SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION:

ANTECEDENTS OF PSM IN THE INSTANCE OF TURKISH

DISTRICT DIRECTORS OF SOCIAL ASSISTANCE

AND SOLIDARITY FOUNDATIONS AND

CIVIL REGISTRY OFFICES

by

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To my beloved wife, Emine, and my son, Ahmet Orhun.

For their love, cordial prayers and patience.

To my parents.

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This dissertation explored antecedents of public service motivation (PSM) in the Turkish public

administration context. Data was collected from two occupational groups of middle managers

working in the public sector. Findings obtained from inferential statistical techniques confirmed

significant positive relationships of parental socialization, professional identification, and

frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering (WSAS) to PSM. No significant

relationship was found between level of education and PSM. In addition to these variables in

socio-historical context, the study investigated antecedent role of job characteristics, servant

leadership and organizational tenure with respect to PSM. Motivation potential level, frequency

of needs-testing tasks in work routine and servant leadership proved strong positive predictors of

public service motivation. Yet, findings concerning 'frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine' were anomalous. Organizational tenure and adversarial tension did not have an effect on PSM. On the other hand, the study found positive moderating effect of WSAS on the relationship between servant leadership and PSM. This finding boded well for possible interactions between socio-historical and motivational contexts. Lastly, three control variables, age and gender and occupation emerged as having significant implications for PSM. Policy implications and future research suggestions were discussed.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACCTBLTY   Accountability

AUTHNTCTY   Authenticity

APM   Attraction to Policy Making

CPI   Commitment to Public Interest

COM   Compassion

CI   Confidence interval

EDU   Level of Education

EU   European Union

FNTT   Frequency of Needs-Testing Tasks in Work Routine

GLOBE   Global Leadership and Organizational Behavioral Effectiveness

HRM   Human Resources Management

MPL   Motivation Potential Level

MSPB   Merit System Protection Board

NPM   New Public Management

PS   Parental Socialization

PRO   Professionalism/ Professional Identification

PSM   Public Service Motivation

R&Log   Reflected and Logarithmic transformation applied

SPSS   Statistical Package for Social Sciences

SS   Self-Sacrifice

SL	Servant leadership
STNDBCK	Standing Back
TNS	Tension
WSAS	Frequency of Witnessing Situations Associated With Suffering
VIF	Variance Inflation factor

As proposed by Behn (1995) and reiterated by many scholars (e.g., Perry and Hondeghem 2008; Denhardt, Denhardt and Aristigueta 2009; Brewer and Brewer 2011; Davis 2010), motivation is recognized as being one of the three big questions of public management, alongside micromanagement and measurement. The appealing idea of a motivated, engaged, and committed work force has been a great locus of scholarly interest irrespective of the sector in which analyses are made (e.g., Mann 2006; Durant et al. 2006; Buelens and Van den Broeck 2007). Although Behn's (1995) propositions indirectly point at managers by addressing them as possessors of the above questions, Leadership constitutes one of the most distinguishing themes of organizational research. Despite the overall agreement on the significance of motivation and leadership domains, it is hardly possible to encounter such a consensus among scholars on the qualities, contingencies, priorities and ultimately modeling the impact of leadership and motivation. Given the diversity of approaches, one can easily argue that almost all relevant studies on leadership and motivation indicate a certain environment in which all stakeholders and actors are supposed to consider and move inside. The stage that is set for the interplay is tumultuous, results-based, downsized, relational, contextual and ultimately highly complex (Durant et al. 2006; Denhardt, Denhardt and Aristigueta 2009; Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber 2009).

Public Service Motivation (PSM), being a distinct response to the motivation question, constitutes the main focus of this study. A flourishing scholarly interest of PSM after Perry and Wise's (1990) groundbreaking article, which formulated PSM as an individual tendency to react to the motives found uniquely or primarily in public organizations, is evident. The central tenets of PSM challenge the deep rooted emphasis New Public Management (NPM) places on the theoretical presumptions of micro economic and principle-agent approaches (Hood 1995). These approaches have prevailed and inspired almost every reform initiative since the 1990s at all levels of government in the United States (Kellough and Selden 2003). Thus, PSM is a likely focus of attention, given its values of public service, political activity, and concern for others-oriented values that directly challenge the New Public Management approach. Furthermore, recent failures in the corporate world in responding to the global economic crises suggest that private sector know-how is not the only means for improving public sector productivity. PSM offers an alternative approach as a lever for realizing the basic functions of human resources management (HRM) such as attraction, selection, retention, training, and a number of organizational outcomes ranging from turnover intentions, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment to performance.

Three important propositions of Perry and Wise (1990) underlie the alternative approach PSM offers. The first one suggests that PSM has a positive effect on job seeking in the public sector. The second one associates PSM with positive individual performance, and the last one argues that individuals with high PSM are less likely to report dependence on utilitarian incentives. As mentioned before, these presumptions were at odds with NPM and therefore received scholarly interest. Initial PSM research considered PSM as the reflection of distinct

preferences and attitudes inherent in the public sector and did not place emphasis on whether PSM is a given or dynamic disposition (e.g., Rainey 1982; Frederickson and Hart 1985). However, subsequent studies on antecedents of PSM highlighted that PSM was a dynamic concept varying across different levels of socio-historical and motivational contexts and individual characteristics (Perry 1997; Perry 2000; Bright 2005: Camilleri 2007; Vandenabelee 2011).

Once PSM is accepted as a dynamic construct that has the potential of addressing problems of public administration and public human resource management, the question 'what shapes PSM' emerge as an important locus of inquiry.

The most comprehensive theoretical frame in order to understand the patterns and antecedent factors of PSM, developed by Perry (2000), identified three blocks of variables corresponding to three distinct contexts in which PSM is shaped. While socio-historical context included socialization processes that occur outside of the organizations, motivational context referred to a group of organizational factors such as job characteristics, organizational incentives, and work environment. The third block of this model indicated personal attributes. Interestingly, few studies specifically investigated antecedents of PSM (Perry 1997; Bright 2005; Camilleri 2007; Vandenabeele 2011). Furthermore, none of these studies incorporated leadership in their model except Camilleri (2007). However, Camilleri (2007) solely included good relationship with leader in his model and this is admittedly just one specific aspect of leadership.

When Perry's process theory is considered, leadership might seem to have an effect on PSM at least in two ways. First, leaders might directly affect their followers' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors under the light of social learning and role modelling theory (Bandura

1977, 1986) and second, they might indirectly have an impact on PSM by manipulating the factors that are linked with PSM. For example, a leader in a managerial rank can change the content of jobs, removing or changing responsibilities that are regarded as potential motivators of individuals. On the other hand, leaders can give prominence to the significance of a job and in so doing, may help individuals understanding the purpose and the meaning of their tasks.

However, only a limited number of studies separately examined the relationship between leadership styles and PSM. Moreover, the only theme in these studies were transformational leadership (Vandenabeele 2007b; Park and Rainey 2008; Paalberg and Lavigna 2010; Wright, Moynihan and Pandey 2012)

While the transformational leadership approach preserves its prominence in the public administration field, a less investigated but increasingly discussed leadership approach, grounded in ethical, spiritual, and moral emphases can also be discerned. Leadership perspectives such as ethical leadership (Brown, Treviño and Harrison 2005), spiritual leadership (Fry 2003), leader-member exchange (Graen and Uhl-Bien 1995), self-sacrificing leadership (Yeon and Mai-Dalton 1999), and servant leadership (Greenleaf 1970, 1977) can be mentioned in this flow of research (Barbuto and Wheeler 2006, Van Dierendonck 2011). Although each of these perspectives varies in its eminent emphases, one could group them for their manifest criticism of Bass' (1985) initial description of transformational leadership, which overlooks the values that proposed transformation realized by transformational leaders rests on. In this vein, Bass (1985, 20-21) states:

> Burns saw the transformation as one that was necessarily elevating; furthering what was good rather than evil for the person and the polity. For Burns Hitler was not a transformational leader... For us, Germany was still transformed, although the leadership

itself was immoral. What matters is that followers' attitudes and behavior were transformed by the leader's performance.

With respect to the above quotation, one could understand that transformational leaders can be both villain and virtuous depending on their 'values' (Beekun 2012) and in this regard, some scholars (e.g., Graham 1991; Beekun 2012) consider transformational leadership as a value-neutral approach to management. Furthermore, recent corporate scandals like Enron, Arthur Andersen, Lehman Brothers, Tyco, and Worldcom have emerged in the U.S. (Yukl 2006; Hale and Fields 2007; Sendjaya, Sarros and Santora 2008; Van Dierendonck 2011; Parris and Peachey 2013; Beekun 2012). Similar scandals in Europe include Cirio, Parmalat and Banca di Lodi (Bobbio, Van Dierendonck, and Manganelli 2012).These scandals appear to be common subjects of many studies concerning alternative leadership perspectives mentioned above. The rise of these perspectives coincides with disclosure of these corporate scandals, which are associated with poor leadership and its immoral and unethical business conduct. This pace is fostered by growing criticism against "arrogant greed" attributed to a certain leader stereotype that holds the idea that "greed pays as long as they can get by governmental watchdogs" (Beekun 2012, 1014). Considering these harsh criticisms, Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) revised transformational leadership theory and offered a distinction between authentic and pseudo transformational leaders. That is, in this revised formulation, authentic transformational leaders sincerely embrace values such as fairness and honesty whilst pseudo transformational leaders either reject or instrumentalize them selfishly in a political motivation (Bass and Steidlmeier 1999; Brown, Treviño and Harrison 2005; Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber 2009; Reed, Vidaver-Cohen and Colwell 2011). One might regard this revision as the consequence of the destructive

impacts caused by the subsequent global crisis, the scandalous collapses of several distinguished business firms in the 2000s, and a concomitant quest for a more value-laden understanding of leadership.

The prominent value themes of this new setting , entitled "post-Enron world" by Sen Sendjaya (2010, 48), signify ethical and/or moral principles that are supposed to guide management practices within the organization, beyond the tenets of agency theory with its assumption of homo economicus seeking for his/her self-interest in an opportunistic and self-serving manner. In addition, criticism directed to charismatic explications of leadership based on "glorification of leaders" (Hale and Fields 2007, 397) concurs with increasing demands for a more people-centered and relational leadership perception. This perception is delineated by a reciprocal interplay between leader and follower (Van Dierendonck 2011; Walumbwa, Hartnell and Oke 2010) rather than a unidirectional 'idealized influences/charismas' of the leader on his followers (Bass 2000). In this regard, many scholars underscore value placed on a supporting environment, personal growth and well-being of followers (e.g., Ilies, Morgeson and Nahrgang 2005; Yukl 2006). Increasing emphases on values such as personal integrity, trustworthy, honesty, fairness (e.g., Boyum 2006; Russel and Stone 2002; Walumbwa, Hartnell, and Oke 2010), is one prominent concept in recent literature. Another noticeable key concept throughout recent leadership research is altruism (Brown, Treviño and Harrison 2005; Sendjaya, Sarros and Santora 2008; Avolio and Locke 2002; Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber 2009), which refers to pro-social motives and behaviors toward others involving personal sacrifice (Kaplan 2000; Patterson 2003). However, it should be noted that while the altruism concept itself is a common point at issue, its focus, in other words, coverage and content of the term 'others' diverges

mostly in accordance with the leadership philosophies. The coverage of 'others' might be individuals, subordinates, peers, groups inside and outside of workplace, a specific community, or society as a whole. This differentiation could determine final causes/teleological grounds of the leadership perspectives.

Servant leadership has recently begun to draw scholarly attention as being one of these recent value-laden leadership approaches (Barbuto and Wheeler 2006; Hale and Fields 2007; Lanctot and Justin 2007; Spears 2010; Parris and Peachey 2013). Many high-ranking private sector companies such as The Toro Company (Minneapolis, Minnesota), Synovus Financial Corporation (Columbus, Georgia), ServiceMaster Company (Downers Grove, Illinois), The Men'sWearhouse (Fremont, California), Southwest Airlines (Dallas, Texas), and TDIndustries (Dallas, Texas) have adopted and proclaimed servant leadership as their principal guiding philosophy (Patterson 2003; Van Diarendonck and Patterson 2010; Parris and Peachey 2013). Servant leadership was introduced by Robert K. Greenleaf (1904 – 1990), a former Director of Management Development in AT&T, in a highly influential and insightful essay called 'Servant as a Leader'. The most prominent perspective developed in the essay is the idea of "being a servant first" before embarking on the qualities of leadership. Leadership is regarded as the consequence of a conscious choice that comes after a natural feeling oriented to serve first (Greenleaf 1970). Greenleaf (1970) himself did not specify a theoretical basis and/or a concrete operational definition regarding servant leadership. However, subsequent research efforts inspired by his experiential, philosophical and intuitive writings managed to identify the concept as a multidimensional construct that includes traits such as humility, standing back,

empowerment, forgiveness, authenticity, and stewardship (Van Dierendonck and Patterson 2010, Van Dierendonck 2011).

Furthermore, several studies have underscored servant leadership as an antecedent to a number of positive organizational outcomes such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, lower levels of burnout (Bobbio, Van Dierendonck and Manganelli 2012; Jaramillo et al. 2009). Another group of studies revealed additional outcomes, such as coworker helping behavior, high-quality customer service, decreased turnover rates (Hunter et al. 2013); work engagement, employee well-being (Van Dierendonck and Nuijten 2011), and organizational performance (De Wall and Sivro 2012). Despite the fact that there is no total agreement among scholars with respect to the numbers and contents of these constituent components, one could argue that servant leadership constitutes an important alternative form of leadership in responding to the work-related problems associated with organizations. In spite of the demonstrated convergence between servant leadership and other forms of leadership, such as transformational, authentic, ethical, and spiritual approaches (e.g., Graham 1991; Reed, Vidaver-Cohen and Colwell 2011; Van Diarendonck 2011), servant leadership offers a unique perspective for public sector organizations given its emphasis on service orientation, follower well-being. Apparently, this follower-orientation seems to go beyond 'individualized consideration', which is reiterated very frequently in transformational leadership debates (Stone , Russel and Patterson 2004; Boyum 2006; Van Diarendonck, 2011). In a similar vein, servant leadership deviates significantly from other leadership perspectives in its exceptional standpoint with respect to power relations. In accordance with Greenleaf's ideas about leadership, which conceive it as something to be exercised on the basis of the first among equals – primus inter pares – principle (Van

Dierendonck and Patterson 2010; Prosser 2010; Van Dierendonck 2011; Van Dierendonck and Nuijten 2011), servant leadership is associated with having some sort of relational power that surfaces through persuasion, rather than relying on positional and/or hierarchical power. Finally, contrary to the mainstream leadership approaches that eventually link their eminent emphases to an ultimate cause of attaining organizational goals, servant leadership is considered to possess a distinctively specified motivation to lead that is configured with an indispensable need to serve (Greenleaf 1972a ; Spears 2010). Therefore, follower outcomes such as well-being, autonomy, moral development, commitment to service and societal betterment emerges as the principal focus in servant leadership (Graham 1991; Barbuto and Wheeler 2006; Mayer 2010), and by definition, these outcomes are not necessarily and intrinsically related with organizational outcomes. (Van Dierendonck 2011; Reed, Vidaver-Cohen and Colwell 2011). While investigating antecedents of PSM, assessing the impact of servant leadership in a public sector organization presents a distinct opportunity for public administration scholars that has yet to be reviewed.

This study exclusively aims to examine and elucidate antecedents of PSM. Namely, it investigates contextual factors that either directly affect PSM or affect the strength of the relationship (if there is indeed one) between PSM and servant leadership behaviors in public managers. In order to explore this area of inquiry, the present study focuses on two groups of middle level managers in the Turkish public administration system: district directors of social assistance and solidarity foundations and civil registry offices. Servant leadership is considered an organizational factor in this context, and the study explores the relationship between PSMs of

these mid-level managers and servant leadership behaviors of their immediate supervisors (i.e., district governors).

The contemporary Turkish Public Administration system can be characterized into two mainstream tendencies of centralist and decentralist approaches, the latter of which has traditionally been regarded as a supplementary function of the former under the generic features of the continental European nation-state paradigm (Ortaylı 1979; Gözübüyük and Tan 2006) . This paradigm, which emerged just after the French revolution in 1789 and become pervasive throughout continental Europe during whole 19th century, basically rests on a state idealization that derives its legitimacy from serving as a self-governing entity for a nation as an independent territorial unit. One can expound the nation-state with a number of characteristics. 'Nation' conception involves overriding and unifying different ethnical origins. Secularism is strict, and a semi-sanctified perception of nontransferable territory discourse contrary to the dynastic monarchies and empires is evident. Citizenship is legally defined, taxation and custom policies are unified and ultimately central government is distinguishably sensitive to decentralist inclinations of local governments (Habermas and Ciaran 1998; Sağ and Aslan 2001). The Current public administration system and related laws in Turkey are predominantly formed under the influence of the French administrative tradition beginning from the late19th century. The distinguished centralist tendencies of the French model appealed to Ottoman Empire intellectuals and politicians in an era of dissolution and in the face of huge land losses. However, when Ottomans, six centuries-old multinational empire, ended and was replaced by the modern Republic of Turkey in 1923, the French system was still a niche for the military and the

"founding father" civilian bureaucrat elites – because of its Jacobin top-down approach to giving shape to the state and the society (Zurcher 2004; Karahanogullari 2004).

Yet an important caveat here is that after the 1980s and particularly concurrent with the accelerated pace of the European Union accession process over the last decade, one can observe extensive transitions and changes both in the Turkish society and the public administration. Many laws and internal regulations concerning the domains of politics, economy, education, fiscal issues, and demographic policies have been adapted to political and economic accession criteria of the European Union, and this is still an ongoing process. In addition, subsequent European Union (EU) related reforms have resulted in changes to existing (e.g., Province and District Governorships) and newly emerging (e.g., boards, supreme boards, regional institutions) agents of change. Many authorities and responsibilities regarding the provision and the delivery of services, which previously belonged to the central government and its peripheral organizations (i.e., governorships in provinces and district governorships in districts), have been delegated to local governments and regional entities (i.e., municipalities, regional institutions and agencies).

However, in spite of the magnitude of the recent government reforms that are nothing short of revolutionary in many aspects, the spinal structure of the public administration system is still in force. In brief, there are 81 basic administrative divisions called provinces in Turkey. These provinces consist of sub-divisions, which are called districts, and there are 919 of them distributed in varying numbers through the provinces. The central government is organized in both of these administrative units reflecting more or less the ministerial schema in Ankara – the capital. For example, the ministry of national education is organized in provinces and districts as provincial directorates of national education, and in district directorates of national education

respectively. Likewise, almost all ministries (e.g., ministries of health, family and social policies, internal affairs, agriculture) have their peripheral/rural equivalents within provinces and districts and mid-level managers under the immediate supervision of provincial and district governors manage these departments. (Province Administration Act 1949; Gözübüyük and Tan 2006).

Provincial governors and district governors serve both as the transmitters of regime values and as the implementers of policies, legislation, and other regulations shaped in the Turkish capital. As assigned leaders and chief executive officers in governorships and district governorship organizations consisting of directorates, they are equipped with broad obligatory authorities over peripheral organization of the nation-state. Also, they have somewhat power of administrative tutelage over local governments (i.e., elected mayors of municipalities), albeit considerably diminished with recent reforms. In addition to their regular responsibilities, district and provincial governors have also been assigned many new tasks ranging from utilization of EU funds, to infrastructure investments in the rural area (Gözübüyük and Tan 2006; Ministry of Internal Affairs 2011b).

Directorates in provinces and districts are combined under the tags of governorships and district governorships and they function under the immediate responsibility of their directors. These organizations play a crucial role in the provision and the delivery of services and implementation of policies defined and made by the central government. However, it would be erroneous to regard these organizations as bare transmission belts of central government policies since directors of these organizations also have wide discretion authority over the allocation of the resources and burdens among the stakeholders of many public policies and programs. As Jacobson (2011, 220) stated, "middle managers hold professional positions with authority and

discretion and they have significant influence within the organization." In the similar vein

Paalberg and Perry (2007, 396) suggest;

> Middle managers play key roles in interpreting strategic values in terms of employees' values and their everyday work responsibilities, as well as communicating and rewarding performance toward those values in ways that reflect and build on employees' individual values. As such, middle managers play key roles as 'integrators', connecting organization strategy to employees' functional values that derive from societal, cultural, and religious experiences

Furthermore, their position power over their subordinates makes them very important figures to examine with respect to human resources management topics in the Turkish public administration context as well as in the case of the U.S. context.

The present study exclusively examines antecedents of PSM in the instance of district directors of two directorates: social assistance and solidarity foundations and civil registry offices. Directors of registry offices are excellent examples of public servants working under the immunity of Turkish civil service law. Their privileges and rights such as tenure, job security, pay, benefits, and family, medical, and annual leaves are secured. Among the main responsibility of civil registry offices are recording life events such as birth, death, marriage, and divorce; processing naturalization and denaturalization transactions, provision of ID cards, and keeping demographics statistics (Civil Registration Services Law 2006).

District directors of social assistance and solidarity foundations have unique position with respect to employment status among government employees. This is somewhat due to the complicated structure of social assistance and solidarity foundations. These foundations are quasi-governmental organizations. They utilize public resources; however, the board of trustees consists of mayors, local politicians, local guilds, civilians, headman of villages, and public servants. While board composition is highly diverse, the leadership of district governors emerges

as a unifying factor. The main responsibility of these foundations is helping poor, underprivileged, and deprived segments of the society (Social Assistance and Solidarity General Directorate's Organization and Duties Act 2004). Directors of foundations are hired by presidents, i.e., district governors, and board of trustees. Their employment status is not under the protection of civil service law. They work with limited contracts and do not yet have tenure rights. Legally, district governors and the board could terminate their contract easily and they do not possess any due process rights.

The study excluded province-level organizations for two reasons. First, there are many differences with regard to the scope of authority, responsibilities, resources, and other contextual variables (i.e., actors in decision-making processes, power relations etc.) between district directors and provincial directors. The second reason is related to the essential difference between their immediate supervisors. District governors occupy secured positions in a system similar to general schedule classification. The Governors in the provinces hold the exceptional office cadres and work under the full discretion of political authorities in assigning and dismissing them. Therefore, dynamics and conditions in this context regarding the inquiry of servant leadership are expected to be fundamentally different from district context and needs to be examined separately.

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Problem Statement

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The idea of having a motivated and engaged workforce appeals to both the business world and public sector. For the public sector, motivation is seen as tool for eliciting a number of desirable and positive individual and organizational outcomes (DeHart-Davis, Marlowe and Pandey 2006; Park and Rainey 2008; U.S. Merit System Protection Board [MSPB] Report 2012).

Some of these outcomes include job satisfaction (e.g., Steijn 2008), intention to remain in the organization (e.g., Naff and Crum 1999; Cerase and Farinella 2006), organizational commitment (e.g., Crewson 1997), organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Pandey, Wright, and Moynihan 2008), and task vigilance (e.g., Brewer and Brewer 2011). However, while almost all stakeholders of organizations share this appealing idea, there is no single agreed silver bullet to achieve this goal. The diversity of initiatives directed toward answering the big question of motivation is underpinned by the perceptions regarding human nature. Theoretical approaches have attempted to explain motivation in many ways, such as in terms of hierarchical priority structures (e.g., Maslow 1943). X and Y theories dichotomize dark and bright sides of individuals in broad generalizations (McGregor 1960). Expectancy theories highlight expectations of human rationale in associating their efforts with desirable consequences. Goal setting theories (Latham and Locke 1991) emphasize the motivating roles of challenging goals, accompanied by a great deal of research on the role of rewards and punishments and/or preferences about those (e.g., Wabba and House 1974).

In recent decades, the New Public Management has emerged as a motivational construct for energizing a perceived lackadaisical bureaucracy. NPM and its underlying presumptions are closely related to principle-agent and self-interest based thinking (Perry, Engbers and Yun 2009). As an alternative to the more cynical assumptions of bureaucracy proposed by NPM, PSM has been viewed a viable assessment for explaining public service and has garnered a considerable amount of scholarly attention (Perry, Hondeghem and Wise 2010). Despite the promise of PSM as a perspective on motivation, NPM-like reforms continue to dominate the public sector in the form of pay-for-performance (e.g., Brook and King 2011) and at-will employment (Coggburn et

al. 2010; Battaglio 2010). The PSM perspective postulates distinct motives associated with public service (Perry and Wise 1990; Crewson 1997) and implies "beliefs, values, and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest that concern the interest of a larger political entity" (Vandenabeele 2007a, 547). It has emerged as one of the more consistent alternative paradigms to NPM.

As mentioned in the preface, Turkey is currently experiencing an ongoing transition and change period with regard to its deep-rooted civil service system that reflects its centralist and statist tradition. Politicians articulate the call for a drastic shift toward a more business-like management approach in the Turkish public sector more loudly. For example, the Turkish State Minister of Labor and Social Security recently stated (Internethaber 2012):

> Now assume that you are a public employee and you think somehow and other you took refuge in the state… Where on earth anyone who does not produce is employed? But in public sector they say it is OK! However, here we are to sustain the state not to bankrupt it! Just like in the private sector, productivity must be the reference. We are working on a system that holds productivity. We are going to seek for ways to get more productivity from 3 million public employees. We are going to develop such a system that anyone one who produce more will earn more and the one who produce less will earn less!

Even after a short glimpse at the above statement, one could discern many generic arguments of NPM and reinventing government reforms in the U.S., such as concerns for economy and efficiency (Osborne and Gaebler 1992), and signals of quasi-market incentive systems such as performance related pay (Perry, Engbers and Yun 2009). While this criticism directed to the traditional civil service system for its inflexibility and ineffectiveness (Battaglio 2010) is distinguishably in force in the Turkish context, there is an increasing trend to query the explanatory power of these principle agent based theories when examining particular 'public' or government-related behaviors such as self-sacrifice, realizing the public interest, and altruism

(Vandenabeele 2007a) in the U.S. public administration research. Therefore, in this regard, one can argue that the Turkish experience somewhat trails the U.S. reform initiatives. This statement also finds evidence from the perspective of the current prevailing themes in public management research of both contexts. Onder and Brower's (2013, 134) study reveals that compared to the United States, New Public Management topics receives much more attention from the Turkish public administration research and programs. Their study also highlights that themes like new governance, public values, and ethics draw much more attention in the U.S. context than in the Turkish context. Therefore, introducing the PSM construct to the contexts of countries like Turkey – a country at a relatively nascent stage of reform – could prove interesting and fruitful.

Purpose of the Study

This study aims to explore the role of a number of factors assumed in the socio-historical and the motivational contexts of Perry's (2000) PSM process theory in shaping public service motivation. In the socio-historical context, the study intends to investigate whether parental socialization, professional identification, and level of education are associated with public service motivation. Besides, the study aims to preliminarily operationalize several new concepts derived from recent discussions of several public administration scholars (Pattakos 2004; Perry et al 2008; Houston 2011). Namely, in the socio-historical context, the study introduces 'frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering', as another antecedent of PSM.

In the motivational context, the study intends to reveal the role of job characteristics and servant leadership in explaining PSM. 'Frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine' and 'adversarial tension between public servant and citizens' are the new concepts that the study sought to operationalize in this context. Thus, this inquiry responds to calls for a more nuanced

approach to PSM considering occupational focus (Houston 2011). Recent interpretations of PSM have extended the application of the concept to boards of trustees and employees of non-profit organizations (e.g., Lee and Wilkins 2011) and even to private sector companies for the corporate social responsibility notion (Steen 2008). Steen (2008, 203) points at this course of PSM research and headlines it as "Not a Government Monopoly". In a similar line with PSM, servant leadership has received scant attention from the public administration field. The enthusiasm of corporate world and non-profits are apparently greater than the public sector. Therefore, the present study reviews relevant literature of servant leadership and contributes to the field by conducting first empirical analysis of servant leadership with respect to PSM within the public sector.

Research Questions

The main research question of the study is: What are the antecedents of public service motivation among Turkish mid-level managers. There are three sub-questions developed around this main question.

1) What is the relationship between socio-historical context variables and PSM? (i.e., level of education, parental socialization, and professional identification, and witnessing situations associated with suffering)

2) What is the relationship between motivational context variables and PSM? (i.e., servant leadership, motivation potential level, frequency of needs testing tasks in work routine, adversarial tension between public servant and citizen)

3) Is there an interaction between socio-historical and motivational context when predicting PSM?

CHAPTER II

LITERTURE REVIEW

Public Service Motivation

Like almost all constructs that become subjects of public administration and HRM research, PSM is not a concept that came into being at the time of its articulation. Admittedly, this is the reason why Perry and Hondeghem (2008) praise scholars ranging from Max Weber to Chester Barnard in the preface of the book they edited. Weber, for instance, has provided strong insights into one of the prominent debates when he challenged the prevailing Marxist paradigm's excessive economic determinism by underscoring the importance of super-structural phenomena (e.g., protestant ethics and capitalism) that alternatively explain human motivation. Moreover, before these relatively recent scholars, one can associate PSM even with the idealistic projections of Ancient Greece philosophers such as Plato and Aristotle. For example, Plato's fully devoted guardians having no private possessions and no families represent the pure, and to some extent utopic, form of public servants motivated by self-sacrificing ideals that can be related with the altruism-laden definitions of PSM (Horton 2008, 18). Similarly, Aristotle's description of government as being something beyond statutory regulations – the sum of governmental offices and their ostentatious echelons – articulates it in terms of a "moral spirit and manner of life" (Pattakos 2004 , 106).

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In addition, constitutional documents such as the Federalist Papers (Perry 2011), express the founding fathers' regard for the patriotism of benevolence (e.g., Frederickson and Hart 1985), a key value related to PSM. On the other hand, had public administration scholars, as Houston et al. (2008) very well epitomized, gone free of the disparity between its grassroots and research frames, religions could also provide much more valuable insights in this sense. King's (2000) study, for example, supports this argument in the sense that he associates general profiles of public servants with related doctrines of Abrahamic religions (e.g., Judaism, Christianity, Islam).

Having accepted the importance of these historical precursors of the PSM concept, it should be noted that Public Service Motivation was initially identified as a generic term or as a nominalization of the incidence of a special attribute in public service in the 1980s (Kim and Vandenabeele 2010), which was later organized into a coherent conceptual framework by Perry and Wise (1990). By the end of the 1980s, New Public Management reforms challenged the traditional notion of public service by offering an alternative, private sector oriented approach to management (Riccucci and Thompson 2008). The NPM approach can be categorized as less than "employee friendly organizational reforms", which would be highlighted as a positive predictor of PSM later on (e.g., Moynihan and Pandey 2007). The case of air-traffic controllers (Ferris and Hyde 2004) was a notable instance of the animosity at play between management and employees in the public sector. Although not having such an outright political antagonism fostered by new-right economy policies, both New Public Management and reinventing government advocate economic perspectives in personnel policy instruments and both approaches handle the motivation problem within the network of contracts and economic incentives. Public personnel

reforms such as employment at-will have targeted well-established civil service system gains such as organizational tenure in order to remove poor performing employees in a bid to reduce costs and improve efficiency (Battaglio 2010). The result has been growing public cynicism and bureaucrat bashing toward government (Perry and Wise 1990; Pattakos 2004). Popular political dogma portrays the public sector as a shelter in which less skilled and under motivated take refuge in and enjoy a middle-class life (Donahue 2008), caricaturing public employees as stereotypes who are lethargic, and who consistently tend to feign work in hidebound bureaucracies (Carroll and Siegel 1999; Wright 2001; Brewer and Brewer 2011).

PSM literature offers a more optimistic alternative to explaining the relationship between individuals and public service, a distinct motivational base of public service being rational, norm-based, and affective (Perry and Wise 1990, Perry 1996). This line of research challenges the underlying assumptions of recent government efforts to create a more efficient public work force.

PSM as a multidimensional construct

Although some scholars like Rainey (1982) mentioned Public Service Motivation as a discriminating variable between reward preferences of public and private sector employees, first systematic approach and coherent framework was provided by Perry and Wise's seminal 1990 study. They defined PSM as "an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations" (1990, 368). Perry and Wise identified three motivational categories for PSM: rational, norm-based, and affective. Rational motives are associated with a desire to play an active role in policymaking processes or to advocate for a political agendum or supporting a public program. Norm-based motives are

associated with concepts such as public interest, loyalty, duty, and social equity. Affective motives reflect patriotism of benevolence or a desire to help others (Frederickson and Hart 1985; Perry and Wise 1990; Perry 1996; Georgellis, Iossa and Tabvuma 2009). This formulation sets the stage for subsequent efforts to operationalize and measure PSM under four dimensions; attraction to policymaking (APM), commitment to public interest (CPI), compassion (COM), and self-sacrifice (SS) (Perry 1996; Kim 2009b; Kim et al.2013). Apart from its original definition, further efforts to redefine and reframe PSM broadened its scope and shed light on different aspects of the concept. Brewer and Selden revised it as "the motivational force that induces individuals to perform meaningful … public, community, and social service" (1998, 417). Rainey and Steinbauer broadened the scope beyond the public sphere and point to a "general altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation or humankind" (1999, 417). More recently, Vandenabeele (2007a) highlighted a crucial caveat and extended the validity of these motives beyond self-interest toward the realm of organizational interest.

