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Motivated to serve: An empirical examination of motivation and consequences in the public and nonprofit organizations

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Motivated to Serve:
Constructs and Consequences of Work Motivation
for Public and Nonprofit Managers

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Abstract

This article draws upon a sample of nonprofit and state government managers to examine the role that service motivation plays in both sectors. The research addressed three main questions: 1) what are the main motivational types and constructs of managers in the public and nonprofit sectors? 2) what differences exist between these sectors in terms of level of motivation? And 3) what are the long-term and short-term consequences of different types of motivation? Our findings suggest that in many ways public and nonprofit managers are similar in terms of the importance of intrinsic versus extrinsic rewards. Public and nonprofit managers show both of the similarities and differences in terms of the consequences of motivation leading to increased job engagement and increased civic and volunteer activity. The results provide further evidence about relations among the antecedents, moderators, and consequences as well as the role of motivation, mentoring, and interpersonal communication. Additionally, our research also points to important moderating factors such as mentoring and interpersonal communication that may act to increase both motivation and enhance outcomes. Implications of this research are also discussed

[END – This paper will definitely be revised. Your comments are appreciated. Please email sungmin.park@unlv.edu or jessica.word@unlv.edu]

Introduction

In recent years, public service has been broadened to include not only those working directly for government but also other forms of employment that serve the community. This has manifested in an increasing interest in governance rather than government (Brinkerhoff & Brinkerhoff, 2002) and complex interrelationships between nonprofits and governments. Increasingly individuals who wish to serve their communities choose between the public and nonprofit sectors or even move between the sectors over the span of their careers. Traditionally, public administration literature has thought of public service in terms of work for or with a governmental agency (Perry & Wise, 1990) but more recent literature suggests that the transfer of services from the public to the nonprofit and for-profit sectors means that those serving the public may be employed in variety of places and organizations not traditionally examined in public administration literature. The broadening of the term public service has implications for how public managers and nonprofit managers deliver services and how these two linked sectors create communities.

This research seeks to address the motivational differences between public and nonprofit sector employees in an effort to explore the differences between the sectors and aid managers in understanding ways to better motivate employees. It has been well established that individuals that choose to work in the public sector are differently motivated than those that work in the for-profit sector (Fredrickson & Hart, 1985; Houston, 2006; Brewer, 2003; Rainey 1983; Wittmer, 1991). However, little empirical examination has been done to explore the motivation of those that work in the nonprofit sector or the possibility that they might be similarly motivated to their public sector counterparts. Anecdotal and limited descriptive evidence suggests that nonprofit employees are in some ways similar to their public sector counterparts might be motivated by a

sense of duty to their communities and a desire to help others (Light, 2002; Mann, 2006). It is also important to examine and uncover any possible differences in terms of motivation between managers in these two sectors which might help policy makers find more effective means to deliver public services by taking advantage of motivational differences. This research employs data collected as part of the National Administrative Studies Project III (NASP III) to identify the nature of motivation and to confirm the differences between motivational constructs and the consequences of motivation between the two sectors. The primary focus of this paper is to expand our understanding of the differences between the public and nonprofit sector workforces in terms of motivation and examine any underlying differences between the two.

   With a review of the public service motivation literature and the existing research concerning motivation of nonprofit sector workers, the research was conducted in three phases. In Phase 1, we draw on organizational behavior (OB) human resource management (HRM) perspectives to explore and confirm whether motivational types and constructs of public and nonprofit managers in the workplace are different and distinct. In Phase 2, we test for statistically significant differences in motivation types between public and nonprofit managers – whether nonprofit managers are more intrinsically and affectively motivated than are those who work in public agencies. In Phase 3, we explore the relationship between motivation and short-term (job engagement) and long-term consequences (personal civic activities and voluntary activities) in the public and nonprofit sectors. The impacts of individual and organizational controls (e.g., job responsibility, job tenure, managerial power, organizational size, and organizational age) and two types of moderators (mentoring socialization and interpersonal social communication) are also explored. Finally, theoretical and practical implications for comparative motivation research in the public and nonprofit sectors are discussed.

Conceptualization of Motivation in Public and Nonprofit Organizations

Motivation is "an umbrella concept that captures the psychological forces that direct, energize, and maintain action" (Grant, 2008, p. 50). From a managerial standpoint, employee's and manager's work motivation is one of the determining factors of an organization's development and success. That is, work motivation is directly linked to an employee's performance, which in turn reflects how well the manager is overseeing an organization's employees. Public managers and supervisors set the example when it comes to employee motivation. When a supervisor or personnel manager is motivated to do a good job, their behaviors tends to transfer over to the employees they manage and public managers and supervisors play the role of leader when it comes to employee motivation. PSM can be effectively managed and enhanced by incorporating PSM into the public sector management systems (Paarlberg, Perry, and Hondeghem, 2008).

