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The Effect of Organizational Tenure, Bargaining Unit Status, and Union Membership on Local Government Employee Public Service Motivation

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The Effect of Organizational Tenure, Bargaining Unit Status, and Union Membership
on Local Government Employee Public Service Motivation

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Human Resources and Workforce Development Education

by

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ABSTRACT

Two of the largest challenges public organizations face in motivating their workforces are the aging workforce and the strong union influence (Lavigna, 2014). On June 27, 2018, the United States Supreme Court ruled in *Janus vs. AFSCME* to abolish agency fees, and gave public service employees in bargaining units the right to choose whether they want to pay union dues or pay no fees at all.

In examining the unique motivational factors of employees in the public sector, Perry and Wise (1990) developed a theory called Public Service Motivation (PSM). Later, Perry (1996) developed a survey instrument which despite criticism, has persevered as the most widely used measurement instrument for PSM.

To study the challenges presented by Lavigna (2014), using the theory of PSM as the overriding framework in light of the recent *Janus* decision, the purpose of this quantitative survey study of local government employees in a city in New Mexico was to examine the effects of organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership on the PSM levels of employees. This quantitative, cross-sectional study examined public service employees of a municipal government organization in New Mexico. Using a total population sampling technique, data was collected by issuing Perry's (1996) PSM survey instrument in addition to five demographic questions and questions pertaining to employees' bargaining unit status and union membership status, to all 304 employees comprising the population.

Data was analyzed using two separate 4x2 factorial ANOVA procedures. Results found that employees in a bargaining unit had significantly lower PSM levels than employees not in a bargaining unit. The ANOVA procedures did not yield significant differences in organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, or union membership status, nor did they yield significant

interactional effects between organizational tenure and bargaining unit status or union membership status.

Results of this study provide insight into motivational factors of public service employees, and provide implications and recommendations for practice and future research in the fields of human resources management (HRM), human resource development (HRD), and union leadership, with the overall goal of providing the best possible services to citizens.

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Although a baseball pitcher receives credit for winning a game, it takes teammates, coaches, and trainers all working together in order to achieve success. Achieving my doctoral degree was no different. While this degree may be my “win,” it was not possible without the contributions of many people along the way. From my initial dream of going back to school, through my coursework, and ultimately through completing this dissertation, there are numerous contributors to this “win,” and you deserve credit.

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motivational kick in the pants, or recognition for a job well done. I certainly needed multiple kicks in the pants and outlets to vent to when I felt frustrated or overwhelmed, and I appreciate your support and camaraderie.

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DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this dissertation and all of the work that went into achieving this degree to my family. None of this would have been remotely possible without their love and support.

This is dedicated to my parents, Sandra, Jerry, and Patricia, who always encouraged me to pursue my dreams, no matter how crazy they seemed. They demonstrated an unrelenting work ethic, which I, along with my sisters inherited, and I credit them with being the key ingredient to my various successes in life. Refusing to give up on goals and pursuing them with passion (and usually stubbornness) has opened the doors to many of my life's opportunities. The work ethic my parents instilled in me has enabled me to overcome seemingly insurmountable challenges, including completing this degree while balancing family time and a busy full-time career.

This is dedicated to my amazing children, Slade, Maddux, and Isabelle. While I know taking on achieving this degree has caused me to sacrifice family time I wish I could have back, I hope I was able to demonstrate balance in my life and still prioritize them. I hope that I instill in them unbridled passion to pursue their goals and dreams no matter how difficult they seem, or how crazy they may be.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Managing employees in the public sector is vastly different from managing employees in the private sector because of the high-visibility of public sector environments. Managers require engaged and motivated employees to ensure organizational success (Lavigna, 2014), so the motivation of public employees has been a topic of public concern, scholarly interest, and debate (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). The stereotype exists that government employees merely “fill a seat” and keep their jobs for their entire careers without progressing, changing, or developing their knowledge base or skills over time. In addition to being portrayed as overpaid and underworked (Lavigna, 2014), government workers are seen to be lazy, unambitious, and incompetent (Delfgaaw & Dur, 2008; Meier, 1993; Sue & Frank, 2004). This perception fuels the cliché that government employees do not provide value to the citizens they serve and are a waste of taxpayers’ money. Public opinion asserts that government employees do not work as hard and are less productive than private sector employees (Sue & Frank, 2004; Volcker, 1989).

While these stereotypes and clichés make fodder for endless jokes and scrutiny, citizen surveys pertaining to the work of public servants have reflected that many public employees do not fit this stereotype; rather, contrary to negative stereotypes, many citizens are satisfied with the work of civil servants (Delfgaaw & Dur, 2008; Goodsell, 1985). Furthermore, many people, including educated professionals, seek jobs and careers in government and are highly motivated to perform their best (Frank & Lewis, 2004).

With these competing perceptions and realities, managers need a highly engaged workforce in order to ensure success, which requires that leaders in the public sector understand and address the unique factors that make increasing engagement in the public sector challenging (Lavigna, 2014). These factors include economic competition for talent from the private sector,

lower pay than the private sector, inadequate training budgets, pressures emphasizing productivity yet lacking incentives, and a cultural legacy of devalued work (Costick, 2006). Due to these challenging factors, understanding employee motivation is critical for public organizations in order to best recruit, develop, and retain highly motivated public employees.

To understand employee motivation in the public sector, it is important to understand the values of public employees. Perry and Wise (1990) began researching these values and found that many scholars believed that a distinct public service ethos existed in public service employees, which was different from that of private sector employees. Public sector employees, more than private sector employees, value interesting work and have a stronger desire to help others, be useful to society (Frank & Lewis, 2004), and possess a special motivation to serve the public (Delgaauw & Dur, 2008). This unique sense of “public service motivation” has been developed into a formal theory called Public Service Motivation (PSM). PSM contains four specific motivational factors unique to the public sector: attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice (Perry, 1996).

Problem Statement

Two of the largest challenges public organizations face in motivating their workforces are the aging workforce and the strong union influence (Lavigna, 2014). Therefore, understanding the effects of organizational tenure on PSM, as well as the effects of bargaining unit status and union membership status on employee PSM are important considerations for human resource development (HRD) professionals in municipal government organizations. Understanding these effects can enable HRD professionals to implement training and development initiatives in many areas, including recruitment and hiring, employee motivation and retention, and career transitioning. These training and development initiatives can be aimed at management,

employees, as well as unions, in order to foster a more motivated workforce and increase knowledge pertaining to the motivation of public service employees. The potential consequences of not taking advantage of this knowledge may be costly for municipal government organizations and their employees, potentially fostering an unmotivated workforce, which can lead to higher turnover rates and lower productivity, negatively impacting the services provided to citizens.

Organizational Tenure's Effect on Motivation

One of the most difficult challenges contributing to employee motivation in public service is the aging workforce, which is older than that in the private sector (Lavigna, 2014), and requires HRD professionals to utilize creative development strategies to maximize employee engagement. As human resource management (HRM) professionals develop strategic transition strategies for their aging workforce, it is important for them to work with HRD professionals regarding employee transition training as well as workforce development to recruit highly motivated employees to replace retiring employees (Lavigna, 2014).

While there are several ways to study motivational factors in an aging workforce, organizational tenure, that is, time spent within employees' current public service organizations is a concept worthy of further examination, specifically through the lens of PSM. Not many studies have been conducted in this regard; however, and related studies have reflected inconsistent results regarding how employees' PSM levels are affected by tenure. For example, when studying public health employees in Denmark, Jensen and Vestergaard (2017) concluded that the PSM facets of self-sacrifice and compassion increased with tenure; however, neither the PSM facets of attraction to policymaking nor commitment to public interest were affected. Although his study was not specific to organizational tenure, Ward (2013) found that AmeriCorps participants exhibited higher PSM levels than non-participants seven years after

participation. Similarly, although the specific tenet of tenure was not examined, Vandenberg (2011) concluded that age significantly influenced PSM as older employees reflected higher levels of PSM than younger employees. At the same time, Einolff (2016) concluded that no significant differences existed between Millennials and Generation X students regarding their levels of PSM, and Ng and Feldman (2013) indicated insignificant findings regarding tenure and job performance.

Motivation within a Unionized Workforce

In addition to the formidable challenges presented by the aging workforce, a strong union influence in the public sector, which affords employees many protections, is one of the most prevalent challenges in motivating public service employees. More than 34% of public sector employees are in unions, which is more than five times higher than the private sector (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018). Furthermore, on June 27, 2018, the United States Supreme Court in *Janus v. American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees (AFSCME)* affirmed the First Amendment rights of employees and abolished agency fees in the public sector. The *Janus* ruling is one of the most impactful labor rulings over the past 40 years and presents several new challenges in the relationship dynamics between employees, unions, and management in that employees in bargaining unit positions no longer pay previously required agency fees (fair share), thus placing a financial burden on unions and forcing them to work harder to prove their value to employees with less financial backing (Semuels, 2018).

While these challenging dynamics are ever-present for management and HRM, they create opportunities for HRD professionals to display their value. Understanding the motivation of unionized employees is critical for HRD professionals so that development and training initiatives can be aimed at building a more motivated public service workforce through recruiting

initiatives targeting individuals with higher motivation, resulting in higher productivity levels (Mann, 2016). In addition, development and training strategies aimed at retaining employees through fostering their motivation to serve the public can have positive organizational outcomes such as raising employees' affective commitment levels and organizational citizenship behaviors (Gould-Williams, 2016; Mostafa, Gould-Williams, & Bottomley, 2015) as well as employees' performance levels (Homberg & Vogel, 2016).

In examining how employee public service motivation (PSM) levels are affected by unionization, a limited amount of information exists. To date, only two peer reviewed studies have been conducted in this regard (Davis, 2011, 2013). Davis (2013) concluded that union commitment increased employees' PSM levels. Regarding the dimensions of PSM, which include compassion, self-sacrifice, commitment to the public interest, and attraction to policy making (Perry, 1996), Davis (2011) found that union socialization was associated with lower levels of compassion, but higher levels of self-sacrifice and commitment to the public interest. Davis (2011) found no relationship existed between union socialization and attraction to policy making. Because of the prevalence of the challenging factors associated with a unionized workforce, and the limited number of studies pertaining to how PSM levels are affected by unionization, it is important to gain knowledge about this topic.

Organizational Tenure and Unionization's Effects on Employees' PSM Levels

It is important for public employers as well as internal and external HRD professionals to understand the effects of organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status on employees' motivation levels in order to gain knowledge about how employee motivation can be harnessed and maximized over time and within a unionized environment. Through strategic recruiting initiatives as well as training and development initiatives aimed at

managers, employees, and labor unions, HRD can provide insight into and deliverance of a motivated public service workforce with the outcome's being the provision of outstanding services to the citizens they serve.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative survey study of local government employees in a city in New Mexico was to examine the effects of time worked in an organization, bargaining unit status, and union membership on the PSM levels of employees. In its most practical sense, this study sought to find out whether differences in PSM levels exist based on time spent in an organization, and how bargaining unit status and union membership status affect PSM levels of employees. For employees who are in bargaining unit positions, this study explored whether differences in PSM levels existed between union members and non-members. Results of this study provide insight into motivational factors of public service employees, thus informing the field of HRD and steering the training and development needs of public service organizations with the overall goal of providing the best possible services to citizens.

Lastly, this study sought to find out whether relationships existed between organizational tenure and bargaining unit status as well as tenure and union membership status regarding PSM levels of employees.

Research Questions

For local government employees of a city in New Mexico, does time spent working in that organization, bargaining unit status, or union membership status affect employee PSM levels? The study was guided by six hypotheses as follows:

Hypothesis 1

H₀₁: Time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico does not affect employees' PSM levels.

H₁: Time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico significantly affects employees' PSM levels.

Hypothesis 2

H₀₂: Bargaining unit status does not affect PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.

H₂: Bargaining unit status has a significant effect on the PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.

Hypothesis 3

H₀₃: No relationship exists between employees' organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and bargaining unit status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

H₃: A significant relationship exists between employees' organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and bargaining unit status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

Hypothesis 4

H₀₄: For employees in a bargaining unit, time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico does not affect PSM levels.

H₄: For employees in a bargaining unit, time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico significantly affects PSM levels.

Hypothesis 5

H₀₅: For employees in a bargaining unit, union membership status does not affect PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.

H₅: For employees in a bargaining unit, union membership status significantly affects the PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.

Hypothesis 6

H₀₆: For employees in a bargaining unit, no relationship exists between organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and union membership status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

H₆: For employees in a bargaining unit, a significant relationship exists between organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and union membership status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

Methods Overview

This section will provide an overview of this study's research design, the selection of subjects, the instrument which was selected and used, data collection procedures, and data analysis techniques.

Research Design

This study sought to find out whether organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership affected PSM levels of city employees in New Mexico. The nature of this study lended itself to a quantitative design because it sought to confirm hypotheses about how PSM levels are affected by organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status. The data was numerical, which produced statistical results; the internet was used to distribute and respond to the validated survey instrument, which asked closed-ended questions with quantifiable answers; and the results were documented using objective language, which are characteristic of a quantitative design (Creswell, 2014).

Because this study sought to use quantitative analysis to describe attitudes and opinions of participants, a quantitative survey design was appropriate (Creswell, 2014). Participants responded to a Likert-type survey with the intent of analyzing if the numerical results showed

variances between groups and revealed how the groups compared to each other. Studies exploring relationships between PSM and tenure (French & Emerson, 2014; Jensen & Vestergaard, 2017; Kim, 2018; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007), as well as PSM and union membership status (Davis, 2011; Davis, 2013) have also used quantitative survey designs.

Selection of Subjects

Utilizing a total population sampling technique, subjects included all non-first responder or public safety employees in a city in New Mexico, that is, all employees other than those in the police department, fire and rescue department, 911 communications, or municipal court.

Instrumentation

Subjects responded to a survey which consisted of the Perry (1996) PSM Measurement Scale, which was authorized for use by Perry (see Appendix A). The Perry PSM Measurement Scale is a 24-item scaled survey, which measured respondents on four subscales that represent different facets of PSM. These four facets include attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice.

The rationale for utilizing the Perry scale was that it is the predominant instrument used to measure PSM (Belle, 2013; Brewer et al., 2000; Brewer & Neumann, 2016; Bright, 2007, 2011; Christensen & Wright, 2011; Jacobson, 2011; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Naff & Crum, 1999; Wright, 2003; Wright & Pandey, 2008). While several studies have questioned the model and sought to modify it (Coursey & Pandey, 2007; Kim, 2009; Vandenabeele, 2008), the Perry model is still considered the standard scale for measuring PSM. Perry's (1996) scale, used in its entirety or in portions, has endured as the most widely used PSM measurement instrument.

Data Collection Procedures

Access was granted by the city manager of a city government organization in New Mexico (see Appendix B). Through in-person meetings, phone calls, and emails, city employees were asked to participate in the project, explaining the rationale of the project, respond to any concerns participants may have about confidentiality, ensuring that no conflicts of interest existed. In addition, the informed consent form was provided (see Appendix D). Confidentiality was maintained throughout the study by using a password-protected file for electronic data storage. All paper data was stored in a locked file cabinet and kept in a locked office which required both key and magnetic badge for entry. All potential participants were informed that their information would be kept secure and confidential and would be destroyed following the completion of the study.

Data Analysis

For analyzing the data, four categories existed for tenure in the city government organization: 0 through 4 years, 5 through 9 years, 10 through 14 years, and 15 or more years. Bargaining unit status was divided into two groups, reflecting whether or not employees' jobs are in a bargaining unit. If employees were in a bargaining unit, they were asked whether they were dues paying members or not, reflecting their union membership status. Because I investigated relationships between more than two groups on a continuous outcome, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) or F-test was most appropriate (Salkind, 2017). The analysis results showed the variances between groups, revealing how the various groupings compared to each other, with the intent of generalizability to other similar populations.

Theoretical Framework: Public Service Motivation Theory

This study was based on Public Service Motivation (PSM) theory. In the wake of public service's in the United States experiencing vast criticism and reform in the 1970's, Perry and Wise (1990) developed the formal theory called Public Service Motivation (PSM), which was brought forth as a motivational theory explaining the ethos of public service employees. Perry (1990) defined PSM as "an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations" (p. 368), and grounded PSM as an alternative method of employee motivation, given the absence of merit pay in the public sector. Subsequently, PSM was further defined by Perry, Hondeghem, and Wise (2010) as "a particular form of altruism or prosocial motivation that is animated by specific dispositions and values arising from public institutions and [their] missions" (p. 682). PSM suggests that certain people are drawn to public service based on their propensity for six characteristics: attraction to policy making, commitment to public interest, civic duty, social justice, self-sacrifice, and compassion (Perry, 1996). Within this construct, Mann (2006) explained that additional characteristics commonly attributed to a service ethic include a deeper desire to make a difference, an ability to have an impact on public affairs, a sense of responsibility and integrity, and a reliance on intrinsic rewards rather than salary or job security.

While the theory of PSM was developed in the aftermath of much public sector reform and criticism in the 1970's, it is further grounded as an alternative method of employee motivation, given the absence of merit pay in the public sector (Perry & Wise, 2010). PSM theory has gained significant momentum in research over the past decade (Bozeman & Su, 2014). In the 15-year period between 1998 and 2012, 147 peer-reviewed articles pertaining to

PSM were published with the bulk of them being published between 2007 and 2012 (Vandenabeele, Brewer, & Ritz, 2014).

PSM is closely linked with the concepts of altruism and prosocial behavior and is further characterized as “a particular form of altruism or prosocial motivation that is animated by specific dispositions and values arising from public institutions and [their] missions” (Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010, p. 682). PSM has been linked to altruism by public administration and public management scholars as well as economists (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). Homberg and Vogel (2006) described PSM as “an individual-level, altruistic construct that emphasizes the desire to contribute to society” (p. 747). Altruistic motives are central to the focus of PSM and result in acts which are mainly motivated by consideration of the needs of others rather than one’s own needs (Piliavin & Charng, 1990). Furthermore, it is evident that altruistic motivations are prevalent among public service providers (Le Grand, 2003).

Instead of linking PSM to altruism, which is narrower in scope, organizational behavior scholars tend to link PSM to prosocial behavior because it encompasses a broad spectrum of behaviors (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). Prosocial behavior within an organizational construct is defined as “behavior which is (a) performed by a member of an organization, (b) directed toward an individual group, or organization with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his or her organizational role, and (c) performed with the intention or promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organization toward which it is directed” (p. 711). Piliavin and Charng (1990) believed that prosocial behavior includes that the act is voluntary and assumes no expectations of return.

PSM, with its altruistic and prosocial roots, suggests that certain people are drawn to public service based on their propensity for the six characteristics which emphasize motives

commonly associated with public organizations (Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise (2010). These characteristics include attraction to policy making, commitment to public interest, civic duty, social justice, self-sacrifice, and compassion (Perry, 1996). Following Perry's (1996) PSM measurement construct based on these six components, much debate ensued (Giauque, Ritz, Varone, Anderfuhren-Biget, & Waldner, 2011; Kim et al., 2012; Vandenabeele, 2008), and the result was a consensus decision to modify the PSM measurement to include the four dimensions of attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest/ civic duty, compassion, and self-sacrifice, eliminating the original dimension of social justice. Beyond the four definitional components, Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) explained PSM as being a "general, altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, as state, a nation, or humankind" (p. 20). Within this construct, Mann (2006) stated, "Other characteristics commonly attributed to a service ethic include a deeper desire to make a difference, an ability to have an impact on public affairs, a sense of responsibility and integrity, and a reliance on intrinsic rewards as opposed to salary or job security" (p.33). Regardless of the different viewpoints, PSM research commonly focuses on the motivation of individuals to benefit others and the betterment of society (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008).

Importance of the Study

As two of the largest motivational challenges public organizations face are an aging workforce and the influence of unions (Lavigna, 2014), understanding the motivation of employees regarding these factors is critical for public employers and specifically HRD professionals, but limited research has been done in these areas. Also, further research is needed examining PSM as a dependent variable, thus exploring its causal factors (Bozeman & Su, 2014). Specifically, no studies had been done exploring how organizational tenure and union

membership status' affect PSM levels. Fifteen studies have been conducted pertaining to organizational tenure's effect on PSM (Ritz, Brewer, & Neumann, 2016), resulting in various outcomes and no clear indication that organizational tenure affects PSM levels of employees. Furthermore, although 15 studies have been conducted exploring these constructs, none of these have studies had specifically explored local government employees' PSM levels regarding organizational tenure.

Only one research study had been conducted utilizing municipal employees in regard to how PSM is affected by bargaining unit status or union membership status (Davis, 2011), which concluded that the PSM constructs of commitment to the public interest and self-sacrifice have strong positive effects on PSM levels of union members, and the PSM construct of compassion has a negative effect on PSM levels of union members. Because only one prior study existed specifically exploring the relationships between PSM and union socialization, an extensive knowledge gap exists. Furthermore, with the recent change in the union landscape due to the U.S. Supreme Court's 2018 *Janus* decision's resulting in public sector bargaining unit employees' no longer being forced to pay agency fees, a blank canvas presently exists regarding how union membership status affects bargaining unit employees' PSM levels. This study began to fill in the knowledge gaps which exist pertaining to the effects of bargaining unit status and union membership status on PSM levels of employees, especially given the recent *Janus* decision.

Finally, while the topics explored present great opportunity to fill in research gaps and begin new lines of research, this study is also the only such study geared toward gleaning insight for HRD practitioners. While much PSM research claims to provide insight for human resources management (HRM) practitioners, PSM has yet to successfully be integrated into HRM practices

in public sector organizations (Ritz et al., 2016), and there is no mention in the literature regarding how PSM can inform HRD practices. Thus, this study began to address ways in which knowledge of PSM can inform the HRD profession and the practices of HRD professionals such as training and workforce development initiatives, which train employees, supervisors, and managers on the recruitment, retention, and career transitioning of public service employees.

Limitations

The largest limitation for the study was that the results were derived from one organization. The study was limited to employees of a city government organization in New Mexico, the population from which the sample was drawn. Using a total population sampling technique with a population of 304 employees divided into subgroups, adequate results required high response rates, which were difficult to achieve. Given a population of 304, 170 responses were required with a confidence interval of 95% and a 5% margin of error (Qualtrics, 2019) to have a sufficient response rate. In addition, this study used the Perry (1996) PSM scale, which is the most widely used tool for measuring PSM (Belle, 2013; Brewer et al., 2000; Bright, 2007, 2011; Christensen & Wright, 2011; Jacobson, 2011; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Naff & Crum, 1999; Wright, 2003; Wright & Pandey, 2008), yet it has been criticized for its length (Coursey & Pandey, 2007; Kim, 2009) and for its lack of usability outside the United States (Kim, 2009; Vandenabeele, 2008).

The population used was the researcher's employer, which presented ethical dilemmas and challenges to be accounted for and addressed. These challenges include assurances of anonymity, power (Floyd & Arthur, 2010; Floyd & Arthur, 2012; Hull, 2017; Trowler, 2011), bias, maintaining boundaries (Floyd & Arthur, 2010), fear (Mercer, 2007), maintaining objectivity and avoiding potential conflicts of interest (Hull, 2017), managing multiple roles

(Floyd & Arthur, 2012; Mercer, 2007), managing incidental data (Mercer, 2007), managing insider knowledge, and managing ongoing professional relationships after the study has concluded (Floyd & Arthur, 2012). Due to these issues, participants were assured that their responses would be kept confidential, their personal information would not be published, and every precaution would be taken to protect their anonymity. Because the researcher held a position of power in the organization, it was important to inform and continuously remind employees about the voluntary nature of the study, the absence of penalties for non-participation, and the repudiation of retaliation by the city in any manner as per policy.

Overtly communicating and maintaining boundaries was important in avoiding conflicts of interest. Therefore, communication was sent to employees only outside of business hours, and a point was made that the researcher was acting as a student-researcher rather than as an employee of the organization. Although precautions were taken to avoid issues with boundaries and conflicts of interest, at times incidental information was given to the researcher, such as employees talking to the researcher in the hallways or at meetings about the survey and telling him about their answers to questions. Also, in many cases, the researcher could tell who the respondents were by their survey responses. On occasion, erroneous or dishonest answers were suspected by the researcher, however, the researcher let the data exist as reported.

While conducting insider research was challenging from an ethics standpoint, it also had many advantages. Throughout the process of gaining access to the organization and employees, contacting supervisors to set up meetings with employees, meeting with employees, scripting emails to elicit participation, and navigating discussions across the organization about the project, familiarity proved to be a benefit. Ultimately, such access and the successful response

rate of participants may not have been possible without the prior relationships and rapport with the city manager, city attorney, employees, and the union officials.

Another limitation is that the extent to which the results are generalizable to other similar public service employees may not be known. To the extent that the studied employees differed in significant ways from other public service employees, the results from this study may not be generalizable. Due to the lack of previous studies conducted relative to this topic, points of comparison within existing literature are limited. Because this study is cross-sectional, the longitudinal effects are not be discernable. It is necessary for further studies to be conducted with other groups of public service employees which are similar in nature, in addition to longitudinal studies, in order to potentially generalize the findings from the study to other similar populations.

Because the *Janus* decision occurred in June 2018, it may be too recent for its effects to be known. It has only been 17 months since public bargaining unit employees were given the choice of paying either full union membership dues or no dues. As unions, employers, and employees become more familiar and comfortable working within the framework of the new law over time, the impact of *Janus* on employees' decisions to join or not join unions will become clear. It will therefore be beneficial for further studies to be conducted over time to be able to assess the actual impact of *Janus*.

Delimitations

There are numerous factors which affect PSM levels in employees; however, this study focused only on organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status. The study included all civilian employees of a city government organization in New Mexico excluding police department, fire and rescue department, 911 communications, and municipal court employees. This is due to the public safety employees possessing different motivation

characteristics than non-public safety public employees (French & Emerson, 2014; Swiatkowski, 2015). Further studies are needed to identify similarities and differences between civilian, public safety, paramilitary, and military government organizations regarding employee PSM levels. In studying this population, this study asked participants five demographic questions, 24 closed-ended questions from the Perry (1996) PSM scale and three additional questions regarding employees' organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status.

Employees' organizational tenure was categorized among four groups: 0 through 4 years, 5 through 9 years, 10 through 14 years, and 15 or more years. The rationale for categorizing employee tenure in these groups was based on employee job satisfaction potentially waning every three to five years (Dreher & Dougherty, 2001) as well as the occurrence of job content plateauing which can occur within three to five years after starting a job (Montgomery, 2002). In addition, the five year intervals were intended to capture the concept of tenure across the organization. Total population sampling among 304 employees using these groupings required high response rates, which presented challenges.

