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MOTIVATING AND REWARDING EXPERTS

A Survey Based Study on Public Service Motivation, Reward Value and Preference

Master's Thesis in
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ABSTRACT:

The present study wanted to explore the motivation of experts working in a public organisation, especially in reference to Public Service Motivation. Furthermore the present study wished to find out the types of rewards experts in the public sector value and the possible contrast with the rewards they wish to receive.

The theoretical framework relied on different findings on Public Service Motivation, Two existing models of Public Service Motivation were combined to create a more holistic model of Public Service Motivation including individual and organisational attributes as well as their interaction and situational attributes. The organisational attribute of rewards was examined in closer detail.

An Internet survey was conducted at the ELY Centre of Lapland where 100 self-identifying experts answered a questionnaire. They were asked to mark motivating factors based on the Holistic Public Service Motivation Model. They were also asked to mark the rewards they value and the rewards they would like to receive.

The data clearly showed that for a half of all the respondents and for all the groups formed by the different individual and organisational variables (16 out of 16) the most motivating factor was interesting work and job assignments. There was a clear difference to the second most motivating factor of salary and monetary rewards, which was closely followed by the third most motivating factor of responsibility and pride of own work in the responses by all the respondents. The Holistic Public Service Motivation Model was supported by the findings of the present study, all of the individual and organisational attributes got selections in the survey. The data also showed the importance of organisations in Public Service Motivation as the organisational attributes got more selections than the individual ones.

The second part of the research focused on rewarding experts. It was shown that experts value and prefer or want to receive different types of rewards. The data showed that the most valued rewards by all the respondents were interesting work assignments, followed by authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution, and then by rewards measured in money. Interesting work assignments was also the reward most valued by a clear majority of the groups formed by the different variables (14 out of 16). The data also showed when asking the types of rewards experts would like to receive that that the reward concept of rewards measured in money was the most preferred. It was the most preferred reward concept by all the respondents and majority of the groups formed by the different variables (nine out of 16).

Experts relate to their work, this is what they find motivating and these are the types of rewards they value and also to some extent want to receive. However, the importance of monetary rewards should not be underestimated and does not crowd out Public Service Motivation as some studies suggests, on the contrary, for many monetary rewards might equal recognition and approval of a job well done.

1. INTRODUCTION

Public management has undergone a revolution; controlling bureaucracies have been turned into market oriented enterprises. New standards for actions and new roles of public administration are sought, established and practiced in countries around the world. (Dernhardt and Vinzant Dernhardt 2000: 549–551). Today, public services no longer appear secure as government policies of privatisation, downsizing and outsourcing have introduced great uncertainty into them. At one time, public services were attractive as employers of choice as they offered secure employment, good pay and terms and conditions and opportunity to serve the community. Career progression has also been weakened by the increase in lateral recruitment and the emphasis on appointment on merit rather than seniority. The roles of civil servants and other public officials are also changing and they are now often required to manage in increasingly competitive market conditions with a focus on customer service. Finally, the skills and competencies required of new 'public managers' are very different from those expected of classic administrators and public servants. (Horton and Hondeghem 2006: 1–2.)

As Michael M. Harmon (1971, in Ingraham and Rosenbloom 1989) puts it, among the criteria by which New Public Administrators would make correct decisions would be their own values and the imperative of openness to social change. However the public administrator must still know how to balance between the wishes of the two sides, wha the public wants and what the policy states, as well as the ethical norms of the society and public administration (Ingraham and Rosenbloom 1989.) The New Public Administration should be concerned with making the public bureaucracy an instrument for achieving social justice and equality for and between all. This concern is very different from that of simply making the government responsive to the wishes of a majority of the people. (Zimring 1971 in Ingraham and Rosenbloom 1989.) Accordingly, public administrators should focus on their responsibility to serve and empower citizens as they manage public organisations and implement public policy. In other words, with citizens at the forefront, the emphasis should be on building public institutions marked by integrity and responsiveness. (Dernhardt and Vinzant Dernhardt 2000: 549.)

Dernhardt and Vinzant Dernhardt (2000: 554) have listed the differences between the perspectives between Old/Classical Public Administration, New Public Management and New Public Service. Hierarchical, centrally–governed, (political) institutions for clients and constituents of Old/Classical Public Administration and market-oriented, company-like run organisations for customers of New Public Management have changed to collaborative, interacting actors serving the citizens in accordance with New Public Service doctrine. Most importantly for the present study the assumed motivational basis of public servants and administrators has shifted from pay and benefits, civil-service protections of Old/ Classical Public Administration and entrepreneurial spirit, ideological desire to reduce size of government of New Public Management to public service, desire to contribute to society of New Public Service.

This has been the case in Finland too. Figures from the Finnish Ministry of Finance show that the number of state civil servants has reduces from 215 000 of 1988 to a mere 85 000 in 2011 (Valtiovarainministeriö 2012a: 7, in Handolin 2013). In the spirit of new public management state companies and civil servants have been privatised and corporated, downsized and cut down. At the same time also ideologies from the new public service can be seen adopted. Simultaneously with trying to save expenses and focus on productivity the state is developing a programme for the meaningfulness of working for the state, customer-orientation and societal influence. The guiding principles of this programme are doing things together, responsibility, renewal, customer focus and the joy of working. (Valtiovarainministeriö 20212b: 6 in Handolin 2013) It would be interesting to know whether these two have had any influence on the actual civil servants and how they see their work and place in the society and in the organisation, does it in any way affect their motivation to work or do they carry on business as usual – pun intended.

When examining motivation, the focuses of interest usually are 1) what energizes people and makes them act in a certain way, 2) what makes people act according to certain goals and 3) how to maintain the activity towards the right goals, i.e. what factors reinforce the action or redirect it (Vartiainen and Nurmela 2002: 188–189). Observations and research findings suggest a unique context for motivation in public organisations:

- The absence of economic markets for the outputs and the consequent diffuseness of incentives and performance indicators.
- The multiple, conflicting and often abstract values to be pursued.
- The complex, dynamic political and public policy processes by which to operate involving many actors, interests and shifting agendas.
- The external oversight bodies and processes that impose structures, rules and procedures including civil service rules governing pay, promotion, and discipline and rules affecting training and personnel development.
- The external political climate, including public attitudes towards taxes, government and government employees, which turned sharply negative in the 1970s and 1980s.

(Perry and Porter 1982, in Rainey 2009: 246.)

Some claim that managing people in the government raises challenges very different from those faced by business and non-profit organisations, whereas some argue that government differs little from business in matters of motivation. Even according to Nobel Laureate Herbert Simon (1995), one of the most influential contributors to public administration theory and arguably the world's pre-eminent behavioural scientist, reward practices in public, private and non-profit firms do not differ; everything said about economic rewards applies equally to privately owned, non-profit and government-owned organisations. The opportunity for, and limits on, the use of rewards to motivate activities towards organisational goals are precisely the same in all three kinds of organisations. (Rainey 2009: 245.)

Systematic research, especially empirical research, on public service motivation is of recent vintage and grows out of a recognition that the public sector motivational terrain differs from the private sector (Perry and Porter: 1982; Perry and Rainey 1988). Early work recognized that these sector-based differences were related to both organisational and individual circumstance (Perry and Porter 1982). Put another way, individual proclivities to derive fulfilment and satisfaction from public sector work were expected to vary on the basis of formal and informal aspects of the work environment as well as individual attributes. This belief is the product of a rich tradition in public administration

scholarship that has long recognized the presence of an ethic grounded uniquely in public service, which has been expected to lead to the pursuit of government careers an also predispose individuals to derive satisfaction form public service work (Horton 2008; Mosher 1982; Perry and Wise 1990; Rainey 1982). (Pandey and Stazyk 2008: 101.)

The Public Service Motivation literature also contests the primacy of wages as a driver of worker effort (Andersen, 2009). It argues that prosocial, other-oriented motives also matter (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008a). Compared with their private sector counterparts, government employees are expected to display a higher level of Public Service Motivation, defined as the general, altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation, or humankind (Rainey & Steinbauer, 1999). The Public Service Motivation literature proposes that government employees would devote greater effort to accomplishing policy (Andersen, 2009). (Taylor and Taylor 2010: 67–68.)

A common articulation of Public Service Motivation is that it is valuing intrinsic work motives more highly than extrinsic ones (Crewson 1997). Behaviour that is intrinsically motivated is undertaken because of the inherent satisfaction that is derived from a task. These tasks, often labelled "interesting" tasks, are ones that are challenging, enjoyable, or personally meaningful. The motivation to act resides within the individual and is self–determined or autonomous. The ideal incentive system for intrinsically motivated behaviour resides in work content that is satisfying and fulfilling (Osterloh and Frey 2000). In contrast, extrinsic motivation underlies tasks performed with the "intention of obtaining a desired consequence or avoiding an undesired one" (Gagné and Deci 2005, 334). When behaviour is extrinsically motivated, it is said to be externally regulated. The reward emanates from a source outside the individual, and the locus of causality for the behaviour is external to the self. The task is undertaken for instrumental reasons and thereby satisfies personal needs indirectly. Performance-related pay is the ideal incentive system for such behaviour (Osterloh, Frey, and Frost 2001). (Houston 2011: 762.)

But the fact that these individuals are strongly driven to pursue the common good does not imply that monetary rewards are not relevant to them (Brewer, Selden, & Facer, 2000). The public sector has traditionally offered some strong extrinsic rewards that

might have attracted people to the public sector, such as security of tenure, the career perspective and pension systems (Hondghem 1990). Research in Europe (Van Raaij, Vinken, Van Dun 2000; Vandenabeele, Hondeghem, Steen 2004), for instance have found that one of the most attractive aspects of today's public sector is the 'quality of life'. People have the impression that the public sector has more advantages in terms of flexibilities in combining work and family life, opportunities for learning and development and so on. (Perry and Hondeghem 2008b: 3.)

Even in the same task different people can be motivated by different motives. One is motivated by pay rise, the other by respect from colleagues and the third by one's own competence. Also rewarding employees has become demanding in recent years as personnel has become more varied having different expectations from life and from work. The question is should people be motivated, managed and rewarded in the same way in the name of equality? But is it really equal? If people are motivated by and value different things, should not that be taken into consideration? (Nurmi and Salmela-Aro 2005: 132; Kauhanen 2010:11.)

Le Grand (2003, 2007, 2010) has looked into motivation and rewards in the public sector. Public servants can be seen as altruistic knights serving the others. They are driven by their desire to help others and they can be trusted to do their best at it. This is the best reward for them. They should not be controlled or monitored nor should extrinsic monetary rewards or incentives be offered as this crowds out their intrinsic motivation and turns them into knaves. Knaves in the public service are motivated by self–interest and extrinsic rewards. Knaves should not be trusted but mistrusted, meaning controlled and rewarded on the basis of the individual's behaviour and accomplishments.

Le Grand (2010: 62–63) presents statistics showing that the mistrust model did give better results than the opposite trust model. The reasons and facts behind these statistics can be questioned, but Le Grand also questions the effects on motivation. Did the mistrust–model work better because everybody was a selfish knave, or were they eventually turned into knaves by the model? Could it be possible that the knavish incentives and rewards only boosted and reinforced the existing intrinsic knightly motivation? We can-

not properly answer these questions by simple observation of the changes concerned. All we can observe is that there was movement in the right direction – ''right,'' that is, as interpreted by those in charge. Whether that came about because everyone affected was actually a knave; or because everyone was originally a knight, but knightly motivations were crowded out by knavish concerns, and the knavish incentives were so powerful in their effect on increasing performance that they more than offset any crowding-out of knightly motivation; or whether the regime actually involved a crowding-in of knightly motivations; all this is impossible to deduce from the evidence of improved performance alone. Thus it was proven that extrinsic rewards and incentives did matter.

Individual reward preferences are, perhaps, the most commonly examined correlate in the Public Service Motivation literature. The argument here is simple – Public Service Motivation leads individuals to value monetary rewards less than the opportunity to serve others of the society (Houston 2000; Leete 1999; Perry and Wise 1990). This inclination to serve others and society is expected to result in the self–selection of such individuals in public organisations (Crewson 1997). Although the evidence supports differential valuation of non–monetary rewards, it is less clear on the value public employees place on monetary rewards. (Pandey and Stazyk 2008: 108). Value of the reward set aside, non-monetary and monetary rewards might be of equal importance, the motives for wanting them just might be different. The present study aims to distinguish and examine this possible difference between the value and the desire of these monetary rewards.

According to Sveiby (1990: 216) the public sector has many organisations in which extremely qualified people with lots of knowledge work and function. Most fields have administrative tasks that require unique competence that these people posses. These organisations can be regarded as expert organisations and most people working in them as experts in their own field. According to Sipilä (1991) all expert organisations share the following features:

- work involves lots of analysing, complex problem solving and planning
- organisations creates something new

- the expertise and educational level of the staff is usually high
- organisations are depended on their staff and replacing them is difficult.

These features reflect to the experts working in these organisations. Experts work on planning and executing tasks that require complex analysing and problem solving. Experts are motivated by interesting work tasks that challenge them and further develop their expertise. Experts appreciate similar colleagues and an enthusiastic and supporting working environment with adequate resources and equipment. Experts wish to receive individual and detailed feedback and appreciation. For experts monetary rewards are one indicator of that appreciation. (Sipilä 1991: 23, 39–44.) Will the same apply to experts in public organisations, or will the possible Public Service Motivation displayed affect the outcomes when asked about their motivation and the rewards they value and want to receive.

This study will examine the motivations of experts working in a public organisation and their opinions on different rewards in order to determine whether any generalisations can be made of their motivation in relation to serving the public in accordance with Public Service Motivation, or possibly some other motivational factors. Also the type of rewards they value and / in contrast want to receive will be looked at, what will be the relation between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. This is done in order to find out whether experts in a public organisations are a cohesive grey mass of workers with similar interests or can some variation be found, and is this possible variation on individual or can some common factors be found and are these factors related socio-demographic traits such as gender and age or organisational factors such as profession or hierarchy, years of service in the organisation and terms of employment.

The hypothesis is that even though working for the common good in accordance with Public Service Motivation is a major factor in the motivation for the majority of the experts, other motivational factors will appear also, especially factors relating to expertise. Even further, the valuation and preference of rewards will be even be more individualistic than motivational factors with less generalisations to be drawn. Both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards will appear, but in different categories, while experts might value

mostly intrinsic rewards they wish to receive mostly extrinsic rewards. Thus Public Service Motivation can be used as a motivational factor with managerial implications, but as a possible reasoning for rewards it is not sufficient and/or universal. People value different types of reward than they actually want, and this factor is highly individual, even more so than the motivation to work for common good and service the public.

The theoretical part of the study relies mainly on theories on motivation and rewards, which are closely linked to one another; one could even argue them being inseparable. The second chapter will examine more closely the concept of motivation, and especially Public Service Motivation. A new holistic model for Public Service Motivation will be presented by combining two existing models and findings from previous studies. The model is later referred and compared to the findings of the present study. Different motivational attributes will be looked at in a closer detail in relation to Public Service Motivation. Also the motivational background for experts will be presented.

The third chapter focuses on one precise attribute in Public Service Motivation, namely rewards and rewarding. A general presentation of different types of rewards will be presented based on the literature on the subject. The second part of the chapter focuses on how rewards and Public Service Motivation correlate and what is known about rewarding experts.

In order to examine the Public Service Motivation of experts and how they value and desire different rewards, a survey will be conducted in a case study organisation. Chapter four presents the theory behind quantitative research methods, such as surveys. The chapter also presents the case study organisation, the ELY Centre of Lapland, the survey conducted and the respondents of the survey by different individual and organisational variables. The quantitative results of the survey and some of the qualitative answers of the respondents are then presented in chapter five.

Lastly the findings are examined and discussed in chapter six in the light of theories and other findings on Public Service Motivation and rewards. Implications and suggestions for further research will be given before presenting the conclusions of the study.

2. PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION

According to Ruohotie and Honka (1999: 13) motivation is a psychological state related to a certain situation. It determines how intensively, actively and diligently one acts and the interest of the action. It depends on motivation to what extent one uses physical and mental strengths. Employee motivation plays a central role in management, both practically and theoretically and it has to be interpreted as a heterogeneous topic. Motivation alone does not determine performance, and is influenced by the internal and external impetus that arouse and direct effort – the needs, motives and values that push us and the incentives, goals and objectives that pull us. (Rainey 2009: 251–252.) Camilleri's (2007: 358) examination of the motivation literature identified 15 theories, supporting 32 conceptual variations, hence depicting its complexity and illustrating that there is no consensus in the formulation of an all–embracing unified theoretical framework. This chapter presents some basic ideas in work motivation before examining more closely the concept of Public Service Motivation, which is claimed to be unique for individuals in public organisations.

2.1. Work Motivation

Individual's behaviour and actions in working life like in all other activities are person and situation specific. Both innate factors and external factors and experiences affect actions. Innate factors are e.g. traits of personality and mental and physical capacities. External factors influenced by environment and experiences contain discoveries and learning, which have accumulated during life time affecting individual's values, attitudes, motives, needs and will. (Viitala 2004: 150.) According to Ruohotie and Honka (1999: 17–18) there are three important factors, which affect and create work motivation. These are employee's personal traits (personality), work characteristics and working environment.