Antecedents of PSM

Perry (2000) conceives the PSM construct in a context-contingent manner and identifies several contextual settings that might predict PSM and related pro-social behaviors demonstrated in rational, rule based or obligation-centric forms (Giauque et al. 2010). Briefly, As Figure 1.1 illustrates, Perry's process theory of PSM (2000) offers two separate contexts embodied with different sets of variables that precede and shape individual characteristics as the determinants of PSM based behavior (Perry and Wise 1990) such as socio-historical context and motivational context. It is also important to notice that Perry (2000) identifies three components of the

individual characteristics that are shaped by the variables in socio-historical and motivational

contexts, including: abilities/competencies, self-concept [i.e., values and belief that helps

answering the questions such as "What kind of situation is this? Who am I? How appropriate are

different actions for me in this situation?" (Perry 2000, 477; March and Olsen 1989; Jacobson

2011)], and finally, individual self-regulation [i.e., ones' monitoring and judging himself in order

to create appropriate self-reaction (Perry and Vandenabeele 2008)]. This section reviews relevant

studies regarding antecedents of PSM, adhering to the content and logic of these contexts as

much as possible.

Exhibit

A Process Theory of Public Service Motivation

Socio Historical Context	Motivational Context	Individual Characteristics	Behavior

EDUCATION
- Professional Training
- Education Level

SOCIALIZATION
- Religion
- Parental Relations

LIFE EVENTS

Observational Learning/Modelling

INSTITUTIONS
- Beliefs
- Values
- Ideologies

JOB CHARECTERISTICS

ORGANIZATIONAL INCENTIVES

WORK ENVIRONMENT

ABILITIES COMPETENCIES

SELF-CONCEPT
- Values
- Identity

SELF REGULATORY PROCESSES

RATIONAL CHOICE

RULE-GOVERNED BEHAVIOR

OBLIGATION

Figure 1.1. Perry's process theory

Antecedent variables in the socio-historical context

In his process theory of PSM, Perry (2000) identifies socio-historical context as a block, consisting of a number of variables within three subtitles of education, socialization, and life events. Perry conceives these factors of environmental variables that form motives, priorities and of individuals besides heredity.

Education

Professional training and education level are two components of the education subtitle and have been subjects of inquiry in many PSM studies (e.g., Perry 1997; DeHart-Davis, Marlow and Pandey2006; Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Vandenabeele 2011). Specifically, level of education emerges as one of the most consistent antecedents of others-oriented behaviors associated with PSM (Wilson 2000; Vandenabelee 2011). Accordingly, most of the studies found a positive relationship between level of education and PSM (e.g., Perry 1997; DeHart-Davis; Marlow and Pandey 2006; Bright 2005; Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Pandey and Stazyk 2008). Despite this overall pattern, however, some scholars like, DeHart-Davis, Marlow and Pandey (2006) refine this relationship and indicate that closer examination on the basis of PSM sub-dimensions could engender differences regarding the strength and direction of this relationship. Their study reveals that increase in education decreases the likelihood of a stronger motivation on compassion dimension.

Likewise, professionalism or professional identification generally refers to a number of characteristics such as "clear-cut occupational field; specialized technical knowledge acquired from a formal educational program; ethical responsibility for the use of expertise" (Perry 1997, 182), and proves to be another strong antecedent of PSM. (Perry 1997; DeHart-Davis, Marlow

and Pandey 2006; Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Andersen 2007).Yet, similar to the level of education variable, a further detailed analysis based on PSM sub-dimensions might reveal interesting findings. Perry's (1997) study for example, finds a negative relationship between the attraction to policymaking component of PSM and professionalism. APM items of Perry's original 24-item PSM scale are reported as the most problematic component and criticized due to their failure to accurately reflect rational motive (e.g., Kim 2009a, 2009b; Kim et al. 2013). Some scholars consider APM items as a proxy for distaste for the political processes (e.g., Brewer, Selden and Facer 2000), individual distrust of politicians (e.g., Coursey and Pandey 2007), or alienation of professionals from politic (Perry 1997). However, some others further the issue and regard that negative relationship between APM and professionalism as evidence for the endurance of the politics-administration dichotomy (e.g., Coursey et al. 2008; DeHart-Davis, Marlowe and Pandey 2006).

<p style="text-align:center">Socialization</p>

Perry (2000) identifies two repository variables for inculcating individual's others-oriented pro-social behaviors within a socialization process, which are religion and parental relations. Although a number of studies mention religion, religiosity, religious socialization, and religious activity as important antecedents of PSM (e.g., Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Pandey and Stazyk 2008; Jacobson 2011), few studies examined religion as an antecedent of PSM. Perry's (1997) study ,which is the most relevant and most frequently cited one in this line of research, reveals that while more formal indicators of religion (e.g., church attendance) yield no or negative relationships, a less formal and more spiritual operationalization, such as closeness to God, shows positive signs toward PSM (Perry 1997) . Yet, in a subsequent study by Perry et al.

(2008), in the context of volunteerism and benevolence, religious activity (e.g., Attending religious services, praying or reading religious texts, practicing traditional religious rituals) proves to be a strong predictor of PSM. On the other hand, the study confirms the positive effect of spiritual worldview over PSM.

The impact of parental modeling or socialization on PSM received relatively scant attention as well as religious socialization. Several studies (e.g., Perry 1997; Perry et al. 2008; Vandenabeele 2011) consistently found positive relationships between parental socialization into public values and PSM levels of individuals. In other words, these studies suggest that variables such as reported positive family experiences of individuals when growing up, which involves exposure to parents' altruistic and helping behaviors or volunteer activities (Perry 1997; Perry et al.2008), or within the logic of spillover effect, having public servant parents per se (Vandenabeele 2011) can predict predetermined levels of PSM of the children.

<div align="center">Life events</div>

Perry (2000) underscores transforming life events in situations that are not associated with work-settings and refers to Bandura's social learning theory (1977, 1986) in order to explain their role in deriving, initiating, and enhancing values related to public service motivation. According to social learning theory, individuals observe their environments and identify role models. Values and behavioral patterns are transmitted through observation and modelling. Subsequently, individuals form rules of actions upon these values and base their future actions on how appealing and consistent those actions are with these rules (Bandura 1986; Brown, Treviño and Harrison 2005; Coursey, Yang and Pandey 2012).

This review reveals only two studies that seem to fit the context of life events/experiences and PSM. Based on qualitative interviews, the study of Perry et al. (2008) finds that life events play a role in leading people to transform their old motives to new ones. Namely, the study – in the context of volunteerism and benevolence – indicates that people with high PSM (i.e., holders of Daily Point of Light Award and the President's Community Volunteer Award) frequently reported the role of life changing events on their identity as a whole.

In the same vein, Camilleri (2007) treats the issue on the grounds of attendant life experiences. Reminiscent of studies that highlight correlations between having dependent children and religiosity, Camilleri finds that individuals with children are more likely to have higher PSM. According to Pandy and Stazyk (2008), these studies elucidate that with increasing age and related life experiences, such as bringing up children, individuals feel more responsible to make substantial, permanent contributions to the society they live in. However, it should also be noted here that, several studies on volunteerism – a subject frequently associated with themes of PSM, such as pro-social behavior and altruism – seem contradicting in their findings, which exhibit a negative relationship between having dependent children and active volunteering (e.g., Houston 2006).

The effect of life events on PSM via observational learning in Perry's (2000) process theory model can also be a proper fit for considering another theme that has been examined by several studies, but has yet to be examined specifically in its relationship with PSM. In his seminal essay, "The Search for Meaning in Government Service", Pattakos (2004) pinpoints three basic categories of values that promote authentic meaning when reified: creative, experiential, and attitudinal values. In brief, creative values refer to the values derived from

"doing, creating/something", experiential values underscore values emanating from "experiencing something or encountering someone", and ultimately, attitudinal values represent values obtained from "choosing one's attitude toward suffering" (Pattakos 2004, 107). Among these, one can acknowledge attitudinal values as notable for congruence with Perry's (2000) attributes of life events in observational learning context. Pattakos (2004) suggests considering the above three sources beyond individual context and emphasizes their compatibility to be employed as references for the quest for meaning in the government sector. Reminiscent of Perry's (2000) illustration of 'observations' as a lever for value acquisition, he regards inevitable situations associated with suffering as an opportunity to objectify attitudinal values when confronted.

Indeed, a number of scholars, including Pattakos (2004), indicate how witnessing tragic events like the September 11 terrorist attacks and Hurricane Katrina resulted in a drastic rise in altruistic motives and others-centered themes like patriotism, benevolence, serving, volunteering, heroism, self-sacrifice, and quest for meaning of life among public servants (e.g., firefighters in Brewer 2008), and among the general public as a whole (e.g., Yum and Schenck-Hamlin 2005; Solnit 2009). Frederickson and Hart (1985) reported in an early study concerning PSM that the German-occupied Denmark and Danish Bureaucrats' demonstrated patriotism of benevolence for their Jewish fellow-citizens who suffered from Nazi Germany oppression during World War II. These examples provide further support for the possible value-creating effects of situations associated with suffering when confronted. While these examples highlight the importance of 'suffering phenomena' as a predictor of PSM-related values, they also extend its focus from personal life changing events (e.g., personal suffering stories of the holders of Daily Point of

Light Award and the President's Community Volunteer Award in Perry et al.2008) to the suffrings of others. Furthermore, these examples allow considering a specific setting, location, region, or a country as a whole – as in the case of Denmark –, where situations that involve suffering are more likely to be witnessed in almost all aspects of life. In such an environment, one might expect these observed sufferings being converted into means as to promote others-oriented, altruistic, and pro-social attributes of PSM.

Antecedent variables in motivational context

Perry (2000) uses the term 'motivational context' in order to refer to variables that influence behaviors within the organization and introduces four critical variables that shape PSM: institutions, organizational incentives, work environment, and job characteristics.

Institution

Classifying relevant literature under this subheading seems problematic due to varying interpretations. The first and most common review of the concept handle institutions in the sense of "a well-established and structured pattern of behavior or of relationships that is accepted as a fundamental part of a culture" (Definitions.net 2014). This point of view embraces social institutions such as family, religion, and profession, and as presented in the previous section (e.g., Vandenabeele 2011), Perry's original formulation of PSM process theory posits these variables within the socio-historical context, not in the motivational context. Furthermore, in order to clarify institutions, Perry explicitly addresses government institutions and their immediate effects on individuals. Hence, the second meaning of institutions, that is "an organization or establishment devoted to the promotion of a cause or program especially one of a public educational or charitable character" (Definitions.net 2014) seems a more accurate

definition in order to reflect the content of the concept. Perry (2000) regards these types institutions as possessing beliefs, values, and ideologies that reflect their 'raison d'etres' and argues that those raison d'etres are manifested through missions, visions, and the strategies of the organizations (Thompson and Bunderson 2003). Motivating power of organizational missions and their immediate impacts on PSM -oriented employee behaviors are underscored by several studies. Perry and Vandenabeele (2008) argue that in organizations that have a vigorous shared comprehension with respect to the organizational mission, employees would be more likely to buy into values, norms, and attitudes concerning a public service identity. In similar vein, Paarlberg and Lavigna (2010) acknowledge positive organizational missions that clearly articulate pro- social values as effective on the persistence of the idea of public service. Wright (2007) finds empirical evidence for the contribution that organizational mission makes to PSM by making the job more important for employees.

<div align="center">Organizational incentives</div>

Perry's (2000) PSM process theory addresses organizational incentives as important factors to determine self-concept and self-regulatory process of individuals. However, relevant studies in PSM literature concerning organizational incentives vary according to the adopted perspective. A great deal of research employs PSM as an independent variable that affects individual preferences of rewards and incentives. On the other hand, another perspective elucidates and discusses the role of organizational incentive systems on initiating and fostering PSM. Knoke and Wright-Isac's (1982) propose how well organizational incentive systems match an individual's motivation is a key factor.

The distinction based on motivation typology yields two perspectives: extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. In the widest sense, intrinsic motivation refers to a psychological state experienced when people engage in the activity for its own sake. The activity is felt as inherently enjoyable and satisfying (Ryan and Deci 2000). On the other hand, extrinsic motivation embraces fulfilling the task with the intention to attain an outcome that is detached from the activity per se. This dichotomous definition has been frequently utilized as a sort-out criterion for employees in private and public sector. Public employees are generally considered more intrinsically motivated compared to those in the private sector (Crewson 1997). An expected result of this determination points at reward preferences, and although findings are mixed and controversial (Alonso and Lewis 2001), there is empirical evidence that public employees are less likely to place greater value on extrinsic rewards or utilitarian incentives such as monetary compensation or promotion opportunities (Perry, Hondeghem and Wise 2010) compared to private sector employees .

The importance of organizational incentive systems as an antecedent in Perry's (2000) model becomes apparent at this point. Many scholars draw attention to possible mismatch between incentive systems and the essence of the task and/or individual dispositions related with these tasks. More specifically, inculcating and promoting extrinsic rewards (e.g., monetary rewards) for desired outcomes that are inherently in the realm of intrinsic motivation and altruism (e.g., others-oriented extra-work behavior) is considered to crowd-out intrinsic motivation and harm the long-lasting satisfaction derived from the task per se. This 'crowding out effect' has empirical evidence (e.g., Georgellis, Iossa, and Tabvuma 2009) and is reported to

be one of the fundamental reasons for the unsatisfactory results of performance related pay arrangements in the public sector (Perry, Engbers, and Jun 2009; Davis 2011)

Work environment

In line with Perry's (2000) model, a number of scholars and official documents emphasized the role of work environment as another shaper/predictor of employee motivation, in the organizations (e.g., Perry 1997; Bright 2005; U.S Merit System Protection Board [MSPB] Report, 2012). The most prominent assumption underlying this approach is that individuals respond to their environments in terms of how they perceive them and the most important constituent of that perception is the meaning or meanings assigned to the environment by the individual (Wright, Moynihan and Pandey 2012).

Moynihan and Pandey's (2007) study reveals as the most comprehensive study that examines antecedent factors of PSM on the base work environment. Organizational culture, bureaucratic red tape, the presence of employee friendly reforms, hierarchical levels, and organizational tenure are identified as key organizational antecedents of PSM. The study finds significant relationships between PSM and these variables with the exception of organizational culture. While bureaucratic red tape and organizational tenure represents a negative relationship with PSM, other variables, such as hierarchical levels, the presence of employee friendly reforms, indicated a positive relationship. According to Pandey and Stazyk (2008) the negative relationship between PSM and organizational tenure was somewhat anomalous since long-term interaction between organizational and individual-level factors is generally expected to bring about a stronger commitment and consciousness with respect to pro-social motives. However, it should be noted that these findings concerning organizational tenure seem consistent when

considering a more recent study (i.e., Bright 2009) that reports negative relationship between organizational tenure and preference of non-monetary intrinsic rewards, which is an inherently PSM related concept.

<div align="center">Job characteristics</div>

Houston (2011) suggests applying the notion of person-environment fit in order to answer the following question: where is PSM likely to be present? He identifies two specific perspectives in this framework concerning PSM: person-organization fit and person-job fit. Person-organization fit refers to congruence between values of the individual and the organization (Wright and Pandey 2008). This understanding seems coherent with Perry and Wise's formulation of PSM as "an individual predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations" (1990, 368). The most explicit consequence of this perspective is that because values like public interest, love of fellow-citizens, patriotism of benevolence, and loyalty to duty are prominent themes in the public sphere, the public sector as whole emerges as an opportunity to satisfy needs associated with PSM.

Houston (2011) refers to this approach as 'occupational locus' and refers to the answer to the question 'where you do' or simply the sector (Andersen, Pallesen and Pedersen 2011). Indeed, a great deal of research focuses on the incidence of PSM and emphasizes employment sector as a sorting-out measure (Georgellis, Iossa and Tabvuma 2009) used for distinguishing predispositions towards PSM- related motives, public employment, and reward preferences (e.g., Rainey 1982, Crewson 1997; Houston 2000).

The second perspective pertinent to PSM within the frame of 'person-environment fit' is person-job fit (Houston 2011). Person-job fit signifies the relationship between an individual's characteristics and job characteristics (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson 2005). The most important consequence of this point of view is that the main reason why people with high PSM are attracted to government work is not the government work per se but the availability of the occupations that satisfy PSM- related higher order needs, such as serving to society by doing meaningful work and helping others. In other words, this occupational focus – or in Andersen, Pallesen and Pedersen's (2011) saying, 'what you do' – is considered to predict PSM better than where you do or namely, the sector (Houston 2011; Andersen, Pallesen and Pedersen 2011), and this argument is supported by a number of empirical studies. For example, Andersen, Pallesen, and Pedersen (2011) found no significant differences in overall PSM scores of the Danish physicians working in the public and the private sector. In a similar vein, in their study on the differences between work motivations between public and private sector workers in Belgium, Buelens and Van den Broeck (2007) demonstrated that that the differences between the two groups were mostly related to job contents rather than the sector itself.

There are two important implications of the above discussion regarding occupational locus and occupational focus. First, as Steen (2008) reviews, occupational focus allows considering PSM beyond the public sphere and extending its implementation to the other sectors. Indeed, several studies found evidence that both non-profit and private sector occupations have the potential to host PSM based values. For example, Lee and Wilkins (2011) indicated that while differences are present in some respect, PSM speaks to both government and non-profit organizations that share similar grounds on the altruistic motivational perspective. Furthermore,

themes such as social corporate responsibility in business context are considered to have private and public sectors converged based on meeting altruistic needs (Steen 2008).

The second implication relates to the necessity of a nuanced view of PSM variation within in the sector. Apparently, not all the jobs in the public sector have the same content and characteristics. In reference to the occupational focus, several authors identified some distinction criteria such as high/low publicness (Vandenabeele 2008b) and public service/ non-public service (i.e., Houston 2011) in order to specify job characteristics in predicting PSM variations. For example, Houston's (2011) study found that jobs in the public sector having public service character were more likely to be associated with higher levels of PSM compared to those having non-public service character.

This line of research seems to be a fertile ground to produce various approaches and one can identify Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model as one the most prominent one among these (Perry and Wise 1990; Christensen and Wright 2011). As Perry and Wise discussed, "individuals will be motivated to perform well when they find their work meaningful and believe that they have responsibility for the outcomes of their assigned tasks" (1990, 371), and the job characteristics model by Hackman and Oldham (1980) aims to identify what the attributes of jobs having motivating potential are. Their research exhibits five core job characteristics that result in three psychological perceptions: responsibility, meaningfulness, and awareness (Oh and Lewis 2009). These five characteristics are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback, and these characteristics determine the motivating potential of a job. Skill variety refers to the diversity of the skills knowledge and aptitudes that are necessary to accomplish a certain job. Task identity is related to wholeness of the job as a

recognizable one-piece of work. Task significance emphasizes how important is the job and how it has an impact on others. Finally, while autonomy indicates the level of control and discretion a job provides people over the processes of their work, feedback refers to the opportunities inherent to the job on the basis of enabling individuals to acquire information about the consequences of their efforts (Hackman and Oldham 1980; Yavuz 2004). According to Perry and Wise (1990), these characteristics properly fit the attributes those individuals with PSM motives derive from being employed in the public sector.

The model associates these characteristics with three psychological states. Meaningfulness of the work is expected to be attained by working in an occupation having skill variety, task identity, and task significance. Autonomy is attributed to the sense of responsibility, and finally, awareness of outcomes is corresponded to feedback characteristic of the job. In order to operationalize motivating potential levels of job characteristics Hackman and Oldham (1980) introduced Motivation Potential Score, which is a combination of different scales attributed to these five characteristics and they posit that jobs enriched with these characteristics lead to higher satisfaction and motivation. A recent study on employee engagement and motivation potential of job characteristic by Merit System Protection Board (2012) provides empirical support for the model. Employing Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics model, the study, within the context of federal workers, revealed that employees who report higher positive job characteristics also displayed higher work motivation.

Admittedly, these job characteristics are not exhaustive. A number of different characteristics such as salary, service orientation (Christensen and Wright 2011), no danger of being fired, and chances for advancement (Crewson 1997) have been linked to work motivation

directly and indirectly. Among these various job characteristics, direct contact with beneficiaries/citizens has been examined by a number of scholars and there seems to be an overall agreement with respect to the positive effects of direct contact with citizens on employee motivation (e.g., Grant 2007; Paarlberg 2007). In this respect, immediate contact with citizens is regarded as an opportunity for individuals to fulfill their motivation to make a pro-social difference (Grant 2007). In addition, greater access to feedback processes obtained via citizen contact, including appreciation and greater affective commitment thereof, are considered positive aspects of citizen contact (Grant 2007, 2008).

However, as Christensen and Wright (2011) accurately stated, not all employee contacts with citizens are in a positive or rewarding manner. Therefore, quality of the contact becomes crucial as much as the presence of that contact. In his discussion on the relationship between welfare regimes and PSM, Houston mentions an interesting example of such a contact that is loaded with adversarial tension. Houston (2011) contrasts universal social programs and addresses frequency of needs-tested social programs in order to distinguish well-developed and less-developed welfare states respectively. Needs test is defined "as examination of a person's physical or social, circumstances, to determine whether he or she is eligible for a particular welfare benefit or service" (dictionary. com 2014) and his description uncovers an interesting pattern associated with implementation of needs- test based programs. According to Houston, implementation of needs-tested programs causes an antagonistic condition between citizen and the public servant. These kinds of services require citizens to prove their need in order to qualify for the provided service and tend to authorize public servants to use their discretion before making the final decision. That being said, concealing crucial information or trying to convince

the public bureaucrat for the rightfulness and truth of their need for service seems as a convenient way for the citizens, and yet, this would engender a sense of doubt and distrust in public servant's mind. Consequently, Houston (2011) predicts a tense and adversarial relationship between the citizen and the bureaucrat. One anticipated consequence of this tension is degradation on the motivation of the public bureaucrat and a drastic shift in the nature of work "from helping people to being a bureaucrat, which guards against inappropriate demands for public services" (Houston 2011, 764).

Houston employs needs-testing programs as a discriminating variable between well-developed and less developed welfare systems and his analyses reveal that these programs are more common in less-developed welfare systems. (i.e., Anglo-Saxon countries) and concludes that PSMs of the employees in these countries are more likely to be lower. Yet, considering frequency of need-testing tasks as an antecedent job characteristic is also possible and that can help elaborating the impact of job characteristics on PSM.

This study investigates PSM as the main dependent variable. However, it should also be noted that many studies examined PSM as predictor of a number of organizational and individual outcomes. In this line of research, one can identify organizational commitment as one of the most investigated and important positive correlates of PSM (Crewson 1997; Camilleri 2007; Moynihan and Pandey 2010; Paarlberg and Lavigna 2010; Perry Hondeghem and Wise 2010). In addition, job satisfaction emerges as another frequently reported outcome of PSM (e.g., Rainey 1982; Brewer and Selden 1998; Naff and Crum 1999; Kim 2005). This list is not exhaustive, review of the PSM literature reveals several other correlates as well. Examples include: intention to remain in the organization; organizational and interpersonal citizenship behavior (Kim 2006;

Pandey, Wright, and Moynihan 2008; Wright, Moynihan, and Pandey 2012); non-monetary reward preferences (e.g., Rainey 1982; Crewson 1997); whistle-blowing (Brewer and Selden 1998); charitable gifts of time, blood, and money as proxies of "walk the walk" behavior (Houston 2006); emotional labor (Hsieh, Yang, and Fu 2012); task vigilance (Brewer and Brewer 2011); and, individual and organizational performance (Naff and Crum 1999; Alonso and Lewis 2001; Vandenabeele 2009). In fact, although it is not consistent across all studies, positive association of PSM with above organizational outcomes is one of the most important reasons for the flourishing scholarly interest with respect to PSM. It also underlies motivation of this study.

Servant leadership as an antecedent of PSM

According to some scholars like Jill Graham (1991), Bennet Sims (1997) and Zeynep Öner (2011), the concept of servant leadership, or simply the idea of a leader who serves, is an oxymoronic juxtaposition in western cultures. This seems consistent when considering the popularity of prevailing leadership paradigms driven by charisma, power, and authority (Peterson, Galvin and Lange 2012), which explicitly or by implication suggest reaching organizational goals and success, frequently in the narrow form of financial tables, as the final cause of the organizational activity.

Robert K. Greanleaf (1970), as the founder of the concept and as the most influential figure on servant leadership literature, with his subsequent essays that he wrote in the 1970s, offers a different perspective to leadership. In his view, the servant as leader is not a paradox; it is a real phenomenon of a figure of a natural servant as a servant first, with leadership being realized as a natural desire to serve per se. (Graham 1991). Similar to other value-laden concepts

(e.g., PSM) that has been translated into social sciences (Hannay 2009); in order to illustrate this argument, he examines the existence and persistence of the idea of being a servant leader and its prominent components such as withdrawal, humility, standing back, forgiveness, vision, and stewardship throughout the history. In this vein, Greenleaf – after stating his intuitional awakening – associates this idea with religious figures like Jesus, philosophers like Albert Camus, political figures like Thomas Jefferson, and religious denominations like Quakers, of which Greenleaf also was a member (Greenleaf 1970).

Greenleaf believed a leadership crisis existed in the period he wrote his essays (Boyum 2006). According to Greenleaf (1979, 2002), despite the increasing discourse for independence from tradition and opposition to injustice or insincerity, most potential leaders do not take the risk of being affirmative builders for a better society and take shelter under the immunity of comfort and idyllic existence. What Greenleaf envisaged in response to that crisis was an alternative leadership "demonstrated by empowering and developing people; by expressing humility, authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, and stewardship; and by providing direction" (Van Dierendonck 2011, 1228).

As Van Dierendonck (2011, 1229) stated, however, in spite of its inception more than 40 years ago, initial empirical studies of servant leadership started only ten years ago. One of the reasons for this delayed and relatively scant attention to the empirical research in the past four decade is reported to be 'unorthodox' attributes of the servant leadership. In other words, Greenleaf addresses servant leadership "as a way of life rather than a management technique" (Parris and Peachey 2013, 378), which is barely observed in many contemporary leadership approaches. He remarks that his idea of servant leaders does not emanate from observation and/

or research or a conscious contemplation. Instead it emanates from an intuition that came into being in the instance of Servant Leo – a character in a story narrated by Hermann Hesse (1956) – and his unconditional and silent enthusiasm to serve in a group of people on their voyage east (Greenleaf 1970; Graham 1991; Laub 1999; Hannay 2009; Sendjaya, Sarros and Santora 2008).

In Greenleaf's own words, since servant leadership ''is meant to be neither a scholarly treatise nor a how-to-do-it manual'' (Greenleaf 1977, 49), operationalization of the concept is reported as difficult by a number of scholars (e.g., Barbuto and Wheeler 2006; Van Dierendonck 2011; Van Dierendonck and Nuijten 2011). Furthermore, Greenleaf himself does not articulate a solid definition of servant leadership in his response to the crisis, nor does he leave a comprehensive framework that might easily be converted into tangible results for academic research (Van Dierendonck 2011, 1129). That said, while Greenleaf's essays were insightful and inspired many prescriptive non-academic writings, subsequent servant leadership research more fully developed the descriptive aspect of the topic by exemplifying a wide range of behaviors derived from Greenleaf's writings (Reed, Vidaver-Cohen and Colwell 2011).

However, there might be another alternative explanation of this delayed yet burgeoning interest to academic research of servant leadership, manifested through scale development efforts and empirical studies on antecedents, correlates, and outcomes of the concept in last ten years. The last decade noticeably coincides with growing concerns and questions regarding excessively competitive and results-based approaches to management and leadership. In this flow of leadership perspectives, transformational leadership has taken the lead due to its initial conceptualization by Bass (1985). This leadership style has been a popular locus of interest because of its outstanding focus on the leader's ability to stimulate his/her followers cognitive

capacity, align personal goals with higher goals of the organizations, and in doing this, consider the needs of individuals in order to achieve the mission of the organization (Bass and Avolio 1994). Yet, a number of criticisms have been directed to transformational approach concomitant with the rise of value-laden perspectives of leadership. Among those criticisms, being value-neutral (Beekun 2012), or namely, lacking moral and ethical values and virtues, having inherent pitfalls for narcissistic temptations (Graham 1991) are the most frequently reiterated ones. In addition, both these criticisms and subsequent criticisms move away from the initial perception of "transformational leadership toward a stronger emphasis on a shared, relational, moral and global perspective in which especially the interaction between leader and follower are key elements" (Van Dierendonck 2011, 1229; Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber, 2009). These criticisms were consistently associated with the dramatic demise of a number of corporate giants as a result of unethical business conduct and poor leadership. That is to say, although Greenleaf mentioned a leadership crisis when he wrote his essays in the 1970s, a more destructive and drastic crisis was apparent in late 1990s and 2000s in the corporate world. Therefore, growing interest to the topic in last ten years could be explained with this congruence.

Servant leadership provides a distinct conceptual frame that instills a figure of natural servant as a servant first with leadership being realized as a natural desire to serve per se. According to servant leadership perspective, "success is when those who are served become healthier, freer, more autonomous, and wiser and as a result become servants themselves" (Greenleaf 1977, 13; Graham 1991; Boyum 2006; Barbuto and Wheeler 2006). As these statements reveal, the focus of SL approach prioritizes the needs of followers in a unique manner compared to the other leadership styles (Walumbwa, Hartwell and Oke 2010). In addition, a

distinct perception of stakeholders in a much wider cycle than just those internal to the organization emerges as an explicit element of servant leadership. Contrary to the transformational leaders, known for their allegiance toward the organization, servant-leaders are distinguishably responsive to the needs, thoughts and wishes of all stakeholders, including those beyond the boundaries of the organization (Graham 1991; Liden et al. 2008; Reed, Vidaver-Cohen and Colwell 2011). Servant leaders are even sensitive to the needs of the least privileged in society (Greenleaf 1977; Trompenaars and Voerman 2009) who may be affected only indirectly by organizational action. In other words, this multiple stakeholder's perspective also implies a long-term societally-responsible focus that begins with the focus on the follower beyond the short-term and personal bonus oriented attention (Van Dierendonck and Patterson 2010). Consequently, themes such as sustainability, regarded as key to long-term profits (Stone , Russel and Patterson 2004; Van Dierendonck 2011); environmental concerns (e.g., Barbuto and Wheeler 2006; Parris and Peachey 2013); and corporate social responsibility, defined as "involvement in some social good not required by law, which goes beyond the immediate interest of the firm and its shareholders" (Van Dierendonck 2011, 1250 ; Reed, Vidaver-Cohen and Colwell 2011; Peterson, Galvin and Lange 2012), are included in the SL perspective.

It seems timely to note another important and interesting convergence between servant leadership and PSM with respect to 'corporate social responsibility' construct. Consistent with its implication for servant leadership literature, which associate it with a pro-socially-oriented posture demonstrated at the organization level, recent PSM literature (e.g., Steen 2008) regards corporate social responsibility as a viable instrument for private sector organizations and their

employees to satisfy altruistic motives related to PSM and its constructs, and thus extends PSM to the business context.

In the previous section, antecedent variables of PSM have been reviewed mostly by sticking to the contexts conceptualized by Perry's (2000) process theory of PSM. Socio-historical and motivational contexts in the model constitute the bases for grouping the variables that are supposed to predict PSM. However, Perry (2000) does not explicitly identify leadership as an antecedent of PSM in the model. Nevertheless, one can consider leadership as an organizational antecedent found in motivational context since organizational leadership occurs within the organizations and socialization into public values is not confined to parental, religious, or professional socialization. Besides, it should also be noted that leadership is very much different from other groups of variables in motivational context concerning formal structure of organizations such as organizational incentive systems or hierarchical structure. Leadership in this respect shares a similar rationale with some of the variables in socio-historical context such as socialization and role modelling. Leadership occurs between leaders and followers and these concepts are crucial to understand leadership and its consequences/outcomes (Paalberg and Lavigna 2010).

This literature review found only four studies that incorporate a specific leadership style and PSM together (i.e., Vandenabeele 2007b; Park and Rainey 2008, Paalberg and Lavigna 2010; Wright, Moynihan and Pandey 2012). All four studies investigate PSM in its relationship with transformational leadership, and given its wide popularity among public administration, this does not seem surprising. Empirical support for a positive relationship between transformational leadership and PSM comes from three studies (i.e., Vandenabeele 2007b; Park and Rainey 2008;

Wright, Moynihan and Pandey 2012). The last relevant study by Paalberg and Lavigna (2010), which aims to guide future research, draws attention to the theoretical convergence between transformational leadership and PSM.

On the other hand, many servant leadership scholars portray the concept as a promising area of research. One reason for that is an ongoing paradigm shift based on leadership perception from a unidirectional and influence-based point of view to a more relational and shared leadership perspective. This drift distinguishably involves a cordial interaction between leader and follower, strong emphasis on moral/ethical values and the needs of followers, which increasingly become central to the analyses. Another reason is that empirical research on servant leadership regarding theoretical frame building, measurement, and hypothesis testing is just at nascent stages compared to the abundance of prescriptive literature on SL (Ehrhart 2004; Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber 2009).

<div align="center">Servant leadership as a multidimensional construct</div>

As previously mentioned, almost all servant leadership literature is shaped around Robert Greenleaf and his three seminal essays: The Servant as Leader (1970), The Institution as Servant (1972a), and Trustees as Servants (1972b). While Greenleaf extended the idea of servant leadership from individuals to institutions and trustees, he did not formally articulate a systematic definition:

> The Servant-Leader is servant first. It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. The best test, and difficult to administer is this: Do those served grow as persons? Do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, and more likely themselves to become servants? (1977, 7)

Subsequent to Greenleaf's essays, a number of scholars attempted to instill servant leadership characteristic from his writings. Spears (1995, 2002, 5-8) cited ten characteristics of servant leaders. These are: "1) listening in a consistent manner that focuses on revealing the will of others; 2) empathy with an unconditional acceptance; 3) healing; 4) awareness; 5) persuasion accompanied with abstention from positional power; 6) conceptualization; 7) foresight; 8) stewardship or societally responsible focus in order to serve the needs of others; 9) commitment to the development of people and 10) building community."