Definition of Key Terms

The list of terms used in this study includes pseudonyms, acronyms, operational definitions, and terms that may be unfamiliar to readers, in addition to terms which may have various meanings to readers. I define these terms here to foster understanding within the context of this study.

Agency Fees: Fees charged to employees who are in bargaining unit position but choose not to pay full union membership dues. These fees were required prior to *Janus* but are now illegal in the public sector. This term is interchangeable with *fair share*.

Bargaining Unit: A group of employees with a clear and identifiable community of interest who are represented by a union.

Bargaining Unit Employee: An employee represented by a union, regardless of whether they pay union dues or not.

Bargaining Unit Status: Whether an employees' position is covered by a union or not.

Career Employee: An employee in a position which is not temporary or seasonal in nature and is part of the classified service of the organization.

Career Plateauing: The point in a career where the likelihood of additional hierarchical promotion is very low (FERENCE, Stoner, & Warren, 1977).

Fair Share: Fees charged to employees who are in bargaining unit position but choose not to pay union membership dues. These fees were required prior to *Janus* but are now illegal in the public sector. This term is interchangeable with *agency fees*.

Generation X: People born between the 1970's and 1980's (Nahavandi, Denhardt, Denhardt, & Arsitigueta, 2015).

Human Resource Development (HRD): The process of developing and unleashing expertise for the purpose of improving individual, team, work process, and organizational system performance (Swanson & Holton, 2009).

Human Resources Management (HRM): Consists of activities linked to the personnel functions of an organization (McLean, 2006). These programs focus on goals and activities including hiring, compensation, and compliance issues (Swanson & Holton, 2009).

Insider Research: Conducting research within the researcher's organization of employment (Floyd & Arthur, 2010).

Janus: U.S. Supreme Court ruling levied on June 27, 2018, abolishing the payment of agency fees for public sector bargaining unit employees, thus affirming the First Amendment rights of employees.

Millennials: People born after the mid 1980's (Nahavandi et al., 2015).

Organizational Tenure: Amount of continuous time spent employed by an organization.

PSM: Public Service Motivation

Public Sector: Portion of the economy under the control of the government

Public Servants: Employees who work for the government.

Public Service Employee: Employee who works in federal, state, or tribal government organizations.

Public Service Motivation: An individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations (Perry, 1990).

Private Sector: Sector of economy not under the control of government.

Labor Union: An organization of workers formed for the purpose of protecting the rights and interests of its members.

Union Dues: The cost of union membership for bargaining unit employees.

Union Membership Status: Choice of bargaining unit employees to be union members or not.

Unionized Workforce: Workforce which is contains one or more bargaining units.

Operational Definitions

Operational definitions for this study are as follows:

1. The study was focused on the concept of PSM, and specifically employees' levels of PSM relative to the amount of continuous time spent employed by an organization (organizational tenure), whether an employees' position is covered by a union or not

(bargaining unit status), and the choice of bargaining unit employees to be union members or not (union membership status).

2. Scope of the study was delimited in that only employees in a New Mexico city government organization were asked to participate in the study.
3. The independent variables in the study were employees' organizational tenure, their respective bargaining unit status, and their union membership status.
4. The dependent variable was the level of PSM employees possess relative to their organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status as measured by the means of participants' scores on the Perry (1996) PSM survey instrument.

Chapter 1 Summary

Chapter 1 provided background information on issues pertaining to Public Service Motivation, organizational tenure's effects on employee motivation, and motivation in a unionized workforce. The theory of Public Service Motivation was established as the theoretical rationale for this study. The statement of the problem, importance of the study, and research questions were identified with focus on the effects of Public Service Motivation on organizational tenure, employees' bargaining unit status, and union membership status. Significance of the study, as well as its limitations and delimitations were defined, in addition to key terms and operational definitions relevant to the study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The current study was anchored by a motivational theory called Public Service Motivation (PSM) and sought to find out if independent variables affected levels of PSM within individuals in a local government organization. It is therefore important to provide an overview of the major motivational theories within the human resource management (HRM) and human resource development (HRD) literature. The topic of motivation is comprised of several theories and concepts, which can be categorized in various ways; however, the two major categories of employee motivational theories are 1) need theories and 2) behavioral and cognitive theories (Champoux, 2000). Discussion of these categories, the main motivational theories comprising them, and insight into how they can be used within organizations to improve and maximize employee motivation will provide perspective on PSM.

Need Theories of Motivation

Need theories of motivation are characterized by the use of individual attributes or characteristics to explain the motivation of people (Champoux, 2000), and human behavior is directed toward the satisfaction of needs (Nahavandi et al., 2015). Need theories, also called content theories, are among the most influential and appealing motivational theories for scholars and practitioners studying and understanding motivation (Nahavandi et al., 2015). Four prominent content theories pertaining to employee motivation include Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, Alderfer's ERG Theory, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory, and McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory (Conrad, Ghosh & Isaacson, 2015).

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory (1943) is premised on there being five categories of human needs which drive behavior and are ranked in order based on prepotency. The five categories consist of physiological needs, safety needs, belongingness and love needs, esteem

needs, and self-actualization needs. Physiological needs are the most basic human needs and consist of food, water, and sleep. Safety needs are the human desires to avoid harm and seek safety. Belongingness and love needs refer to the need for humans to seek and offer affection to others, and for friendship. Esteem needs comprise humans' self-confidence and sense self-worth, derived as validation and valuation from others, as well as the feeling one one's beliefs about their own self-value and confidence. Self-Actualization is the desire for self-fulfillment, characterized by achieving one's full potential. According to Maslow's theory, the most basic needs must be met in general before satisfaction of higher level needs are sought. For example, most employed adults have satisfied their physiological and safety needs but usually have unsatisfied needs pertaining to belongingness and love, esteem, or self-actualization (Champoux, 2000). Although the hierarchy generally works in order from most basic to least basic needs, the reality is that humans are so complex that at various times, there are levels of each need category which are fulfilled and unfulfilled (Champoux, 2000; Nahavandi et al., 2015). Furthermore, sometimes higher order needs may overwhelm lower order needs, such as the case where a person is so captivated by reading a book that they forget they are hungry and fail to eat (Nahavandi et al., 2015).

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory has several implications for organizations. These implications include organizational leadership and management instituting programs which aim to satisfy the unmet or emerging needs of employees as well as using focus groups and counseling with employees to find out what their needs consist of in order to help them work through stressful situations or organizational change (Ramlall, 2004). Managers who have utilized Maslow's principles have been generally viewed by employees as more supportive, considerate, and interested in their general welfare (Champagne & McAfee, 1989).

Alderfer's ERG Theory

Alderfer's (1972) ERG Theory is arguably one of the leading theories of motivation (Conrad, Ghosh, & Isaacson, 2015) and is an extension of Maslow's theory, containing many similar elements yet providing other insightful and unique aspects about how needs motivate human behavior (Champoux, 2000). In ERG Theory, three basic groupings of human needs form a hierarchy similar to Maslow's model, which consist of existence needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs. Existence needs compare to Maslow's physiological and safety needs and are categorized as physiological and material wants. Relatedness needs are similar to the belongingness and love needs described by Maslow, and growth needs, which equate to Maslow's esteem and self-actualization needs, are human desires to use and develop one's abilities and skills to be creative and productive (Champoux, 2000). While Alderfer's model has many similarities to Maslow's model, such as lower-order needs being most important or similar categories, differences between the theories exist. A major factor differentiating ERG Theory from Maslow's theory is the ability to satisfy higher and lower-level needs on a continuum, that is, lower-order needs are not required to be filled before higher level needs (Lazaroiu, 2015). Along these lines, the concept of frustration-regression is introduced in ERG Theory as a differentiator from Maslow. Frustration-regression occurs when higher order needs are not met after a prolonged period of time and humans regress or revert to lower levels of the hierarchy to satisfy new needs influenced by the lack of fulfillment (Champoux, 2000; Lazaroiu, 2015). Also, the concept of deficiency style is an extension of Maslow, which occurs after a prolonged period of a need's not being fulfilled, resulting in a person's becoming obsessive about fulfillment of the desired need (Champoux, 2000). The concept of an enrichment cycle is also a differentiator

from Maslow. This concept proposes that humans continually desire to grow and learn, seeking new challenges in all facets of life.

Organizational strategies using ERG theory include leadership and management focusing on the provision of opportunities for employees to be creative and grow within the organization, such as through promotions or increased job scope, which increase and maximize the motivation of employees (Lazaroiu, 2015). Additionally, Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) provided insight into the use of ERG Theory within organizational strategies. Because the needs of individuals are different, managers and supervisors should get to know their employees' needs and desires and focus on ways to fulfill those needs and desires. It is also important to focus on individuals' need for connectedness with supervisors as well as co-workers. One strategy which can serve to satisfy this need organizationally is through gainsharing, in which individuals are rewarded when team and organizational goals are reached (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2002).

Hertzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory, also called two-factor theory, is premised on two factors affecting employee motivations levels, which include motivation factors (satisfiers) and hygiene factors (dissatisfiers) (Fisher, 2015). Motivation factors include achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. The most prominent motivation factors are achievement, recognition, the work itself, and responsibility. Hygiene factors include company policy and administration, supervision, relationship with supervisor, peers, and subordinates, working conditions, personal life, status and security. The most powerful hygiene factors are company policy, administration, and supervision.

If organizations seek to improve motivation and performance of their employees using Hertzberg's theory, they should focus on programs which focus on employee achievement,

recognition, and incentives predicated on goals the employee had input into and should not spend their time and energy focusing on monetary incentives and benefits levels (Fisher, 2015). In Herzberg's theory, employee autonomy acts as motivating factor as it contributes to the factors of responsibility, the work itself, and growth (Jo & Park, 2016). Because of this, HRM and HRD practices can focus on initiatives which promote empowerment of employees, fostering their motivation. In addition, intrinsic motivation can be improved through providing meaningful understandings of the work (Shuck, Rocco, & Albornoz, 2011), and organizations should conduct needs analyses consistently to facilitate work environments which link to individual needs of employees (Shuck et al., 2011). Zigarmi and Roberts (2017), through the lens of situational leadership theory, suggested that effective communication between managers and subordinates is required to achieve congruence between the needed and received leadership behaviors. The relationship building skills of managers are paramount in this vein, and designing development initiatives which authentically seek to develop employees' careers and strengths and align with the organization's mission, vision, and values are paramount (Shuck et al., 2011).

McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory

While the theories presented by Maslow, Alderfer, and Hertzberg all assume humans possess common needs, McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory is grounded in the principle that people have different needs consisting of the need for achievement, power, and affiliation (Nahavandi et al., 2015). People with the need for achievement desire to excel and succeed (Ramlall, 2004), solve problems, take responsibility for their actions, and are willing to take calculated risks to achieve desired outcomes (Champoux, 2000). Those who possess the need for power try to influence other people and situations through control and having a strong effect on others, possess the need to make others behave in a manner they otherwise would not

have, and are characterized as having either a “win/lose” approach or a persuasive personality (Ramlall, 2004; Champoux, 2000). People who desire the need for affiliation want strong relationships with other people, seek approval and validation from others, prefer being around other people, and enjoy working in teams (Champoux, 2000). In addition, those with need for affiliation tend to be better at “reading others,” develop relationships effectively, prefer working with friends rather than experts, and seek to avoid conflict (Nahavandi et al., 2015).

Organizations can use McClelland’s theory effectively by taking steps to ensure that managers possess the need for power because influence is needed for effective leadership while organizations should avoid managers with a high need for affiliation (Ramlall, 2004). Champoux (2000) stated that many top corporate executives possess high need for power, which leads to innovative thinking and effective leadership during change initiatives. It is important for organizational leadership and management to recognize the differences in people in order to motivate them effectively. For example, people with high achievement need are less motivated by monetary rewards and more motivated by the provision of job challenges and responsibilities. All three of these need categories (achievement, power, and affiliation) are needed and provide value within organizations, and effective management can maximize all three by getting to know the needs of employees and adjusting the scope of jobs and responsibilities accordingly (Champoux, 2000).

Behavioral and Cognitive Process Motivation Theories

As opposed to need theories, which stipulate that motivation is derived from various human needs and desires, behavioral and cognitive process theories differ in that they are based on cognitive processes which drive human behavior. Three of the most prevalent behavioral and cognitive process theories are Vroom’s Expectancy Theory, Locke’s Goal Setting Theory, and

Equity Theory (Champoux, 2000). An overview of these theories is provided along with strategies to use them in organizations to motivate employees.

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Vroom's expectancy theory posits that employees' performance is driven by their expectancy for positive outcomes and is premised on three key terms: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence (Fisher, 2015). Expectancy is a self-assessment as to one's capabilities in relation to a task, job, or assignment (Reed & Bogardus, 2012). Instrumentality refers to people's beliefs that if they work hard, the outcome will be the desired reward and requires a level of trust in the supervisor or organization that the reward will be granted (Kermally, 1999). Valence is the individual's calculation as to whether the effort is worth the reward (Reed & Bogardus, 2012). In other words, valence refers to the value one places on attaining a given reward. Based on Vroom's theory, employees will work harder if they believe they can do a task, they believe their effort in completing the task will get them the reward, and whether the predicted effort is worth the desired reward.

Kermally (2004) articulated several management strategies for using Vroom's expectancy theory to motivate employees, including clearly defining employee goals with realistic and clear objectives, tailoring job design to employee goals, training employees to meet their goals, praising employees for their successes, clearly delineating links between performance and rewards, and rewarding employee successes. Furthermore, management should consistently conduct employee needs analyses to connect organizational goals to employee needs (Shuck et al., 2011). This strategy can streamline into Vroom's expectancy theory if organizations sincerely want to understand the desires of employees and use those goals and desires to foster motivation and engagement in employees. Managers and supervisors can be

trained on transformational leadership values and techniques, which include aligning employee values and organizational ideology and articulating clear goals for employees (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010).

Locke's Goal Theory

Locke's Goal Theory sought to find out which factors optimized the achievement of goals and what prevented the achievement of goals. Goals are effective for focusing attention on a task and they energize and stimulate effort (Nahavandi et al., 2015). Specifically, difficult goals tend to lead to sustained task performance because the more difficult the goal, the more people must use all of their skills, which fosters innovation (Buchner, 2007). Buchner described five moderators which affect goal-driven performance: commitment, goal importance, self-efficacy, feedback, and task complexity. The keys to this theory's working effectively in practice include accepting goals prior to their pursuit, implying goals are to be discussed and agreed upon rather than forced; making goals specific and easy to understand by both management and employees, perceiving goals as fair and attainable (by employees), and receiving feedback from managers regarding progress towards achieving goals to improve their attainment (Fisher, 2015).

Locke's theory can be used by organizations and HRD professionals in performance management. In HR performance systems, it is important for employees to know if performance standards exist, and if so, they must clearly know what the performance standards are (Buchner, 2007). Furthermore, employees should understand which specific performance standards are required for higher performance levels to foster motivation. Regarding using goal-setting theory in practice, Fisher (2015) suggested that organizations should consider "bottom up" management strategies whereby employees have input in decision-making processes and goal-setting, which facilitates employee commitment and motivation for achieving set goals.

Equity Theory

Equity Theory, based on the principle of distributive justice, posits that humans make rational choices as to whether to exert effort to achieve (or restore) perceived fairness (Nahavandi et al, 2015). In alignment with Expectancy Theory, Equity Theory is based on the perceptions of humans rather than an objective reality (Dreher & Daugherty, 2001) and presents motivation as being a consequence of perceived inequity (Nahavandi, 2015). Two key concepts in Equity Theory are social exchange, which assumes people constantly view themselves as being in exchange relationships with other people and groups, and social comparison, where people have a tendency to compare themselves and their situations to those of others in terms of their treatment and exchanges (Dreher & Dougherty, 2001). The concepts of inputs and outcomes are also important concepts in Equity Theory. Inputs are the behaviors and personal characteristics a person brings to an exchange such as effort, experience, education, or competence (Ramlall, 2004), and the contributor decides the amount of relevancy to attach to the exchange. If the inputs are perceived as being relevant, then they are indeed relevant, regardless of objective reality. Outcomes are the result of the exchange, such as being underpaid or overpaid based on the employee's perception of the amount of pay they deserve.

Inequity generally has negative implications for organizations. In order to try to achieve perceptions of equity and mitigate the negativity that can occur when employees perceive inequity in the workplace, such as employees lowering their work effort and performance based on their perception of low pay (Lazaroiu, 2015), organizations can develop reward systems which employees perceive as being fair and distribute rewards based on employees' perceptions of their respective value they bring to the organization (Ramlall, 2004). In order to be able to implement fair practices, systems, and rewards, it is important for managers and supervisors to

understand their employees and communicate with them effectively to glean insight into their perceptions of equity (Lazaroiu, 2015). Even with effective communication, though, employees' perceptions may not accurately reflect their value, creating challenges for organizations trying to develop adequate rewards systems (Ramlall, 2004).

Motivational Theories Summary

The topic of motivation is extremely comprehensive and is comprised of numerous theories and concepts reflecting diversity in approaches. While additional theories exist within the categories of both need theories and behavioral and cognitive process theories and additional categories of theories exist such as reinforcement theories and sociocultural theories, this review provided an overview of prevalent theories found in HRD and HRM literature pertaining to employee development and organizational behavior. The two preeminent categories of motivational theories within the field of HRM and HRD are need (or content) theories, and behavioral and cognitive process theories (Champoux, 2000). The major need theories discussed included Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory, Alderfer's ERG Theory, and Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory. The behavioral and cognitive process theories reviewed were Vroom's Expectancy Theory, Locke's Goal Theory, and Equity Theory. In addition to the overview of these theories, strategies for using them in an organizational context were provided. These foundational theories help research scholars and practitioners to understand human motivation, especially employee motivation.

Despite the prevalence of these theories, Shamir (1991) critiqued motivation research and explained the shortcomings of the fundamental motivation theories in general. Perry (2000) compared Shamir's critique to the public sector and explained why PSM does not fit within traditional motivational theories. Perry explained that the preeminent theories such as

Expectancy Theory have proven to be difficult to test, their validity has been called into question, and even assuming these technical issues are resolved, they do not effectively describe the actual behavior seen in organizations or take into account individuals' values and actions upon their perceived moral obligations.

Shamir explained that the predominant motivational theories possess an individualistic bias, and humans are construed as being "rational maximizers" meaning they leverage their personal situations psychologically to achieve the best outcomes for themselves. Alternatively, Perry discussed the importance of prosocial behaviors in organizations. According to Perry, prosocial behaviors are needed in public organizations because they foster cooperation with coworkers, employees' investment in organizations, preparation for promotion within organizations, and overall advancement of public organizations. Perry explained that the major motivational theories do not take prosocial behavior into account, and the assumption that human motivation is the result of "calculated rationalization" on the part of individuals downplays collective motivational factors such as the motivation to behave in altruistic or prosocial ways.

Furthermore, Shamir explained that motivational theories possess a bias toward "strong situations" meaning clear and specific goals are ever-present, along with abundant rewards and reward-performance contingencies. In the public sector, "strong situations" are not likely to occur because abundant rewards are not available and power distance between individuals is minimal (Perry, 2000). Perry described public organizations as being unique and "messy," referring to the fact that their goals are to serve the best-interest of the public, with full transparency to the public and under the scrutiny of the public. Public organizations are tasked with performing at high levels despite having underpaid employees (in relation to the private

sector) who are not rewarded on a performance basis (for the most part), which does not fall in line with the “strong situations” bias contained within the traditional motivation theories.

Public Service Motivation Theory

Due to public service in the United States experiencing vast criticism and overall reform in the 1970’s, Perry & Wise (1990) sought to understand employees’ motivation in the public sector and began researching the values of public service employees. Many scholars believed that a distinct public service ethos existed in public service employees, which was different than that of private sector employees (Perry & Wise, 1990). Public sector employees, more than private sector employees, value interesting work and have a stronger desire to help others and be useful to society (Frank & Lewis, 2004), and dedicated (public service) workers possess a unique public service motivation (Delgaauw & Dur, 2008). Perry and Wise’s (1990) research resulted in the development of the formal Public Service Motivation (PSM) theory, which was a motivational theory describing the unique factors which motivate public service employees in their jobs.

PSM is grounded in the notion that some individuals are predisposed to working in the public sector because they are intrinsically motivated by helping and providing service to others (Davis, 2011) and “offers a lens for viewing the nature of public sector incentives and a mechanism to evaluate public servants’ behavior...(which) suggests that some individuals are instilled with a unique public-service ethos attracting them to government service and influencing job performance” (Jacobson, 2011, p. 216). PSM was further grounded as an alternative method of employee motivation given the general absence of merit pay in the public sector at that time (Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010) and was defined as “an individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and

organizations” (Perry, 1990, p.368). PSM was further defined as “a particular form of altruism or prosocial motivation that is animated by specific dispositions and values arising from public institutions and [their] missions” (Perry, 2010, p. 682). PSM proposes that certain people are drawn to public service based on their propensity for six characteristics: attraction to policy making, commitment to public interest, civic duty, social justice, self-sacrifice, and compassion (Perry, 1996). Additional characteristics of a public service ethic include a deeper desire to make a difference, the ability to have an impact on public affairs, a sense of responsibility and integrity, and valuing intrinsic rewards as opposed to salary or job security (Mann, 2006).

Since its inception in 1990, PSM has become an increasingly popular topic of research. While the topic did not have a substantial impact on public administration research in the 1990s, its effect has increased dramatically in recent years (Ritz, Brewer, & Neumann, 2016). The theory of Public Service Motivation gained more momentum in research beginning in 2004 (Bozeman & Su, 2014); the vast majority of all peer-reviewed articles pertaining to PSM were published between 2007 and 2012 (Vandenabeele, Brewer, & Ritz, 2014). Perry and Vandenabeele (2015) acknowledged the longevity of interest in PSM and reflected that “the more than two decades of attention that scholars have given to public service motivation is noteworthy” (p. 692).

It is important to understand how PSM in employees can be utilized by organizations’ leadership, HRM, and HRD professionals to develop organizational strategies for recruitment, retention, and employee transitioning. Following a description of prevalent themes in PSM literature which include PSM’s challenges and criticism, relevant research for this study is presented under the following themes: PSM in organizational mission, strategy, and leadership;

organizational HRM and HRD strategies; effects of tenure; career plateauing; and bargaining unit and union membership status.

Challenges of Public Service Motivation

While PSM's popularity as a research topic has increased in popularity, it has also been subject to criticism and challenges because of problems with its conceptualization (Bozeman & Su, 2014). Despite the rapid growth in the number of publications on public service motivation, which has certainly been pleasing to those interested, questions remain about whether PSM can develop further into a meaningful resource for practical research (Ritz et al., 2016). The most prevalent culprits of such criticism include PSM's lack of unified definition, differentiation from other concepts, and causal relationships and problems with measurement.

Lack of Unified Definition

The lack of a unified definition is a prevalent criticism of PSM (Perry & Vandenberg, 2015), the term "service motivation" has multiple definitions leading to confusion, and the lack of a clear and consensual definition for PSM is not optimal (Bozeman & Su, 2014). Five definitions of PSM, which have been presented since its inception in 1990, are provided in Table 1 below:

Table 1

Definitions of Public Service Motivation

Definition of Public Service Motivation	Author, Year
An individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations.	Perry & Wise (1990)
The motivational force that induces individuals to perform meaningful public service.	Brewer & Selden (1998)
General altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation, or humankind.	Rainey & Steinbauer (1999)
The belief, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest or organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate.	Vandenabeele (2007)
A particular form of altruism or prosocial motivation that is animated by specific dispositions and values arising from public institutions and [their] missions.	Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise (2010)

The original definition of PSM developed by Perry and Wise (1990) was the most general, defining motivation as the predisposition to factors present in the public sector that are different from those in the private sector, and is the definition used in this study. Subsequent definitions reflected the development of PSM and became more specific, showing its roots in altruism and prosocial behaviors. While several definitions exist, the common thread is that PSM consists of motives and actions which are intended to provide for the welfare of others and shape the well-being of society (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). Although an absence of a unifying definition may be present, which can be viewed as insatiable, uncertain, or imprecise, the development of PSM definitions reflects progress and learning (Perry & Vandenabeele, 2015).

Lack of Differentiation

Related to a lack of a clear definition, another criticism of PSM is its lack of differentiation from other constructs. The inability of PSM to distinguish itself from other concepts is troublesome (Bozeman & Su, 2014). For example, Vandenabeele (2007) described PSM as a belief, a value, an attitude, and a behavior all in one. Specifically, PSM is closely connected to the concepts of altruistic and prosocial behavior, and early studies conceptualized

PSM motives as intrinsic motivation which drove altruistic behavior (Wright & Pandey, 2008). Although the lack of differentiation between the concepts of altruism, prosocial behavior, and PSM may be problematic for some, Perry and Hondeghem (2008) explained these concepts are distinct but complementary of each other.

PSM has been linked to altruism by public administration and public management scholars and economists (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008), who have researched PSM as a specification of altruism (Perry & Vandenaabeele, 2015). PSM motivates individuals to serve the public interest through altruistic intentions (Bright, 2007). Public service employees respond to a “calling” and are committed to do good for the public, possessing an ethos founded in benevolence, service to others, and the desire to positively affect their communities (Houston, 2006). Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) described PSM as “a general altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation, or humankind” (p. 23) and explained that public service employees place a higher value on self-sacrifice, responsibility, and integrity than private sector employees. Furthermore, the enjoyment and fulfillment public service employees get from benefitting society and serving those in need are motivating forces, more so than for private sector employees (Wright & Pandey, 2008). Jacobson (2011) concluded that employees’ stated motivators of “making a difference,” “serving their country,” and “helping” the economy and industry are important factors in their performance motivation. Greenspan et al. (2013) found that “helping” families and communities through education is an important motivator for community health workers in Tanzania. Finally, Frank and Lewis (2004) concluded that “having better opportunities to help others” (p. 46) is a major motivating factor for public service employees in performing their jobs.

Furthermore, the relationship between altruism and PSM remains unclear (Bozeman & Su, 2014). For example, PSM is described as “a particular form of altruism or prosocial motivation that is animated by specific dispositions and values arising from public institutions and [their] missions” (Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010, p. 682). PSM possesses a challenge in its blurry relationship with other social sciences, including the concepts of altruism and prosocial behavior (Vandenabeele, Brewer, & Ritz, 2014). Furthermore, PSM has a lack of differentiation from the concepts of “helping others” and “prosocial motives,” each of which are distinct concepts on their own merits (Bozeman & Su, 2014). Homberg and Vogel (2016) described PSM as “an individual-level, altruistic construct that emphasizes the desire to contribute to society” (p. 747).

