From Theory to Practice:

Strategies for Applying Public Service Motivation

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Despite growing evidence of the existence of public service motivation (Perry and Wise, 1990) and its effects on employee performance, we have little understanding of what that means for management practices. How do we harness the positive effects of public service motivation to enhance employee and organizational performance? This chapter bridges the gap between our theoretical understanding of the motivational potential of public service and our applied understanding of how to "manage" employee motivations. We propose that in order to create high performing government organizations, leaders should adopt strategies that incorporate public service values across all levels of the organization's management systems.

Reviews of high performance management systems suggest that practices that promote shared values not only entice individuals to join an organization but also motivate people to act upon their values once a member of the organization. Such shared social structures may ultimately link people who normally do not interact, facilitating information sharing and improved ability to engage in complex problem solving, and creating shared mental models and norms of reciprocity. Despite the growing body of theoretical and empirical evidence that suggests value-based management may enhance individual and organizational performance, applied values management is significantly underdeveloped. Existing research tells us little about how to "manage" public service values as scholars have made less progress in translating findings about public service motivation into recommendations for how practitioners can use public service values to improve performance in the workplace (Mann, 2006). Although individuals may enter public service with a predisposition to value certain public service ideals, values are also influenced through environmental forces, such as work place relationships and practices. In this chapter, we propose that public service values can be

managed in ways that strengthen the relationship between motives and behaviour by integrating public service values into the organization's management systems.

We propose strategies across five contextual units of analysis (Perry and Porter's 1982)--individual, job, workplace, organization and society -relevant for motivating employee behavior. Drawing upon Chapter 3's discussion of the behavioral dynamics of public service motivation, our strategies use management practices to reinforce value systems that motivate individuals to engage in public service behaviors. Our model of values management extends beyond the traditional human service functions of recruitment, appraisal, retention and rewards, to managing such values in all aspects of the organization, including task design and organizational mission. We also move beyond the formal human resource management system to look at social systems of leadership, culture, and interpersonal relationships that shape people and their attitudes and behaviors.

Individual-level Initiatives: Integrating Public Service Motivation into Human Resource Processes

One of the most important shifts in human resource management is moving away from a focus on the ability of an employee to carry out a particular task, to focusing on the promise of individuals to fit into the organization. Traditional models of human resource management focus on organizations select, train, appraise, and reward individuals to hold a specific job within an organization (Lawler, 1994). Person-organization fit (Chatman, 1991; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson, 2005) perspectives on human resource management focus on the behaviors and attitudes individuals need to exhibit to make the organization successful. This shifts the focus of human resource processes from selecting and reinforcing not just individual skills, but also the unique motivations that individuals bring into the work place.

Selecting Based Upon Public Service Motivation

The first step in promoting public service values in employees is selecting individuals that hold or are responsive to such values (Lewis and Frank, 2002; Mann, 2006). The importance of a fit between person and organization and between person and job (Chatman, 1991) is supported by research in the public sector (see also chapter 6 in this volume).

Applicant and organization select each other based upon perceptions of the fit between the applicant's and organization's values (Schneider, 1987) and the job interview process may help both organization and individual to more accurately assess this fit t (Bowen, Ledford and Nathan 1991). While face-to-face time interviews may offer opportunities to discern values and preference (Chatman, 1991), open-ended interviews should be supplemented with multiple screens, including personality tests; interviews with human resource personnel, co-workers and other employees; situational tests; and realistic job previews (Bowen, Ledford and Nathan, 1991; Judge, Cable and Higgins, 2000).

Situational judgment tests (SJTs) that present difficult but realistic situations people may face on the job and ask what the applicant might do in each situation may be useful in learning more about an applicant's value set. Similarly, past-oriented (behavior description) interviews may provide important indicators of public service motivation (Bolino and Turnkey, 2003; Carson, et al, 2005), on the assumption that past behavior is a likely indicator of future behavior. For example, in their recommendations for selecting health care employees, Carson et al (2005) recommend seeking out individuals that have previously engaged in activities that demonstrate high levels of public service motivation, such as volunteering for community or campus activities that demonstrate altruism or identification with the organization's mission.

Finally, it is also important to provide job seekers with the opportunity to make an assessment about whether the job/organization will be a good fit for their personal values. Employment interviews and realistic job previews provide important opportunities for job seekers to learn more about the culture and values of the organization and to make the

decision as to whether such values match their own pre-existing values. Job seekers should be encouraged to rely upon their values as a means for evaluating whether to work in a particular organization and should be given opportunities to learn about the values of the organization (Bowen, Ledford and Nathan, 1991; Cable and Judge, 1996). As Chatman (1991) recommends, "individuals and organizations ought to get as much information as possible about each other during the selection process"(p 481).