Following Spears' work, several studies expanded upon these characteristics in order to develop a conceptual framework and model for exploring servant leadership. For example, Laub (1999) suggested a conceptual frame consisting of six servant leadership characteristics clusters (i.e., personal development, valuing people, building community, displaying authenticity, providing leadership, sharing leadership). Russell and Stone (2002) provided nine functional (i.e., vision, honesty, integrity, trust, service, modeling, pioneering, appreciation of others, and empowerment) and eleven accompanying servant leadership attributes. Lastly, Patterson's (2003) study offered a model that includes seven dimensions of SL associated with servant leaders (i.e., Love, humility, altruism, vision, trust, empowerment and service).

Review of relevant literature refined these almost fifty items to nine different scales that are all developed in order to measure servant leadership (i.e., Laub 1999; Ehrhart 2004; Wong and Davey 2007; Barbuto and Wheeler 2006; Dennis and Bocarnea 2005; Liden et al.2008; Sendjaya, Sarros and Santora 2008; Van Dierendonck and Nuijten 2011; Reed, Vidaver-Cohen and Colwell 2011). Examination of these instruments verifies SL as a multidimensional construct

(Sendjaya 2010) with the exception of one, developed by Ehrhart (2004), as being one-dimensional.

Having considered the diversity and preponderance of SL characteristics displayed in various scale development efforts, and apparent lack of agreement on the dimensions of SL construct, one can find the existing state of SL research confounding and discouraging in some sense. Despite the overlaps in findings, the number of the SL characteristics identified reached almost fifty. According to Van Direndonck and Nuitjen (2011) it is due to this perceived disarray that scholars like Ehrhart (2004) heads toward a one dimensional measure. However, they also argue that a one-dimensional scale is not enough to comprehend servant leadership concept. At this stage, it should also be noted that despite the lack of agreement on many aspects, this work has generally reached a consensus that the servant leader is one who refrains from the use of power and instead relies on convincing, one who knows when to stand back, even when success is evident, and one who presents a distinct follower-oriented moral and behavioral character (Van Diarendonck 2011).

Among the scale development studies, Van Dierendonck and Nuijten's (2011) study and development of 'The Servant Leadership Survey' merits additional attention since it is unique in its robust and comprehensive attempt to bring about a coherent framework and common understanding and a consistent measurement scale. It is one of the most recent SL studies that attempted to translate a mostly prescriptive literature into the language of empirical research. The study also explores the strengths and weaknesses of previous studies. Having closely examined the relevant literature on the dimensions and characteristics of SL and conducting expert panels with servant leaders, their analysis rendered an eight dimensional measure. That is, The Servant

Leadership Survey is a 30-item measurement scale that is aimed to reflect organizational servant leadership behaviors within eight dimensions. These dimensions are: "1) Empowerment, which means letting followers/employees take responsibilities for their own work and encouraging their capabilities; 2) Accountability: displaying confidence in employees by giving the responsibility for outcomes in their hands, providing boundaries within which one is free to achieve one's goals; 3) Standing back: working in the background, letting others shine on the stage; 4) Humility: working with a combined integrity and humble attitude; 5) Authenticity: showing one's true self not acting; 6) Courage: willingness to take risks; 7) Forgiveness: letting go of resentment; and finally, 8) Stewardship: behaving ethically, with a responsibility for society and the long-term interest" (Bobbio, Van Dierendonck and Manganelli 2012, 232; Van Dierendonck and Nuijten 2011). These eight dimensions refine and encompass many previous characteristics issued by previous research and in doing so, they help handling multidimensional structure of the concept in a comprehensible way. Namely, this survey emerges as a convenient and reliable instrument to investigate servant leadership

<p style="text-align:center;">Incidence of servant leadership</p>

This literature review revealed that studies investigating the incidence of servant leadership generally tend to apply two ways to explain it. In one way, studies associate SL characteristics with historical and/or religious figures as Greenleaf himself did in his first introductory essay (1970) and with examples coming from personal observations. This association is frequently carried out either via monographic reviews or via anecdotal evidences derived from religious scripts, texts end experiences. Examples in these studies include servantleadership attributes of historical characters such as Jesus of Nazareth (e.g., Snodgrass

1993;Boyum 2006; Hutchison 2009), Mother Theresa, Harriet Tubman, Lao-tzu, Gandhi, Martin Luther King, Jr., Confucius, Omar bin Khattab as the second Islam caliphate (e.g., Keith 2008; Sarayrah 2004; Van Dierendonck and Patterson 2010), and Prophet Muhammad (Beekun 2012).

In the second way, studies examine the incidence of SL within different national contexts, focusing overwhelmingly on validation of the scales of servant leadership, and occasionally relating them with several organizational variables and other types of leadership. Examples of the national contexts examined servant leadership in this way included countries such as United States, Ghana (Hale and Fields 2007), Italy (Bobbio, Van Dierendonck and Manganelli 2012), and Turkey (Öner 2011). One important shared theme in this group of studies is the conceived link between culture and perception of SL characteristics. When viewed from this aspect, Project GLOBE (global leadership and organizational behavioral effectiveness) has frequently been employed to explain variations with respect to servant leadership dimensions across different cultural contexts. The GLOBE project constitutes one of the most influential cross-cultural leadership studies (House et al. 2004) and examines 62 societies based on cultural dimensions such as power distance, individualism / collectivism, femininity / masculinity, and humane orientation (Hofstede 2001). In addition, the study investigates the perceptions in different cultural clusters with respect to effective leadership (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber 2009). Consequently, especially specific servant leadership characteristics such as humility, standing back, and empowerment become a scientific locus of attention due to their interesting variations across incidence of servant leadership across societies in the GLOBE project (e.g., Öner 2011; Bobbio, Van Dierendonck and Manganelli 2012; Trompenaars and Voerman 2009).

Antecedents and correlates of servant leadership

Compared to the other topics examined in the SL literature, antecedents and correlates of the construct remain mostly understudied (Ehrhart 2004). As mentioned in the previous section, culture appears as an antecedent factor preceding servant leadership. Individual characteristics such as personality (e.g., Hunter et al. 2013) become subject to this type of research. Hunter et al. (2013), for instance, studied agreeableness and extroversion in their relationship with SL and his findings reflect that while agreeableness is positively associated with SL, extroversion proves to be negative predictor. Another antecedent category, demographic variables such as gender, was also handled by some studies (e.g., Fridell et al. 2009), yet results were generally inconsistent.

As for the consequences or, more accurately, correlates of SL, a number of individual and group level outcomes have been examined. Mayer, Bardes, and Piccolo's (2008) study sheds light on one of the basic premises of SL and finds empirical support for the positive relationship between SL and self-actualization through satisfaction of followers' needs. In a similar vein, Jaramillo et al. (2009) highlights a positive relationship between experienced servant leadership and helping behavior. Hebert (2003) reports a strong positive relationship between SL and intrinsic job satisfaction. In addition, a number of studies indicate a positive impact of SL on organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Graham 1995; Hu and Liden 2011; Bobbio, Van Dierendonck and Manganelli 2012), organizational trust (Washington et al. 2006), lower levels of cynicism, and higher team potency and team effectiveness (Irving and Longbotham 2007; Hu and Liden 2011).

Servant leadership vs. transformational Leadership

Servant leadership literature's dialectic and critical stance regarding transformational leadership theory can be identified since the beginning of concept framing and empirical studies (e.g., Graham 1991; Boyum 2006; Parolini, Patterson and Winston 2009). Many studies refer to the transformational approach based on its similarities and differences with SL. However, it should be noted that this interest with respect to transformational leadership proves to be different compared to the other analyses of similar leadership approaches within scale development studies (e.g., authentic leadership, ethical leadership, Level 5 leadership, empowering leadership, spiritual leadership, and self-sacrificing leadership in Liden et al. 2008; Van Dierendonck and Nuijten 2011; Reed, Vidaver-Cohen and Colwell 2011). This interest and frequent references made to transformational leadership appear to be stemming from two possible reasons.

One reason might be extensive similarities between SL and transformational leadership theories. According to Stone, Russel, and Patterson (2004), both leadership types are people-oriented and their conceptual frames share a number of common themes and ideas such as "influence, vision, trust, respect or credibility, risk-sharing or delegation, integrity and modeling." (Hannay 2009, 3; Stone, Russel and Patterson 2004) Furthermore, the two theories converge particularly on the domain of interpersonal relationships placing emphasis on "esteeming, valuing, mentoring or guiding, paying attention, and encouraging followers." (Stone, Russel and Patterson 2004, 354)

The other reason might be some fundamental differences between the two approaches. Although influence is a common theme for leadership styles, source and patterns of the influence

diverge. Servant leadership gives prominence to serving others, humility, standing back, and stewardship, On the other hand, the source for transformational leadership is idealized influence or charisma in its conventional meaning, as well as control. Compared to transformational leadership, one can say that this type of charismatic influence is absent in the servant leadership model (Stone, Russel and Patterson 2004; Van Dierendonck 2010). A second and maybe the most reiterated difference relates to focus of the leaders. Despite the fact that both approaches share the same ground regarding people-orientation, servant leadership and transformational leadership sharply diverge in their answers to the question: for the sake of whom? In the transformational approach, all effort (intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, supportive behavior) is aimed towards organizational success, whereas the final cause of servant leadership is meeting the highest priority needs of followers and guiding them through a cognitive and moral development continuum (Barbuto and Wheeler 2006; Parolini, Patterson and Winston 2009).

This allegiance toward organization by transformational leadership is subjected to criticism. Contrary to Burn's (1978) initial delineation of transformational leadership, which underscores a moral and ethical orientation in transforming individuals and society, Bass' (1985) organization, influence and extra effort centered theory is criticized as being a value-neutral model that equates Hitler and Gandhi in some points (Graham 1991; Parolini, Patterson and Winston 2009). Although Bass subsequently revised his theory and restored his depiction of transformational leader as a leader who "strives to align their own and others' interests with the good of the group, organization, and society" (Bass and Steidlmeier 1999, 30), the initial value-

neutral understanding of transformational leader continues to be used in reference to the recent

business failures associated with poor leadership.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The present study is a generic example of cross-sectional and correlational research with all its strengths and weaknesses. The study employs a quantitative design to examine the relationships between predictor and outcome variables and utilizes a survey instrument which is the most common way of gathering data in social research (Trochim and Donnely 2007). While an extremely cautious view is necessary with regards to the findings and any possible causal statements or inferences of correlational survey research, convenience of collecting a great magnitude of data and relatively lower costs of strategies and settings of these kinds of designs makes them more preferable over experimental studies. Since the study is intended to be a PhD dissertation, time constrains also make this type of correlational study a more suitable alternative with its potential to collect relevant data in a shorter period. Sampling strategy and population, data collection, definition of key indicators, variables, measurement and the hypotheses to be tested are presented in this chapter.

Definition of key indicators

Public Service Motivation (PSM): The most common and frequently reiterated definition of PSM in the literature comes from Perry and Wise's seminal (1990) study that systematically formulated public service motivation (PSM). Accentuating the distinctive repository aspect of public sector as a prosperous ground to cultivate values associated with public service

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Perry and Wise defined PSM as "an individual`s predisposition to respond to motives grounded *primarily* or *uniquely* in public institutions or organizations" (1990, 368). However, while '*uniquely*' part of this definition received a considerable amount of scholarly attention in sector oriented PSM studies, '*primarily*' part also has begun to be examined in a number of studies. That is, *primarily* side of the definition allows seeking PSM related values out of the public sector and also helps encouraging an occupational focus within the public sector per se. Thus, in this study PSM is defined as the above initial formulation, yet , due to the caveat explained in *primarily* notion, the study also retains Rainey and Steinbauer's broader definition that is "general altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation or humankind" (1999, 417)

Attraction to policy making (APM): Perry and Wise conceptualized PSM theory on three motivational bases: rational, norm-based and affective. Attraction to policy making representing the rational facet of PSM refers to satisfaction of subjective needs while serving the public interest (Perry and Wise 1990). The concept is closely related to individual utility maximization expressed via participating the policy making process or commitment to specific public programs because of a private interest. Wise (2000) associates this dimension with somewhat pursuing a sense of achievement and self-importance.

Commitment to public interest (CPI): Commitment to public interest dimension represents the norm-based motivational base of PSM and defined as one's desire to accomplish a social/collective obligation or norm (Perry 1996). Along with a desire to serve the public interest, loyalty to duty and the country also are considered to be the essentials of the concept (Perry and Wise 1990).

Compassion (COM): This dimension of PSM represents the affective motivational base of the concept and was specified as a motive that requires love and concern for others and sympathy for those who needs to be protected. Furthermore, the concept is linked with an extensive love for fellow citizens and humankind as a whole (Perry and Wise 1990, Perry 1996; Frederickson and Hart 1985)

Self-Sacrifice (SS): Self-sacrifice has direct correspondence with none of these motivational bases. The dimension was included in the construct by Perry (1996) due to its close historical link to the general perception with respect to the meaning of the public service (Kim and Vandenabeele, 2010). In this sense, Kim and Vandenabeele (2010) posited self-sacrifice as an overarching dimension. That is, whatever the motivational base is, the PSM related behavior will entail sacrificing personal benefits to varying degrees.

Servant leadership: For the purpose of the study, servant leadership is defined as a leadership philosophy that gives prominence to needs and personal growth of followers rather than exerting power and highlighting leader charisma, and that lays down having an absolute natural desire to serve a first and indispensable condition for being a servant leader. The philosophy is converted into management practices in terms of empowering employees to take responsibilities for their own work and encouraging their capabilities, giving them the responsibility for outcomes that they might control while displaying confidence. Apart from these management practices, definition is completed with a number of familiar leadership traits such as courage, authenticity and the unorthodox ones such as humility, standing back, forgiveness and stewardship (Van Dierendonck and Nuijten 2011; Hunter et al. 2013).

Motivation potential level (MPL): In this study, motivation potential level refers to a composite score derived from a five item scale, comprising of 5 positive job characteristics: Skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. This composite score is used to gauge motivating potential of jobs (U.S Merit System Protection Board [MSPB] Report, 2012; Hackman and Oldham 1975, 1980).

Frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine (FNTT) : For the purpose of this study , 'frequency of needs-testing tasks' is defined as the incidence of tasks related to examination of an "individual's physical , societal and economic conditions, to determine whether he or she is eligible for a particular welfare benefit ,service or programs within one's work routine" (dictionary. com 2014)

Tension (TNS): The study conceptualizes tension as an adversarial relationship (Houston 2011) between public servants and citizens emanating from discretion based decisions made by the public servant.

Parental Socialization (PS): Parental socialization denotes a marked level of consciousness regarding public values that are obtained via experiences of individuals when growing up, which involves exposure to parents' altruistic and helping behaviors or volunteer activities within the logic of parental role modelling and spillover effect (Perry 1997; Perry et al. 2008; Vandenabeele 2011).

Professionalism (PRO): The study handles professionalism as professional identification and links it with a number of characteristics such as "clear-cut occupational field; specialized technical knowledge acquired from a formal educational program; ethical responsibility for the use of expertise" (Perry 1997, 182)

Frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering (WSAS): For the purpose of this study WSAS refers to the incidence of witnessing inevitable situations associated with suffering as an opportunity to objectify others oriented values when confronted (Pattakos 2004).

Hypothesis Development

Perry's (2000) theoretical framework of PSM does not specify leadership as an antecedent variable in a socio-historical context, nor does it mention leadership within the context of motivation. However, merging learning and role modelling components of the socio-historical context into the motivational context could be an appropriate way to connect leadership research to PSM. Affirming this, social learning theory (Bandura 1977, 1986) posits that followers observe their environment, pay attention to the values, attitudes, and behaviors of credible and appealing leadership figures, and emulate them. According to social exchange theory (Blau 1964), social interactions create tacit obligations to return goodness to those who showed others-oriented altruistic behaviors (Walumbwa, Hartwell and Oke 2010). One of the most distinguishing definitions of PSM is that "the belief, values, and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate" (Vandenabeele 2007, 547). As depicted in the literature review, servant leaders frequently possess characteristics that merge servant leadership to the above definition, such as follower-centric attitudes and behaviors, and strong emphasis on altruistic motives that goes beyond self-interest and, frequently, beyond organizational interest.

Furthermore, examination of the dimensions of servant leadership delineate a leader who empowers his/her followers; infuses a sense of accountability; does not refrain from standing

back; shows humility; sincerely forgives; behaves adhering to ethical norms and values; and underscores social responsibility of the work within a stewardship logic can be expected to ignite and leverage his/her followers' altruistic and others -oriented, pro-social motives. Based upon these considerations, following hypothesis was developed:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between servant leadership and PSM (on overall and/or dimensional bases) in the case of Turkish district directors of civil registry offices and social assistance & solidarity foundations.

Review of discussions in previous chapters showed that level of education – possibly due to its close relationship with individual cognitive development – is one of the most consistent positive antecedents of PSM (e.g., Perry 1997; DeHart-Davis, Marlow and Pandey2006; Bright 2005; Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Pandey and Stazyk 2008; Bright 2005). However, there is also some other research that indicates an inverse relationship between education and PSM (Camilleri 2007). Yet, considering preponderance of the previous research that supported a direct relationship between level of education and PSM, the following hypothesis was developed:

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between level of education and PSM (on overall and/or dimensional bases) in the case of Turkish district directors of civil registry offices and social assistance & solidarity foundations

Being concurrent with the presumptions of the socialization component of socio-historical context in Perry's (2000) process theory, a number of studies found that parental modeling or parental socialization into public values does have a positive impact on PSM (e.g., Perry 1997; Perry et al. 2008; Vandenabeele 2011). Individuals' experiences that involve exposure to parents' altruistic and pro-social behaviors during childhood or merely having public

servant parents, in the sense of a spillover effect, are considered to be positively associated with PSM. Hence, following hypothesis was derived from these discussions;

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive relationship between parental socialization into public values and PSM (on overall and/or dimensional bases) in the case of Turkish district directors of civil registry offices and social assistance & solidarity foundations.

Professional identification is generally connected to a number of characteristics such as "clear-cut occupational field; specialized technical knowledge acquired from a formal educational program; ethical responsibility for the use of expertise" (Perry 1997, 182), and proves to be another strong antecedent of PSM. (Perry 1997; DeHart-Davis, Marlow and Pandey 2006; Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Andersen 2007) Although a caveat with respect to the variation among sub-dimensions of PSM is present and reserved, the following hypothesis was developed on the grounds of the process theory's suppositions and corroborative findings of relevant studies with respect to a direct relationship between professionalism and PSM:

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between professional identification and PSM (on overall and/or dimensional bases) in the case of Turkish district directors of civil registry offices and social assistance & solidarity foundations

As discussed in the literature review, Perry's (2000) process theory of PSM draws attention to observations and life events as a source of antecedents and one of his subsequent works (i.e., Perry et al. 2008) verifies the importance of life-changing events for those who are known for their superior benevolence and contributions to society. At this point, Pattakos' (2004) identification of situations associated with suffering as a source of value cultivation for public employees deserves special and timely attention. Studies on tragic events like September 11 and

Hurricane Katrina provide evidence for how such tragic events boost altruistic motives, patriotism and benevolence of public servants, and emergent volunteerism of the public as a whole (e.g., Yum and Schenck-Hamlin 2005; Brewer 2008; Solnit 2009). That being said, an individual who frequently observes situations associated with suffering can be expected to have greater chances of building pro-social values. Admittedly, the chance of observing this type of situation varies according to general conditions of the neighborhood, district, region, or country where individuals live. In addition, servant leadership perspective describes the servant leader as a reflective and authentic figure often touched by what happens around him (Van Dierendonck and Nuitjen 2011). While having a preceding and unconditional concern for the least privileged in the society is reported to be one of the most distinguishing characteristics of SL (Greenleaf 1970), one might expect that observation frequency of suffering-related situations does have an impact on the relationship between SL and PSM. On these premises, following hypotheses were developed:

Hypothesis 5: There is a positive relationship between frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering and PSM (on overall and/or dimensional bases) in the case of Turkish district directors of civil registry offices and social assistance & solidarity foundations.

Hypothesis 5a: Frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering positively moderates the relationship between Servant Leadership and PSM (on overall basis) in the case of Turkish district directors of civil registry offices and social assistance & solidarity foundations.

Organizational tenure was incorporated in several studies investigating antecedents of PSM. Organizational tenure is identified as an organizational factor in motivational context (Perry, 2000) and two rival arguments seem to shape research on this variable. According to

Pandey and Stazyk (2008) long standing mutual effects between organization and individual is generally expected to bring about a stronger commitment and consciousness with respect to pro-social motives. On the other hand, long organizational tenure is also associated with cynicism, lack of enthusiasm, and alienation that is exacerbated by frustrated service ethic in the course of time within an organization (Scott and Pandey 2005). In this respect, although counter examples exist (e.g., Camilleri 2007) the two studies (i.e., Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Bright 2009) encountered in the literature reviewed for this study indicated an inverse relationship between organizational tenure and PSM. Upon these, following hypothesis was derived:

Hypothesis 6: There is a negative relationship between organizational tenure and PSM (on overall and/or dimensional bases) in the case of Turkish district directors of civil registry offices and social assistance & solidarity foundations.

As discussed in the literature review on job characteristics in the motivational context, a promising pattern in PSM research suggests overriding sector-based analyses and focusing on studies that has an occupational point of view (Houston 2011). In this sense, admittedly, not all jobs in the public sector have the same content and dynamics. In order to distinguish jobs with a motivation potential from those that do not possess such a potential, Houston (2011) employs public service/ non-public service jobs differentiation. On the other hand, a much more universal and comprehensible model developed by Hackman and Oldham (1980) can also be a proper fit for distinguishing job contents that might positively affect PSM. As explained within the literature review, a combination of five motivating job characteristics (i.e., skill variety, task identity, task significance, and autonomy and feedback) – refers to motivation potential score, which can nuance and improve our understanding of PSM. These characteristics are considered

as means of enhancing intrinsic motivation – a PSM related concept – and in concurrence with this discussion, the following hypothesis is developed:

Hypothesis 7: There is a positive relationship between motivation potential of jobs and PSM (on overall and/or dimensional bases) in the case of Turkish district directors of civil registry offices and social assistance & solidarity foundations.

In his insightful discussion regarding the extent of being a welfare-state (well-developed/ less-developed) and its relational dynamics with public service motivation, Houston (2011) delineates the very interesting point of implementation of needs-tested social service programs. He accurately depicts such programs as hosting an interaction in which individuals (citizens) are supposed to demonstrate their needs to qualify for the service provided. Houston (2011) indicates an adversarial relationship that occurs between individuals as claimants of social programs and public servants as decision makers about rightfulness of those claimed needs. His research findings reveal that such a tense and adversarial relationship diminishes obligation-centric (i.e., affective) motivations of public servants. Houston (2011) employs the presence of needs-tested social programs as a discriminating variable and concludes that public employees in less-developed welfare states where such programs abound are more likely to score low on PSM compared to their counterparts in well-developed welfare states

However, it might also be useful to convert the notion of needs-tested social programs into another specific job characteristic that distinguishes the jobs which fulfill needs-testing tasks more frequently compared to the other jobs. Namely, adversarial tension between public servants and citizens emanating from such a job might be expected to harm PSM due to its latent inimical dynamics with service recipients. Hence, the following hypotheses were developed.

Hypothesis 8: There is a negative relationship between frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine and PSM (on overall and/or dimensional bases) in the case of Turkish district directors of civil registry offices and social assistance & solidarity foundations

Hypothesis 9: Adversarial tension between public servant and citizen is negatively related to PSM (on overall and/or dimensional bases) in the case of Turkish district directors of civil registry offices and social assistance & solidarity foundations.

Population and sample size

The study population matches the theoretical population to which findings are intended to be generalized. That is, the population consisted of district directors of two public organizations established in 919 districts throughout 81 provinces of Turkey: social assistance and solidarity foundations and civil registry offices. The researcher pursued a non-probabilistic purposive sampling strategy for sample selection. Turkey has been divided into 7 geographical regions at the 1st Geography Congress in 1941 (Erinç and Tunçdilek 1954). These regions, however, do not refer to administrative clusters or jurisdictions. Rather, they are considered to have similarities with respect to some geographical factors such as climate, flora, landforms and a range of economic and demographic parameters such as agricultural and industrial outputs and population. Although there have been more recent initiatives – concomitant with EU accession – to classify new regions, the researcher still preferred using 7 geographical classification due to its widespread utilization in mapping, education, research and statistical purposes for a long time. In order to ensure maximum variance (Palys 2008) in sample selection, every region was listed with each of their constituent provinces and the sample was defined by randomly selecting half of the provinces each region has. Decimals are rounded up and ultimately, the directors of the two

organizations working in 509 districts belonging to 41 provinces that are distributed among 7 geographic regions were determined as the sample of the study. Subsequently, the researcher touched base with the Ministry of Interior for civil registry offices and the Ministry of Family and Social Policies for social assistance and solidarity foundations to obtain the e-mail lists of directors. IT department of the Ministry of Interior immediately responded in a positive way and a complete name and organizational e-mail address list (with gov.tr domain name) of permanently appointed district directors of civil registry offices were obtained. Yet, when selected districts and obtained e mail list were corresponded, 28 missing e-mail addresses were noticed and the researcher was informed by the department that this was because of the vacancies by that time. The IT department of the Ministry of Family and Social Policies reported that an intranet system was being used for internal communication and they neither provided personal e-mail addresses for district directors of social assistance and solidarity foundations nor did they have an organized complete mailing list. After having communicated with his personal contacts the researcher realized that every foundation was allocated an open-access organizational e-mail address that was supposed to be checked by their directors. Hence, 509 foundations were accessed via these e-mail addresses containing a "gov.tr" domain. In sum 997 district directors were sent the survey and 315 of them participated in the project. The eventual response rate was 32%.

Data collection method

Data was collected via an online survey conducted by means of Qualtrics – online survey creation software – provided by the University of Texas at Dallas for the faculty and the students. Despite several drawbacks of online surveys such as coverage bias and heavy reliance

on software (Ritter and Sue 2007), a number of benefits such as cost effectiveness, accessibility

to wide geographic areas and relatively easy, fast and direct data entry/storage means have also

been reported as features that make this type of data collection technique more preferable

(Vicente and Reis 2010). Besides, especially in the context of this study, convenience and

distinguishing compatibility of online survey programs with most common statistical data

processing software made it more preferable than paper-and-pencil based mail surveys or e-mail

surveys. In addition, Qualtrics survey software allows timely observation of a range of critical

issues such as response rate and failed/ bounced e-mails.

   The author composed a questionnaire consisting of two parts and 60 questions in total. 49

questions in the first part were distributed as 12 questions measuring PSM, 5 questions

concerning motivation potential level, 1 question that is intended to measure frequency of needs-

testing tasks in work routine, 1 question designed to represent the level of tension between public

servant and citizen, and finally 30 questions related to servant leadership. The second part

included 11 demographic questions designed to be utilized control and independent variables

based on the design purpose. All questions in the first part were in 5-point Likert type scale and

formatted within the context of level of agreement with only two exceptions in 18th and 19th

questions being in the form of level of frequency. The questions and overview of scales

employed in the project can be seen in Appendix I.

   Proper translation of the questionnaire is an important challenge and an extremely

important factor in several aspects such as comparability of the gathered data and elimination of

survey measurement errors (Harkness 2008). The author conducted a back translation procedure

and performed minor adaptations where plain translation did not fully render the meaning of the

questionnaire items. Back translation method refers to a procedure in which evaluation of translated manuscript is conducted by getting another translator to generate a back-translation of the translated material (Sechrest, Fay, and Zaidi 1972; Maneesriwongul and Dixon 2004). Questionnaire was prepared in English and translated into Turkish – target language – by the author himself. Subsequently two colleagues of the author who were also PhD students in the U.S and who previously earned MA degrees from U.K universities were asked to complete back translation of the questionnaire. After those back translated questionnaires were delivered, final check among three versions of translations was made by the researcher. Additionally, a number of minor adaptations were made in order to ensure the semantic strength of the questions. The phrase 'My Manager' in all 30 questions of the servant leadership questionnaire were replaced with the phrase 'My District Governor', and 42nd question of the questionnaire 'My manager finds it difficult to forget things that went wrong in the past' was modified in to a negatively worded item as follows: 'It is not easy for my district governor to forget things that went wrong in the past.'

Prior to the distribution of the survey, the author applied for a Minimal Review Approval (Appendix F) from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) established in the Office of Research Compliance at the University of Texas at Dallas for his research project, procedures, recruitment materials and the questionnaire. Upon the approval by IRB, recruitment e-mails were sent to inform district directors within the sample about the upcoming survey. The researcher made an effort to elaborate a more personalized language for both salutation sentences and participation requests in these recruitment documents in order to increase the response rate (Dillman 2000). After three days, the first wave of e-mails that included the survey link was sent to both groups

of district directors. This survey link also comprised an electronic consent form. The issues of confidentiality and anonymity, participation and withdrawal conditions, the explanation of the topic and the main purpose of the research and other relevant components were provided in the consent form. After three weeks of that first wave, reminder e- mails, which also included the state of the survey with respect to the number of responses then, and an acknowledgement message for those who participated in the survey were sent.

Despite the aforementioned pros, web-based surveys frequently associated with low response rates (e.g., Couper 2000; Umbach 2004). At the initial phase of the study the researcher proposed to send informatory e-mails to the immediate supervisors (i.e., district governors) of district directors. These e-mails would ask these supervisors to inform and encourage their subordinates to participate in the research. While the main rationale behind this strategy was enhancing the response rate, further discussions with individual contacts from the target population revealed that employing such a supplementary strategy could harm the objectivity of the responses. Since survey design included questions related to the servant leadership behaviors of the immediate supervisors of district directors, this plausible concern was taken into consideration and the researcher avoided touching base with the supervisors as much as possible. Instead, deputy governors in provinces who have no recognized hierarchical relationship with these directors and overwhelmingly personal contacts within the target groups were asked to help collecting responses.

Variables and measurement

Dependent variable

Public Service Motivation and its 4 dimensions that represent PSM from different aspects – attraction to policy making, commitment to public interest, compassion and self-sacrifice – constitute the dependent variables of the study. Although it has been 33 years since the introduction of the concept, one can consider the measurement of PSM still ongoing debate among public administration scholars (Perry, Hondeghem and Wise 2010). Despite the fact that there were a number of efforts in order to measure PSM ranging from using single item scales (e.g., Rainey 1982) and applying one-dimensional models to employing proxies that might represent PSM related behaviors, the overwhelming majority of PSM research used 24-item scale developed by Perry (1996) as a base for their survey instruments (Vandenabeele and Walle 2008; Wright 2008). In addition, although many criticisms were raised with respect to measurement quality and validity of the 24-item scale (e.g., Vandenabelee 2008b; Kim 2009a, 2009b) there is an overall agreement on multidimensionality of the construct suggested by the original 24-item version.

Among the criticisms directed to 24-item scale, attraction to policy making dimension of the scale that corresponds to the rational motivational base of PSM is one of the most reiterated one. According to Kim (2009a, 2009b), items within APM dimension measured distaste from politicians rather than indicating the level of attraction to policy making (Kim 2009a). He argued that, this vulnerability would hinder making accurate comparisons across different cultures in which original operationalization of APM could be irrelevant to reflecting the rational basis of PSM (Kim 2009a). On the other hand, Vandenabelee (2008b) pointed out overlaps between CPI

and SS dimensions. Based upon these concerns, some scholars attempted to revise the original 24-item scale (e.g., Vandenabeele 2008b; Kim 2009a, 2009b, 2011) and modified it on the basis of criticisms above. Vandenabeele (2008b) incorporated an additional dimension – democratic governance – and his modification yielded an 18-item measure. Kim (2009a, 2009b) collapsed 24 items down into 14 items and tested its validity and reliability. He concluded that APM was a problematic dimension in the Korean context. In the final analysis, he came up with a 12-item measure of which APM dimensions were rephrased (Kim 2011).

The most enthusiastic initiative to produce an international PSM scale is a study conducted in 2012 by 16 scholars (i.e., Kim et al. 2013). The study yielded a 16- item measure consisting of four dimensions. However, the study also reported serious problems regarding the development of an international PSM measure.

This study employed a revised version of Perry's 24-item PSM scale by Kim (2009b, 2011) for a number of reasons. Since the study is one of the few PSM research examining Turkey and the Turkish public sector, the author preferred standing by original 4 dimensions proposed by Perry (1996). However, due to the problems with respect to APM which are reported consistently by many scholars, using a revised version was considered a better strategy. In addition, the lack of agreement and raised concerns regarding the quality of the 16-item international PSM scale and excessive neutrality and simplicity of that questionnaire items caused eliminating this alternative.

Consequently, 12- item PSM scale by Kim (2009b; 2011), which is a revised version of the original 24-item scale by Perry (1996), was administered to the participants. This version is reported to be a valid and reliable measure (Kim 2009b; 2011). Furthermore, reduced workload

of this revised version made this scale more convenient to use in such a project that utilizes a survey package having multiple different constructs. The questionnaire covers all 4 dimensions and each dimension is measured by three questions. That is, attraction to policy making (3 items), commitment to public interest (3 items), compassion (3 items) and self-sacrifice (3 items). All questions were formed in 5-point Likert-type response scale between strongly agree and strongly disagree (Appendix I).

Independent variables

Servant leadership, motivation potential level of jobs, frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine, adversarial tension between public servant and citizens, parental socialization, professionalism, frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering, level of education and organizational tenure are independent variables of this study.

Servant leadership

As it was stated in the literature review, empirical studies of servant leadership are relatively at nascent stages compared to prescriptive manuscripts and theoretical discussions abounded in its four-decade- long history. However, after 2000s, the considerable proliferation of academic interest in empirical research brought about an anticipated increase in scale development efforts. This review encountered 9 different scales developed in order to measure SL and contrary to PSM, it is hardly possible to argue an overall agreement regarding components and dimensions of the constructs. Consequently, the diversity of the approaches and measurement instruments makes preference of a scale to others a challenging issue.