Altruistic motives are central to the focus of PSM, resulting in acts which are predominantly motivated out of consideration of the needs of others (Piliavin & Charng, 1990), and it is difficult to dispute the view that public service employees possess altruistic motivations (Le Grand, 2003). The fact that PSM is rooted institutionally in public service and grounded in the philosophy that such employees seek to help and provide services to others, PSM by nature is a subset of altruism (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). In this regard, PSM is difficult to differentiate from altruism because the term “altruism” is generally well understood and has a universal meaning, while PSM is a more nuanced, technical term used in public administration and does not yet possess a universal meaning or understanding, therefore rendering the relationship to altruism a “stumbling block” for PSM (Bozeman & Su, 2014). Alternatively, Perry, Hondeghem, and Wise (2010) viewed research on altruism as relevant for PSM, and Perry and Hondeghem (2008) viewed the concepts as being distinct and complementary of each other.

Closely related to altruism is the concept of prosocial behavior, which is well discussed as being correlated with and being an overtone of PSM. Piatak (2017) concluded that PSM levels have a positive correlation with the prosocial behaviors of volunteering and charitable giving among graduate students. In a similar study, Clerkin, Paynter, and Taylor (2009) concluded that PSM levels of undergraduate students have a positive correlation with volunteering time and donating money to charity. Houston (2006) concluded that public employees are more likely to engage in prosocial behavior, specifically volunteering their time, making charitable contributions, and donating blood than private sector employees. For these reasons, strong interest persists for scholars and practitioners to gain more understanding of why public service employees seem to exhibit more prosocial behavior than their private sector counterparts (Esteve, Urbig, van Witteloostuijn, & Boyne, 2016).

As opposed to linking PSM to altruism, which is narrower in scope, organizational behavior scholars tend to link PSM to prosocial behavior (Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010) because it encompasses a broad spectrum of behaviors (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). Prosocial behavior in an organizational construct is defined as “behavior which is (a) performed by a member of an organization, (b) directed toward an individual group, or organization with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his or her organizational role, and (c) performed with the intention or promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organization toward which it is directed” (Brief & Motowildo, 1986, p. 711). Prosocial behavior also includes the act being voluntary and assumes no expectations of return (Piliavin & Charng, 1990; Perry et al., 2010).

Although some literature has been critical of the non-differentiation between PSM and other constructs (Bozeman & Su, 2014; Vandenabeele et al., 2014), this non-differentiation may be viewed differently. Conceptual separation between PSM and other concepts is difficult and

the resulting overlap is both unavoidable and necessary (Andersen, Jørgensen, Kjeldsen, Pedersen, & Vrangbæk, 2012). PSM may be seen as being nested in a hierarchy of other constructs. For example, PSM can be viewed as a specific expression of prosocial values or as a distinct subset of altruism in that it consists of motives which are unique to public service and transcends self-interests and organizational interests for the betterment of society.

Lack of Causal Relationships

A further challenge to PSM is its lack of knowledge pertaining to its causal relationships. Vandenabeele et al. (2014) expressed that PSM is challenged by the lack of addressed causal relationships and most of the cross-sectional survey data collected do not allow for conclusions pertaining to causality but rather provide circumstantial evidence showing potential direction of causality (Vandenabeele et al., 2014). PSM's popularity led to an abundance of quantitative studies; however, in order to reach a more comprehensive theory, it will require more qualitative research in order to identify the motives and nature of public servants: "The narratives and stories that would emerge from such research could provide a strong foundation for a richer understanding of the motives of those who serve the public" (Perry & Vandenabeele, 2015, p. 696). Additionally, within quantitative research PSM has often been used as an independent variable and is much less often examined as a dependent variable to explore the causal mechanics leading to PSM (Bozeman & Su, 2014).

Many questions regarding what factors lead to PSM still exist. For example, is PSM a genetic predisposition, or is it learned? If indeed it is learned, how is it learned? How can HRD professionals leverage knowledge about PSM within organizations? What vehicles of socialization impact PSM the most in individuals? These questions pertaining to PSM are still unanswered, and research in this regard is underdeveloped. Therefore, much more research is

needed to learn if and how PSM can be developed in people, and the immediate concern in PSM's knowledge base is the lack of qualitative data aimed at finding its causal factors (Perry & Vandenberg, 2015).

Lack of Universal Measurement Construct

The measurement of PSM is a concern identified in the literature. Perry (1996) advanced the study of PSM by developing its first measurement scale. In the original scale, Perry created a 35-item Likert-type instrument measuring the six dimensions of PSM: attraction to public-policy making, commitment to the public interest, civic duty, social justice, compassion, and self-sacrifice. Following testing and modifications, Perry (1996) formulated a 40-item scale. Eventually, Perry (1996) removed 16 items and the dimensions of civic duty and social justice, resulting in the finalized 24-item scale consisting of four dimensions: attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice (see Appendix C).

Since Perry (1996) developed the PSM measurement scale, numerous others have attempted to modify it. For example, Brewer, Selden, and Facer (2000) used Q-methodology to measure PSM, requiring participants to sort statements from Perry's (1996) PSM instrument by how strongly they agreed or disagreed with each. This study asked participants to evaluate each item comprising Perry's (1996) scale relative to the others. Afterwards, participants provided explanations about each item, indicated which they agreed or disagreed with most, and invited commentary. The researchers categorized PSM into four "conceptions": Samaritans, who were concerned about individuals; communitarians, who cared most about community interests; patriots, who prioritized the nation as a whole; and humanitarians, who prioritized humankind.

Coursey and Pandey (2007) believed that the Perry (1996) 24-item scale was too long for practical use for public administration surveys and that a truncated scale would encourage more

testing in practical settings. They removed the self-sacrifice dimension and reduced the instrument to 10 total items: Four from “attraction to policy making,” three from “commitment to public service/ civic duty,” and three from “compassion.” The researchers concluded that the validity and reliability of this shortened scale was equal or better than that of the Perry (1996) scale. Coursey and Pandey suggested that PSM researchers should remove the “self-sacrifice” dimension in testing unless they feel it is pertinent to their hypothesis or their population, such as when testing non-profit employees or volunteers. In the end, Coursey and Pandey suggested using Perry’s (1996) longer scale when the primary purpose is to study PSM, but for practical use, they recommended their shorter scale.

Kim (2009) also modified the Perry (1996) scale by truncating it. Kim kept the original four dimensions but shortened the scale to 14-items. Kim questioned whether Perry’s scale was reliable and valid in an international setting. Kim believed the “attraction to policy making” dimension needed to be modified to reflect relevancy in a worldwide context, and to be reworded to reflect positivity, rather than be worded with the provision of negative connotations. The modified scale’s “attraction to policy making” dimension consisted of three items:

- 1) I am interested in making public programs that are beneficial for my country or the community I belong to;
- 2) Sharing my views on public policies with others is attractive to me; and
- 3) Seeing people get benefits from the public program I have been deeply involved in brings me a great deal of satisfaction.

After testing this scale, Kim suggested removing one item from the “compassion” dimension and one item from the “self-sacrifice” dimension, resulting in a 12-item, positively worded scale which had more utility in an international context. Kim believed using this scale would help

solidify PSM as a theory throughout the world rather than being contextualized to American governmental settings.

Vandenabeele (2008) agreed that the utility of Perry's (1996) measurement scale was problematic in an international context. Although the original measurement scale works well in the United States, the most common measurement problems pertain to the application of the measurement scale outside of the United States (Vandenabeele, 2008). While Vandenabeele agreed with Kim (2009) regarding the need for better utility of the PSM scale internationally, he believed that extending the measurement instrument rather than truncating it would produce better results. Vandenabeele created a 47-item scale with seven dimensions: interest in policy and politics, public interest, compassion, self-sacrifice, client-orientation, equality, and bureaucratic values. Upon analysis after testing, the seven-dimension scale was reduced and modified. Two validated models were suggested: a five-dimension model consisting of politics and policies, public interest, compassion, self-sacrifice, and democratic governance, and a four-dimension model which removed the dimension of self-sacrifice. Ultimately, Vandenabeele supported the dimensions of Perry's (1996) original measurement construct but suggested that for PSM to become a universally usable theory, the measurement scale needs to provide cultural context and national neutrality.

The absence of a universal measurement instrument presents reliability concerns between studies due to contextual factors and the lack of assurance that the same concept is assessed in the same manner between studies (Vandenabeele et al., 2014), and the numerous deviations of Perry's (1996) measurement scale have created inconsistencies in measurement (Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010). While these concerns exist with Perry's original scale, limitations have not been resolved, speaking to the difficulty of creating an adequate measurement scale and

the overall sufficiency of the original scale (Perry & Vandenberg, 2015). Furthermore, while in general measurement is good, PSM's fixation on measurement may have slowed the progress toward finding its causes and consequences (Vandenberg et al., 2014). Perry and Vandenberg (2015) also discussed the challenge of measurement and believed PSM research has devoted too much time to measurement with not enough to show for the expended effort. Although recognizing the challenges that a lack of a universal measurement tool creates for academic research and practical utilization, the most common measurement scale utilized is still Perry's original 24-item scale (Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010). Although PSM research continues to work toward a universally accepted and usable measurement tool (Brewer, 2000; Coursey & Pandey, 2007; Kim, 2009; Vandenberg, 2008) Perry's (1996) scale used in its entirety or in portions has endured as the predominant instrument used to measure PSM (Belle, 2013; Brewer et al., 2000; Bright, 2007, 2011; Christensen & Wright, 2011; Jacobson, 2011; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Naff & Crum, 1999; Wright, 2003; Wright & Pandey, 2008).

While it is evident that PSM suffers adequate skepticism and criticism as it strives for credibility, what cannot be denied is the interest it has generated, demonstrated through the proliferation of research. The popularity and interest in PSM can be attributed to theorists and behavioral researchers' attraction to PSM's altruistic roots, which can foster prosocial behavior; managers in public organizations who seek ways to motivate their employees; the connection PSM fosters between public organizations and their core values; and the developments in PSM research methods which have shown to exemplify good practice, thus bolstering PSM's appeal (Vandenberg et al., 2014). While PSM may have palpable momentum, researchers must work towards rectifying its shortcomings, including its lack of unifying definition, its lack of differentiation between other concepts such as altruism and prosocial behavior, its need for

causal relationships, and its need for a unifying measurement construct. While criticism and skeptics are ever-present regarding all theories and ideas and the possibility of PSM availing itself of all scrutiny is not realistic, successfully clarifying the concerns discussed in the literature will provide more credibility in the academic community and justify its usability in practice.

PSM Utilization in Organizational Leadership and Mission Strategies

Although PSM's shortcomings and criticisms are well articulated in the literature (Bozeman & Su, 2014; Coursey & Pandey, 2007; Kim, 2009; Perry & Vandenabeele, 2015; Vandenabeele, 2008; Vandenabeele et al., 2014), its utilization in organizations has also been a topic of research. Peer-reviewed literature pertaining to organizational utilization reflects ways in which PSM can be incorporated into organizational leadership approaches, missions, and strategies.

Integrating PSM into Leadership Approaches

The overwhelming majority of literature pertaining to PSM's relationship to leadership targets the concept of transformational leadership. Northouse (2013) described transformational leaders as "change agents who are good role models, who can create and articulate a clear vision for an organization, who empower followers to meet higher standards, who act in ways that make others want to trust them, and who give meaning to organizational life" (p. 214). Transformational leadership is premised on the provision of charisma from the leader, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Fazzi & Zamaro, 2016).

Transformational leaders possess higher levels of PSM than leaders who utilize a transactional style (Fazzi & Zamaro, 2016), and transformational leadership can promote autonomy, efficaciousness, and connections with others, which can increase PSM in followers

(Jensen & Bro, 2018). Organizational factors can influence PSM, and leaders who provide a vision, set a positive example, encourage innovation, and foster a sense of organizational pride can promote PSM (Pandey, Wright, & Moynihan, 2012). A facet of transformational leadership is promoting organizational values, and a positive correlation exists between promoting public service values and the development of PSM in employees (Vandenabeele, 2014).

Examining PSM's effects from an alternate perspective, Belle (2014) found that PSM levels of employees significantly moderate the performance effects of transformational leadership. Furthermore, Park and Rainey (2008) discovered that among 7,000 federal employees, the combination of high levels of PSM in employees and the utilization of transformational leadership techniques had a strong positive correlation with positive organizational outcomes. Even more recently, Im, Campbell, and Jeong (2016) concluded that the relationship between PSM and organizational commitment is moderated by the use of transformational leadership, and the exertion of transformational leadership and PSM principles can foster higher performance levels in individuals and organizations (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010), which can be especially effective in areas of public service where employees identify greatly with constituents they serve (Kroll & Vogel, 2014).

Based on the importance of organizational mission and outcomes in the public sector, the use of transformational leadership may be particularly useful in organizations which possess strong service and community-based missions (Pandey et al., 2012). Transformational leadership can exude PSM in employees in situations where the jobs involve teamwork but may lessen PSM in jobs where employees are isolated and disconnected from the public (Fazzi & Zamaro, 2016).

Linked to transformational leadership is entrepreneurial leadership because it enhances employee innovation by creating entrepreneurial vision through fostering autonomy and self-

efficacy (Bagheri & Akbari, 2018). Miao, Newman, Schwartz, and Cooper (2018) described entrepreneurial leadership as motivating and directing subordinates through initiatives and opportunities that evoke entrepreneurial and innovative spirit and discuss the PSM relationship with entrepreneurial leadership. While the concepts of creativity and innovation may seem contradictory to public organizations, Miao et al. (2018) explained that providing a platform for employees to have autonomy and creative liberty in their jobs fosters PSM and concluded that entrepreneurial leadership is positively associated with psychological empowerment, mediating the relationship between entrepreneurial leadership and innovative behavior. Thus, PSM has a positive influence on employee innovation.

Incorporating PSM into the Organizational Mission

Organizational mission refers to the purpose of the organization, its goals, and its general social contribution (Rainey, 1999), and managers should view their organizational mission as a motivational tool that can link employee performance to employee self-concept (Weiss, 1996). In alignment with and through the leadership approaches discussed in the literature, PSM can be integrated into the respective missions of organizations. Leaders' articulating an organizational mission that clearly reflects individual prosocial values fosters alignment between employee values and the organization's ideology (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010). The organizational mission can be set forth through transformational leadership (Pandey et al., 2012) and can be a motivational tool for employees because their job tasks coincide with their own self-concept, validating their work by showing them that their work benefits their constituents (Wright, 2007). PSM can be fostered in employees by setting forth the mission and providing communication channels between employees and the beneficiaries of the mission, thus showing employees how their work directly benefits their constituents and the organizational mission (Christensen et al.,

2017). Pandey et al. (2012) explained that employees' mission valence can be increased through the transformational leadership quality of communication, specifically pertaining to goal clarity, and that an organization's mission can only inspire people who clearly understand the mission and its importance. Christensen et al. (2017) echoed these sentiments and believed that clearly articulating and communicating the organizational mission promotes enhanced PSM. To assure organizational mission and employee values are aligned, employees should participate interactively in developing the mission, which can foster PSM in employees (Rainey, 1999). This approach would also provide the platform for employees to use creativity and innovation in accordance with Miao et al. (2017) and would satisfy many components of transformational leadership, such as promoting autonomy, efficaciousness, and connections with others, all of which have positive effects on PSM.

Once the organizational mission is developed, Pandey et al. (2012) explained that employees' mission valence can be increased through the transformational leadership quality of communication, specifically pertaining to goal clarity. Rainey (1999) explained that organizations can attract employees to work for them and motivate them to perform well by instilling engaging and worthwhile missions. In regard to the importance of communicating the mission, Pandey et al. (2012) stated that employees must be made aware of the mission and understand its importance before it can be valued and used for inspiration. Christensen et al. (2017) echoed these sentiments and believe that clearly articulating and communicating the organizational mission promotes enhanced PSM.

Incorporating PSM into Organizational Strategies through HRM and HRD

Harnessing PSM in employees can magnify the effectiveness of human resource practices (Perry & Vandenberg, 2015). Several strategies are discussed in the literature for integrating

PSM into organizations through human resources management (HRM) and human resource development (HRD) initiatives, which will promote and foster PSM. From an HRM perspective, these initiatives include the attraction, recruitment and selection of employees, nurturing PSM in employees, and retention of employees. From an HRD perspective, these initiatives encompass the training and development of employees, supervisors, and managers pertaining to the stated HRD practices and the development of leaders.

Attraction, Recruitment, and Selection of Employees

PSM is important to the process of attracting and selecting employees (Perry et al., 2010), and attracting and selecting employees with high PSM enhances both employee performance and organizational mission and accomplishment by harnessing desirable employee qualities and placing employees in an environment in which they are motivated to perform well (Christensen et al., 2017). Mann (2006) discussed ways in which PSM factors can shape the HRM responsibility of recruiting and selecting employees and stated that because employee motivation is important in determining the performance of that organization, the functions of recruitment and selection play a critical role in determining organizational success or failure. Furthermore, if HR managers seek employees who are highly qualified and committed, they should utilize PSM as a guide (Mann, 2006).

Prioritizing the selection of high PSM employees, projecting organizational images which attract high PSM employees, and screening job candidates for PSM levels can lead to bringing employees into the organization who have high PSM (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). Because individuals with high PSM levels are already motivated to serve a public mission, organizations can attract employees with high PSM levels through public advertisement and marketing (Beck-Jorgensen & Rutgers, 2014; Waldner, 2012). Furthermore, in job

advertisements, organizations can market their specific missions to solicit applicants who high PSM levels (Christensen et al., 2017). Beyond portraying organizational images through marketing and job advertisements which cultivate interest from job applicants and candidates who possess high PSM, organizations can screen applicants for PSM to focus their efforts on attracting candidates who are motivated to serve their public mission and screen out individuals who may have other, non-desirable motivations (Christensen et al., 2017). In addition to pre-screening for PSM levels in individuals, organizations should utilize the face-to-face interview process to ask questions which gauge PSM in candidates (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010).

In addition to using marketing strategies to cultivate interest from potential job applicants and candidates who possess high levels of PSM, organizations can utilize the HRM practices of pre-screening and the interview process to focus their efforts on attracting and selecting individuals with high PSM, thus utilizing PSM as a guide for their decision making in recruiting and selection. Such efforts are strategies worth considering, as research has shown that individuals showing high levels of PSM seek public sector jobs, perform better, and stay in public sector jobs, thus shedding light on the value of hiring the right candidates for such positions (Mann, 2006).

Retention of Employees

Beyond recruitment and selection, utilizing PSM principles in both HRM's as well as HRD's functions of retaining employees is discussed throughout the literature. Specifically, these principles are brought forth through the lenses of nurturing PSM in employees and the utilization of three HRM approaches: high performance approach, high commitment approach, and high involvement approach.

Nurturing PSM. Once employees are selected, socialization in the organization plays a major role in nurturing their PSM (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010), and managers can foster the motivational power of working in public service by nurturing PSM in their employees (Wright, 2007). Employees' desire to serve the public can be achieved through strategic HRM strategies including effective job design, rewards, and performance feedback (Gould-Williams, 2016). Specific to job design, organizations should strategically incorporate initiatives which foster creative thought and innovation and promote autonomy for employees to carry out their innovations (Miao et al., 2017). Designing work to foster relationships between employees and the customers they serve, providing new employees' opportunities to learn public service values through such initiatives as onboarding programs and mentorship programs is an organizational strategy which can foster PSM in employees (Christensen et al., 2017). By strategically aligning employee values and the organizational ideology, employee commitment and PSM levels in employees will be positively affected (Paarlberg & Lavigna; Wright, 2007). Furthermore, creating a supportive working environment is a strategy which can be used to nurture PSM by intentionally linking organizational and individual goals and getting rid of practices and initiatives which do not nurture PSM, such as pay for performance incentives which are more aligned with extrinsic motivation as opposed to PSM's characteristic of intrinsic motivation (Christensen et al., 2017).

Organizations can also utilize HRD to initiate and continue the socialization process by training employees on the organizational mission, values, goals, norms, and objectives, and articulating the employees' roles in achieving the organizational goals and mission (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010). HRD can also be utilized to nurture PSM by developing leaders in the organization who communicate and model public service (Christensen et al., 2017). Furthermore,

leaders should be trained to act entrepreneurially and to value entrepreneurial spirit and innovation in their subordinates (Miao et al., 2017).

High performance approach. The high performance approach uses interconnected HR practices to collectively enhance employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities, creating high-performing employees with the intent of creating competitive advantage for the organization (Gould-Williams, 2016). Such HRM and HRD practices focus on targeted selection of employees for specific objectives, training them, and motivating them through using rewards, recognition, and feedback (Gould-Williams, 2016). Employees are likely to respond with positive attitudes and affective commitment when they perceive that their organization is committed to them (Mostafa, Gould-Williams, & Bottomley, 2015). When employees feel supported by their organization, they feel more committed to work harder, thus affecting the PSM constructs of employees' sense of responsibility toward their work and desire to make a difference. However, the high performance approach can have negative effects on PSM if employees perceive they are merely being used as "resources" for the organizations' competitive advantage (Gould-Williams, 2016). If the high performance approach is utilized in HRM and HRD practices, it is important for organizations to ensure employees feel valued, rewarded, and involved in the initiatives they are selected for and in the way their jobs are designed and in the manner their performance is evaluated (Gould-Williams, 2016).

High commitment approach. The high commitment approach to HRM and HRD emphasizes the concern for the well-being of individual employees, and such approaches pursue increased commitment to the organization by employees through mutually beneficial exchanges between the organization and its employees (Gould-Williams, 2016). These approaches value employees, provide for employee empowerment, involve employees in decision-making

regarding their own job-design and training, and invest in the future of their employees (Gould-Williams, 2016). High commitment approaches are a display of the PSM value of intrinsic rewards and value, and the consideration of intrinsic rewards such as making employees feel important through HRM practices should not be overlooked by organizations seeking to retain employees (Mann, 2006).

High involvement approach. The high involvement approach is another employee-focused approach, intended to foster teamwork, upward communication, feedback, training and development programs, employee recognition programs, and employee involvement in decision-making processes (Gould-Williams, 2016) and provides opportunities for employees to have high levels of autonomy in their jobs. Utilization of the high involvement approach brings forth several values of PSM such as autonomy, which will lead to greater public service delivery; teamwork, which demonstrates to employees their value to the overall mission of their public service, and desired intrinsic rewards. Intrinsic HRM and HRD practices such as job enrichment, participation, self-appraisal, autonomy, teamwork, and professional development have reflected positive effects on PSM (Homberg & Vogel, 2016). Use of high involvement approaches in organizational HRM and HRD practices in organizations, which are rich in PSM constructs, should raise levels of PSM in employees (Gould-Williams, 2016).

Organizational Tenure's Effect on PSM

One of the most difficult challenges contributing to employee motivation in public service is the aging workforce, an older workforce than in the private sector (Lavigna, 2014). Because employees in the public sector getting older, the role of HRD is critical. The use of strategic and creative employee development strategies geared toward the aging workforce are required to maximize employee engagement and productivity. As human resource management

(HRM) professionals develop strategic transition strategies for their aging workforce, it is important for them to work with HRD professionals regarding employee transition training and workforce development through the recruitment of highly motivated employees to replace retiring employees (Lavigna, 2014). While there are several ways to study motivational factors in an aging workforce, organizational tenure in public service organizations is a concept worthy of further examination, specifically through the lens of PSM.

Research pertaining specifically to relationships between PSM and employees' tenure in a city or local government organization in the United States was limited to one study (French & Emerson, 2014). The authors concluded that administrative employees had the highest PSM levels, that no significant differences existed in PSM levels between managerial and non-managerial employees, and that PSM was positively correlated with organizational tenure. Because of the lack of literature specifically pertaining this study, public sector employees overall were taken into consideration, along with literature pertaining to local government employees outside the United States. Even when examining all public sector employees, literature pertaining to PSM and employees' tenure in an organization was limited. Moynihan and Pandey (2007) found that among state health and human services managers across the United States, a significant negative relationship existed between PSM and organizational tenure. Kim (2018), however, examined municipal employees in South Korea and found no significant relationship between PSM and organizational tenure. When studying public health employees in Denmark, Jensen and Vestergaard (2017) concluded that the PSM facets of self-sacrifice and compassion increased with tenure; however, neither the PSM facets of attraction to policymaking nor commitment to public interest were affected by tenure.

Because the literature was so limited pertaining to PSM and organizational tenure, PSM's effect on age was considered, which may offer insights into the concept of tenure (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007). In this regard, Vandenabeele (2011) concluded that age significantly influenced PSM, as older employees reflected higher levels of PSM than younger employees. In contrast, Einolf (2016) concluded that no significant differences existed between Millennials and Generation X students regarding their levels of PSM. Furthermore, although not specific to organizational tenure, Ward (2013) measured PSM levels of AmeriCorps participants over a seven-year period following their participation in the program. Results indicated that seven years after participation in AmeriCorps, participants showed higher levels of the PSM facets of commitment to public interest and civic awareness than non-participants, and the PSM facet of attraction to policy making declined over time. Overall, Ward's (2013) study concluded that PSM levels remained higher after seven years for AmeriCorps participants than non-participants, but PSM diminished over time for both AmeriCorps participants and non-participants.

In examining literature on how organizational tenure or related topics affect PSM levels in employees, the limited body of literature is inconclusive. Two studies indicated a positive relationship (French & Emerson, 2015; Vandenabeele, 2011), one study reflected a negative relationship (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007), two studies reflected an insignificant relationship (Einolf, 2016; Kim, 2018), and two studies reflected mixed findings regarding specific facets of PSM (Jensen & Vestergaard, 2017; Ward, 2013). The most similar related study (French & Emerson, 2014) reflected a positive relationship between PSM and tenure among municipal employees in Mississippi. Overall, however, the limited numbers of studies on the relationship between PSM and organizational tenure and related topics shows inconclusive findings.

