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## **PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION AND INTERPERSONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR IN PUBLIC ORGANIZATIONS: TESTING A PRELIMINARY MODEL**

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**ABSTRACT:** *A good deal of research has demonstrated how public service motivation (PSM) facilitates desirable organizational attitudes and behaviors such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work effort. Other research has demonstrated that PSM predicts higher levels of social capital and altruistic behavior in society. Between these two strands of PSM research, there is a gap in knowledge about whether PSM matters to citizenship behavior internal to the organization. This article tests the direct and indirect relationship between individual levels of PSM and interpersonal citizenship behavior using a structural equation model. We also account for the effect of organizational environment by incorporating a measure of co-worker support. We find that PSM has a direct and positive effect on interpersonal citizenship behavior in public organizations, even when accounting for the significant role of co-worker support.*

The last decade has seen the concept of public service motivation (PSM) become widely accepted. The concept of PSM appears to have influenced the search for alternatives to self-interested models of behavior in economics (e.g., Francois 2000; Le Grand 2003) and political science (Brehm and Gates 1999). Within public administration, a rich empirical literature has moved beyond the question of whether PSM exists, to the question of how it shapes individual attitudes and behavior (e.g., Brewer

and Selden 1998; Houston 2000; 2006; Kim 2004; Perry 2000; Scott and Pandey 2005). Despite mounting evidence and persuasive arguments about the organizational and social significance of PSM (e.g., Frederickson and Hart 1985; Pandey and Stazyk 2008; Perry and Wise 1990), the process through which PSM is transformed into organizationally desirable attitudes and behaviors is not well understood.

The reasons for this state of affairs are two-fold. First, often a presumption is made that PSM in of itself, without the benefit of mediating factors, produces desirable attitudes and behaviors. While parsimony in theorizing is desirable, this presumption about direct causation needs further scrutiny (Lee and Olshfski 2002; Wright 2001). Second, given the generalized extra-organizational focus of the PSM concept, connecting PSM to organizationally desirable dispositions and behaviors presents challenges. Understanding the connection between PSM and organizationally desirable dispositions and behaviors is a worthwhile theoretical challenge because of its momentous practical implications. Improved theoretical understanding can inform strategies for harnessing PSM in pursuing organizational goals and advancing public service values (Moynihan and Pandey 2007; Perry 2007).

There is already evidence on positive effects of PSM (Pandey and Stazyk 2008). High PSM employees exhibit higher levels of organizational commitment (Crewson 1997); they believe that their jobs are important, which in turn leads to employees working harder (Wright 2003; 2007); they are more likely to be high performers (Kim 2005); enjoy higher job satisfaction and are less likely to leave their jobs (Naff and Crum 1999). There is also evidence that PSM fosters positive citizenship behavior external to the organization. Brewer (2003) finds that high PSM individuals are more likely to exhibit higher “social altruism,” and Houston (2006) links PSM with voluntary activities in society.

But there is a lack of empirical evidence that tests whether PSM matters to internal measures of pro-social behavior. There is some evidence of PSM leading to citizenship behavior relevant to the organization. Frederickson and Hart (1985), for example, use a “patriotism of benevolence” conceptualization of PSM to explain the routine but heroic activities of Danish bureaucrats during the Nazi era. O’Leary’s (2006) recent account of “guerrilla government” provides further illustration of bureaucratic actors’ willingness to undermine formal organizational goals in the name of what they see as the greater public interest. Brewer and Selden (1998) show that federal employees with PSM are more likely to engage in whistle blowing behaviors. While these and other similar explanations illustrate the theoretical value of PSM, they do so by bringing out the conflict between organizational and social goals. Faced with organizational imperatives that fly in the face of values cherished by the broader community, bureaucrats with a high level of PSM choose to serve valued social goals by pursuing actions that may go against the organization’s (or the governing coalition’s) immediate interests. But is it possible for PSM to create organizational and public value by actuating behaviors that are not necessarily at odds with the organization?