Tactic 1: Use public service motivation as a selection criterion for entry into public service employment.

Socialization to Public Service

Socialization into public service values communicates to organizational newcomers the values that are a critical part of the organizational identity and how such values are translated into acceptable behavior (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; Chatman, 1991). Employee socialization should introduce new employees to the history, mission, goals, objectives and norms of public organizations and should demonstrate how public service goals are met through the design of public policy and the delivery of public services (Kim, 2005; Klein and Weaver, 2000).

Socialization is a process that begins shortly after new employees join the organization, as new members are frequently very eager to learn appropriate behaviors and "fit in" (Cooper-Thomas and Anderson,2002). Formal trainings, orientations, social events, and readings (Cooper-Thomas, van Vianen, and Anderson, 2004; Parkyn, 2006) provide the newcomer with specific information about how role requirements and organizational context align with the employees' public service motivation.

Socialization occurs through formal mentoring programs and informal social interactions in the workplace. Mentoring, a key factor in the transmission of values (Wilson and Elman, 1990), allows new employees to see how more tenured colleagues integrate public service motivation into their own behaviours, encouraging new employees to take their behavioural cues from their experienced colleagues (Chatman, 1991). The World Bank matches young professionals with a peer who has a year's tenure within the Bank, as well as a more senior mentor.

Informal interactions that allow new employees to observe their co-workers and supervisors also provide important cues about organizational values and expectations (Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter, 2001; Ostroff and Kozlowksi, 1992; Saks and Ashforth, 1997). Employees should be given ample opportunity to shadow and observe other workers, not only peers, but also longer tenured co-workers. In addition, senior members of the organization should be held accountable for the socialization of new members. Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002) observe that military socialization is carried out by instructors whose performance is evaluated on their recruits' knowledge of military values. They conclude by suggesting that socialization of newcomers would be enhanced if newcomers' colleagues and supervisors are not only given training on how to socialize newcomers, but perhaps "…more radically, that the rate and success of newcomers' adjustment contributed to colleagues' performance evaluations" (p. 434).

Tactic 2: Provide formal and informal opportunities for newcomers to learn about organizational values and expectations for employee behavior that reflect public service values.

Public Service Motivation as a Criterion in Appraisal Systems

Public service values should also be used in the appraisal system, promoting internal consistency across human resource processes. Until recently performance appraisal systems have focused on job performance resulting from a formal job analysis, including the accomplishment of specific tasks and duties specified in a job description. However, such job related appraisals rignore many of the non-task related behaviors that may be associated with public service (Viswesvaran and Ones, 2000; Welbourne, Johnson, Erez, 1998).

Organizations are paying increasing attention to the importance of non-job behaviors such as pro-social behaviors, in performance appraisal systems. The United States Marine Corps uses an on-going system of performance ratings (fitness reports) that include not only technical proficiency but also conduct: "the adoption of core values in his/her life" (Parkyn, 2006, p. 231). In a case study of government employees, Paarlberg and Perry (2007) observed that managers in high performing work units often focused on developing performance appraisals that principled goals, such as honesty, teamwork, commitment to the customer, and being a good steward of the installation's resources. In the Flemish government four core values have been defined--collaboration, continuous improvement, client orientation, reliability—which are part of the competency framework and are found in the competency profiles of all public servants (Brans and Hondeghem, 2005).

Tactic 3: Develop performance appraisals and performance monitoring systems that include observations of behaviors that reflect and encourage public service motivation.

Creating and Conveying Meaning and Purpose in the Job

Job design may also strengthen the relationship between public service values and performance by enhancing employees' understanding of the social significance of their work

and improving the clarity of goals (Scott and Panday, 2005). Both tactics may strengthen employees' existing public service values and enhance the relationship between such values and their behaviors (Grant, 2007).

Promoting Social Significance of the Job

One of the job characteristics that motivates employees is job-significance, the extent to which the job affects the well being of others (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). As Grant (2007) observes, "…many employees describe the purpose of their work in terms of making a positive difference in others' lives" (p. 393). Many are attracted to government work because of their desire to serve (Denhardt, 1993). Doing work that affects the health and well-being of other people encourages a person to believe that his work is worthwhile or important within his system of values. For example, studies of teachers suggest that teachers are largely motivated by their ability to see and know they are responsible for improvements in students (Kelley, 1999). Similarly, in a study of firefighters, Lee and Olshfski (2002) found that firefighters' commitment to their job, which entails obligations to serve the community, is the major factor in leading to their extraordinary efforts. Maynard-Moody and Musheno (2003) provide rich stories of the complex ways that cops, teachers and counselors –line workers or street level bureaucrats "…made their work harder, more unpleasant, and less officially successful to respond to the needs of the people in front of them" (p. 19).