Implications of Career Plateauing on HRM and HRD

While this study sought to find out how PSM is affected by organizational tenure in a public service organization, an important aspect which may affect motivation over time is career plateauing. Career plateauing is defined as “the point in a career where the likelihood of additional hierarchical promotion is very low” (FERENCE, Stoner, & Warren, 1977). There are several types of career plateauing which exist including structural, job content, organizational, personal, objective, and subjective plateauing. Older employees are much more likely to be subject to career plateauing than younger employees (Allen, Poteet, & Russell, 1998; Ettington, 1998; Tremblay & Roger, 1993), and the self-perception of career plateauing increases with age (Lemire, Saba, & Gagnon, 1999).

Two distinctions in the concept of career plateauing are structural plateauing and job content plateauing (Allen, Russell, Poteet, & Dobbins, 1999). Structural plateauing, also referred to as hierarchical plateauing or organizational plateauing, occurs when an individual reaches a point in an organization where hierarchical progression will likely not occur. This type of plateauing is very different from job content plateauing, where an individual reaches a point in their job where they are no longer challenged by work tasks or responsibilities, which can occur after three to five years (Montgomery, 2002). Furthermore, personal plateauing is similar to the Peter Principle, and occurs when an individual’s skills and abilities do not match a logical progression in his or her career path. Similar to the Peter Principle, personal plateauing refers to an individual’s reaching his or her maximum potential in a career path (FERENCE et al., 1977).

Lastly, a distinction is made between objective and subjective plateauing (Tremblay, Roger, & Toulouse, 1995). Objective plateauing is largely based on an individual’s salary or seniority in an organization. Conversely, subjective plateauing refers to an individual’s own

disposition regarding the probability of progressing in an organization. Researchers who have studied subjective plateauing (Drucker-Goddard, Fourque, Gollety, & Le Flanchec, 2015; Gattiker & Larwood, 1990) have distinguished between actual and perceived barriers to career progression and their importance and effects both for individuals and organizations.

Career plateauing can have various effects on individuals and organizations, both positive and negative (Chay, Aryee, & Chew, 1995; Drucker-Goddard et al., 2015; Lapalme, Tremblay, & Simard, 2009; Montgomery, 2002; Salami, 2010). For organizations, knowledge of career plateauing can lead to creative reward strategies for employees such as challenging employees and providing autonomy (Montgomery, 2002) or providing mentoring opportunities for employees (Salami, 2010) which may increase job satisfaction and motivation of plateaued employees. The effects of career plateauing should be understood by employers (Salami, 2010), and target older employees with HRM practices (Armstrong-Stassen, 2008). From the HRD perspective, career plateauing can lead to creative training and development strategies for employees in an organization (Montgomery, 2002). Such strategies may include continuous individualized training initiatives, training on career planning and management, and career development initiatives to facilitate knowledge, skills, and individual growth (Lemire et al., 1999).

It is important to note that no literature existed specific to PSM and career plateauing, nor was there any contemporary literature available pertaining to career plateauing and the United States public sector. Wolf (1983) discussed career plateauing in regard to the baby boom and employment bust in the United States; Lemire et al. (1999) discussed career plateauing in the Quebec public sector; and Drucker-Godard et al. (2015) explored career plateauing among scholars in French universities and found that career plateauing negatively impacts job

satisfaction and job commitment. While a lack of literature existed with regard to this specific research topic and population, the concepts and strategies discussed may be considered for applicability in a United States city government organization.

HRM Strategies for Career Plateauing

Organizations should understand the effects of career plateauing (Salami, 2010) and target HR practices at older employees (Armstrong-Stassen, 2008). HRM in organizations can facilitate strategies which manage the reality of career plateauing through various strategies. One such strategy is adjusting job scope to provide employees more autonomy in decision making in their jobs. In the public sector, several ways exist in which organizations can reduce negative effects of plateauing, including allowing employees to negotiate the scope of their respective jobs, involving them in decisions, and allowing their participation in making decisions which may be outside the normal scope of their jobs (Wolf, 1983). On a more contemporary note, Tremblay and Roger (2004) concluded that allowing Canadian managers to have more participation in organizational decision making acted as a moderator of career plateauing for those who had longer job tenure or felt they had plateaued.

In addition to providing ways to increase autonomy and participation in decision-making, another strategy is adjusting job scope to create more challenging opportunities for employees who are content plateaued and encouraging plateaued employees to set new goals and to take on different tasks (Montgomery, 2002). Specific to older employees who are content plateaued, it is critical for jobs to be structured in ways which provide high self-efficacy and challenges, and the opportunity to learn new things and gain new meaningful experiences (Armstrong-Stassen, 2008). Chay, Aryee, and Chew (1995) concluded that job challenges effectively moderated career plateauing among managerial and professional employees in Singapore. Similarly in

Canada, Tremblay and Roger (2004) concluded that when Canadian managers' job scopes were changed to present more challenges, their job satisfaction increased, which reduced the negative effects of plateauing. Through adjusting job scope to provide more autonomy, decision-making authority, and more challenging opportunities, HRM can facilitate strategies which reduce the negative effects of career plateauing.

HRD Strategies for Career Plateauing

From the HRD perspective, career plateauing can provide opportunities for HRD to develop and deliver creative training and development strategies to enrich employees' job satisfaction despite being plateaued (Montgomery, 2002). Such strategies may include continuous individualized training initiatives, training on career planning and management, and career development initiatives to facilitate knowledge, skills, and individual growth (Lemire et al., 1999). In particular, older employees should be provided access to training and learning opportunities, and managers should be trained on issues related to the aging workforce, age stereotyping, and their role in facilitating a workplace which is supportive of older employees (Armstrong-Stassen, 2008). Furthermore, employees should be trained on the prevalence and implications of career plateauing and encouraged to pursue personal growth and education, and supervisors should be trained on ways to promote such pursuits (Tan & Salome, 1994). Choy and Savery (1998) discussed ways in which training efforts help avoid the negative attitudes associated with plateauing. Trainers are critical to organizations, and particularly these efforts because they must have positive attitudes in order to facilitate positive attitudes from the trainees regarding the organization (Choy & Savery, 1998). Furthermore, it is important for *all* employees in an organization to receive training in order to facilitate their knowledge, growth, and exposure to new things and provide opportunities to move into new positions both vertically

and horizontally in the organization, thus mediating the negative attitudes associated with career plateauing (Choy & Savery, 1998). Lastly, training is important to allow for job satisfaction despite being plateaued, and such training can entail topics on career transitioning, self-reflection and analysis, communication skills, relationship management, and the importance of continuous learning (Montgomery, 2002).

In addition to formal training, mentoring is a strategy HRD can utilize to combat the negative effects of plateauing. An effective way to increase job satisfaction and moderating the negative effects of career plateauing is providing opportunities for tenured employees to mentor junior employees (Montgomery, 2002). Furthermore, allowing plateaued workers to mentor less tenured employees may enrich job satisfaction and provide a platform to discover or to develop a talent for teaching, possibly leading to other career opportunities (Tan & Salomone, 1994). More recently, Salami (2010) conducted a study with Nigerian employees and concluded that senior employees' mentorship of less tenured employees effectively moderated the negative relationships between career plateauing and work attitudes.

Rationale for Bargaining Unit Employees to Join Unions

Jones and McKenna's (1994) utility of union membership theory provides context to the concept of employees' union membership choice. They provided a utilitarian framework explaining that union membership is behavioral, and employees in bargaining unit positions make individual choices regarding whether to join their union when its perceived value outweighs the value of not paying union dues. Bargaining unit employees' trade off payment or non-payment of union dues against the perceived benefits that being a union member provides. The payment of union membership dues acts as an insurance premium providing the perceived benefits sought by employees, such as job security (Jones & McKenna, 1994). The value is based

on each employee's perception that union membership will protect their job stability which is marginalized against the cost savings of non-membership. This rationalization provides the foundation for membership decisions of employees, cementing behavioral mechanism for the dynamics of union membership (Chang, Lai, & Chang, 1998).

Jones and McKenna's theory was developed in 1994 when the payment of agency fees by all bargaining unit employees was mandatory, meaning the choice of whether to join the union was vastly different from today. Prior to the U.S. Supreme Court's decision on June 27, 2018, referred to as the *Janus* decision, employees in bargaining unit positions could only choose between paying full membership dues or agency fees, which in most cases only equated to a few dollars per paycheck. Considering *Janus*, public sector employees now have the choice of paying full membership dues or no membership dues. In viewing the union membership decision through the lens of the utilitarian framework provided by Jones and McKenna (1994), it will be interesting to see how bargaining unit employees value union membership now and into the future, which can shape how HRD professionals develop training and development initiatives geared towards maximizing recruitment, retention, and career transitions.

PSM Effects on Bargaining Unit Status and Union Membership

Strong unionization presents a major challenge to motivating employees in the public sector (Lavigna, 2014). Across the United States, more than 34% of public sector employees are in bargaining unit positions, which is five times higher than in the private sector (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018). Due to these employees having better healthcare benefits, working hours, holiday and leave incentives, and pension plans than those in the private sector, they receive greater total compensation than employees in the private sector in addition to the job protection afforded by unions, and developing creative ways to motivate unionized public employees is of

increased concern (Carrigan, 2011). In order to facilitate motivational initiatives, management in public sector organizations must form strong working relationships with unions (Carrigan, 2011; Lavigna, 2014). Examples of ways public sector employees in bargaining units can be motivated is through various forms of rewards and punishment for performance, instilling competition among employees, establishing clear and attainable goals for employees, and utilizing performance evaluations as a basis for pay increases (Carrigan, 2011).

Furthermore, on June 27, 2018, one of the most impactful labor rulings over the past 40 years was levied by the United States Supreme Court. In *Janus v. American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees (AFSCME)*, the First Amendment rights of employees were affirmed, and agency fees in the public sector were abolished. This ruling presents several new challenges in the relationship dynamics between unions and employees because employees in bargaining unit positions can choose to not pay agency fees, thus placing a financial burden on unions and forcing them to work harder to prove their value to bargaining unit employees (Semuels, 2018). With the *Janus* ruling's being so recent, no studies have been published in its wake pertaining to the effects of bargaining unit status or union membership status on employee motivation or on how bargaining unit status or union membership status affect PSM.

No studies have explored how bargaining unit status affects employee PSM levels, and only two studies have examined how employee PSM levels are affected by union membership status. Davis (2011) conducted a mixed-methods study with blue-collar municipal employees in the Midwestern United States to find out how union membership influences PSM. The results of this study indicated that union socialization has a strong positive effect on the PSM facets of self-sacrifice and commitment to the public interest. This study, however, found a moderate negative relationship between the PSM facet of compassion and PSM, and found no relationship between

attraction to policy making and PSM. Although not specific to union membership status, Davis (2013) used PSM as a vehicle to examine the indirect relationship between union commitment and employees' job satisfaction. The results showed that employees with higher commitment to the union had higher PSM, and employees with higher PSM had higher job satisfaction.

Chapter 2 Summary

Chapter 2 provided a review of relevant literature and information related to PSM beginning with an overview of motivational theories. Specific PSM topics reviewed included its meaning, history, and popularity to provide context to this study. Several challenges of PSM were addressed including its lack of a unified definition, lack of differentiation from other concepts, lack of causal relationships, and lack of a universal measuring construct. PSM's utilization in organizational leadership and mission strategies were also reviewed, including how PSM can be integrated into leadership approaches and the organizational mission.

Ways in which PSM can be incorporated into organizational strategies through HRM and HRD were brought forth, which included the attraction, recruitment, and selection of employees, and the retention of employees. Organization tenure's effect on PSM was examined through relevant studies pertaining to such, in addition to the implications of career plateauing, which included strategies for both HRM and HRD to consider. Lastly, the rationale of bargaining unit employees to become union members was discussed in addition to the effects of PSM on bargaining unit status and union membership status.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative survey study of local government employees in a city in New Mexico was to examine the effects of time spent working in an organization, bargaining unit status, and union membership on the PSM levels of employees. In its most practical sense, this study sought to find out whether differences in PSM levels existed based on time spent in an organization and to examine how organizational tenure affects PSM levels of employees. Length of organizational tenure was separated into four periods comprising employees who have worked for the organization for 0 through 4 years, 5 through 9 years, 10 through 14 years, and 15 or more years. In addition, this study sought to find out how bargaining unit status and union membership status affect PSM levels of employees. Specifically, this study sought to find out whether differences in employees' PSM levels exist based on whether they are in bargaining unit positions. For employees in bargaining unit positions, this study explored whether differences in PSM levels existed depending on whether bargaining unit employees are union members or not. Lastly, this study sought to find out whether relationships exist between organizational tenure and bargaining unit status as well as tenure and union membership status regarding PSM levels of employees. This study's results will provide insight into motivational factors of public service employees, thus informing the field of HRD about guiding the training and development needs of public service organizations to provide the best services to citizens.

Research Questions

For local government employees of a city in New Mexico, this study sought to find out if time spent working in that organization, bargaining unit status, or union membership status affect employee PSM levels. The independent variables of this study included employees' tenure within a city government organization in New Mexico, categorized into four groups.

Additionally, independent variables included the bargaining unit status of employees, referring to whether an employee's job is within a bargaining unit or not. The last independent variable was union membership status, referring to bargaining unit employees' choice to be a dues paying member of their union or not. The dependent variable in this study was employees' PSM level.

The study was guided by six hypotheses as follows:

Hypothesis 1

H₀₁: Time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico does not affect employees' PSM levels.

H₁: Time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico significantly affects employees' PSM levels.

Hypothesis 2

H₀₂: Bargaining unit status does not affect PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.

H₂: Bargaining unit status has a significant effect on the PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.

Hypothesis 3

H₀₃: No relationship exists between employees' organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and bargaining unit status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

H₃: A significant relationship exists between employees' organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and bargaining unit status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

Hypothesis 4

H₀₄: For employees in a bargaining unit, time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico does not affect PSM levels.

H₄: For employees in a bargaining unit, time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico significantly affects PSM levels.

Hypothesis 5

H₀₅: For employees in a bargaining unit, union membership status does not affect PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.

H₅: For employees in a bargaining unit, union membership status significantly affects the PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.

Hypothesis 6

H₀₆: For employees in a bargaining unit, no relationship exists between organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and union membership status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

H₆: For employees in a bargaining unit, a significant relationship exists between organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and union membership status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

Research Design

The theoretical perspective of this study was postpositivism because the purpose for collecting the data was to seek factors influencing outcomes and knowledge development was based on observation and measurement of an objective reality. Additionally, the reductionistic aspect of this study, being that its intent was to reduce ideas into a discrete set (organizational

tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status) to test, comprising the research questions and hypotheses, reflected a postpositivist perspective (Creswell, 2014).

This study used a quantitative survey design, and the results were cross-sectional. A quantitative survey design was appropriate because this study sought to generate numerical data that could be used for conversion into functional statistics. The production of numerical data which produced statistical results, the internet being used to distribute and respond to the validated survey instrument asking closed-ended questions with quantifiable answers, and the results being documented using objective language are attributes of a quantitative design (Creswell, 2014). A survey was the preferred data collection vehicle because of its ease of use, ease of distribution, and the ability to collect data quickly and efficiently. A Likert-type survey was used for participants to respond to, which had been used in other quantitative studies exploring the relationships between PSM and tenure (French & Emerson, 2014; Jensen & Vestergaard, 2017; Kim, 2018; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007), and PSM and union membership status (Davis, 2011; Davis, 2013). Analysis of the numerical results displayed variances between groups and showed how the various groupings compare to each other with the intent of generalizability to other similar populations.

Setting and Selection of Subjects

The setting for this study was a city government organization in New Mexico consisting of nearly 700 career (non-temporary, non-seasonal) employees comprising 14 departments which provide local government services to its citizens. The organization's policy decisions are directed by six publicly elected city councilors who represent six districts and serve four-year terms. An elected mayor and judge also serve four-year terms. City departments include City Administration, City Attorney's Office, City Clerk's Office, Development Services (land

development), Financial Services, Fire and Rescue Department, Human Resources, Information Technology, Library Services, Municipal Court, Parks and Recreation, Police Department, Public Works, and Utilities Department. This setting was chosen because the study sought to study local government employees, and the organization's city manager was willing and enthusiastic about allowing the organization's employees to be used as the study's population.

Although the organization consists of nearly 700 career employees, not all of them were selected for participation. Public safety employees including police, 911 communications, fire and rescue employees, and municipal court employees were not included in this study because public safety employees have unique motivational factors as compared with other public employees (French & Emerson, 2014; Swiatkowski, 2015).

Using total population sampling, this study's population consisted of all 304 employees which comprise 11 city departments, including City Administration, City Attorney, City Clerk, Development Services, Financial Services, Human Resources, Information Technology, Library Services, Parks and Recreation, Public Works, and Utilities. All 304 employees within the population were asked to participate. The study sought to find out if differences in PSM levels existed based on organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status.

Insider Research

The population used was the researcher's employer, which presented ethical dilemmas and challenges to be accounted for and addressed. These challenges include assurances of anonymity, power (Floyd & Arthur, 2010, 2012; Hull, 2017; Trowler, 2011), bias, maintaining boundaries (Floyd & Arthur, 2010), fear (Mercer, 2007), maintaining objectivity and avoiding potential conflicts of interest (Hull, 2017), managing multiple roles (Floyd & Arthur, 2012; Mercer, 2007), managing incidental data (Mercer, 2007), managing insider knowledge, and

managing ongoing professional relationships after the study has concluded (Floyd & Arthur, 2012).

One of the biggest challenges in conducting insider research is assuring anonymity (Floyd & Arthur, 2010, 2012; Hull, 2017; Trowler, 2011). Assurances of anonymity were given in emails soliciting participation as well as during in-person meetings. In email solicitations, employees were assured that the researcher would not inherently know who participated in the online survey, nor would the researcher publish any personal information if given. During in-person meetings, the researcher informed participants that their responses would be kept confidential, and no personal information would be published. In addition, employees were informed that they could provide consent by simply checking a box or providing their initials if they wished rather than providing their signature or initials. For in-person surveys, after discussing the project with employees and answering their questions, the researcher left the room to promote and uphold confidentiality as much as possible. Responses were brought to the researcher afterward by a supervisor or union representative who were given explicit instructions regarding the importance of non-bias and confidentiality, and that their role was only to ensure all paper surveys were to be placed in an envelope and given directly to the researcher.

Power, another ethical consideration to be aware of when conducting insider research (Floyd & Arthur, 2012; Hull, 2017; Trowler, 2011), can lead to fear by participants (Mercer, 2007). In this study, the researcher held a position of power in the organization, so it was paramount to minimize fear by informing and continuously reminding employees that the survey was purely voluntary, that no repercussions existed for not participating or for answering questions honestly, and that the city did not tolerate retaliation in any manner. Along with accounting for power differential, bias (Floyd & Arthur, 2010) and maintaining objectivity (Hull,

2017) are additional challenges to account for in insider research. While the data was quantitative and did not elicit bias in regard to interpreting responses, the researcher made it a point when meeting with city officials, the union president and employees that no preconceived notions existed in regard to the outcome. The study had no hypothesis in regard to whether organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, or union membership status affected employees' PSM levels in efforts to reinforce the overarching presence of objectivity throughout the research study.

Other moral and ethical challenges present in insider research include maintaining boundaries (Floyd & Arthur, 2010), managing multiple roles (Floyd & Arthur, 2012; Mercer, 2007), and avoiding potential conflicts of interest (Hull, 2017). Given the researcher's leadership role in the organization, it was important to be overt about maintaining boundaries and managing multiple roles in order to avoid conflicts of interest. The researcher sent communication to employees only outside of business hours and made a point to inform participants during in-person meetings that he was here as a student-researcher rather than as an employee of the organization. Although every attempt was made to maintain boundaries between work and student research, on numerous occasions employees asked the researcher questions during worktime about the study while data was being collected and shortly afterward. In this regard, the researcher managed the reality of performing multiple, overlapping roles in a transparent manner, but tried to separate the roles to the fullest extent possible. An example of this occurred when the researcher received correspondence from participants about the research project during worktime. The researcher made it a point to respond outside of work hours. If it was not possible to reach participants outside of work hours because of their work schedules, the researcher made

the conscious effort to inform participants he was acting the capacity of student researcher, rather than an employee of the organization.

In line with managing multiple roles and protecting against conflicts of interest, challenges exist pertaining to managing incidental data (Mercer, 2007) and managing insider knowledge (Floyd & Arthur, 2012). Incidental information was given to the researcher at times, which presented challenges. For example, on a paper survey response, a participant stated he was only a union member because “the union forced me into it.” This statement was problematic for the researcher as an employee and required restraint to not act upon it, thus managing the roles of both employee and researcher.

Additionally, insider knowledge could be gleaned from the data. For example, the researcher could tell based on participant responses which employees had participated and which ones had not, but made the conscious effort to not privately solicit participation, even with employees the researcher felt comfortable with. On occasion, erroneous answers were suspected by the researcher. For example, if an employee reported they worked in “Information Technology” and that they were a union member, the response was known to be erroneous because all positions in the Information Technology Department were not bargaining unit positions, so the employee could not be a union member. Although infrequent, when it appeared responses may be erroneous or dishonest, the researcher let the data exist as reported.

Lastly, managing ongoing professional relationships after the study has concluded can be an issue for insider researchers (Floyd & Arthur, 2012). While the researcher did not experience any damaged professional relationships in the course of conducting this study, recognizing the importance of maintaining ongoing professional relationships following the research project was of concern to the researcher. Therefore, the researcher was transparent about the results, provided

results and information about the study to employees who asked for it, and debriefed with the union regarding the results and thanked them for their support of the project.

Although conducting insider research presented ethical issues and challenges, it also provided several benefits. Hull (2017) explained that conducting insider research can be an enlightening experience because it brings a heightened sense of responsibility and awareness as a researcher. Familiarity is a key benefit as the insider “researcher knows his/ her environment well, knows by instinct what can be done and how far old friendships and favors can be pressed just when and where to meet up for interviews, what the power structures and the moral mazes and subtexts of the company are and so what taboos to avoid, what shibboleths to mumble and bureaucrats to placate. They are familiar with the organizational culture, the routines, and the scripts of the workplace” (Hannabus, 2000, p. 103). Throughout the entire process of initially gaining access, contacting supervisors to set up meetings with employees, meeting with employees, scripting emails to elicit participation, and navigating discussions across the organization about the project, familiarity proved to be an inherent advantage.

Several additional benefits exist when conducting insider research including access, rapport, shared understanding of the organization with participants (Floyd & Arthur, 2010), and credibility (Mercer, 2007). Access was gained to the organization following multiple formal and informal discussions with the city manager and city attorney, both of whom the researcher works closely with. Rapport was a predominant factor both in gaining access and generating participation from the population. Several employees throughout the organization were vocally supportive of the study. Additionally, because of the union component, the researcher met with the local union president, whom he customarily meets with often and works closely with to resolve union issues as they arise, in order to explain the study and answer questions and

concerns. The local union president was supportive of the project and believed the shared understanding of the organization between the researcher and employees would elicit strong participation and candid responses. Such access and support by city officials and the union may not have been possible without the rapport between the researcher, city manager, city attorney, local union president, and employees of the organization. Overall, the researcher engaged and addressed the ethical challenges conducting insider research presents, thus minimizing the inherent liabilities and leveraging its advantages.

Instrumentation

This section discusses the instrumentation used for measuring PSM, organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status.

Public Service Motivation (PSM)

Public Service Motivation was measured using the instrument developed by Perry (1996), who authorized the use of the survey for this study (see Appendix A). In the original scale, Perry (1996) created a 40-item Likert-type instrument measuring six dimensions of PSM: attraction to public-policy making, commitment to the public interest, civic duty, social justice, compassion, and self-sacrifice. Perry's 40-item survey instrument was tested for construct validity to ensure correspondence between PSM's conceptual and operational definitions through a series of testing and correspondence with master of public administration (MPA) and master of business administration (MBA) students. In order to achieve inter-item and item-total correlations, Cronbach's' alpha was used on the six subscales to insure internal consistency.

Once internal validity was achieved, Perry used purposive sampling to target respondents with public sector backgrounds including MPA students, undergraduate public affairs students, graduate sociology students, business executives, municipal government department heads,

university employees, sheriff's deputies, county government employees, federal management employees, and state government social service and natural resources employees, which elicited 376 usable responses.

After review of descriptive and reliability statistics from the data, five items were removed from the scale. Next, Perry conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to provide specification and testing to ensure a complete measurement model. After CFA was complete, Perry removed 16 items and the dimensions of civic duty and social justice, resulting in the finalized 24-item scale consisting of four dimensions: attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice (see Appendix C).

Although Perry's (1996) measurement instrument was internally valid and reliable, some researchers have deemed it unreliable in an international setting (Kim, 2009; Vandenberg, 2008), and others have attempted to modify it (Brewer et al., 2000; Coursey & Pandey, 2007). Although the lack of a universal measurement tool has created challenges for academic research and practical use, the most common measurement scale utilized is Perry's (1996) 24-item scale (Ritz, Brewer & Neumann, 2016; Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010). Although PSM research continues to work toward a universally accepted and usable measurement tool (Brewer, 2000; Coursey and Pandey, 2007; Kim, 2009; Vandenberg, 2008), Perry's (1996) scale has endured as the predominant instrument used to measure PSM (Belle, 2013; Brewer et al., 2000; Bright, 2007, 2011; Christensen & Wright, 2011; Jacobson, 2011; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Naff & Crum, 1999; Wright, 2003; Wright & Pandey, 2008). Using the Perry (1996) instrument will allow for comparison across past and future PSM studies.

In the current study, participants' PSM levels were measured with this survey instrument which included 24-items on four subscales measuring attraction to policy making, commitment

to the public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice. Participants used a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. UA Qualtrics software was used to administer the survey, and questions were asked in the same order as on Perry's (1996) scale. Examples of "attraction to policy making" survey items included these: "The give and take of public policy making doesn't apply to me" and "I don't care much for politicians." Survey items pertaining to "commitment to the public interest" items included "Meaningful public service is very important to me" and "I unselfishly contribute to my community." Examples of "compassion" survey items included "I am rarely moved by the plight of the underprivileged" and "Most social programs are too vital to do without." Examples of "self-sacrifice" survey items included "I believe in putting duty before self" and "Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself."