We propose that it is possible for PSM to foster positive interpersonal citizenship behavior in routine displays of pro-social behavior that may not be at odds with

organizational goals.<sup>1</sup> To examine this proposition, we test whether PSM is an antecedent to interpersonal citizenship behavior (ICB). The ICB concept falls under the broad umbrella of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). While organizational citizenship behavior concept covers a wide range of extra-role pro-social behaviors within an organizational context, interpersonal citizenship behavior is focused more narrowly on helping behaviors directed at co-workers (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler 2000; Mossholder, Settoon, and Henagan 2005; Settoon and Mossholder 2002). The benefits of ICB in terms of extra-role behavior make it a suitable dependent variable of desirable organizational attitudes and behavior upon which to test competing theories of motivation. While other dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior such as sportsmanship and conscientiousness are certainly germane (Organ, Podsakoff, and Mackenzie 2006), recent research highlights the importance of an underlying helpfulness dimension captured in ICB. In particular, ICB has been expected to help co-workers be more productive while increasing employee morale and cohesiveness (Podsakoff et al. 2000). Indeed, LePine, Erez and Johnson (2002, 61), based on a meta-analysis relying on over 100 studies, go so far as to suggest that, "From a theoretical standpoint . . . scholars should begin to explicitly think of Organ's (1988) OCB as a latent construct. Given that the five dimensions seem to be behavioral manifestations of positive cooperativeness at work, perhaps this latent *OCB construct should be redefined as a general tendency to be cooperative and helpful in organizational settings*" (italics added).<sup>2</sup>

We pursue this link between PSM and ICB, but also account for alternative explanations. In particular, we recognize that PSM is a measure of an individual predisposition, and that ICB is likely to also be shaped by the organizational environment. We therefore also test whether a culture of co-worker support predicts ICB. The next section of this article elaborates our theoretical model. We use survey data collected from a public organization in the northeastern US to conduct an empirical test of our model. After presenting and discussing findings, the article concludes with some final thoughts.

## THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

In advancing our theoretical claims about the relationship between PSM and ICB, we rely on Perry's public service motivation theory (Perry and Wise 1990; Perry 2000). Perry and Wise (1990, 368) define public service motivation as a "predisposition to respond to motives grounded uniquely or primarily in public institutions or organizations." As a theory of human motivation, the PSM theory proposed by Perry (2000) breaks course with self-interest as the basis of behavior, and instead proposes a "logic of appropriateness" patterned after March and Olsen's (1989) work on institutions. According to March and Olsen (1989, 21), social institutions help "define appropriate action in terms of relations between roles and situations." This role-based and situational learning of appropriate action takes place over an extended period of time and in a variety of settings. Rather than simply a theory of public employee motivation, PSM actually represents an individual's predisposition to enact altruistic or pro-social

behaviors regardless of setting. Perry (2000, 480) identifies a number of social institutions that provide a place for such learning, labeling church, school, and family as the sociohistorical context for the formation of PSM. Moynihan and Pandey (2007) build upon Perry's work and extend his argument to suggest that public service organizations themselves can foster PSM among employees through the communication of appropriate norms.

That said, there are two key stipulations that, together, suggest that PSM may hold special promise in public sector organizations (Perry 2000; Perry and Wise 1990). First, individuals are often motivated by collective goals that do not necessarily serve self-interest or reinforce ego-centric needs. Second, public organizations may provide a more hospitable setting for the fulfillment of altruistic and pro-social motives. In fact, these claims are consistent with previous empirical findings. Rainey (1982), based on a survey of four state agencies and four private firms from a Midwestern state, reported that public managers' reward preferences were different from private managers. Public managers reported less interest in monetary rewards and greater interest in engaging in "meaningful public service" and "helping others." Wittmer (1991) conducted a similar study employing a sample of public, private, and non-profit organizations from a northeastern state. In Wittmer's study, managers in public and non-profit sector reported similar reward preferences. Compared to private sector managers, managers in these two sectors reported lower emphasis on higher pay and greater preference for helping others.

While these early studies confirmed the high value public managers placed on serving others, they were based on convenience samples and did not provide a firm basis for generalizing to broader populations. Crewson (1997) used large-scale secondary databases to assess earlier findings on reward preferences by Rainey (1982) and Wittmer (1991). He found that public managers reported greater preference for helping others and being useful to the society and also were inclined to value intrinsic rewards more. Building on the work of Crewson (1997), Houston (2000) advances a definition of public service motivation that emphasizes a greater preference for intrinsic motivators relative to extrinsic motivators. Using data from the General Social Survey, Houston (2000) shows that public managers express higher preference for meaningful work. This work provides strong support for the hypothesis that individuals with high levels of PSM select into public organizations because they regard the mission as more attractive. However, we expect that variation in level of PSM will still have a meaningful effect on the perceived attractiveness of organizational mission, or mission valence.

H1: Higher public service motivation is associated with higher mission valence.