The study administered "The Servant Leadership Survey" developed by Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) for a number of reasons. Given the recent growth in servant

leadership as a field of empirical studies, Van Dierendonck and Nuijten's (2011) scale served as a critical framework for initial assessment. Furthermore, theory- based approach in the item development phase of the scale, and confirmation of its factor structure across a number of qualitative and quantitative studies within two different countries – Netherland and United Kingdom – (Bobbio, Van Dierendonck and Manganelli 2012; Van Dierendonck and Nuijten 2011) distinguished this survey as a strong and reliable measure. Finally, it is regarded as easy to administer (Van Dierendonck 2011). This literature review revealed that at least three recent studies (i.e., Asag-Gau and Van Dierendonck 2011; Bobbio, Van Dierendonck and Manganelli 2012; De Waall and Sivro 2012) used this instrument and reported its convenience for SL research.

The survey consists of 30 items within eight sub- dimensions. These are Empowerment (7 items), Standing back (3 items), Accountability (3 items), Forgiveness (3 items, all of them reversed), Courage (2 items), Authenticity (4 items), Humility (5items) and Stewardship (3 items). Original response scale – 6-point Likert Scale – was converted to 5- point Likert scale between strongly disagree and strongly agree to ensure uniformity and to prevent confounding respondents' answers by providing various response scales in the same survey package (Appendix I).

<div align="center">Motivation Potential Level</div>

A five item scale used by Merit Survey Protection Board in a 2012 report named "Federal Employee Engagement: The Motivating Potential of Job Characteristics and Rewards" was employed to measure motivation potential level. Each item reflects positive job attributes of skill variety, task identity, task significance and autonomy and feedback adopting the framework

provided by Hackman and Oldham's (1975, 1980) motivating potential of job characteristics model (Appendix I) . The following formula was used to calculate motivation potential level: "Motivation Potential Level = [Skill Variety + Task Identity + Task Significance] ÷ 3] *Autonomy * Feedback" (U.S. Merit System Protection Board [MSPB] report 2012, 35)

This formula was originally developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) and – in its initial formulation – required 15 items. However, MSPB (2012) study adapted this formula for the 5 items they proposed. This study modified the 6-points Likert type response scale used in MSPB report by only removing 'don't know/ NA' choice, which had a zero value in the calculation. The composite score derived from this calculation had a range of 1 to 125.

<div align="center">Frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine</div>

'Frequency of needs-testing tasks' concept was derived from the discussions related to job characteristics and since there was no previous study that examined the needs-testing notion within the context of individual job characteristics, the present study used a single item measure to operationalize the construct. Respondents were asked about their perceptions regarding level of frequency for following statement: 'Dealing with citizen claims over publicly funded programs (investments, projects, subventions, aid etc.), and examining eligibility and righteousness of these claims is a part of my work routine.'

5-point Likert type response scale – choices ranging from 'never' to 'all of the time'– was used (Appendix I).

Tension

For the purpose of the study, another single item measure was utilized to operationalize adversarial tension between public servant and citizen. In 5-point Likert type response scale format – choices ranging from never to all of the time – respondents were asked to indicate frequency level perceptions for the following statement: 'I come up against citizen complaints and criticism that target me and my decisions in my work routine.' (Appendix I)

Parental Socialization

There have been various attempts to measure parental or family socialization into PSM related values. Perry (1997) employed a three item scale consisting of questions related to charitable giving, volunteering and helping behaviors of families. Likewise, in a 2008 study, Perry et al. administered a 6 item questionnaire based on similar themes with the exception of discussion of moral values in the family. However, Vandenabeele (2011) used both parents' being public servant as the proxy measure for parental socialization. Examination of those two multiple item scales revealed that they are not appropriate options within the Turkish context. Experiencing volunteering and charitable giving behaviors within the family might not be a good indicator of parental instillation of PSM values in the Turkish example as it is in the United States where mass-philanthropy is part of the culture (Zunz 2011). The researcher adopted Vandenabelee's (2011) method and utilized having public servant parents as the proxy measure for parental socialization into public values for several reasons. First, family issues tend to be considered in sensitive and privacy domain and asking questions related to childhood experience might be perceived as bothering by some respondents in Turkish context. The second reason is that, using proxies instead of direct questions could relieve the negative effects of social

desirability bias, which self-report questionnaires are generically prone to (Furr 2010). Lastly, reducing the workload of participating in the survey and enhancing the response rate by this way was taken into consideration. However, the author modified the original version of the item in Vandenabeele's (2011) study that used only both parents' being public servant as a proxy measure for parental socialization in contemplation of its being too restrictive. Therefore, two subsequent questions were incorporated into the demographic part of the survey within display logic: 'Were both of your parents employed in public sector jobs?' and 'Was one of your parents employed in a public sector job?'(Appendix I)

The display logic was such that those who selected 'yes' were not shown the following question.

Professionalism

In the first comprehensive study that examines antecedents of PSM, Perry (1997) operationalized professionalism or professional identification by employing a five item scale consisting of questions that measures both professional membership and active participation in professional activities. DeHart-Davis, Marlow and Pandey (2006) maintained this approach and operationalized professional identification with four items representing both membership and participation. However, Moynihan and Pandey (2007) depended only on the membership aspect of the concept. This study adopted the second approach assuming that membership in professional organizations would be a sufficient indicator of professional identification since it will reflect at least a minimum level of consciousness of professional values for the purpose of the study. Membership in professional organizations was operationalized as a dichotomous

variable in the demographic part of the survey as follows: 'Are you a member of an organization (e.g., association, chamber etc.) related to your profession?'

<div align="center">Frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering</div>

For the purpose of the study, 7 geographic regions of Turkey were ranked and converted into ordinal categories according to the distribution of least deprived and most deprived districts within these regions. The main rationale behind this ranking was that the more the region was deprived the more it would be likely to witness suffering-related circumstances. In other words, the geographical region where respondents were working in was associated with a certain level of 'frequency for witnessing situations associated with suffering'. While forming this deprivation-based ranking, the author employed district classifications of a regulatory document named Code of Appointment, Evaluation and Reassignment for Local Administrators that was passed into Turkish law in 1986 as the criterion base. The code groups 919 districts into 6 classes. Each class refers to a development level on the basis of a number of indicators such as population, the level of employment, and proximity to industrial regions. In this sense, first class districts are the most developed and sixth class districts are the most deprived ones among these 6 categories. The author found 126 6th class districts and 154 1st class districts in total and after having examined proportional distribution of these districts among geographical regions, following ordinal array of geographical regions were obtained and respondents were asked to specify the one wherein they were working:

1) Marmara Region 2) Aegean Region 3) Mediterranean Region 4) Central Anatolia Region 5) Black Sea Region 6) Southeastern Anatolia Region 7) Eastern Anatolia Region

One could ask the respondents the class of the district they were working in directly instead of the geographical region and of course that would be a more representative and robust proxy measure. On the other hand, one could also refer to a more recent statutory regulation (e.g., The Establishment Coordination and Duties of Development Agencies Act of 2006) that provides apparently a more accurate regional classification in reflecting the differences regarding wealthy and deprived regions. However, since district classes were specified in a statutory document that was specifically devoted to the issues related to selection and appointment issues of local administrators (i.e., district governors and deputy governors) and since more recent regional classifications are familiar only to those who have special interest in, both alternatives would not make sense to district directors. Therefore, the researcher preferred conventional grouping of geographical regions within an ordinal categorization and used it as the proxy measure for frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering. (Appendix H)

Level of Education

Level of education was measured via a single question itemized in the demographic part of the survey. The respondents were asked: 'What is your level of education?' and 5 options were provided within an ordinal format as follows: 'High School, Junior College, Bachelor Degree (Correspondence), Bachelor Degree (Formal), Master Degree or Over'

Organizational tenure

Respondents were asked a single question in order to specify their organizational tenure: 'How long have you been working in your organization?' and 6 response options – under 5 years, 6-10, 11-15, 16-20, 21-25 and over 26 years – were given in ordinal form.

Control Variables

Gender

Gender was specified simply by a single statement having two response options – 'men' and 'women' respectively – and itemized in the second part of the survey as follows: 'Please specify your gender'

Marital Status

Although relatively more detailed answer options such as widowed, separated, divorced, and living as couple, were used to determine marital status in PSM studies (e.g., Georgellis, Iossa and Tabvuma 2009) the researcher used only two response options – single, married – considering that options other than these two could be perceived as 'offending' in Turkish context.

Age

In order to reflect the age profiles of respondents, the following question was asked: ' What is your age?' and 8 response options – under 25, 26-30, 31-35, 36-40, 41-45, 46-50, 51-55 and over 56 – were given.

Private sector experience

Aiming to determine whether respondents had 'previous private sector employment' the following question was itemized: 'Were you previously employed in private sector?'

Occupation

Two groups of Turkish public servants working at middle management levels in two district organizations were recruited for the survey: District directors of civil registry offices and social assistance and solidarity foundations. Yet, instead of asking straightforwardly their

occupational positions, respondents were asked the ministries they were affiliated with. Two options were provided: 'The Turkish Ministry of Internal Affairs" for directors of civil registry offices and 'The Ministry of Family and Social Policies' for directors of social assistance and solidarity foundations.

Research Design

The study aimed to provide detailed information with respect to the results derived from the demographic part of the survey and therefore utilized convenient descriptive statistics. In addition, selected variables were processed via descriptive statistical analyses and a number of important facts such as mean, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis values of the distributions and finally possible score ranges were examined. Subsequently, group level comparisons were made on the basis of means of test variables employing independent samples t-tests and ANOVAs. The test variables were PSM and its components, Servant Leadership, Motivation Potential Level , Frequency of Needs Testing Tasks and tension whereas grouping variables were age, gender, having public servant parents , membership in professional organizations, marital status, organizational tenure, geographical region, level of education , private sector experience and occupation. Then, bivariate analyses were conducted calculating Pearson correlation coefficients in order to show correlation associations between variables. At the final stage of hypothesis testing, the author employed a number of multiple hierarchical regression analyses assigning 'main independent' and 'control' labels to the predictor variables of the study while employing both overall PSM and PSM sub- dimensions as the outcome variable. The main research hypotheses were tested via 5 hierarchical multiple regression models exactly in the same composition of independent variables. The underlying argument for this

procedure was that this study assumed 4 sub-dimensions as various facets and different manifestations of PSM representing the construct from different perspectives. An interesting categorization of these facets within the stereotypes of samaritans, humanitarians, patriots and communitarians in Brewer, Selden, and Facer's (2000) study can be regarded as a good example of the different manifestations that PSM might have. That is, this study considered PSM as a reflective measure rather than a formative one, which is supposed to be only an aggregate form of its dimensions (Coursey et al. 2008). In fact, this is still an incomplete discussion among PSM scholars and both approaches – reflective and formative – have their own proponents (e.g., Coursey et al. 2008; Kim 2011). In congruence with the former approach, a number of scholars utilized only certain questions and/or dimensions of PSM. For example, Leisink and Steijn (2009) confined their study with APM and CPI. Tasdoven and Kapucu (2013) applied CPI and SS. Castaing (2006) employed only CPI dimension, and Moynihan and Pandey (2007) used only APM dimension to measure PSM. One important consequence of this preference for the purpose of the study is that while hypotheses were developed with respect to the PSM construct, testing of them was not confined to composite scores of PSM only. In other words – as long as contradictory results were not present –, when any hypothesis was confirmed in overall PSM and/or any PSM dimensions it was regarded as the rejection of null hypothesis and acceptance of rival hypothesis at all. The analyses were completed with an additional moderation analysis conducted via a moderated multiple regression regarding sub-hypothesis 5a.

As Pallant (2011) suggested, assignments of variables as being control or main predictors requires relying on the relevant theoretical and literature based knowledge. In this study, assignments of the variables were made in reference to Perry's (2000) process theory of PSM.

Therefore, although some control variables of the model were taken as independent predictors of PSM in some studies (e.g., gender in DeHart-Davis, Marlow and Pandey 2006), in this study they were employed as control variables.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALSYSIS

In this chapter of the study, procedures for data screening and refinement were summarized and some important issues such as reliability, linearity, normality and multicollinearity were discussed. In the subsequent sections of the chapter, a detailed information regarding sample characteristics were provided using descriptive statistics. In addition to the demographic features of the participant composition, findings obtained from group level comparisons (i.e., t-tests and ANOVAs) based on study variables were also presented. Although all groups and variables were thoroughly examined, only those that yielded statistically significant differences were reported to ensure succinctness. After that, findings of bivariate analysis were summarized using Pearson product-moment correlation measure to indicate direct linear relationships among study variables. In the final section of the chapter, findings of hierarchical multiple regression analyses and the moderated multiple regression analysis applied for testing research hypotheses were reported.

Data screening and refinement

Statistical analyses in this chapter were conducted by 'Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS)' Version 22. The data set of the study was compiled through a web-based online survey instrument sent to 997 district directors in Turkey. Qualtrics, online survey softwareprovided by the University of Texas at Dallas, was used for creating the survey content and the interfaces and sending surveys to respondents and ultimately storing the collected data.

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At the time when the survey was closed, Qualtrics had recorded 409 responses in total. However, examination of the responses revealed that 68 directors opened but did not start the survey. These were excluded from the data set. The remaining 341 directors started the survey but 313 of them finished it. That is, completion mean was 79%. A closer examination of the survey statistics revealed that, 28 respondents dropped out the survey after 12th (12 respondents), 19th (14 respondents), 57th (1 respondent) and 58th (1 respondent) questions. While the first 12 questions were related to PSM, 30 questions after 19th questions were related to servant leadership. One implication of these dropout points might be that a group of respondents did not feel comfortable with the questions measuring the motivation potential level of their jobs. Another implication for dropouts after 19th questions might be that some district directors refrained from answering the questions on the leadership of their immediate supervisors/district governors. Although, imputation of missing values by substituting them with mean or median values for continuous variables and mode for nominal variables are reported as appropriate techniques in dealing with missing data (e.g., Bartlett 2010; Pallant 2011), the researcher did not prefer replacement in all cases and instead performed deletion for 26 cases since the proportion of missing data in these cases were too large. However, for two remaining cases having only 3 and 2 missing values respectively, substitution with mode values was performed. Therefore, the actual response rate – consisting of fully completed and valid 315 cases – was determined as 32 %.

After handling missing values, outliers were checked by using box plots in SPSS. Outliers refer to the observations that are distant from the majority of the observations in the sample and can be misleading especially in small sample sizes (Lee 2008, Grubb 1969). As Pallant (2011) suggested, outliers can emanate from measurement errors or they can occur due to

the variations in the measurement instrument. Although case-wise exclusion or deletion of outliers in the former condition was suggested by some scholars, a cautious approach was advised for the latter condition in which observed scores are real. Employing box plots, the author detected 5 cases appearing as extreme outliers labeled with asterisks in the outcome variable (PSM) and 3 cases in servant leadership. Examination of these cases revealed that these scores were not due to the measurement error and they were within the possible range. As Parke (2012) suggested, particularly with relatively large samples like in this study, a small number of outliers might be expected and this occurs not necessarily because of an abnormality. Moreover, since outliers would be reevaluated during regression analyses, which are sensitive to outliers, those cases, which are considered as extreme outliers by box plot examination were retained in the data set.

Further examination of outliers was made by checking Mahalanobis distance scores that is used to exclude points that display strong impact on the parameters. It revealed that while critical chi-square value for 14 independent variables in the multiple regression analyses of this study – including control variables – was 36.12 (Pett , Lackey and Sullivan 2003), none of the cases exceeded this critical threshold and there was no need for excluding any cases from the analyses.

The researcher made some additional refinements in order to conduct subsequent statistical analyses more conveniently. Long respondent IDs assigned to the cases by Qualtrics for the purpose of anonymity were replaced with simple case numbers. Variables were computed in accordance with their predetermined formulations and scales and sub-scales were constituted. Another refinement was reverse coding. The three questions of the forgiveness sub-scale in

servant leadership scale were supposed to be reversely coded in order to ensure correct scale variables. This was also a necessary step for conducting subsequent reliability analyses of the scales.

Measurement Reliability Assessment

Reliability can be defined as the level of trustworthiness and/or the precision of any measurement instrument (Kurpius, Robinson and Stafford 2005). This is also closely related to the concepts of stability and internal consistency. That is, a reliable measure is expected to measure the same thing with all its sections at different times and/or in different situations (Kurpius, Robinson and Stafford 2005). Cronbach's coefficient alpha is reported as the most widely used reliability estimate when discussing internal consistency of scales made up of continuous/interval data (Chen and Krauss 2004; Trochim and Donnelly 2007; Pallant 2011). Coefficient alpha is a numerical value and varies between 0 and 1.00 and the higher the value, the more the measure is considered to have reliability. There seems to be an overall agreement regarding preferable alpha coefficient. That is, alpha values above .70 are considered respectable values for research purposes (Nunnally and Bernstein 1984; Kurpius, Robinson and Stafford 2005; Pallant 2011).

Table 4.1 shows the Cronbach's coefficient alpha scores of scales and the sub-scales used in the study. Although there are two more interval variables – FNTT and TNS – used in statistical analyses of the study, they were not shown in the table since they were designed as single item measures. This is because at least two items are necessary to estimate an alpha value. Examination of the test results reveals that alphas for the composite scales of PSM and SL were well above the acceptable level (0.897 and 0.915 respectively). With respect to the sub-

dimensions of PSM, commitment to public interest had the highest reliability coefficient (0.806).
However, all other components – APM (0.773), COM (0.706) and SS (0.748) – also exceeded
the threshold value.

Table 4.1. Reliability test of the variables and summary statistics

Variable	α	#	$\overline{x}$	SD	Possible range
Public Service Motivation	.897	12	50.99	6.586	12-60
APM[a]	.773	3	12.83	2.053	3-15
CPI[b]	.806	3	13.36	1.933	3-15
COM[c]	.706	3	12.23	2.067	3-15
SS[d]	.748	3	12.57	1.965	3-15
Motivation Potential Level	.695	5	52.95	26.792	1-125
Servant Leadership	.915	30	107.95	14.201	30-150
EMPW[e]	.881	7	25.97	4.992	7-35
STNDBCK[f]	.615	3	10.42	2.114	3-15
ACCTBLTY[g]	.632	3	11.94	1.649	3-15
FGVNSS[h]	.571	3	9.54	2.232	3-15
COURAGE[i]	.504	2	6.22	1.591	2-10
HMLTY[j]	.851	5	17.86	3.280	5-25
AUTHNTCTY[k]	.637	4	13.71	2.479	4-20
STWRDSHP[l]	.797	3	12.28	1.934	3-15

a. Attraction to Policy Making b. Commitment to Public Interest c. Compassion d. Self-Sacrifice e. Empowerment f. Standing Back g. Accountability h. Forgiveness i. Courage j. Humility k. Authenticity l. Stewardship

Alpha values for Servant Leadership dimensions varied between '0.504' and '0.881'. Although 5
of eight sub-scales of servant leadership – STNDBCK (0.615), ACCTBLTY (0.571),
COURAGE (0.504), and AUTHNTCTY (0.637) – remained below 0.7 level, no further step was
taken since the study employed only the composite measurement of servant leadership as an
independent variable.

The only scale that might require an additional examination was motivation potential level, which consisted of 5 items. Cronbach's alpha for this scale (i.e., 0.695) was slightly below threshold value. The author examined the item-total statistics and found that only removal of the question related to 'autonomy' could push the alpha value above the threshold, yet the effect proved to be very limited (0.720). As a number of scholars indicated (e.g., Tabachnick and Fidell 2007; Pallant 2011, Parke 2012), Cronbach's alpha calculation is very susceptible to the number of questions in the scale and, alpha values are more prone to be under 0.7 if the number of questions is below 10. The composite scale of motivation potential level consisted of 5 questions and each question represented an important job characteristic grounded in the relevant theory. Furthermore, scales with Cronbach's alpha value higher than 0.6 were used and reported as legitimate measurement instruments in many PSM studies (e.g., Perry 1997; DeHart-Davis, Marlowe and Pandey 2006; Wright Moynihan and Pandey 2012). Therefore, the researcher retained MPL scale as a whole.

<div align="center">

Evaluation of Assumptions

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Ordinary Lest Square (OLS) regression analyses, which were conducted to test the hypotheses of this study, are considered to be one of the most stringent parametric statistical techniques with respect to a group of assumptions (Pallant 2011, Conway 2013a).

The researcher started with assessing the sample size requirement for OLS regression analyses, which is related to generalizability problem. There are various methods to assess the number of cases required for multiple regression. Yet, the author utilized the formula suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007): 'N > 50 + 8m' ('N' refers to the number of cases and 'm' refers to the number of independent variables). Since hierarchical multiple regression models

developed in this study comprised of 14 predictor variables, at least 162 cases were required (N>
50+ 8*14). Number of cases in the study (315) was far more than enough. Therefore, this
assumption was satisfied.

Multicollinearity and singularity are two problems associated with OLS regression
(Pallant 2011; Parke 2012) analyses. Since none of the regression model included scales and sub-
scales at the same time to the model as independent variables, singularity was not a problem at
all. For multicollinearity, which simply means high correlations between independent variables,
Pallant (2011) and Parke (2012) suggest checking tolerance and Variance Inflation factor (VIF)
to detect whether multicollinearity poses a threat. Before reviewing these values the author
controlled correlation statistics of the variables if there were any bivariate correlation greater
than 0.7 foreboding multicollinearity and found that none of the correlations exceeded this value.
The absence of multicollinearity requires tolerance values being more than 0.10 and VIF values
being less than 10 (O'brien 2007; Pallant 2011). Examination of independent variables in all 5
hierarchical multiple regression models revealed that VIF and tolerance values remained in the
safe range and therefore the multicollinearity threat was discarded.

Normality is another assumption that is required for almost all inferential parametric
statistical methods. Particularly for OLS regression analyses, the normal distribution of the
outcome variable is reported to be an important condition in order to make inferences with
respect to a population (Conway 2013a). A normally distributed histogram of observations yields
a symmetrical, two-tailed bell-shape curve. To test this assumption, the author firstly created and
examined histograms to see the overall shape of the distribution of outcome variables' – PSM
and its 4 dimensions– scores. Although a bell-shape curve was identified roughly in each

distribution, a marked level of negative skewness was also recognized. In order to clarify this, the author examined kurtosis and skewness values of outcome variables (Appendix E). It should be noted that although high skewness and kurtosis values are regarded as symptoms of violation of normality assumption, there is no single agreed level to evaluate among scholars. While Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) propose ± 1.0 interval for both skewness and kurtosis, Garson (2012) suggests ±2 interval. However, there are also far less stringent approaches. For example, Conway (2013a) specifies ±3.0 for skewness and ±10 for kurtosis to accept a distribution as normal. Exploration of descriptive statistics indicated that both PSM and its sub-dimensions – with the exception of COM – had high positive kurtosis values indicating too few cases on the tails and high negative skewness meaning that most cases were accumulated on the right side of the distribution (Garson 2012). Skewness and kurtosis values were as follows: - 2.308 and 9.816 for PSM; -1.934 and 6.164 for APM; -2.197 and 7.739 for CPI; -1.500 and 4.941 for SS. These values could be evaluated within the less stringent approaches. However, especially due to high kurtosis values the author adopted less flexible interpretations and considered them indicators of violation of normality assumption.

A number of remedies have been suggested when such violations were confronted and one of them is data transformation. For example, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) and Conway (2013a) recommends conducting 'square root', 'logarithmic' and 'inverse' data transformations depending on the shape of the distribution. Accordingly, the researcher examined relevant histograms and logarithmic transformation was determined as the appropriate method for data transformation regarding overall PSM, APM, CPI and SS. However, since distributions in all these variables were negatively skewed, transformations were conducted by applying reflection

first. Yet, this procedure mathematically reversed the direction of the relationships in the analyses where those log transformed variables were employed. That is an important caveat for perception and interpretation of the findings of the analyses. After logarithmic transformation, skewness and kurtosis values were as follows respectively: PSM (R &Log) -.797 and 1.133; APM (R &Log) -.148 and -.603; CPI (R &Log) .270 and -.892; SS (R &Log) -.443 and -.497. By employing logarithmic transformation, violations were remedied and the normality assumption was satisfied.

As for the linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions, the author utilized scatterplots of the standardized residuals (Appendix G), which were created simultaneously with regression analyses. Examination of the residual plots for each outcome variable after having completed the necessary data transformations revealed that residuals were dispersed roughly in a rectangular shape. That is, requirements of linearity and homoscedasticity were fulfilled.

Descriptive statistics

In this section of the chapter, a summary with respect to demographic characteristics of the sample are provided. Since the study sample was selected through two occupational groups – district directors of civil registry offices and social assistance foundations –, a more nuanced explanation of demographic variables on this basis was also presented by splitting the data according to the occupations. Subsequently, findings of a number of t-test and ANOVAs conducted in order to delineate group level differences with respect to scale type study variables are reported. Although, group level comparisons were made testing all study variables, only those that yielded statistically significant results are reported.

Demographic Characteristics

Table 4.2 provides a detailed outlook of respondent demographic characteristics. With regards to occupational categories, one can discern equivalent proportions for each occupational group. 160 directors from registry offices and 155 directors from foundations participated in the survey and the ratios were 50.8% and 49.2% respectively.

As can be seen from the table, approximately 33% of the district directors were aged below 40. The most intense accumulation was on 41-55 interval constituting almost 64% percent of directors participated in the survey. When tenure based formal procedures in order to get in upper echelons of government employment are considered, this accumulation seems consistent. However, Table 4.3 shows that age scale of respondents from social assistance foundations was different from that in civil registry offices. 82% of the foundation directors were aged below 45 and apparently, these percentages reveal that a much younger generational profile for foundations was evident compared to registry offices.

76 women participated in the survey corresponding to 24% percent of the total number of respondents. Negiz and Yemen (2011) reports that percentage of women public administrators in the Turkish public sector was 16 percent for the year 2010. Having regarded this, one could accept the response ratio of the study for women as considerably above their actual proportion within the target population. Table 4.2 demonstrates that distribution of women according to occupational categories was also equivalent.

Table 4.2. Individual demographic characteristics

Age	Frequency	Percentage
Under 25	2	.6
26-30	11	3.5
31-35	43	13.7
36-40	46	14.6
41-45	60	19.0
46-50	77	24.4
51-55	61	19.4
Over 56	15	4.8
Gender		
Male	239	75.9
Female	76	24.1
Occupation		
Directors of Registry Offices	160	50.8
Directors of Foundations	155	49.2
Organizational tenure		
Under 5 years	23	7.3
6-10	47	14.9
11-15	44	14.0
16-20	40	12.7
21-25	71	22.5
Over 26 Years	90	28.6
Level of Education		
High School	54	17.1
Junior College	40	12.7
Bachelor Degree (Corresp.)	163	51.7
Bachelor Degree (Formal)	47	14.9
Master Degree or Over	11	3.5
Marital Status		
Single	36	11.4
Married	279	88.6
Having Public Servant Parents		
Doesn't Have	218	69.2
Does Have (Both)	8	2.5
Does Have (One)	89	28.3
Private Sector Experience		
No	181	57.5
Yes	134	42.5
Membership in Professional Organizations		
Not Member	247	78.4
Member	68	21.6

As for organizational tenure, two categories, '21-25 years' and Over 26 years", had the greatest frequency in total (90 directors) corresponding to 28 % of the respondents. The smallest percentage (7.3 %) belonged to 'under 5 years' category. However, occupational evaluation of organizational tenure displayed almost reversed results for directors of foundations. Contrary to overall distribution, most of the directors in foundations were at earlier phases of their tenures compared to those in registry offices. Only 24% of them had organizational tenure more than 20 years.

The most prominent cluster concerning educational attainments was correspondence bachelor degree. 51% of the sample was in this group. The remaining groups were distributed evenly with the exception of 'master degree and over' cohort. Only 3.5 percent had a master degree or over. Yet, as can be seen from Table 4.3, correspondence bachelor degree overwhelmed the distribution of educational attainments only in the case of registry offices. On the other hand, percentages of 'high school' and 'formal bachelor degree' categories were noteworthy for directors of foundations. Both categories comprised considerably more respondents compared to directors of registry offices. The results also showed that although having the lowest proportion among others, 'master degree and over category' was almost filled by the foundation directors alone.

Another individual demographic characteristic in the second part of the survey was having public servant parents. Initially, this information was obtained asking two questions within display logic. That is, respondents were asked whether both their parents were public servant and if not, whether one of their parents was public servant.

Table 4.3. Individual demographic characteristics and descriptive statistics

Age	Frequency		Percentage	
	Registry	**Foundation**	**Registry**	**Foundation**
Under 25	-	2	-	1.3
26-30	1	10	.6	6.5
31-35	5	38	3.1	24.5
36-40	10	36	6.3	23.2
41-45	18	42	11.3	27.1
46-50	60	17	37.5	11.0
51-55	52	9	32.5	5.8
Over 56	15	1	4.8	.6
Total	160	155	100	100.0
Gender				
Male	122	117	76.3	75.5
Female	38	38	23.8	24.5
Total	160	155	100.0	100.0
Organizational tenure				
Under 5 years	3	20	1.9	12.9
6-10	4	43	2.5	27.7
11-15	12	32	7.5	20.6
16-20	17	23	10.6	14.8
21-25	47	24	29.4	15.5
Over 26 Years	77	13	48.1	8.4
Total	160	155	100.0	100.0
Level of Education				
High School	11	43	6.9	27.7
Junior College	20	20	12.5	12.9
Bachelor Degree (Corres.)	116	47	72.5	30.3
Bachelor Degree (Formal)	12	35	7.5	22.6
Master Degree or Over	1	10	.6	6.5
Total	160	155	100.0	100.0
Marital Status				
Single	14	22	8.8	14.2
Married	146	133	91.3	85.8
Total	160	155	100.0	100.0
Having Public Servant Parents				
Doesn't Have	117	101	73.1	65.2
Does Have	43	54	26.9	34.8
Total	160	155	100.0	100.0
Private Sector Experience				
No	110	71	68.8	45.8
Yes	50	84	31.3	54.2
Total	160	155	100.0	100.0
Membership in Professional Organizations				
Not Member	136	111	85.0	71.6
Member	24	44	15.0	28.4
Total	136	155	85.0	100.0

Afterwards, these two data were merged since only a small number, % 2.5, had reported both parents' being public servant. Ultimately, almost a third of district directors in the sample had at least one public servant parents.

A large majority (88, 6 %) of the respondents was married and more than two-fifths were previously employed in the private sector. Proportions within occupational categories were consistent with overall percentages for these two characteristics. 21.6 % of the respondents reported membership in a professional organization. However, the intragroup percentage of foundation directors with regards to professional membership (28.4 %) was noticeably higher than that in the registry offices (15 %).

Table 4.4 demonstrates the geographic breakdown of respondents. The most distinguishing detail was the frequency of respondents from the Black Sea region. 35.6 % of the directors participated in the survey were working in this region. Although the Black Sea region has the greatest number of provinces and districts among others – 18 provinces and 185 districts corresponding to 22, 5 % and 21 % of provinces and district respectively –, the ratio of those who responded the survey from this region was remarkably above its actual proportion.

To sum up, roughly equal numbers of directors from the two organizations participated in the research project and no major differences were observed in two groups with respect to gender, marital status and having public servant parents. Yet, as for organizational tenure, age and education, foundation directors revealed as a younger cohort, having less organizational tenure and more formal educational attainments compared to directors of registry offices. One reason for these divergent cohort profiles might be related to their employment types. District directors in the civil registry offices are employed according to Civil Servants Law No. 657 of

1965, and this is the base law for the traditional civil service system in Turkey. On the other hand, foundation personnel are hired under the Turkish Labor Law No. 4857 of 2003. The latter is the general statutory document that regulates labor relations and the free contract logic constitutes the essence of the law. Therefore, one could argue that foundation directors are hired in a status reminiscent of at-will-employment in the U.S (Kellough and Nigro 2010). Hence, this relatively younger director profile and lower organizational tenure in years might be due to the higher flexibility in the second type of employment that makes hiring and terminations easier compared to tenure based civil service system secured with due process rights.

Table 4.4. Geographical breakdown of respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Marmara Region	44	14.0
Aegean Region	17	5.4
Mediterranean Region	18	5.7
Middle Anatolia Region	39	12.4
Black Sea Region	112	35.6
Southeastern Anatolia Region	35	11.1
Eastern Anatolia Region	50	15.9
Total	315	100.0

Another statutory requirement – having at least a bachelor degree to be a district director – seems to account for the accumulation in the 'correspondence bachelor degree' category. Applying for a correspondence bachelor degree reveals as the most convenient way to fulfill this requirement since formal attendance procedures are not required in order to obtain this type of degree. 'Having a bachelor degree' condition is as old as three decades for civil registry offices and this might be the reason why only a small number of directors in this group had only a high

school degree. However, in foundations, it was stipulated in a more recent statuary change made in 2006. Thus, that might explain the high percentage of high school graduates in the foundation directors cohort.

Group Comparisons

A number of independent samples t-tests and one way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted in order to reflect whether there were statistically significant differences among groups, which are specified on the basis of demographic features, with respect to PSM / PSM sub- dimensions, servant leadership, motivation potential level of occupations, frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine and adversarial tension between public servants and the citizens. In this section, only those that indicated statistically significant differences are summarized.

PSM and PSM Dimensions as Test Variable

Table 4.5 and Table 4.6 shows the result of t-tests and ANOVAs that employed PSM and PSM dimensions as dependent variable. Both t-test and ANOVA are parametric statistical techniques and generically involve assumptions with respect to normal distribution of outcome variable (Pallant 2011). Therefore, reflected and log transformed forms of PSM and three of its dimensions – APM, CPI and SS – were utilized in assessing groups' means. Yet, since the data was reflected due to high negative skewness, one should interpret mean differences and relationships in the flipped direction.