Of the personal traits (personality) of the individual at least the interests, attitudes and needs of the individual have been proven to have an effect on the motivation process. It

depends on the interests of the individual how different external stimuli, like money, affect their behaviour. Several researches show that work motivation is greatly governed by the compatibility of professional interests and work characteristics. The attitudes of the individual have also a great effect on their performance motivation. Also a bad self-image can negatively affect the performance level of the individual. Needs of the individual relate to income, appreciation, social needs and self–fulfilment. (Ruohotie and Honka 1999:17.)

Work motivation does not solely consist of internal factors of the individual. Also external factors affect it, one of the most prominent being characteristics of the work. The content of the work, meaningfulness of the work, accomplishments and development at work all affect the work motivation of the individual. The content of the work refers to what the work offers for the individual: is it meaningful, does one receive responsibility and feedback and does the work offer experiences of success. Also the possibilities of promotion, accomplishments and development at work and in one's tasks play a part in work motivation. (Ruohotie and Honka 1999: 18.)

Third factor affecting work motivation is the work environment and its characteristics. Relevant in work environment are economical, physical and social factors. Economical and physical factors include salary and working conditions, social factors mean atmosphere at work, style of management and social rewards. However just listing the factors affecting work motivation does not show how they control the behaviour of an individual at work. It can be that the individual has desire to perform well, but lacks a clear picture of one's role in the matter or lacks the competence to perform the task. (Ruohotie and Honka 1999: 18–19.)

Motivation can also be divided into intrinsic and external motivation. However, these cannot be totally separated, but they complement each other and exist simultaneously, though some motives may be more dominant than others. Intrinsic motivation is intrinsically transmitted and the reasons for behaviour and actions are internal. Intrinsic motivation is based on needs to be independent, to learn and to prove how good one is. One actively seeks challenges and tries to face and win them. In working life, the work itself

and different accomplishments are the reward. External motivation is dependent on environment and the rewards come from outside, not from the actor or work itself. External rewards can be pay or other financial profit, respect or security. The more tempting the rewards are seen, the more motivated is the work done in order to achieve them. (Ruohotie and Honka 1999: 14; Viitala 2004: 153–154.) However, research on motivation crowding shows that using extrinsic incentives can lower motivation among employees with high levels of intrinsic motivation. This is an important finding for public sector organisations as performance–related pay has been regarded as an important strategy of modernisation in the context of new public management. (Perry and Hondeghem 2008a: 8.) The next subchapter will look more closely on the motivation of people working in the public organisations.

2.2. Elements of Public Service Motivation

Philosophers and behavioural scientists have examined the moral significance of public service, why people enter public service, and what attracts them to public service work. Some classical studies identified a bureaucratic personality, arguing that people with certain traits were attracted to public service (Lasswell 1930); others, like Merton (1940), argued that behaviour is learned rather than the result of personal traits. These traits included a high security need, preference for routine activities, clear directions and close supervision and aversion to risk. Bureaucrats also tended towards authoritarian personalities (Horton and Hondeghem 2006: 2.) Alternative views claimed that people enter public service out of a sense of duty and responsibility to serve the common good or the public interest (Mosher 1982). It was not until the 1980s that theory and empirical research on Public Service Motivation began to emerge in public management and the 1990s before it was more fully developed. (Perry and Hondeghem 2008a: 3.)

The topic was given new prominence in the mid-2000's by developments in public administration. One was the ''global public management revolution'' (Kettl 2005), driven by governments' search for continuously higher levels of productivity, service orientation, and accountability. Another development was the consistent failure of financial

incentive schemes (Perry, Mesch, and Paarlberg 2006) that were adapted from the private sector beginning in the late 1970s. (Perry and Hondeghem 2008a: 3.) These developments are considered noteworthy in the scope of the present study, and as the aim is to find out what types of rewards are valued and preferred by public servants. As public administration has changed, have the people working in the field changed as well, especially in motivation and reward preferences?

Systematic research, especially empirical research, on Public Service Motivation is of recent vintage and grows out of a recognition that the public sector motivational terrain differs from the private sector. Early work recognized that these sector-based differences were related to both organisational and individual circumstances (Perry and Porter 1982). Put another way, individual proclivities to derive fulfilment and satisfaction from public sector work were expected to vary on the basis of formal and informal aspects of the work as well as individual attributes. This belief is the product of a rich tradition in public administrations scholarship that has long recognized the presence of an ethic grounded uniquely in public service, which has been expected to lead to the pursuit of government careers and also predispose individuals to derive satisfaction from public sector work (Mosher 1982; Perry and Wise 1990; Rainey 1982). (Pandey and Stazyk 2008: 101.)

Human motivation in general is a complex issue and the same applies to Public Service Motivation, although it can be narrowed down. The meaning of Public Service Motivation varies across disciplines and fields, but its definition has a common focus on motives and actions in the public domain that are intended to do good for others and shape the well–being of society. Perry and Hondeghem (2008a: 3–5) narrow down three distinctive approaches to Public Service Motivaton based on the research on the matter. Public Service Motivation refers to individual motives that are 1) largely grounded in public institutions and 2) are altruistic 3) and/or prosocial. Public Service Motivation is understood either as institutionally unique motives associated with public service (Perry and Wise 1990), or beliefs and values that transcend self and organisational interests on behalf of a larger political entity (Vandenabeele 2007). (Perry and Hondeghem 2008a: 6.)

Elmer Staats (1988, in Perry and Hondeghem 2008a: 4) notes that many public administration scholars believed in a public service ethos that set public servants apart from counterparts in other institutions. This notion is supported by Rainey (1997, in Brewer, Selden and Facer II 2000: 254) when they state that the public administration community has long maintained that some individuals have strong norms and emotions about performing public service. This "public service ethic" is thought to attract certain individuals to government service and foster work behaviours that are consistent with the public interest.

Vandenabeele (2007: 547) defines Public Service Motivation as ''the belief, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organisational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate''. Rainey and Steinbauer (1999: 20) offer a more global definition of Public Service Motivation. They associate the construct with altruism by defining Public Service Motivation as a ''general, altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation or humankind''. Public Service Motivation has been used by economists as ''code'' for altruism, meaning the willingness of individuals to engage in sacrificial behaviours for the good of others without reciprocal benefits for themselves. (Perry and Hondeghem 2008a: 4–5.)

Organisational behaviour scholars instead group behaviours that might be construed as altruistic under the rubric of prosocial behaviours, which encompasses a broad category of behaviours. Brief and Motowidlo (1986: 117) define prosocial behaviour in organisational settings as behaviour which is (a) performed by a member of an organisation, (b) directed toward an individual, group, or organisation with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his or her organisational role, and (c) performed with the intention or promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organisation toward which it is directed. (Perry and Hondeghem 2008a: 4–5.)

Perry (2000, in Camilleri 2007: 359–360) attempts to bring these different views on Public Service Motivation together by presenting a process theory of Public Service Motivation which is presented in Figure 1. The process theory of Public Service Moti-

vation applies Bandura's (1986) concept of reciprocal causal relationships among three factors, namely, environmental influences; cognitive and other personal factors; and behaviour. The factors presented by Perry are somewhat similar and respond well to the factors affecting work motivation presented by Ruohotie and Honka (1999) with employee's personal traits (personality), work's characteristics and working environment. The organisational incentives, job characteristics and work environment variables are consistent with formulations in existing models of motivation (Perry 2000: 481). Perry's theory posits that the critical variables are divided into four domains:

- Sociohistorical context, that is, the environmental variables that mould individual preferences and motives, such as, education, professional training, religion, parental relations and other so called life events.

- Motivational context, these involve situational factors that influence behaviour in organisations, such as, job characteristics, organisational incentives and work environment variables.

- Individual characteristics that are conceived as several conceptually distinct components. These components include ability and competencies; self-concept based on the individual's values and identity that entail creating incentives to respond to one's behaviour; and self-regulation referring to the individual's self-directive capabilities made up of self-observation, judgmental processes, self-reaction and self-monitoring. These latter standards may originate from social and cultural cues, including evaluative standards modelled by others.

- Behaviour of the individual could flow either from a logic of consequence or from a logic of appropriateness and is dependent on the nature of the self-regulatory effect. The logic of consequence is consistent with rational choice and allows the individual to weigh costs and benefits, seeking to maximize utility. Whereas, logic of appropriateness brings into motion non-consequentialist options, whereby, the individual determines attractiveness of different actions according to how consistent they are to their internal standards. Thus, the primary

> motivators for public sector employees are the interests that attract them to public service.

(Perry 2000, in Camilleri 2007: 359–360.)

The Process Theory of Public Service Motivation depicted in Figure 1. illustrates how the different factors are inter-related influencing one another. However as Camilleri (2007: 360–361) points out, Perry (2000) does not submit empirical evidence to support his theory of Public Service Motivation in a holistic manner, but cites a number of studies to substantiate the reason for the inclusion of critical variables under the four domains. In general, the literature suggests that both sociohistorical and individual characteristics context provide a mixture of results that are not always consistent. However, motivational context, related to institutions, job characteristics, organisational incentives and work environment tend to consistently show a relationship with Public Service Motivation.

Figure 1. A Process Theory of Public Service Motivation (Perry 2000: 481).
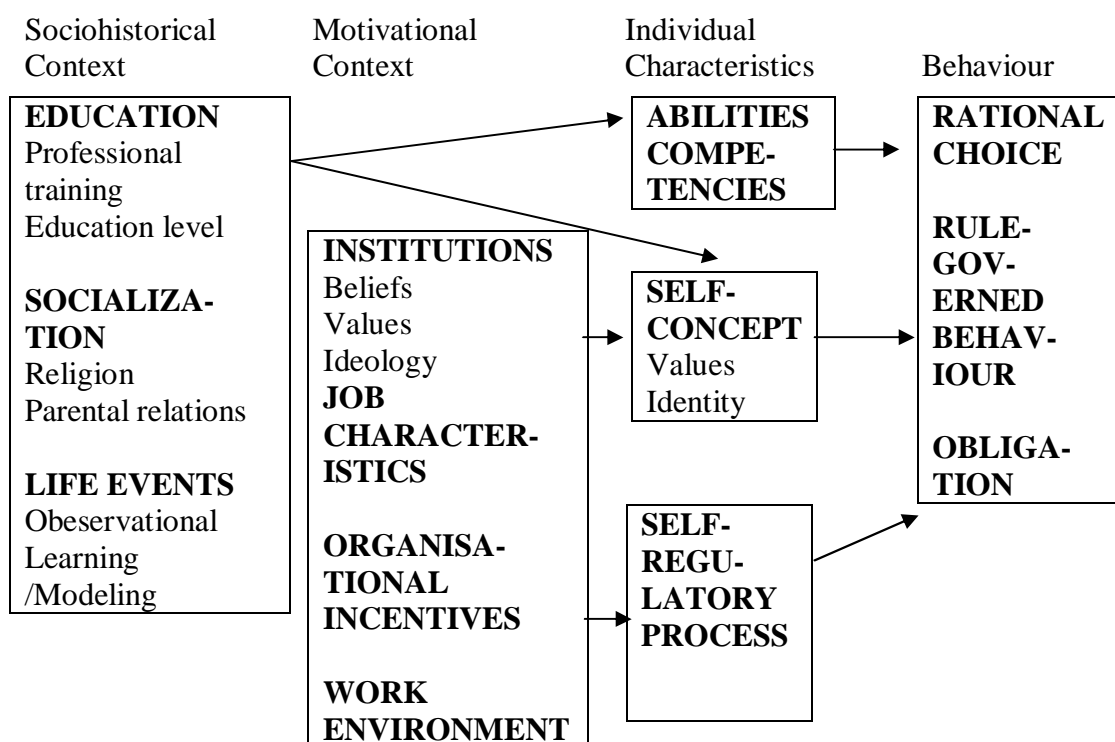
Camilleri conducted his own study on 3400 Maltese public officers resulting in a Public Service Motivation Model including Antecedents shown in Figure 2. Camilleri (2007) views that in his model the personal attributes which included education, family life cycle status, organisation and job tenure may be viewed as being the sociohistorical context in Perry's model, whereas, gender, age, salary and job grade may be classified as Perry's individual characteristics. Furthermore, role states, employee perception of the organisation, employee-leader relations and job characteristics may be categorised as Perry's motivational context. Perry's model included behaviour whereas in Camilleri's model the motivation needs look like the result of or stem from Public Service Motivation, which is in its turn looks like the result of or stem from the different antecedents.

Figure 2. Resultant Public Service Model including Antecedents (Camilleri 2007: 367).
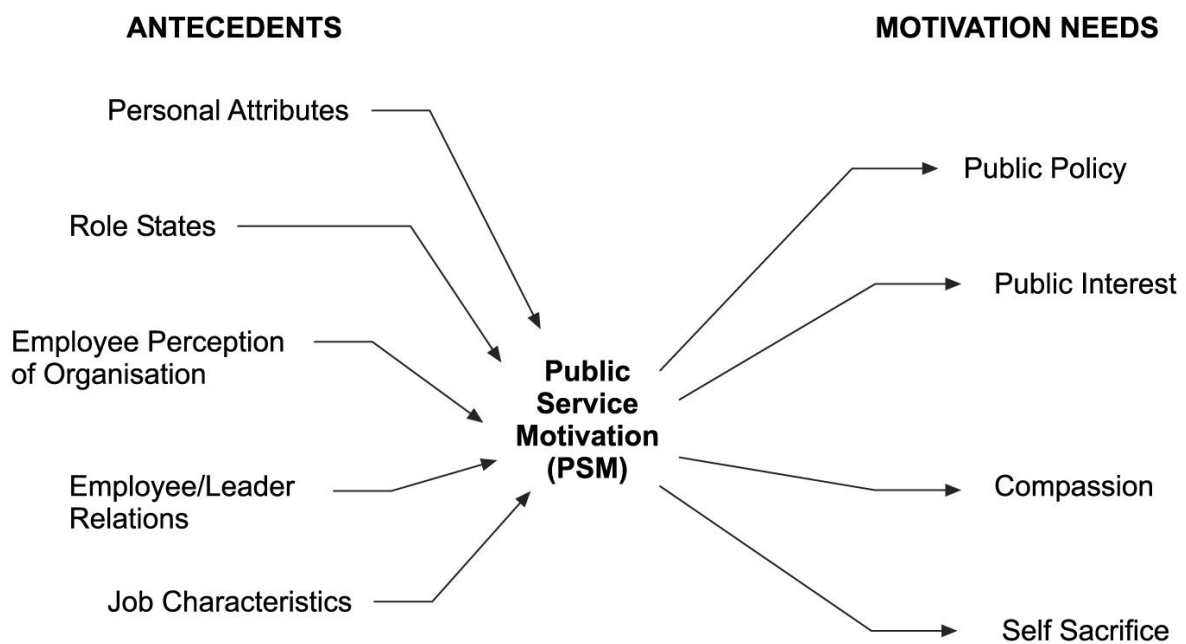
By combining points from the two models, a third model of Public Service Motivation can be reached. In this model both the individual and organisational attributes are taken into consideration and have importance influencing on and interacting with one another

creating a pool of Public Service Motivation as was already noted in the early works on Public Service Motivation by Perry and Porter (1982). Camilleri (2007) argues that it is mostly the motivational context related to institutions, jo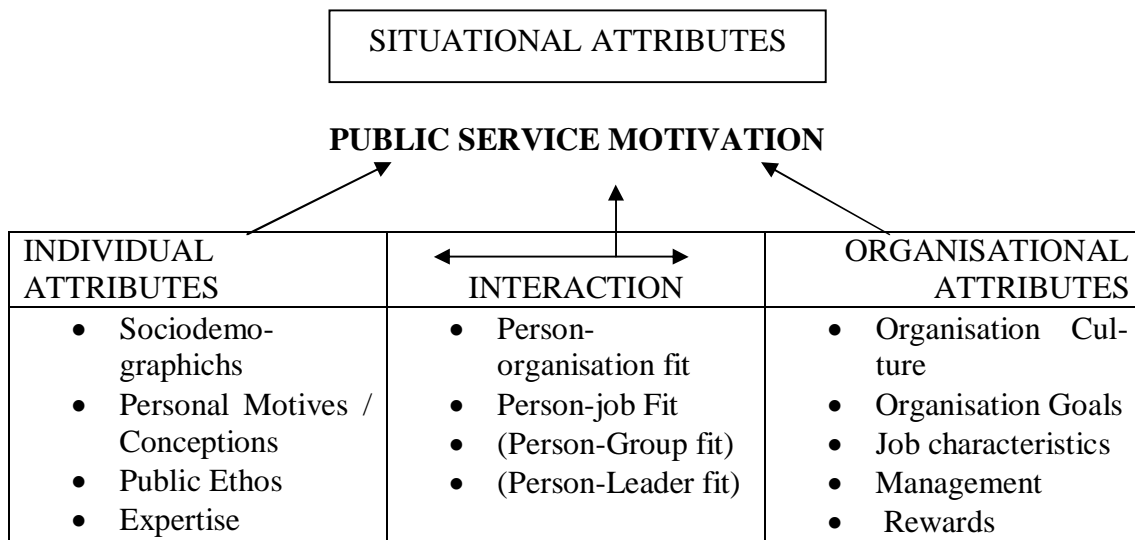b characteristics, organisational incentives and work environment that tends to consistently show a relationship with Public Service Motivation. Still how people react and conform to these organisational stimuli is highly individual, thus individual characteristics and sociohistorical context in Perry's model and the personal antecedents in Camilleri's model play an important role as well. It could also be argued that placing the behaviour in Perry's model and motivational needs in Camilleri's into these individual attributes are more balanced and accurate model could be reached, as these are more of individual and personal origin than organisational. Also a third attribute could be added to the model. The situational attributes relating to the time and environment, as people rarely act in an identical way in identical situations. It could even be argued that identical situations are a paradox, and thus the effect of the situational attributes on the motivation of an individual and on the action resulting from the motivation must be taken into consideration and added into the model to reflect the contingency views according to which situational factors affect the behaviour and how the situation and the outcomes are interpreted (French, Kast & Rosenzweig 1985).