Initial work on public-private differences in PSM also suggested that individuals with high PSM are more likely to engage in altruistic behavior. In a recent extension of his previous work Houston (2006) shows that public managers "walk the walk" of PSM and are more likely to volunteer time, donate money and blood to charitable organizations. These findings are in line with Brewer (2003, 11), who shows that public employees score higher on social altruism defined as "thinking and acting in helping ways." Brewer's measure of social altruism is based on earlier work by

Knack (1992) and includes all the measures Houston (2006) uses. These studies suggest that PSM predicts positive forms of citizenship outside of the organizational setting.

A key research question of this article is whether PSM-based altruism that has fostered pro-social behavior outside the organization will also matter for behavior inside the organization. Brewer (2003) explicitly ties PSM with the social capital literature, which has focused on altruistic behavior in society, but not on the effects of such altruism in organizations. We propose that it is logical that the characteristics of such altruism, in terms of a high trust and positive perceptions of others, tolerance towards others and a belief in equality, and a willingness to engage in some form of action based on those beliefs, will also reveal itself in terms of behavior within the organization. There is some evidence that high-PSM employees are willing to engage in self-sacrifice when they feel the need is great, as demonstrated by the linkage between PSM and whistleblowing identified by Brewer and Selden (1998), but such actions are distinct from more routine extra-role behavior or forms of organizational citizenship that is based on building social capital. In an organizational context, the latter type of organizational citizenship is captured by the ICB concept, which measures the prevalence of helpful extra-role behavior that arises out of concern for fellow employees.

While there is a great deal of research in public organizations on the antecedents of well-established measures of organizational behavior and attitudes, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, little attention has been paid to ICB. But there is increasing attention to ICB in the field of organization behavior, which has suggested that helpful behaviors directed at co-workers have significant value for a number of important outcomes, such as reducing employee turnover (Mossholder, Settoon, and Henagan 2005; Moynihan and Pandey forthcoming) and improving organizational performance (Podsakoff et al. 2000).

Previous work on interpersonal citizenship behavior in a public sector context has suggested the importance of testing the role of PSM. For example, in a study of municipal employees, citizenship behavior directed at individuals was most strongly associated with pro-social values (Rioux and Penner 2001). Similarly, Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2003) found that employees who feel that their relational needs have been met are more likely to engage in citizenship behavior directed at the organization. They also find, contrary to expectations, that fulfillment of transactional (extrinsic) needs actually appeared to reduce citizenship behavior. Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2003, 223) acknowledge the limitations of a psychological contract approach to explaining citizenship behavior, and explicitly call for consideration of PSM measures of individual predispositions, suggesting that "forces such as a commitment to delivering public services, often captured by the nature of public-service ethos, may constitute an additional means for understanding that attitudes and behavior of public service employees." There is some limited evidence to support this approach, although tied primarily to organizational rather than interpersonal citizenship behavior. Organ (1990) finds that intrinsic motivators were associated with OCB, and Kim (2006) finds a connection between PSM and OCB.

Evidence of ICB behavior in the public sector would further shape our understanding of motivational types. In this light it is interesting to reconsider the evolution of perhaps the best known typology of bureaucratic motivational profiles.

Anthony Downs (1967) offered three bureaucratic types (zealots, advocates, and statesman) who were motivated by the opportunity to work in the public sector because they could advance goals not based on self-interest. Zealots favor specific policy goals, statesmen focus on broader public interest, and advocates on garnering support for the organization. But it was Down's self-interested motivational profiles (climbers and conservers) that drew more attention and were widely assumed to be more common, even in the absence of empirical validation efforts. Recent research, however, suggests that the motivational profiles that are not based on self-interest are quite common (Brewer and Maranto 2000). In another study Brewer, Selden and Facer (2000) build a typology of public servant's motivational profiles that specifically take into account helping behaviors. One category of employees, dubbed Samaritans, is motivated by a strong desire to help others.

H2: Higher PSM is associated with higher levels of interpersonal citizenship behavior.

Further, we expect mission valence to lead to increased organizational commitment, which in turn is expected to lead to higher ICB. Rainey and Steinbauer (1999, 3) identify six conditions that enhance the attractiveness of an organization's mission, namely "difficult but feasible, reasonably clear and understandable, worthy/worthwhile/legitimate, interesting/exciting, important/influential, and distinctiveness." These six attributes identified by Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) as increasing an organization's mission valence also are key components of Locke and Latham's (2002) goal-setting theory of motivation. As Locke, Latham and others (e.g., Barnard 1938; Wright 2001) point out clear, specific, and difficult goals focus employee attention and behavior. Goal accomplishment can build commitment to the goals as well as to the organization. Public service goals that are seen as legitimate and exciting can be expected to infuse employees' work with direction and meaning, a pre-condition for developing organizational commitment. Perry and Thomson (2004), for example, in their study of civic service report that service providers who had tangible and measurable goals reported positive personal outcomes as well.