Organizational Tenure

One of the biggest challenges for government employers is managing an aging workforce (Lavigna, 2014). Therefore, employees' continuous time spent working in an organization was examined to determine if PSM levels vary with organizational tenure. Considering that job satisfaction may decline every three to five years (Dreher & Daugherty, 2001), career plateauing may exist and have various effects on both individuals and organizations (Chay, Aryee, & Chew, 1995; Drucker-Goddard et al., 2015; Lapalme, Tremblay, & Simard, 2009; Montgomery, 2002; Salami, 2010), and many of these effects can be negative for individuals and organizations (Armstrong-Stassen, 2008; Chay, Aryee, & Chew, 1995; Choy & Savery, 1998; Lapalme et al., 2009; Montgomery, 2002; Tan & Salomone, 1994; Salami, 2010). Therefore, it is important to find out if PSM levels are affected by organizational tenure. Organizational tenure was measured using an interval level scale with respondents indicating the length of tenure in the organization

being 0 through 4 years, 5 through 9 years, 10 through 14 years, and 15 or more years. Employee tenure was categorized in these intervals based on employee job satisfaction potentially waning every three to five years (Dreher & Dougherty, 2001) as well as the occurrence of job content plateauing, which can occur within 3-5 years after starting a job (Montgomery, 2002). In addition, interval grouping at five years each is consistent and intended to capture the concept of tenure across the organization.

Bargaining Unit Status

Another challenge for government employers is managing a unionized environment (Lavigna, 2014). Because of this, employees' bargaining unit status was examined to see if PSM levels are affected by whether their positions exist within a bargaining unit. Bargaining unit status was measured by employees responding to a survey question asking if their position is within a bargaining unit, meaning their position is covered by a union.

Union Membership Status

In light of the recent *Janus* decision levied by the U.S. Supreme Court, employees in public sector bargaining unit positions are no longer required to pay agency fees (fair share) and have the choice of being full dues-paying union members or not paying any fees. For those employees whose positions are covered by a bargaining unit, it is important to understand if PSM is affected by union membership. For employees who indicate affirmatively their position is within a bargaining unit, union membership status was measured by employees' responding to a survey question asking if they are dues-paying members of their union.

Data Collection Procedures

Prior to beginning the study and collecting data, an application was submitted to the University of Arkansas Institutional Review Board (IRB) for approval. The University of

Arkansas Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed the research project, requiring disclosure and assessment of regarding risks to participants and ethical concerns. The study was approved by the IRB (see Appendix E)

City employees were contacted to participate in this study through their work email addresses, in-person meetings, and phone calls. The emails, phone calls, and in-person meetings explained the rationale of the project and were used to respond to participants' concerns about confidentiality, ensuring that no conflicts of interest exist. Lastly, participants were presented and reviewed an informed consent form.

Data was collected using single-stage total population sampling. An email address list for all employees in the population was provided by the city HR staff, with the exception of some employees in Public Works and Parks and Recreation who do not have email addresses. The survey instrument was distributed by email to all employees except for employees who did not have email addresses. The employees who did not have email addresses or access to email were met with in a group setting to explain the project's rationale and confidentiality measures. These employees were able to express confidentiality concerns either in the group setting or privately with the researcher.

An introductory email was sent to every employee holding a career position with email access and a work email address to explain the survey, the approximate time frame when the survey will be distributed, an assurance of anonymity and confidentiality, and an invitation to participate in the study. Three days after the introductory email was distributed, the survey was distributed using Qualtrics software. The survey distribution email contained an introductory message reiterating the purpose, contained an informed consent statement requiring acknowledgment, and invited participation. The survey began by asking five demographic

questions, including which city department the employee works in, age, gender, education level, and ethnicity. Participants were also asked to answer one item indicating the number of continuous years they have been working for their current organization, one item indicating whether their position was contained within a bargaining unit, and if so, one item indicating whether they were dues-paying union members. The PSM survey used a 5-point Likert scale as issued by Perry (1996).

Qualtrics software provided the option of sending follow-up solicitation only to non-respondents, so one week after the electronic distribution of the survey, those who had not responded were sent a follow-up email regarding the survey and were asked again to participate. Another survey was sent out the following day. After one week, those who has not participated were contacted for a third attempt at garnering participation, and another survey was distributed. After one more week, non-participants were contacted for a fourth and final attempt at garnering participation, and another survey was distributed. One week after the fourth distribution, the survey was closed.

For the Public Works and Parks and Recreation employees without email addresses, in-person meetings were held. In these meetings, the researcher explained the study and provided consent forms to employees. The researcher asked for participation, distributed the surveys, and informed employees that if they wished to participate, they needed to place their completed surveys in the identified envelope. The researcher then left the room and waited outside, giving employees 20 minutes to complete the survey. An identified supervisor or union official acting as a proctor and coached by the researcher regarding the importance of confidentiality and non-bias, ensured all responses were collected in the envelope and then promptly given to the researcher.

Data Analysis

After the closing of the survey, the data was compiled and analyzed. Because this study examined differences between groups on more than one variable, the participants were tested only once. There were two groups (bargaining unit status and union membership status) and four factors (groupings for organizational tenure at 0 through 4 years, 5 through 9 years, 10 through 14 years, and 15 or more years). Because some participants in the bargaining unit group were in the union membership group and some were not, two separate 4x2 factorial analyses of variance (ANOVA) were performed (Salkind, 2017). The first factorial ANOVA procedure was used to show relationships and interactions between the independent variables of organizational tenure and bargaining unit status, while the second factorial ANOVA procedure included bargaining unit members only and was used to show the relationships and interactions between the independent variables of organizational tenure and union membership status on PSM.

ANOVA procedures have three assumptions: independence, normal distribution of scores, and homogeneity of variance. Independence refers to observations between groups being unconnected to one another and observations within groups being unconnected to one another. Using a total population design, independence was controlled for by ensuring every member of the population was contacted to participate and only one response was received from each participant. When receiving information about the study and instructions on responding to the survey, participants were asked to respond independently without interacting with other participants. The assumption of a normal distribution of scores refers to the data points being relatively similar, having few outliers, and having a coinciding mean, median, and mode. To control for normality of the distribution, Shapiro-Wilk's tests were conducted for the two distributions after the data was collected to determine if the samples were derived from normal

distributions (Glass & Hopkins, 1996). Results indicated normality violations, however it was determined the ANOVA procedures were robust to move forward (Schmider, Zeigler, Danay, Beyer, & Bühner, 2010; Spencer, Lay, & Kevan de Lopez, 2017). The assumption of homogeneity of variance assumes the variances of each group are similar (Salkind, 2017). To control for this assumption, Levene's tests were conducted for the two distributions, evaluating the homogeneity of variance assumption (Glass & Hopkins, 1996). The Levene's tests revealed acceptable homogeneity of variances for both distributions.

Limitations

The largest limitation for the study was that the results were from one organization, a city government organization in New Mexico. The sample was drawn using a total population sampling technique with a population of 304 employees. Because the sample was relatively small, high response rates were required, which was difficult to achieve. Given a population of 304, 170 responses were required with a confidence interval of 95% and a 5% margin of error (Qualtrics, 2019) to have a sufficient response rate. Additionally, due to the relatively small population sampled, some categories had limited responses. The limited responses in some categories required the results of the ANOVA procedure to be used with caution due to the Type I errors (Hacksaw, 2008) and Type II errors (Button, Loanidis, Mokrysz, Nosek, Flint, Robinson, & Munafo, 2013; Salkind, 2017) small data sets can yield. Additionally, although the response rates were adequate for the population studied, normality violations for both ANOVA procedures performed occurred due to outliers at the high and low ends of the respective distributions. Also, normality violations in the middle of both distributions were present, resulting in skewed kurtoses in both distributions. These normality violations were largely due to the small data set

and the low responses in some areas. The limitation of small sample sizes warrant further research on the topics examined (Hacksaw, 2008).

Another limitation was that the population chosen was the researcher's employer, which brought forth ethical considerations and challenges. Participants may have felt pressured to participate based on the researcher's position of power in the organization or the organizational leadership's endorsement of this project. Additionally, participants may have felt vulnerable about providing candid responses. To control for this, confidentiality and transparency were of upmost priority. Confidentiality was maintained by using a password protected file for electronic data storage. All paper data was stored in a locked file cabinet, all data was kept in a locked office which required both key and magnetic badge for entry. All potential participants were informed their information would be kept secure and confidential and would be destroyed following the completion of the study.

For measurement, this study used the Perry (1996) PSM scale, which is the most widely used tool for measuring PSM (Belle, 2013; Brewer et al., 2000; Bright, 2007, 2011; Christensen & Wright, 2011; Jacobson, 2011; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Naff & Crum, 1999; Wright, 2003; Wright & Pandey, 2008), yet it has been criticized for its length (Coursey & Pandey, 2007; Kim, 2009) and for its lack of usability outside the United States (Kim, 2009; Vandenabeele, 2008). The extent to which the results generalize to other similar public service employees may not be known. To the extent that the studied employees differ in significant ways from other public service employees, the results from this study may not be generalizable.

Due to the lack of previous studies conducted relative to this topic, points of comparison within existing literature are limited. Because this study is cross-sectional, the longitudinal effects are not discernable. It will be necessary for further studies to be conducted with other

groups of public service employees which are similar in nature, in addition to longitudinal studies, in order to potentially generalize the findings from the study to other similar populations.

Because the *Janus* decision occurred in June 2018, it may be too recent for its effects to be known. It has only been a year and a half since public bargaining unit employees were given the choice of paying either full union membership dues or no dues rather than the pre-*Janus* requirement of paying either full union membership dues or agency fees. At the time when participants responded to the survey, it had been just over one year since the *Janus* decision. In time, as unions, employers, and employees become more familiar and comfortable working within the framework of the new law, the full impact of *Janus* on employees' decisions to join or not join unions will become more apparent. Therefore, it will be necessary for further studies to be conducted in this regard to be able to assess the actual impact of *Janus* over time.

Delimitations

While there are numerous independent variables which could be used to see their effects on PSM, this study focused on organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status. The study included all employees of a city government organization in New Mexico excluding police department, fire and rescue department, 911 communications employees, and municipal court employees. This is due to the public safety employees possessing different motivation characteristics than non-public safety public employees. (French & Emerson, 2014; Swiatkowski, 2015). Further studies are needed to identify similarities and differences between civilian, public safety, paramilitary, and military government organizations regarding employee PSM levels. This study asked only closed-ended demographic questions, questions using Perry's (1996) PSM scale and questions pertaining to employees' organizational

tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status. Asking open-ended questions may induce employees to provide further information.

Employees' organizational tenure was categorized among four groups: 0 through 4 years, 5 through 9 years, 10 through 14 years, and 15 or more years. The basis for categorizing employee tenure in these groups is due to employee job satisfaction potentially waning every three-to-five years (Dreher & Dougherty, 2001) and the potential of job content plateauing which can occur within 3-5 years after starting a job (Montgomery, 2002). The interval groupings were consistent time groupings of five years each, intended to capture the concept of tenure across the organization. For the relatively small sample size and the breakdown of employees into even smaller subgroups, adequate results required high response rates, which were difficult to achieve.

Chapter 3 Summary

This chapter discussed the methodological aspects of this research study. The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership on the PSM levels of employees in a New Mexico city government organization. This study utilized a quantitative research design, with independent variables being employees' organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status. The dependent variable was PSM level. Five research questions were sought to be answered, including whether PSM levels are affected by organizational tenure within an organization, whether employees' bargaining unit status affects PSM levels, whether employees' union membership decision affects PSM levels, what interplay exists between organizational tenure and bargaining unit status regarding employees' PSM levels, and lastly what interplay exists between organizational tenure and employees' union membership status regarding employees' PSM levels.

A total population sampling technique was used for this study to measure PSM levels regarding organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status. 304 employees made up the population which included all city employees except for public safety employees. All employees were surveyed, either through email or in-person paper surveys. The survey consisted of Perry's (1996) PSM survey instrument, in addition to two "yes" or "no" questions asking participants if their position is within a bargaining unit, and if they are union members or not. Statistical analyses for all five research questions assessed whether significant differences exist among groups, and the extent to which PSM levels are affected by organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status. Results of this study will provide insight into motivational factors of public service employees, informing the field of HRD, thus providing insight into the training and development needs of public service organizations with the goal of providing the best possible services to citizens.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine if organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status affect levels of Public Service Motivation (PSM) for employees of a municipal (city) government organization in New Mexico. Data were collected from all city departments in the organization with the exception of departments providing public safety, which included police, fire, and rescue; 911 communications; and municipal court. Electronic and paper surveys were used for employee participation, and a total of 179 employees participated in the study. Employee responses to the survey questions were used to answer the following research question: For municipal employees of a city in New Mexico, did time spent working in that organization (organizational tenure), bargaining unit status, or union membership status affect employee PSM levels?

The six hypotheses are listed below:

1. H₀₁: Time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico does not affect employees' PSM levels.
H₁: Time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico significantly affects employees' PSM levels.
2. H₀₂: Bargaining unit status does not affect PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.
H₂: Bargaining unit status has a significant effect on the PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.
3. H₀₃: No relationship exists between employees' organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and bargaining unit status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

H₃: A significant relationship exists between employees' organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and bargaining unit status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

4. H₀₄: For employees in a bargaining unit, time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico does not affect PSM levels.

H₄: For employees in a bargaining unit, time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico significantly affects PSM levels.

5. H₀₅: For employees in a bargaining unit, union membership status does not affect PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.

H₅: For employees in a bargaining unit, union membership status significantly affects the PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.

6. H₀₆: For employees in a bargaining unit, no relationship exists between organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and union membership status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

H₆: For employees in a bargaining unit, a significant relationship exists between organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and union membership status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

Demographic Characteristics

Of the 304 surveys distributed, 179 were completed, resulting in a response rate of 59%. Given a population of 304, 170 responses were required with a confidence interval of 95% and a 5% margin of error (Qualtrics, 2019) to have a sufficient response rate. Therefore, the number of responses gathered was sufficient to adequately represent the population sampled.

The mean age of participants was 44.25 years; the median age, 45 years. The mode age was 36, which was reported by 10 participants. The largest percentage of participants were age 50-59 (26.82%), followed by age 40-49 (24.02%) and age 30-39 (20.44%). All 179 participants reported their age (see Table 2).

Table 2

Age of Participants

Age of Participants	Number of Participants N	Percentage of Participants %
Age 16-19	7	3.91
Age 20-29	21	11.73
Age 30-39	37	20.67
Age 40-49	43	24.02
Age 50-59	48	26.82
Age 60-69	22	12.29
Age 70+	1	.06
<i>Total</i>	<i>179</i>	<i>100.00</i>

Pertaining to race/ethnicity, 44.69% of respondents identified as White or Caucasian (n = 80), which represented the highest percentage, followed by 43.02% who reported being Hispanic or Latino (n = 77). All 179 participants reported their race/ethnicity (see Table 3).

Table 3

Race/ Ethnicity of Respondents

Racial/ ethnic identity	Number of Participants N	Percentage of Participants %
Black or African American	5	2.79
White or Caucasian	80	44.69
East Asian/Pacific Islander	6	3.35
Hispanic or Latino(a)	77	43.02
Native American	6	3.35
Other	5	2.79
<i>Total</i>	<i>179</i>	<i>100.00</i>

Participants were asked to identify their gender, which showed 53.07% male (n = 95) and 46.93% female (n = 84). All 179 participants reported their gender (see Table 4).

Table 4

Gender of Participants

Gender Identity	Number of Participants	Percentage of Participants
	N	%
Female	84	46.93
Male	95	53.07
<i>Total</i>	<i>179</i>	<i>100.00</i>

For highest education level obtained, 43.58% of participants reported having a high school diploma or equivalent (n = 78), 21.79% a bachelor's degree (n = 39), and 13.97% a Master's degree (n = 25). All 179 participants reported their education level (see Table 5).

Table 5

Education Level of Participants

Highest level of education completed	Number of Participants	Percentage of Participants
	N	%
Less than high school	4	2.23
High school diploma or equivalent	78	43.58
Some College	13	7.26
Associate Degree	13	7.26
Bachelor's Degree	39	21.79
Master's Degree	25	13.97
Doctoral Degree	2	1.12
Other/ Not Specified	5	2.79
<i>Total</i>	<i>179</i>	<i>100.00</i>

Department and Tenure

All respondents were employees holding career positions in the city governmental organization, meaning their positions were not temporary or seasonal in nature but were classified as permanent positions. Employees came from all eleven city departments with the exception of departments providing public safety. These departments included City Administration, City Attorney's Office, City Clerk's Office, Development Services (land development), Financial Services, Human Resources, Information Technology, Library Services, Parks and Recreation, Public Works, and Utilities Department. Nearly half of the total

respondents worked in Parks and Recreation and Public Works. Parks and Recreation represented 26.82% (n = 48), and Public Works comprised 22.35 % of participants (n = 40), combining to represent 49.17% of all participants (n = 88). All 179 participants reported the departments they worked in (see Table 6).

Table 6

Participants by Department

City Department	Number of Participants N	Percentage of Participants %
City Administration	6	3.35
City Attorney	4	2.23
City Clerk	2	1.12
Development Services	13	7.26
Financial Services	21	11.73
Human Resources	6	3.35
Information Technology	3	1.68
Library Services	22	12.29
Parks & Recreation	48	26.82
Public Works	40	22.35
Utilities	14	7.82
<i>Total</i>	<i>179</i>	<i>100.00</i>

Participants were asked to identify how many years they had worked for the city, representing their organizational tenure. Participants were then grouped into tiers representing their organization tenure of 0 through 4 years, 5 through 9 years, 10 through 14 years, and 15 or more years. Employees' organizational tenure was categorized in this manner because employee job satisfaction potentially wanes every three to five years (Dreher & Dougherty, 2001), and job content plateauing can occur within three to five years after starting a job (Montgomery, 2002). Additionally, the five-year intervals were intended to capture the concept of tenure across the organization. The largest group of participating employees was 0-4 years, representing 47.49% of participants (n = 85), then 15 or more years, representing 19.55% of participants (n = 35). All 179 participants reported their organizational tenure (see Table 7).

Table 7

Tenure Working in City Organization

Years worked for the city	Number of Participants N	Percentage of Employees %
0 through 4	85	47.49
5 through 9	30	16.76
10 through 14	29	16.20
15+	35	19.55
<i>Total</i>	<i>179</i>	<i>100.00</i>

Descriptive Data

All data was collected from July 8, 2019, through August 8, 2019. Employees who had computer access and who customarily used email as part of their daily work as determined through contacting department directors were asked to participate through electronic survey using Qualtrics Survey Software (n =244), resulting in 126 responses. Employees who did not have regular computer access as part of their normal workday were contacted in-person and asked to participate using paper surveys (n = 60), resulting in 53 responses. In total, 179 employees provided responses to the survey. The overall mean employee score on the PSM Survey (Perry, 1996) was 3.443 on a 5-point Likert-type scale with a response of 1 meaning *Strongly Disagree* and a response of 5 meaning *Strongly Agree* (5 = Strongly Agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Undecided, 2 = Disagree, 1 = Strongly Disagree). In accordance with Perry (1996), nine questions were reverse scored, including:

1. Politics is a dirty word.
2. The give and take of public policy making doesn't apply to me.
3. I don't care much for politicians.
4. It is hard for me to get intensely interested in what is going on in my community.
5. I am rarely moved by the plight of the underprivileged.
6. There are few public programs that I wholeheartedly support.

7. I have little compassion for people in need who are unwilling to take the first steps themselves.
8. I seldom think about the welfare of people whom I don't know personally.
9. Doing well financially is definitely more important to me than doing good deeds.

The majority of responses for all questions reported means between 3.249 and 3.601. The question eliciting the highest score was *Meaningful public service is very important to me* with a mean of 4.058 (N = 179). The question with the lowest score was, *I have little compassion for people in need who are unwilling to take the first steps themselves*, with a mean of 2.815 (N = 179). Statistical information regarding responses to each PSM item are provided (see Table 8).

Table 8

PSM Survey Descriptive Statistics

Survey Question	Mean	Std. Error	95% Conf. Int.	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1. Politics is a dirty word.	3.324	0.074	3.177	3.470
2. The give and take of...policy making doesn't apply to me.	3.249	0.072	3.107	3.390
3. I don't care much for politicians.	2.884	0.081	2.724	3.045
4. I consider public service my civic duty.	3.792	0.074	3.644	3.940
5. Meaningful public service is very important to me.	4.058	0.068	3.924	4.192
6. I would prefer seeing public officials do what is best...	3.601	0.075	3.454	3.748
7. It is hard for me to get...interested in...my community.	3.491	0.077	3.339	3.643
8. I unselfishly contribute to my community.	3.416	0.065	3.288	3.545
9. It is difficult for me to contain my feelings when I see...	3.249	0.081	3.089	3.408
10. I am often reminded by daily events how dependent we are...	3.971	0.305	3.370	4.572
11. I am rarely moved by the plight of the underprivileged.	3.578	0.080	3.421	3.785
12. To me, patriotism includes seeing to the welfare of others.	3.798	0.074	3.652	3.943
13. Most social programs are too vital to do without.	3.341	0.079	3.186	3.497
14. There are few public programs that I wholeheartedly support.	2.971	0.078	3.816	3.126
15. I have little compassion for people...who are unwilling...	2.815	0.090	3.638	2.992
16. I seldom think about...people whom I don't know...	3.549	0.072	3.407	3.692
17. Serving other citizens would give me a good feeling even if...	3.723	0.075	3.574	3.871
18. Making a difference in society means more to me than...	3.642	0.070	3.503	3.781
19. I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good...	3.093	0.068	3.958	3.227
20. I believe in putting duty before self.	3.405	0.073	3.260	3.549
21. I am one of those rare people who would risk personal loss...	3.243	0.069	3.107	3.379
22. I feel people should give back to society more than...	3.520	0.069	3.383	3.657
23. Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself.	3.509	0.072	3.366	3.651
24. Doing well financially is...more important to me than...	3.451	0.069	3.314	3.588

Research Questions

For municipal employees of a city in New Mexico, this study sought to find out if time spent working in that organization (organizational tenure), bargaining unit status, or union membership status affect employee PSM levels. As all employees were either in a bargaining unit or not and only those employees in a bargaining unit could be union members, two separate 4x2 factorial analyses of variance (ANOVA) were performed (Salkind, 2017). The organization as a whole responded with a mean PSM score of 3.443 (N = 179) on Perry's (1996) PSM survey instrument. Pertaining to organizational tenure, employees' PSM scores showed minor variations between groups. New employees with tenure of 0 through 4 years had a mean of 3.461 (n = 85), employees with the organization 5 through 9 years had a mean of 3.345 (n = 30), employees with 10 through 14 years had a mean of 3.366 years (n = 29), and employees with 15 or more years had a mean of 3.549 (n = 35). These results showed that organizational tenure varied slightly between the groups, dropping after four years, dropping further after nine years, and then rising to its highest level after 15 years. Regarding whether bargaining unit status affected PSM levels, a significant difference existed. Employees in a bargaining unit had a mean score of 3.382 (n = 114), while employees not in a bargaining unit had a mean score of 3.552 (n = 65). These results indicated that employees not in a bargaining unit had significantly higher PSM levels than those employees in a bargaining unit, bringing forth issues in need of being addressed by HRM and HRD professionals. Concerning whether union membership affects PSM levels of bargaining unit members, union members reflected a mean of 3.353 (n = 72), while non-union members had a mean of 3.43 (n = 42). Although these differences were not significant, the result of non-union members showing higher PSM levels than union members also brings forth topics to address within the field of HRM and HRD.

ANOVA 1 Assumptions

For the first ANOVA, in order to control for normality of the distribution a Shapiro-Wilk's test was conducted after the data was collected to determine if the sample was derived from a normal distribution (Glass & Hopkins, 1996). The Shapiro-Wilk's test indicated that all levels of tenure were normal except for tenure of 5 through 9 years, which had a significance of .028. This was due to limited representation of low scores on the survey in conjunction with 13 of the 30 scores being between 3 and 3.25 (see Figure 1). Additionally, the normality of the distribution was affected by outliers at the upper and lower ends of the distribution.

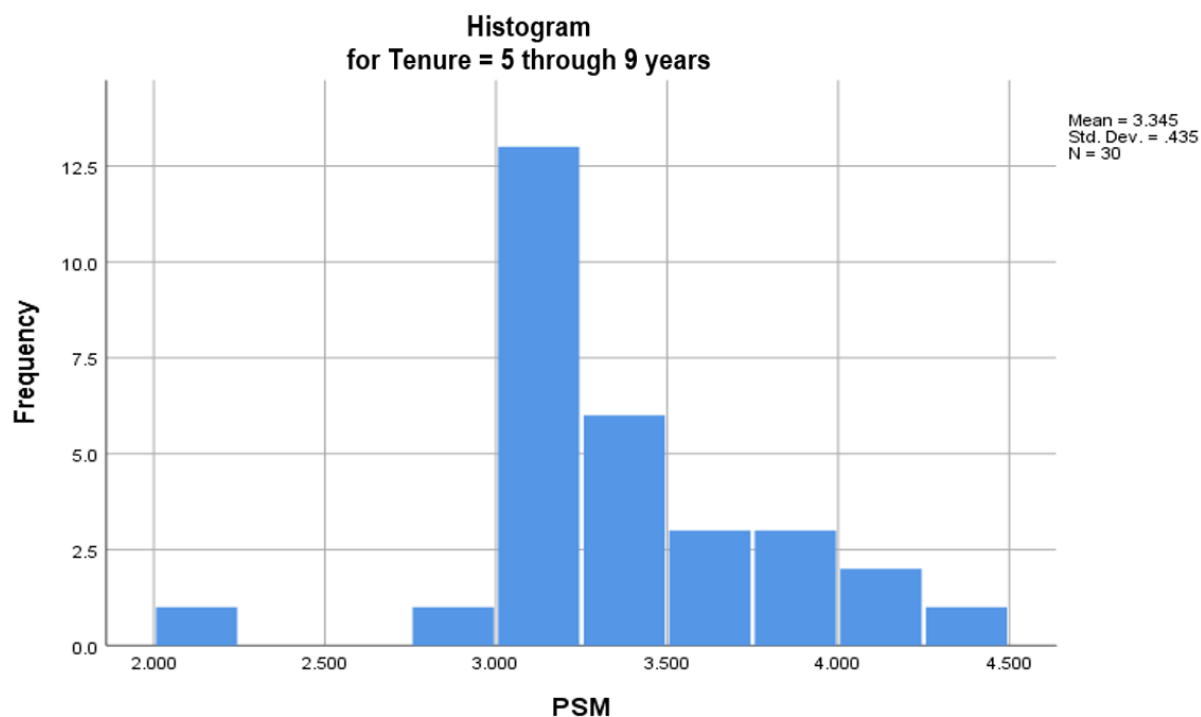


Figure 1. Histogram. For the first ANOVA, this figure shows distribution of tenure of 5 through 9 years. A kurtosis of 2.358 exists due to 13 of the 30 responses being between 3 and 3.25 and limited representation of lower scores.