Deci & Ryan's self-determination theory (SDT) provide a well-established theoretical framework for public and nonprofit organizational settings. SDT focuses on "the degree to which human behaviors are volitional or self-determined – that is, the degree to which people endorse their actions at the highest level of reflection and engage in the actions with a full sense of choice" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p.68). SDT also suggests that there are three different categories of work motivation – 1) amotivation (i.e., inability or unwillingness to participate in normal social situation), 2) extrinsic motivation, and 3) intrinsic motivation. Within SDT, intrinsic motivation is seen as "the motivational instantiation of the proactive, growth-oriented nature of human beings which is the basis for learning and development" (Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006, p. 20). Intrinsically motivated employees are more likely to pursue "enjoyment, interest, satisfaction of curiosity, self-expression, or personal challenge in the work while extrinsically

motivated employees seek to obtain "some goals that is apart from the work itself" (Amabile, 1993, p.188). To differing degrees, within a SDT framework, the social environment (e.g., a job content, job context, and work climate) and individual differences (e.g., autonomous causality orientation) influence work motivation, as well as the organizational outcomes (e.g., performance, organizational trust and commitment, and job satisfaction) (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Each of these three categories provides a different idea as to how employees can become self-motivated. This process allows managers to encourage employees to reach within themselves and decide how to adequately handle a work situation, based on their own values, ideas, and perceptions.

Public Service Motivation (PSM)

Public service motivation (PSM) was introduced broadly to the public administration literature in the 1990's and has largely been supported as a unique set of motivational characteristics that exist in the public sector (Coursey &.Pandey, 2007). PSM, composed of affective, normative, and rational motives, is an intrinsic, altruistic, and prosocial value which is closely related to several managerial and organizational outcomes in the public sector (Perry & Wise, 1990). That is, PSM is the "belief, values, and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate" (Vandenabeele, 2009, p.13). Recent PSM studies empirically analyze the value categories of work motivation in the public sector suggesting that there are basically two qualitatively and quantitatively different motivational constructs – e.g., intrinsically or public service oriented motivation (PSOM) and extrinsically-oriented motivation (EOM) and that public service employees are less motivated by extrinsic motivators and more concerned with intrinsic factors, especially compared with private or hybrid

sector employees and managers (Horton & Hondeghem, 2006; Park & Rainey, 2008; Wittmer, 1991). PSM and intrinsic motivation, in this regard, theoretically and empirically share common values and orientations especially within the public and nonprofit organizational contexts.

Prior to formal definition of public service motivation many early public administration scholars argued that public sector employees were unique in terms of their concern for the public good and their motivation to serve their communities. The empirical research exploring PSM has supported these assertions especially in comparison to for-profit employees that appear to be motivated more by extrinsic rewards (Houston, 2000; Wright 2001; Boyne, 2002). Prior to the introduction of PSM, rational choice models assumed that public employees would simply seek to maximize their own utility by shirking or padding agency budgets but these models failed to explain why public employees achieve (Houston, 2005). The introduction of PSM has led to a greater emphasis on non-economic rewards of public service.

This strain of research has significantly added to our understanding about what makes the public sector unique and how those unique qualities are shaped by public employees. Recent research also suggests that public sector employees are also more engaged in their communities and this engagement leads to other types of prosocial behavior such as volunteering, voting, and blood donation (Houston 2005). Previous studies also suggest that the current emphasis on running government like a business and market based incentive structures might actually backfire and cause a loss of motivation for those with high PSM (Kellough & Lu, 1993).

Nonprofit Service Motivation (NPSM)

The argument that the motivation of the public sector workforce was introduced at a time when government was still responsible for the direct service delivery but "New Public Management" created an emphasis on "steering rather than rowing" that has dramatically altered

the nature and shape of public service today. The traditional model of the public service being delivered to citizens by government employees protected by civil service provisions only applies to modern public administration in very limited settings. Most delivery of public services is now done through contracts carried out by either for-profit or nonprofit organizations in organizations that share some but not all of the characteristics of traditional public service. In fact more recent examinations of public service motivation have tended to include nonprofit human service workers and managers in examinations of PSM without exploring possible underlying differences between the sectors (Lyons, Duxbury, & Higgins, 2006).

Paul Light (2002) argues that the era of new public management and the increased use of contracting to deliver public goods have created a new multi-sectoral approach to "public service." Since, one of the aims of public service motivation literature is to understand what motivates public sector workers to choose their jobs and to find better ways to motivate this workforce we seek to extend this research to understand what shapes nonprofit sector motivation (NPSM). The delivery of public services by nonprofit organizations makes extension of this line of research an important topic to explore so that we can find better ways to attract talented employees to the nonprofit sector and better methods to motivate these employees.

Like arguments about the public sector workforce, theoretical and anecdotal arguments have long persisted that the nonprofit sector labor force is also different from the general labor force in important ways. Early theories explaining the existence of nonprofit organizations and motivations for starting such organizations suggest that individuals that start nonprofit organizations are motivated by the mission or the work itself rather than by the desire for individual financial rewards (Santora & Sarros, 2001). Some have suggested that this leads some

managers to choose one sector over another on the basis of the goals and personality type (Weisbrod, 1988).