Yet another aspect of the mission valence concept, by focusing on the worth and importance of an organization's mission, brings to light the overlap between individual and organizational values. A number of authors have highlighted the mechanisms via which employees connect with organizations or other foci of commitment (Balfour and Wechsler 1996; Cohen 2003; Pandey and Wright 2006; O'Reilly and Chatman 1986). Cohen (2003) builds on the work of O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) and proposes a hierarchy of mechanisms at the bottom end of which is the passive acceptance of organizational goals and values (identification) and at the other end is moral involvement, a process that entails internalization of organizational goals. In a recent study of Defense Department civilian employees, Paarlberg and Perry (2007) found that managers of high performing work units interpreted overarching organizational values into meaningful goals related to their employees' work. At the very least, such interpretation can facilitate passive acceptance of

organizational goals initially and perhaps lead to internalization over a period of time. In light of mission valence's impact on determining individual attitudes towards the organization via the nature of goals and the overlap between individual and organizational goals, we hypothesize:

H3: Higher mission valence is associated with higher levels of organizational commitment.

Understanding what brings about ICB has invited many interpretations. Such behavior has been found to be largely discretionary and not formally rewarded (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler 2000; 2003; LePine, Erez, and Johnson 2002; Organ, Podsakoff, and Mackenzie 2006; Rioux and Penner 2001). One of the most compelling arguments suggests that employees establish internal standards as a result of their interaction with the organization (either through attraction-selection or adaptation processes) that produces a commitment to the organization that, in turn, acts as the primary antecedent for behaviors that are not rewarded formally by organizations (Scholl 1981; Schappe 1998; Weiner 1982). In particular, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) found that factors commonly associated with affective organizational commitment (identification based on the need for affiliation as well as the similarity between employee and organizational values) were strongly associated with extra-role behaviors. This assertion is consistent with findings of several meta-analyses of OCB (LePine, Erez, and Johnson 2002; Organ and Ryan 1995; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, and Bachrach 2000) that show that affective organizational commitment is a key predictor of citizenship behavior in organizations. In fact, in studies where organizational commitment is included in a multivariate model with other common predictors such as job satisfaction and procedural justice, organizational commitment had the strongest (and sometimes the only) statistically significant effect (Bolon 1997; Schappe 1998). However, there is less evidence on the effects of organizational commitment on ICB in particular, and so there is additional research interest in verifying if such a relationship exists. Therefore, we hypothesize:

H4: Higher organizational commitment is associated with higher levels of ICB.

To recapitulate, our principal thesis is that public service motivation benefits organizations by fostering citizenship behavior. We further propose that there are two pathways from PSM to ICB, one direct and the other through mediating effects of mission valence and organizational commitment. In proposing how an individual predisposition such as PSM shapes ICB, we seek to also consider the primary alternative explanations, which is that ICB is a product of the organizational environment. A plausible alternative explanation is that it is fostered by the relational context of the organization. We examine the potential for relational aspects of the organization to impact ICB by testing the relationship between co-worker support and ICB. We expect that co-worker support will lead to greater incidence of helping behaviors partly due to the obligations such support creates via reciprocity norms prevalent in supportive work environments. Organizational support theory predicts that a supportive work environment will foster a positive response in terms of



engaging with the organization (Rhoades and Esienberger 2002). Demonstrations of care and consideration tend to encourage social integration, attachment, and ultimately an equivalent reciprocal response in terms of helpfulness and an interest in fellow employees. Beyond reciprocity, it seems logical to assume that individuals who enter an environment where the organizational culture emphasizes helpful and caring behavior face normative pressures to adapt their behavior in a way appropriate with that environment (Barnard 1938; March and Olsen 1989; Wiener 1982). Previous research provides support for the relationship between co-worker support and organizational citizenship behavior (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler 2003; Moorman, Blakely, and Niehoff 1998; Wayne, Shore, and Liden 1997).