Comparison of PSM scores on the basis of gender revealed that men and women were different in their PSM means and the difference was statistically significant at p≤0.05 cut-off point [t (167.86) = 2.240, p= .026]. Women scored lower on PSM ($\bar{x}$ = .9677, σ= .23817)

compared to men ($\bar{x}$ = .8910, σ= .31922). However, a caveat regarding equal variance assumption should be noticed since the results of Levene's test, performed simultaneously, were significant meaning that homogeneity of variance assumption was violated. That is, t-statistic and degrees of freedom reported in this case are adjusted forms of these two values.

A more detailed exploration of PSM dimensions and gender revealed that there was also a statistically significant difference between men and women respondents with respect to attraction to policy making dimension of PSM [t (161.23) = -3.509, p= .001]. Likewise, in the composite score of PSM, women had lower means scores of APM ($\bar{x}$ = .5024, σ= .22046) than men ($\bar{x}$ = .3926, σ=. 28453). However, Levene's test results indicated violation of homogeneity of variance assumption. Hence, degrees of freedom and 't' statistics were modified.

Another grouping variable between the categories of which PSM differed statistically significantly was being raised by at least one public servant parent [t (313) = -2.129, p= .034]. District directors in both occupational groups – social assistance and solidarity foundations and civil registry offices – who reported having at least one public servant parent scored higher on overall public service motivation score ($\bar{x}$ = .8553, σ= .3061) compared to those who did not have ($\bar{x}$ = .9336, σ= .2992) public servant parents. Since Levene's test did not indicate a violation of homogeneity of variance assumption, no additional adjustment with respect to degrees of freedom and t statistics was necessary.

Table 4.5. Group comparisons: PSM as test variable t-tests

Test Variable	Grouping Variable	N	$\overline{x}$	σ	t	df	p
PSM(R&Log)[a]	Men	239	.8910	.31922	2.240	167.86	.026[b,c]
	Women	76	.9677	.23817			

a.PSM reflected& transformed via log10 b. equal variance not assumed (sig for Levene's test is > .05) c. 95% CI 14431 to-.00909

Test Variable	Grouping Variable	N	$\overline{x}$	σ	t	df	p
APM(R&Log)[a]	Men	239	.3926	.28453	-3.509	161.23	.001
	Women	76	.5024	.22046			

a. Attraction to Policy Making reflected & log transformed b. equal variance not assumed (sig for Levene's test is < .05) c. 95% CI -.17153 to -.04800

Test Variable	Grouping Variable	N	$\overline{x}$	σ	t	df	p
PSM(R&Log)a	Pub.Ser.Par.(-)	218	.9336	.2992	2.129	313	.034
	Pub.Ser.Par.(+)	97	.8553	.3061			

a. PSM reflected& transformed via log10 b. equal variance assumed (sig for Levene's test is > .05) c. 95% CI .00592 to .15068

Test Variable	Grouping Variable	N	$\overline{x}$	σ	t	df	p
SS (R & log)[a]	Pub.Ser.Par.(-)	218	1.8987	.55614	2.757	313	.006[b,c]
	Pub.Ser.Par.(+)	97	1.7898	.49235			

a. Self-Sacrifice reflected& transformed via log10 b. equal variance assumed (sig for Levene's test is > .05) c. 95% CI -.17153 to-.04800

Test Variable	Grouping Variable	N	$\overline{x}$	σ	t	df	p
COM[a]	Registry Offices[b]	122	12.57	1.585	2.212	198.42	.028[c,d]
	Foundations[b]	117	11.96	2.448			

a. Compassion b.Data splitted by gender & only Men included. c. equal variance NOT assumed (sig for Levene's test is < .05) d. 95% CI .066 to 1.151

Test Variable	Grouping Variable	N	$\overline{x}$	σ	t	df	p
APM(R&Log)[a]	Not Member	247	.4431	.26547	2.852	100.16	.005[b,c]
	Member of Pro.Orgs	68	.3320	.28944			

a. Attraction to Policy Making reflected & log transformed b. equal variance not assumed (sig for Levene's test is < .05) c. 95% CI .03380 to.18836

Further examination on dimensional base also revealed that respondents with public servant parents scored higher on self-sacrifice dimension ($\overline{x}$ = .971, σ= .7898) compared to others ($\overline{x}$ = 1.8987, σ= .55614). The difference was statistically significant as well [t (313) = 2.757, p= .006].

Comparison of occupational categories as grouping variable with regards to PSM and PSM dimensions produced statistically significant difference only in the compassion dimension

[t (2.212) = 2.212, p= .028]. However, this finding was obtained only after having split the data by gender. Women were excluded from the analysis. Eventually, COM score means of male district directors in the registry offices ($\overline{x}$ = 12.57, σ= 1.585) were greater than district directors of foundations ($\overline{x}$ = 11.96, σ= 2.448). Yet, df and t values were adjusted due to violation of equal variance assumption.

The last t-test conducted in PSM context utilized membership in professional organizations as grouping variable. District directors who were member of a professional organization had significantly [t (100.16) = 2.852, p= .005] higher mean scores ($\overline{x}$ = 11.96, σ= 2.448) regarding APM dimension compared to those who did not report such a membership ($\overline{x}$ = .4431, σ= .26547). Due to the fact that p value in Levene's test was significant, which means that homogeneity of variance assumption was violated, degrees of freedom and t value were adjusted to lower levels compared to the 'non-violation' case.

Before presenting the results of ANOVAs, a caveat regarding the effect size of the differences should be noted. Calculation of eta squared for each t-test revealed that although significance of between-groups differences were confirmed – that is it was less likely that the findings were due to the chance –, effect sizes were small (< 0.6 cut-off point) according to the rule of thumb suggested by Cohen (1988).

For groups including more than two categories, a number of one way ANOVAs were conducted. Since homogeneity of variance assumption is sensitive to non-equivalent sample sizes, several categories were merged when this adjustment was possible and conceivable.

Table 4.6. Group comparisons: PSM as test variable ANOVAs

Test Variable	Grouping Variable	N	$\bar{x}$	σ	df	F	p
COM[a]	≤15[a] years tenure	114	11.75	2.386	203.787	5.226	.011[b]
	16-25* years tenure	111	12.40	1.800			
	>26* years tenure	90	12.63	1.833			
	Total	315	12.23	2.067			

a. Compassion b. ≤15 group is the baseline determined via Tukey's HSD post hoc test.   b. homogeneity of variance violated : sig. for Levene test was <.05, Welsh procedure conducted and initial p value (.006) for ANOVA replaced with .011 . * Differences are significant at the 0.05 level

Test Variable	Grouping Variable	N	$\bar{x}$	σ	df	F	p
COM[a]	High School[b]	54	12.89	1.870	312	4.090	.018[d]
	Bachelor Degree (Corrres.)	163	12.21	2.122			
	Formal Degrees (Composed)*	98	11.90	2.013			
	Total	315	12.23	2.067			

a. Compassion b. high school is the baseline. c. three formal higher education groups collapsed into single category * Differences is significant at the 0.05 level

Test Variable	Grouping Variable	N	$\bar{x}$	σ	df	F	p
SS (R& Log)[a]	Western Regions [b, c]	79	.5096	.26843	312	3.781	.024
	Middle Regions [b]	151	.4701	.24865			
	Eastern Regions[, b,*]	85	.3986	.28760			
		315	.4607	.26692			

a. Self-Sacrifice reflected& transformed via log10 b. 7 regions collapsed into three categories. c. Western is the base line

As can be seen from Table 4.6, a statistically significant difference was found at p < .05 cut-off point on compassion scores for three organizational tenure groups [F (2, 203.787= 5.226, p=.011]. One can discern that the initial 6 groups were collapsed down into 3 categories in order to ensure roughly equivalent sample sizes. Nevertheless, Levene's statistic was still slightly below .05 point and therefore the author conducted Welsh procedure to alleviate this violation. One consequence of this procedure is that both degrees of freedom (df from 312 to 203.787) and significance of the difference (p value from .006 to .011) reduced compared to the case in which equal variance is assumed. At the final stage, the result of the Tukey's HSD post hoc test –

conducted in order to specify where exactly the significant differences occurred – indicated that group means of COM for district directors in both '16-25' years ($\overline{x}$ = 12.401, σ= 1.800) and 'over 26' years tenure ($\overline{x}$ = 12.63, σ= 1.833) categories were significantly higher relative to those in '≤15 tenure' years ($\overline{x}$ = 11.75, σ= 2.386).

The second ANOVA tested whether variation in level of education showed a significant change with the compassion component of PSM. Firstly, groups were reorganized taking the notion of formal education and non- equivalent sample sizes into account. Correspondence bachelor degree is regarded as superior to junior college graduation in many official procedures such as selection, compensation and promotion in Turkey. However, one could consider junior college graduation more adjacent to the formal bachelor degree since both of them included formal education procedures after high school. That being said, both higher education types offer much more opportunities for value transferring and social interactions related to PSM. Therefore, three categories – junior college, formal bachelor degree and master degree – collapsed down into a single category and compared to the remaining two groups. The ANOVA revealed that there was a significant difference among educational groups [$F_{(2, 312}$= 4.090. p=.018] and Tukey's HSD post hoc test showed that while district directors with high school graduation is the baseline group ($\overline{x}$ = 12.89, σ= 1.870), composed formal higher education category had lower compassion score means ($\overline{x}$ = 11.90, σ= 2.013) .

The last one way ANOVA employing PSM as test variable utilized geographical region categories as comparison groups. 7 geographical region categories were collapsed down into three categories – western, middle and eastern – implying a degree of deprivation, which increases from west to east. There was a significant difference among the three groups [$F_{(2,}$

312= 3.781. p=.024] and Turkey's HSD post hoc test showed that while the western regions group is the baseline ($\bar{x}$ = .5096, σ= .26843), eastern regions category had higher mean scores($\bar{x}$ = .3986, σ= .28760) on self-sacrifice dimension of PSM.

Although revealed statistically significant differences, the results of ANOVA tests reported here should be taken cautiously with respect to the magnitude of these differences. That is, calculation of eta squared for each one way ANOVA showed that the effect sizes were small (between .01 and .06) according to Cohen's (1988) guideline.

Servant Leadership as Test Variable

As for servant leadership, a statistically significant difference was found only between occupational categories of the sample at p≤0.05 level [t (313) = -2.439, p= .015] through a t-test. It can be seen from the data in Table 4.7 that group means for servant leadership behaviors of district governors reported by district directors in foundations ($\bar{x}$ = 109.9127, σ= 14.75121) were higher than those reported by district directors of civil registry offices ($\bar{x}$ = 106.0397, σ= 13.41897).

Table 4.7. Group comparisons: SL as test variable t-test

Test Variable	Grouping Variable	N	$\bar{x}$	σ	t	df	p
S L[a]	**Registry Offices**	160	106.0397	13.41897	-2.439	313	.015[b]
	Foundations	155	109.9127	14.75121			

a. Servant Leadership 95% CI -6.99747 to -.74852 b. equal variance assumed (sig for Levene test is > .05)

Motivation Potential of Jobs as Test Variable

Table 4.8. Group comparisons: MPL as test variable t-test

Test Variable	Grouping Variable	N	$\overline{x}$	σ	t	df	p
MPL[a]	Pub.Ser.Parents(-)	218	50.5973	24.99408	-2.199	158.14	.029[b,c]
	Pub.Ser.Parents(+)	97	58.2449	29.91578			

a. Motivation Potential Level b. equal variance NOT assumed (sig for Levene's test is < .05)   c.95% CI -14.51to -.779

Scrutiny of motivation potential level of jobs with respect to demographic characteristics provided statistically significant results only for an interesting dichotomous categorical variable of the study that is having public servant parents [t (158.14) = -2.439, p= .029] . MPL mean scores for the group of respondents who had at least one public servant parent ($\overline{x}$ = 109.9127, σ= 14.75121) were significantly higher than those who did not have ($\overline{x}$ = 50.5973, σ= 24.99408). As it can be seen from Table 4.8, degrees of freedom and p value were adjusted according to the violation of homogeneity of variance condition since Levene's statistic was statistically significant.

Frequency of Needs-Testing Tasks in Work Routine as Test Variable

Table 4.9. Group comparisons: FNTT as test variable t-test

Test Variable	Grouping Variable	N	$\overline{x}$	σ	t	df	p
FNTT[a]	Registry Offices	160	2.77	1.255	-10.78	304.70	.000[b,c]
	Foundations	155	4.16	1.029			

a Frequency of Needs-Testing Tasks b. equal variance NOT assumed (sig for Levene's test is < .05) c.95% CI 1.647 to -1.138

Examination of frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine as the test variable exposed statistically significant difference only between occupational categories of the study

[t (304.70) = -10.78, p=. 000]. Mean scores of FNNT for district directors of foundations ($\overline{x}$ = 4.16, σ=1.029) were higher than mean scores of those in registry offices ($\overline{x}$ = 2.77, σ= 1.255).

Tension as Test Variable

The last analysis in this section investigated whether there were statistically significant differences between groups on the basis of TNS. The only grouping variable that produced such a finding was occupational categories [t (313) = -4.572, p= .000]. TNS scores of foundation directors ($\overline{x}$ = 3.09, σ=.956) were higher than the directors of registry offices ($\overline{x}$ = 2.64, σ=.797).

Table 4.10. Group comparisons: TNS as test variable t-test

Test Variable	Grouping Variable	N	$\overline{x}$	σ	t	df	p
TNS[a]	Registry Offices	160	2.64	.797	-4.572	313	.000[b,c]
	Foundations	155	3.09	.956			

a.Tension between public servant and citizen b. equal variance assumed c. 95% CI -.648 to -.258

Bivariate analysis

This section presents the results of the preliminary analysis conducted in order to indicate strength and the direction of the linear dependence association among the variables of the study. As being the most common correlation measure, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (r) were used. This method is essentially performed to expose linear relationships between continuous or interval level data. In this study, associations among both interval and nominal (categorical and ordinal) data were investigated. Spearman rank order correlation might be an alternative to examine relationships between ordinal level data (Levin and Fox 2006;

Pallant 2011). However, dichotomous variables are also compatible with Pearson product-moment correlation measure, (Pallant 2011) and therefore transformation of ordinal level data having more than two categories by collapsing them into two categories whenever possible was considered to be a proper adjustment for the purpose of the study. Furthermore, because this adjustment – rather than employing a range of dummy variables – would make multiple regression analyses conducted for hypothesis testing in the subsequent section less complicated , three measures of the study – organizational tenure, level of education and geographical region as being the proxy of WSAS – were transformed into dichotomous variables having only two levels. Table 4.11 portrays correlation coefficients (r) and significance of the associations..

The analysis revealed a number of statistically significant relationships. Regarding the direction of associations in which reflected variables – overall PSM, APM, CPI ad SS – are involved, a contrariwise comprehension is required. With respect to overall PSM, servant leadership (SL), motivation potential level of jobs (MPL), frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine. (FNTT) and parental socialization (PS) were positively and significantly correlated (r = -.317, $p \leq 0.01$; r= -.403, $p \leq 0.01$; r= -.246, $p \leq 0.01$; r= -.119, $p \leq 0.05$).

In line with overall PSM, four dimensions of PSM – attraction to policy making (APM), commitment to public interest (CPI) , compassion (COM) and self-sacrifice (SS) – were positively and significantly correlated with SL, MPL and FNTT at $p \leq 0.01$ level (r = -.148, r= -.163, r= -.148 ; r= -.226, r= -.287, r= -.209; r= .245, r =.343, r= .149; r = -.315, r= -.345, r = -.257) in varying degrees of strength. Apart from these common correlates, a significant association was observed between attraction to policy making and professionalism (r= -.163, $p \leq$ 0.01). Compassion dimension correlated positively and significantly with organizational tenure

(r= -.184, p≤ 0.01) and ultimately self-sacrifice had a positive association with two variables: parental socialization (r=.154, p≤ 0.01) and frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering (r= -.142, p≤ 0.05)

In addition to the relationships between outcome variables of the study and predictor variables summarized above, a number of noteworthy associations among independent variables were identified. Tension between public servant and citizen was positively associated with FNTT (r=.170, p≤ 0.01) and level of education (r=.119, p≤ 0.05). Organizational tenure was inversely correlated with professionalism (r= -.181, p≤ 0.01) and level of education (r= -.207, p≤ 0.01).

Before closing this section and getting in multivariate analyses, it should also be reported here that the data in the Table 4.11 also have implications for the threat of multicollinearity. Since there was no correlation among independent variables greater than 0.7, one could preliminarily argue that multicollinearity does not seem to pose a threat for this data set with regards to multiple regression analyses.

Table 4.11. Pearson coefficient correlations

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	PSM (R&Log)[n]	1													
2	APM (R&Log)[a]	.697**	1												
3	CPI(R&Log)[b]	.746**	.551**	1											
4	COM [c]	-.711**	-.328**	-.426**	1										
5	SS (R&Log)[d]	.785**	.428**	.603**	-.481**	1									
6	SL [e]	-.317**	-.148**	-.226**	.245**	-.315**	1								
7	MPL [f]	-.403**	-.253**	-.287**	.343**	-.345**	.245**	1							
8	FNTT [g]	-.246**	-.148**	-.209**	.149**	-.257**	.245**	.254**	1						
9	TNS [h]	-.006	-.038	.037	-.013	-.039	.027	.037	.170**	1					
10	PRO [i]	-.070	-.167**	-.040	-.018	-.021	.063	-.071	.173**	.013	1				
11	PS [j]	-.119*	-.093	-.058	.105	-.154**	.088	.132*	.072	-.003	-.016	1			
12	WSAS [k]	-.100	.014	-.011	.077	-.142*	.096	.076	.114*	.086	-.041	.059	1		
13	TNR [l]	-.100	-.003	-.043	.184**	-.037	-.063	.048	-.242**	-.102	-.181**	-.090	-.006	1	
14	EDU [m]	.062	-.035	.086	-.109	-.008	-.075	-.062	.074	.119*	.131*	-.003	-.038	-.207**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level, * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level a. Attraction to Policy Making reflected & log transformed, correlation true direction changes thereof b. Commitment to Public Interest reflected & log transformed, correlation true direction changes thereof c. Compassion d .Self-Sacrifice reflected & log transformed, correlation true direction changes thereof e. Servant Leadership f. Motivation Potential Level of Jobs g. Frequency of Needs-Testing task in work routine h. Tension between public servant and citizen i. Professionalism operationalized by membership in professional organizations j. Parental Socialization into Public Values operationalized by having public servant parents k. Regions (As the proxy of Witnessing Situations Associated with Suffering) collapsed down into two groups eastern regions dichotomized with others l Tenure collapsed down into 2 groups >16-20 dichotomized with others m. Level of Education collapsed down into 2 groups Junior +Bachelor (formal) and Up dichotomized with others n. PSM reflected & log transformed.

Multivariate analyses

This section presents the results of five hierarchical multiple regression analyses and one moderated multiple regression analysis conducted in order to test study hypothesis. All 9 main hypotheses and 1 sub-hypothesis employed PSM as the dependent variable and regression analyses in this section investigated whether these hypotheses were supported on the basis of overall PSM and/or PSM sub-dimensions.

Although mentioned in the bivariate analysis section, reiterating adjustments made in ordinal variables having more than two levels in a more detailed way can be useful at this stage. As mentioned in the measurement section of the methodology chapter, three main independent variables – organizational tenure, regions as the proxy of WSAS and level of education – and one control variable (age) consisted of ordinal categories having more than two levels. The author collapsed multiple levels in each of them down into two levels – that is to say, transformed them into dichotomous variables by using judgment. The reason for that was to specify contrasts in the dependent variable between successive levels of the predictor variable more accurately (Walter, Feinstein and Wells 1987). While this adjustment allowed gathering all study variables within a bivariate analysis conducted via Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient measure, it also enabled setting a less tedious regression model compared to creation of 22 dummy variables for 4 categorical variables.

Eight age categories were collapsed down into 2 categories and 41-45 years cohort was selected as the cut-off point. Then , 6 categories of organizational tenure were reduced to 2 categories labeling tenure groups greater than '16-20 years' as a single group and contrasting that group with others ($\leq$ 16-20 years cohort).

A slightly more discretionary way was adopted for level of education. As mentioned in the descriptive statistics section, the author considered graduates of junior colleges as more akin to 'formal bachelor degree' and 'master degree and over' groups in the sense of providing socialization opportunities and instilling PSM related values. Therefore, although correspondence bachelor degree represents a higher level of education compared to junior colleges officially, the author merged it with high school graduation and contrasted this new group with formal higher education group consisting of 'junior college', 'formal bachelor degree' and 'master degree or over' categories.

The last adjustment was related to the geographical regions. Because the regions were designed as to represent 'frequency of witnessing situations with suffering' variable, the author specified and merged Eastern Anatolia and Southeastern Anatolia regions as one group and remaining five regions as the other. One reason for this selection was that overall, both Eastern Anatolia and Southeastern Anatolia regions were accepted as the least economically developed – in other words, the most deprived – regions among the others. In addition, acts of violence and terrorism within these two regions over three decades made them as the most convenient group to contrast with others on the basis of 'frequency of witnessing situations with suffering'

Hierarchical multiple regressions: Hypothesis testing

The results generated by the 1st hierarchical multiple regression analysis, are reported in Table 4.12. After having controlled the effect of a group of variables that this study did not considered in Perry's (2000) process theory, the model accounted for slightly above 27 % of the variance in the outcome variable (overall PSM) and was significant overall in predicting public service motivation with its given set of independent variables (R^2 = .272, p= .000).

Table 4.12. Hierarchical multiple regressions predicting overall PSM

Predictors	B	Std. Error	β
Constant	.953***	.068	
Gender	.077	.042	.109*
Marital Status	.012	.057	.013
Age[a]	-.062	.043	-.096
Prvt. Sec.Experience	-.030	.036	-.048
Occupation	-.037	.039	-.061
Model Summary:	$R^2=.020$	*F=1.278*	*N=315*
Constant	1.697***	.144	
Gender	.083	.038	.118**
Marital Status	.034	.050	.036
Age	-.019	.046	-.030
Prvt. Sec.Experience	-.025	.033	-.041
Occupation	.042	.042	.070
SL[b]	-.004	.001	-.206***
MPL[c]	-.003	.001	-.303***
FNTT[d]	-.035	.014	-.155**
TNS[e]	.003	.017	.009
PS[f]	-.060	.034	-.092*
PRO[g]	-.051	.038	-.069
WSAS[h]	-.032	.035	-.047
EDU[i]	.006	.034	.010
TNR[j]	-.070	.045	-.115
Model Summary	$R^2=.272$ ***	*F=8.004*	*N=315*

*p <.10, ** p < .05, *** p < .01 a. Age in 2 groups ≤ 41-45 cohort reference group b. Servant Leadership c. Motivation Potential of Jobs d. Frequency of Needs-Testing task in work routine e. Tension between public servant and citizen f. Parental Socialization(Having Public Servant Parents) g. Professionalism(Membership in a professional Organization) h. Regions (As the proxy of Witnessing Situations Associated with Suffering) collapsed down into two groups eastern regions dichotomized with others i. Level of education collapsed down into 2 groups Junior +Bachelor (formal) and up dichotomized with others j. Tenure collapsed down into 2 groups >16-20   dichotomized with others

Of nine independent variables in the model, four of them displayed statistically significant positive relationships with public service motivation. Servant leadership was significantly and positively related to overall PSM yielding a very strong surmise against null hypothesis. Hence, the alternative hypothesis, H1 was confirmed in this first model (β= -.303, p < .01).

Motivation potential level also positively and significantly predicted overall PSM ($\beta= -.155$, $p < .05$). This finding also provided strong compelling reason to reject null hypothesis and therefore alternative H7 was accepted. Although caution should be taken due to the low presumption against null hypothesis, parental socialization emerged as a positive and statistically significant predictor of overall PSM ($\beta= -.092$, $p < .10$). Namely, null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis H3 was accepted.

The last independent variable having statistically significant positive relationship with overall PSM was 'frequency of needs testing tasks in work routine' ($\beta= -.155$, $p < .05$). However, the association was in the reverse direction with the relevant alternative hypothesis. For this reason, H8 was not supported in this first hierarchical multiple regression. Yet, regarding the remaining predictors employed as the main independent variables, there was no statistically significant relationship with respect to composite scores of PSM. That is, organizational tenure, level of education, frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering, professional identification and tension failed to predict variance in overall PSM significantly in either directions ($p=.120$, $p=.854$, $p=.352$, $p=.185$, $p=.855$ respectively)

Apart from these findings regarding the main predictors, the role of gender in predicting overall PSM among control variables was absolutely noteworthy. The regression model indicated that in both the initial ($\beta= -.109$, $p<0.10$) and the second parts of the hierarchical multiple regression, gender had a statistically significant impact on overall PSM. Furthermore, the strength of this impact was greater and there was more compelling reason to reject any possible neutral hypothesis regarding gender and PSM in the second block where main predictors were included ($\beta= -.118$, $p<0.05$). Men and women were coded as 0 and 1 respectively. Considering

that overall PSM was reflected for the purpose of transformation, the 1st hierarchical multiple

regression model revealed that women were less likely to have higher levels of PSM compared

to men.

Table 4.13. 2nd Hierarchical multiple regression predicting APM

Predictors	B	Std. Error	β
Constant	.357***	.061	
Gender	.101	.037	.158
Marital Status	-.003	.050	-.004
Age[a]	.058	.038	.099
Prvt. Sec.Experience	-.042	.032	-.075
Occupation	.038	.035	.070
Model Summary:	*R^2=.044***	*F=2.858*	*N=315*
Constant	.751***	.140	
Gender	.103	.037	.161**
Marital Status	.005	.048	.005
Age[a]	.095	.044	.162**
Prvt. Sec.Experience	-.031	.032	-.055
Occupation	.089	.041	.162**
SL[b]	-.001	.001	-.069
MPL[c]	-.002	.001	-.223***
FNTT[d]	-.019	.013	-.092
TNS[e]	-.014	.017	-.046
PS[f]	-.060	.033	-.101*
PRO[g]	-.104	.037	-.156***
WSAS[h]	.029	.034	.047
EDU[i]	-.017	.033	-.028
TNR[j]	-.060	.043	-.109
Model Summary	*R^2=.168 ****	*F=4.319*	*N=315*

*p <.10, ** p < .05, *** p < .01 a. Age in 2 groups ≤ 41-45 cohort reference group b. Servant Leadership c. Motivation Potential of Jobs d. Frequency of Needs-Testing task in work routine e. Tension between public servant and citizen f. Parental Socialization(Having Public Servant Parents) g. Professionalism(Membership in a professional organization) h. Regions (As the proxy of Witnessing Situations Associated with Suffering) collapsed down into two groups eastern regions dichotomized with others i. Level of education collapsed down into 2 groups Junior +Bachelor (formal) and up dichotomized with others j. Tenure collapsed down into 2 groups >16-20 dichotomized with others

Because the research design of the study sought support for the hypotheses in any

motivational bases of PSM – assuming that constituent dimensions represented the construct as a

whole from their own generic aspects – the author conducted 4 more hierarchical multiple regression analyses employing APM, CPI, COM and SS as dependent variable in each model.

Table 4.13 summarizes the 2nd hierarchical multiple regression performed to measure the ability of main independent variables to predict attraction to policy making (APM) dimension of PSM after having controlled the impacts of gender, marital status, age, previous private sector experience and occupation. In the first phase, control variables were incorporated in the regression accounting for 4.4 % variance in APM and the model in this first step was statistically significant ($R2 = .044$, $p= .015$). Inclusion of 9 independent variables in the next step explained 16.8% of the variance in APM and the model was significant as well ($R2 = .168$, $p= .000$). In this ultimate model, 3 out of 9 main independent variables proved statistically significant predictors of APM. There was a statistically significant positive relationship between motivation potential level and APM ($\beta = -.223$, $p<0.01$). Therefore, having a very strong presumption against null hypothesis, the relevant alternative hypothesis H7 was accepted likewise in the 1st hierarchical multiple regression. Another predictor, professional identification, was positively and significantly related to APM dimension of PSM ($\beta= -.156$, $p<0.01$). Since $p<0.01$ indicated a very strong presumption versus null hypothesis alternative hypothesis H4 was accepted and verified in this 2nd multiple regression. The last predictor yielding a positive and significant association with APM was parental socialization into public values ($\beta= -.101$, $p<0.10$). Despite the necessity of a cautious view emanating from low surmise versus the null hypothesis that $p<0.10$ suggests, H3 was accepted and reconfirmed in 2nd hierarchical multiple regression as well as in the first one.

In consistence with the 1st model, gender was a statistically significant predictor of APM (β= .161, p<0.05) meaning that compared to men as the reference group, women were less likely to have higher levels of APM. Another interesting finding among control variables was the impact of age. Subsequent to the second step of the regression, age was negatively and significantly related to APM (β= -.162, p<0.05). Finally, occupation was the last control variable explaining the variance in APM significantly (β= -.162, p<0.05). The categories of this variable were dummy coded as '0' for civil registry offices and '1' for f social assistance foundations – that is to say, directors of foundations were less like to score high on APM sub-dimension of PSM compared to directors of registry offices.

In this 2nd regression model, no significant relationship was found between the remaining 7 predictors – organizational tenure, level of education, frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering, frequency of needs testing tasks in work routine and servant leadership – and APM. In other words, the second regression model did not provide support for H1, H2, H5, H6, H8 and H9 (p=.220, p=.618, p=.391, p=167, p=.160 and p=.391).

The third model regressed commitment to public interest (CPI) dimension of PSM on the same set of independent variables utilized in two previous models. As it can be seen from the Table 4.14, control variables in the first step as a whole explained only a very trivial percentage of the variance in CPI and the model was not significant at all (R^2= .004, p=.951). When main variables were included in the second step, the model explained 14.9% of the variance in the outcome variable and it was statistically significant. (R^2= .149, p=.000).

Table 4.14. 3rd Hierarchical multiple regression predicting CPI

Predictors	B	Std. Error	β
Constant	.327***	.064	
Gender	.027	.039	.041
Marital Status	.014	.053	.015
Age^a	-.024	.041	-.039
Prvt. Sec.Experience	-.015	.034	-.027
Occupation	.006	.037	.010
Model Summary:	*R^2=.004*	*F=2.858*	*N=315*
Constant	.782***	.146	
Gender	.025	.038	.038
Marital Status	.027	.051	.030
Age	-.013	.046	-.022
Prvt. Sec.Experience	-.008	.033	-.014
Occupation	.084	.043	.148*
SL^b	-.003	.001	-.142**
MPL^c	-.002	.001	-.214***
FNTT^d	-.043	.014	-.202***
TNS^e	.012	.017	.037
PS^f	-.016	.034	-.026
PRO^g	-.025	.039	-.036
WSAS^h	.011	.035	.017
EDUⁱ	.026	.035	.043
TNR^j	-.001	.045	-.002
Model Summary	*R^2= .149****	*F=4.319*	*N=315*

*p <.10, ** p < .05, *** p < .01 a. Age in 2 groups ≤ 41-45 cohort reference group b. Servant Leadership c. Motivation Potential of Jobs d. Frequency of Needs-Testing task in work routine e. Tension between public servant and citizen f. Parental Socialization(Having Public Servant Parents) g. Professionalism(Membership to a professional Organization) h. Regions (As the proxy of Witnessing Situations Associated with Suffering) collapsed down into two groups eastern regions dichotomized with others i. Level of education collapsed down into 2 groups Junior +Bachelor (formal) and up dichotomized with others j. Tenure collapsed down into 2 groups >16-20 dichotomized with others

Examination of regression coefficients and relevant p values indicated that only 3 out of 9 main variables had statistically significant relationship with CPI. In consistence with the findings of the 1st regression model predicting overall PSM, servant leadership was positively and significantly related to CPI (β= -.142, p<0.05). Motivation potential level was verified as another positive and statistically significant predictor of CPI as well as in 1st and 2nd regression

models (β= -.214, p<0.01). Due to strong and very strong presumptions versus null hypotheses, alternative hypotheses H1 and H7 were accepted. However – although being statistically significant –, the relationship between frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine and CPI was in the opposite direction with the alternative hypothesis. Therefore, H8 was rejected just as in the case of the 1st regression model predicting overall PSM.

Among control variables, the only statistically significant predictor was occupation. In similar line with 2nd regression model predicting APM, district directors of social assistance foundations proved less likely to score high on CPI compared to district directors of registry offices (β= . 148, p<0.10)

The remaining 6 main independent variables – EDU, PS,PRO, WSAS,TNR and TNS – displayed no significant association with APM and therefore H2 , H3, H4, H5, H6, and H9 were not supported within the 3rd hierarchical multiple regression model predicting CPI (p=.445, p=.636, p= .524, p= .752, p=.978, p= .500 respectively).

The 4th model regressed compassion (COM) dimension of PSM on the same set of variables. Table 4.15 shows the results. COM is the only PSM dimension, which was not subjected to reflection and transformation. That is, indicated directions of the relationship are actual ones.

The first step consisting of the control variables explained a very small variance in COM scores and it was non-significant (R^2= .026, p=.171). When main variables were entered, however, the model accounted for 20.7 % of the variance with a very low probability of occurrence due to chance (R^2= .207, p=.000).