The extent to which individuals perceive their jobs to be meaningful may be dependent on the extent to which employees are able to connect to the impact they are having on the beneficiaries of their work (Grant, 2007), redefining jobs as a collection of relationships as well as a collection of tasks. Studies of American federal employees have found positive relationships between customer orientation and employees' job satisfaction, motivation, and support for organizational change (Lee, Cayer and Lan, 2006; Paarlberg,

2007). The same evidence has been found in a research on the motivation and satisfaction of public servants in the Ministry of Finance in Belgium (Vandenabeele et al., 2005).

Numerous public sector jobs provide opportunities for employees to have a direct impact on the lives of others by improving the health and safety of others, or by promoting social or economic development of beneficiaries. However, public service jobs are often not structured in ways that allow employees to see the prosocial impact of their work (Grant, forthcoming(a)). Hackman et al (1975) encourage organizations to structure tasks in ways that allow employees to interact and communicate with service beneficiaries. They propose that organizations take steps to identify clearly who are beneficiaries of organizational services, establish opportunities for direct contact between employee and service beneficiary, and provide clear criteria and channels for beneficiaries to provide feedback on employee performance. The World Bank offers a Grassroots Immersion Program that allows young professionals to observe first-hand the everyday lives of the poor. Brehm and Gates (1997) found that in those situations in which government employees, such as social workers or police officers on the beat, came into regular contact with service recipients, service recipients exerted more influence over employee behavior than supervisors did.

Such interactions encourage employees to experience increased understanding of the significance of their job (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). In addition, contact between employees and those who benefit from their work may lead to higher affective commitment by increasing identification with beneficiaries, enhancing employee's empathy and fostering service recipient likeability (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; Maynard-Mooney and Musheno, 2003). While it may be impossible to directly connect all employees with direct service beneficiaries, sharing stories or vignettes that convey the social significance of the work may also positively impact employee's attitudes and behaviors (Grant, forthcoming (b)). Ultimately, social interactions with service beneficiaries may provide a face for employees'

public service values, translating abstract organizational goals into significant action (Paarlberg, 2007).

While we have focused on the service aspect of government employment, many employees are attracted to government service because of their interest in influencing the broader public policy process. Leisink (2004) quotes a Dutch secretary general who seeks to show employees how their actions have influenced the policy process. "What motivates individuals at work is the wish to see what their efforts have produced, for instance to find their text in a communication which the Minister sends to the parliament. They wish to see their stamp on some piece of policy making" (p. 8).

Tactic 4: Identify beneficiaries of jobs; establish opportunities for direct contact between employee and beneficiary; and provide clear channels for service beneficiary feedback.

Setting Clear Public Service Goals

Goal-setting theory posits that conscious and well-specified goals—defined as the object or aim of an action to attain a particular standard—positively affect the actions of employees. Early goal-setting research provided strong support that specific and challenging goals are associated with higher levels of performance (Locke and Latham, 2002). However, government employees often work in jobs in which there are diffuse goals (Chun and Rainey, 2005) or goals that are difficult to achieve in the short run.

Employee commitment to goals will be influenced by the extent to which employees perceive that goals are consistent with theirvalues. . Individuals who highly value public service will look for situations in which they can enact such values, set high goals for themselves, and be highly committed to such goals. In those situations in which goals are assigned (Locke, Latham, and Erez, 1986), individuals may not accept assigned goals if such

assigned goals are perceived as not being important or inconsistent with individual values (Steers and Porter, 1974). For example,employees may experience conflict between the bureaucratic pressures to close a case and their professional responsibilities to provide high quality services. It is therefore important to clearly articulate goals that are consistent with employees' existing public service values.

Managers play important roles in interpreting broad goals in terms of functional and work unit routines that reflect public service motivation (Paarlberg and Perry, 2007). In doing so, managers enable employees to see how their individual tasks connect to the larger mission of the organization, reinforcing employees' public service motivation. In some cases, however, where the social value of the work may be controversial or the work physically "dirty," managers may play important roles in helping workers to transcend such negative perceptions by infusing the work with positive values or emphasizing the positive aspects of the job over the negative (Ashforth, et al, 2007). For example, Gusterson describes how nuclear scientists cope with their controversial profession by emphasizing how their work enhances rather than threatens world peace (as cited in Ashforth, et al, 2007). Such reframing of organization goals allows the individual to respond to goals that are consistent with personal and professional values. In addition, employees may benefit from the opportunity to discuss these potential conflicts (Maynard-Mooney and Musheno, 2003; Vinzant, 1998).