The Holistic Public Service Motivation Model is presented in Figure 3. However, just as in Perry's Process theory of Public Service Motivation, no empirical data is presented here to support the theory nor the model presented in Figure 3. It is solely based on the findings of Perry and Camilleri and backed up by other theoretical findings of other scholars, as well as from the small–scale empirical findings of the present study to be presented later on. In the model Public Service Motivation is divided into three attributes: individual, organisational and situational. Public Service Motivation can be the result of one or several of these attributes, of all of the attributes, or interaction between the different attributes.

Figure 3. The Holistic Public Service Model.

SITUATIONAL ATTRIBUTES

PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION

INDIVIDUAL ATTRIBUTES	INTERACTION	ORGANISATIONAL ATTRIBUTES
• Sociodemo-graphichs • Personal Motives / Conceptions • Public Ethos • Expertise	• Person-organisation fit • Person-job Fit • (Person-Group fit) • (Person-Leader fit)	• Organisation Culture • Organisation Goals • Job characteristics • Management • Rewards

The present study will now look in closer details to the individual and organisational and attributes, to some of the distinct attributes in them, as well as to their interaction. Many of the concepts presented below can over-lap and be argued to belong to both of the two attributes or as such being already a result of the interaction and thus cannot be purely considered as belonging solely to either or, but the present study and the model for representation purposes divided them into these three separate groups.

2.2.1. Individual Attributes of Public Service Motivation

Socio-demographic characteristics are commonly included in Public Service Motivation studies as control variables in multiple models. Some of the more robust socio-demographic attributes include age, education and gender. On balance, age has a modest a modest positive association with Public Service Motivation. A higher level of education has a positive association with Public Service Motivation. Women consistently score higher on the compassion dimensions of Public Service Motivation. With increasing age and attendant life experiences (such as raising children) people come more concerned about making lasting contributions to the society. For most other socio-demographic factors, however, it is possible to find instances of no relationship, appositive relationship or a negative relationship with Public Service Motivation (Pandey and

Stazyk 2008: 102.) So Public Service Motivation cannot be explained with such robust socio-demographic attributes, although they might provide interesting background information and points for comparison. As motivation is a complex issue, deeper and more psychological attributes must be looked at.

Personal Motives for Public Service Motivation

Perry and Wise (1990: 368) define Public Service Motivation as an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organisations. They identified a typology of motives associated with public service that included rational, norm-based and affective motives.

Rational motives are grounded in individual utility maximization, and they are operative when individuals want to participate in the policy process, are committed to a public program because of personal identification with it. Norm-based motives are a desire to serve the public interest, no matter how this latter term is defined. These motives include patriotism, duty, and loyalty to the government, but they also raise ethical dilemmas. Identifying which behaviours are congruent with the public interest is difficult to agree on a precise definition of the public interest. Affective motives are grounded in human emotion, and they are characterized by a desire and willingness to help others. These motives include altruism, empathy, moral conviction, and other prosocial desires. (Brewer, Selden and Facer II 2000: 255.)

These three categories provide a useful framework for understanding Public Service Motivation, but the categories overlap. An individual may have rational, norm-based, and affective motives that contribute to a single behaviour (Perry and Wise 1990). Subsequently, James L. Perry (1996) translated this theory of Public Service Motivation into a measurement scale. He tested the scale with confirmatory factor analysis and derived four measurable factors: public policy making, public interest, compassion, and self–sacrifice. The first three factors correspond to the theoretical framework proposed by Perry and Wise (1990), and the fourth adds a new factor called self-sacrifice. (Brewer et al.2000: 255.)

However, Perry's approach was not designed to capture differences in individual conceptions of Public Service Motivation. In their research Brewer, Selden and Facer II (2000) follow the footsteps of Anthony Downs (1967), who based his well-known typology of bureaucratic roles on the assumption that individuals have mixed motives. So there is the possibility that Public Service Motivation involves mixed motives as well. The research by Brewer, Selden and Facer II provides a more systematic and comprehensive view of Public Service Motivation, and a clearer understanding of the motives involved in performing public service. They identify four distinct conceptions of Public Service Motivation: individuals holding these conceptions are referred to as samaritans, communitarians, patriots, and humanitarians, and to all of them the rational, norm-based, and affective bases of motivation are important.

One could argue that the four groups are quite similar, and the differences between the groups are quite minimal. The primary motives that emerge are serving the public, making a difference in society, and ensuring individual and social equity. However when looked at more closely, the four conceptions of Public Service Motivation differ in their scope of concern. Samaritans are concerned about other individuals, communitarians about their community, patriots about the nation, and humanitarians about humankind. (Brewer et al. 2000.)

Most interestingly, in contrast with Perry and Wises's (1990) and Perrys' (1996) results that state that public sector employees thrive on the excitement of the policy process, Brewer, Selder and Facer II's results suggest that they are actually indifferent. All four groups placed the statement "the give and take of public policymaking appeals to me" in the neutral category. All four groups convey a general distaste for politics and politicians. One respondent said: "Politics always brings bad thoughts such as 'crooks, liars, etc.' (Brewer et al. 2000: 260–261.) This is directly linked with public's loss of confidence and trust in government cited by Perry and Hondeghem (2008b) which in its own way has also contributed to the study of Public Service Motivation and similar constructs, one of them being public service ethos, which in the present study in the Holistic Public Service Motivation Model is regarded as an individual attribute affecting Public Service Motivation.

Public Service Ethos

Vandenabeele and Hondeghem (2005) rightly point out that Perry's Public Service Motivation model is specifically oriented towards the US. They have identified several variants of Public Service Motivation in the Netherlands and France and suggest that the widespread and extensive emergence of Public Service Motivation -like constructs in different countries indicates the presence of a robust phenomenon that is entrenched in western culture. Chanlat refers to 1'e'thique du bien commun'. (The ethics of the common good) in Canada. The essential feature of this ethic is disinterested behaviour, a kind of behaviour that finds its origin in legal rules and not in self–interest. (Chanlat, 2003) In Britain, academics and practitioners refer to a 'public service ethos'. Pratchett and Wingfield (1996) identify five elements of the public service ethos: accountability, the public interest, altruistic motivation, bureaucratic behaviour and a range of loyalties to one's profession, the organisation and the community. In Germany and Austria the term used is Beamtenethos, which relates to fundamental principles and practices underpinning the Rechtsstaat. These include objectivity, disinterestedness, equality, legal formalism, proceduralism, permanence, continuity, expertise, secrecy and the rule of law. (Meyer and Hammerschmid 2004) The assumption in all these studies is that these values are not only central to the culture of public organisations and therefore fashion the behaviour of civil servants and public officials, but that it is these values which motivate and attract people to enter the service and perform well. These values are therefore important in Public Service Motivation, commitment to public service and a lifelong career. (Horton and Hondeghem 2006: 3–4.)

It is claimed that individuals working in the public services are bound by, subscribe to, and are motivated by a public service ethos. It is characterized by a set of values such as honesty, integrity accountability, and probity and a set of processes involving, for example, recruitment and promotion on merit. It presupposes that those who subscribe to this ethos will be concerned to promote the public interest, howsoever defined, rather than private interests. However as there are different administrative traditions reflecting constitutional conventions, political values, and legal regimes. Thus empirical evidence of the existence of this ethos is scarce and its character remains elusive. A critical factor

in the delivery of public services has been an allegiance of professionals to an ethos of public service. Values intrinsic to that are said to include commitment, accountability, integrity, impartiality, organisational citizenship behaviour, and some notion of the public interest, distinct from private interests (Horton 2008). (Rayner, Williams, Lawton 2010: 27– 29.)

The framework identified by Pratchett and Wingfield (1994: 14) included accountability, bureaucratic behaviour (demonstrated through the exercise of honesty, integrity, impartiality, and objectivity), public interest, motivation, and loyalty, and they conclude that ''The public service ethos is a confused and ambiguous concept, which is only given meaning by its organisational and functional situation, and may be subject to very different interpretations over both time and location.''. Brereton and Temple (1999) argue that the consumer should be at the heart of the ethos, with a focus on outputs rather than processes. Needham (2006) similarly places the customer centrally and Aldridge and Stoker (2002) identify five elements of a new public service ethos. These include a focus on performance, responsible employment practices, and a commitment to community well-being. (Rayner, et al. 2010:27– 29.)

Public service ethos thus indicates a belief system that may explain ''why'' individuals are motivated by it, ''how'' they deliver public services in accordance with its values, and ''what ends'' they perceive it to endorse. Public service ethos as a multidimensional construct and develops a framework that explains first, why individuals are motivated by this ethos (Public Service Belief); second, how they deliver public services in accordance with this ethos (Public Service Practice); and third, what ends they perceive it to endorse (Public Interest). (Rayner et al. 2010: 29–30, 43.)

Despite having distinct terminological histories, the constructs of Public Service Motivation and public service ethos are claimed to be highly similar, to such an extent that the terms are often used interchangeably. Rayner et al. agree that public service ethos and Public Service Motivation are similar constructs. Indeed, both can be described as umbrella terms based on the premise that some individuals are highly attracted and motivated by public service work. It is therefore unsurprising that descriptions of Public

Service Motivation resonate with those relating to public service ethos. (Rayner et al. 2010: 30.)

Nonetheless, although public service ethos and Public Service Motivation are similar constructs, Rayner et al suggest that there are differences and the terms should not be considered interchangeable. First, acceptance of the definitions of Public Service Motivation given above is not universal. Brewer and Selden (1998) argue, for example, that Public Service Motivation transcends the public sector presenting evidence that individuals associated with other sectors are motivated to act in altruistic ways toward citizens. This may lead to an ambiguity concerning the Public Service Motivation construct. Subsequently, scholars have extended the Public Service Motivation definition to include ''communities, states, nations or humankind'' (Rainey and Steinbauer 1999: 23) and the most recent definition incorporates ''the belief, values and attitudes that go beyond self–interest and organisational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate. Public Service Motivation is therefore located in individuals regardless of their context, rather than being an ethos that is sector based. (Rayner et al. 2010: 31.)

The ethos felt by individuals within an organisation depends upon those who are its leaders and its members (O'Toole 1993) and will be influenced by the values of those who subscribe to it (Chapman 2000). It will develop over time, and its historical character has been well documented. Its continued existence will depend upon the extent to which successive generations of public officials will subscribe to its values and norms such that these are internalized and provide intrinsic motivation rather than, for example, material reward or fear of sanctions (Le Grand 2003). Rayner et al's discussion of the public service ethos lead them to define it as a way of life that includes a set of values held by the individual, together with organisational processes and procedures that shape, and are shaped by, those values. Such values are enshrined in organisational goals that are directed toward public rather than private or sectional interests. Public service ethos is therefore a function of individual motivation and values, such as honesty and altruism, organisational rules and processes that accomplish accountability and impartiality, and goals that enhance the common good. (Rayner et al. 2010: 29.. Just as

Public Service Motivation, as an umbrella term, also the individual attribute of public service ethos can be seen as a result of interaction between the individual and the organisation. Before examining these organisational attributes closer, one more individual attribute will be looked at.

Expertise

Expert organisations depend on their experts, which are regarded as difficult to replace. That is why it is important that they are motivated in order to retain the most capable workforce at the organisation. That is why identifying the sources of the expert motivation and building a reward system based on that in crucial. According to Kaajas, Nordulund and Troberg (2003) motivated personnel will direct their efforts for the best of the organisation (Luoma, Troberg, Kaajas and Nordlund. 2004: 14).

However, as Sipilä (1988: 10) points out experts usually commit stronger to their expertise and professionalism than to their actual organisation. A feature of expertise is strong professional ethos, which refers to the person being simultaneously committed to their profession and to the organisation. This relates well to public service ethos, which demonstrated not only loyalties to one's profession, but also to the organisation and the community. Thus in the public service one can be loyal also to one's profession (or expertise) as well as to the organisation and to the community, it might even be argued that the expertise is a result of the interaction of all these factors put together, as the organisation provides the ground for the expertise to grow and function in public service and the community i.e. the citizens provide feedback on the success of the expertise. Most studies show a positive relationships between professional identification and Public Service Motivation (Perry 2008a: 105), and thus professionalism or expertise can be regarded as a constituent of Public Service Motivation.

Experts are primarily motivated by their work. Experts regard interesting work to be the most important motivational factor. In relation to Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1987), experts operate on the higher needs of appreciation and self–actualization. Besides interesting work other factors affecting motivation are results, appreciation and success,

feedback, development, colleagues, working environment and tools and salary. Salary is one motivational factor of experts, but it comes after factors related closely to work, such as success, personal development and feedback. Experts receive feedback from their colleagues, supervisors, clients and other interest groups. Even though experts are well aware of when they have performed well, they still long for feedback from others. For experts salary is primarily an indicator of appreciation. (Sipilä 1988: 13–14, Sipilä 1991: 39.)

For any creative work that any expert does the central features are support and encouragement from the manager, organisation and the whole working community, experiencing autonomy and adequate resources and challenges. In practice this means interesting tasks, freedom of choice in executing the work, support in utilising new and creative models, encouragement to implement alternative ways of working, open communication, secure employment and adequate resourcing. (Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby and Herron 1996, in Handolin 2013: 23.)

According to the research Asiantuntijoiden palkitseminen ja arviointi tieto–organisaatioissa 'Rewarding and Evaluating Experts in Knowledge Organisations' by Kaajas, Norlund Troberg ja Nurmela (2003) intrinsic motivational factors such as learning, challenges, meaningful work, and interesting tasks are seen as the most important factors by experts. This research also shows that salary and other financial rewards and promotions are not the most important factors for experts. However, it is shown that even though material rewards are not a source for motivation they can be reasons behind dissatisfaction at work. (Luoma et al. 2004: 27, 29.)

Other features of experts are a strong appreciation of professional proficiency and a strong demand for operational autonomy – experts themselves want to decide how they do things. This can make managing expert challenging, but their commitment to the organisation can be strengthened with shared organisational values and with organisational culture. (Luoma et al. 2004: 16.) There might also be conflicts between the expert and the organisation, due to the restraints the organisation might place on the expert in forms of bureaucracy and regulations. Still experts might identify more with their pro-

fession and thus with their fellow–colleagues within the organisation and thus commit to the organisation, (Rainey 2009: 305–306.)

As the previous chapters have shown organisations play an important role in the motivation and have an effect on the individual working in that organisation. The next sub-chapter will look more closely on these organisational attributes that form the organisational attributes of the Holistic Public Service Motivation Model.

2.2.2. Organisational Attributes of Public Service Motivation

Public Service Motivation is found to be higher among employees working in the public sector than in the private sector. This is consistent with theories stressing the institutional basis of Public Service Motivation. (Perry and Hondeghem 2008a: 7.) The importance of organisations in fostering Public Service Motivation has not received much attention. Organisations, however, can play an important role in fostering and sustaining Public Service Motivation (Pandey and Stazyk 2008: 106.) Although little empirical work has been done on the institutional antecedents of Public Service Motivation, the available empirical and theoretical work suggests that institutions play an important role in its development (Vandenabeele 2014: 4).

Organisation Culture and Goals

Moynihan and Pandey argue that even though Public Service Motivation may be formed by sociohistorical factors before employees enter the organisation, it will also be influenced by the organisational environment in which employees find themselves. Actors construct beliefs and behaviours based on what is appropriate in light of their environment and the norms of behaviour of those around them. Therefore, they expect that public employees' beliefs about public service are at least partly influenced by the nature of the organisations they are a part of. Moynihan and Pandey mention the importance or organisation culture. As Barnard (1938) observes, that there are a variety of formal and informal mechanisms through which organisations may shape the beliefs and behaviour of their members. The influence of organisational norms on beliefs and behaviour is

widely asserted in the organisational culture literature and can be seen to affect all aspects of organisational and individual behaviour. (Moynihan and Pandey 2007: 42.) Brewer (2008: 151) cites different studies all indicating that in the public sector organisational culture is one of the few malleable factors and scholars need to study this construct more carefully.

Organisation culture in general can be defined and illustrated in many ways. Rainey (2009: 335–336) mentions Schein's (1992) levels of organisational culture that range from the observable level to the least observable level. The observable level includes artefacts and creations, with examples like design of work processes and administrative processes, art (symbols and logos) and over behaviour (word used, rituals and ceremonies). Basic values belong to the less observable level and are values about how things ought to be, and how one ought to respond and behave in general. On the least observable level Schein places basic assumptions which are the assumptions on which people in the organisation operate. These assumptions are about the organisation's relationship with the environment. These various forms that transmit organisation's culture serve as a sense-making mechanism for people in the organisation as they interpret what goes on around them. The forms transmit information about the organisation's basic values and assumptions.