Many models of employee motivation rely heavily upon the use of market based incentive systems to promote employee motivation (Moynihan & Pandey 2007). The focus on market based incentives includes such tactics as improving pay or pay for performance to motivate employees to achieve in the workforce. Market based incentive structures mainly rely upon extrinsic or tangible benefits. The findings surrounding nonprofit motivation suggest a motivational model which is contrary to some market based incentive models (Mann 2006). It may even be true that similarly to the public sector employees, application of market based incentive structures may actually have a negative impact on nonprofit employees.

While it is often heard that nonprofit organizations, just like government organizations, need to be run more like businesses, this ignored important underlying norms and values that appear to NPSM. Many nonprofit theorists have suggested that prosocial behaviors play a role in motivation of nonprofit employees and often use this to explain long standing pay gaps that persist especially at the managerial level in the nonprofit sector (Leete 2001; 2006). This has largely been through the donative labor hypothesis. The donative labor hypothesis suggests that nonprofit employees accept lower wages than their for-profit counterparts because of the intrinsic rewards they receive from working for an idealistic or moral goal (Frank 1996). This theory suggests that nonprofit sector organizations produce different goods or different qualities of goods than similar organizations found in the for-profit sector. For example, an aid worker may be willing to accept lower pay because they believe that their work is important and they find working to help those in need to be rewarding in ways that are more important than money.

The ideal that nonprofit employees are motivated by intrinsic rewards to a great extent has also been supported by recent empirical research (Lyons, Duxbury, Higgins, 2006; Mann, 2006; Light 2002; Leete 2001). In particular, a survey examining work related attitudes of public, nonprofit and for-profit workers found significant differences between the responses of workers in different sectors (Light, 2002). In particular, nonprofit employees were much more likely to indicate that they came to work because of the nature of their job and the common good than either public or private employees. This suggests that nonprofit employees are significantly motivated by a desire to serve the public interest. This interest in service to others is potentially one of the most unique aspects of work in the nonprofit sector. This finding is further supported by research by Lyons, Duxbury, and Higgins (2006) that found that nonprofit sector workers were much more likely than either public or for-profit employees to value work that contributed to society.

Nonprofit employees were also less likely to believe that their jobs were a dead-end than public and private sector employees (Light 2002). This suggests that the type of work that is offered by nonprofit organizations may create intrinsic rewards and personal development that individuals may be unable to receive through employment in the other sectors. Additional research has suggested that mission attachment helps enhance employee retention in the sector (Brown & Yoshioka 2003). This has significant implications as this line of research continues to develop for nonprofit managers wishing to retain their employees with limited financial resources. Another unique aspect of the nonprofit sector that might impact employee motivation is the relatively small size of many nonprofit organizations. The sector as a whole is made up of very small organizations that often have few employees and tend to be much more flexible and less bureaucratic (Ban, Drahnak-Faller & Towers, 2003). However, a significant number (24%)

of nonprofit sector employees expressed frustration with a limited ability to advance within their organization (Light, 2002).

Recent research conducted by (Word & Park, 2009) comparing the job involvement of public and nonprofit mangers suggests that there are distinct characteristics of nonprofit managers and the work they perform. Their research found that nonprofit managers were more involved with their jobs. Additionally, Feeney and Bozeman (2008) found that nonprofit managers worked longer hours than their public sector counterparts in part because of cultural differences between the sectors. However, these findings are somewhat counter-intuitive since economic theories suggest that workers in both sectors lack ownership or profit incentives (Kim & Mahoney, 2005). This leaves us to wonder what drives nonprofit managers to work longer hours and display higher levels of job involvement.

Based on these arguments of SDT, PSM, and NPSM, we proposed three research questions which concerns whether there are theoretical and empirical differences of motivational constructs in the public and nonprofit sectors and whether there is a significant difference in the level of work motivation among public and nonprofit managers.

Research Question 1: Work motivation in the public service is composed of sub-dimensional motivation constructs – i.e., different types of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. These latent constructs are conceptually and empirically separate and distinct.

Research Question 2: Work motivation in the nonprofit service is composed of sub-dimensional motivation constructs– i.e., different types of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. These latent constructs are conceptually and empirically separate and distinct.

Research Questions 3: (motivation across the sectors)**:** Is there a significant difference in the level of work motivation among public and nonprofit managers?