We therefore expect that co-worker support will have a direct positive effect on ICB. There is also reason to believe that co-worker support is related to mission valence and organizational commitment, and will therefore also be indirectly be linked to ICB for reasons outlined above. Based on an extensive meta-analysis, Meyer et al. (2002) report that supportive work environment is a major predictor of organizational commitment. Similarly, interaction enacted as co-worker support can increase the attractiveness of the organizational mission by generalizing the positive regard for co-workers to a similar view of the organizational mission. In light of these considerations, we use co-worker support as a control variable in our model and expect it to lead to increased organizational commitment, ICB, and mission valence. Accounting for the effect of co-worker support in this fashion would give greater credence to any relationship we find between PSM and ICB.

H5: Higher co-worker support is associated with higher levels of mission valence, organizational commitment, and ICB.

## DATA AND METHOD

The data used in this study came from a study of employees working for state personnel agency in the northeastern part of the United States. The survey was conducted during the spring of 2006. All employees were given an eight-page questionnaire to complete and return (via drop boxes) to an outside research team. After two weeks, 173 usable questionnaires were returned for a 46 percent response rate. A brief demographic overview of the entire agency workforce and survey respondents is provided in Table 1. Although the resulting sample mirrored agency demographics in many ways, white, male, and college educated employees were slightly more likely to respond to the survey.

Each of the study variables was measured using the responses from multiple survey items taken from previously validated and commonly used measures. For example, to measure PSM, we used five items from Perry's 40-item scale of PSM (1996) commonly used as a short measure of PSM in previous studies (Alonso and Lewis 2001; Brewer and Selden 2000; Kim 2005; Wright 2008). These items capture the three dimensions—commitment to public interest, compassion

**TABLE 1**  
 Characteristics of Survey Respondents and Agency Workforce

	<i>Respondents</i>	<i>Agency</i>
Organizational Role		
Administrator	15%	17%
Technician	7%	1%
Office/Clerical	14%	11%
Professional	58%	58%
Para-professional	6%	10%
Service/Maintenance	0%	2%
Gender		
Female	66%	74%
Race		
White	78%	63%
African American	14%	30%
Other	8%	7%
Education		
High School diploma or GED	15%	40%
Some college	22%	7%
Bachelor's Degree	33%	36%
Graduate Degree	30%	17%
Average Organizational Tenure (Years)	13	17
Average Age (Years)	45	48
Median Income	55,000	56,000

and self-sacrifice—identified by Perry (1996) that represent the affective or normative motives most closely associated with the altruistic appeal of public sector values.<sup>3</sup>

Interpersonal citizenship behavior was measured using three items adapted from a measure that assessed the passive support and active assistance the employee provides co-workers in terms of personal interest towards co-workers, understanding their problems and active efforts to help with work-related problems (Mossholder et al. 2005). Co-worker support was measured through three items that reflect the amount of support an employee receives from co-workers in terms of care about well-being, satisfaction, and opinions (Settoon and Mossholder 2002). Organizational commitment was measured using five affective commitment items developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) assessing the degree to which an employee identifies with their organization.<sup>4</sup> Responses for all questionnaire items were recorded using a five-point Likert scale (ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree). Appendix 1 presents the questionnaire items associated with all study measures.

Table 2 provides the mean, standard deviation, reliability of each study measure as well as the correlations between them. Reliability estimates (Cronbach's coefficient alpha) ranged from 0.73 to 0.89 (Table 2) and support the use of these measures, with all five study measures above the 0.70 level suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). When looking at the descriptive statistics, respondents tended to

**TABLE 2**  
Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities and Correlations

<i>Scale</i>	<i>Items in Scale</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
1 Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior	3	12.57	2.02	(0.77)				
2 Organizational Commitment	5	15.77	4.28	0.25*	(0.76)			
3 Coworker Support	3	9.60	2.88	0.42*	0.40*	(0.89)		
4 Mission Valence	4	14.69	3.14	0.11	0.57*	0.24*	(0.73)	
5 Public Service Motivation	5	18.75	3.37	0.33*	0.32*	0.12	0.32*	(0.74)

Cronbach's alpha in parentheses.

\* $p < 0.05$ .

report relatively high levels of citizenship behavior, public service motivation, and mission valence but more moderate levels of organizational commitment and co-worker support. Tests of univariate normality suggested that all five measures were within range found to be acceptable for maximum likelihood estimation in structural equation modeling (Curran, West, and Finch 1996). The bivariate relationships were consistent with our expectations with the strongest relationships between variables dealing with similar concepts such as helping behaviors (citizenship behavior and co-worker support) and employee attitudes toward the organization (organizational commitment and mission valence). That said, the measures appeared to have discriminant validity. In addition to a low average bivariate correlation (0.31), the largest bivariate correlation—between mission valence and organizational commitment—was 0.57, suggesting that no measure shared greater than a third of its variance with any other measure.