Organisation's values resonate nicely with Paarlberg and Perry's (2007) finding that public servants exhibit greater ''buy in'' to organisational goals when they fall within the servant's ''zone of (affective and normative) values,'' as well as the general observation that it is manifestly contrary to a public service ethic for an agent to use public authority to further policies that she herself considers to be detrimental by her own standards of good policy. Brehm and Gates (1997) found that conflicting values between agents and organisations reduce work effort. In the public sector multiple, sometimes even conflicting goals and vagueness are confronted more often than in the private sector. (Rainey 2009: 307.) This is supported by Camilleri's findings. The role states of conflict and ambiguity have a negative influence on the dimensions of Public Service Motivation. Hence, this suggests that for employees to maximise their Public Service Motivation level, they must be provided with clear unequivocal goals; and with

a prioritisation of goals irrespective of whether employees receive their instructions from one or more sources. This goal–setting leads us to the next organisational attribute of job characteristics and management. (Camilleri 2007: 373.)

Job Characteristics and Management

Intrinsic motivation and motivating job can be understood with the help of the modern job characteristics model, developed by Hackman and Oldham (1974, in Judge and Robbins 2009). It proposes that any job can be described in terms of five core job dimensions that relate to the motivation and satisfaction of employees:

- Task and skill variety. An employee can use a number of different skills and talents in his/her job.
- Task identity. A job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work rather than simply a part. Extensive work assignments.
- Task significance. A job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people inside or outside an organisation. The extent to which an employee finds the job to be personally valuable in some way.
- Autonomy. A job provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion to an individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.
- Feedback. An individual obtains direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his/her performance.

The core dimensions of job characteristic presented above seem pretty identical to the factors that experts appreciate in their work and what they value as important. Job characteristics are depicted collectively as being directly and positively linked with all the Public Service Motivation dimensions. However, findings suggest that task significance and dealing with others are prevalent attributes, followed by skill variety, task identity, task autonomy, friendship opportunities and task feedback. Hence, it is suggested that public service managers should examine departmental tasks with the aim of showing where an employee's task fits in the total picture, that is, the impact of their role; in-

creasing group related work rather than having employees work in isolation; making tasks more interesting by allowing employees to perform a wider range of operations; and enable employees to clearly identify the results of their efforts and providing them with adequate information related to how well they are doing in their job. (Camilleri 2007: 373.)

Nevertheless, to further develop and enhance Public Service Motivation, it is suggested that managers should allow their employees to influence the decisions being made by being more approachable and inviting them to provide their input; take a facilitator role by clarifying expectations, assigning unambiguous tasks and identify procedures to be followed, thus minimising the adverse effect of the role states; and provide employees with feedback regarding their performance and how well they are doing on the job. (Camilleri 2007: 373.)

Management literature shows that researches have treated leadership and management in the public sector as essentially the same as in other settings, including business. All executives and managers face similar task and challenges, but managers in the public sector function in a different context requiring different skills and knowledge as there are control and constraints as well as political and administrative processes that weigh heavily on managerial behaviour. (Rainey 2009: 342–343.)

Rainey warns against the escalation to the top and abdication at the bottom -model, where the top executives are held accountable for all that happens in their agency and expect agencies to show clear lines of authority and accountability. The executives and middle managers have little control over career civil servants, yet they feel intense pressure to control them to avoid bad publicity or political misuse. Because of vague performance criteria, they try control behaviour rather than outcomes through a profusion of rules and requirements. This approach fails to exert real control and further complicates the bureaucratic system. The top executives preoccupy themselves with external politics and policy issues instead of developing human resources or organisational systems and the civil servants just obey the rules waiting for the short tenure of the top executive to change. Many observers claim that public managers pay insufficient attention

to the leading and managing their organisations and critics say that public managers show too little time attention to long–range objectives and internal development of their organisation and human resources. (Rainey 2009: 346, 348.)

However, a growing body of research on effective and innovative leaders in government also breaks away from overgeneralisations about ineffectual managers struggling with an overwhelming political and administrative system (Rainey 2009: 351). Rainey refers to the examples from the era of New Public Management when entrepreneurial ideologies and tendencies were adopted into public administration and organisations and management within were transformed. Rainey continues to quote Marmor and Fellman (1986, in Rainey 2009: 353), who offer a typology of public executives based on programme accomplishment and management as well as leadership. Among those with low managerial skills are the administrative survivors, who also have a low commitment to program goals and provide little effective leadership. Program zealots have high programmatic commitment but weak skills and also tend to be unsuccessful administrators. As for those with high managerial skills, generalist managers show low commitment to program goals. Program loyalists – highly skilled managers with strong programmatic commitments – serve as the most likely to have candidates for having entrepreneurial impact.

This typology can also serve as good guideline under New Public Service and Public Service Motivation, one just has to elaborate on the concept of entrepreneurship i.e. the organisation is not to make profit, but to fulfil it's task. For that innovative, committed and skilful managers and leaders are needed to do their part of their work, in the same way as innovative, committed and skilful employees carry out their own expertise for the good of the organisation and the public it serves. It is only that when money, usually in the form of budget-cuts and productivity, appears that the typology suffers.

Vandenabeele (2014) discusses the issues of transformational leadership in public organisation, which results in shifts in the beliefs, the needs, and the values of the followers. Other claim that transformational leadership is not influential or even possible in the public sector as the sector itself with its loaded values is enough to lead and manage the

employee. Others claim that through transformational leadership the managers and leaders can better convey the organisational values and the culture of the organisation discussed earlier. Vandenabeele's research showed a relation between the promotion of public service values by the supervisor and Public Service Motivation. Public Service Motivation can be developed within the organisation, and the leaders play an important role in it, leaders referring also to middle-managers and supervisors in general.

The employee perceptions of the organisational attributes have been shown to have a direct positive effect on Public Service Motivation. When these attributes are examined individually it appears that customer focus has the strongest influence on all the dimensions of Public Service Motivation, followed by biased for action and loose–tight properties (less bureaucracy); whilst entrepreneurship and autonomy, and productivity through people have a strong influence on the Public Service Motivation dimensions except for the compassion dimension. These results suggest that public service managers should develop a leadership style that fosters and offers employees the opportunity to be creative; demonstrate that they as managers have full confidence and trust in their employees; show in real terms that the client is to be given priority, that is, being customer oriented rather than production driven; and be flexible in the application of rules but administering discipline when necessary. (Camilleri 2007: 373.)

Camilleri's findings and notions are clearly linked with ideas of New Public Service that stress participation and shared leadership, and Legrand's (2010) trust model. Also a study by Posner and Schmidt (1996, in Handolin 2013: 18) showed that managers in the public sector value communal and shared working methods more than managers in the private sector, who tend to opt for the more individualistic approaches.

However, Moynihan and Pandey show contrary findings from their study. Their findings interestingly show the perception that an organisation with many hierarchical levels to be associated with higher levels of employee Public Service Motivation. (Moynihan and Pandey 2007: 47). This notion is interesting when compared to the autonomy that experts tend to prefer, but hierarchy should not be viewed as the equivalent of control – maybe hierarchy sets clear rules of positions and tasks to done by individuals, thus ena-

bling expertise to bloom. As stated earlier experts appreciate autonomy, and a clear, functional hierarchy allows everyone to focus and develop on their expertise. Leaders and managers are to lead and manage, and experts are expected to carry out their work as they see it themselves fit.

2.2.3. Interaction between the Attributes

As it was earlier discussed and depicted in the Holistic Public Service Motivation Model, Public Service Motivation can be, and in most cases is, the result of the interaction between the individual and organisational attributes. The present subchapter examines the different manifestations of this interaction in greater detail.

Two domains are especially relevant to Public Service Motivation: person-organisation fit and person-job fit (Leisink and Steijn 2008). Person-organisation fit " addresses the compatibility between people and entire organisations" (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson 2005: 285). It typically is operationalised in terms of the congruence between the goals and values of the individual and the mission and values espoused by the organisation (Wright and Pandey 2008). Person-organisation fit is implicit in Perry and Wise's definition of Public Service Motivation as a "predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organisations" (Perry and Wise 1990: 368). (Houston 2011: 764.) Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) also mention person-group and person-supervisor fit, but these could be regarded as minor components of person-organisation fit.

Regarding person-organisation fit Camilleri's study has provided some evidence to show that the Public Service Motivation of public employees is mainly the result of the organisational environment surrounding them. The motivational context variables in Perry's process theory of Public Service Motivation, particularly those related to the organisational setting, are the most dominant predictors of the Public Service Motivation dimensions. Hence, public sector management has the task of creating the proper and appropriate environment for its employees. Furthermore, Public Service Motivation has generated particular interest because it is perceived or assumed to have a positive

impact on the job behaviour of individuals in particular, job satisfaction and fulfilment, and their respective level of performance. It is therefore important that public sector organisations find ways of encouraging Public Service Motivation amongst its employees. (Camilleri 2007: 373.)

Organisational commitment relating to person-organisation fit has a complex, multidimensional nature. Angle and Perry (1981, in Rainey 2009: 303) show the importance of the distinction between calculative and normative commitment to organisations. Calculative commitment is based on the perceived material rewards the organisation offers. In normative commitment, the individual is committed to the organisation because he or she sees it as a mechanism for enacting personal ideas and values. Balfour and Wechsler (1996, in Rainey 2009: 303) further elaborate the concept of organisation commitment in a model for the public sector based on a study of public employees. Their evidence suggested three forms of commitment. Identification commitment is based on the employee's degree of pride in working for the organisation and on the sense that the organisation does something important and does it competently. Affiliation commitment derives from the sense of belonging to the organisation and the other members of the organisation as "family" who care about on another. Exchange commitment is based on the belief that the organisation recognized and appreciates the efforts and accomplishments of its members.

According to Camilleri (2006, in Pandey and Stazyk 2008: 110) Public Service Motivation is reinforced and strengthened by organisational commitment. Moreover, affective commitment appears to be somewhat more important than normative commitment. This leads Camilleri to conclude organisational commitment to be a dominant predictor of Public Service Motivation. Pandey and Stazyk (2008: 111) conclude that individual's emotional attachment to the organisation is of particular importance to any effort to foster and sustain Public Service Motivation. Bright (2008, in Gailmard 2010: 37, 41) argues that person-environment fit, which includes the congruence of individual and organisational goals and values, affects intent to remain in public service more than a generalized, non-organisationally-specific Public Service Motivation.

Although less frequently considered, person-job fit is also relevant to Public Service Motivation (Leisink and Steijn 2008). The domain of person–job fit addresses "the relationship between a person's characteristics and those of the job or tasks that are performed at work" (Kristof-Brown et al. 2005: 284). Thus, it is the focus of an occupation that is important as well. It is not working for government that attracts individuals with high levels of Public Service Motivation; it is that occupations that satisfy these motives are more common in the public sector. (Houston 2011: 764.) Person-job fit resonates especially with the organisational attribute of job characteristics.

Furthermore, the tasks and functions performed differ among public occupations, suggesting that not all public sector jobs provide the same opportunities. While not examining Public Service Motivation, Buelens and Van den Broeck (2007) illustrated the importance of occupational focus for work motives. Using a survey of public and private sector employees in Belgium, they found that public sector employees differ from those in the private sector, but many of the motivational differences are better explained by job content rather than by sector of employment. Thus, occupational focus is important for understanding preferences for work motives. (Houston 2011: 764.) Person-job fit resonates also with professionalism and expertise, which relates to how an individual identifies more so with the profession and colleagues than with the organisation. However, the organisation has the power to influence the work and motivation of the expert and in a way to control the further development of expertise through training and work design.

As Pandey and Stazyk (2008: 112) state Public Service Motivation is a dynamic concept contingent on a variety of nuances, and factors some rooted in individuals and others in institutions, which we have just begun to explore. Having joined an organisation, members with high levels of Public Service Motivation appear to contribute in positive ways: They are more willing to engage in whistle-blowing to protect the public interest (Brewer and Selden 1998); they exhibit higher levels of organisational commitment (Crewson 1997). They believe that their jobs are important, which, in turn, leads them to work harder (Wright 2003); they are more likely to be high performers and enjoy higher job satisfaction; and they are less likely to leave their jobs (Naff and Crum 1999). One

of the perceived practical benefits of Public Service Motivation is that it both helps recruit individuals into the public sector and strengthens employee ties with the public sector, providing a basis for loyalty, motivation, and commitment that is more effective than monetary incentives. (Moynihan and Pandey 2007:41, 46–48.)

The next one will look more closely on the different kinds of rewards and incentives that can be used to reward and motivate the employee and is regarded as one of the organisational attributes in the Holistic Public Service Motivation Model.

3. REWARDS

The concept of reward usually refers to pay and other monetary benefits that the employee gets for in return for the work done (Viitala 2007: 138). Both should benefit from this relationship; the employee does the right thing from the organisation's point of view and the organisation in return gives things which are important for the employee (Kauhanen, Kolari, Rantamäki 2006: 15). However as Kauhanen et al (2006) point out, rewards are not just purely monetary benefits, but can consist of benefits with no monetary value, such as feedback and opportunities to develop professional skills. The key element in any type of rewarding is what is considered important to the person being rewarded at that particular time. The overall aim of the present study is to see what motivates experts in public organisation, as well as to see what type of rewards they prefer and what type of rewards thy value and if any type of generalisations can be made on the issue. This chapter examines more closely the different reward categories that can be used to motivate and reward the employee. The latter part of the chapter focuses more focus on the specific relationship of rewards and Public Service Motivation presented in the previous chapter as well as to the practice of rewarding experts.

3.1. Different Reward Types

A total rewards approach links all aspects of rewards together and treats them as an integrated and coherent whole. It means that when developing the reward system employers must consider all aspects of the work experience valued by the employees. Kantor and Kao (2004, in Armstrong 2007: 108) define total rewards as 'everything and employee gets as a result of working for the company.' Manus and Graham (2003, in Armstrong 2007:108) define total rewards to include all types of rewards – indirect as well as direct, and intrinsic as well as extrinsic. Rewards can be categorised and typed in several different ways; however the categories are not clear-cut and can be overlapping.

Direct rewards refer to the actual money given as compensation for the done work (salary). Indirect refers to the different benefits given for the employees, which can be stipulated in the law or are voluntary (Kauhanen 1996:91). Intrinsic rewards relate to the work content and satisfy the higher level needs of self–fulfilment and self–actualization in Maslow's (1987) hierarchy of human needs. Intrinsic rewards can include challenging, enjoyable work and a variety of tasks. A common feature of the extrinsic rewards is that they tend to satisfy the lower level needs of belongingness, safety and survival. Extrinsic rewards can include salary, recognition and feedback, or even possibilities to participate. Intrinsic and extrinsic rewards usually manifest simultaneously, but should not be viewed as co-dependent. It should also be noted that the same rewards can reward somebody intrinsically and the other extrinsically, depending on how they are viewed and interpreted by the person. For example salary can also reward intrinsically if it is tied to performance and becomes a mean of self–actualization. (Ruohotie and Honka 1999: 45–50.)

An incentive can be defined as a stimulus in the organisation to affect the behaviour of the employees. The effect of an incentive on work performance depends on an individual's needs and the ways in which incentives are being offered. With the help of incentives one can affect that how eagerly people aim for the goals. An incentive urges people to act, whereas a reward satisfies a need; the former brings about action, the latter strengthens it. Rewards can also be divided into immaterial and material rewards. Material rewards are one's salary and different bonuses, commissions, and benefits. Immaterial rewards relate to working conditions, working hours, and working methods, recognition and feedback, and to career prospects or promotions. (Ruohotie and Honka 1999: 45–50.)

The direct material rewards are usually the most common ones to people. These are salary, payment by results (e.g. incentive salary, profit sharing, employee fund sharing, option and share arrangements), different kinds of bonus payment and merit raises, single special rewards (e.g. one-off special rewards, product gifts and other rewards which can be measured in money), competition rewards (e.g. sale competition), innovation and invent rewards. Indirect material rewards the include the statutory benefits, e.g. health

care and insurance for work, and also the possible voluntary benefits, e.g more extensive insurances, car, phone or apartment benefits, discounts etc., continuing education and training possibilities. Indirect material rewards come in addition to the salary and have monetary value. (Kauhanen 2010: 104–112, 1996: 91,95.)

Immaterial rewards refer to all non-monetary rewards and they can be roughly divided into two categories: rewards concerning work and career and social rewards. Career rewards include work itself, possibilities for development and promotion. Work itself refers to the person-job-fit mentioned in the previous chapter, how demanding are the tasks, is the work enjoyable, etc. Promotion and more demanding tasks usually mean more salary, but more than anything they motivate intrinsically. Possibilities for development mean the employees' possibilities for developing and maintaining their expertise, it includes both learning at work and personnel training. Immaterial rewards relating to work and career are also arrangements of the working hours, flexitime, and possibility to work from home, days-off and negotiating work and holiday. (Kauhanen 2010: 97–103.)

Social rewards include different kinds of status symbols and social relations. Status symbols can be an important form of rewards to some and they include titles, supervisory positions, positioning/size of an office / having an own office, having a parking space, etc. Status symbols depict the person's status within the organisation and how he is viewed by management. Also social contacts are part of social rewards, possibilities to represent the organisation in different events, parties and events organised by the organisation to enforce the feeling of togetherness. (Kauhanen 2006: 134–135; Viitala 2007: 162.)

De Gieter, De Cooman, Pepermans, Caers, Du Bois and Jegers (2006, in Handolin 2013: 29) divide rewards into three distinctive categories based on their study in a hospital: financial rewards; non-financial rewards and psychological rewards. Financial rewards are monthly salary and other financial rewards. Non-financial rewards include things such as presents, services (holidays, insurances, free lunches) and personal benefits (managing and agreeing on working hours). Psychological rewards consist of trust,

atmosphere at work, social support at work, societal benefits, contacts to customers / patients, gratitude, compliments and recognition. According to Armstrong and Stephens (2005: 19) giving recognition and feedback is one of the most efficient ways to reward employees. It is important for the employees to know that their accomplishments and efforts are appreciated. De Gieter et al. (2006) drafted their reward categories by conducting 20 interviews at a public hospital. In such surroundings Public Service Motivation could be argued to play an important role, the following subchapter will look more closely at rewards in relation to Public Service Motivation and experts.