In addition, the independent variable of BU Yes violated normality assumptions with a significance of .017 due to outliers at the low end of the distribution. Although normality violations were present, a general consensus exists that two-tailed tests are not especially

sensitive to normality violations (Spencer et al., 2017) and ANOVA procedures are generally robust from normality violations (Schmider et al., 2010; Spencer et al., 2017). It was therefore deemed appropriate to proceed with the ANOVA procedure.

Results of the Shapiro Wilk's test for Tenure are presented below (see Table 9).

Table 9

Shapiro-Wilk's Test for Tenure and BU Status: First ANOVA

	Statistic	df	Sig.
Tenure: 0 through 4 years	.972	85	.060
Tenure: 5 through 9 years	.921	30	.028
Tenure: 10 through 14 years	.982	29	.879
Tenure: 15 or more years	.981	35	.785
BU Yes	.066	114	.017
BU No	.091	65	.69

N = 179

The assumption of homogeneity of variance assumes the variances of each group are similar (Salkind, 2017). To control for this assumption, Levene's test was conducted, which evaluates the homogeneity of variance assumption (Glass & Hopkins, 1996). Levene's test reflected a significance value of .338, which is greater than .05; therefore, the assumption that equal variances existed across the groups, holds. Because the assumption holds, the ANOVA was the proper method to analyze this data set and no additional adjustments were needed.

ANOVA 2 Assumptions

To control for normality of the distribution a Shapiro-Wilk's test was conducted after the data was collected to determine if the sample was derived from a normal distribution (Glass & Hopkins, 1996). The Shapiro-Wilk's test indicated two levels of tenure violated the normality assumption, although Tenure of 0 through 4 years (Sig. = .045, $p < .05$) is close to the .05 threshold for retaining the assumption that the distribution is normal. Tenure of 5 through 9 years (Sig. = .011, $p < .05$) reflects a non-normal distribution. This was due to 12 of the 21 total scores falling between 3 and 3.25 and limited representation of lower survey scores (see Figure 2).

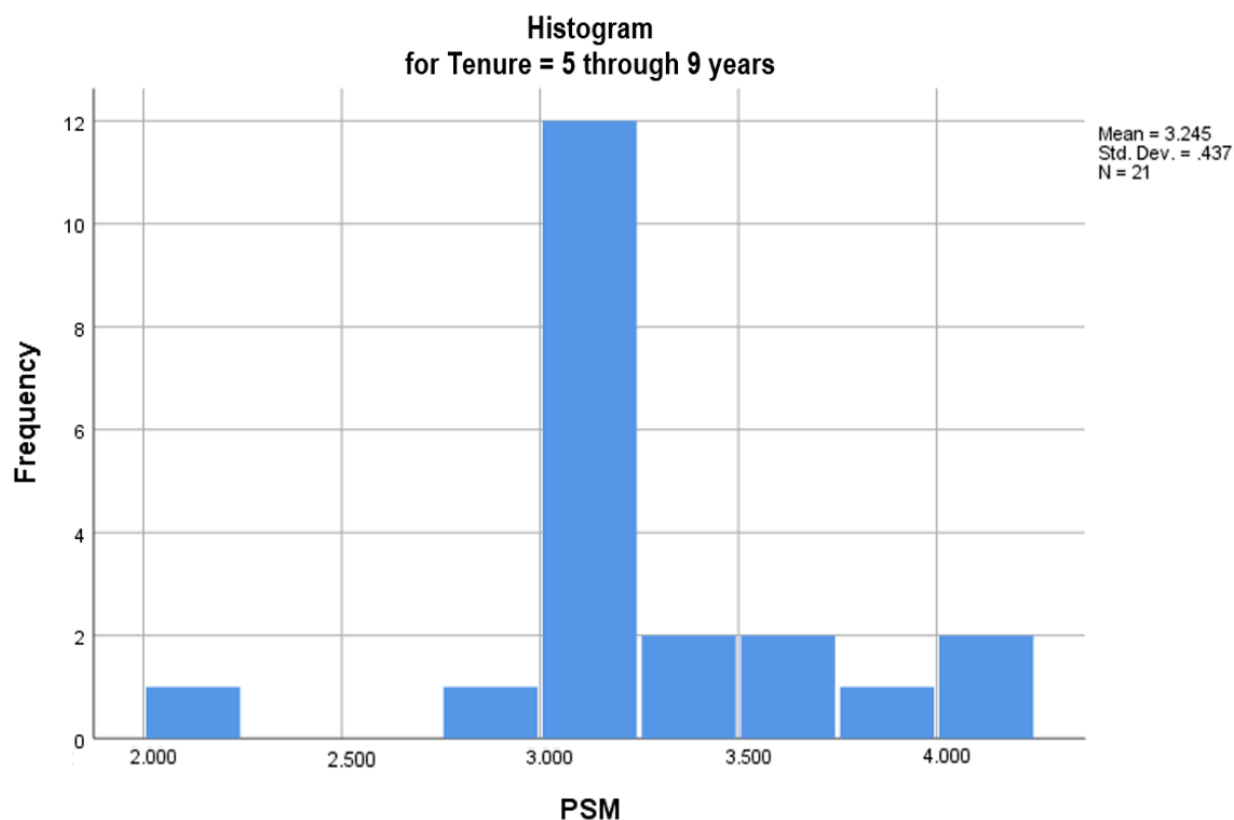


Figure 2. Histogram. For the second ANOVA procedure, this figure shows distribution of Tenure of 5 through 9 years. A kurtosis of 3.032 exists due to limited representation of lower scores and 12 of the 21 scores being between 3 and 3.25.

In addition, the Shapiro-Wilk's test for union membership status indicated that UM Yes had a non-normal distribution (Sig. = .032, $p < .05$). This is due to the distribution being negatively skewed yet having two outliers at the bottom of the distribution at or below 2.0. Because a general consensus exists that two-tailed tests are not especially sensitive to normality violations (Spencer et al., 2017) and ANOVA procedures are generally robust from normality violations (Schmider et al., 2010; Spencer et al., 2017), proceeding with the ANOVA procedure was deemed acceptable.

Results of the Shapiro-Wilk's test for Tenure and Union Membership Status are presented below (see Table 10).

Table 10

Shapiro-Wilk's Test for Tenure and UM Status: Second ANOVA

	Statistic	df	Sig.
Tenure: 0 through 4 years	.960	61	.045
Tenure: 5 through 9 years	.874	21	.011
Tenure: 10 through 14 years	.956	14	.649
Tenure: 15 or more years	.955	18	.505
UM Yes	.963	72	.032
UM No	.986	42	.893

N = 114

Levene's test was conducted to evaluate the homogeneity of variance assumption.

Levene's Test reflected a value of .092, which is greater than .05; therefore, the assumption holds that equal variances existed across the groups.

Results and Analysis for ANOVA 1

The first factorial ANOVA procedure was conducted including all employees to show relationships and interactions between the independent variables of organizational tenure and bargaining unit status on PSM. The independent variables of this study included employees' tenure within a city government organization in New Mexico, categorized into four groups. Additional independent variables included the bargaining unit status of employees, referring to whether an employee's job is within a bargaining unit or not, and union membership status, referring to bargaining unit employees' choice to be dues paying members of their union or not. The dependent variable in this study were employees' PSM levels.

The first ANOVA procedure sought to find out if organizational tenure affects PSM, whether bargaining unit status affects PSM, and whether an interactional effect existed between organizational tenure and bargaining unit status. Participants' PSM levels were measured with Perry's (1996) survey instrument which is the most widely used PSM scale (Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010) and includes 24-items on four subscales measuring attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice. Participants used a five-point

Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Table 11 displays descriptive statistics consisting of means, standard deviations, and ranges for PSM based on the independent variable of tenure. Tenure of 0 through 4 years had scores ranging from 1.875 to 4.417 ($M = 3.461$, $SD = .489$), which was the widest range of the four tenure levels. Tenure of 5 through 9 years had the lowest mean ($M = 3.345$). Tenure of 10 through 14 years had the narrowest range ($R = 1.197$). Tenure of 15 or more years represented the highest mean ($M = 3.549$) and the smallest standard deviation ($SD = .369$). Table 11 also displays skewness and kurtosis values, which were normal. Tenure of 5 through 9 years; however, had a high kurtosis of 2.358. This was due to 13 of the 30 responses having narrowly distributed PSM scores between 3.0 and 3.25 and a limited representation of lower survey scores (see Figure 1). Although 2.358 represents a high kurtosis level based on values between -1.0 and +1.0 being ideal (George & Mallery, 2006), values between -3.0 and +3.0 are acceptable and not considered extreme (Spencer et al., 2017).

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics for PSM based on tenure

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	Range	Skewness	Kurtosis
Tenure: 0 through 4 years	3.461	.489	1.875	4.417	2.542	-.652	.535
Tenure: 5 through 9 years	3.345	.435	2.000	4.250	2.250	-.364	2.358
Tenure: 10 through 14 years	3.366	.409	2.417	4.333	1.197	.107	.269
Tenure: 15 or more years	3.549	.369	2.667	4.208	1.542	-.281	-.215

N = 179

Table 12 displays descriptive statistics consisting of means, standard deviations, and ranges, for PSM based on the independent variable of bargaining unit status. *Bargaining Unit* “Yes” had a mean of 3.382 ($SD = .449$), and a range of 2.458. *Bargaining Unit* “No” had a mean of 3.552 ($SD = .428$) and a range of 1.958. Table 12 also displays skewness and kurtosis values, which were normal (between -1 and +1).

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics for PSM based on BU status

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	Range	Skewness	Kurtosis
Bargaining Unit "Yes"	3.382	.449	1.875	4.333	2.458	-.609	.962
Bargaining Unit "No"	3.552	.428	2.458	4.417	1.958	-.206	-.409

N = 179

The overall results of ANOVA 1 are shown in Table 13, which shows the means, standard deviations, and numbers of participants for all levels of all factors.

Table 13

Descriptive Results for each level of ANOVA 1

Dependent Variable: PSM

Tenure	BU Status	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
0 through 4 years	BU Yes	3.403	0.485	61
	BU No	3.607	0.478	24
	Total	3.461	0.489	85
5 through 9 years	BU Yes	3.245	0.437	21
	BU No	3.579	0.346	9
	Total	3.345	0.435	30
10 through 14 years	BU Yes	3.336	0.475	14
	BU No	3.394	0.350	15
	Total	3.366	0.409	29
15 + years	BU Yes	3.502	0.268	18
	BU No	3.598	0.457	17
	Total	3.549	0.369	35
Total	BU Yes	3.382	0.449	114
	BU No	3.552	0.428	65
	Total	3.443	0.448	179

The results of tests of between-subjects effects for ANOVA 1 are displayed in Table 14, and shows the main effects of organizational tenure and bargaining unit status, as well as the interactional effects between organizational tenure and bargaining unit status. The null hypothesis for Hypothesis 2 that bargaining unit status does not affect PSM levels of local government employees in a city in New Mexico was rejected because a significant main effect

existed between the two levels of bargaining unit status $F(1, 171) = 5.213, p < .05$. No other significant main effects were found, nor was a significant interactional effect found. Further results and interpretation of Table 14 are provided in detail later with discussion of each hypothesis.

Table 14

*Tests of Between-Subjects Effects***Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: PSM

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	2.397 ^a	7	.342	1.754	.100	.067
Intercept	1630.995	1	1630.995	8356.805	.000	.980
Tenure	.709	3	.236	1.211	.307	.021
BUStatus	1.017	1	1.017	5.213	.024	.030
Tenure * BUStatus	.327	3	.109	.558	.643	.010
Error	33.374	171	.195			
Total	2158.095	179				
Corrected Total	35.771	178				

a. R Squared = .067 (Adjusted R Squared = .029)

Results and Analysis for ANOVA 2

For those employees in the bargaining unit (*BU Yes*, $N = 114$), the second ANOVA procedure sought to find out if organizational tenure and union membership status affected PSM, and whether an interactional affect existed between organizational tenure and union membership status. Table 15 displays descriptive statistics consisting of means, standard deviations, and ranges, for PSM based on the independent variable of tenure for employees in the bargaining unit ($N = 114$). Tenure of 0 through 4 years had scores ranging from 1.875 to 4.208 ($M = 3.403, SD = .485$), which was the widest range of the four tenure levels ($R = 2.333$). Tenure of 5 through 9 years had the lowest mean ($M = 3.245$). Tenure of 15 or more years represented the highest mean

($M = 3.502$), the smallest standard deviation ($SD = .268$), and the narrowest range ($R = 1.000$).

Table 15 also displays skewness and kurtosis values, which were normal (between -1 and +1), except for Tenure of 5 through 9 years having a high kurtosis ($k = 3.032$) which narrowly eclipsed the limit for being considered extreme because it was higher than 3.0 (Spencer et al., 2017). This was due to 12 of the 21 responses having narrowly distributed PSM scores between 3.0 and 3.25 as well as a limited representation of lower survey scores (see Figure 2).

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics for PSM based on Union Membership Status

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	Range	Skewness	Kurtosis
Tenure: 0 through 4 years	3.403	.485	1.875	4.208	2.333	-.773	.696
Tenure: 5 through 9 years	3.245	.437	2.000	4.130	2.130	-.400	3.032
Tenure: 10 through 14 years	3.336	.475	2.417	4.333	1.917	.129	.575
Tenure: 15 or more years	3.502	.268	3.000	4.000	1.000	.215	-.573

N = 114

Table 16 displays descriptive statistics consisting of means, standard deviations, and ranges for PSM based on the independent variable of union membership status. UM Yes had a mean of 3.353 ($SD = .473$) and a range of 2.333. UM No had a mean of 3.430 ($SD = .407$) and a range of 2.000. Of additional note, the independent variable of non-union member (UM No) in the tenure variable category of 5 through 9 years had only six data points, non-union member (UM No) at 10 through 14 years had only four data points, and non-union member (UM No) at 15 or more years had eight data points. Although the low numbers of data points in these categories should be acknowledged and discussed as a limitation of the study (Hacksaw, 2008), the overall number of responses provided by the population provided an adequate representation of the population, and the categories of UM yes and UM no were self-selected by the respondents per *Janus*. Manipulation of the data was deemed to not provide an accurate reflection of the responses and results of the study, in addition to manipulation of data possibly

leading to unreliable results anyway (Hacksaw, 2008). Table 16 also displays skewness and kurtosis values were normal.

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics for PSM based on UM Status

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min	Max	Range	Skewness	Kurtosis
Union Member “Yes”	3.353	.473	1.875	4.208	2.333	-.685	1.026
Union Member “No”	3.430	.407	2.333	4.333	2.000	-.295	.393

N = 114

The overall results of ANOVA 2 are shown in Table 17, which shows the means, standard deviations, and numbers of participants for all levels of all factors.

Table 17

Descriptive Results for each level of ANOVA 2

Dependent Variable: PSM

Tenure	UM Status	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
0 through 4 years	UM yes	3.374	0.526	37
	UM no	3.448	0.422	24
	Total	3.403	0.485	61
5 through 9 years	UM yes	3.169	0.406	15
	UM no	3.435	0.493	6
	Total	3.245	0.437	21
10 through 14 years	UM yes	3.296	0.437	10
	UM no	3.438	0.620	4
	Total	3.336	0.475	14
15 + years	UM yes	3.608	0.278	10
	UM no	3.370	0.199	8
	Total	3.502	0.268	18
Total	UM yes	3.353	0.473	72
	UM no	3.430	0.407	42
	Total	3.382	0.449	114

The results of tests of between-subjects effects are displayed in Table 18, which shows the main effects of organizational tenure and union membership status as well as the interactional effects between organizational tenure and union membership status. At the $p > .05$ level, no

significant main effects were found, nor was a significant interactional effect found for ANOVA 2, which addressed Hypotheses 4-6. Detailed results and interpretation of Table 18 are provided in later with discussion of each hypothesis.

Table 18

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: PSM

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	1.403 ^a	7	.200	.991	.442	.061
Intercept	839.750	1	839.750	4154.654	.000	.975
Tenure	.324	3	.108	.535	.659	.015
UMStatus	.067	1	.067	.334	.565	.003
Tenure * UMStatus	.599	3	.200	.989	.401	.027
Error	21.425	106	.202			
Total	1326.402	114				
Corrected Total	22.828	113				

a. R Squared = .061 (Adjusted R Squared = -.001)

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 posited differences in employees' PSM levels based on their organizational tenure. The null hypothesis that working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico does not affect employees' PSM levels could not be rejected because a significant main effect did not exist across the four levels of organizational tenure $F(3, 171) = 1.211, p > .05$ (see Table 14). Although a significant difference did not exist, Figure 3 shows the trend of PSM levels dropping from 0 through 4 years to 10 through 14 years and then rising after 15 years.

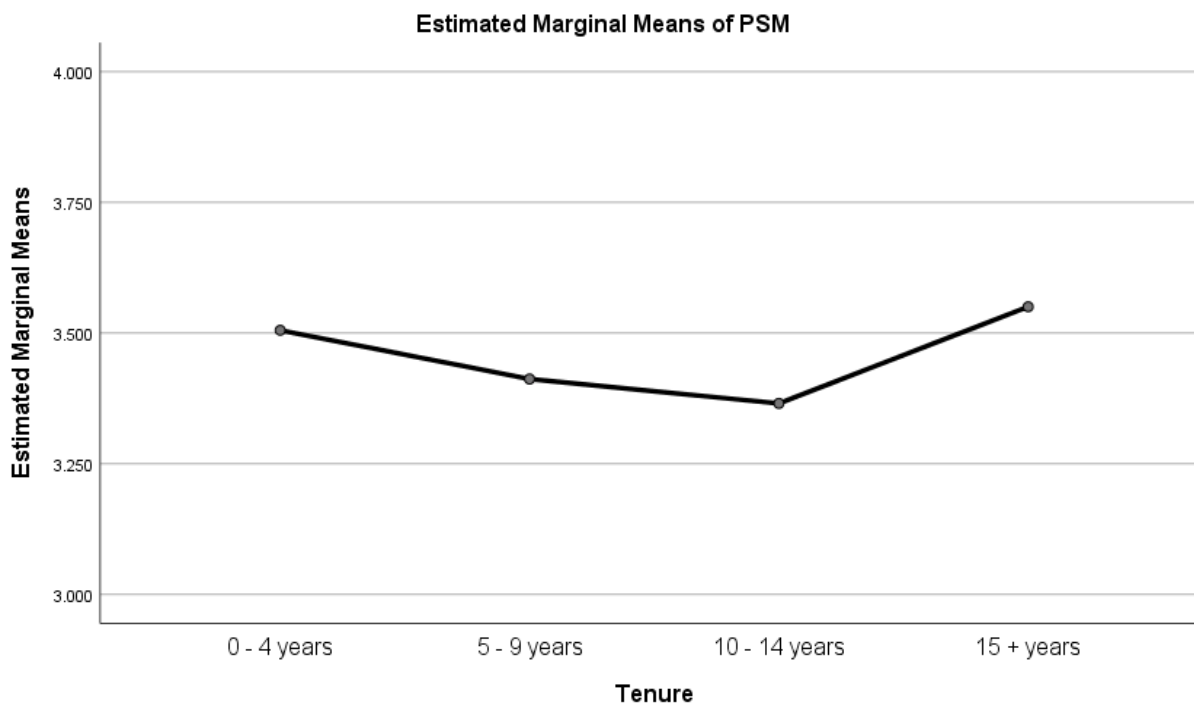


Figure 3. Effects of Organizational Tenure on PSM. Readers are advised that the visual representation uses a scale from 3-4 rather than 1-5 for easier readability of the graph.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 posited differences in employees' PSM levels based on whether their job existed in a bargaining unit or not. The null hypothesis that bargaining unit status does not affect PSM levels of local government employees in a city in New Mexico was rejected because a significant main effect existed between the two levels of bargaining unit status $F(1, 171) = 5.213$, $p < .05$. BU Yes had a mean of 3.382, while BU No had a significantly higher mean of 3.552 (Sig. = .024, $p < .05$) (see Table 14). This reflects that employees not in a bargaining unit had significantly higher PSM levels than employees in a bargaining unit. Figure 4 presents a visual description of the difference in means for bargaining unit status.

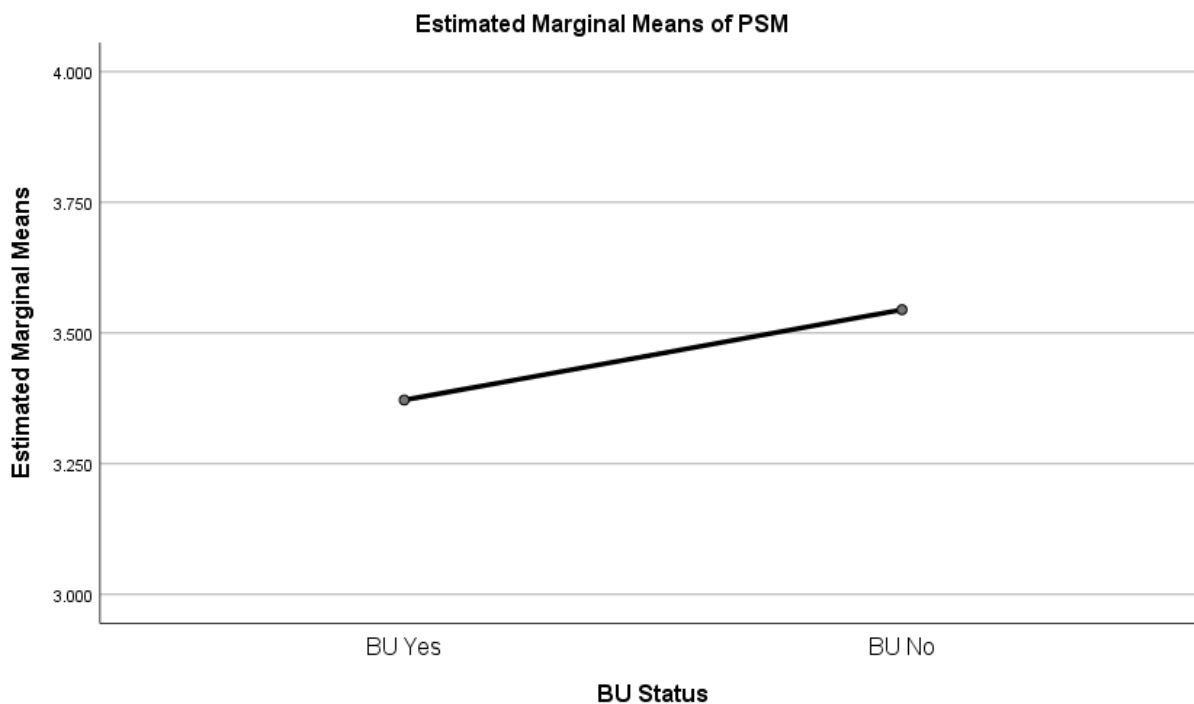


Figure 4. Effects of Bargaining Unit Status on PSM. Readers are advised that the visual representation uses a scale from 3-4 rather than 1-5 for easier readability of the graph.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 posited the existence of a relationship between employees' organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and bargaining unit status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels. The null hypothesis that no relationship existed between organizational tenure and bargaining unit status could not be rejected because a significant interactional effect did not exist between organizational tenure and bargaining unit status $F(3, 171) = .558, p > .05$ (see table 14). Although a significant interaction did not exist, Figure 5 shows both bargaining unit employees and non-bargaining unit employees in concurrence with organizational tenure. Bargaining unit employees' PSM declined from 0 through 4 years and then rose thereafter. Non-bargaining unit employees' PSM declined until 10 through 14 years and then showed an incline at 15 or more years.

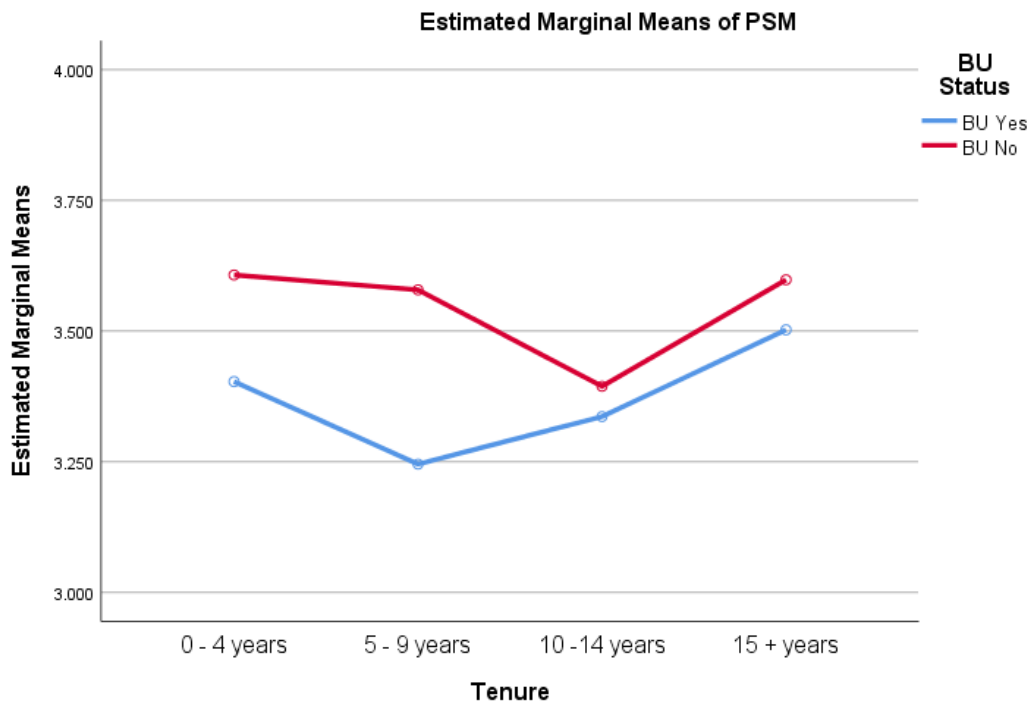


Figure 5. Interaction between tenure and BU status. Readers are advised that the visual representation uses a scale from 3-4 rather than 1-5 for easier readability of the graph.

Hypothesis 4

For employees in a bargaining unit, Hypothesis 4 posited differences in PSM levels based on organizational tenure. The null hypothesis that for employees in a bargaining unit, time spent working for a city government organization in New Mexico does not affect PSM levels could not be rejected because a significant main effect did not exist across the four levels of organizational tenure $F(3, 106) = .535, p > .05$ (see Table 18). Although a significant difference did not exist, Figure 6 shows PSM levels declined from 0 through 4 years, to 5 through 9 years, and then inclined thereafter.