Table 4.15. 4th Hierarchical multiple regression predicting COM

Predictors	B	Std. Error	β
Constant	11.825***	.463	
Gender	-.168	.282	-.035
Marital Status	-.061	.384	-.009
Age[a]	.711	.293	.161
Prvt. Sec.Experience	.079	.247	.019
Occupation	-.026	.268	-.006
Model Summary:	$R^2= .026$	*F= 1.660*	*N=315*
Constant	7.765***	1.028	
Gender	-.242	.270	-.050
Marital Status	-.186	.356	-.029
Age	.439	.324	.099
Prvt. Sec.Experience	.083	.233	.020
Occupation	-.442	.301	-.107
SL[b]	.024	.008	.166***
MPL[c]	.020	.004	.261***
FNTT[d]	.198	.098	.129**
TNS[e]	-.011	.122	-.005
PS[f]	.362	.240	.081
PRO[g]	.052	.272	.010
WSAS[h]	.214	.247	.046
EDU[i]	-.112	.243	-.025
TNR[j]	.422	.318	.102
Model Summary	$R^2= .207***$	*F= 5.594*	*N=315*

*p <.10, ** p < .05, *** p < .01 a. Age in 2 groups ≤ 41-45 cohort reference group b. Servant Leadership c. Motivation Potential of Jobs d. Frequency of Needs-Testing task in work routine e. Tension between public servant and citizen f. Parental Socialization(Having Public Servant Parents) g. Professionalism(Membership in a professional organization) h. Regions (As the proxy of Witnessing Situations Associated with Suffering) collapsed down into two groups eastern regions dichotomized with others i. Level of education collapsed down into 2 groups Junior +Bachelor (formal) and up dichotomized with others j. Tenure collapsed down into 2 groups >16-20 dichotomized with others

The regression analysis with respect to COM yielded three statistically significant predictors. In consistence with 1st and 3rd models predicting overall PSM and CPI, servant leadership was positively associated with COM dimension of PSM (β=. 166, p<0.01). Given the

very low probability of obtaining this result under the assumption that the null hypothesis is true, the rival hypothesis H1 was accepted. The second statistically significant predictor was motivation potential level and likewise in all previous three models, MPL had a statistically significant and positive relationship with COM dimension of PSM (β=. 261, p<0.01). Accordingly, the null hypothesis was rejected and H7 was accepted. As for FNTT, there was a significant relationship with respect to COM. Nevertheless, it was not on the hypothesized direction with the rival hypothesis as it was in the cases of 1st and 3rd regression models predicting overall PSM and CPI. Consequently, H8 was rejected.

No statistically significant relationship was identified with regards to other study variables – EDU, PS, PRO, WSAS, TNR and TNS – including those employed as controlling purposes. To put it in another way, the model did not provide support for H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, H9 (p=.645, p=.133, p= .848, p=.388, p=.185, p=.931).

In the last hierarchical multiple regression model, dependent variable was self-sacrifice dimension of PSM. Control variables alone explained only a negligible percentage of observed variance in SS and in this initial formation, the model was non-significant (R^2=.025, p=.171). As can be seen from Table 4.16, before main predictor variables were entered, occupation appeared as a significant predictor of SS highlighting directors of social assistance foundations as being more likely to score higher on SS compared to directors of registry offices (β=.-.147, p<0.05). However, this effect seems to be suppressed when the main variables were included in the model in the second step. In its final formation, the model was statistically significant and explained 23.4 % of the variance in the self-sacrifice dimension of PSM (R^2=.234, p=.000).

In this multiple regression model – after having controlled age , marital status, gender, previous private sector experience and occupation – , 5 main independent variables proved to have statistically significant relationships with SS. Verifying 1st, 3rd and 4th models predicting overall PSM, CPI and COM , servant leadership displayed a positive relationship in predicting self-sacrifice dimension of PSM (β=.-.222, p<0.01) and due to the very strong surmise against the null hypothesis , which implies a very low probability to encounter this positive relationship when the null hypothesis is true, the alternative hypothesis H1 was accepted. In the same vein, motivation potential levels of jobs were also found to have a positive and statistically significant relationship with SS dimension (β=.-.238, p<0.01) as well as in all previous models predicting overall PSM, APM, CPI and COM. Namely, H7 was accepted.

The positive relationship between parental socialization in to public values and PSM found in the 1st model predicting overall PSM and 2nd model predicting APM was reconfirmed in this last model, yet both impact and statistical significance was stronger (β=.-.238, p<0.01). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected and rival hypothesis H3 was accepted.

Among the others, 5th regression model uniquely revealed the positive relationship between frequency of situations associated with suffering and PSM on the basis of self-sacrifice. Despite the low presumption versus null hypothesis and the relatively low impact of WSAS on SS (β=.-.095, p<10), H5 was accepted and the null hypothesis was rejected.

Regarding frequency of needs testing tasks in work routine, the results were coherent with 1st, 3rd and 4th models – that is to say, the positive link between FNTT and PSM reconfirmed one more time on the basis self-sacrifice dimension (β=.-.154, p<0.05). Yet, since

the rival hypothesis had presumed a negative relationship, null hypothesis was retained and H8

was rejected. Finally, among control variables, age was remarkable with statistically significant

Table 4.16. 5th Hierarchical multiple regression predicting SS

Predictors	B	Std. Error	β
Constant	.560***	.060	
Gender	.025	.036	.040
Marital Status	-.003	.050	-.004
Age[a]	-.081	.038	-.142
Prvt. Sec.Experience	-.021	.032	-.039
Occupation	-.079	.035	-.147**
Model Summary:	*R^2=.025*	*F=1.561*	*N=315*
Constant	1.260***	.130	
Gender	.039	.034	.062
Marital Status	.020	.045	.024
Age	-.089	.041	-.157**
Prvt. Sec.Experience	-.011	.030	-.020
Occupation	.010	.038	.019
SL[b]	-.004	.001	-.222***
MPL[c]	-.002	.001	-.238***
FNTT[d]	-.031	.013	-.154**
TNS[e]	.001	.016	.000
PS[f]	-.065	.030	-.113**
PRO[g]	.000	.035	.000
WSAS[h]	-.057	.031	-.095*
EDU[i]	-.038	.031	-.067
TNR[j]	.003	.040	.005
Model Summary	*R^2=.234 ****	*F=6.531*	*N=315*

*p <.10, ** p < .05, *** p < .01 a. Age in 2 groups ≤ 41-45 cohort reference group b. Servant Leadership c. Motivation Potential of Jobs d. Frequency of Needs-Testing task in work routine e. Tension between public servant and citizen f. Parental Socialization(Having Public Servant Parents) g. Professionalism(Membership in a professional organization) h. Regions (As the proxy of Witnessing Situations Associated with Suffering) collapsed down into two groups eastern regions dichotomized with others i. Level of education collapsed down into 2 groups Junior +Bachelor (formal) and up dichotomized with others j. Tenure collapsed down into 2 groups >16-20 dichotomized with others

positive relationship with SS (β=.-.157, p<0.05). The analysis did not render statistically

significant results for EDU, PRO, TNR AND TNS and therefore did not provide support for H2,

H4, H6 and H9 (p= .215, p= 946, p=.994, p=.996)

All 9 main hypotheses were tested by 5 hierarchical multiple regressions reported above with the exception of sub-hypothesis 5a. In order to test whether witnessing situations associated with suffering had a positive moderating effect on the relationship between servant leadership and overall PSM, the author conducted a moderated multiple regression analysis. This type of analysis is a kind of hierarchical multiple regression and suggested by a number of scholars as the simplest and the most common method of assessing interaction effects (Aiken and West 1991; Conway 2013b). The analysis consisted of two steps. In the first step servant leadership and frequency of witnessing situations were entered in the regression and subsequently the interaction variable, which is a cross product of SL and WSAS, was included in the model. However, since centering continuous predictor variables was recommended as being a precaution to multicollinearity threat (Conway 2013b), the author centered SL by subtracting it from its mean score. After that, interaction variable was created by multiplying centered SL and WSAS. The results of moderation analysis are shown in Table 4.17 below.

Table 4.17. Moderated multiple regression

Predictors	B	Std. Error	β
Constant	1.636***	.124	
SL[a]	-.007	.001	-.310***
WSAS[b]	-.048	.037	-.070
Model Summary	R^2*=.105****	*F=18.336*	
Constant	1.528***	.137	
SL[a]	-.006	.001	-.263***
WSAS[b]	-.039	.037	-.057
SL x WSAS[c]	-.005	.003	-.110*
Model Summary	R^2*=.115****	*F= 13.434*	*ΔF= 3.353**

*p <.10, ** p < .05, *** p < .01 a. Servant Leadership b. Frequency of witnessing situations with suffering c. interaction variable

As can be seen from the Figure 4.1, inclusion of interaction variable, SL X WSAS increased the explanatory power of the model by 1 % and the change was statistically significant ($\Delta R^2 = .10$, $p<0,10$) . Therefore, despite the fact that the surmise against null hypothesis is low, moderating effect was confirmed. Yet, since the rival hypothesis specified a positive direction with respect to the strength of relationship between SL and PSM the author created a scatter plot in order to clarify the direction and illustrate interaction effect. Centered version of SL and reflected PSM were inserted to X and Y axes and markers were set by the dichotomous categories of WSAS (i.e., low deprivation and high deprivation) as the moderator variable.
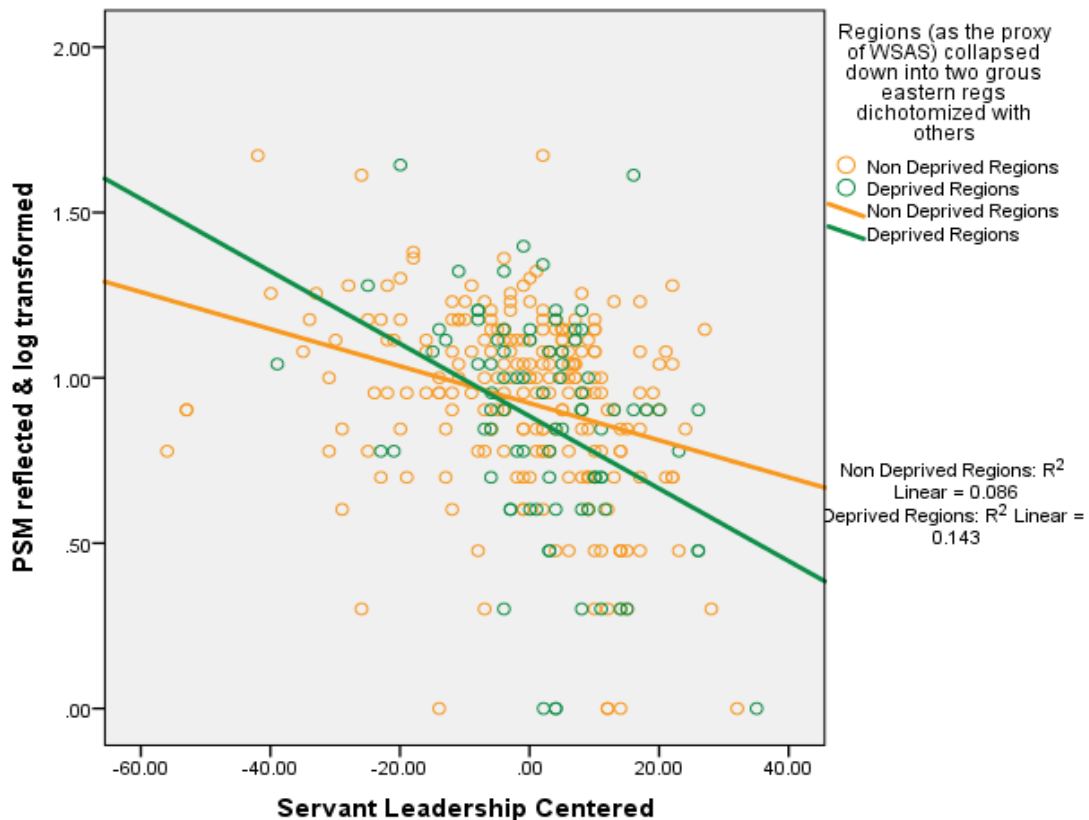
Figure 4.1. Moderating effect of WSAS

Linear fit lines were inserted in the graph by sub-groups of low and high deprivation. Regressing centered servant leadership (centered) onto PSM, categorized across two levels of WSAS, Figure 4.1 depicts the moderating effect. Once again, it should be noted that actual direction of the relationship should be interpreted conversely due the reflection of PSM during data transformation. However, the greater slope of the line representing the relationship between SL and PSM directions as the function of high deprivation/ high frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering can be discerned easily. That is, strength of the positive relationship between SL and PSM increased where high WSAS was present. Thus, null hypothesis was rejected and H5a was accepted. Data analyses were completed with the moderation analysis. The summary of hypothesis testing results is provided in Table 4.18

Table 4.18. Summary of hypotheses testing results

Hypotheses	Results
H1: There is a positive relationship between servant leadership and PSM	Supported: 1st,3rd ,4th and 5th models
H2: Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between level of education and PSM	Rejected
H3: There is a positive relationship between parental socialization into public values and PSM	Supported : 1st,2nd and 5th models
H4: : There is a positive relationship between professional identification and PSM	Supported: 2nd model
H5: There is a positive relationship between frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering and PSM	Supported: 5th model
H5a: Frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering positively moderates the relationship between Servant Leadership and PSM	Supported: Moderation analysis
H6: There is a negative relationship between organizational tenure and PSM	Rejected
H7: There is a positive relationship between motivation potential of jobs and PSM	Supported: 1st, 2nd,3rd,$4^{th}$and 5th models
H8: There is a negative relationship between frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine and PSM	Rejected
H9: Tension between public servant and citizen is negatively related to PSM	Rejected

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

The present study sought to explore antecedents of PSM in the Turkish public administration context, incorporating five distinct a priori antecedents – servant leadership, motivation potential level of jobs, frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine, tension between public servant and citizen, and witnessing situations associated with suffering. This is in addition to antecedents that were previously studied in different national contexts, such as organizational tenure, level of education, parental socialization into public values, and professional identification.

This chapter begins with a summary of the findings. Subsequently, these findings are discussed with respect to their own attributes and their comparison with other relevant studies. After that, contributions, reflections regarding practical consequences, and policy implications of the findings are provided. After having reviewed the limitations of the study, future research opportunities and prospects are suggested. Finally, the dissertation concludes with an overall summary of the research.

Summary of Findings

Control Variables

As mentioned before, this study employed five control variables assuming them as the predictors that cannot straightforwardly be embedded within the categories of the process theory of PSM developed by Perry (2000). Both group mean comparisons on the basis of study

variables presented in descriptive statistics and five hierarchic multiple regressions in the 4th chapter revealed that groups based on marital status and private sector experience did not differentiate with respect to any continuous study variable, nor did they have a significant relationship with PSM in its overall or dimensional forms. However, gender, age, and occupation brought forth important findings that are worth mentioning. As for age, 2nd and 5th multiple regressions analyses predicting PSM from the aspects of attraction to policy making and self-sacrifice exhibited significant, yet opposing, results. Age was revealed as having a negative relationship with APM and positive relationship with SS.

On the other hand, verifying the findings of two relevant preliminary t-tests in the descriptive statistics section, gender, having strong statistical significance, was the other control variable that significantly predicted PSM. In both the 1st and 2nd models where overall PSM and APM were dependent variables, women were less likely to have higher PSM compared to men.

With respect to occupation, there were a number of remarkable findings obtained from t-tests that assigned servant leadership, frequency of needs testing tasks in work routine and tension as testing variables. According to t-tests' findings, district directors of social assistance and solidarity foundations reported higher levels of servant leadership behaviors about their district governors, higher frequency of needs-testing task in work routine, and higher adversarial tension with citizens compared to district directors of civil registry offices.

Moreover, 2nd and 3rd multiple regression analyses confirmed that occupation was a significant factor in predicting PSM, concerning APM and CPI dimensions. Namely, directors of foundations were more likely to have lower levels of PSM compared to directors of registry offices. In a similar vein, one of the t-tests in the group comparisons section indicated that when

women were excluded from the analysis, male directors of foundations had lower means of COM compared to registry offices. Although the relationship did not reach statistical significance, direction of the relationship was consistent across other regression models.

Antecedents of PSM in socio-historical context

Four of the nine independent variables in this study were in the socio-historical context specified by Perry's (2000) process theory of PSM: level of education, professional identification, parental socialization, and frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering.

Only one of the group level comparisons in the descriptive section provided a statistically significant finding concerning level of education. The ANOVA analysis highlighted that with respect to COM dimension, district directors with high school diplomas tended to have higher levels of COM compared to those with formal higher education diplomas (junior colleges, bachelor degree, master degree and higher). Bivariate correlation analysis revealed a significant inverse relationship with organizational tenure, meaning that district directors with higher levels of education were much younger and had less organizational tenure in years. Another significant correlate of level of education was tension. Directors with higher educational attainments reported higher levels of adversarial tension with citizens. However, none of the multiple regression analyses generated statistically significant results with respect to relevant research hypothesis that propose a positive relationship between level of education and PSM. Furthermore, in spite of low regression coefficients, a trivial negative relationship can be identified in all models with the exception of APM dimension.

Both bivariate analysis and the relevant t-test in descriptive statistics demonstrated that professional identification was a strongly significant differentiating factor regarding attraction to policy making dimension of PSM. In other words, professionalism was a strongly significant positive correlate of APM. These findings overlapped with the results of the 2nd multiple regression, which confirmed a significant positive relationship between professionalism and the APM dimension of PSM. A distinct noteworthy detail regarding professionalism was derived from bivariate analysis. It revealed a significant positive relationship between professionalism and reported adversarial tension occurring between public servant and citizens. In the 1st and 5th regression models, the third anticipated predictor within this context, parental socialization into public values, proved to have a positive relationship with PSM both in its overall and self-sacrifice based manifestations. As it might be expected, pertinent t-tests replicated this finding in its own setting and groups based on having/not having public servant parents significantly differed in overall PSM and SS scores. Namely, district directors with public servant parents were more likely to have higher levels of PSM. Likewise, the results of bivariate analysis were in line with regression analyses and t-tests.

The last independent variable reported in this context was frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering. Being in accordance with relevant correlation analysis and one way ANOVA results, the 5th multiple regression affirmed that there was a positive relationship between WSAS and PSM within self-sacrifice dimension. That is, district directors who witnessed situations associated with suffering more frequently were more likely to have higher levels of PSM manifested via self-sacrifice.

Antecedents of PSM in motivational context

The author regarded servant leadership, organizational tenure, motivating potential of jobs, and frequency of needs testing tasks and tension between public servant and the citizens as being in the motivational context of the PSM continuum delineated by Perry (2000).

Four of five regression models supported the hypothesized very strongly statistically significant positive relationship between servant leadership and PSM. Although bivariate analysis pointed out statistically significant correlation coefficients for all four dimensions and overall PSM, the strength of the relationship failed to reach statistical significance in the 2nd OLS multiple regression model predicting APM. That being said, positive direction of the relationship between SL and PSM was still discernible as well as it was in the four other models. It was evident from OLS regression analyses that district directors who reported their immediate supervisors' servant leadership behaviors to a greater extent were more likely to report higher PSM levels. When reviewed in detail, the magnitude and the strength of the impact SL made was highest in self-sacrifice dimension and in overall PSM respectively. COM and CPI followed them.

Regarding organizational tenure, the findings of bivariate correlation analysis and one of the ANOVAs in the descriptive statistics hint at a positive association with compassion dimension. However, none of the OLS multiple regression analyses supported such a relationship. In other words, there was no statistically significant relationship between organizational tenure and PSM. Nevertheless, an overall non-significant positive link was noticeable in all models. Apart from these PSM-oriented analyses, another significant relationship between organizational tenure and professionalism revealed via bivariate analysis is

also worth mentioning. Among district directors, there was a negative relationship between organizational tenure and professionalism.

Motivation potential of jobs proved to be the strongest and most significant positive predictor of PSM in all models. The impact of MPL on each sub-dimension was roughly balanced, yet it was distinguishably higher in overall PSM. On the other hand, however, none of the comparisons made based on demographic groups differed significantly in their scores of MPL, with one exception. Those who have public servant parents had higher MPL means compared to the baseline group without public servant parents. Another secondary finding from bivariate analysis showed that frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine had a strong positive correlation with MPL.

Bivariate and OLS multiple regression analyses highlighted frequency of needs- testing tasks in work routine as another important, significant, and positive predictor of PSM along with MPL and SL. 1st, 3rd, 4th and 5th models predicting overall PSM, CPI, COM and SS respectively confirmed a positive relationship between FNTT and various manifestations of PSM. However, there was no significant association between FNTT and attraction to policy making. Besides, one can consider the significant and positive correlation between FNTT and adversarial tension that district directors experience with citizens as another notable finding.

Neither bivariate nor OLS multiple regressions found any significant relationship between adversarial tension (between public servant and citizens) and PSM. Moreover, 'tension' was the weakest variable with respect to effect size among all other independent variables predicting PSM.

Interaction effect: Moderator effect of Witnessing Situations Associated with Suffering

In addition to the findings related to PSM, antecedents that are summarized according to their occurrence context above, this study also revealed an interaction effect between socio-historical and motivational contexts. The result of moderated multiple regression analysis displayed the moderating effect of 'witnessing situations associated with suffering' on the strength of the positive relationship between Servant leadership and PSM. That is impact of servant leadership on PSM differed depending on geographical regions' being non-deprived and deprived. There was evidence that in deprived regions, servant leadership proved to be more efficient in predicting PSM.

Discussion of findings

Control Variables and PSM

There is an overall tendency to perceive a positive link between age and PSM and the majority of the relevant studies affirmed this relationship (e.g., Perry 1997; Houston 2000; Leisink and Stejin 2009; Pandy and Stazyk 2008; Vandenabeele 2011). However, in this study the role of age was not straightforward. The study revealed that age was positively related to PSM within the self-sacrifice dimension, yet, it also had a significant negative impact on attraction to policymaking (APM). Although it was non-significant, a weak positive relation could be identified in the remaining three models predicting overall PSM, CPI and COM. Findings regarding APM and CPI are in line with the findings of Camilleri's (2007) study.

In this study age was the only variable that generated statistically significant, yet inconsistent results across the dimensions of PSM. However, when different motivational bases constituting PSM sub-dimensions were taken into consideration, this finding might not be

anomalous. Attraction to policy making – by definition – represents the rational motivational base of PSM implying individual utility maximization (Wise 2000).These results provide confirmatory evidence that seniority is negatively related to self-seeking attitudes and positively linked to altruistic motives, such as self-sacrifice, in the case of Turkish district directors. One reason for this finding might be related to attendant life experiences. In general, as individuals grow older, attendant life experiences such as having a family, children, or grandchildren are also expected to increase. Consequently, seniority might have induced altruistic and others-oriented motivations like generativity or giving back to society, rather than pursuing individual utility maximization (Vandenabeele 2011) in this study.

Gender is one of the most controversial predictors in PSM research. Some studies associated women with higher PSM levels (e.g., Bright 2005), whilst others demonstrated that those with higher levels of PSM were more likely to be men (Perry 1997; Vandenbeele 2011). This study found that female district directors were less likely to have higher PSM levels in terms of overall and APM dimensions. Despite being non-significant, CPI and SS were in the same direction. The only dimension women scored higher on relative to men was compassion, yet it was non-significant. DeHart-Davis, Marlow and Pandey (2006) separate PSM sub-dimensions as feminine and masculine and suggest that except compassion, all three dimensions are sociologically masculine. They also argue that this is due to the dominance of masculine interaction patterns in the public sector and overall historical gender discrimination, which assigns a precise caring and nurturing role to women (Bright 2005; Vandenabeele 2011). Findings of this study are generally in accordance with this explanation and similar studies (e.g., Camilleri 2007; Vandenabeele 2011). The GLOBE project incorporated a number of cultural

dimensions such as power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, pragmatism and indulgence into a cross-cultural leadership study (House et al. 2004; Hofstede 2001). The study revealed that Turkey is a country with a high power distance, meaning that those who are less powerful regard power inequalities within all levels of the society as expectable and acceptable. Therefore, one could conclude that lower APM levels of Turkish women district directors can also be explained in terms of this important cultural factor. Namely, internalized power relations and exclusions from politics alone might have caused female directors to be less attracted to policy making. As for the lower overall PSM scores, Vandanbeele's remark concerning the structure of PSM measurement instruments is worth considering. In his (2011) study Vandenabeele argues that since compassion is regarded as the only feminine dimension among the others – represented by only 3 out of 12 items – this imbalance might result in "overpowering" the only feminine dimension and in so doing, causing women score lower in overall PSM measure.

The study sampled two occupational groups from two district level public organizations: social assistance foundations and civil registry offices. At the initial phase of the research, the occupation question in the survey set was included with the aim of addressing descriptive characteristics of the respondents, and to investigate whether groups differed with respect to the study variables, based on these occupations. However, when occupational category was entered in OLS multiple regression analyses as a control variable, two of five regression models rendered it a significant predictor of PSM. District directors with higher PSM on rational (APM) and duty-based (CPI) bases were less likely to work in social assistance and solidarity foundations.

Although the same direction was discernible, the relationship was non-significant in other models.

The predictors set in regression analyses of this study encompassed 14 variables. One implication of this relatively high number of variables is that, admittedly, when a variable achieved statistical significance that means impact of the remaining 13 variables were controlled. However, because it is hardly possible to attribute a variance in outcome (PSM) to being a district director in foundations or registry offices alone, further consideration is required.

As mentioned in the first chapter, one distinction between two groups of directors that might account for the reason why those in foundations were less likely to have higher PSM is employment status. Indeed, besides the 13 controlled variables, both occupations have the same immediate supervisors (district governors) and experience similar work environments. In most districts, two organizations are located in the same government office. That being said, when employment status was taken into account, it would be possible to discuss a specific case in the Turkish public administration context in terms of a locus of scholarly interest in the U.S.

District directors of social assistance and solidarity foundations are employed in a distinct status that is highly reminiscent of at-will employment. In a nutshell, at-will employment emerged as a critical response to the traditional civil service system and relevant merit system protections emanating from the property interest of employees over jobs. A radical reform movement began the middle of the 1990s in the U.S. and was pioneered by three southern states, Georgia, Florida and Texas, which eliminated job tenure and job security associated with property interest on public jobs and deployed at will employment. In this employment regime, employees can be hired and fired for good, bad, and even no reason, and due process rights of

the civil service system, such as grievance and appeal procedures, are either restricted or eliminated completely (Battaglio and Condrey 2006; Battaglio 2010; Coggburn et al. 2010). The main rationale behind at-will employment was creating a more flexible, efficient and productive public workforce by exerting extreme managerial discretion over employment procedures. However, a burgeoning flow of academic interest questioned whether at-will employment realized what it promised, and criticism can be discerned in recent studies (e.g., Hays and Sowa 2006; Goodman and French 2011). In this flow of research, Battaglio's (2010) study stands out as the most relevant among the others that might help explain the role of occupation in predicting PSM that this study revealed. Battaglio (2010) demonstrates a positive relationship between negative connotations of at-will employment and pessimism about the motivating power of at-will employment reported by human resources professionals. When broadly interpreted, these findings indicate an inverse relationship between at-will employment and PSM.

In resemblance with at-will employment, district directors of foundations are hired and terminated within the widest managerial discretion a district governor might exert in Turkish administrative system. Only a proper decision of a board of trustees is required and in its current configuration, it is hardly possible to make a decision contrary to the will of a district governor as the president of board of trustees. Furthermore, the grievance and appeal procedures that public servants working in the traditional civil service system enjoy are not granted for foundation directors. In case of an issue of dispute, cases are heard in general labor courts since their work contracts are made under Turkish Labor Law No. 4857 of 2003, a general regulatory document for employment relations. They have no opportunity to apply for reassignment to a different province or district. On the other hand, one can regard district directors of civil registry

offices as almost flawless examples of public servants employed within traditional civil service system of Turkey under the immunity of Civil Servants Law No. 657 of 1965. Taken together, the crucial difference between the two occupational cohorts regarding employment status might have accounted for the impact of occupations on PSM. That is to say, contract-based employment without tenure and job security rights might be the reason why district directors of foundations are less likely to likely to have high PSM.

Overall, findings of this study regarding control variables supports Vandenabeele (2011) in his warning that any PSM research irrespective of whether PSM is a predictor or an outcome variable should control the effects of demographic features such as age and gender, due to the significant theory-based association demonstrated by relevant studies.

Antecedents of PSM in socio-historical context

Education level was reported as one of the most consistent positive predictors of PSM (Wilson 2000; Vandebeele), and numerous studies verified this overall trend (e.g., Naff and Crum 1999; Perry 1997; Bright 2005; Leisink and Stejin 2009; Perry et al. 2008; Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Vandenabeele 2011; DeHart-Davis, Marlow and Pandey 2006; Bright 2005; Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Pandey and Stazyk 2008; Bright 2005). However, none of the OLS regression analyses in this study rendered a statistically significant result for level of education nor did bivariate analysis. Furthermore, overall PSM, compassion, and commitment to public interest – showed a negative relationship with level of education contrary to the hypothesized direction, although the relationship was weak and non-significant –. The only statistically significant result regarding level of education was obtained from the relevant one-way ANOVA. High school graduates and higher formal education displayed a statistically significant difference

with respect to compassion. High school graduates had higher levels of COM. Taking these together, a non–significant weak negative relationship between level of education and PSM can be argued in the case of Turkish district directors. However, since the statistical analyses indicate that probability of observing such a relationship and direction simply due to chance is high, then an extreme cautiousness is necessary. Nevertheless, the negative direction seems to be in corroboration with Camilleri's (2007) findings.

The positive association between professional identification/professionalism and PSM demonstrated by this study is in accordance with the relevant literature in general (Perry 1997; Moynihan and Pandey 2007; DeHart-Davis, Marlow and Pandey 2006; Andersen 2007). Although the relationship reached statistical significance only in attraction to the policymaking dimension, an overall positive course was identifiable in other regression models predicting overall PSM, CPI, COM, and SS. Yet, compared to overall PSM and CPI, the magnitude of the effect was next to nothing for COM and SS.

A number of issues concerning the findings related to professionalism need clarification. While Perry's (1997) study showed a negative relationship between professionalism and APM, it was apparently positive in this study. Although DeHart-Davis, Marlow, and Pandey (2006) found similar results with this study, they did not put forward a specific explanation. Perry associated the negative link between professionalism and APM with the idea of professional state and alienation of professionals from politics introduced by Mosher's (1982) ground breaking study. This statement seems in corroboration with the most frequent criticism directed towards the 24-item original PSM scale of Perry (1996) in subsequent studies. Specifically, the APM dimension was problematic in that it measured distaste for politicians and political

processes, rather than attraction to policy making (Kim 2009a; 2009b; 2011; Brewer, Selden, and Facer 2000; Coursey and Pandey 2007; Coursey et al. 2008). Many scholars either excluded (e.g., Coursey et al. 2008) or revised (Kim 2009a; 2009b; 2011) APM accordingly. After having considered the findings of this study, which utilized a revised version of Perry's 24-item scale by Kim (2011), one can argue that Kim's revision worked. Turkish district directors were attracted to policy making. Indeed, distaste for politicians or political processes is conceptually different from distaste for politics per se. Bright (2005) propounds the view that likewise, education and professional socialization may cause greater awareness regarding public values. It is also reasonable to argue that this awareness might also extend to the political domain. Furthermore, in Turkey, professional organizations have always been at the heart of political debates. This prominence is such that the 135th article of Turkish Constitution is devoted to 'professional organizations deemed as public institutions'. A number of professional organizations such as Turkish Dental Association, Turkish Pharmacist's Associations, Union of Chambers of Turkish Engineers and Architects, the Union of Turkish Bar Associations are considered as public institutions due to their high publicness, and historically they have been important actors in the policymaking processes and not necessarily confined to their expertise (Berber 2009). Therefore, as well as in the U.S., "Professions historically have struck a bargain with society in which they espouse" in Turkey (Pandey and Stazyk 2008, 150). The positive relationship between professional identification and the APM facet of PSM revealed in this study seems in consort with the current state of the Turkish public administration. On the other hand, inconsequential and negligible associations of professional identification with COM and SS, which capture the affective component of PSM and "represent service as an emotional response to humankind"

(Wright 2008, 81), stands for Coursey et al. (2008). According to Coursey et al. (2008) professional identification/ professionalism might not empathize with compassion because developing an indifferent attitude to the clients/citizens is generally regarded as an absolute necessity. Significant negative correlation between professionalism and adversarial tension versus citizens can also be justified in terms of this relatively more apathetic tendency among professionals.

This study replicated and verified the findings of a number of scholars who examined the role of parental socialization into public values in cultivating PSM (Perry 1997; Perry et al. 2008; Vandenabeele 2011). Consistent with these previous studies, a remarkable positive association between parental socialization and PSM was found regarding overall PSM, APM, and SS dimensions. As Staub (1992) noted, socialization and relevant value transferring in families predominantly take place through parents. Parental role models and their way of handling ethical quandaries and their participation in voluntary activities would influence pro-social adjustments of children. In this regard, this study revealed that district directors with public servant parents were more attracted to others-oriented and pro-social motives concerning PSM. As Vandenabelee (2011) stated, at least a 'spillover effect towards children' emanating solely from working in the public service can be expected to develop awareness to the policy making processes and sensitization towards altruistic motives associated with PSM.