Tactic 5: Interpret broad public service missions in terms of clear and meaningful work expectations.

Creating a Supportive Work Environment

Work place characteristics, such as structure of the work environment, the nature of informal relationships, and incentive systems may also shape the relationships between employees' public service motivation and their performance. Both formal and informal

organizational practices and experiences shape employees' beliefs about the terms of the employee-organization exchange relationships (Rousseau and Greller, 1994) and the degree to which employees perceive that organizational practices are supportive of their values.

Empowering and Participatory Work Structures

Centralized patterns of decision making may make it difficult for employees to see how their efforts contribute to the mission of the organization (Scott and Pandey, 2005) . Moynihan and Pandey's (2007) study of state-level employees suggests that perceptions of bureaucracy and red tape may frustrate employees' public service motivations. Employees may perceive that complex control and regulatory systems may take away from the "real" work of responding to citizens' needs (Schwab and Cummings, 1976), leading them to believe that they are unable to act upon their public service motivation. As Maynard-Mooney and Musheno (2003) observed, in some cases, "…the workers saw the rules and supervisors as obstacles to doing what was right and fair for their clients" (p 18).

Employee input into setting goals may encourage workers to find strategies that are more effective, energize behavior and increase employees' perceptions that they can effectively accomplish their goals (Spector, 1986; Staw and Boettger, 1990). In a study of teacher empowerment, Dee, Henkin, and Cirka (2003) found that increased participation in workplace decision making provides a heightened sense of conviction of the importance of one's work and the belief that their work will have a significant impact on the lives of others. Leisink (2004) suggests that it is important that employees be involved in not just technical decisions, but also issues that relate to the core public serving aspects of their job. For example, teachers could be involved in decisions that involve meeting the multicultural needs of children and their families, and that nurses could provide input in how to provide medical care to the uninsured.

Allowing employees to take an increased role in organizational decision making to allow them to act upon their public service motivation requires more than the use of participatory management techniques, such as quality circles or management by objectives. Truly enabling individuals to act upon their public service motivation requires empowering employees to take action, by providing access to information, support, resources and opportunity to learn and develop (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). Research has shown that direct as well as indirect forms of staff participation have been an important strategy in public management reforms (Farnham, Hondeghem, and Horton, 2005).

Tactic 6: Develop work structures that enhance self-regulation through empowerment and participatory decision-making.

Cooperative Interpersonal Relationships

Perry and Porter (1982) suggest that relationships between employees and their co-workers and supervisors have the largest impact on employee performance. While much of the literature on "relational" job design has largely focused on the motivating influence of service beneficiaries, employees are also strongly motivated by professional relationships with co-workers (Kelley, 1999; Paarlberg, 2007; Vinzant, 1998). As Wilson (1989) describes, "Peer expectations are both a source of motivation and a force defining what are acceptable and unacceptable tasks." (p. 47). Crewson (1997) finds that organizational commitment is partly dependent on the sense of trust and affiliation the worker has with fellow employees.

One of the important aspects of workplace climate is workgroup esprit characterized by cooperation, friendliness, warmth and trust in co-workers (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; Jones and James, 1979). Meaningful interactions promote dignity, self appreciation, and worthiness (Kahn, 1990) and reinforce professional identity andworkplace values. (Brehm and Gates, 1997; Maynard-Mooney and Musheno, 2003; Paarlberg, 2007). A In a study of whistle blowing among American police officers, Rothwell and Baldwin (2007) found that a

friendly, team oriented climate enhanced officer's willingness to consider their ethical values and be willing to "blow the whistle" on unethical behaviors within their departments. In addition, supportive work environment may also positively influence employees' interactions with service beneficiaries (George, 1995).

Organizational leaders can take various steps to create a cooperative work environment. First, employees and managers can be provided with training to develop and improve their interpersonal and social skills, as well as team building skills (Maslach, Schaufeli, Leiter, 2001). It is particularly important that managers be aware of how to address conflict with employees in ways that are respectful and supportive. Second, organizational leaders and managers must be attune to the workplace climate and able to proactively intervene when necessary. Third, organizational leaders can be attentive to how workplace practices reflect the organizational mission. An organization with a mission to improve community quality of life may be perceived as being insincere if it promotes work place practices that exploit its employees. Employees should be involved in discussions of the quality of work life. Finally, as noted earlier, employees may greatly benefit from formal opportunities to talk and share their workplace experiences, especially those experiences that may be stressful or involve conflict (Ashforth et al, 2007, Maynard-Mooney & Musheno, 2003; Vinzant, 1998).