3.2. Rewarding Experts and People with Public Service Motivation

Over the last decade, a considerable body of empirical evidence has demonstrated that Public Service Motivation is positively related to high performance, job satisfaction, and commitment; places less value on extrinsic reward motivators such as high income and short work hours and more value on altruistic behaviour and public service activity; and is predictive of organisational citizenship behaviour and decreased tendency to leave the job (Rayner et. al 2010: 32.) Also Luoma et al (2004: 43) stress that it is especially the nonmaterial rewarding that is most clearly connected to the intrinsic motivation significantly affecting the work of experts.

A body of research has consistently demonstrated that public employees highly desire intrinsic nonmonetary opportunities. Studies have also shown that public employees with high levels of Public Service Motivation were less interested in monetary opportunities than their counterparts who had lower levels of Public Service Motivation. Bright's own study confirmed this, and he also tested the distribution of preference for intrinsic nonmonetary opportunities on a body of 980 randomly chosen employees of a large local government (and 359 usable survey answers). The order of preference for the intrinsic nonmonetary opportunities of the correspondents was task meaningfulness, professional growth, leadership responsibility, personal recognition and career advancement. (Bright 2009: 15–16, 28.)

Evidence has accumulated that organisational systems such as incentive structures and Public Service Motivation are related. Organisations that rely on Public Service Motivation are less likely to depend on utilitarian incentives to manage individual performance effectively. This is supported by Wittmer (1991) who found that public and hybrid sector employees valued community service and being helpful to others more than private sector employees, whereas this latter group valued pay and job security as the most important rewards. (Brewer et al. 2000: 255). Also Khojasteh (1993) found that intrinsic rewards such as recognition had a higher motivating potential for a sample of public managers than for a sample of private managers. Crewson (1997) analysed two large surveys that indicated that public sector employees placed more importance than private employees on intrinsic incentives such as helping others, being useful to society and achieving accomplishments at work. (Rainey 2009: 265.)

Karl and Sutton (1998) reported survey results showing that workers in both the public and private sector appear to placing more importance on job security than in the past, but public workers report that they value interesting work more than private sector workers do, whereas the private sector workers place more importance than public sector respondents do on good wages. Jurkiewicz, Massey and Brown (1998) report that public sector employees gave higher ratings than private employs to having the chance to learn new things and the chance to use their special abilities. In contrast, Gabris and Simo (1995) examined samples of public, private, and non-profit sector employees and did not find significant differences in the perceived need for service, helping, pay, or job security between the employees, but they did find that public sector employees placed more importance on service to the community. (Rainey 2009: 265.)

Research strongly suggests that public sector employees value opportunities to fulfil their public service motives and the introduction of market mechanisms and variable pay in public agencies are likely to leave workers with the robust public service motives feeling disconnected from their organisations and incapable of satisfying their altruistic intensions (Stazyk 2013: 255–256). This view that the public sector workforce is not primarily motivated by high wages however does not imply that monetary rewards are

irrelevant to all of them. Earlier, Rainey (1982) had indicated the importance of monetary rewards to many government employees.

Although Crewson (1997) reported that government employees are less likely to be driven by monetary rewards than their private sector counterparts, his results show that wages are an important motivator for a majority of employees (approximately 80%), both in the public and private sectors. Brewer et al. (2000) found empirical evidence that monetary rewards are relevant to some individuals with high levels of Public Service Motivation. Monetary rewards were significantly related to two of the four conceptions of Public Service Motivation that they studied. It appears that monetary rewards are relevant to some individuals with high levels of Public Service Motivation but not to others, based primarily on their conceptions of public service and the public interest. There is substantial empirical evidence that many performance-based pay schemes are either meaningless or dysfunctional in the public sector. Yet, it is common knowledge that most people do not seek employment without expecting some sort of remuneration for their effort. (Taylor and Taylor 2010: 67–72.)

Further, Lawler (1990, in Rainey 2009: 259–260) argued that management scholars have often underestimated the importance of pay because they object to managerial approaches that rely excessively on pay as motivation. He points out that pay often serves as a proxy for other incentives, because it can indicate achievement, recognition by one's organisation, and other valued outcomes. This is similar to LeGrand's findings (2003, 2007, 2010) where introducing the controlling mistrust model using extrinsic rewards to public health care sector actually provided better performance results, perhaps because the intrinsically motivated knights were also motivated by the knavish extrinsic rewards which were boosting their intrinsic motivation, not crowding it out. This view is supported by Stazyk's study on the influence of performance–related pay (2013). He had a sample of 1,583 high ranking city officials in US cities with and without variable pay systems. His study showed no evidence that performance–related pay crowds out Public Service Motivation. On the contrary, employees with the highest job satisfaction and strongest reported service motives were most likely to be found in cities with performance–related pay.

Pay can have a symbolic meaning as recognition of an employee's skills and performance (Lawler 1990). However, the challenge of tying rewards, especially extrinsic rewards, to performance is even greater in many public organisations than it is in private ones, as studies demonstrate that organisations under government ownership usually have more highly structured externally imposed procedures than private organisations have (Rainey 2009: 293.)

For all intents and purposes, the results of these studies, although mixed, point to the notion that monetary incentives cannot inherently be considered a substantial systematic or individual motivator for public sector employees. In fact, several contrary findings exist, suggesting that the opposite is true. Given these finding two conclusions should be drawn. First, it suggests, intuitively, monetary incentives correlate with Public Service Motivation concept only insofar as those incentives are appropriately linked to employee performance. Second, the literature also indicates nonmonetary, intrinsic rewards may be as important, if not more, than pecuniary motivators. (Pandey and Stazyk 2008: 109)

The limitedness of financial rewards came also apparent when researching the motivation of experts. The research by Kaajas et al. (2003) shows that continuation of work and pleasant working environment are regarded especially important by experts. According to the research other important factors are challenging work, self-actualization, learning and participation in decision–making. The limitedness of financial rewards was shown in the fact that besides salary other financial rewards did not seem to affect the motivation of experts. (Moisio and Salimäki 2005: 195.) It has been also shown that the influence of salary to motivation is higher in the early years of the career. After a certain stage in life and career has been reached, the importance of salary diminishes.

According to Maccoby (1990: 129) experts usually appreciate two types of rewards for a job-well done: external recognition and internal satisfaction. Challenging work, managing it and demonstrating competence are seen as internal rewards. On the other hand experts value different kinds of diplomas and certificates, but good salary and promotion are the highest forms of recognition. However, promotions run a risk. Rainey

(2009: 306) stresses the importance of dual career ladders, not all promotions should lead to managerial positions; there should be promotions within expertise as well, so that experts can stay in their field of specialty but move to higher levels of pay and responsibility. An excellent expert does not equal an excellent manager. This topic was already touched upon when talking of management and bureaucracy of an organisation.

The present study aims at finding out what type of motivational factors influence employees in public organisations. The other point of interest is to see what type of rewards they value and what type of rewards they would like to receive; is there a contrast between what they want and need and what they value and appreciate. Can any type of generalizations be made of these findings or are the individual differences too vast, or can similarities be found based on socio–demographic attributes such as gender, age and educational level or organisational attributes such as profession, hierarchy, years in service? The next chapter will present the research method and the material used before examining the actual results of the study.

4. METHOD AND DATA

The present study focuses on the motivation and reward appreciation/value and prefer-
ence of experts in a public organisation. An Internet-based survey was conducted in a
case study organisation. This quantitative method also had some qualitative aspects to it
in the form of possible open commentaries by the recipients of the survey. This chapter
presents the theory behind the method used, the actual method and also the case study
organisation and the survey. A table on the respondents will also be provided.

4.1. Quantitative Methodology

Quantitative research emphasises quantification in the collection and analysis of the da-
ta and entails a deductive approach giving weight to the testing of theories. Debate
about differences between quantitative and qualitative research has existed for a long
time. Often qualitative research is seen narrowly and is related to certain means of gath-
ering material, typically by interviews and/or field study, or its non-numeric feature,
whereas quantitative research is related to numeric measuring and statistical analyses.
But in practice these two approaches are hard to strictly separate from each other. They
are seen as approaches which complement, not compete one another. (Bryman 2004)
This applies to the present study as well. The basis for the study is a quantitative survey
with numerical data, which can be elaborated by qualitative comments.

In a survey–research one of the central ways to gather material is to make a survey.
Survey refers to such forms of inquiries, interviews and observations, in which the ma-
terial is collected in a standardised manner and the target group forms a sample from a
population. Standardisation means that a certain thing must be asked in similar way
from all the respondents. The advantage of the survey is that one can gather extensive
research material; either by using a big target group and/or asking many things. Survey
is also efficient because it saves time and effort of a researcher. Survey's advantage is
its objectivity, since researcher does not affect answers through his/her presence and

attendance. It also improves reliability when the questions are asked similarly all the respondents. (Valli 2001: 101–102.)

There are also disadvantages; usually material is considered superficial and research theoretically modest. Other weak spots are that one cannot be sure how seriously respondents take the survey, nor is it neither clear how successful were the answer alternatives from the respondents' point of view. Misunderstandings are hard to control. It is also usually impossible for a respondent to ask clarifying information or help from the researcher regarding vague questions. Researcher cannot ask supplementary questions like when doing interviews. Non–response ratio can also be quite high. (Valli 2001: 101–102.)

However, with the help of survey we can get information about facts, behaviour and actions. Quantitative surveys can be considered reliable as the survey can be re-conducted at any given time at any given place, so the research is repeatable. As the data received is numeric and given by the respondent, it is trustworthy and in theory self-explanatory, there is no room or possibility of (mis)interpretations by the researcher. On the other hand the researcher is not aware of the respondent or of any factors that might be affecting the answers given at the certain time, so at a different time in a different situation the answers might be different. Thus the contingency view and the situational attributes presented in the Holistic Public Service Motivation Model must be kept in mind when reading the results. These also affect the validity of the research. Can the answers from one case study organisation for example be generalised to all similar organisations, to the public sector in general or even to the case study organisation based on the answers given at one point in time? A more detailed and extensive research would be needed to say something certain and generalist about complex human emotion as motivation.

4.2. Case Study Organisation

The case study public organisation was the Lapland Centre for Economic Development, Transport and the Environment (ELY Centre of Lapland). There are fifteen Centres for

Economic Development, Transport and the Environment in Finland and they manage the regional implementation and development tasks of the state administration. Their role is to develop and support economically, socially and ecologically sustainable well-being alongside other operators. The values that all the ELY Centres share are customer orientation, competence, collaboration and openness. (ELY–keskus 2013.) The values of the ELY Centre of Lapland are customer orientation, expertise, co-operation and openness (Lapin ELY-keskus 2011). These values are very much in tune with the ideas of New Public Service.

The Centres for Economic Development, Transport and the Environment have three areas of responsibility: Business and industry, Labour force, competence and cultural activities; Transport and infrastructure; Environment and natural resources. The over-all general duties of all ELY-centres are:

• Financing and development services for enterprises, employment-based aid and labour market training, handling of agricultural and fishery issues, management of immigration issues and work with EU Structural Funds projects
• Vocational education, library services, sports and fitness services, and projects involving the education system and youth services
• Road maintenance, road projects, transport permits, traffic safety, public transport and island traffic
• Environmental protection, guidance on the use of land and construction, nature protection, environmental monitoring, and use and management of water resources. (ELY-keskus 2013.)

Personnel at the ELY-centres deal all types of public service tasks from legislative matters and implementation and decision making to customer service. Also there are both permanent staff i.e. civil servants as well as part-time project based employees. This offers varied expert personnel with different job descriptions, and different employment terms.

At the ELY Centre of Lapland there were 360 people working in 2011, 51,95 % were women and 48.05% were men. The average age was 50,03 and 42.23% of the workers were between the ages 50 and 59. 70,84% were on permanent employment and 29,17% had a fixed–term employment. (Lapin ELY-keskus 2011.) The human resource department of the ELY centre estimated that at the time of the survey there were approximately 320 people working at the ELY Centre of Lapland. A precise number is difficult to give due to the monthly project and other types of seasonal / occasional workers.

4.3. Case Study Survey

The survey questionnaire for the present study was an e-survey that could be answered on-line. The questionnaire with a covering letter was sent to the employees of the organisation by e-mail by the human resource department of the case study organisation on 22.10.2013. The questionnaire is presented in appendix 1. The questionnaire was sent to everyone in the organisation by email and answers were asked from people who identified themselves as working in expert positions, jobs requiring specific expertise ('asiantuntijuus'). The questionnaire was open from 22.10-15.11.2013.

The questionnaire comprised of three separate parts that were answered after one another. The respondent had the possibility of moving between the parts and altering answers, but once the answers were sent there was no means of changing them. The first part consisted of background questions, such as the respondents' age, gender, type of expertise etc. The second part focused on motivation, the respondent had to select three most motivating factors and the one least motivating. The factors were based on the different attributes of Public Service Motivation and other motivational factors. There were not all explicitly expressed, but were hidden behinds concepts illustrating these attributes and factors. The third part dealt with reward appreciation/value and reward preference. The respondent had to select three rewards that he appreciated/valued the most as well as the one he appreciated the least and the respondent had to finally choose which type of reward concepts he would like to receive. The reward options were more explicitly express as they were more easily comprehensible and more generalist.

The survey was sent to approximately 320 people and 100 people answered the survey. This gives a response percentage of approximately 31,25%. It is important to keep in mind that the survey was addressed to the ones identifying themselves as experts and/ or working in tasks requiring expertise ('asiantuntijuus'), so it could be argued that not all of the 320 people working in the ELY Centre identify themselves as such and thus the actual response percentage could be claimed to be even higher. However, as the precise number of experts working in the ELY-Centre is not known, only speculations can be made on the matter. The following Table 1. presents the respondents

Table 1. The respondents of the survey by different variables

Individual Variables

Gender	n=100	%
Women	54	54
Men	46	46
Age	**n=100**	**%**
≤ 35	12	12
36–50	31	31
$51 \leq$	57	57

Organisational Variables

Expertise	n=100	%
support expertise (HR,IT)	11	11
planning expertise	15	15
executing expertise	48	48
customer expertise	17	17
supervisory, managerial expertise	9	9
Years in Organisation	**n=100**	**%**
≤ 10	28	28
11-20	34	34
21-30	17	17
$31 \leq$	21	21
Employment	**n=100**	**%**
permanent	72	72
temporary	28	28

The answers of the respondents from the survey on what motives them and what kinds of reward they value and want to receive are presented in the next chapter. Tables are drawn on answers of the respondents based on these individual and organisational variables and also some comments from the respondents will be included. These findings are later followed by discussion and the conclusions.

5. EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

This chapter presents the answers from the survey. The three factors with the most selections by the respondents will be shown in simple tables to ease the readability of the quantitative data. Tables are drawn on answers of the respondents based on the individual and organisational variables. The factors into the tables were chosen on the basis of most selections as the first choice, and if the same then looking the number of selections as the second choices and then as the third choice. Some answers from the voluntary qualitative commentary fields will be included to highlight the respondents' views on the matter. The survey with the research questions is presented in appendix 1.

5.1. What Motivates Experts?

In the first part of the survey the respondents were asked to mark three factors that motivate them the most from 1 to 3 (1 motivating the most, 2 motivating the second most and 3 motivating the third most) as well as mark the factor motivating the least. There were three respondents that marked more than one alternative with numbers 1-3, three respondents that marked more than one alternative as the least motivating factor, and all together 28 respondents that did not mark any alternative as the least motivating factor. Thus the number of answers does not completely add up with the number of respondents when compared.

The factors were based on the different attributes of Public Service Motivation and other motivational factors. They were not all explicitly expressed, but were hidden behinds concepts illustrating these attributes and factors. The factors were: salary and monetary rewards = material rewards (factor 1), making and executing political decisions = rational motives / public policy making (factor 2), serving citizens and feedback from them = affective motives / compassion (factor 3), personal work ethics and doing the right thing = public ethos (factor 4), interesting work and job assignments = job characteristics and person–job fit / expertise (factor 5), my team and serving my organisation = organisation culture and goals / person–organisation fit / person-group fit (factor 6), my

supervisor and his/her feedback = management / person-leader fit (factor 7), serving the state/government = normative motives / public interest /(factor 8), responsibility and pride of own work = expertise / job characteristics / management (factor 9), own expertise and its development = expertise (factor 10), reaching set goals = organisation goals (factor 11), career advancements = rewards/expertise/job characteristics (factor 12), Other, what (factor 13).

Table 2. presents the three most popular motivating factors by all the respondents. The table shows the three most motivating factors and the number of choices, i.e. how many respondents chose them as the most motivating factor, second most motivating and third most motivating factor.

Table 2. The three most motivating factors by all the respondents. (n=100)

Motivation factor	1st choices	2nd choices	3rd choices
Interesting work and job assignments	50	22	5
Salary and monetary rewards	20	23	23
Responsibility and pride of own work	15	10	14

It can be seen from the answers that a half of all the respondents selected interesting work and job assignments as the most motivating factor. There was a clear difference between this most motivating factor to the second most motivating factors of salary and monetary rewards, which is closely followed by the third most motivating factor of responsibility and pride of own work. The following subchapters present the results in greater detail based on the different individual and organisational variables, which will be drawn into separate tables to ease the readability of the data.