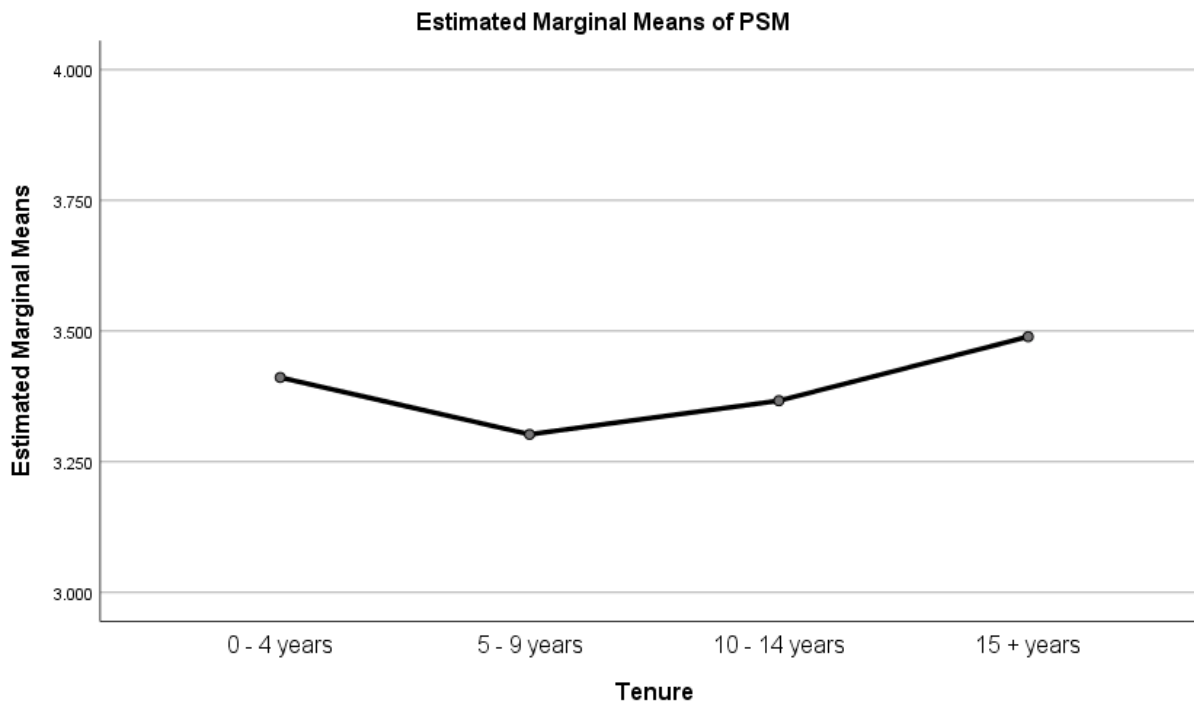


Figure 6. Effects of organizational tenure on PSM for employees in a bargaining unit. Readers are advised that the visual representation uses a scale from 3-4 rather than 1-5 for easier readability of the graph.

Hypothesis 5

For employees in a bargaining unit, Hypothesis 5 posted differences in employees' PSM levels based on whether they were union members or not. The null hypothesis that for employees in a bargaining unit, union membership status does not affect PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico could not be rejected because a significant main effect was not present between the two levels of union membership status $F(1, 106) = .334, p > .05$ (see Table 18). UM Yes had a mean of 3.360, while UM No had a higher mean of 3.423 showing that bargaining unit employees who chose to not be union members reported higher levels of PSM than bargaining unit employees who are union members; however the difference did not rise to a level of significance ($p < .05$). Figure 7 presents a visual description of the difference in means for union membership status.

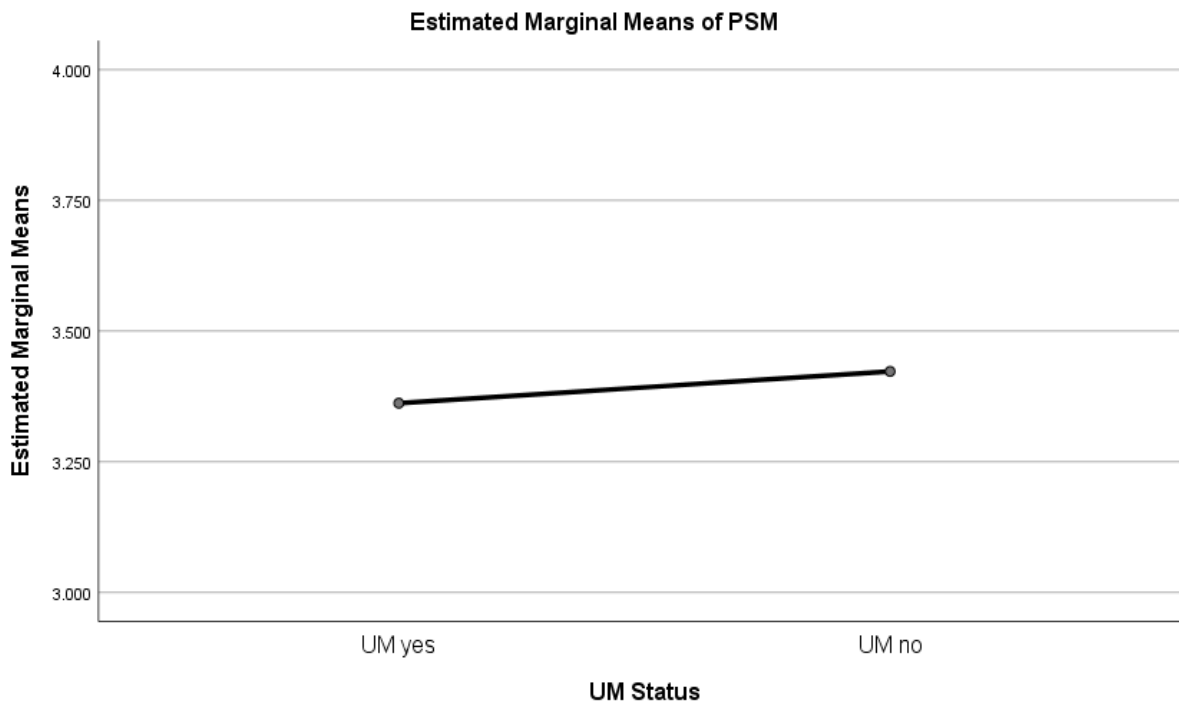


Figure 7. Effects of union membership on PSM for employees in a bargaining unit. Readers are advised that the visual representation uses a scale from 3-4 rather than 1-5 for easier readability of the graph.

Hypothesis 6

For employees in a bargaining unit, Hypothesis 6 posited the existence of a relationship between employees' organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and union membership status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels. The null hypothesis that no relationship existed between organizational tenure and union membership status could not be rejected because a significant interactional effect did not exist between organizational tenure and union membership status $F(3, 106) = .989, p > .05$ (see Table 18). Although a significant interaction did not exist, Figure 8 shows an interactional effect existed between union members and non-members. While PSM levels of non-union members were relatively stable across all tenure levels with means ranging from 3.302 to 3.489, union membership was much more volatile with means ranging from 3.296 to 3.608. PSM for union members (UM yes) declined from 0 through 4 years and then

rose thereafter. The interactional effect was present between the tenure of 10 through 14 years and 15 or more years.

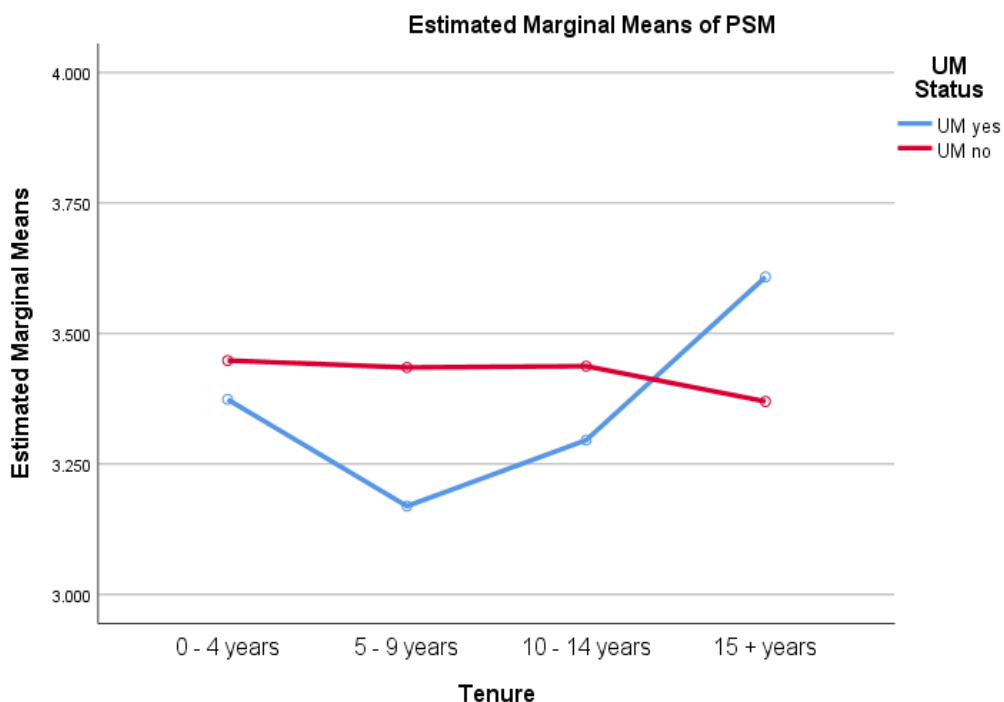


Figure 8. Interaction between tenure and UM status. Readers are advised that the visual representation uses a scale from 3-4 rather than 1-5 for easier readability of the graph.

Chapter 4 Summary and Findings

Chapter 4 provided results from the quantitative data obtained in this study. The results were presented in narrative, table, and figure formats to display visual representations of the results. Demographic information including participants' age, race/ethnicity, gender, education level, city department, and city organizational tenure was presented and discussed. Descriptive information about the overall results of the survey in addition to ANOVA assumptions was also discussed.

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 were answered by completing a 4x2 ANOVA procedure to find out whether organizational tenure affects PSM, whether bargaining unit status affects PSM, and

whether interactional effects existed between organizational tenure and bargaining unit status, with regard to employees' PSM levels. Two levels of variables violated normality assumptions, which were Tenure of 5 through 9 years and Bargaining Unit Yes; however, the factorial ANOVA procedure was robust enough to allow for analysis (Schmider et al., 2010; Spencer et al., 2017). Results of the ANOVA did not find significant differences between levels of organizational tenure on PSM. Results did show a significant difference between employees in a bargaining unit (BU Yes) and employees not in a bargaining unit (BU No). No significant differences or interactional effects were present between organizational tenure and bargaining unit status.

Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 were answered by completing a 4x2 ANOVA procedure for employees in a bargaining unit (BU Yes) to find out whether organizational tenure affected PSM, whether union membership status affected PSM, and whether interactional effects existed between organizational tenure and union membership status, in regard to employees' PSM levels. Three levels of variables violated normality assumptions, which were Tenure of 0 through 4 years, 5 through 9 years, and union members (UM Yes); however, the factorial ANOVA procedure was robust enough to allow for analysis (Schmider et al., 2010; Spencer, 2017). Results of the ANOVA for bargaining unit employees (BU Yes) did not find significant differences between levels of organizational tenure on PSM. Significant differences were not present between bargaining unit employees who were union members versus those employees who were not union members. Furthermore, no significant interactional effects were present between organizational tenure and union membership status, although a non-significant interaction occurred for union members (UM Yes) and non-members (UM No) between tenure of 10 through 14 years, and tenure of 15 or more years.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion of the findings from Chapter 4 with regard to the research questions and related hypotheses, which involved examination of how the three independent variables consisting of employees' organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status affected the dependent variable, Public Service Motivation. The statistical results were presented in Chapter 4 and are further discussed in this chapter. The meaning of this study's findings is explored in the context of the literature reviewed, the theoretical framework, and the findings' contribution to the knowledge base. Additionally, implications for future research are discussed, and recommendations for practice and future practice are presented.

Prior to this study, no academic research specifically addressing the effects of organizational tenure on PSM in local or municipal government organizations in the United States existed, and only one study drew a correlation between tenure and PSM levels (French & Emerson, 2014). In addition, research in local or municipal government organizations related to how PSM is affected by bargaining unit status was nonexistent, and research pertaining to how PSM is affected by union membership was limited to two studies (Davis, 2011, 2013). This study is the first of its kind to explore the effects of organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status in local or municipal government employees in regard to PSM.

The purpose of this research study was to examine how organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status affect PSM within a municipal government organization in New Mexico. Research was conducted to attempt to determine if organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status significantly affect employees' PSM levels.

The problem addressed by this study is that two of the largest challenges facing public service organizations in motivating their workforces are the aging workforce and formidable union influence (Lavigna, 2014). Therefore, gaining knowledge about the effects of organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status can inform organizations and assist HRD professionals in implementing training and development initiatives in the areas of recruitment, hiring, employee motivation, and career transitioning. The specific research questions to be answered by this research study were the following:

- 1) Does organizational tenure affect employees' PSM levels in a municipal government organization in New Mexico?
- 2) Does bargaining unit status affect employees' PSM levels in a municipal government organization in New Mexico?
- 3) Is there a relationship between organizational tenure and bargaining unit status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels in a municipal government organization in New Mexico?
- 4) For employees in a bargaining unit, does organizational tenure affect employees' PSM levels within a municipal government organization in New Mexico?
- 5) For employees in a bargaining unit, does union membership status affect employees' PSM levels in a municipal government organization in New Mexico?
- 6) For employees in a bargaining unit, does a relationship exist between organizational tenure and union membership status in regard to their PSM levels in a municipal government organization in New Mexico?

Discussion of Findings

Research Question 1

Does time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico affect employees' PSM levels? The corresponding hypotheses for this research questions were:

H₀₁: Time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico does not affect employees' PSM levels.

H₁: Time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico significantly affects employees' PSM levels.

Results of the current study indicated no significant differences in PSM levels among the four categories of tenure which consisted of 0 through 4 years, 5 through 9 years, 10 through 14 years, and 15 or more years. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H₀₁) cannot be rejected. While we fail to reject the null hypothesis because no significant differences existed, the results still provided for interesting points worthy of discussion. The 0 through 4 years' tenure group had a mean of 3.46, the 5 through 9 years' tenure group had a mean of 3.34, the 10 through 14 years' tenure group had a mean of 3.36, and the 15 or more years' tenure group had a mean of 3.44. While these results do not offer significant differences between the groups, breaking down the data further for the 15 or more years' data group yields interesting results. The decision was made to only have four tenure groupings, and the last tenure grouping comprised all employees with 15 or more years of organizational tenure. This was largely due to the population's not providing enough employees to warrant adequate data points for analysis beyond 15 years of organizational tenure. That being the case, although the data points were scant, a tenure grouping of 15 through 19 years offered a mean of 3.52, and a tenure grouping of 20 through 24 years provided a mean of 3.68 with regard to PSM levels.

Prior research addressing the effect tenure has on PSM levels of municipal government employees was limited to one study (French & Emerson, 2014), which found a positive correlation between organizational tenure and PSM levels, although the correlation was found as an antecedent of the study and was not the focus of the study. The current findings have both differences and similarities with French and Emerson (2014). The PSM means of the current study declined after the first tenure grouping, which does not correspond with French and Emerson (2014). Beginning with the second tenure grouping (5 through 9 years), however, the PSM means increased, especially after 15 years, which was similar to the findings of French and Emerson (2014).

Although Moynihan and Pandey (2007) focused on state health and human service managers across the United States, they found that a significant negative relationship between PSM and organizational tenure existed. While the current study's findings reflected that PSM means decreased after the initial tenure grouping (0 through 4 years), they increased thereafter. These results do not correspond with Moynihan and Pandey (2007) because significant differences did not exist among the groups of tenure, nor was there an overall trend reflecting that PSM and organizational tenure have a negative relationship.

Further studies on PSM and tenure have resulted in inconclusive results. Kim (2018) conducted a study on PSM and organizational tenure, examining municipal employees in South Korea, which yielded inconclusive results. Jensen and Vestergaard (2017) studied public health employees in Denmark and also showed mixed findings pertaining to PSM and tenure. The results of the current study fall more in line with these studies (Kim, 2018; Jensen & Vestergaard, 2017), which all reflect inconclusive findings because the differences between

tenure groupings were insignificant and shared both similarities and differences in trends with prior related studies.

Research Question 2

Does bargaining unit status affect PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico? The related hypotheses for this question were:

H₀₂: Bargaining unit status does not affect PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.

H₂: Bargaining unit status has a significant effect on the PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.

This study found significant differences in PSM levels between employees in bargaining unit positions and employees in non-bargaining unit positions. Non-bargaining unit employees' PSM levels ($M = 3.55$) were significantly higher than the PSM levels of bargaining unit employees ($M = 3.38$). Thus, this significant difference resulted in the null hypothesis (H₀₂) being rejected.

For the municipal organization studied, non-bargaining unit employees include the city's supervisors, managers, and those who work in confidential capacities such as human resources employees, payroll staff, budget staff, and executive assistants who report directly to executive level positions. Bargaining unit employees include all non-supervisory, non-managerial, non-confidential employees across city departments and run the gamut from custodians, streets workers, park maintenance workers, utilities customer service specialists, librarians, administrative staff, and accountants.

Research had not yielded any studies prior to this one regarding how PSM is affected by the bargaining unit status of employees. French and Emerson (2014), however, examined PSM

levels among managers and non-managers. Although the results cannot be compared directly because it is unknown which positions in French and Emerson's (2014) study were in a bargaining unit, their findings were not supported by the findings of the current study when comparing bargaining unit positions in the current study against similar positions in the former study. The current study found that employee PSM levels were significantly higher in non-bargaining unit employees than in bargaining unit employees. As all managers and supervisors in the current study were non-bargaining unit employees, and non-bargaining unit employees were found to have significantly higher PSM levels than bargaining unit employees, these findings contradict French and Emerson's (2014) findings that no significant differences existed between PSM levels of managers and non-managers. French and Emerson's (2014) finding that employees in administrative positions had the highest PSM levels is even more difficult to compare with the current study because "administrative" positions were not defined in the prior study, and in the current study, administrative positions consisted of both bargaining unit and non-bargaining unit positions.

With a lack of exiting research in this area, it remains unclear whether bargaining unit status itself is the driver of PSM levels, whether it is the nature of the positions themselves rather than bargaining unit status that affects PSM levels, or whether there is a multitude of other organizational factors. The inability to draw conclusions across these two studies and the lack of research overall pertaining to the topic of how bargaining unit status affects PSM speaks to the need for additional research in this area. What can be ascertained, though, is that for the population studied, bargaining unit employees had significantly lower PSM scores than non-bargaining unit employees.

Research Question 3

Does a relationship exist between employees' organizational tenure in a city in New Mexico and bargaining unit status as it pertains to their PSM levels? The corresponding hypotheses for this research question were these:

H₀₃: No relationship exists between employees' organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and bargaining unit status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

H₃: A significant relationship exists between employees' organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and bargaining unit status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

This study was the first to examine relationships between organizational tenure and bargaining unit status in regard to employees' PSM levels. No significant interactions were present between the two independent variables, and the null hypothesis (H₀₃) was therefore not rejected.

Although the null hypothesis was not rejected in this case, the data presented findings worth discussing further. Non-bargaining unit employees' PSM was significantly higher ($M = 3.55$) than bargaining unit employees ($M = 3.38$), but these variables showed inconsistent trends between each other with regard to organizational tenure (See Figure 5). Both bargaining unit employees and non-bargaining unit employees showed declines in PSM levels after four years. Similarly, both bargaining unit employees and non-bargaining unit employees showed increases in PSM after 15 years of organizational tenure. It would be interesting to glean further insight into the causes of PSM declining after hire and then rising after 15 years for both bargaining unit and non-bargaining unit employees, as they showed parallel trends in these areas.

Bargaining unit and non-bargaining unit employees, however, displayed divergent results during the mid-tenure years. Non-bargaining unit employees showed a decline in PSM

throughout their tenure until 15 years. Bargaining unit employees, after an initial decline in PSM until 5 years, displayed an increase in PSM for the remainder of their tenure with the organization. The factors affecting differences between bargaining and non-bargaining unit employees during the periods between 5 and 14 years of tenure would be of interest to understand in order to assist HRD professionals in developing strategies to maximize motivation, performance, and retention during the course of employees' organizational tenure, especially because job satisfaction potentially decreases every three to five years (Dreher & Dougherty, 2001), and job content plateauing potentially occurs within 3-5 years after beginning a new job (Montgomery, 2002).

Research Question 4

For employees in a bargaining unit, does time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico affect their PSM levels? Accordingly, the hypotheses for this research question were:

H₀₄: For employees in a bargaining unit, time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico does not affect PSM levels.

H₄: For employees in a bargaining unit, time spent working as local government employees in a city in New Mexico significantly affects PSM levels.

Results of this study for bargaining unit employees indicated no significant differences in PSM levels among the four categories of tenure consisting of 0 through 4 years, 5 through 9 years, 10 through 14 years, and 15 or more years. Because no significant differences were found between the four groupings of tenure, the null hypothesis (H₀₄) was not rejected.

As was discussed previously, prior research addressing the affect tenure has on PSM levels of municipal government employees in the United States was limited to one study (French

& Emerson, 2014), which found a positive correlation between organizational tenure and PSM levels of employees. Although H_{04} was retained due to no significant differences, the results still provided information worthy of discussion. The 0 through 4 years' tenure group had a mean of 3.40, the 5 through 9 years' tenure group had a mean of 3.25, the 10 through 14 years' tenure group had a mean of 3.34, and the 15 or more years' tenure group had a mean of 3.50. Breaking down the data further for the 15 or more years' data group also yielded interesting results. Although the data points are scant because this question examines only bargaining unit employees (as opposed to all employees in Research Question 1), a tenure grouping of 15 through 19 years offered a mean of 3.44, and a tenure grouping of 20 through 24 years provided a mean of 3.63 in regards to PSM levels, although the tenure grouping of 20 through 24 years yielded only 6 data points.

Similar to the findings for all employees regardless of their bargaining unit status, the results showed a trend of PSM decreasing initially but then increasing steadily after 9 years. Furthermore, similar to the results in Research Question 1 comprising all employees, the results of the isolated group of bargaining unit employees beyond 15 years of organizational tenure correspond with Emerson and French's (2014) findings, who reported that a positive correlation existed between organizational tenure and PSM levels within local government employees. These results, however, run parallel to the findings in Research Question 1 and share the same similarities and difference with prior studies which have been discussed. The insignificant results with regard to PSM's effect on organizational tenure lend this study to be most similar to the results obtained by Kim (2018) and Jensen and Vestergaard (2017), which also yielded inconclusive findings.

Research Question 5

For employees in a bargaining unit, does union membership status affect the PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico? The corresponding hypotheses for this research question were as follows:

H₀₅: For employees in a bargaining unit, union membership status does not affect PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.

H₅: For employees in a bargaining unit, union membership status significantly affects the PSM levels of local government employees working in a city in New Mexico.

This study showed no significant differences in PSM levels between union members and non-members for bargaining unit employees. Union members had a PSM mean of 3.35, while non-members had a PSM mean of 3.43. Thus, the null hypothesis (H₀₅) was not rejected.

Prior research has yielded only two studies regarding how PSM is affected by local government employees' union membership. Davis' (2011) mixed-methods study of blue-collar municipal employees in the Midwestern United States found inconclusive results with regard to how union socialization affected PSM levels overall and obtained mixed results pertaining to how union socialization affected the four facets of PSM individually. Similarities between the current study and Davis (2011) are difficult to draw because it is unclear if the employees in Davis' (2011) study were union members or merely bargaining unit members. However, while the current study examined PSM in its totality rather than by the facets comprising it, the results displayed similar trends to Davis' (2011) study in that the findings overall were inconclusive and showed no significant differences between the groups of union members and non-members.

In the other prior study examining PSM and union members, Davis (2013) concluded that employees with higher commitment to the union had higher PSM levels. Once again, parallels

between the current study and Davis' (2013) study are difficult to ascertain because in the former study, "higher commitment to the union" was not defined, nor was it clear that it meant being a "union member." The current study was the first to specifically address how PSM is affected by employees' status as union members. Furthermore, this study is the first of its kind since the Supreme Court's *Janus* ruling in June 2018, which reshaped the landscape for union membership in the United States. Although these differences are important to note, the current study did not agree with Davis' (2013) conclusion that employees with higher union commitment had higher levels of PSM because non-union members ($M = 3.42$) had higher PSM than union members ($M = 3.35$).

Research Question 6

For employees in the bargaining unit, does a relationship exist between organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and union membership status in regard to the PSM levels of employees? The related hypotheses are stated below:

H₀₆: For employees in a bargaining unit, no relationship exists between organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and union membership status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

H₆: For employees in a bargaining unit, a significant relationship exists between organizational tenure within a city in New Mexico and union membership status as it pertains to employees' PSM levels.

No significant interactions were present between the two independent variables, and therefore the null hypothesis (H₀₆) was not rejected.

This study was the first to examine potential relationships between organizational tenure and union membership status with regard to employees' PSM levels. Although the null

hypothesis was not rejected in this case, the data presented interesting findings. Despite a lack of significant interaction, an interactional effect did exist between union members and non-members (See Figure 8). While PSM levels of non-union members were relatively stable across all tenure levels with means ranging from 3.302 to 3.489, the means of union membership varied more, ranging from 3.296 to 3.608. PSM for union members declined until 5 through 9 years and then continued rising thereafter (see Figure 8). The interactional effect was present between employees with 10 through 14 years and with 15 or more years of organizational tenure (see Figure 8). Overall, of interest was the relative stability despite a slight decline of PSM scores across tenure for non-union members, while union members' PSM levels fluctuated more. Factors affecting differences between union members and non-union members over time would be valuable for the field of HRD to understand so that training and employee development initiatives can be leveraged to maximize employees' PSM levels throughout their careers in an organization for both union members and non-members.

Limitations

For this study, three major limitations were identified, which included that the results were from only one organization, that the organization studied was the researcher's employer, and that the *Janus* ruling occurred only 13 months prior to data collection.