Tactic 7: Commit to creating a supportive workplace environment that models and reinforces public service motivation.

Align Incentives with Intrinsic Motivations

Organizations have long been conceived as systems of equilibrium in which people contribute their effort in return for inducements from the organization (Barnard, 1938; March

and Simon, 1958; Knoke and Wright-Isak, 1982). Furthermore, the joining of people and inducement or incentives is not random. Individuals select organizations that reflect a mix of motives that are suited to their predispositions (Knoke and Wright-Isak, 1982).

Despite the compelling logic that the equilibrium organizations establish with their employees may be imperiled if incentives are altered (Rousseau and Greller, 1994), organizations routinely change their incentive structures. The changes are often externally induced, such as when citizens demand greater performance accountability from public servants. Among the problems of externally induced changes in incentive systems is that they are often unstable because of both the turmoil they create among internal stakeholders and limitations in the power of the new incentives. The introduction of performance-related pay in public organizations, for example, often falls short as an incentive because of the lack of commitment of sufficient budgetary resources to the new incentives (Perry, 1989).

Tactic 8: Create and maintain incentives that align organizational mission and employee predispositions.

Although the optimal design for financial incentives is hard to specify in general, the evidence suggests compensation systems that offer low-powered incentive pay are most effective for rewarding public service (Burgess and Ratto, 2003). The incentive provided by base compensation is typically undervalued and under appreciated in public service work, but research suggests that compensation must meet standards that are driven by external and internal labor markets. Public services must be able to pay enough to hire the most productive workers and retain the highest output workers (Lazear, 1999). But recent research (Borjas, 2002) indicates that internal dispersion in pay—what is more frequently called salary compression in the public sector—is an important design feature. Borjas's findings converge with Lazear's (1999) conclusions that pay growth from promotions is an effective way to

discriminate between high and low performers. The essence of this argument is that public pay can be sacrificial, but at extremes it impedes attracting and retaining high quality staff.

In addition in public organizations, compensation system design must balance logics of consequentiality and appropriateness (March and Olsen, 1989). Financial incentive systems typically rest on the assumption that individuals are self-interested and employee self-interest and organizational goals are best aligned through the distribution of extrinsic rewards (Deckop, Mangel & Cirka, 1999; Ferraro, Pfeffer & Sutton, 2005; Ghoshal, 2005). However, theories about public service motivation assume that individuals are "internally motived" by intrinsic rewards of public service (Perry & Wise, 1990). A growing body of research on motivation suggests that while some individuals are self-interested and motivated by individualistic, rational, and material motivations, others are motivated by experiences and identities that they receive from being "other motivated," such as the ability to make social contributions or the social acceptance of complying with normative values (Chetkovich, 2003; Ferraro, Pfeffer & Sutton, 2005; Frey & Osterloh, 2005; Ghoshal, 2005).

Wide pay dispersion that results from pay for performance systems may conflict with employees' public service values, resulting in little or no link between performance and pay (Deckop, Mangel & Cirka, 1999). For example, extrinsic rewards may signal switching value from normative values to an expectation that "doing one's duty without extra pay is not enough (Frey & Osterloh, 2005). In a study of public utility employees, pay for performance negated organizational citizenship behavior for those employees with low value commitment (Deckoff, Mangel & Cirka, 1999). When employee and employer interests are not aligned, the "performance pay link is the main employment exchange" (p. 422) perhaps providing a disincentive for employees to engage in extra role behaviors. For those who have high levels of value commitment; pay for performance had no statistically significant impact on performance. We believe it is in relatively rare instances, such as those reported by Deckoff,

Mangel and Cirka (1999) and Cohen and Murnane (1985), that performance-related pay "crowds in" rather than crowds out intrinsic motivation.

Another exception to the injunction to avoid performance-related pay (in contrast to pay linked to promotions) is that there is the limited evidence that pro-social organizational behaviours may be influenced by the existence of group-based incentive plans, such as profit sharing and gainsharing (Deckop, Mangel Circa, 1999; Welbourne and Cable, 1995). In a study of school-based incentive systems in three US school systems, for example, Kelley (1999) found that school-based incentive enhance teacher performance by encouraging professional interactions, which also serve as an effective intrinsic motivation.

Tactic 9: Design compensation systems to emphasize long-term attractiveness to employees and avoid performance-related pay that might crowd out intrinsic motivations.