Findings concerning the concept of 'frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering" corroborates Giauque et al. (2011) and Vandenabeele et al.'s (2009) account of the context-contingent attributes of PSM. Yet, contingency in the case of WSAS was distinct from variations based on national cultures or public service ethos. While a positive trend was

identifiable in all models except APM, the study indicated that frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering had a statistically significant positive impact on the self-sacrifice dimension of PSM. Because this is the first attempt to operationalize the concept and there was no study that specifically examined WSAS, or a WSAS-like construct to use as a baseline, it is not possible to make a direct comparison with respect to the PSM literature. However, clearly this finding provides preliminary supporting evidence for Pattakos' (2004) surmise that whenever a public servant confronts "inescapable, unavoidable situations that are associated with suffering, the opportunity to actualize attitudinal values become a source of deep meaning" (Pattakos 2004, 110). According to Vollhardt (2009), pro-social behaviors and altruism for underprivileged members of the society are not confined to positive experiences and life events. That is, contrary to general expectation, negative experiences such as violence, adversity, and personal sufferings thereof might also enhance others-oriented motivation. Furthermore, the long history of altruism in North America teems with anecdotal evidence from a number of tragic catastrophic events that one's personal harm and suffering is not necessary for helping and self-sacrifice behaviors. Incidents such as the 1906 San Francisco earthquake, the Halifax explosion of 1917, the terrorist attacks on 9/11, and Hurricane Katrina in 2005 serve as examples (Solnit 2009). This study revealed that district directors working in the two relatively most deprived geographical regions of Turkey (eastern and southeastern Anatolia) where witnessing situations associated with suffering was most likely to occur had higher PSM. This finding seems congruent with relevant precedent remarks on attitudinal responses to 'suffering' issue.

Since the pertinent hypothesis was supported on self-sacrifice facet of PSM, further consideration might be needed due to the unique position of self-sacrifice. While the PSM

concept was being operationalized by Perry (1996), three dimensions, APM, CPI and COM, were considered to be in correspondence with three motivational bases: rational, norm-based, and affective. According to Camilleri (2007), self-sacrifice was added to model due to its close historical ties with the construct. However, Kim and Vandenabeele (2010) place greater emphasis on self-sacrifice and attribute a centrality to this dimension compared to others. This is because regardless of the type of the motives that are desired to be satisfied, either rational, norm based, or affective , people are expected to sacrifice their individual interests and render more commitment to the public service (Kim and Vandenabeele 2010). Considering this, one might argue that the positive relationship between WSAS and self-sacrifice that this study displayed becomes more noteworthy.

Antecedents of PSM in motivational context

While antecedents of PSM in socio-historical context are important factors that should not be overlooked in any PSM study, this study showed that motivational context has greater impact on PSM, and this finding seems in accordance with similar studies that examined antecedents of PSM (e.g., Perry 1997; Bright 2005; Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Camilleri 2007).

Camilleri (2007) assumed organizational tenure within socio-historical context. However, this study examined organizational tenure within motivational context because tenure years could make sense only in organizational settings. Organizational tenure in years did not have a significant effect on PSM in any of the models. Yet, in bivariate analysis, a significant correlation was found with respect to compassion dimension of PSM. That being said, the slope of non-significant relationship – contrary to the relevant hypothesis of the study – was positive

with respect to all dimensions and overall PSM. PSM literature presents mixed results for organizational tenure. Scholars found negative relationship with organizational tenure and PSM (e.g., Crewson 1997; Steijn 2006; Moynihan and Pandey 2007) in general. These scholars explained this negative relationship using a number of factors, such as frustrated service ethic, disappointments stemming from unmet expectations of rewards and promotions, or lack of efficient problem solving mechanisms for PSM related outcomes (Pandey and Stazyk 2008; Camilleri 2007; Moynihan and Pandey 2007). On the other hand, Camilleri's (2007) study revealed a positive relationship while some others (e.g., Naff and Crum 1999) remained silent, as did this study. Nevertheless, significant positive correlation with the compassion dimension of PSM, the significant difference with respect to COM among organizational tenure cohorts, revealed by ANOVA tests, and finally, overall positive direction of the non-significant relationship in other models, might allow us to consider that at least the idea of a positive direction of the non-significant relationship between TNR and PSM among Turkish district directors can be put forward.

The general characteristic of the sample might have accounted for this non-significant relationship. In spite of the variation among district directors with respect to organizational tenure, they were all in a similar rank – mid-level managerial positions – within their organizations (Bright 2005). There is empirical evidence that individuals working in managerial positions have distinct problems and admittedly different resources to deal with them (Demerouti et al. 2001). They are also more central to their organizations compared to those holding non-managerial positions (Vandenabeele 2011). Therefore, it is possible that variation in organizational tenures of district directors were suppressed by managerial positions they hold.

Job characteristics are one of the main components in the motivational context of process theory of PSM (Perry 2000) and this study confirmed their crucial role in predicting PSM, along with similar studies (e.g., Camilleri 2007;Wright 2008; U.S. Merit System Protection Board [MSPB] Report, 2012). The present study employed motivation potential level – a composite score consisted of five positive core job characteristics (i.e., skill variety, task identity, task significance and autonomy and feedback). Motivation potential level of jobs was drawn from job design research and Hackman and Oldham's (1975, 1980) job characteristics model. In all five OLS regression models, motivation potential level of jobs was the strongest predictor of PSM. Essentially, since the inception of PSM within a coherent framework by Perry and Wise (1990), the idea that certain job characteristics could harness distinct psychological states – associated with meaningfulness, responsibility, and awareness – and in turn could promote intrinsic motivation, was enunciated (Perry and Wise 1990; Perry 1996). More recently, some scholars reiterated the importance of job characteristics in explaining the differences regarding work motivation (Wright 2001; Camilleri 2007; Houston 2011). However, only Camilleri's (2007) and Camilleri and Van der Heijden's (2007) studies investigated the relationship between job characteristics and PSM in terms of motivation potential level. Findings of these studies are overall in agreement with this study in that both studies found a positive relationship between motivation potential of jobs and PSM.

The finding of this study regarding motivation potential level also provides support for Houston's (2011) argument that occupational focus, which is an understudied perspective in PSM research, matters, as well as occupational locus in understanding individual differences of PSM. The present study is not relevant to occupational locus – in other words 'where you do it'

(Andersen, Pallesen and Pedersen 2011) – due to the fact that sector of employment was the same for both groups of district directors. However, contrary to initial expectations of the author stemming from his personal experiences within the Turkish public sector, no significant differences were found between district directors of foundations and civil registry offices regarding the reported MPLs. Nevertheless, it was apparent from the results that, whatever the organization may be, district directors who perceive greater motivation potential in their jobs were more likely to have higher PSM. In fact, indifference of MPL between two occupational groups becomes much more comprehensible when both groups' holding managerial positions is considered. This might be due to the similar motivation potential levels individuals at higher ranks in the organizations possess (Buelens and Van den Broeck 2007).

The job characteristics that might affect PSM are, of course, not restricted to MPL and its five constituent job characteristics. Even though offering a different structural model in which contact with service recipients and the impact of job on these beneficiaries were central, Grant (2008) also found similar links between positive job characteristics and pro-social behavior. On the other hand, Houston (2011) separated public sector jobs and made a distinction between public service occupations and non-public service occupations. Associating jobs involving features crucial for human health, security, and welfare with the 'public service' jobs; he found that those working public service occupations were more attracted to obligation-based intrinsic motives. Crewson (1997) highlighted the sense of accomplishment derived from a job as having close relationship with intrinsic rewards. Briefly, strong impact of positive job characteristics on PSM in Turkish context that this study revealed seems in accordance with relevant literature.

The last, yet secondary finding concerning motivation potential level indicated a significant difference between those having public servant parents and those not having public servant parents. District directors with public servant parents reported higher levels of MPL. Despite the fact that this result might be seen as irrelevant on the face of it, when discussions about the role of parental socialization in inculcating a sense of awareness for PSM-related values recalled, it becomes more interesting. According to Paalberg and Lavigna (2010, 714), "job characteristics are not always objective but are created", that is to say, when individuals build their perceptions regarding significance and/or meaningfulness of their work they process the information received from their social surroundings including their families. Based on these premises, one might associate the higher MPLs district directors with public servant parents reported with distinct socialization patterns in these families and greater awareness about the meaning/value of their job thereof.

Drawing 'needs-testing social programs' from Houston's (2011) discussion on the PSM differences between national contexts, this study attempted to introduce two additional job characteristics that might affect PSM. Houston (2011) proposed that needs-testing social programs renders citizen a claimant role, and the public servant as an agent function that is supposed to check righteousness of these claims. Due to the so-called rival psychological patterns embedded in this relationship, Houston pointed at an adversarial tension between public servant and citizens. Consequently, this study hypothesized a negative relationship between frequency of these kinds of needs-testing tasks in work routine and PSM. In the same vein, a negative relationship was proposed between adversarial tension between citizen and the public servant and PSM. However, none of the statistical analyses provided support for these

presumptions. Furthermore, the analyses revealed FNTT as the most prominent 'anomalous' result of this study. Contrary to expectations, frequency of needs testing tasks in work routine proved to be a positive job characteristic, not a negative one. Since this was the first attempt to operationalize 'frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine' as a separate job characteristic, it is not possible to compare this seemingly anomalous finding directly with relevant studies. However, closer examination of FNTT revealed that it has strongly significant positive correlation with all five job characteristics in MPL measure (Appendix D). That being said, the magnitude of the correlation was markedly greater especially with skill variety and task significance. Besides, a significant positive correlation with adversarial tension was identified. However, it seems that even if a certain degree of tension can be associated with FNTT, positive aspects of the concepts resembling task significance and skill variety overrides it.

As for tension, none of the analyses yielded any significant meaningful findings. It seems that tension did not have any impact on PSM levels of district directors. This finding confirms Camilleri's (2007) study, which investigated effects of experiencing conflicts and ambiguity as job attributes. Camilleri (2007) found that while experienced ambiguity had negatively correlated with PSM, conflict did not have a significant effect. His account for this finding could also be justifiable for this study. District directors hold managerial positions and they might have seen the criticisms, lodgments, and complaints they experience as part of their jobs and ranks. It is also possible that they have built coping strategies against the adversarial tension they experience with citizens through their organizational tenure. Significant negative correlation between tension and organizational tenure found in bivariate analysis also seems to support this last explanation.

Two of the group comparisons in descriptive statistics sections based on FNTT and TNS showed that district directors of social assistance foundations experienced both adversarial tension and needs-testing tasks more frequently. . This finding is interesting when compared to MPL, which did not make any significant difference between occupational cohorts. Contrary to MPL components of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback, which describe general attributes of the work, frequency of needs testing tasks in work routine and adversarial tension versus citizens relatively represented more substantial and specific characteristics of the job, and that might be the reason why these two variables were able to sort out occupations.

The findings concerning the links between servant leadership and PSM revealed that perceived servant leadership behaviors of district governors had a significant and positive impact on PSM levels of district directors. In all OLS multiple regression models except the one predicting attraction to the policymaking dimension of PSM, servant leadership was the second important predictor of PSM following motivation potential level of jobs. Although a positive direction could be recognized, the relationship was trivial and non-significant for APM dimension. That is, servant leadership behaviors of district governors did not have a significant impact on their immediate subordinates', district directors', APM levels. On the other hand, while the positive association between SL and overall PSM was considerably strong, SL had the greatest explanatory strength in self-sacrifice and compassion dimensions, respectively.

Overall, the findings seem to give credit to servant leadership within the public sector. To the author's knowledge, this is the first study that investigated servant leadership as an antecedent of public service motivation. Therefore, it is hardly possible to find a relevant

baseline neither in servant leadership nor in PSM literatures. However, these preliminary findings provide a number of interesting links and convergences between the premises of two concepts.

As mentioned above, servant leadership strongly predicted the self-sacrifice dimension of PSM. This dimension alludes to sacrificing personal gains and private interests for the sake of a greater whole (Kim 2011). However, it is noteworthy that the perception of the 'whole' in the self-sacrifice dimension exceeds narrowly defined groups such as families, neighborhoods, communes, or professional groups, and addresses society or human-being in a general sense (Rainey and Steinbauer 1999). In similar line with PSM, altruism, self-sacrifice, and duty-based social responsibility are among the most replicated characteristics attributed to servant leaders (Dennis, Kinzler-Norheim and Bocarnea 2010; Van Dierendonck 2011; Barbuto and Wheeler 2006; Parolini 2009). This is also closely related to one of the most distinguishing characteristics of servant leadership, its follower-centric approach, and of course, this seems essentially at odds with egocentric, personal charisma based leadership styles. Therefore, one can expect from the findings of this study that, others-oriented, follower-focused, and societally responsible attitude and behaviors of servant leaders did have a positive impact on their subordinates' self-sacrifice based PSM levels. At this point, remembering those scholars who point at the calling nature of public service with a strong desire to make positive contributions to the lives of others can help in clarifying this (Perry and Wise 1990: Pattakos 2004; Horton 2008). Additionally, this result and consequential convergence between altruistic leaders and altruistic followers allows us to reconsider the unique success test of servant leadership. According to Greenleaf (1977, 13), "success is when those who are served become healthier, freer, more autonomous, and wiser, and

as a result, become servants themselves." Since servant leadership of district directors was not investigated within the research design of this study, it is not possible to verify the success of servant leaders with confidence. However, findings are encouraging enough to take this reflective success test into consideration.

Like self-sacrifice, this study also found that district directors who experience servant leadership behaviors to a greater extent were more likely to have higher levels of compassion and commitment to public interest. When relevant servant leadership characteristics are considered, these findings seem more comprehensible. For example, a servant leader who walks the walk and acts in a stewardship ideal might be expected to initiate and foster his/her followers' commitment to public interest. In a similar vein, an authentic servant leader who is touched by the things happening around him/her might be expected to instil a sense of compassion to his/her followers.

No significant relationship was found between SL and attraction to policymaking dimension of PSM and interestingly, this finding seems in accordance with the theoretical premises of both constructs. By definition, attraction to policy making represents the rational base of the PSM construct and therefore accommodates psychological processes involving individual utility maximization (Perry and Wise 1990; Perry 1997; Perry 2000). On the other hand, servant leadership theory apparently precludes self-interest and rejects any kind of instrumentalization between motivation to serve and those who are served (Greenleaf 1977; Patterson 2003).

Several servant leadership scholars underscored the possible impact of servant leadership on work motivation. Van Dierendonck (2011) highlighted the empowerment dimension of SL

and proposed that conscious delegation of authority could promulgate intrinsic motivation, which has close links with PSM. In the similar line with Van Dierendonck (2011), Laub (1999) emphasized the crucial role of intrinsic motivation for obtaining results beyond expectancies and argued that servant leaders could achieve this by enabling and supporting their followers rather than controlling them. However, empirical studies in servant leadership research are in very nascent stages and, aside from PSM, very few have been investigated in order to test the above presumptions regarding work motivation. Among these few studies, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) found a positive relationship between servant leadership and motivation to devote extra effort. Hu and Liden's (2011) study examined teams rather than individuals and displayed the role of servant leadership on goal clarity and process clarity, which are associated with team level work motivation. Nevertheless, this study, alongside the others, provides substantial support for expected positive relationship between SL and motivation in general.

Regarding PSM literature, it would not be wrong to say that the role of leadership in shaping PSM emerges as another understudied research area as well. Few studies explored leadership within the PSM context (Zeffane 1994; Camileri 2007; Camilleri and Van der Heijden 2007; Vandenabeele 2007b; Paalberg and Laavigna 2010; Wright Moynihan and Pandey 2012). Zeffane (1994) compared public and private sector employees and found public employees responding more positively to people-oriented leadership than their counterparts in business sector. His findings seem in accordance with this study because servant leadership has been defined as having a distinct people orientation, alongside transformational leadership (Stone, Russel and Patterson 2004; Hannay 2009) and emerged in this study as a favorable leadership style among the Turkish mid-level managers in the public sector. Camilleri (2007) and Camilleri

and Van der Heijden (2007) investigated the effect of positive leader-employee relations on PSM and confirmed a positive relationship between them. These two studies are important with respect to the findings of this study because they specifically investigated a prominent aspect of servant leadership. According to Van Dierendonck and Rookin (2010), empowering, encouraging, and developmental behaviors of servant leaders are likely to result in high quality leader-member exchange relationship. Therefore, these two studies' findings seem to be coherent with the results of the present study that confirmed a positive link between SL and PSM.

Three more studies of which content could be associated with the present study are related to transformational leadership research. As discussed in the previous chapters, servant leaders and transformational leaders fundamentally diverge in their 'motivation to lead', and for servant leaders, leadership could barely be a conscious choice in order to serve (Stone, Russel, and Patterson 2004). However, there are also large overlaps between the two approaches. Particularly, the revised version of transformational leadership, which portrays a more value-laden understanding compared to previous so called value-neutral version, have much more commonalities with servant leadership. For example, Paalberg and Lavigna (2010), overwhelmingly resting on this latter value-based interpretation, exhibit theoretical convergences between transformational leadership and PSM and offer managerial strategies like value alignment and setting clear goals. Wright, Mondihan, and Pandey (2012) relate PSM to a mediating role between transformational leadership and mission valence. Vandeabeele (2007b) verifies the positive relationship between transformational leadership and PSM and furthermore, draws attention to a group of psychological states such as autonomy and security as having moderator effects over this relationship. Overall, these three studies conform to this study in their

findings, which revealed a positive relationship between a value-laden leadership perspective and PSM.

The last finding to be discussed in this section relates to the difference between district directors of social assistance and solidarity foundations in their reporting of servant leadership. This study revealed that directors of foundations reported higher levels of servant leadership compared to directors of civil registry offices. One possible explanation of this result might be relevant to the 'structural distance' concept. Structural distance has three implications in leadership literature. It might be regarded as physical distance between leader and follower, or hierarchical level span, or frequency of interaction between them (Antonakis and Atwater 2002). Shamir (1995) suggested that two different consequences could be expected regarding effect of structural distance on leadership perceptions of followers. According to Shamir (1995), structural distance promotes attributional charisma of leaders, while proximity and closeness enhances relational charisma. In the same vein, Shamir (1995) suggests that closeness between leader and follower allows leaders to focus on individualized consideration and sensitivity to the needs of their subordinates. It is apparent that servant leadership inhibits attribuitonal charisma due to its negative connotations of coercion and power. Admittedly, when servant leadership is considered with respect to structural distance, one could expect that relational charisma and proximity would be a better fit for servant leaders. There is no difference between directors of foundations and civil registry offices regarding the first two implications of structural distance. They share the same government office, often the same floor, and both are immediate subordinates of district governors. The only difference seems to be in the frequency of interactions with leaders. District governors are in presidency positions in foundations and possess immediate responsibility to

manage a great deal of monetary resources and distributive/redistributive tasks. That being said, civil registry offices are generally well-settled district level organizations and district governors' routine duties are pertinent to general supervision of the organization. Findings concerning the differences between the two occupational groups, regarding frequency of needs-testing tasks and adversarial tension encountered in daily routine, also provide support for the above explanations. In sum, directors of foundations have much more interaction with their immediate supervisors, the district governors. Since SL is a relational leadership style requiring very intense follower orientation, one could expect that servant leadership of district governors was reported to a greater extent by directors of foundations, who experience it more frequently.

Interaction between socio-historical and motivational contexts

In the previous two sections, a number of antecedents as predictors of public service motivation in socio-historical and motivational contexts were widely discussed. Moreover, this study proposed an interaction relationship involving both socio-historical and motivational contexts. Namely, results of pertinent moderation analysis revealed that frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering positively moderated the strength of the relationship between servant leadership and PSM. In other words, servant leadership had greater impact on PSM in deprived regions where WSAS were more likely to take place.

Situational moderators of leadership is a very broad area of research that is beyond the scope of this study and factors that might affect the strength of the relationship between leadership and the related outcome are numerous, with a wide range (Bass and Bass 2009). The present study reflects a prospect to be a first attempt in examining servant leadership and PSM. Furthermore, "WSAS" is also a new concept adapted from Perry's (2000), Perry et al.'s (2008)

and Pattakos' (2004) studies and does not have immediate equivalents in the literature.
Therefore, it is difficult to relate this finding to previous studies directly. Nevertheless, Osborn,
Hunt, and Lawrence (2002) offer a viable framework to assess the interaction between SL and
WSAS. They offer a 4-level contextual continuum ranging from 'stability' to 'edge of chaos' and
show proper hierarchical relationships and relevant leadership focus regarding subordinates in
each context. The crucial point for the purpose of this study is that when moving from 'stability'
towards 'edge of chaos' through 'crisis' and 'dynamic equilibrium', the distinction between the
leader and the context weakens. That indicates a less directive and more relational leadership
perspective, such as listening and paying closer attention to the needs and concerns of the
subordinates, compared to stability conditions (Wallace 2007). In terms of the findings of this
study, one could infer from the above framework that when moved from non-deprived regions to
deprived regions, mutual dependence between district governors and district directors increases.
Formal hierarchy and protocol rules fade, and district directors respond more favorably to
servant leadership behaviors of district governors, which are grounded in humility, authenticity,
healing, listening, stewardship, and concern for the underprivileged (Spears, 1995; Laub 1999;
Van Dierendonck 2011). Consequently, the interaction between servant leadership and
experienced hardships, alongside observed sufferings of others, might have had a greater impact
on pro-social and altruistic motives of district directors in this study.

Contributions and policy implications

The present study contributes to the field of public administration in general, to the
Turkish public administration, and to PSM and servant leadership literatures in a number of
ways.

First, antecedent factors of PSM are relatively an understudied research area and this study makes an important contribution to PSM research by replicating the pertinent previous studies in a barely touched national context. Besides replication, the study also attempted to operationalize two additional antecedents. Although being in preliminary forms, the study introduced 'frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine' in motivational context and 'frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering' in socio-historical context. In doing so, the study responded to calls for nuancing PSM research (e.g., Wright 2008 Perry, Hondeghem, and Wise 2010, 687; Houston 2011).

One contribution to PSM literature is that findings affirmed significant impact of a number of socio-demographic factors and institutions, such as age, gender, having public servant parents, and membership in professional organizations on PSM in a non- western cultural setting. Therefore, any study examining PSM should control these characteristics notwithstanding the national context. The study also highlights the significance of job characteristics in work motivation research in general, and contributes to public administration by showing that although employment sector, or as Houston (2011) calls 'occupational locus', could still matter but 'what you do' (Andersen, Pallesen and Pedersen 2011), or, 'occupational focus', could better explain PSM. In accordance with this argument, perception of positive job characteristics was the strongest predictor of PSM among the others in this study.

The design of the study is not relevant to the discussion of occupational locus in the sense of employment sector. Nonetheless, findings reflected significant difference between PSMs of two groups of district directors in the public sector after having controlled 13 organizational and demographic factors. As discussed previously, the main distinction between the two groups of

public servants seems to be their employment status. That is, directors of foundations with their at-will employment-like, contract-based employment statuses had lower levels of PSM. This finding also provides valuable insight for the discussions related to possible erosive effects of at-will employment on public employee motivation (Battaglio 2010).

There is a dearth of studies examining discrete leadership styles in their antecedent role on public service motivation. The few extant studies (i.e., Wright, Moynihan and Pandey 2012; Park and Rainey 2008) focused only on transformational leadership. This study uniquely identifies servant leadership as an antecedent to public service motivation research and therefore helps fill an important gap mentioned above. To the authors' knowledge, no previous study has examined the relationship between servant leadership and PSM.

The study affirmed the main positive effect of 'frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering' (WSAS) on PSM. While this finding is important, since the concept was introduced and operationalized for the purpose of this study, another finding, the positive moderator effect of WSAS between SL and PSM, emerged as a noteworthy example of interaction effect occurring between socio-historical and motivational contexts in predicting PSM. Although there are many PSM studies that investigated the role of moderators and mediators, most of them employed PSM as independent variable and sought interaction between PSM and a number of outcome variables (e.g., Liu and Tang 2011; Bright 2007;Vandenabeele 2009; Wright 2007). In this respect, this study contributes to PSM literature, particularly to the subfield of antecedents of PSM, by uncovering an interaction between socio-historical and motivational contexts.

As for servant leadership literature, the study contributes to the field by exploring it exclusively in the public sector because the overwhelming majority of studies in the servant leadership literature are conducted in business and educational settings (Van Dierendonck 2011; Parris and Peachey 2013). According to Parris and Peachey (2013), most of the SL studies have either a U.S. or an Asia-Pacific origin and there is lack of empirical studies aimed at investigating SL in the rest of the world. The study fills the gap by investigating SL in a unique national context, having the characteristics of two great civilizations of East and West.

Public service motivation, its antecedents, and servant leadership are all barely-examined research areas for the Turkish public administration research. This study encountered only one study concerning PSM (Tasdoven and Kapucu 2013), and only two studies for servant leadership (Cerit 2010; Öner 2012) in the Turkish context. Tasdoven and Kapucu (2013) used only two dimensions of civic duty and self-sacrifice from the original 24-item PSM scale of Perry (1996). Namely, the 4-dimensional structure of PSM on which there is an overall agreement among PSM scholars (Perry 1996; Kim 2009, 2001; Kim et al. 2013) is still a research gap to be addressed in Turkey, and this study makes a significant contribution to the Turkish public administration field by filling this gap. As for servant leadership, administration of a comprehensive servant leadership instrument is also another unique aspect of this study.

The last contribution to be mentioned here involves overall focus of the Turkish public administration research. As Onder and Brower (2013) very well documented, prominent research themes in the Turkish public administration research trails the U.S. While Turkish scholars are more attracted by themes in consort with new public management, scholars from the U.S. and other western countries place emphasis on concepts such as 'governance', 'public values' and

'ethics'. Admittedly, every national context has its own priorities, tensions, opportunities and drawbacks. Nevertheless, this study is also expected to contribute to the Turkish public administration field at least by informing it about these two 'values' based locus of research interest: Public service motivation and servant leadership.

A number of policy implications could be associated with the findings of this study. First, this study revealed that two groups of middle managers in Turkish public sector have high levels of PSM. Since the inception, PSM has been associated with job seeking in the public sector, higher levels of individual performance, and higher propensity to be dependent on non-utilitarian incentives (Perry and Wise 1990). While propositions regarding sector and reward preferences have received substantial support from empirical studies, the findings regarding performance are mixed, and the issue of performance is still an ongoing debate among scholars (Perry, Hondeghem, and Wise 2010). In sum, it would not be wrong to argue that any public personnel reform initiative in countries like Turkey, having a well-settled traditional civil service system, should consider PSM. This consideration should include almost all aspects of public human resource management functions ranging from recruiting and retaining talented workforce to pay and incentive systems. Indeed, PSM might provide strong insights to recruit and select a workforce of good quality and individuals having motivation to serve for the public good.

A number of studies found empirical evidence against the efficiency of business-like employment implementations initiated under the influence of new public management (Oh and Lewis 2009; Perry , Engbers and Jun 2010; Battaglio 2010). However, in Turkey, as exemplified in the first chapter, politicians' prospects regarding imminent civil service reforms seem in accordance with the overall research interest to NPM. Yet, this study showed that in the case of

two groups of district directors, public servants revealed having strong altruistic and others-oriented motives, which might be at odds with the central tenets of NPM. Besides, both groups of district directors are top managers of their own departments. When the central tenet of upper echelons theory, which describes organizations as reflections of their top management, accepted (Hambrick 2007), there seems no compelling reason to reject, a priori, that PSM could be a prevalent phenomenon across other levels organizations as well. Thus, findings of this study could be an appropriate alternative point of view for those who are supposed to manage ongoing and prospective reform processes.

Once the potential of PSM is recognized, a number of administrative strategies and policy implementations could be conceptualized based on the findings of this study. This is because PSM is found to be a dynamic attribute that might change across the levels of public organizations and over the course of individuals' organizational tenure (Moynihan and Pandey 2007, Jacobson 2011; Pandey and Stazyk 2008; Brewer and Selden 1998). The most important implication of this dynamic quality is that it might be cultivated, stimulated, and enhanced through appropriate organizational policies, human resource management practices, and efficient leadership.

The positive link between professional identification and PSM should encourage policy makers in the Turkish context to remove existing barriers and promote professional organizations among public servants. These organizations could play a repository role for PSM-related values and professional ethics.

The role of parental socialization emerged as an important factor in inculcating PSM within the family. It would be difficult to argue that some sort of privileges should be provided

for those who have public servant parents when entering the public sector. However, as discussed in the literature, PSM is not a government monopoly and government is not the only option to satisfy the need for serving the public (Steen 2008). Non-profit organizations, and even the corporate world, develop their own institutions and mechanisms to respond to altruistic needs. Therefore, the positive role of public servant parents in instilling PSM values to their children can be can be evaluated in the general context of building better societies that are more sensitive to others-oriented motives. Some scholars found that public employees are more likely to be motivated by work-family balance when entering and remaining in the public sector (e.g., Buelens and Van den Broeck 2007). That is, provision of educational assistance programs for the families of public servants and/or developing social policies that could support work-family balance in the public sector might be considered to enhance parental socialization into PSM values.

In this study, findings related to age was the only inconsistent predictor across PSM dimensions. Nevertheless, the significant negative relationship between age and APM, and the positive relationship with SS, alongside positive tendency in other dimensions, imply a general positive relationship between age and affective/ duty-based facets of PSM. When taken together with the findings concerning tenure, which indicates a general positive non-significant link with PSM, one could infer that seniority and long organizational tenure are positively and closely related to affective and duty based PSM. In this sense, introducing formal mentoring programs within public organizations and /or creating opportunities for informal mentoring might induce value transferring from senior and more experienced age and tenure cohorts toward younger ones (Chao et al. 1992).

The study proved job characteristics a very strong predictor of PSM. District directors who reported higher skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback had higher PSM. Nevertheless, as Paarlberg, Perry and Hondeghem (2008) remark, not all public sector jobs inherently possess these positive job characteristics. In that case, 'job design' appears as an essential human resource management function. Setting goals, determining tasks, allocating resources, and designing jobs as a whole so as to maximize these characteristics fosters motivation of public employees (Hackman and Oldham 1975, 1980). Moreover, Grant (2007) posits that linking jobs to relational characteristics, such as perceived impact on beneficiaries and contact with beneficiaries, can stimulate pro-social motives. Therefore, efficient use of 'job design' is another policy implication that this study might suggest.

While discussing job characteristics, Paalberg and Lavigna (2010) provide a very interesting standpoint with reference to "social information theory' (Salancik and Pfeffer 1978). They posit that job characteristics can be perceptional as well as being objective; that is to say they might be created. The value and significance attributed to a certain task can also be a function of the information gathered from social context. At this point, leadership comes to the fore because leaders can shape perceptions regarding job characteristics.

Servant leadership in this study was assumed as an aggregate construct consisting of empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, and humility, and stewardship dimensions. This study provides promising preliminary results with respect to 'servant leadership in the public sector'. Findings revealed that servant leadership within the above composition has a positive relationship with PSM. The first implication of this result is that servant leadership as a value-laden, non-directive, empowering leadership style, with its

distinct focus on followers, can make a significant impact on PSM. This finding seems interesting in the instance of Turkish public administration because of the high power-distance associated with Turkish culture in a number of studies (e.g., House et al. 2004; Peretz and Fried 2012).

In this study, district directors reported their district governors' servant leadership behaviors. As mentioned in the first chapters, despite the dramatic changes in the last two decades, district governors are still holding crucial positions in the peripheral organization of central government. In the light of relevant findings, it is suggested that during their 3-year extensive training program (Ministry of Internal Affairs 2011a) servant leadership is introduced to district governors-in-training, alongside in-service training programs aiming at district governors. Positive moderating effect of deprived regions on the strength of the relationship between servant leadership and PSM can be translated into managerial language such as: Particularly within deprived regions, directive, controlling and authoritarian leadership styles may not be as efficient as an empowering, relational, and follower-oriented approach in cultivating and enhancing PSM among subordinates.

Limitations

Like almost all studies, this study has a number of limitations concerning methodology, research design, and measurement. The present study is a typical example of cross-sectional and correlational studies and the most important limitation of this kind of studies is that extreme cautiousness is necessary when making causal claims (Trochim and Donnelly 2007).

Survey designs also have some inherent challenges. Among them, social desirability effect is one of the most common threats to the validity of the findings (Nederhof 1985).

Particularly high negative skewness and kurtosis values in the distribution of PSM scores might be the consequence of social desirability bias, to some extent. In addition, the study relied on self-reported data gathered from district directors only. Therefore, the threat of mono-source bias, which could confound findings, should also be taken into consideration when evaluating the results (Podsakoff and Organ 1986).

The researcher made an effort to ensure maximum variation when developing purposive sampling strategy of the research (Palys 2008). Furthermore, the researcher implemented a number of strategies ranging from sending follow-ups to asking personal contacts, and the response rate, 32%, might be regarded as an acceptable one for web-based surveys (Nulty 2008). However, possible coverage problems and non-response bias is still an important threat for web-based surveys since perceptions of those who did not respond could be different from those who participated in the survey. For an extreme example, responding to the survey per se might be another manifestation of public service motivation and that might result in underrepresentation of district directors with lower PSM. In a nutshell, these challenges should be considered while assessing external validity of the findings.

Several measurement challenges can be associated with the findings. The study employed two separate single-item measures to test 'frequency of needs testing task in work routine' and 'adversarial tension between public servant and citizens'. However, neither validity nor, at least, test-retest reliability of these single item measures were assessed. It is possible that the anomalous finding with respect to FNTT was because of this problem. Moreover, although a back translation procedure was applied, translation might still have been a challenge for the other

measurement instruments of which reliability and validity were previously assessed and verified within various studies.

The hypothesis proposing a positive relationship between 'frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering', despite a low presumption against null hypothesis, was supported in this study. Deprivation levels among geographical regions were used as proxy of WSAS. As mentioned in chapter three, the researcher used distribution of 1st and 6th class districts among regions as an indicator of deprivation. At first sight, this strategy seems to be a tedious way rather than asking respondents the class of the district they work directly. Yet district classes were drawn from a statutory document pertinent to assignment and reassignment of district governors and therefore could only make sense to district governors. Besides, since anonymity was an important concern the researcher avoided asking district directors which district they were working in. That is, although an overall deprivation level can be attributed to the regions, it is still less than an accurate measure of contrasts between districts in this respect. One could expect that once that accuracy was ensured, findings might yield strong presumptions against relevant null hypothesis.