Motivation and Job Engagement: Short-Term Consequences

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivators are jointly but differently related to individual and organizational behavioral outcomes such as job satisfaction, job engagement, organizational commitment, and other types of organizational performance indicators. Specifically, job engagement is one of the important human attitudes within an organization which refers to "the degree to which a person identifies with his or her job, actively participates in it, and considers his or her performance important to self-worth" (Robbins, 2003, p.72). Drawing on the job design model (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1980), the literature on employee engagement has put emphasis on key elements of engagement such as organizational commitment, teamwork, empowerment, two-way communication, and interpersonal trust (Vance, 2006). While some empirical research findings suggest that intrinsic motivation and PSM of public employees have a stronger positive relationship with job satisfaction, job involvement, and job engagement than will extrinsic motivation (see Crewson, 1997; Lewis & Frank, 2002; Naff & Crum, 1999), other researchers have found that some specific types of extrinsic motivators – e.g., advancement motivation – are also principal factors to enhance employee job engagement and job satisfaction in the public sector (see Ellickson, 2002; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007b; Wright & Kim, 2004). The findings of the research suggest that opportunities for advancement within the organization's hierarchy provide more positive impacts on public employees' job satisfaction and job involvement. We expect that intrinsic and advancement motivation would be positively associated with job engagement for public managers.

Hypothesis 1a: In public agencies, intrinsic motivation and advancement motivation would be positively associated with job engagement.

Hypothesis 1b: In public agencies, extrinsic motivation (e.g., security motivation and monetary motivation) would be less positively associated with job engagement than intrinsic motivation would be.

Similarly, to the relationship between PSM and job engagement, we expect that nonprofit mangers will be more engaged in their jobs when they display high levels of NPSM. Nonprofit service motivation because of its ties to public and community service should be positively related to job engagement of nonprofit managers that value these aspects of their job. Since many nonprofit agencies are smaller and often require managers to change organizations in order to advance (Gazley, 2009; Light 2002) we expect that nonprofit managers will be less concerned with advancement than even their public sector counterparts. Additionally, since nonprofit managers do not enjoy similar protections to public managers that often enjoy civil service protections we expect that security motivation will also not be as important a factor in the creation of job engagement.

Hypothesis 1c: In nonprofit agencies, nonprofit service motivation (NPSM) would be positively associated with job engagement.

Hypothesis 1d: In nonprofit agencies, extrinsic motivation (i.e., WLB motivation, security motivation, and advancement motivation) would be less positively associated with job engagement than NPSM would be.

Motivation and Civic and Volunteer Activities: Long-Term Consequences

Previous research has suggested that public service motivation is related to other activities that promote community and enhance civic engagement including volunteering and voting (Houston 2006). We hypothesize that these behaviors are primarily related to the intrinsic motivational aspects not extrinsic or market oriented motivational aspects. We suspect that the relationship between intrinsic motivation and civic and volunteer activities will be similar across

the two sectors because of the strong ties of employees in both sectors to concern for their communities.

Hypothesis 2a: In public agencies, intrinsic motivation would have a positive relationship with civic and volunteer activities.

Hypothesis 2b: In public agencies, extrinsic motivation (i.e., security motivation, advancement motivation, and monetary motivation) would be less positively associated with civic and volunteer activities than intrinsic motivation would be.

Hypothesis 2c: In nonprofit agencies, NPSM would have a positive relationship with civic and volunteer activities.

Hypothesis 2d: In nonprofit agencies, extrinsic motivation (i.e., WLB motivation, security motivation, and advancement motivation) would be less positively associated with civic and volunteer activities than NPSM would be.

Motivation and Organizational Socialization: Moderators

SDT suggests that intrinsic motivation can be either crowded-in or crowded-out by some specific organizational conditions and social-environmental factors such as rewards and disciplines, work environment and culture, and organizational communication (Frey, 1997; Deci & Ryan, 1980). That is, certain external factors can facilitate or undermine the effects of intrinsic motivation on individual or organizational outcomes. In this study, to examine the moderating effects on the relationship between motivation and outcomes in the public and nonprofit sectors, two types of interpersonal moderators are investigated: mentoring socialization and interpersonal communication.

Mentoring is an informal or formal organizational activity that can be utilized to enhance organizational effectiveness and performance – e.g., increasing job satisfaction and engagement, career development, as well as reducing turnover intentions and job stress (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Viator, 2001). Mentoring also plays a crucial role of facilitating the

protégé's socialization to his or her role in the organizational culture in that the mentor-protégé relationship increases "an individual's social network affiliations" and enhances the level of "communication and access to additional information"(Bozeman & Feeney, 2008b, p. 3). Especially psychological mentoring is shown to be conductive to increasing job engagement or affective organizational commitment in the public sector context (see also Joiner, Bartram, & Garreffa, 2004; Reid, Allen, Riemenschneider, & Armstrong, 2008).

As Bozeman & Feeney (2009) suggested, we anticipate that a formal or informal mentoring program is more effective and promising for highly intrinsically motivated employees in that mentoring socialization processes can influence the relationship between employee's intrinsic motivation or PSM and certain job attitudes and behaviors – e.g., job engagement and civic activities. Mentoring is expected to provide more positive impact on certain outcomes especially for intrinsically motivated people. Some previous research also implies that interpersonal, informal, and subformal communication within an organizational context would significantly affect the relationship between various types of individual attitudes and organizational culture and certain organizational outcomes – that is, communication acts as a key moderating factor which develops, facilitates, and shapes new positive outcomes (see Garnett, Marlowe, & Pandey, 2008; Majone, 1989).