The analysis of the hypothesized relationships among the latent constructs was tested in a covariance structure analysis of the data using LISREL version 8.71. This type of analysis consists of two parts, which not only subsume but improve on more common techniques such as confirmatory factor analysis, path analysis and regression (Jöreskog and Sörbom 1992). In the first stage, the model performs a confirmatory factor analysis to construct the latent variables from their respective questionnaire items and assess the validity and reliability of the study measures (summary of results provided above). In the second stage, structural equation model subsumes conventional regression and path analysis models to test the hypothesized relationships among the latent variables. This approach is recommended in analyzing mediation effects because the measurement model mitigates measurement error which can produce biased estimates and the structural model does not estimate the required equations (see discussion below) independently (Baron and Kenny 1986).

Before highlighting the results of our article, we want to note its methodological limitations. First, our survey data is cross-sectional and therefore limits our ability to make strong causal inferences. However, there are logical theoretical arguments

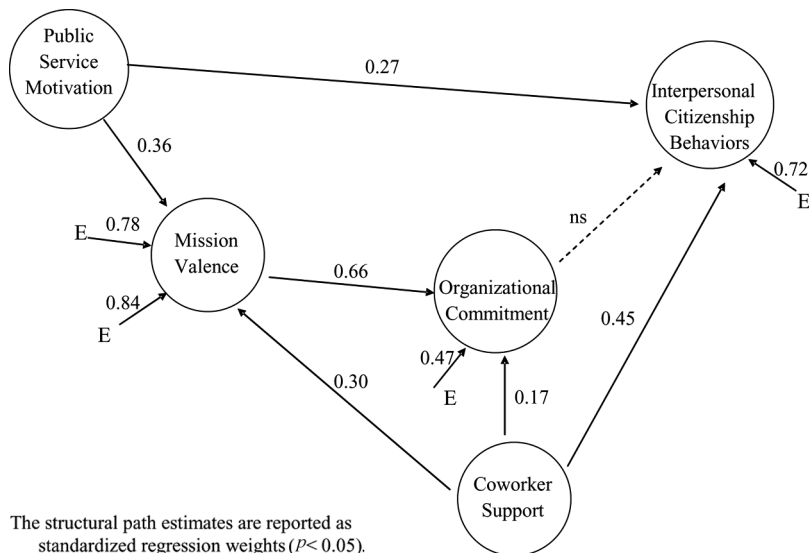
to justify why PSM fosters ICB, and there does not appear to be an equivalent plausible explanation about why causality might run in the reverse direction.

The cross-sectional design introduces another potential limitation—common method bias. While common method bias can be a significant problem in some study designs, Spector (2006) persuasively argues that concerns about common method bias—particularly for survey questionnaire-based studies—are overstated. Nonetheless, we were concerned about this possibility and took some steps to guard against this. Podsakoff et al. (2003) provide guidance to reduce common-source bias in this regard, two key ones are: 1) ensure anonymity in survey administration; and 2) improve items used to measure constructs. We followed both these recommendations. By clearly communicating study goals, assuring respondents about the anonymity of the survey administration—even going so far as to provide credible and verifiable evidence that the data collection process was run entirely by an extra-organizational team—we were able to meet one of Podsakoff et al.'s key recommendations. As Podsakoff et al. (2003, 888) note, this approach has the benefit of reducing “people’s evaluation apprehension and make them less likely to edit their responses to be more socially desirable, lenient, acquiescent, and consistent with how they think the researcher wants them to respond.” Also, in measuring study constructs we relied on previously tested scales. Well-tested and validated scales confer the benefit of reducing “item ambiguity,” a key recommendation by Podsakoff et al. (2003). The effects of these steps together should minimize common method bias.

## FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The overall model fit of the hypothesized structural model was tested using fit indices recommended by Jaccard and Wan (1996). The majority of these indices suggested that the theoretical model accurately captured the pattern of relationships found in the data (comparative fit index = .96, goodness-of-fit index = .88, root mean square error of approximation = .05, P-value test for close fit = .36,  $\chi^2(157) = 230.96$ ,  $p < .05$ ).<sup>5</sup>

Figure 1 presents the parameter estimates for the structural model as standardized regression weights. The t-statistics for path coefficients for six of the seven expected relationships were statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ) and in the predicted direction, providing additional evidence to support the accuracy of the theoretical model. These findings confirm the importance of public service motivation in understanding the interpersonal citizenship behavior of public sector employees even after controlling for organizational commitment and co-worker support. When taken together, these variables explain over one-quarter (28 percent) of the variance in interpersonal citizenship behavior. Additionally, this analysis supports the general assertion that mission valence plays an important role in mediating the relationship between public service motivation and organizational commitment. Together with co-worker support, mission valence explains half (53 percent) of the variance in public employee organizational commitment of this public employee sample. Only the expected relationship between organizational commitment and interpersonal citizenship behavior was not supported.