5.1.1. Motivation by Individual Variables

The results can also be examined by individual variables, such as gender and age. Table 3. presents the three most motivating factors by these individual variables based on the number of selections as the most motivating factor.

Table 3. The three most motivating factors by individual variables. (n=100)

Gender	Motivation factor	1. choice
Women n=54	Interesting work and job assignments	31
	Responsibility and pride of own work	10
	Salary and monetary rewards	7
Men n=46	Interesting work and job assignments	19
	Salary and monetary rewards	13
	Responsibility and pride of own work	5
Age		
≤ 35 n=12	Interesting work and job assignments	5
	Career advancements	3
	Own expertise and its development	1
36-50 n=31	Interesting work and job assignments	13
	Salary and monetary rewards	10
	Responsibility and pride of own work	6
51 ≤ n=57	Interesting work and job assignments	32
	Salary and monetary rewards	9
	Responsibility and pride of own work	8

It can be seen from the results that both men and women regard interesting work and job assignments as the most motivating factor. However women with clearer numbers as more than half of them chose this factor as the most motivating (31 out of 54) in contrast to the less than half of the men (19 out of 46). Both groups also chose the motivating factors of salary and monetary rewards as well as responsibility and pride of own work, but their order of preference was different. Women preferred responsibility and pride of own work over salary and monetary rewards (10 to 7) and men vice versa (13 to 5). Men clearly found salary and monetary rewards more important for their motivation than women did.

Interesting work and job assignments was also the most motivating factors when the three different age groups were examined. This was followed by salary and monetary rewards and responsibility and pride of own work in the two groups of older respondents. Interestingly young experts, 35 years old or younger, had factors like career advancements and own expertise and its development appearing as the second and third most chosen factors. The sample of younger workers was relatively small (n=12), so it would have been interesting to see whether with a larger sample the result and the cho-

sen factors would have been more similar to the other groups, or would the factors have stayed the same as it could be easily understood why career advancement and own expertise and its development is an important motivational factor to experts at the beginning of their expert career.

5.1.2. Motivation by Organisational Variables

The results can also be examined by organisational variables, such as type of expertise, years spent in the organisation, and the type of employment. Table 4. presents the three most motivating factors by these organisational variables based on the number of selections as the most motivating factor.

Table 4. The three most motivating factors by organisational variables. (n=100)

Expertise	Motivation factor	1. choice
support expertise n=11	Interesting work and job assignments	6
	Salary and monetary rewards	2
	Responsibility and pride of own work	1
planning expertise n=15	Interesting work and job assignments	6
	Responsibility and pride of own work	6
	Salary and monetary rewards	2
executing expertise n=48	Interesting work and job assignments	24
	Salary and monetary rewards	11
	Responsibility and pride of own work	6
customer expertise n=17	Interesting work and job assignments	9
	Salary and monetary rewards	3
	Serving citizens and feedback from them	3
supervisory and managerial expertise n=9	Interesting work and job assignments	5
	Salary and monetary rewards	2
	Own expertise and it's development	1
Years in Organisation		
≤ 10 n=28	Interesting work and job assignments	15
	Salary and monetary rewards	4
	Responsibility and pride of own work	4
11-20 n=34	Interesting work and job assignments	18
	Salary and monetary rewards	8
	Responsibility and pride of own work	4

21-30 n=17	Interesting work and job assignments	5
	Salary and monetary rewards	4
	Responsibility and pride of own work	4
31 ≤ n=21	Interesting work and job assignments	12
	Salary and monetary rewards	4
	Responsibility and pride of own work	3
	Serving citizens and feedback from them	3
	(the two last factors got exactly the same amount of 1st, 2nd and 3rd choices, so both are noted)	
Employment		
permanent n=72	Interesting work and job assignments	33
	Salary and monetary rewards	16
	Responsibility and pride of own work	11
temporary n=28	Interesting work and job assignments	17
	Salary and monetary rewards	4
	Responsibility and pride of own work	4

Interesting work and job assignments was the most popular motivating factor for all the groups by organisational variables (11 out of 11). This was usually followed by salary and monetary rewards, and then by responsibility and pride of own work. This was the order of motivational factors in eight groups out of 11, but here too there were some exceptions to the order.

The group of experts dealing with work requiring customer service and customer relations had the motivational factor of serving citizens and feedback from them as the third most motivational factor with three first choices. So it could be argued based on the findings of this study that to this particular group customers and citizens and serving them is important for their motivation. One respondent marked interesting work and job assignments as the most motivational factor, but mentions customers in the factor comment field. It needs to be noted that the sample in the groups was not a large one with only 17 respondents.

Serving citizens and feedback from them also shared the position of the third most popular motivating factor together with responsibility and pride of own work in the groups of experts who have worked in the organisation the longest, even though their representation in the groups was not extensive, with only four experts with more than 30 years in the organisation out of 17 experts (with customer service expertise) or four experts with

customer service and customer relations out of 21 experts (worked for more than 30 years in the organisation).

In the group of experts mainly working on planning activities salary and monetary rewards was placed as the third option with only two first choice selections. The pattern was similar to the motivational choices of women with less value on salary and monetary reward, but in the sample group men and women were pretty evenly represented (seven men and eight women).

Another small group (nine respondents) with a different motivation factor was the group consisting of experts with supervisory positions and/or supervision of planned and/or executed activities and managers. As the younger experts at the start of their career placed motivational value on own expertise and its development the same applied to this group of experts, however there were only two respondents 35 or younger in this group and none of them marked this option.

5.1.3. Motivating Experts

The data clearly showed that for a half of all the respondents and for all the groups formed by the different variables (16 out of 16) the most motivating factor was interesting work and job assignments. There was a clear difference to the second most motivating factors of salary and monetary rewards, which is closely followed by the third most motivating factor of responsibility and pride of own work in the responses by all the respondents. This was clearly seen in the groups formed by different individual and organisational variables, where salary and monetary rewards was the second choice in 11 groups (out of 16) and responsibility and pride of own work in two groups (out of 16), in three groups these factors got the same amount of selections, but that does not influence the outcome. However, there were a few cases where the order was different or other factors appeared.

The survey also asked for the least motivating factor. Three least motivating factors are presented in table 5. 28 respondents did not mark any alternative for the least motivating

factor and three marked more than one factor. Only the result of all the respondents will be presented, no tables on individual and organisational variables were drawn
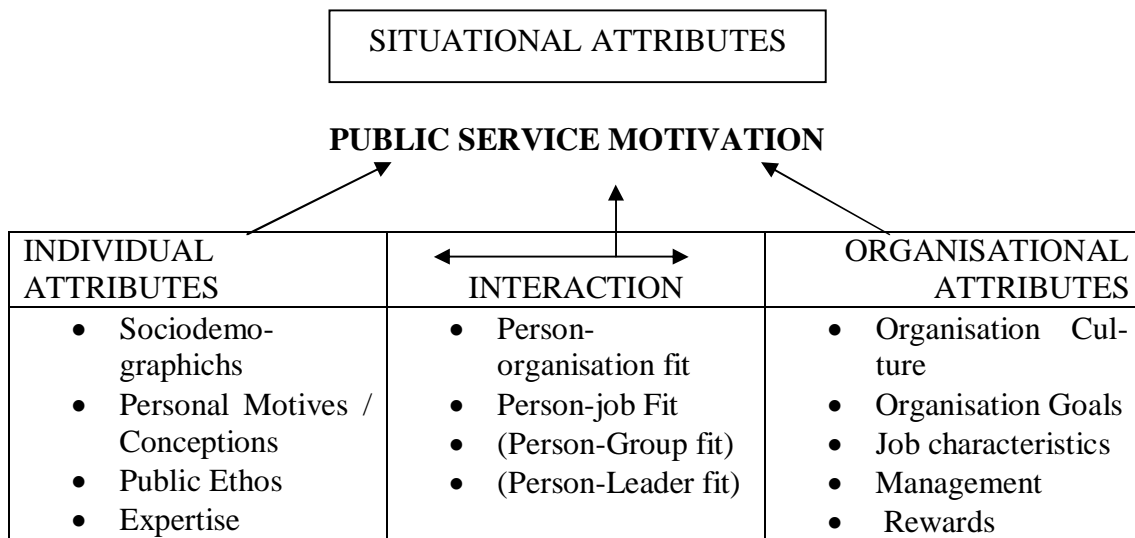
Table 5. The three least motivating factors. (n=72)

Motivation factor	Choices
Making and executing political decisions	39
Serving the state/government	13
Career advancements	10

For the clear majority of the respondents making and executing political decisions was the least motivating factor followed by serving the state/government, both belonging to the more political, governmental aspect of the motivation. Third least motivating factor was career advancements, which simultaneously was the second most motivating factor with experts under 35 years. The presence of the factor could perhaps be explained with the larger proportion of older respondents in the later stages of their careers, when career advancements are not that important anymore.

If one compares the above-mentioned findings and the complete table of the results in appendix with the Holistic Public Service Motivation Model presented earlier it becomes clear that all the points of the different attributes got selections from the respondents and thus play a role in the motivation of experts, at least according to the present study. Situational attributes and socio-demographics were not examined. Also the interaction between the attributes is a difficult thing to measure as it manifests itself through behaviour and reinforcement of the existing individual and organisational attributes. There were also two respondents that chose 'other' motivational factor, but when asked to specify, these were 'interest towards own field of expertise' (expertise) and 'flexible holiday periods' (rewards/management/job characteristics and organisation culture), which can be argued belonging to the attributes already presented in the Holistic Public Service Motivation Model presented below.

Figure 3. The Holistic Public Service Motivation Model.

SITUATIONAL ATTRIBUTES

PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION

INDIVIDUAL ATTRIBUTES	INTERACTION	ORGANISATIONAL ATTRIBUTES
• Sociodemographichs • Personal Motives / Conceptions • Public Ethos • Expertise	• Person-organisation fit • Person-job Fit • (Person-Group fit) • (Person-Leader fit)	• Organisation Culture • Organisation Goals • Job characteristics • Management • Rewards

Based on the answers from the survey the organisational attributes of public service motivation are the most important ones, as they got the most selections. This goes to prove the importance of the organisations in Public Service Motivation. Only expertise from the individual attributes stands out clearly. Also in some cases the affective motives/compassion from personal motives / Conception of Public Service Motivation arises as the key notion of Public Service Motivation theories suggest. The least motivational factors are found from the same category, mainly rational motives / public policy making and normative motives / public interest, which are also interestingly key constituents in Public Service Motivation. Only career advancement is something that could be considered jointly organisational and individual, as it is always offered to an individual by the organisation and the one can always refuse a promotion, but still the initiator is usually the organisation. The role of interaction is naturally important but difficult, if not impossible, to show with the current type of survey as well as the influence of the situational attributes.

The majority of the respondents placed interesting work and job assignment as the most motivating factor. This is clearly linked with job characteristics, but also with expertise, as some of open comments by the respondents reveal and is most definitely an indicator of the importance of person–job fit revealing the interaction between the attributes.

"Interest towards work is crucial in the long run."

"Joy from work is motivating, one is happy to come to work in the mornings."

"I am motivated by challenging tasks that enable me to exercise creative and multitasking."

"Interest towards own expertise field is backed up and supported by interesting tasks."

"Challenging tasks and changing daily routines keep me going."

"Challenging tasks increase my expertise and motivate me."

The second most motivating factor was salary and monetary rewards, which is clearly an organisational attribute in the form of rewards. The importance of salary can clearly be seen from the open comments.

"Loans to the bank are not paid with thank yous."

"Nobody works for free."

"For living salary is the most motivating factor."

"New salary systems have destroyed my motivation with their injustice."

"One never receives enough salary, but fairness is lacking."

The following subchapters will examine the reward question even deeper as the present study also attempts to find out what type of rewards experts value and what type of rewards they want to receive.

The third most motivating factor was responsibility and pride of own work. This is linked with the job characteristics and expertise already mentioned earlier, but also with the organisational attribute of management and also to some extent with organisation culture i.e. how independently and freely can the experts function and operate.

"Independency at work and trust from supervisor and colleagues are extremely important."

"Motivation remains when nobody bosses you around or does dirty tricks."

"It is important to be able to affect the content and to the way you do your work."

However, management and culture can also have a down–side and can become demotivating factors as the following examples reveal.

"Management is a mess and national guidelines are incomprehensible – worst work motivation ever during my career."

"Internal bureaucracy is making things difficult. Management mistrusts us and lifts itself on a pedestal and does not listen to the actual workers when making decisions."

"State personnel policy and old–fashioned methods do not work."

"The state's new productivity programme is not helping at all with motivation"

"Constant ill–planned state organisation reforms are demotivating."

Maybe these are some of the factors why serving the state was one of the most least motivating factors alongside with executing and making political decision

5.2. What Rewards Experts Value?

In the second part of the survey the respondents were asked to mark three rewards they value ranging from 1 to 3 (1 value the most, 2 value the second most and 3 value the third most) as well as mark the reward valued the least. In this part there was one respondent that marked more than one alternative with numbers 1-3, two respondents that marked more than one alternative as the least valued reward, and all together this time 43 respondents that did not mark any alternative as the least valued reward. Thus the number of answers does not completely add up with the number of respondents when compared.

The rewards were based on the rewards presented in the literature and tried to depict the whole scale of total rewarding and what could be considered as possible rewards fro experts. The rewards were: rewards measured in money (reward 1), interesting work assignments (reward 2), authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution (reward 3), education, training and deepening / increasing own expertise (reward 4), career advancement (reward 5), relation between work and time-off like flexible working

hours, combining work and holiday (reward 6), thanks and feedback from my supervisor and and/or colleagues (reward 7), status symbols such as titles, office representative tasks (reward 8), work trips (reward 9), thanks and feedback from customers and/or interest groups (reward 10), working environment and rewards related to social relations at work (reward 11), other, what (reward 12).

Table 6. presents the three most valued rewards by all the respondents. The table shows the three most valued rewards and the number of choices, i.e. how many respondents chose them as the most valued reward, the second most valued reward and the third most valued reward.

Table 6. The three most valued rewards by all the respondents. (n=100)

Reward	1st choices	2nd choices	3rd choices
interesting work assignments	29	17	11
authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution	27	19	9
rewards measured in money	14	16	12

The table shows that the respondents valued rewards related to work. Interesting work assignments and authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution nearly got the same amount of choices from the respondents. There was clear difference between these two most valued rewards and the third most valued reward of rewards measured in money. The following subchapters present the results in greater detail based on the different individual and organisational variables, which will be drawn into separate tables to ease the readability of the data.

5.2.1. Reward Value by Individual Variables

The results can also be examined by individual variables, such as gender and age. Table 7. presents the three most valued rewards by these individual variables based on the number of selections as the most valued reward.

Table 7. The three most valued rewards by individual variables. (n=100)

Gender	Reward	1. choice
Women n=54	interesting work assignments authority and responsibility over own tasks and their exe-cution rewards measured in money	16 16 6
Men n=46	interesting work assignments authority and responsibility over own tasks and their exe-cution relation between work and time-off	13 11 8
Age		
≤ 35 n=12	relation between work and time-off authority and responsibility over own tasks and their exe-cution interesting work assignments	3 3 2
36-50 n=31	interesting work assignments rewards measured in money relation between work and time-off	8 6 5
51 ≤ n=57	authority and responsibility over own tasks and their exe-cution interesting work assignments thanks and feedback from customers and/or interest groups	19 19 8

Both men and women valued interesting work assignments as well as authority and re-sponsibility over own tasks and their execution as rewards. In the case with women there was a clear difference between these two, which got the exact same amount of first choices, and the third most valued reward of rewards measured in money. With the men differences were smaller, and interestingly men value the rewards of relation between work and time-off as the third most valued reward.

The generational differences were even more interesting. Young experts valued the rela-tion between work and time-off over authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution, and over interesting work assignments. However the differences were very small and with a few more respondents the order and/or the answers could have been different. Expert 51 years old or older clearly valued authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution and interesting work assignments as the most valued rewards. Interestingly they also mentioned thanks and feedback from customers and/or

interest groups as a valued reward, whereas experts between 35-50 years old did value interesting work assignments as the most valued reward, but this reward was closely followed by the rewards measured in money and relation between work and time-off

5.2.2. Reward Value by Organisational Variables

The results can also be examined by organisational variables, such as type of expertise, years spent in the organisation, and the type of employment. Table 8. presents the three most valued rewards by these organisational variables based on the number of selections as the most valued reward.

Table 8. The three most valued rewards by organisational variables. (n=100)

Expertise	Reward	1. choice
support expertise n=11	interesting work assignments rewards measured in money authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution	4 2 2
planning expertise n=15	authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution interesting work assignments thanks and feedback from customers and/or interest groups	10 3 1
executing expertise n=48	interesting work assignments authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution relation between work and time-off	16 11 8
customer expertise n=17	interesting work assignments thanks and feedback from customers and/or interest groups authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution	5 4 3
supervisory managerial expertise n=9	rewards measured in money relation between work and time-off authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution	3 2 1
Years In Organisation		
≤ 10 n=28	interesting work assignments authority and responsibility over own tasks and their exe-	8 6

	cution	4
	relation between work and time-off	
11–20 n=34	interesting work assignments	10
	rewards measured in money	7
	authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution	7
21–30 n=17	authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution	8
		3
	rewards measured in money	3
	relation between work and time-off	
31≤ n=21	interesting work assignments	9
	authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution	6
		3
	thanks and feedback from customers and/or interest groups	
Employment		
permanent n=72	interesting work assignments	20
	authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution	19
		12
	rewards measured in money	
temporary n=28	interesting work assignments	9
	authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution	8
		5
	thanks and feedback from customers and/or interest groups	

Most of the groups formed by organisational variable valued interesting work assignments as the most valued reward (8 groups out of 11). Two groups (planning expertise and experts who have worked in the organisation for 21-30 years) valued authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution as the most valued reward, even though their representation in the groups was not extensive, with only three experts who have worked in the organisation for 21-30 years out of 15 experts (with planning expertise) or three experts with planning expertise out of 17 experts (who have worked in the organisation for 21-30 years.