Based on the SDT framework as well as the previous mentoring and communication research, we predict that socialization and communication processes – i.e., mentoring and interpersonal communications – in public and nonprofit organizations would positively affect the relation between intrinsic motivation, NPSM, and managers' behavioral outcomes.

Hypothesis 3a: In public agencies, with high levels of mentoring socialization, the relationship between intrinsic motivation in the public service and job engagement would be greater.

Hypothesis 3b: In public agencies, with high levels of interpersonal social communication, the relationship between intrinsic motivation in the public service and job engagement would be greater.

Hypothesis 3c: In public agencies, with high levels of mentoring socialization, the relationship between intrinsic motivation in the public service and civic and volunteer activities would be greater.

Hypothesis 3d: In public agencies, with high levels of interpersonal social communication, the relationship between intrinsic motivation in the public service and civic and volunteer activities would be greater.

Hypothesis 4a: In nonprofit agencies, with high levels of mentoring socialization, the relationship between NPSM in the nonprofit service and job engagement would be greater.

Hypothesis 4b: In nonprofit agencies, with high levels of interpersonal social communication, the relationship between NPSM in the nonprofit service and job engagement would be greater.

Hypothesis 4c: In nonprofit agencies, with high levels of mentoring socialization, the relationship between NPSM in the nonprofit service and civic and volunteer activities would be greater.

Hypothesis 4d: In nonprofit agencies, with high levels of interpersonal social communication, the relationship between NPSM in the nonprofit service and civic and volunteer activities would be greater.

Figure 1 illustrates a conceptual model of motivation and consequences in public and nonprofit agencies. Our model includes antecedents and controls, moderators, mediators, and short and long-term consequences as shown in Figure 1.

Data and Measures

Data Sources and Sample

This study utilizes data from the NASP-III survey instrument that collected data from managers working in public ($N = 802$) and nonprofit ($N = 375$) agencies in the states of Illinois and Georgia. Each agency was represented by a number of respondents, with no serious unevenness in responses from different agencies (Details available from the authors).[1] The

sample was a representative sample of state public and nonprofit managers, including 61 public agencies and 305 nonprofit organizations in these two states. The overall response rate was 39.0% (42.5% for the public sector sample and 33.0% from the nonprofit sector sample). Regarding missing data adjustments, rather than using the listwise deletion method, we employed the expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm method to preserve effective sample size. This method can increase statistical power of the regression model and reduce possible non-response bias in parameter estimates (Roth, 1994). The survey instrument measured the managers' perceptions about various organizational issues such as work motivation, mentoring and communication, career histories, hiring practices, and organizational cultures and structures, in addition to investigating numerous individual, managerial, and organizational attributes – e.g., job responsibility, supervisory status, job tenure, and organizational size and age.

Motivation Measures

Motivation variables were measured on a four-point Likert scale with specific statements (see Appendix). We performed confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to operationalize variables as well as to confirm latent constructs of work motivation in the public and nonprofit sectors. LISREL was used to generate and obtain factor scores for each sub-dimension. Based on CFA, work motivation scales were developed from relevant survey items (see Appendix). The results of CFA indicate that the factor loadings support the use of these items as indicators of the underlying motivational constructs.

Outcomes Measures

In this study, as outcome variables, we included a short-term consequence – job engagement as a mediator – and long-term consequences – personal civic activities and volunteer

activities. This research employed a six-item job involvement scale that originally came from Kanungo's (1982a) 10-item scale. Internal consistency is important in this research because the homogeneity of involvement in other scales makes it critical to accurately measure the respondents' attitudes about the survey items. To assess internal consistency and to ensure reliability of the job involvement scale, Cronbach's alpha reliability test was done, and the job involvement scale showed a high level of internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's α = .715). Personal civic activities is a summative ordinal-level variable of eight different categories – the addition of all the responses to membership categories such as church, political club, professional societies, service organizations, or school support groups. Volunteer activities are measured based on the number of hours the respondents engaged in volunteer activities in the last four weeks.

3. Controls Measures

To control spurious statistical effects, three levels of control variables were introduced in this study- individual-, managerial-, and organizational-level controls. Individual-level variables include gender, age, ethnicity, and education. Gender (female = 1) and ethnicity (non-White = 1) were coded as dummy variables. Managerial-level variables are composed of four types of job responsibility (managerial, professional, and technical, and others), job tenure (year job started), and managerial power (supervisory status).[2] Finally, as organizational-level controls, organization size, organizational age, and state context (Georgia= 1). Size and age variables were log-transformed to correct for issues of skew in these variables.