Integrating Public Service into Organizational Mission and Strategy

Organizational ideology—manifested through mission and strategy—can play a key role in shaping employee behavior (Thompson and Bunderson, 2005). As Barnard (1938) notes, "...foresight, long purposes, high ideals, are the basis for the persistence of cooperation" (p 282). Individuals will commit to an organization and work hard to achieve its goals when they perceive that there is a match between the organization's ideology, manifested through mission, vision and leadership practices, and the individual's values. Creating such an alignment occurs by articulating organizational mission that clearly reflects individual public service values and fostering leadership that can effectively communicate and model such values.

Base Mission and Vision on Employees' Aspirations and Values

For the last decade, public organizations have increasingly been pushed to develop mission statements that describe the purpose of the organization and its vision. In contrast to work goals, compelling missions are broad, qualitative statements about the organization's purpose, rather than quantifiable production or financial measures. Mission statements that energize employees are built upon common values, flowing from employees' deeper values and beliefs (Denhardt, 1993). For example, during the closure of the Rocky Flats Nuclear Weapons Plant, employees were motivated by a clear vision of a positive future that extended well beyond each employee's tenure with the organization. Employees were motivated to work towards closing the plant and losing their jobs by a compelling vision of a clean and safe landscape with no nuclear contamination (Cameron and Lavine, 2006). Employees respond to organizational mission statements and other strategic communications only to the extent that such documents communicate values that fall within employees "zone of existing values" (Paarlberg and Perry, 2007).

While it is important that public service values be communicated through formal mission statements, values are also transmitted through informal means, such as organizational stories, myths, and symbols (DiIulio and DiIulio, 1994; Trice and Beyer, 1991). In describing how leaders infuse day-to-day behavior with meaning and purpose, Selznick (1957) describes the "elaboration of socially integrating myths" that use the language of "uplift and idealism" to describe what is distinctive about the "aims and methods" of the organization (p. 151). Maynard-Moody and Musheno (2003) described how case reviews in staff meetings provided the context for social work staff and supervisors to use story telling to discuss dilemmas and experiences in ways that heightened the possibility for "responsible action." During the closure of the Rocky Flats Nuclear Weapons Plant, leaders used visual images to make the goal of safe closure of the nuclear facility come alive. Organizational leaders produced a before and after rendition of their closed plant to motivate employees. In addition, they used acts, such as the demolition of key buildings, to symbolize their mission of

a closed facility (Cameron and Lavine, 2006). DiIulio and DiIulio (1994) described the more mundane use of logos and symbols on t-shirts, ball caps and mugs as motivating ways to communicate the mission of the organization.

Tactic 10: Articulate and symbolize organization mission and vision in ways that connect with employees' zone of existing public service values.

Promote Value-Based Leadership

In conceptualizing the relationship between leadership and ethical behavior, Wimbush and Shepard (1994) suggest that the behavior of organizational leaders and supervisors is the primary influence on employee behavior. Employees will do what they see their supervisors do, rather than what the policy manual dictates. When faced with an ethical dilemma at work, individuals are most likely to consult their "boss" rather than colleagues outside of the workplace (Posner and Schmidt, 1987).

An important lever to promote public service values is value-based leadership, encompassing processes of servant, transformational, spiritual and authentic leadership (Avolio and Gardner, 2005). These value-based models of leadership involve processes by which leaders communicate values that raise followers' consciousness about idealized goals and then get followers to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of larger goals. They communicate high expectations and inspire followers to become part of larger goals, stimulating followers not only to change their own belief systems, but also to be creative problem solvers (Bass, 1985).

Value-based leaders communicate goals and values, and model behaviors that are consistent with public service values. They raise their followers consciousness about idealized goals, by articulating high standards of moral and ethical conduct, and acting as prosocial role models. Leaders who shape values within an organization `exhibit sincere and sustained

commitment to values and channel their ambitions into the success of the organization and the people around them (Avolio and Gardner, 2005). They develop expectations of reciprocity by offering respect and empathy for followers, as well as providing followers with the tools and skills to grow. In addition, value-based leaders lead by example, modelling "…transparent decision making, confidence, optimism, hope and resilience, and consistency between their words and deeds" (Avolio and Gardner, 2005, p. 326).Value-based leadership requires that organizations select individuals for positions of leadership who exhibit values that transcend individual self-interest, such as social justice, equality, benevolence, honesty, and loyalty (Avolio and Garnder, 2005).

Tactic 11: Encourage and reward the development of leaders who communicate and model public service values.