Interestingly one group, experts with managerial or supervisory tasks, valued rewards measured in money the most, followed by relation between work and time-off, and authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution. However, the group formed by the variable was the smallest (9 respondents).

It was also interesting to see that thanks and feedback from customers and/or interest groups was the third most valued reward in three groups (experts with planning expertise, experts with 31 or more years of service, experts on temporary employment) and ranging even to the second most valued reward among experts with customer service.

5.2.3. Rewards Valued by Experts

The data shows that experts clearly value rewards relating to their work and job characteristics as well as expertise as the most valued rewards by all the respondents were interesting work assignments, and authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution. These were the rewards most valued by all the groups but two, namely experts 35 years old or younger, who valued the relation of work and time-off, and experts in supervisory or managerial positions, who valued rewards measured in money.

There was a small difference between the two most valued rewards of interesting work assignments or authority, and responsibility over own tasks and their execution by all the respondents, but a larger difference between these two and the third most valued reward, rewards measured in money. Some comments of the respondents reflect the value importance of these expertise and work related rewards.

"It is rewarding when one sometimes gets even a national project to lead and manage."

"Organising own timetables as well as planning and executing tasks independently."

"Management should trust us to get the work done and if the worker is responsible for making certain decisions, management should not contradict these. Flexibility in work and doing the tasks is important, as well as proper monetary compensation."

"Finnish system seems to be that the value of the worker can be seen from the pay check. I am not that interested in bonuses and other benefits, I just want my own expertise to be appreciated."

Interestingly even though rewards measured in money were the third most valued reward by all the individual respondents, but for a small majority of the groups formed by the different variables (9 out of total 16) did not have rewards measured in money ap-

pearing at all in their three most valued rewards. The following comments highlight some of the thoughts of the respondents on salary and monetary rewards.

"It is nice to get a pay check, a man's got to eat and pay bills..."

"State workers are not rewarded with money, for decades we've had the same supposedly sufficient salary."

"When atmosphere at work and the relation of work to other aspects in life is in order, things are well, finances is an added bonus."

The relation between work and time–off was a reward valued in seven groups (out of total 16) and reaching the most valued reward with experts 35 or younger. Also thanks and feedback from customers and/or interest groups was a reward valued in five groups (out of the total 16) and reaching the second most valued reward with experts with customer service.

"The best thing about the current employment is the better rhythm of work and free time if compared with the private sector."

"What I value the most is the possibility to work so that life outside of work and time– off are in balance. That is how the best results are born."

"I value meaningful work, which I can influence. Feedback is always important, also negative, so I can further develop myself. It should be kept in mind that there are no "lesser task" or "lesser workers", but we all do different work to serve our customers."

The answers were pretty much in line with the rewards presented in the rewards theory chapter and all the reward possibilities got at least one selection. One respondent however chose the other option as the most valued reward and when asked to specify, clean nature and environment were reported as the most valued reward.

There was a lot more dispersion in the valued rewards than in motivation factors presented earlier, which already is an interesting point to be noted. The battle for third place of all the respondents between monetary rewards and relation of work and time-off was based on the number of second choice selections (as the second most valued reward), so the difference between the two was not a big one. With the same principle monetary rewards was the third most valued reward for women (two second choice se-

lections more than relation of work and time-off). Thus any absolute claims cannot be made as the differences are so small. The same applies to the notion that young workers chose the relation of work and time-off as the most valued reward, with a few selections difference to the second reward of authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution.

The survey also asked for the least valued reward. The three least valued are presented in table 9. 43 respondents did not mark any alternative for the least valued reward and two marked more than one alternative. The selections were pretty unanimous within the different groups, only one table is presented below. There were no noteworthy comments to these rewards.

Table 9. The three least valued rewards. (n=57)

Reward	Choices
Status symbols	40
Work trips	19
Career advancement	5

5.3. What Rewards Experts Prefer?

In the third part of the survey the respondents were asked to the reward concept they want or prefer the most with the number 1 as well as mark the reward concept they want the least. In this part there was one respondent that did not mark anything and 33 respondents that did not mark any alternative as the least wanted. Thus the number of answers does not completely add up with the number of respondents when compared.

The reward concepts were based on the rewards presented in the literature and were grouped together on the basis of some common denominator. The reward concepts were: rewards measured in money (reward concept 1), rewards related to career an development of expertise (reward concept 2), rewards related to job assignments and working hours (reward concept 3), social rewards (reward concept 4), thank you and

feedback (reward concept 5), status rewards (reward concept 6), other, what (reward concept 7.

Table 10. presents the three most preferred reward concepts by all the respondents. The table shows the three most preferred reward concepts and the number of choices, i.e. how many respondents chose them as the most preferred reward.

Table 10. The three most preferred reward concepts by all the respondents. (n= 99)

Reward Concepts	choices
rewards measured in money	36
rewards related to job assignments and working hours	30
rewards related to career and development of expertise	21

The most wanted reward concept was the rewards measured in money followed by job assignments and working hours and then by rewards related to career and development of expertise.

5.3.1 Reward Preference by Individual Variables

The results can also be examined by individual variables of gender and age. Table 11. presents the three most preferred reward concepts by these individual variables based on the number of selections as the most preferred reward concept.

Table 11. The three most preferred reward concepts by individual variables. (n= 99)

Gender	Reward Concept	1. choice
Women n=54	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	19
	rewards measured in money	15
	rewards related to career and development of expertise	14
Men n=46	rewards measured in money	21
	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	11
	rewards related to career and development of expertise	7

	thank you and feedback	7
Age		
≤ 35 n=12	rewards measured in money	3
	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	3
	rewards related to career and development of expertise	3
	thank you and feedback	3
36-50 n=31	rewards measured in money	15
	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	11
	rewards related to career and development of expertise	6
51 ≤ n=57	rewards measured in money	18
	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	16
	rewards related to career and development of expertise	12

Men clearly preferred rewards measured in money over the other reward concepts. With women the difference was not that clear and with a change in few selections reward measured in money could be the third most preferred reward concept after rewards re-lated to career and development of expertise and rewards related to job assignments and working hours. Also in the generational grouping rewards measured in money seemed to dominate, the only exception being the younger experts 35 years old or younger, who gave four concepts the exact same amount of selections, so the actual order of the con-cepts is not known. Younger experts and men were the only groups that had the concept of thank you and feedback in their selection.

5.3.2. Reward Preference by Organisational Variables

The results can also be examined by organisational variables, such as type of expertise, years spent in the organisation, and the type of employment. Table12. presents the three most preferred reward concepts by these organisational variables based on the number of selections as the most preferred reward concept.

Table 12. The three most preferred reward concepts by organisational variables. (n= 99)

Expertise	Reward	1. choice
support expertise n=11	rewards measured in money	4
	rewards related to career and development of expertise	4
	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	1

	thank you and feedback	1
planning expertise n=15	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	8
	rewards related to career and development of expertise	4
	thank you and feedback	2
executing expertise n=48	rewards measured in money	21
	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	12
	thank you and feedback	9
customer expertise n=17	rewards measured in money	6
	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	6
	rewards related to career and development of expertise	3
supervisory managerial expertise n=9	rewards measured in money	4
	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	3
	rewards related to career and development of expertise	2
Years in Organisation		
≤ 10 n=28	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	11
	rewards related to career and development of expertise	8
	rewards measured in money	7
11-20 n=34	rewards measured in money	17
	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	10
	rewards related to career and development of expertise	3
	thank you and feedback	3
21-30 n=17	rewards measured in money	5
	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	5
	rewards related to career and development of expertise	5
31 ≤ n=21	rewards measured in money	7
	rewards related to career and development of expertise	5
	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	4
	thank you and feedback	4
Employment		
permanent n=72	rewards measured in money	25
	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	21
	rewards related to career and development of expertise	15
temporary n=28	rewards measured in money	11
	rewards related to job assignments and working hours	9
	rewards related to career and development of expertise	6

For majority of the groups formed by different organisational variables the rewards measured in money was the most preferred reward concept (nine (or six) out of 11). One has to note that for three groups two or more concepts got exactly the same number of selections, so the precise order of the concepts is not known (experts in support services, experts with customer service, and experts who have worked in the organisation between 21-30 years), but still the reward concept of rewards measured in money is the clear first choice.

Two groups (experts mostly dealing with planning activities and experts who have worked in the organisation for 10 years or less) chose the concept of rewards related to job assignments and working hours as the most preferred, even though their representation in the groups is not extensive, with only six experts with 10 years or less in the organisation out of 15 experts (with planning expertise) or six experts with planning expertise out of 28 experts (worked for 10 or less years in the organisation). In these two groups rewards measured in money was the third most preferred reward concept with experts who worked in the organisation for 10 or less years, but in the groups of experts dealing mainly with planning activities it was not among the three most preferred reward concepts.

5.3.3. Rewards Preferred by Experts

The data shows that the reward concept of rewards measured in money was the most preferred. This was seen as its selection as the most preferred reward concept by all the respondents and by 13 (or 9) groups formed by different individual and organisational variables (out of 16). Some groups had more than one reward concept with the same number of choices.

There were three groups that had the second most preferred reward concept by all the respondents, rewards related to job assignments and working hours, as their clear first option: women, experts who have worked in the organisation for 10 years or less and experts dealing mainly with planning activities. However, women were not overrepresented in the groups but the gender ratio was closer to 50/50. The last group of experts

dealing mainly with planning activities proved to be the most interesting on. For them rewards measured in money did not even fit into the top three of reward concepts they want to receive, for them rewards related to job assignments and working hours were the clear first choice followed by rewards related to career and development of expertise and lastly thank you and feedback with a small difference to monetary rewards.

The third most wanted reward concept by all the respondents was rewards related to career and development of expertise. Thank you and feedback also appeared in some groups, however most interestingly not in the group of experts dealing with customer service, who selected serving citizens and feedback from them as the third most motivating factor and thanks and feedback from customers and/or interest groups as the second most valued reward, but when asked about rewards they want to receive monetary rewards and rewards relating to work and working hours got exactly the same amount of choices, followed by rewards to career and expertise before a one selection difference to thanks you and feedback.

One has to note that for four groups two or more concepts got exactly the same number of selections (experts 35 years or younger, experts in support services, experts with customer service, and experts who have worked in the organisation between 21–20 years). But their influence to the outcome of the reward preference would have not made any changes to the order of preference for rewards concepts. The open comments from the respondents reflect their reward preferences.

"When one works hard one would hope to see it in the pay check, like everybody else."

"The best way to reward is to appreciate our work and accomplishments."

"Everybody needs money, if not then its importance would be smaller. Trust and appreciation can be shown by different ways. Workers must be guaranteed the possibilities to develop themselves and to organise their work."

"Appreciation is seen in the pay check. If it's small and does not rise, you can make your own conclusions. If rewarding does not manifest in money, all the thank yous and feedback might seem more like rubbing your face in it."

"In the hectic world of state personnel policy where number of workers is decreasing and the amount off work increasing, rewarding with time–off and working hours sounds interesting."

"Because there is more work than you can manage, the importance of working hours and time–off increases – you want what you cannot get. If you can't get time off, monetary compensation would be nice – but that does not happen either. Nobody thanks you and thanking you does not help if you're being burnt out at the same time."

The survey also asked for the least wanted reward concept. The clearly least wanted reward concept was status reward, with a clear majority of 60 selections out of 66, so the answers were extremely unanimous. No table will be presented and there were no noteworthy comments to this reward concept.

5.4. Summary of the Empirical Findings

The empirical findings showed that experts are clearly motivated by factors relating to their work, but also by salary and monetary rewards. The data clearly showed that for a half of all the respondents and for all the groups formed by the different variables (16 out of 16) the most motivating factor was interesting work and job assignments.

There was a clear difference to the second most motivating factors of salary and monetary rewards, which was closely followed by the third most motivating factor of responsibility and pride of own work in the responses by all the respondents. This was clearly seen in the groups formed by different individual and organisational variables, where salary and monetary rewards was the second choice in 11 groups (out of 16) and responsibility and pride of own work in two groups (out of 16). In three groups these factors got the same amount of selections, but that does not influence the outcome. For the clear majority of the respondents making and executing political decisions was the least motivating factor. All and all the organisational attributes of the statements based on the Holistic Public Service Motivation Model presented in the study got more selections further demonstrating the importance of organisations in Public Service Motivation, which has been paid insufficient attention in the research of Public Service Motivation (Vandenabeele 2014; Brewer 2008; Pandey and Stazyk 2008).

The empirical findings also showed that experts value and want different types of reward. Experts clearly valued rewards relating to their work and job characteristics as well as to expertise. The most valued rewards by all the respondents were interesting work assignments, and authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution. There was a small difference between these two most valued rewards of interesting work assignments or authority, and responsibility over own tasks and their execution by all the respondents, but a larger difference between these two and the third most valued reward, rewards measured in money. These were the rewards most valued by all the groups but two, namely experts 35 years old or younger, who valued the relation of work and time-off, and experts in supervisory or managerial positions, who valued rewards measured in money.

The most wanted reward concept was the rewards measured in money followed by job assignments and working hours and then by rewards related to career and development of expertise. The data showed that the reward concept of rewards measured in money was the most preferred. This was seen as its selection as the most preferred reward concept by all the respondents and by 13 (or nine) groups formed by different individual and organisational variables (out of 16). There were three groups that had the second most preferred reward concept by all the respondents, rewards related to job assignments and working hours, as their first option. In four groups two or factors got the same amount of selections, but that does not influence the outcome.

The following chapter will discuss these empirical findings in the light of theories and other findings on Public Service Motivation and rewards presented earlier. Implications and suggestions for further research will be presented before presenting the conclusions.

6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter examines and discusses the findings presented in the previous chapter in the light of theories and other findings on Public Service Motivation and rewards presented earlier. Implications and suggestions for further research will be presented before drawing up the conclusions

6.1. Motivating Experts in the Public Sector

When examining the motivations of experts, the empirical data presented in the previous chapter clearly shows that they are most motivated by the factors relating to their work, interesting job assignments and responsibility and pride of own work. These are all factors more related with the motivation of experts than with Public Service Motivation. Experts of the case study organisation in this light seem to be more motivated by factors relating to their expertise as to serving the public as Public Service Motivation stipulates. However, as suggested in the Holistic Public Service Motivation Model presented in the study on the basis of existing literature, these are not competing factors, but expertise can be regarded as an important constituent of Public Service Motivation.

Crewson (1997) points out that the motivation is mostly based on content and nature of the job. Chen, Ford and Farris (1999, in Handolin 2013:24) examined the motivational backgrounds of experts in product development and identified five different types of motivation, out of which the intrinsic motivation was clearly the most significant one. This motivation type comprises of elements such as expert colleagues, challenging work, possibilities to affect the tasks and freedom of action. In the light of these findings the experts of the public sector are not that different from their colleagues of the private sector. However, according to studies public employees place more importance than private employees on intrinsic incentives such as helping others, being useful to society and achieving accomplishment in work. However, public sector employees also value interesting work more than private sector workers; public sector employees give

higher ratings to than private employees to having the chance to learn new things and the chance to use their special abilities. (Rainey 2009: 265.)

Contrary to the original hypothesis and the theories on Public Service Motivation, serving the public good as such was not seen as a leading motivational basis of the experts in the current study. But not everyone in the public sector workforce can be expected to have high levels of Public Service Motivation; the level of Public Service Motivation is likely to vary across the public sector workforce (Taylor and Taylor 2010: 71). The case study organisation was only a one kind of an organisation, with a variety of experts in different tasks. The answers from a different type of an organisation at a different time could give completely different results. Also the how and when Public Service Motivation manifests itself in different individuals can vary. There were expert groups (experts customer service and experts who have worked the longest in the organisation), that clearly marked serving the citizens as an important motivational factor as suggested by the Public Service Motivation literature. Motivation is a complex issue and nothing can be interpreted as straight forward or simply black or white.

The Holistic Public Service Motivation Model presented in the study shows Public Service Motivation comprising of individual attributes, organisational attributes and their interaction, as well as situational attributes. All of the individual and organisational attributes got selections when asking the most motivating factors from the respondents, thus further proving the complexity of the topic and to some extent the accuracy of the Holistic Public Service Motivation Model.

The most selected factors were organisational attributes, which supports claims that organisations play an active role in developing, reinforcing, fostering and sustaining Public Service Motivation (Vandenabeele 2014; Brewer 2008; Pandey and Stazyk 2008). However, as interaction between the different attributes was not examined and a survey of this type does not provide detailed information on the grounds, justifications and elaborations of the respondents' selection, making any solid claims on the matter of Public Service Motivation is rather risky. All the attributes in the Holistic Public Service Motivation Model and factors of the survey are interrelated and contribute to the

motivation, or even Public Service Motivation, of the experts, as proven by a comment by one of the respondents

"In my mind many of the things go together. Responsibility and pride of own work entail working in an ethical manner with interesting and challenging assignments where one can use one's expertise in order to serve the citizens, who are the state."