4. Moderators Measures

A composite measure of mentoring socialization (a summative variable) is created based on eight different survey questions. In the survey, for example, public and nonprofit managers were asked to indicate whether mentors and protégés share similar professional values, whether mentors have a great deal of respect for protégés' ideas, or whether mentors have significantly contributed to protégés' success in the organization (Cronbach's alpha = .762; please see the Appendix). Interpersonal communication is a measure of % of work-related mail, email, and phone calls respondents sent to persons within an organization.[3]

[Place Table 1 about here]

Data Analysis and Methods

We employed three statistical methods. First (phase 1), through a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) model, we estimated the latent constructs of different types of motivation in the public and nonprofit sectors. Second (phase 2), we used independent samples test to test for statistically significant differences in the levels of public and nonprofit managers' work motivation – i.e., intrinsic motivation, NPSM, WLB motivation, security motivation, advancement motivation, and monetary motivation. Third (phase 3), we employed a multivariate hierarchical regression procedure to test the relationships between antecedents – i.e., individual attributes (step 1), managerial attributes (step 2), organizational attributes (step 3), motivation effects (step 4), socialization effects (step 5), and moderating effects of social communication (step 6) – and the outcome variables – i.e., job engagement, personal civic activities, and volunteer activities in the public and nonprofit agencies. A Hierarchical regression method is expected to reduce effectively multicollinearity problems among multiplicative and interaction

terms, which often occur in organizational behavior and social science studies (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Simons & Peterson, 2000).

While an OLS estimation method was used in a hierarchical regression model, in a CFA model, the maximum likelihood (ML) method was employed. From multivariate normality tests, severe non-normality patterns are not observed and we can expect that the ML method in CFA would be more unbiased, consistent, and efficient, especially when the population distribution for the endogenous variables is multivariate normal (Kline, 2005). Also, the covariance matrix was used as input to the LISREL 8.72 version to examine the four-factor measurement model of CFA.

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Findings and Results

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Phase 1: Testing the Measurement (CFA) Model

To test Research Questions 1 and 2, we employed a second-order CFA model of 1) motivation in the public sectors and 2) motivation in the nonprofit sectors. First, the results indicate that four motivation latent constructs (first-order factors) in the public and nonprofit sectors are significantly salient and distinct – 1) intrinsic, security, advancement, and monetary motivation in public agencies and 2) nonprofit service, work-life balance (WLB), security, and advancement motivation in nonprofit agencies (see Figures 2 and 3). Second order factors (motivation in public and nonprofit agencies) are significantly and positively explained by these first order factors. The results of CFI, NNFI, NFI, IFI, RFI, RMSEA, and SRMR values in both of the models suggest that the models of public and nonprofit agencies can be considered to fit very well. However, the values of chi-square in these CFA models (232.44; 243.67) are significant and reject the null hypothesis ($p < 0.05$) and this result might be viewed as

disconfirmatory evidence. However, the chi-square statistic is very sensitive to sample size and model complexity, the probability of rejecting a hypothesized model increases as N increases. Consequently, with large samples, virtually all models would be rejected as statistically untenable regardless of a good model fit (Kemery, Bedeian, Mossholder, & Touliatos, 1985; James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1982).

Second, the results of R^2 and standardized factor loadings in the public and nonprofit models suggest that intrinsic motivation (the factor loading is .79) is most salient among public managers whereas nonprofit service motivation (NPSM) is most significant (the factor loading is .82) among nonprofit managers. That is, in Georgia and Illinois, public and nonprofit managers are more prone to be motivated by such intrinsic factors as overall reputation of the organization, ability to serve the public or desire for less bureaucratic red tape than other types of motivators, e.g., security motivation and monetary motivation. The values of R^2 on each latent motivation variable are moderate to high, confirming that the amount of variance in the indicators is well measured and explained by a number of latent factors. Third, from the t-tests (the critical value is ±2), we found that all indicators (11 items of the public sector model and 13 items of the nonprofit sector model) have significant factor loadings on each of four first-order factors – that is, all factor loadings (parameter values) of these four latent variables of each model are positive and significantly different from 0, which shows good evidence of reliable and valid measures of motivation constructs in both of the sectors.

[Place Figures 2 and 3 about here]

Phase 2: Independent Samples *t* Test

To test for statistically significant differences of work motivation between the two sectors, we used an independent samples *t* test method by dividing the sample on the basis of the two

groups—public (Group 1) and nonprofit (Group 2) sectors. Drawing upon CFA results, we tested

all six types of motivation of public and nonprofit managers. From the Table 2 to Table 4, the

results of the test indicate that the mean levels of intrinsic motivation, nonprofit service

motivation (NPSM), and work-life balance (WLB) motivation among public and nonprofit

managers are not significantly different ($p > .1$), which means that public and nonprofit managers

are similarly influenced by these types of motivators regardless of the sectors where they work.

On the other hand, Table 5, 6, and 7 illustrate that the t-tests of security motivation, advancement

motivation, and monetary motivation among public and nonprofit managers are statistically

significant ($p < .05$). That is, the mean levels of public managers' motivation for security,

advancement, and salary is greater than those of nonprofit managers, and the difference is

statistically significant – public managers are more motivated by these extrinsic factors than

nonprofit managers are.