**Figure 1.** Model Results.

How does this study advance our understanding of the consequences of PSM? When prior studies have demonstrated benefits of PSM, they have done it by showing how employees imbued with PSM demonstrated desirable role-based attitudes and behaviors such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment and work effort (Crewson 1997; Wright 2003; Naff and Crum 1999). Other research has shown how PSM fosters positive examples of citizenship, but has focused on the impact of these actions outside the organization (Brewer 2003; Houston 2006). Some research has shown how PSM generates willingness for individuals to choose valued social goals over organizational expediency, sometimes to heroic effect (Brewer and Selden 1988; Frederickson and Hart 1985; Riccucci 1995).

But there has been inattention to how PSM can foster routine aspects of internal organizational citizenship in a way that may be beneficial to organizational goals. This article helps to fill this gap by providing evidence that PSM leads to the type of routine helpful behaviors typically associated with ICB.

While our expectation was that PSM will have both a direct and an indirect effect on ICB, our results confirm only a direct effect. The indirect effect of PSM on ICB working through mission valence and organizational commitment is only partially supported. We provide evidence that variation in PSM matters to mission valence even among employees who have self-selected into the public sector. But our hypothesis that organizational commitment leads to ICB is not supported.

However, the failure of the indirect effects does suggest a relevant insight on what actually drives the oft-cited result that organizational commitment is an antecedent to OCB (LePine, Erez, and Johnson 2002; Organ and Ryan 1995; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, and Bachrach 2000). Our finding does not replicate these previous results.

There are a couple of possible explanations for this. First, our dependent variable is *interpersonal* citizenship behavior, and not *organizational* citizenship behavior. While these variables are related in many respects, it seems plausible that organizational commitment may be more related to OCB rather than ICB. Whereas the focal object for organizational commitment is the organization; ICB items have co-workers as the focus. In fact, this finding is consistent with an earlier study that found organizational concern motives more related to citizenship behavior directed toward the organization than the individuals in it (Rioux and Penner 2001). Perhaps this lack of a common focal object across commitment and citizenship measures explains the finding. Second, another factor that distinguishes our article from previous studies is that we use co-worker support as an exogenous variable—an exogenous variable which is direct predictor of organizational commitment (Meyer et al. 2002). Our results may suggest that previous research that reports significant relationships between organizational commitment and internal citizenship behavior may in fact be capturing the effects of co-worker support on OCB.<sup>6</sup>

The results provide not just a contribution to PSM literature, but also to the study of organizational citizenship behavior in the public sector. As a dependent variable, ICB has been largely neglected among studies of public organizations. Our article suggests that ICB is fostered by a mixture of individual predispositions reflected by the PSM variable and also the organizational context. Specifically, the findings on co-worker support emphasize the relational underpinnings of ICB. Individuals who feel themselves to be part of a supportive work environment, where demonstrations of care and consideration are the norm, reciprocate this behavior to their fellow employees.

## CONCLUSION

This article has provided evidence of another positive behavioral outcome of PSM. Previous work (Brewer 2003; Houston 2006) has suggested that PSM fostered civic behavior in society. We add to this research by pointing to the public service motivated civic behavior within organizations. Employees with PSM are also likely to be better organizational citizens—more considerate toward their fellow employees and more likely to help their fellow employees with work tasks.

One practical implication for this and other research that has shown the positive impacts of PSM is the need to foster such predispositions. Perry (2000) has suggested the importance of societal institutions in shaping PSM, while Moynihan and Pandey (2007) suggest that organizations themselves can foster PSM. The results emphasize an additional incentive for organizations to foster PSM, but to also encourage the recruitment of individuals with high levels of PSM. Paarlberg, Perry, and Hondeghem (2008) provide a detailed “how-to” guide of the various ways in which organizations can recruit and retain high PSM individuals, and inculcate PSM as an organizational norm.