So even though serving the citizens as such was not chosen by all the respondents as an important motivational factor, it can be conveyed through the other factors chosen by the respondents; through interesting work and job assignments, through responsibility and pride of own work, through developing expertise. These are all factors motivating experts also in the public sector, but at the same time enabling the experts to serve the citizens. When the expertise of an expert increases, it does not benefit and serve only the expert and the organisation, but even more the citizens and society needing the expertise and the organisation, thus in a way manifesting the Public Service Motivation in the experts of the public sector.

A clear majority of the experts participating to the survey chose factors relating to their work as the most motivational factor. This can be seen as an indicator of their commitment not to their own expertise, but also to the society they serve in the public sphere. But how is the motivational value of work seen from these various viewpoints by individual experts? Do they see their work as benefitting themselves and their own expertise; or as a means to serve the citizens; or as a combination of the both? Are experts more interested and associated with their own expertise or with the organisational tasks and the citizens they should be serving? This is an interesting question that Rainey (2009) also touches upon and does earn further more detailed and in-depth investigation.

There were no great differences between the expertise groups when examining the answers by different backgrounds. Then only clear difference was that younger experts (35 years old or younger) placed a lot more motivational value on their career advancement and the development of their own expertise, which can be quite understandable at the early stages of their careers. Also as mentioned earlier only two expert groups (ex-

perts with customer service and experts who have worked the longest in the organisation) clearly marked serving the citizens as an important motivational factor. The least motivating factor by all the different groups was making and executing political decisions. Although being one clear constituent in Public Service Motivation (Perry and Wise 1990; Perry 1996) it did not manifest in the present case study organisation. This reinforces Brewer, Selder and Facer II's results (2006) of neutrality or even dislike towards politics and politicians among some people with Public Service Motivation. Maybe at a more political case study organisation the answers would have been different.

However, one of the most popular motivational factors was not clearly linked with expertise nor serving the citizens, nor should it have even manifested according to some of the theoretical literature on Public Service Motivation. Some of the experts were clearly motivated by monetary rewards.

Lawler (1990) argues that management scholars have often underestimated the importance of pay as they object to the managerial approaches that rely excessively on pay as motivator. He points out that pay often serves as a proxy for other incentives, because it can indicate achievement, recognition and other valued outcomes. (Rainey 2009: 259.)

According to Mitchell and Mickel (1999, in Taylor and Taylor 2010: 68), money possesses three dimensions: affective, symbolic, and behavioural. The affective component is based on the way in which people view money. Some see money as important, valuable, and attractive, whereas others see it as being less useful. The symbolic perspective takes into account the attributes that people value and associate with money. Money can signify status and power, and generate respect from others. It can also be used to indicate achievement and recognition for one's effort, and thus support employee work morale. The behavioural dimension focuses on actions, such as saving or investing money. The fact that money can be exchanged for most goods, services, and privileges suggests that money allows people to achieve a desired standard of living.

Money, it seems, can have instrumental or symbolic motivational properties. If valued for its instrumental function, money motivates because it can produce outcomes that satisfy physiological or psychological needs. On the other hand, if money is valued for its symbolic function, it can generate social comparison information, which can indicate a person's standing regarding psychological aspirations for valued aspects of social life. As of these instrumental and symbolic functions, wages can satisfy both Maslow's lower order and higher order needs. (Taylor and Taylor 2010: 68.)

When it comes to the efficacy of wages as a driver of employee effort, one view is that the public sector workforce is generally less motivated by high wages. A large body of comparative research conducted between the public and private sector workforce tend to report that many public sector employees are less driven by monetary rewards, but more driven by intrinsic rewards. This view that the public sector workforce is not primarily motivated by high wages however does not imply that monetary rewards are irrelevant to all government workers. Earlier, Rainey (1982) has indicated the importance of monetary rewards to many government employees. Although Crewson (1997) reported that government employees are less likely than their private sector counterparts to be driven by monetary rewards, his results show that wages are an important motivator for a majority of employees (approximately 80%), both in the public and private sectors. (Taylor and Taylor 2010 : 71.)

This is clearly the case here as well, for none of the expert groups money was the most important motivational factor, but for some of the individual respondents it was, and in many cases salary and monetary rewards was the second most motivating factor in the experts groups. The importance of this financial factor can thus clearly be seen. It would be interesting to see whether the ratios and preferences would stay the same when studying and comparing different types of public organisations and/or private sector organisations.

Frey and associates (Frey 1997, Frey & Jegen, 2001) highlighted the dual impact of monetary rewards by distinguishing between situations in which rewards are perceived as controlling, and situations in which they are viewed as supportive. Frey argued that

monetary rewards can "crowd out" employees' intrinsic motivation and reduce employees' effort if they see the reward as a device to control their behaviour, or if the incentive scheme conflicts with their views (e.g., professional norms). In this case, it is likely that high wages at the expense of an employee's Public Service Motivation can cause him or her to experience alienation. On the other hand, monetary rewards can "crowd in" employees' intrinsic motivation when they perceive the rewards as supportive that is, an acknowledgement of their work effort and their high intrinsic work motivation. Monetary rewards can sometimes serve intrinsic purposes. For example, an employee who receives a small monetary reward for an accomplishment may not be very motivated by the token reward (instrumental value), but he or she may be highly motivated after receiving recognition for the accomplishment of a job (symbolic value). Here, the monetary reward merely serves as the vehicle or conduit through which intrinsic motivation travels. (Taylor and Taylor 2010: 72.)

This resonates nicely with Le Grand's (2003, 2007, 2010) ideas and findings on knights and knaves presented in the introduction, where monetary rewards do only pushes knights to work harder instead of turning them into selfish knaves and Stazyks's (2013) findings that high city officials with performance-related pay had higher job satisfaction and stronger public serviced motives than officials without. Monetary rewards with experts do not crowd out their motivation by controlling them, the contrary. The experts of the present study most likely do not find monetary rewards as a means of control, otherwise the third most motivating factor would have not been responsibility and pride of own work, or if there is lack of the factor, this would have surely been manifested in the open comments.

The views presented above are something that the current study reinforces. Experts in the public sector are to some extent motivated monetary rewards. Open comments also showed the duality of the monetary reward as a motivational factor: money is needed for living and paying the bills, but also that in the state personnel policy money seemed to be the only indicator of the experts' value and appreciation. But what is the true importance of salary and other monetary rewards?

The second part of the present study focused on one organisational attribute, rewards. The study and the survey aimed to examine the rewards that experts value and want to receive and the apparent contrast between the two.

6.2. Rewarding Experts in the Public Sector

When looking at the reward experts valued in contrast to what they wanted to receive there was a clear difference. The experts clearly valued the rewards relating to work. Interesting work assignments was the most valued reward with a small difference to the second most valued reward of authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution. The third most valued reward with a clear difference to the two most valued rewards was rewards measured in money. This is clearly linked with and reinforces the motivational aspects presented above that experts are mostly motivated by factors relating to their work and expertise and they value rewards that correspond to these factors. This was also shown in the study by Giaque, Anderfuhren-Biget and Varen (2013) proving intrinsic HRM practices are (such as job enrichment and professional development) are appreciated by individuals with Public Service Motivation and are positively linked with it.

But the importance of monetary and financial factors should not be downplayed, neither for motivation nor for rewards. Surely enough, the importance of the financial matters came obvious when asked what rewards experts wanted to receive. Monetary and financial rewards was a somewhat clear first option followed by reward concept related to work and working hours and expertise as the third option. Experts value rewards related to their work and expertise, but want to receive monetary and financial rewards.

DeGieter et al. (2006, in Handolin 2013) points out that financial aspects and money always comes first to mind when talking about rewarding. It is only after some time and considerations that other forms start appearing. Maybe some other form of research with a more reflective method would have resulted in a different type of answer scheme. However, it is important to note that when examining rewards there were much more

dispersion among the answers than when examining motivation. As suspected, the value and want of different types of rewards among experts seems to be much more related to the person than to any of the background denominators.

Rewarding starts from an individualistic and personal standpoint. Rewarding can be considered to be everything the person values or get from the organisation in return for their work. (Handolin 2013:138.) Handolin examined how two different types of expert groups (officers and researchers) experienced rewarding and found out that there can be great differences in these experiences. However, it is important to point out that Handolin examined only non–material rewarding.

The clearest differences in rewards, as in motivation, came from the group of experts 35 years old or younger (n=12). As they did not select monetary rewards in their motivation factors, in the same way their most valued reward was the relation between work and time-off. This leads us to think of the generational differences. Jurkiewicz (2000) found some similarities and dissimilarities between the generations in public offices, but the Generations X in the public sector does put more value on leisure time than money and is more focused on own development of own skills and expertise than serving the others.

The present study seems to reinforce these findings, albeit the number of responses being relatively small. Jurkiewicz also questions herself whether it is a generational issue or more to do with age and stage of life and the over-all development of society. Also when asked about reward preferences and rewards they wanted to receive there were four concepts that got exactly the same amount of selections, so the findings are somewhat mixed.

Even more interesting was the fact that experts in supervisory and managerial position valued rewards measured in money the most. Bright (2008) claimed that managers would be less interested in monetary rewards than non-managers from a Maslowian perspective, with an already better income there would be no need for monetary rewards. This was quite contrary in the present study, the group in question actually being the

only one valuing monetary rewards. When asked about rewards they want to receive, managers and supervisors were no longer in the minority with their values and wishes, as only three groups out of 16 groups clearly marked work and working hours as the reward concept they would like to receive the most instead of rewards measured in money. Even though some groups mentioned thanks and feedback from customer and interest groups as a valued reward, it was not nearly as valued as monetary rewards, and even less so when asked about the rewards experts would like to receive.

Why are the monetary rewards so important to experts? Is it a result of the over-all development of the society influencing money and importance of financial aspects? Has public sector moved closer to private sector where salaries and other monetary rewards have been claimed to be better? Is this a logical spin-off effect from years of New Public Management practices in public organisations? Many public sector organisations claim that in order to attract the best managers and directors they have to compete with private sector salaries, even though according to Public Service Motivation this should not be the case as these people should not be motivated by money at all, but by more altruistic and collective motivations. This goes to show that money matters, especially at the top of the organisation, a factor clearly shown by the present study.

This surely must have an effect on the 'normal' public sector work force as well in their financial needs and desires. One could also argue that at the same time the public and state sector is forced to do cut–backs and dissolve some of the benefits related to the these organisations, financial rewards become even more important for the employees in their attempt to somehow find compensation for the lost benefits, especially if the state personnel and reward policies and strategies cannot react and/or are too slow to react to these changes occurring and preventing at the same time changes and improvement in the local organisational personnel and reward policies, that might be quicker to implement and take into practice than the general nationwide state guidelines.

As Jurkiewicz (2000: 65–67) points out in relation to generational differences, what employees really want from their jobs is very different from what many believe they want. The same applies to the results of the present study; rewards valued are different

from rewards wanted. For incentives and rewards Jurkiewicz suggests a cafeteria-style approach, where people can select the best rewards matching their life style and situation.

It would be interesting to examine even further on a more–detailed scale what different types of concrete rewards experts would want? What different kinds of rewards would we find and would financial and monetary rewards still dominate, or would there be new kinds of rewards be more closely related and in tune with the rewards the experts also value? What are the possibilities of public organisation human resources departments to react to these issues and do they even want to?

6.3. Conclusions

The aim of the present study was to examine motivating and rewarding experts in the public sector. Special attention was paid in particular to the Public Service Motivation and the reward value and preference. The study focused on the motivations of experts working in a public organisation and their opinions on different rewards in order to determine whether any generalisations could be made on the subject. Also the type of rewards they valued and / in contrast wanted to receive was be looked at in order to see any possible relation between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

The hypothesis was that even though working for the common good in accordance with Public Service Motivation would be a major factor in the motivation for the majority of the experts, other motivational factors would appear also, especially factors relating to expertise. Even further, the valuation and preference of rewards would be even be more individualistic than motivational factors with less generalisations to be drawn. Both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards would appear, but in different categories, while experts might mostly value intrinsic rewards they wish to receive mostly extrinsic rewards.

Human motivation is a complex issue. Work motivation was said to consist of personal traits, job characteristics and the working environment. Public Service Motivation has a

common focus on motives and actions in the public domain that are intended to do good for others and shape the well-being of society. The present study drafted the Holistic Model of Public Service Motivation comprising of these individual and organisational attributes as well as their interaction and situational attributes. The two latter factors could not be measured with the research method used, but all of the individual and organisational attributes presented in the model were supported by the answers from the respondents of the survey, thus proving the accuracy of the model. The organisational antecedents were more dominant in the answers, which enforces the view that organisations play an important role in Public Service Motivation, a factor that according to some scholars (Vandenabeeele 2014; Brewer 2008; Pandey and Stazyk 2008) requires more attention in both theoretical an empirical research.

Most interestingly, contrary to the hypothesis and the notion of Public Service Motivation, the experts did not find serving the public good as an important motivational factor, even though it was one of the options. Factors relating to work and job characteristics were more dominant, these are factors important to experts. Also monetary rewards were important to experts, a purely extrinsic motivational factor, which some studies show to be of lesser importance to people with Public Service Motivation.

In the light of these finding experts in the public sector could be more motivated by their work and development of their expertise than serving the public – or could they? Factors relating to work and expertise do not necessarily mean that employees do not have Public Service Motivation, especially if expertise is regarded as one of the attributes of it, as the Holistic Public Service model suggests. As the job assignments and work of the expert in the public organisation usually deals with matters of the public sphere, the experts is serving the public. By developing expertise, enjoying the work and doing a good job, the public is being served. This might not be the most motivating factor for the experts, but is intermediated in the actions of the experts.

One of the organisation attributes of the Holistic Public Service Model was rewards. In accordance with the hypothesis and the literature on Public Service Motivation and expertise, the respondents clearly valued rewards intrinsic rewards relating to their work

and expertise, but also monetary rewards. Experts also preferred or wanted to receive monetary extrinsic rewards over intrinsic rewards. So a clear difference could seen between the rewards experts value and the rewards experts prefer. In the light of these findings monetary do not crowd out Public Service Motivation as studies on the matter suggest, but monetary rewards can actually support the experts in their work for the public good.

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APPENDIX 1. Survey conducted at the ELY Centre of Lapland

Motivation and Rewarding of Experts in Public Organisations

Dear Recipient,

In my Master's thesis in public management for the University of Vaasa I will examine the motivation and rewarding of experts in public organisations. The supervisor for the thesis is professor Ari Salminen. I will examine what factors motivate experts in public organisations. I will also study the type of rewards they value and what they want, and if there is any difference between these two.

I ask you to mark your answers truthfully. It is possible to give comments on the form. You can also contact me regarding the study, the results or any questions raised by the topic at juhani.moisio@uva.fi

Thank you for your participation!

An excel sheet of the answers will be provided to the employer. This is a voluntary gesture on my behalf. The excel sheet will not include any subjective data or open comments or explanations, these will stay with me. As the last question you can inform me if you want all your answers removed from this excel sheet.

BACKGROUND QUESTIONS

Gender:
Male
Female

Age:
35 years old or younger
Between 36 and 50
51 years old or older

Type of expertise:
Mainly with support services such as HR, IT–support, i.e. not the core functions of the organisation

Mainly with planning activities

Mainly with executing activities

Mainly with expertise requiring customer service and customer relations,

Mainly with supervisory positions and supervising planned and executed activities

Mainly in leading managerial positions within the organisation.

Years in the Organisation:

10 years or less

11–20 years

21–30 years

More than 31 years

Type of Employment:

Civil servants or a permanent contract of employment

Fixed term employment

MOTIVATION

What motivates you at work? Please mark the most motivating factor with number 1, the second most with number 2, the third most with number 3, the least motivating factor with Ö, and any possible comments on the factors and/or your work motivation in general:

Salary and monetary rewards

Making and executing political decisions

Serving citizens and feedback from them

Personal work ethics and doing the right thing

Interesting work and job assignments

My team and serving my organisation

My supervisor and his/her feedback

Serving the state/government

Responsibility and pride of own work

Own expertise and its development

Reaching set goals

Career advancements

Other, what

REWARDING

What type of rewards you value? Please mark the most valued reward with number 1, the second most with number 2, the third most with number 3, the least valued reward with Ö, and any possible comments on the rewards and/or rewards and rewarding in general, what you value and why:

Rewards measured in money

Interesting work assignments

Authority and responsibility over own tasks and their execution

Education, training and deepening / increasing own expertise

Career advancement

Relation between work and time–off like flexible working hours, combining work and holiday

Thanks and feedback from my supervisor and and/or colleagues

Status symbols such as titles, office representative tasks

Work trips

Thanks and feedback from customers and/or interest groups

Working environment and rewards related to social relations at work

Other, what

What type of rewarding you would prefer to receive? Please mark the most preferred reward with the number 1 and the least preferred with Ö and any possible comments on the rewards and/or rewards and rewarding in general, what you prefer and why:

Rewards measured in money

Rewards related to career and development of expertise

Rewards related to job assignments and working hours

Social rewards

Thank you and feedback

Status rewards

Other, what

LAST QUESTION

An excel sheet of the answers will be provided to the employer. The excel sheet will not include any subjective data or open comments or explanations, these will stay with me. Mark X here if you want all your answers to be deleted form this excel sheet.