<div align="center">[Place Tables 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 about here]</div>

Phase 3: The Effects of Motivations in Public and Nonprofit Agencies

Tables and 8 and 9 present the results of hierarchical multivariate regression analyses of

public and nonprofit managers' perceptions and behaviors. In Phase 3, based upon the research

hypotheses aforementioned, we investigated the impact of antecedents (i.e., individual,

managerial, and organizational controls, four types of motivation, and social communication

variables) on outcomes (i.e., job engagement, personal civic activities, and volunteer activities).

The different equations (step 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5) were regressed on outcome variables to see the

changes in total variance affected by each step of factors (i.e., R^2 and F-value changes).

Public Organization Model

The model 1 assessed the effects of the antecedent variables on a short-term consequence (a mediator) – job engagement. Among the individual, managerial, and organizational attributes as controls, professional job responsibility (b= .207, $p < .05$), supervisory status (b= .083, $p < .01$), and state context (b= .183, $p < .01$) variables are significantly associated with job engagement (from step 1 to step 3). That is, public managers in Georgia who have a professional job responsibility with a higher level of managerial power are most likely to be engaged in their job. In step 4, the addition of the four motivation variables accounted for 19.3% of total variance in job engagement ($p < .01$). As predicted in hypothesis 1a, intrinsic motivation (b= 1.52, $p < .05$) is significantly and positively related to job engagement in public agencies. In contrast, except for advancement motivation (b= .054, $p < .05$), extrinsic motivation effects are not as significantly associated with job engagement as intrinsic motivation. Specifically, security motivation (b= -.055, $p < .05$) is negatively associated with job engagement suggesting that public managers who are mainly motivated by job security (e.g., benefit and retirement plans) are less likely to be involved with their work. In step 5, when two social communication variables were added, R^2 increased to 20.9%. **[Support Hypotheses 1a and 1b]**

The model 2 and 3 probed the relationship between antecedents and long-term consequences – personal civic activities and volunteer activities. The results of step 4 show that intrinsic motivation is positively and significantly related to personal civic activities (b= .186, $p < .05$) and to volunteer activities (b= 1.252, $p < .10$), suggesting that the more intrinsically motivated, the more public managers tend to be committed to civic activities, e.g., actively participated in religious and service organizations, political party committees, and volunteering

or charity organizations. Interestingly, in addition to intrinsic motivation, we found that advancement motivation (b= .084, $p < .10$) has a positive impact on increasing civic activities. In step 5, interpersonal communication and mentoring socialization are positively associated with civic activities and volunteer activities, respectively. The values of R^2 step 5 in model 2 and 3 indicate that 25.3% and 19.4% of total variance in civic activities and volunteer activities are explained by antecedent variables. **[Partially Support Hypotheses 2a and 2b]**

Nonprofit Organization Model

In model 1 (a short-term consequence), among the individual, managerial, and organizational controls (from step1 to step 3), we observed that age, managerial power, and organizational size are significantly and positively related to job engagement (R^2= .246). In step 4 where motivation effects were measured (R^2= .302), nonprofit service motivation (NPSM) (b= .078, $p < .10$) and work-life balance (WLB) motivation (b= .092, $p < .05$) are significant factors which give a positive impact on job engagement. The results support Hypotheses 1c and 1d that nonprofit service motivation (NPSM) would be positively associated with job engagement and that there are different effects of NPSM and other extrinsic motivation factors for nonprofit managers' job engagement. Although WLB motivation is not hypothesized as an intrinsic motivation, the result suggests that many nonprofit managers are motivated by the WLB factors such as family-friendly policies, alternative work schedules, and employment opportunities for spouse or partner. In step 5, mentoring socialization is also significantly and positively related to job engagement suggesting that mentoring programs in nonprofit agencies are very effective to enhance managers' job engagement overall. **[Support Hypotheses 1c and 1d]**

The results of model 2 and 3 (long-term consequences) reveal that most of the control variables do not have significant impact on personal civic activities and volunteer activities. From step 1 to 3, the values of R² are quite low and partial F values are not significant ($p> .05$). However, in the fourth step, we found that both of NPSM and WLB motivation are most powerful predictors of long-term consequences in nonprofit organizations – these motivators significantly and positively contribute to nonprofit managers' civic and volunteer activities. The motivation effects in nonprofit agencies accounted for 15.7% of total variance in personal civic activities and 18.9% of volunteer activities ($p < .05$). **[Support Hypotheses 2c and 2d]**

Phase 4: The Moderating Effects of Socialization in Public and Nonprofit Agencies

Hypotheses 3a to 3b and Hypotheses 4a to 4b postulate that with higher levels of effective mentoring and interpersonal communication, the relationship between motivation and outcomes is stronger. In step 6 of the regression models, we analyzed the effects of interaction terms – the moderating effects of two social communication variables on the relationships between different types of motivation and outcome variables in both of the sectors.