Creating societal Legitimacy for Public Service

Up until this point, our strategies to influence the performance of public employees have focused on individual level strategies that either select individuals with such values or employ organizational processes and practices to link public service values and behavior. Our final strategy is to proactively increase societal support for public service values and management practices that support such values. These strategies require that organizational leaders possess visionary skills to develop broad understanding of the problem and proposed solutions and political skills to turn a proposed solution into a specific policy or program (Crosby and Bryson, 2005).

Fostering Institutional Societal Support for Public Service

Individuals learn values through social interactions in families, religious organizations, (Flanagan, et al., 1998), professional societies (Moynihan and Pandey, 2007; Perry, 1997) and educational institutions and programs (Galston, 2001). For example, Perry (1997) finds that professional affiliations are positively related to civic duty and self-sacrifice. Professions have long advanced ethical and moral norms of social justice, the common good, and obligation to public service. Attachments to professional associations may also help sustain participation in public by providing on-going opportunities for participants to act upon their public service motivation (Planty, Bozick and Regnier, 2006). Another group that has a direct stake in heightening attention to public service is labor unions. While labor unions have often taken a defensive position in relation to public service, there are clear examples of labor unions developing a new vision on the public service and working in a positive partnership with government (Farnham, Horton & White, 2005). If labor unions were to put public service on their institutional agendas, it would increase the likelihood of broader external legitimacy.

In educational settings, both formal civic education and the discussion of civics in other curricula may be associated with acceptance of democratic principles, political participation, and a broader concern with societal issues (Galston, 2001) . An open classroom climate seemed to be an essential element of any form of civic education (Hooghe and Stolle, 2003). Public leaders can enhance the public service values of future generations of public sector workers through partnerships with other institutions that explicitly promote the inclusion of public service values.

Tactic 12: Foster institutional support for the incorporation of public service values into professional and educational curriculum.

Providing Opportunities for Developmental Experiences

Youth experiences contribute to a large extent to the shaping of political attitudes and behaviors among adults (Stolle and Hooghe, 2004). Early involvement in service may promote continued commitment to service and an interest in public affairs by socializing youth into public service roles, creating a "civic identity" and providing opportunities to practice coordinated action towards a common good (Youniss, McLellan and Yates, 1997; Planty, Bozick and Regnier, 2006). Participation in voluntary groups and movements introduces youth to ideologies that transcend individual self-interests.

Early interactions with public service beneficiaries also help young people to create a connection with others by allowing them to see beneficiaries as individuals with complex needs that are connected to larger structural issues, fostering a commitment to not only particular groups, but to broader policy issues (Planty, Bozick and Regnier, 2006). Such developmental service experiences allow youth to internalize pro-social motivations that may materialize as public service motivation in the workplace. For example, the Internationale Bouworde (International Building Movement) has built thousands of houses, churches, schools and medical centres, while raising the social consciousness of youth and providing an opportunity to express their solidarity with the underprivileged.

Leaders can help facilitate such experiences by developing partnerships with secondary and post-secondary institutions that encourage meaningful student internships, volunteerism, and service learning experiences (Houston, 2005; Lewis and Frank, 2002).

Some nations have long required national service (Sherraden and McBride, 2007), and other such have have provided opportunities for youth to engage in service through several formal initiatives. In Europe the Youth Partnership seeks to promote participation and citizenship, while in the United State, a series of presidential initiatives , such as President Kennedy's Peace Corps, President Bush's Thousand Points of Light, and President Clinton's AmeriCorps (Perry and Thomson, 2004), have also promoted public service. The U.S. Presidential Management Fellows Program attracts young employees who have a clear

interest in service and public policy into government by offering early career opportunities for young professionals. Government leaders can ensure the existence of such national service leaders by engaging in political advocacy on behalf of such initiatives, and when possible, sponsoring service members.

Tactic 13: Advocate for and provide opportunities for pre-service experiences.

Discuss the Role of Public Service Across the Society

One facet of creating external legitimacy for public service is to make public service an acceptable topic for discussion across the society. Unlike the period in the United States after President Kennedy's election when public service was widely discussed and valued, public rhetoric and discourse in many parts of the world has been indifferent and sometimes hostile to open discussion and debate about public service.

Although we do not believe that public service will mobilize mass participation, we believe some steps can be taken to create climates more receptive for public service. Effort by groups such as the U.S.-based Partnership for Public Service is an organized effort to elevate debate about the role of public service in society. Just as President Kennedy helped to elevate public regard for public service in an earlier era, political leaders must also be called to take positions—especially to articulate the case *for* public service. The genre of "political biography" and campaign manifesto has become a necessity for political candidates in recent years. These media (see, for example, Lieberman, 2000) could be another a means for establishing a more favorable climate. Mass media—newspapers, television, weblogs—could also facilitate wider debate about public service.