The limitations of deriving results from only one organization, a city government organization in New Mexico, was a limitation in this study. Using a total population sampling technique with a relatively small population ($N = 304$), high response rates were required. Although an acceptable number of responses was achieved ($n = 179$) given a 95% confidence interval and a 5% margin of error, the results yielded low responses in some areas. For example, in the second ANOVA procedure which included only bargaining unit employees, the non-union

member category for organizational tenure of 5 through 9 years only yielded 6 responses, and the non-union member category of 10 through 14 years yielded only 4 responses. The limited responses in these categories, although representative of the true findings of the study, require the results of the ANOVA procedure to be used with caution because of the propensity of small data sets to yield Type I errors (Hacksaw, 2008) as well as Type II errors (Button et al., 2013; Salkind, 2017). Additionally, although the response rates were adequate for the population studied, normality violations for both ANOVA procedures performed occurred due to outliers at the high and low ends of the respective distributions. Furthermore, normality violations in the middle of both distributions were present, resulting in skewed kurtoses in both distributions. The normality violations were largely due to the small data set and the low responses in some areas. Because of the small sample sizes provided in this study, more research should be conducted providing further analysis (Hacksaw, 2008). Lastly, the results of this research are unable to be generalized to other municipal government organizations because the sample population is small, consisting of data from one City in New Mexico, and due to the lack of other studies on this topic, points of comparison with other research are limited.

The researcher conducting the study in his own workplace being in a position of power in the organization was limiting in that employees may have been resistant to providing candid responses. This limitation required the researcher to ensure and maintain the protection of confidentiality of participants, and transparency regarding the intent of the results as an upmost priority throughout the study. Because the organization studied was small and the researcher knew the vast majority of the employees, the demographic breakdown of each department, and had access to all demographic employee information across the organization, maintaining the integrity of the data was critical in order to not contaminate the results.

Finally, because the *Janus* ruling was so new, its impact may not be fully realized, and results of the study therefore may not be representative of the ultimate impact the *Janus* decision will have on unions and public sector organizations. For example, although information was provided to all bargaining unit employees across the organization following the *Janus* decision regarding their rights, and these rights have been presented and explained in every new employee orientation class since the ruling was levied, during the data collection for this project several bargaining unit employees questioned what the ruling meant and were unaware of their rights. Over time, as the results are better known and accepted by bargaining unit employees, the impact of the *Janus* ruling will be more fully understood.

Implications

Given that this study was the first to specifically address the effects of bargaining unit status on employees' PSM levels, it remains unclear if bargaining unit status itself is the driver of PSM levels, if it is the nature of the positions rather than bargaining unit status that affects PSM levels, or if a multitude of other organizational factors exist. For example, regardless of whether positions exist in a bargaining unit or not, would differences exist in PSM levels of employees? Generally speaking, do white collar employees possess higher levels of PSM than blue collar employees? Does socialization within the union bargaining unit cause the difference in PSM levels? Or, do employees' individual PSM levels motivate them to pursue higher level jobs in management, therefore resulting in employees promoting out of the bargaining unit? The results of the current study indicate that bargaining unit employees have significantly lower PSM than non-bargaining unit employees. Furthermore, within a bargaining unit, although not significant, union members have lower PSM than non-members. Why do bargaining unit employees have lower PSM than non-bargaining unit employees, and why do union members have lower PSM

than non-members? The results of this study indicate that many questions remain regarding the drivers of PSM. Despite these lingering questions, the findings of this study had implications for human resources management (HRM) professionals, human resource development (HRD) professionals, and union leaders.

Implications for HRM Professionals

The findings for all employees regardless of whether they were in a bargaining unit or not indicated that organizational tenure did not significantly impact PSM levels in employees. This information is helpful from an HRM perspective. As public sector HRM professionals strive to maximize employee motivation and specifically PSM throughout employees' careers, it is helpful to understand whether organizational tenure is a driver of PSM levels. If organizational tenure is not a significant driver of PSM levels, HRM's potential prioritization of maximizing PSM when attracting, recruiting, selecting, retaining, and transitioning employees can be accomplished without concern for organizational tenure as a significant factor, and focus can be on other factors which may be determined through research to affect PSM levels.

From an HRM perspective, the significant difference between bargaining unit employees and non-bargaining unit employees regarding PSM levels is important. By and large, the bargaining unit employees are the employees providing direct services to the citizens and these positions generally have more direct contact with citizens than non-bargaining unit positions. Having the knowledge that employees in bargaining units may possess lower PSM than non-bargaining unit employees can shape the way HRM attracts, recruits, retains, and transitions bargaining unit employees.

Additionally, understanding why non-bargaining unit employees may have higher PSM levels than bargaining unit employees is important for HRM professionals. Non-bargaining unit

employees consisted of supervisors, managers, and those who work in confidential capacities. Perhaps individuals' higher PSM levels were contributing factors to non-bargaining unit employees promoting out of bargaining unit jobs and into supervisory, managerial, or confidential jobs, or perhaps some jobs attract individuals with higher or lower PSM levels. It is important to use knowledge of these issues to maximize PSM through HRM initiatives designed to attract, recruit, select, retain, and transition employees. HRM professionals who work in employee relations or labor relations can use this information as they work with unions in resolving employee or union concerns, and in negotiating agreements with unions such as collective bargaining agreements and compensation structures.

Implications for HRD Professionals

The findings that organizational tenure did not significantly impact PSM levels in employees also provides implications for HRD professionals. The harnessing and leveraging of PSM within the development, training, and coaching of employees, supervisors, managers, and leaders, can be accomplished with the knowledge that organizational tenure may not play a critical role, focus can be on alternative significant contextual factors influencing PSM levels in employees in order to maximize positive HRD impact on organizations in training, development, and coaching within public sector workforces.

Also, the significant difference in PSM levels between bargaining unit employees and non-bargaining unit employees is valuable for HRD professionals. Using this knowledge, HRD professionals can positively affect public sector workforces through developing, implementing, and delivering training, mentoring, and coaching programs designed to influence PSM levels of employees and taking into account the dynamics of differences between employees in bargaining units and non-bargaining units. Additionally, HRD professionals working with unions can use

this information to develop and deliver initiatives in collaboration with unions and aimed at positively impacting PSM levels of bargaining unit employees.

Implications for Union Leaders

The role of unions is to represent the interests of bargaining unit employees as they pertain to employees' compensation and working conditions. Knowledge gained through this study indicating that significant differences exist between bargaining unit and non-bargaining unit employees is important for union leaders. Because PSM levels in bargaining unit employees is significantly lower than PSM levels in non-bargaining unit employees, union leaders can develop and deliver initiatives directed at increasing PSM levels of the employees they represent. Also, the results of this study provide a platform for union leaders to collaborate with HRM when developing bargaining unit positions, and in the recruitment, retention, and transition of bargaining unit employees. The results of this study also provide a platform for union leaders to work closely with HRD professionals in developing and delivering training and development initiatives to bargaining unit employees in order to maximize PSM levels of bargaining unit employees.

Recommendations

The results of this study had several implications, which lead to recommendations for opportunities for advancement in future practice and research.

Recommendations for Future Practice

Taking the results of this study into account and understanding it is important to maximize motivation throughout the career cycle of employees, several recommendations for future practice exist for HRD professionals. The first steps in maximizing PSM in public organizations are attracting, recruiting, and selecting the right employees. Attracting and

selecting employees with high PSM levels harnesses the desired PSM qualities and places employees in environments where they are able to perform well (Christensen et al., 2017). While these processes, which may include advertising for jobs, screening applicants, and interviewing, traditionally fall within functions associated with HRM, HRD professionals can play an integral role in ensuring these processes are used to maximize PSM. Through training and development initiatives geared towards managers responsible for hiring new employees, organizations can bring in employees which possess the qualities and characteristics desired, including adequate or high PSM levels. Such training may consist of teaching hiring managers and supervisors how to develop job descriptions, ask interview questions targeting PSM values, conduct job interviews overall, administer pre-hire tests, and sell prospective employees on the attributes of the organization in ways which focus on the qualities of PSM.

With future research providing insight into the reasons why bargaining unit employees may have lower PSM than non-bargaining unit employees, HRD professionals can develop PSM in new bargaining unit employees through initiatives such as new employee orientation programs which display how their work directly impacts the lives of the citizens they serve, and explain how the work they provide contributes to the mission of the organization. In addition, HRD can collaborate and form alliances with the unions and use bargaining unit employees themselves in these training and development initiatives, which would serve to strengthen PSM levels in the employees assisting in conducting training, in addition to bolstering PSM in the new employees receiving the training.

Once employees with desired PSM levels are hired into an organization, maintaining PSM for all employees is important. Socialization in organizations plays a major role in fostering PSM in employees (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010), and managers have the ability to nurture PSM

in employees through job design, rewards, and performance feedback (Gould-Williams, 2016). These methods should strategically align employee values and organizational ideologies, which will positively affect employee PSM levels (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010; Wright, 2007). Furthermore, initiatives and practices which do not foster PSM or negatively affect PSM, such as pay-for-performance programs which foster extrinsic motivation rather than the characteristic of intrinsic motivation present in PSM should be considered for removal.

HRD is critical to the accomplishment of these practices. Beyond the initial training and development initiatives implemented and delivered by HRD professionals, continuous training and development throughout employees' careers should be centered on how their work provides value to the citizens they serve and how their work is linked to and supports the organizational mission (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010). Additionally, HRD can also develop future and current organizational leaders by teaching them how to model and communicate desired public service values (Christensen, 2017).

Because socialization plays a major role in fostering PSM in employees (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010), it is important for all aspects of socialization to focus on the virtues of PSM. Organizations have control over their mission, values, and the HRM and HRD practices and initiatives instilled to target PSM. They do not, however, have control over the mission, values, or initiatives of the unions, nor the communication which is directed at employees from unions. Therefore, especially given that bargaining unit employees potentially have lower PSM levels than non-bargaining unit employees, it is important for organizations to form alliances with unions and collaborate on training and development techniques and initiatives which nurture PSM in bargaining unit employees throughout their careers. One potential strategy to accomplish this is through dedicated peer coaching and mentorship programs, where employees identified

with high PSM levels serve as coaches and mentors to employees exhibiting low PSM levels or performance or conduct which runs contrary to the values of PSM.

Another strategy to nurture and maintain PSM throughout careers is for HRD to develop and deliver ongoing periodic training for employees, provide updates on current and future organizational projects and initiatives such as the organization's strategic plan, and communicate how all employees have a direct impact on the success of such projects and initiatives.

Furthermore, bargaining unit employees can take prominent and active roles in these HRD initiatives by assisting in the delivery of training in efforts to foster, solidify, and maximize PSM across the organization and especially among bargaining unit employees.

Recommendations for Future Research

The current study was the first attempt at specifically addressing how PSM is affected by organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status, and many questions are still to be answered. One of the largest challenges in PSM research is the fact that PSM has been used as an independent variable rather than as a dependent variable in order to understand the causes of PSM (Bozeman & Su, 2014). While this study addressed this gap in PSM research, more gaps exist, including more qualitative studies on PSM (Perry & Vandenabeele, 2015) and studies aimed at finding PSM's causal factors (Vandenabeele, 2014). In order to glean an understanding of PSM's causal relationships, more longitudinal research is needed because cross-sectional survey data provide information only on the direction of causality rather than on conclusions regarding causality (Vandenabeele et al., 2004). Pertaining to the current topics, longitudinal research is needed to further determine the effects of organizational tenure on employees' PSM levels. Directly assessing employees' PSM levels over time would help to inform the knowledge base about how organizational tenure affects PSM. An example of this

could be to assess PSM levels upon hire, potentially during new employee orientation, and then to continue assessing PSM at five-year increments during employees' tenure.

Finding out the effects of organizational tenure on PSM was one manner in which to address the challenges presented by motivating the aging public sector workforce (Lavigna, 2014). Beyond organizational tenure, there are several other ways to enrich the knowledge base about the effects of age on PSM levels of public sector employees. For example, future areas of research on PSM looking to glean insight into the challenges of an aging workforce can include studying how age specifically affects PSM and how public sector or governmental employment tenure overall affects PSM as opposed to tenure in one organization. Research addressing the aging public sector workforce in multiple contexts would be valuable for filling in the gaps which exist pertaining to the aging workforce and PSM.

With regard to bargaining unit status and union membership status, longitudinal studies are needed as well. Within unionized local government organizations, most local government employees start their tenures in a bargaining unit position (non-supervisory, non-managerial), and understanding how PSM levels may change over time as employees transition into different jobs in the organization, both inside and outside the dynamics of a bargaining unit, would help provide insight into how bargaining unit status affects employees' PSM levels. Because of the Supreme Court *Janus* decision handed down only 13 months before data was collected for this study, employees in public sector bargaining units are now afforded their first amendment rights to free speech and are given the ability either to not pay any fees to their union while still being afforded the same union protections as before or to make the decision to pay full union dues. This is different than in the past, where all bargaining unit employees were required to pay agency fees regardless of whether they wanted to be union members or not. Because these

changes are so recent, employees may not be fully aware of their rights or trust that deciding not to pay union dues will afford them the same union protections as before. It will take time for the full context of the *Janus* decision to be apparent, and longitudinal studies examining PSM levels in bargaining unit employees versus non-bargaining unit employees as well as union members versus non-union members in the bargaining unit will shed light on the impact of *Janus* and whether it affects PSM levels in employees.

Beyond longitudinal research, qualitative research to understand the drivers of PSM in employees is needed. In order to provide a more comprehensive theory, more qualitative research is required in order to more fully understand the motives and nature of public employees, and the lack of qualitative data directed at finding the causal factors of PSM is of immediate concern (Perry & Vandenberg, 2015). Regarding the topics of the current study, qualitative research would provide more insight into what affects PSM in employees, and qualitative data on how organizational and social factors affect PSM levels during the course of employees' tenure would be of value. Additionally, qualitative studies examining how bargaining unit status and union membership status affect PSM levels would be very useful in continuing to fill voids in knowledge and understanding of these PSM constructs. Because the results of this study found that employees in a bargaining unit had significantly lower PSM than employees not in a bargaining unit, and although not found to be significant, bargaining unit employees who chose to be union members had lower PSM than those who were non-union members, meaning qualitative research would provide employees' perceptions about the causal factors of these potential differences in employees. Understanding the reasons for these differences, including attitudes' towards unions by non-bargaining unit employees and

bargaining unit employees, would work towards finding out if unions are responsible for these differences, perhaps based on their real or perceived protections of employees.

In addition to longitudinal and qualitative research, more research along the lines of the current study is needed to be able to generalize about the factors affecting PSM levels. Although the current study may be generalizable to the organizational population which was studied, further similar studies in other local government organizations in the region and country, in addition to other governmental organizations such as state and federal governments and non-governmental public organizations, would be valuable. Such research would allow cross-comparisons and allow conclusions to be further drawn in attempts to fill gaps in the knowledge regarding PSM and its causal factors.

Conclusion

In attempting to address two of the largest challenges public service organizations face in motivating their workforces, which include the aging workforce and strong union influence (Lavigna, 2014), this study was the first to specifically target these areas with regard to their effects on PSM in local government employees. Although significant differences were not found in how PSM is affected by organizational tenure, this study highlighted possibilities for future research, which include longitudinal studies, qualitative studies, and an examination of facets of the aging workforce from other vantage points such as employee age and overall career tenure in public service. Future research findings will help to steer the profession of HRD in this regard, enabling HRD professionals to implement training and development aimed at maximizing PSM in an aging workforce, such as transition training for employees, organizational succession training, and development initiatives based on the dynamics of an aging workforce.

This study resulted in significant findings pertaining to bargaining unit employees. Employees in bargaining unit positions were found to have significantly lower PSM levels than non-bargaining unit employees. In order to learn more about the generalizability of these results, similar studies in local, state, and federal government organizations will provide more content and deeper understanding of the dynamics between bargaining unit employees and non-bargaining unit employees pertaining to employees' PSM levels. Furthermore, in light of *Janus'* effects potentially not being realized due to its recency, longitudinal studies are needed to learn more about differences between non-bargaining unit employees, bargaining unit employees who choose to not be union members, and bargaining unit employees choosing union membership.

Further research will benefit organizations and enable HRD professionals to employ training and development targeted at leveraging PSM within a unionized workforce through enlightening and reinforcing the value employees provide to the organizational mission and to citizens. HRD professionals can work in partnership with unions to develop these initiatives, and bargaining unit employees and union members can assist in the delivery of these initiatives. By collaborating more with bargaining unit employees and unions themselves, PSM can be maximized long term across all organizational levels and across all employees for the betterment of the organization and ultimately for the betterment of the citizens that public organizations are entrusted to serve.

Chapter 5 Summary

Prior to this study, research examining how PSM levels in local government employees were affected by organizational tenure was limited. There were no studies specifically addressing this relationship, and only one study (French and Emerson, 2014) drew a correlation between organizational tenure and PSM levels in local government employees. Additionally, before this

study, research was scarce pertaining to the effects of bargaining unit status and union membership status on PSM levels of local government employees. Only two studies (Davis, 2011, 2013) had addressed how union socialization affected employees' PSM levels, and no studies had been conducted following the Supreme Court's *Janus* decision in June 2018, which reshaped the landscape of the rights of bargaining unit employees in the United States' public sector.

This study included results from cross-sectional quantitative research. Findings showed that organizational tenure did not significantly impact employees' PSM levels regardless of bargaining unit status or union membership status for employees in a bargaining unit. Additionally, results indicated no significant differences in bargaining unit employees' PSM levels between union members and employees who were not union members. This study, however, found significant differences between PSM levels of employees in a bargaining unit versus employees in non-bargaining unit positions, indicating that non-bargaining unit employees had significantly higher levels of PSM than employees in a bargaining unit.

Chapter 5 provided a discussion of the findings and a review of the research questions and corresponding hypotheses. The study's findings were discussed in the context of relevant literature, the theoretical framework of the study, its implications, and the ways in which the results contributed to the knowledge base. Additionally, Chapter 5 provided recommendations for future practice and research regarding the study's findings.

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APPENDIX A: PERMISSION TO USE PSM SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Permission to use PSM Survey Instrument

Ty Ryburn <tyryburn@email.uark.edu>
to perry

Dr. Perry,

I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Arkansas. I am currently working on my dissertation proposal, tentatively titled “Effects of Tenure and Union Membership on Public Service Motivation” under the direction of my Doctoral Advisor, Dr. Carsten Schmidtke. I am requesting your permission to reproduce and use your Public Service Motivation survey instrument within my study as a methodological component. I would use the survey for educational research purposes only and it will not be used to generate compensation or for any curriculum development initiatives. Additionally, I will include the copyright statement on all copies of the instrument and cite you as the survey’s author. Lastly, I will send my research study and copies of any entities making use of my survey data directly and promptly to your attention.

Feel free to contact me via email or phone if you have any questions, concerns, or if I may need to consult anyone else regarding the use of the survey. My phone number is (505) 300-6292. If these terms and conditions are acceptable, please respond in acknowledgement. If you would like me to send you this request via Certified Mail, I will be happy to do so.

Sincerely,

Ty Ryburn

Doctoral Candidate, University of Arkansas

Expected Date of Completion: Spring 2020

Perry, James L.

to me

Ty,

You have my permission to use the public service motivation instrument. I look forward to seeing your findings. If you have not looked at the bibliography on my website (<https://psm.indiana.edu/>), then I encourage you to do so. You might find some additional sources for your research.

Best wishes for your dissertation.

Jim

APPENDIX B: PERMISSION TO ACCESS POPULATION

Doctoral Dissertation Study

Ty Ryburn <tyryburn@email.uark.edu>

Wed, Jun 12,
10:12 AM

to jcraig

Mr. Craig,

For my doctoral dissertation, I am studying factors influencing the motivation of local government employees. Specifically, my dissertation will test the variables of time spent working within a municipal or county government organization and union membership status on the public service motivation levels of employees. I will need access to a population of employees (employees comprising an organization) who will be surveyed through email. For those employees without email access, I will coordinate efficient times to meet with them and I will distribute physical surveys to them. The surveys should take less than 10 minutes to complete. Additionally, the responses will be confidential, with the intent of protecting the identities of all participants, as well as generating honest responses. I will supply the participating organization with the results of the study. The overall purpose of the study is to inform both the academic community, as well as local government organizations regarding how tenure within an organization and union membership status affect public service motivation levels of government employees, so we can most effectively recruit, retain, and transition employees with the intent of providing the best possible services to the citizens we serve.

If you agree, I would like to begin collecting data as soon as possible. I am happy to discuss this with you further and answer any questions or concerns you have. I hope you'll consider it. I don't think it will create a burden on your employees and the results should be really interesting.



John Craig [via cityofrriorancho.onmicrosoft.com](mailto:cityofrriorancho.onmicrosoft.com) Fri, Jun 28, 12:21 PM (1 day ago)

to me

Mr. Ryburn,

As we have discussed, this is an exciting opportunity for the City. I approve of the survey to be used here in Rio Rancho and look forward to the results. Let me know if you need anything additional.

Best,

John

*John C. Craig
Acting City Manager
City of Rio Rancho*

APPENDIX C: PSM SCALE (PERRY, 1996): 24-ITEMS

The following 24 questions measure Public Service Motivation (Perry, 1996). Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements using the following scale:

1-Strongly Disagree

2-Disagree

3-Undecided

4-Agree

5-Strongly Agree

1. Politics is a dirty word. (R)
2. The give and take of public policy making doesn't apply to me. (R)
3. I don't care much for politicians. (R)
4. I consider public service my civic duty.
5. Meaningful public service is very important to me.
6. I would prefer seeing public officials do what is best for the whole community even if it harmed my interests.
7. It is hard for me to get intensely interested in what is going on in my community. (R)
8. I unselfishly contribute to my community.
9. It is difficult for me to contain my feelings when I see people in distress.
10. I am often reminded by daily events how dependent we are on one another.
11. I am rarely moved by the plight of the underprivileged. (R)
12. To me, patriotism includes seeing to the welfare of others.
13. Most social programs are too vital to do without.
14. There are few public programs that I wholeheartedly support. (R)
15. I have little compassion for people in need who are unwilling to take the first steps themselves. (R)
16. I seldom think about the welfare of people whom I don't know personally. (R)
17. Serving other citizens would give me a good feeling even if no one paid me for it.
18. Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements.
19. I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society.
20. I believe in putting duty before self.
21. I am one of those rare people who would risk personal loss to help someone else.
22. I feel people should give back to society more than they should get from it.
23. Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself.
24. Doing well financially is definitely more important to me than doing good deeds. (R)

APPENDIX D: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE

You are invited to participate in a research study about the effect of organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership on the Public Service Motivation of local government employees. You are being asked to participate in this study because you are a local government employee. To participate in this study, you will need to read this informed consent statement and, if you agree to participate, initial in acknowledgment at the bottom of this document.

THINGS TO KNOW ABOUT THIS RESEARCH STUDY

Project Title

The Effect of Tenure, Bargaining Unit Status, and Union Membership on Local Government Employee Public Service Motivation

Principal Investigator

Ty Ryburn, [REDACTED],
tyryburn@email.uark.edu

Faculty Advisor

Dr. Carsten Schmidtke, Assistant Professor of Human Resource and Workforce Development, University of Arkansas, College of Education and Health Professions, 133B Graduate Education Building, Fayetteville, AR 72701, (479) 575-4047, cswded@uark.edu

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to find out whether differences in Public Service Motivation levels exist based on time spent in an organization, and how bargaining unit status and union membership status affect Public Service Motivation levels of employees.

Procedures

Your participation in this study will consist of completing a survey which consists of three sections and 32 questions. Section I is to collect demographic information; Section II pertains to your organizational tenure, bargaining unit status, and union membership status; and Section III measures your Public Service Motivation. The survey is administered using Qualtrics survey software made available by the University of Arkansas.

Risks of Participation

There are no known risks associated with this study that are greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life.

Benefits of Participation

No direct benefits are associated with this study. The results, however, may have implications for local government employers regarding motivating factors for employees in their jobs, providing insight into how to recruit, retain, train, and develop employees, supervisors, managers, and leaders.

Compensation for Participation

You will not be compensated for participation.

Confidentiality

All information obtained from participants will be kept confidential to the fullest extent of the law and University of Arkansas policy. No personally identifiable information will be included in the results of this study. After completion of this survey, the data will be entered into an Excel file stored on a password protected computer in the researcher's locked office. All physical documents will be maintained in a locked file cabinet to which only the researcher has access. All electronic documents will be saved in password protected files.

Reports of the study's findings will not include any personal information that can be linked to participants. The results of the analysis may be distributed in numerous ways:

1. The results of this study will be published in Mr. Ryburn's doctoral dissertation.
2. The results of this study may be used for presentations and conferences, workshops, and other public forums.
3. The results of this study may be published in scholarly journals.

Participant Rights

Your participation is not required, you may choose to stop participating at any point after beginning the survey, and you do not have to answer all of the questions. There are no negative consequences for non-participation or withdrawal from the study. At the conclusion of this study, you will have the right to request information about the results. You may contact the researcher, Ty Ryburn, directly. If you have questions regarding your rights as a participant or any concerns about the study, you may contact the University of Arkansas Research Compliance Office: Iroshi Windwalker, Compliance Coordinator, University of Arkansas, 109 MLKG Building, Fayetteville, AR 72701-1201, (479) 575-2208, irb@uark.edu

CONSENT STATEMENT

I have read the above statement and have been able to ask questions and express concerns. I understand the purpose of this study in addition to its potential benefits and risks. I understand that participation is voluntary. I understand that the findings of this study will be shared with participants. I understand that no rights have been waived by agreeing to the consent declaration. I have read and fully understand the consent form, and I freely and willingly acknowledge it. By completing this survey, I indicate my voluntary consent for my answers to be used in the research.

Initials

Date

APPENDIX E: IRB APPROVAL LETTER

To: Ty Michael Ryburn
From: Douglas James Adams, Chair
IRB Committee
Date: 05/21/2019
Action: **Exemption Granted**
Action Date: 05/21/2019
Protocol #: 1904194888
Study Title: The Effect of Tenure, Bargaining Unit Status, and Union Membership on Employee
Public Service Motivation

The above-referenced protocol has been determined to be exempt.

If you wish to make any modifications in the approved protocol that may affect the level of risk to your participants, you must seek approval prior to implementing those changes. All modifications must provide sufficient detail to assess the impact of the change.

If you have any questions or need any assistance from the IRB, please contact the IRB Coordinator at 109 MLKG Building, 5-2208, or irb@uark.edu.

cc: Carsten M Schmidtke, Key Personnel