There is a danger that recent public management reforms such as outsourcing, contracting, and pay for performance will weaken PSM. These reforms are premised

on the notion that they will in fact improve organizational performance, but they may do so at the expense of crowding-out the intrinsic motivations that lead to voluntary contributions of altruistic behavior. And ultimately, by excluding the types of behavior that are difficult to measure and reward, but which are likely important to effectiveness of the organization, such changes to the public sector may fail in their goal of improving performance (Moynihan 2008). ICB is just one example of such a behavior, but provides additional evidence of the importance of PSM in the face of reforms that fail to recognize this value.

There are a number of future research directions suggested by the results. First and most obviously, it would be desirable to test the relationship between PSM and ICB in other settings to ensure that the results were not the idiosyncratic outcome of the sample studied. Second, for studies of ICB, our results question the underlying basis of the relationship between organizational commitment and ICB, and suggest the need for additional study to suggest if co-worker support is indeed the driving factor behind this relationship. Finally, this article has suggested the merits of examining ICB in the public sector environment. Additional research could also test the benefits that PSM has on other forms of organizational behavior in the public sector. A closely-related example would be to study the effects of PSM on aspects of citizenship behavior that are directed toward serving the organization (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler 2000; Kim 2006.)

## NOTES

1. Interpersonal citizenship behavior—helping behavior directed towards co-workers—takes place within the organizational context and can therefore be expected to serve organizational goals most of the time. However, such behaviors can also run counter to organizational goals especially when employees see a conflict between values and principles they hold dear and organizational rules and procedures (Graham 1986). Perhaps the best illustration of such behavior is provided in Elizabeth Morrison's (2006) study of pro-social rule breaking.

2. On the other hand, some scholars (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler 2000) make the case that organizational citizenship behavior directed at the organization, rather than co-workers, is the most salient. Although this is a valuable counterpoint, it is important to note that most helping behavior directed towards co-workers occurs within an organizational context and therefore is often seen as a way to invest in the organization and profession (Chen, Hui, and Sego 1998) that not only benefits the employee but also her co-workers and organization (Perlow and Weeks 2002).

3. The fourth dimension, attraction to policy making, was omitted because it represents a rational or self-interested motive that is less value or mission specific.

4. Of Meyer and Allen's (1997) three organizational commitment dimensions, only affective commitment was included because its similarity to other common commitment conceptualizations (e.g., Mowday et al. 1979). Of the other two dimensions, continuance was excluded because it represents a commitment outcome while normative commitment was excluded because its strong correlation with affective commitment has led many scholars to question the need for both (Ko, Price, and Mueller 1997; Morrow 1983; Price 1997).

5. In addition to the five variables and seven paths hypothesized above, we also ran the model controlling for the effects of gender, education, tenure in organization and income in

order to isolate the influence of public service motivation on mission valence and organizational citizenship behavior. A nested chi square test comparing the original model to the control model suggested that the demographic variables did not contribute to the explanatory power of the overall model ( $\chi^2_d = 77.47$ ,  $df = 63$ ). While public service motivation was found to have significant positive relationships with education and income, none of the controls had a statistically significant effect on mission valence or organizational citizenship behavior and their inclusion did not alter the strength or significance of the path coefficients of the study variables reported in Figure 1.

6. If the model is retested after constraining the path between co-worker support and ICB to zero, organizational commitment is found to have a statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) positive effect on ICB. This does not rule out, however, the possibility that organizational commitment could have a significant effect on OCB even after controlling for co-worker support if a more comprehensive measure of OCB was used.

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## APPENDIX

### Mission Valence (Palmer 2006; Wright 2007)

- This organization provides valuable public services.
- I believe that the priorities of this organization are quite important.
- The work of this organization is not very significant in the broader scheme of things.
- For me, the mission of this organization is exciting.

### Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior (Adapted from Mossholder et al. 2005)

- I take a personal interest in co-workers.
- I make an extra effort to understand the problems faced by co-workers.
- I go out of my way to help co-workers with work-related problems.

### Organizational Commitment (Meyer, Allen, and Smith 1993)

- I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organization.
- I really feel as if this organization’s problems are my own.
- This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
- I do not feel a sense of belonging to my organization.
- I do not feel like I am “part of a family” at my organization.

### Co-worker Support (Adapted from Settoon and Mossholder 2002)

- My co-workers really care about my well being.
- My co-workers care about my general satisfaction at work.
- My co-workers care about my opinions.

### Public Service Motivation (Perry 1996)

- Meaningful public service is very important to me.
- I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on one another.
- Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements.
- I am prepared to make sacrifices for the good of society.
- I am not afraid to go to bat for the rights of others even if it means I will be ridiculed.

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