Tactic 14: Bring public service to the attention of the broader society.

Conclusion

On-going changes in the nature of work and the characteristics of the labor pool, as well as declining resources available to support government activities, are pushing government agencies across the globe to become more effective in attracting, retaining, and motivating employees (Perry, Mesch, and Paarlberg, 2006). While many efforts to improve the performance of government employees and their respective organizations have focused on increased material incentives and bureaucratic efforts to control employee actions, we have proposed 14 tactics to improve performance through managing the values that motivate public sector employees. Table 1 summarizes these tactics. These tactics encourage managers at all levels of the organization to use management tools and processes to promote public service motivation. Constructing systems that promote and support public service motivation involves radical changes from past practice and are not without costs. We conclude with some general remarks.

First, there may also be a dark side to values management. Creating a workforce with shared public service values inherently limits the diversity of perspectives within an organization and may create an environment in which individuals get lost in the collective (Alvesson, & Willmott, 2002; Kreiner, Hollensbe, and Sheep, 2006). Employees may also feel that efforts to tap into their core values are manipulative and perceive that they are being "engineered." Pressure to engage in pro-social behaviors may lead to overload, increased job stress, and tension between work and home life (Bolino and Turnley, 2005). For example Vigoda-Gadot (2006) finds that in her study of Israeli school teachers that almost three-fourths felt strong pressure to engage in what had once been considered "extra" behaviors. Managers who attempt to lead based upon strong values also run the risk of being accused of "hypocrisy" when employees perceive that managers are violating organization values (Cha

and Edmondson, 2006). Also, there are times that even when leaders are true to an ethical set of values, they may lack the legitimacy to positively influence followers. Eagly (2005) suggests that followers are less likely to accord women and minority leaders the ability to promote values on their behalf. Finally, although we have largely emphasized the motivating influence of positive organizational missions, sometimes individuals in public organizations must engage in unpleasant work—work that is physically or socially "dirty" or work that inflicts harm on others—in order to achieve a larger societal good (Ashforth, et al, 2007; Molinsky and Margolis, 2005). In these contexts, employees who are motivated by a strong value set that emphasizes service to others may experience great conflict.

Second, we caution that no one tactic will improve individual or organizational performance—tactics have reinforcing and synergistic effects (Combs et al, 2006). For example, a strong public service ideology will only be effective if employees share these public service values. Similarly, recruiting and hiring employees with strong public service values will only positively motivate employees if employees perceive that their tasks are significant and that they work in environments that provide them with the opportunities to act upon their motivations. As noted earlier, people who join an organization with a strong commitment to service become frustrated and angry when their desire to serve is constrained by institutional and organizational rules (Moynihan and Pandey, 2007). Implementing public service motivation requires integration of recruitment, selection, and appraisal of individuals with job design, organizational culture and social relationships, incentives systems and organizational strategy. In doing so, public service becomes part of all organization strategic initiatives. Scholars and practitioners will need to work together to better understand these complex interactions.

Finally, the process of managing public service values requires a new set of skill sets for organizational leaders. In addition, to the traditional skill set required to effectively plan and control organizational activities, values management requires that organizational leaders

also be adept at a myriad of social activities. Values management requires that leaders be able to translate complex and often vague goals, be adept at using stories and other symbols to tap into employees' core public service values, and have high levels of social intelligence to be sensitive to and comfortable facilitating social interactions in the workplace.

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Table 1. Summary of Strategies and Tactics for Applying Public Service Motivation

Unit of Analysis	Strategy	Tactics
Individual	*Integrate PSM into HRM processes*	*Select based upon existing PSM*
		Socialize individuals into expectations of Public service behavior
		Utilize performance appraisals that include observations of behaviors that reflect public service motivations
Job	*Create and convey meaning and purpose in the jobs*	*Convey significance of job*
		Establish clear goals in line with existing public service motivations
Work environment	*Create a supporting work environment for PSM*	*Create work structures that enhance self-regulation*
		Design incentive systems that offer long-term reinforcement of intrinsic motivations and don't crowd out intrinsic motivations.
		Encourage work place interactions that facilitate public service motivation
Organization	*Integrate public service into mission, strategy, and*	*Articulate organization vision and action reflects commitment to public service motivations*
		Develop value -based leadership

	leadership of organization	
Society	*Obtain external legitimacy for public service*	*Partner with societal institutions to promote public service motivations.* *Advocate for and provide opportunities for pre-service experiences* *Use a variety of mass media mediums to bring public service to the attention of a broader society*