Another limitation is that the study lacked the third block of the process theory of PSM (Perry 2000), which is related to individual characteristics. Since the inception of PSM, antecedent variables in this block were examined less than the ones in the other two contexts. Traditionally, political ideology has been considered in this group of antecedents (e.g., Perry 1997; Vandenabeele 2011). For example, Perry's (1997) study found a positive relationship between liberalism and PSM, contrary to conservatism. In a similar vein, Vandenabeele's (2011) study showed that proponents of left wing parties had higher PSM compared to right wing

parties' voters. The present study was intended to be an introductory investigation of PSM in the Turkish context, and of course, elucidating the role of political affiliations in predicting PSM could bring up a better research design. Unfortunately this was not possible due to the restrictions imposed by current civil service law, which bans public servants from declaring their political ideologies and religious views. Besides legal barriers, most district directors could refrain from answering questions regarding political affiliation and religion because the overall bureaucratic culture in Turkey seems to agree with those legal restrictions.

The last challenge to be mentioned in this section relates to units of analysis. The study examined PSM of district directors holding middle manager positions in the district governorship organizations. A number of studies indicated the vantage point managerial positions might have regarding PSM (Crewson 1997; Bright 2005; Camilleri 2007). These studies generally argued that managerial positions tend to be filled by individuals who were able to satisfy their lower levels of needs in Maslowian perspective. In addition, managers were reported to be more likely to experience long organizational socialization processes. Finally, their vantage points could allow them to see the whole-picture meaning of the work (Bright 2005). Therefore, although managers' motivations are very important in the context of upper echelons theory, it should be noted that different dynamics, conditions, and mechanisms can shape PSM of non-managerial positions.

Recommendations for future research

Based on above limitations and implications of the findings, future research can further our understanding of PSM in a number of ways. First, addressing experimental designs and longitudinal studies vis-à-vis the problematic nature of cross sectional correlational studies

regarding causality is a very common and readily made recommendation in these types of studies. Indeed, experimental designs are difficult, and costly, and time constraints are extremely deterrent (Singleton and Strait 2010). However, when very cleverly designed experimental research such as Brewer and Brewer's (2012) study is considered, one can be more optimistic about expecting greater number of future PSM research studies within experimental designs.

Second, alleviating confounding effects of social desirability bias by incorporating one of the extant social desirability scales to the survey and thus, controlling impact of it, might yield more robust findings for future PSM research (Nederhof 1985). In addition, while mono-source bias was a threat for this study, future research examining the relationship between servant leadership and PSM can relieve this concern via different methodological variations. For example, future researchers could include supervisors in their research design and ask their perceptions about their own servant leadership. Thus, subsequent comparison between self-reported servant leadership behaviors of supervisors and self-reported PSM of subordinates might help researchers make more confident inferences regarding about observed relationships.

In this study, both servant leadership and motivation potential of jobs were analyzed within their composite forms. Collapsing these composite scales down into their dimensions and examining them with respect to their relationship with PSM would extend and elaborate the findings of this study. Furthermore, after having regarded the results concerning the role of 'needs testing tasks' and 'adversarial tension', operationalizing these constructs via reliable scales – consisting of multiple questions rather than single item measures – might seem a plausible alternative for future researchers.

The multivariate analyses revealed that occupation was still a statistically significant predictor of PSM, even after controlling the effects of 13 different variables. Among these controlled variables, the most remarkable three were related to job characteristic. That is, observed difference between PSM levels of district directors of social assistance and solidarity foundations and civil registry offices could not explained by demographic characteristics, experienced leadership, or their job, per se. There seems to be one important distinction remaining between these two occupational groups that might cause lower levels of PSM among district directors of foundations, which is their employment status reminiscent of at-will employment in U.S. Future research should not miss the opportunity to investigate the impact of an at-will- like employment status on PSM in a country at nascent stages of civil service reform, and extend the results to the U.S. context where efficiency of at-will employment is rigorously being discussed.

As presented in the limitations section, 'frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering' and its proxy in this study, 'level of deprivation' is widely open to further clarifications and refinements. New and more accurate measures of deprivations, hardships, and ordeals could reflect less blurry findings in future research. In addition, replication of these findings with a large non-managerial sample is strongly recommended for both PSM and servant leadership domains.

This study demonstrated incidence of PSM in the Turkish public administration context. If subsequent study designs employ PSM as an independent variable and investigate its relationship with organizational outcomes and measures of performance that would be a substantial extension to this study.

Conclusion

The present study intended to explore antecedents of public service motivation in the Turkish public administration context. The main assumption of the study was that while PSM was a multidimensional construct referring to individual tendencies to react positively to the rational, norm-based, and affective motives of public service, it was also a dynamic phenomenon varying across a great number of contingencies within socio-historical and motivational contexts and individual characteristics (Perry and Wise 1990, Perry 2000). The study specifically examined possible PSM antecedents from the first two contexts. With respect to the socio-historical context, parental socialization, professional identification, level of education, and frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering were included. Motivational context variables encompassed motivation potential levels of jobs, frequency of needs-testing tasks in work routine and adversarial tension between public servants and citizens. In addition, servant leadership was incorporated into the model as another antecedent of PSM in the motivational context. The last inquiry of the study was the moderating effect of frequency of witnessing situations associated with suffering on the relationship between SL and PSM.

In order to address research questions, the study employed a cross-sectional research design based on quantitative techniques and survey methodology. Data was collected via a web-based questionnaire distributed to district directors of social assistance and solidarity foundations and civil registry offices employing a purposive sampling strategy. The final dataset consisted of 315 responses gathered from that sample.

Findings obtained from inferential statistical techniques confirmed significant positive relationships of parental socialization, professional identification, and frequency of witnessing

situations associated with suffering to PSM. With respect to PSM, motivational context variables had greater explanatory power than those in socio-historical context. Motivation potential level and servant leadership proved strong positive predictors of public service motivation. Another component of motivational context, 'frequency of needs-tests tasks in work routine', unexpectedly emerged as a significant antecedent of PSM. Moreover, the hypothesis set forth regarding the positive moderating effect of WSAS on the relationship between servant leadership and PSM was given support by relevant findings. This finding boded well for possible interactions between socio-historical and motivational contexts. Lastly, findings indicated that two control variables, age and gender and occupation, emerged as having significant implications for PSM. Besides, findings did not yield supportive results for other hypotheses.

The present study contributes to PSM, servant leadership, and public administration literature from several aspects. Practical considerations and policy implications were discussed. Finally, recommendations for future research were made in reference to limitations and findings of the study.

APPENDIX A

PERMISSION FOR PERRY'S 2000 ARTICLE

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APPENDIX B

PERMISSION FOR VAN DIERENDONCK & NUIJTEN'S 2011 ARTICLE

APPENDIX C

PERMISSION FOR KIM'S 2011 ARTICLE

APPENDIX D

CORRELATION TABLE: JOB CHARACTERISTICS

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Correlation Table : Job Characteristics								
1	**MPL**	1							
2	**Skill Var.**	.411**	1						
3	**Task Id.**	.383**	.525**	1					
4	**Task Sign**	.428**	.506**	.460**	1				
5	**Autonomy**	.838**	.150**	.135*	.148**	1			
6	**Feedback**	.667**	.307**	.230**	.363**	.306**	1		
7	**FNTT**	.254**	.311**	.186**	.275**	.152**	.178**	1	
8	**TNS**	.037	.012	.060	-.040	-.011	-.017	.170**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level, * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

APPENDIX E

SKEWNESS AND KURTOSIS VALUES OF VARIABLES

Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis
Motivation Potential of Jobs	.584	.094
Skill Variety	-1.211	3.111
Task Identity	-1.085	2.195
Task Significance	-1.166	2.919
Autonomy	-.212	-1.055
Feedback	-.926	.893
Needs-Testing tasks in work routine	-.338	-1.078
Tension between public servant and citizen	.435	.331
Public Service Motivation	-2.308	9.816
APM	-1.934	6.164
CPI	-2.197	7.739
COM	-.894	1.668
SS	-1.500	4.941
Public Service Motivation (R &Log)	-.797	1.133
APM (R &Log)	-.148	-.603
CPI (R &Log)	.270	-.892
SS (R &Log)	-.443	-.497
Servant Leadership	-.885	1.629
Empowerment	-.626	.082
Standing Back	-.356	.329
Accountability	-1.074	3.095
Forgiveness	-.404	.336
Courage	-.159	-.007
Authenticity	-.703	.929
Humility	-.664	1.589
Stewardship	-1.042	2.901

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APPENDIX F

IRB APPROVAL

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT DALLAS

Office of Research Compliance

800 W Campbell Road   AD15   Richardson Texas   75080-3021
972-883-4558 Fax 972-883-2310

Date:	21 February 2014
To:	Salih Gelgec Randy P. Battaglio, Ph.D. Economic, Political and Policy Science
From:	Sanaz Okhovat Senior Director, Office of Research Compliance Office of Research
Re:	MR 14-031 Servant Leadership and Public Service Motivation

This letter is notification of Minimal Review Approval of research project listed above. This submission meets the criteria for exemption #2 of Chapter 45 Code of Federal Regulations Part 46.101(b). IRB approval of this research begins as of **21 February 2014** and ends on **20 February 2015.**

The IRB requires all those who have access to research data be trained in research ethics and practices concerned with the protection of the welfare and rights of research participants. These ethical principles are outlined in the Belmont Report.

Investigators and key personnel involved with this protocol must have documented training with this office. The training can be found at http://www.utdallas.edu/research/orc/irb/required_training/

If you have any questions related to this approval, you may contact me by phone at 972-883-4579 or by email at sanaz.okhovat@utdallas.edu.

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APPENDIX G

SCATTER PLOTS

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: PSM reflected & log transformed

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Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: APM reflected & log transformed

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: CPI reflected & log transformed

Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: Compassion

Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: SS reflected & log transformed
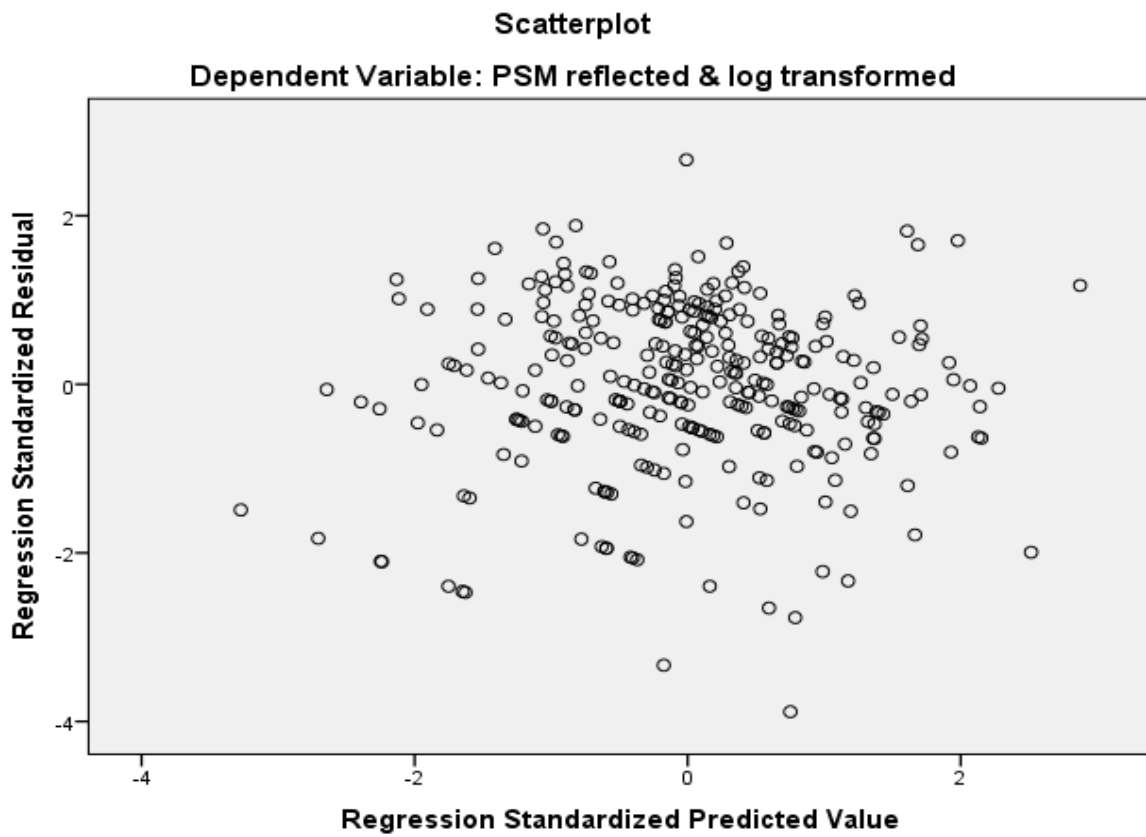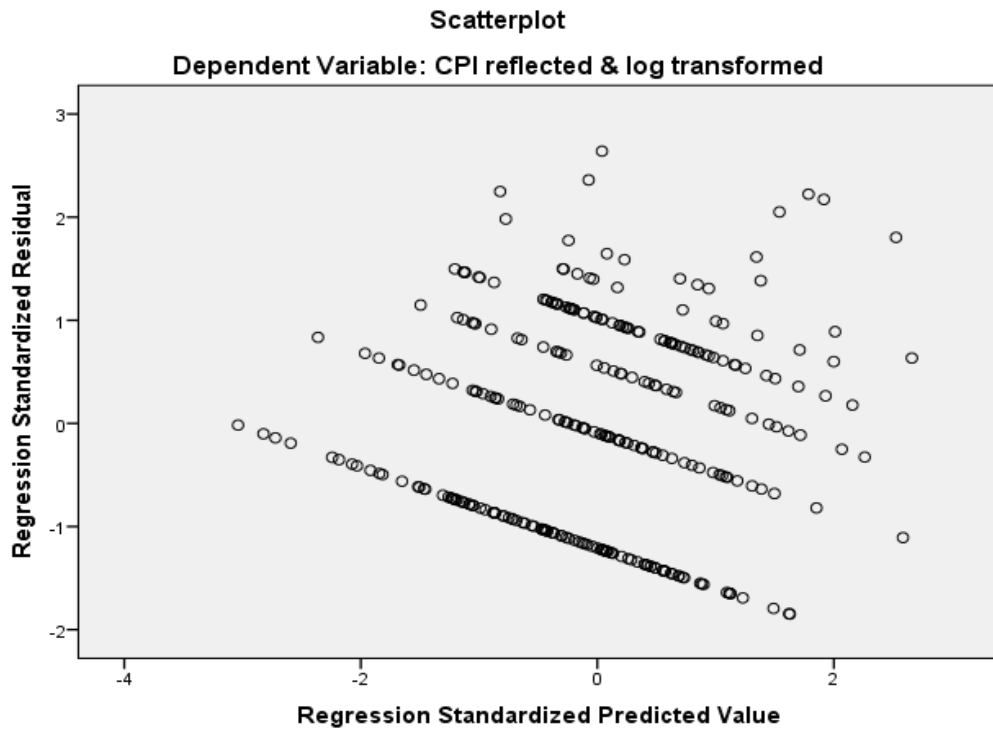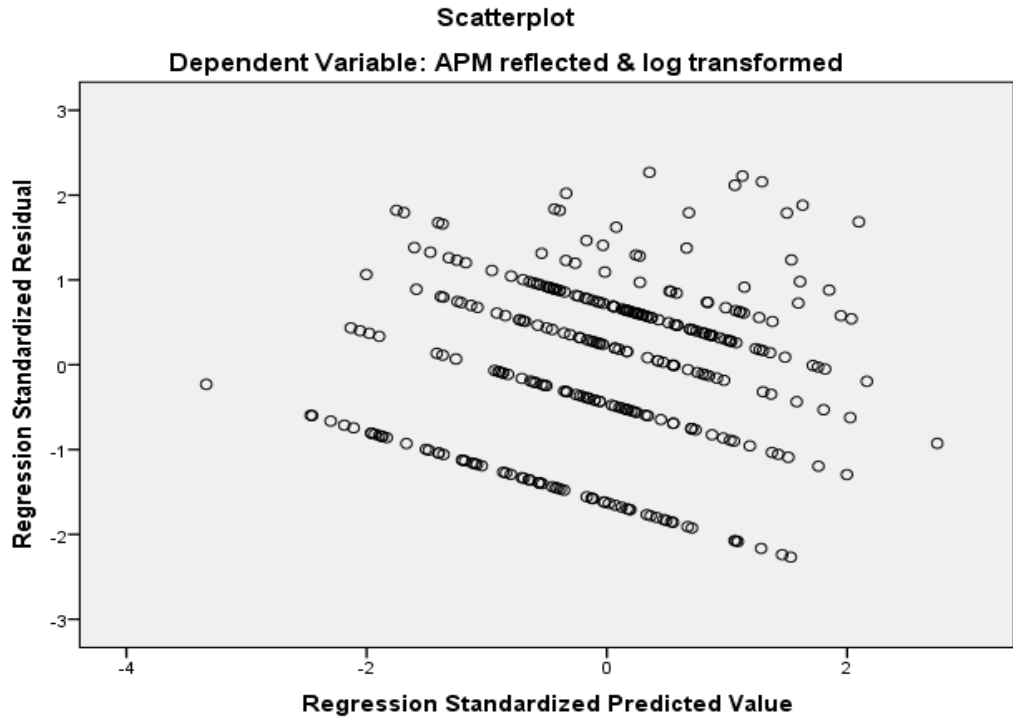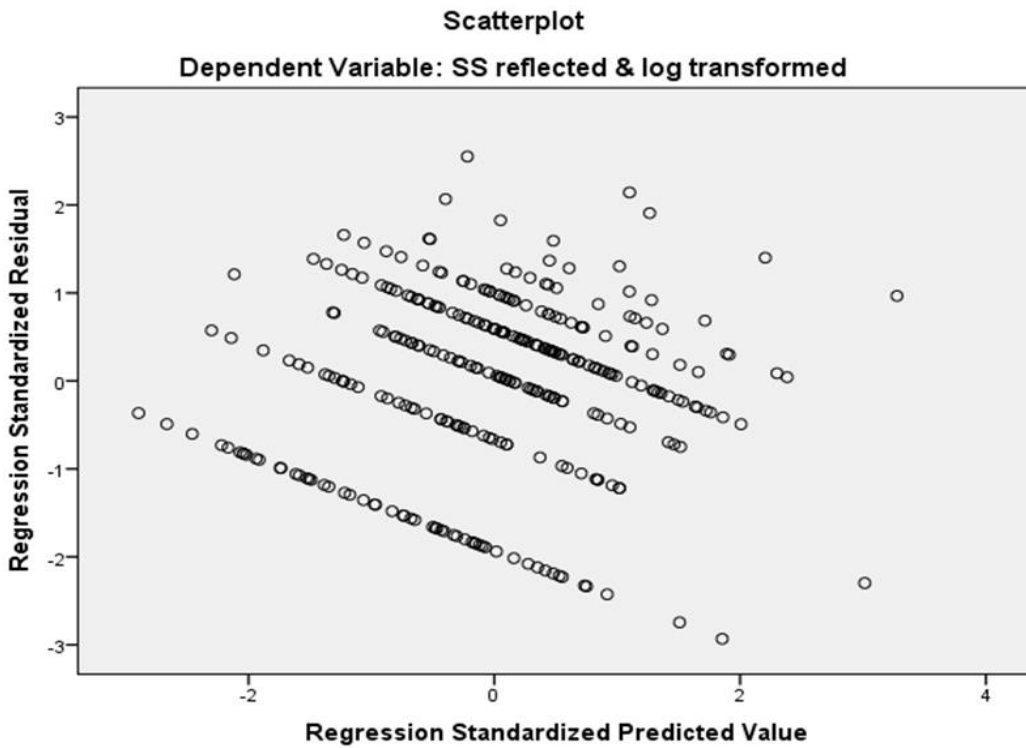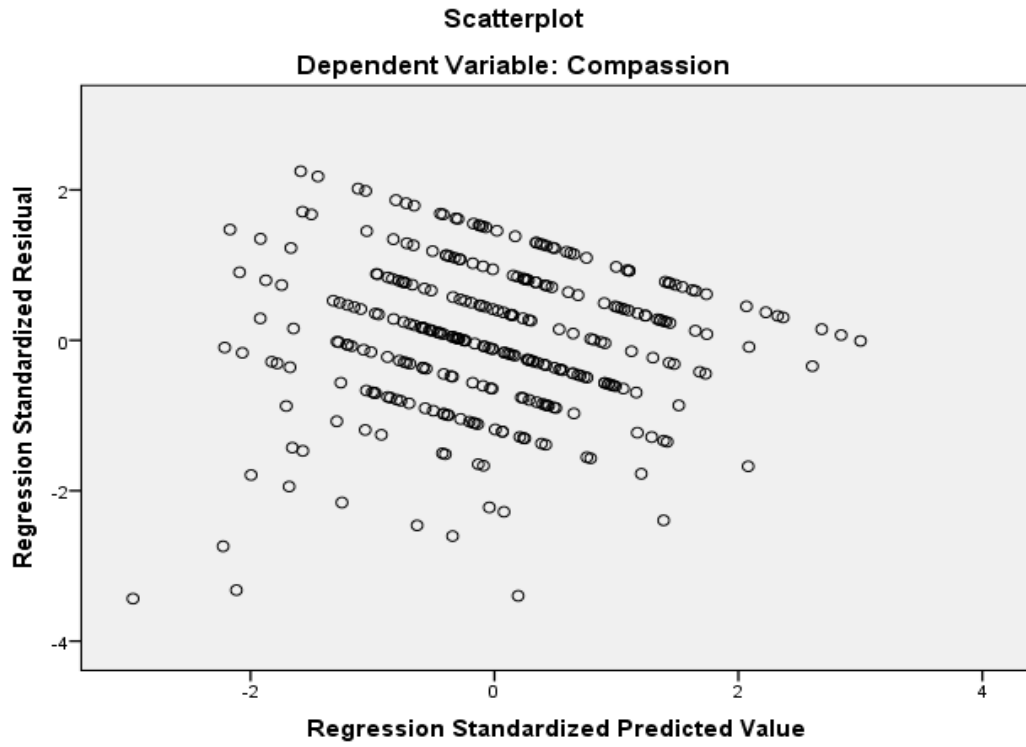
APPENDIX H

WITNESSING SITUATIONS ASSOCIATED WITH SUFFERING
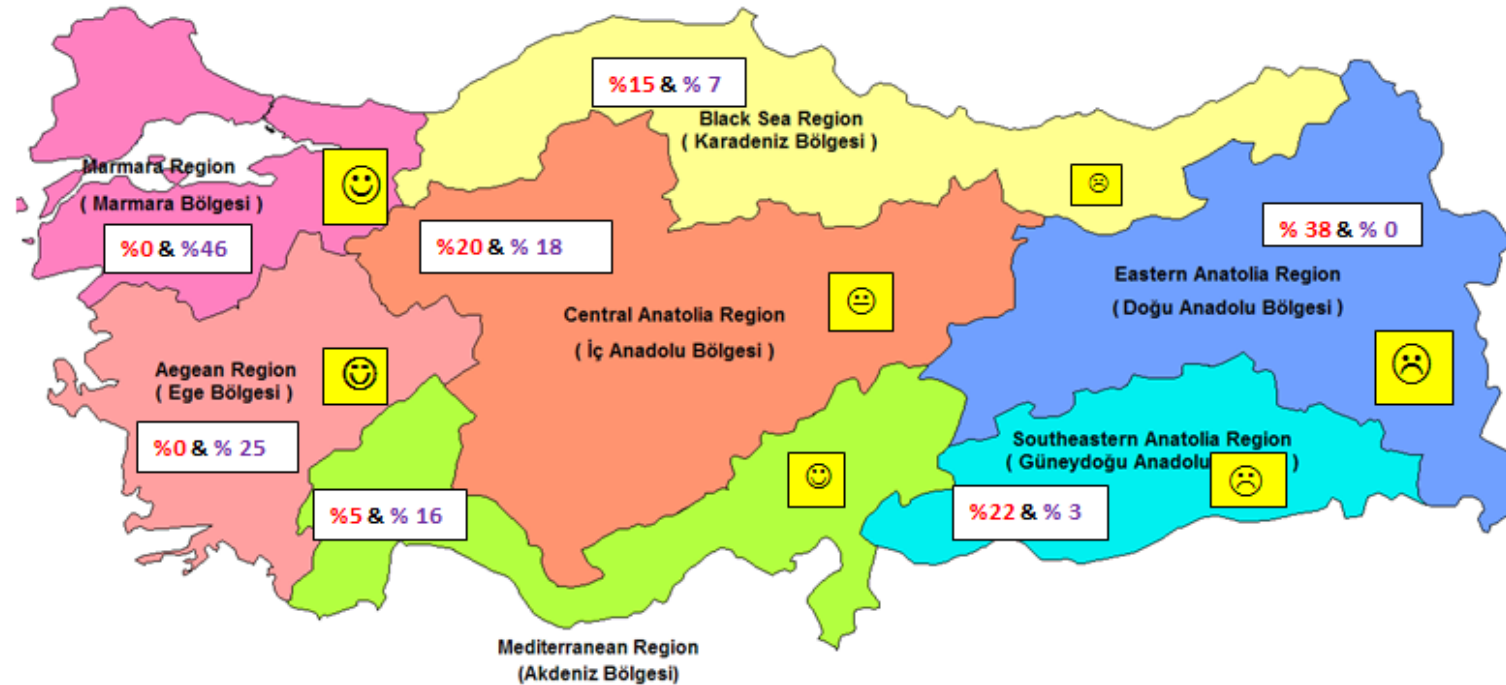
There are 81 provinces having 919 districts distributed through these 7 geographical regions

The study used frequency of 1st and 6th class districts as the proxy of development level. The most deprived districts are 6th class districts, the least deprived are 1st class ones (The classification was derived from the assignment code of district governors)

There are 126 6th class and 154 1st class districts. Percentages in each region indicate 6th class and 1st class districts respectively.

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APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE

First Part of the Questionnaire

Variable	N	α	Range	$\bar{x}$	s
Public Service Motivation (Kim 2011)	**12**	**.897**	**12-60**	**50.99**	**6.586**
Attraction to Policy Making	**3**	**.773**	**3-15**	**12.83**	**2.053**
Q1 I am interested in making public programs that are beneficial for my country or the community I			1-5	4.32	.796
Q2 Sharing my views on public policies with others is attractive to me.			1-5	4.05	.910
Q3 seeing people get benefits from the public program I have been deeply involved in brings me a			1-5	4.45	.774
Commitment to Public Interest	**3**	**.806**	**3-15**	**13.36**	**1.933**
Q4 I consider public service my civic duty.			1-5	4.45	.794
Q5 Meaningful public service is very important to me.			1-5	4.51	.688
Q6 I would prefer seeing public officials do what is best for the whole community even if it harmed my interests			1-5	4.40	.798
Compassion	**3**	**.706**	**3-15**	**12.23**	**2.067**
Q7 It is difficult for me to contain my feelings when I see people in distress.			1-5	3.63	1.131
Q8 I am often reminded by daily events how dependent we are on one another.			1-5	4.25	.760
Q9 I feel sympathetic to the plight of the underprivileged.			1-5	4.35	.722
Self-Sacrifice	**3**	**.748**	**3-15**	**12.57**	**1.965**
Q10 Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements			1-5	4.27	.781
Q11 I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society.			1-5	4.07	.848
Q12 I believe in putting duty before self			1-5	4.24	.781
Motivation Potential Level (MSPB Report 2012)	**5**	**.695**	**1-125**	**107.95**	**14.201**
Skill Variety	**1**		**1-5**	**4.13**	**.738**
Q13 My job allows me to perform a variety of tasks that require a wide range of knowledge, skills,			1-5	4.13	.738
Task Identity	**1**		**1-5**	**3.96**	**.785**

Variable	N	α	Range	$\bar{x}$	s
Q14 My job allows me to complete a single piece of work (rather than bits and pieces) from			1-5	3.96	.785
Task Significance	**1**		**1-5**	**4.16**	**.739**
Q15 My job has a significant positive impact on others, either within the organization or the public in			1-5	4.16	.739
Autonomy	**1**		**1-5**	**3.22**	**1.100**
Q16 My job gives me the freedom to make decisions regarding how I accomplish my work.			1-5	3.22	1.100
Feedback	**1**		**1-5**	**3.86**	**.835**
Q17 I receive information about my job performance and the effectiveness of my efforts, either			1-5	3.86	.835
Frequency of Needs-Testing Tasks In Work Routine	**1**		**1-5**	**3.45**	**1.343**
Q18 Dealing with citizen claims over publicly funded programs (investments, projects, subventions, aid etc.) and examining eligibility and righteousness of these claims are part of my work routine			1-5	3.45	1.343
Tension Between Public Servant And Citizen	**1**		**1-5**	**2.86**	**.906**
Q19 I come up against citizen complaints and criticism that target me and my decisions in my work			1-5	2.86	.906
Servant Leadership (Van Dierendonck and Nuijten 2011)	**30**	**.915**	**30-150**	**107.95**	**14.201**
Empowerment	**7**	**.881**	**7-35**	**25.97**	**4.992**
Q20 My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well.			1-5	3.77	.975
Q21 My manager encourages me to use my talents.			1-5	3.79	.958
Q22 My manager helps me to further develop myself.			1-5	3.72	.953
Q23 My manager encourages his/her staff to come up with new ideas			1-5	3.82	.931
Q31 My manager gives me the authority to take decisions which make work easier for me			1-5	3.86	.821
Q39 My manager enables me to solve problems myself instead of just telling me what to do.			1-5	3.45	.931
Q46 My manager offers me abundant opportunities to learn new skills.			1-5	3.56	.944
Standing Back	**3**	**.615**	**3-15**	**10.42**	**2.114**
Q24 My manager keeps himself/herself in the background and gives credits to others.			1-5	3.11	1.065
Q32 My manager is not chasing recognition or rewards for the things he/she does for others.			1-5	3.86	.878
Q40 My manager appears to enjoy his/her colleagues' success more than his/her own			1-5	3.45	.874

Variable	N	α	Range	$\bar{x}$	s
Accountability	**3**	**.632**	**3-15**	**11.94**	**1.649**
Q25 My manager holds me responsible for the work I carry out.			1-5	4.10	.802
Q33 I am held accountable for my performance by my manager.			1-5	3.92	.729
Q41 My manager holds me and my colleagues responsible for the way we handle a job.			1-5	3.92	.646
Forgiveness (All reversely coded)	**3**	**.571**	**3-15**	**9.54**	**2.232**
Q26 My manager keeps criticizing people for the mistakes they have made in their work			1-5	3.43	1.015
Q34 My manager maintains a hard attitude towards people who have offended him/her at work.			1-5	3.34	1.050
Q42 My manager finds it difficult to forget things that went wrong in the past			1-5	2.77	.977
Courage	**2**	**.504**	**2-10**	**6.22**	**1.591**
Q27 My manager takes risks even when he/she is not certain of the support from his/her own manager			1-5	2.88	.947
Q35 My manager takes risks and does what needs to be done in his/her view.			1-5	3.34	.998
Authenticity	**4**	**.851**	**4-20**	**13.71**	**2.479**
Q28 My manager is open about his/her limitations and weaknesses.			1-5	3.30	.966
Q36 My manager is often touched by the things he/she sees happening around him/her.			1-5	3.30	.875
Q43 My manager is prepared to express his/her feelings even if this might have undesirable consequences.			1-5	3.54	.807
Q47 My manager shows his/her true feelings to his/her staff			1-5	3.56	.923
Humility	**5**	**.637**	**5-25**	**17.86**	**3.280**
Q29 My manager learns from criticism.			1-5	3.53	.900
Q37 My manager tries to learn from the criticism he/she gets from his/her superior.			1-5	3.62	.828
Q44 My manager admits his/her mistakes to his/her superior.			1-5	3.49	.759
Q48 My manager learns from the different views and opinions of others			1-5	3.67	.829
Q49 If people express criticism, my manager tries to learn from it.			1-5	3.55	.826
Stewardship	**3**	**.797**	**3-15**	**12.28**	**1.934**
Q30 My manager emphasizes the importance of focusing on the good of the whole.				4.12	.748

Variable	N	α	Range	$\bar{x}$	s
Q38 My manager has a long-term vision.				3.97	.861
Q45 My manager emphasizes the societal responsibility of our work				4.20	.684

Second Part of the Questionnaire: Categorical Variables

Variable	Categories (Respectively)
Age	
Q50 What is your age?	Under 25, 26-30, 31-35, 36-40, 41-45, 46-50, 51-55, Over 56
Gender	
Q51 Please, indicate your gender	Male, Female
Organizational tenure	
Q52 How long have you been working in your organization?	Under 5 years, 6 -10, 11 – 15, 16 – 20, 21 – 25, Over 26 years
Level of Education	
Q53 Please, specify your level of education.	High School, Junior College, Bachelor Degree(Correspondence), Bachelor Degree (Formal), Master Degree and Over
Marital Status	
Q54 Your marital status	Single, Married
Parental Socialization	
Q55 Were both of your parents employed in public sector jobs?	No, Yes
Q56 Was one of your parents employed in a public sector job?	No, Yes
Occupation	
Q57 Please specify the ministry you are employed in	Turkish Ministry of Internal Affairs, Turkish Ministry of Family and Social Policies
Private Sector Experience	
Q58 Were you previously employed in private sector?	No, Yes
Professionalism	
Q 59 Are you a member of an organization (e.g., association, chamber etc.) related to your profession?	No, Yes

Frequency of Witnessing Situations Associated with Suffering	
Q 60 Please, specify the geographical region you are working in.	Marmara Region, Aegean Region, Mediterranean Region, Central Anatolia Region, Black Sea Region, Southeastern Anatolia Region, Eastern Anatolia Region

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