
(b.) High income
(c.) Good opportunities for advancement
(d.) An interesting job
(e.) A job that allows someone to work independently
(f.) A job that allows someone to help other people
(g.) A job that is useful to society
(h.) A job with flexible working hours