Public Organization Model

In model 1 (job engagement model), consistent with H_{3a}, mentoring and interpersonal communication have a significant and positive acceleration effects on the relationships between intrinsic motivation (b= .159, $p < .01$) and advancement motivation (b= .054, $p < .05$) and job engagement. Confirming H_{3b}, interpersonal communication also shows a significant moderating effect on the relationships between intrinsic motivation (b= .055, $p < .05$) and advancement motivation (b= .043, $p < .1$) and job engagement (R²= .286). The results suggest that the positive relationships between job engagement and motivation become more pronounced as the level of

mentoring or interpersonal communications increases, which supports the literature that has emphasized the important role of effective mentoring programs and interpersonal communications to enhance employees' affective behaviors such as intrinsic motivation (e.g., Bozeman & Feeney, 2009; Reid et al., 2008). **[Support Hypotheses 3a and 3b]**

In model 2 and 3, as H3c maintains, mentoring socialization provides a significant impact on the relationship between intrinsic motivation and civic and volunteer activities (R^2= .267 and .201, respectively). However, there is no statistically significant moderating effect of interpersonal communication on the relationship. **[Partially Support Hypotheses 3c and 3d]**

Nonprofit Organization Model

In model 1 of nonprofit agencies, the results confirmed Hypotheses 4a and 4b – the impacts of mentoring (b= .013, $p < .05$) and interpersonal communication (b= .442, $p < .05$) on the relationship between NPSM and job engagement are significant. In addition, we found that when mentoring is accompanied with other types of motivation, i.e., WLB motivation and security motivation, there are positive acceleration effects on job engagement – nonprofit managers are more engaged in their job through mentoring and communication with colleagues. **[Support Hypotheses 4a and 4b]** In model 2 and 3, consistent with H4c, the moderating effects of mentoring socialization on the relationship between NPSM and personal and volunteer activities are significant but interpersonal communication has only a marginal effect on the relationship. **[Partially Support Hypotheses 4c and 4d]** Overall, the results of the moderating effect in nonprofit model imply that effective mentoring program would be more beneficial to enhance job involvement and activities than interpersonal communication within agencies.

[Place Tables 8 and 9 about here]

Discussion and Implications

The need to create better management strategies in both the public and nonprofit sectors is one of the most pressing issues in public administration today. The contracting out of public services to the for-profit and nonprofit sectors makes understanding the motivation across the sectors a pressing issue for public administration researchers as we seek to be good stewards of resources and seek ways improve efficiency and effectiveness of services. Our results suggest several important implications for the management of both public and nonprofit organizations especially in terms of the type and shape of benefits and training programs that might be the most effective in enhancing outcomes for both individuals and their organizations. This study assessed the constructs of motivation in public and nonprofit sectors and analyzed the different types of antecedents and moderators of job engagement, personal civic activities, and volunteer activities. The results uphold key hypotheses and suggest a number of managerial implications for public and nonprofit managers.

Public and nonprofit employees are both significantly motivated by intrinsic factors. The factors that were most significantly related to motivation in both sectors included the overall reputation of the organization, ability to serve the public, and a desire for less bureaucratic red tape. The strong ties of both public and nonprofit managers to intrinsic motivating factors sheds light on the theoretical similarities between the two and suggest the workforces of these sectors are in many ways similar even though the organizational contexts are somewhat unique. In part, it is likely that what draws public and nonprofit employees to their jobs is their motivation to work in respected organizations and serve the public.

The results of CFA models in this study show that public and nonprofit managers are pursuing different types of work motivation – nonprofit managers are more motivated by a work

environment that allows for a balance between work and family than public managers. Public

managers are more inspired by monetary motivation than nonprofit managers. However,

managers in both of the sectors are motivated by intrinsic factors as well as security and

advancement motivators. In the future, these findings urge us to analyze and compare these

different types of work motivators across the sectors within broader organizational contexts.

However, some significant differences were observed in other attributes for the two sectors in

terms of motivation. Interestingly, public managers experienced higher mean levels of

motivation in the areas of security, advancement and salary than nonprofit managers. All of

these motivational characteristics are more related to extrinsic reward structures than might have

been suggested through earlier comparisons with the for-profit sector workers. So if we think

about intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation as a continuum across the different sectors than nonprofit

managers were the least motivated by extrinsic rewards and for-profit employees the least

influence by intrinsic motivation with public managers in between.

Nonprofit managers were much more motivated by benefits that helped them achieve a

work life balance. The emphasis on work life balance includes organizational practices such as

family-friendly policies, alternative work schedules, and employment opportunities for spouse or

partner. The strong relationship between these policies and motivation in the nonprofit sector

may be due to several characteristics of nonprofit sector organizations themselves and unique

characteristics of the nonprofit workforce. Nonprofit organizations often have very limited

budgets and limitations on their budgets has made them more aggressively seek alternative ways

to retain and attract talented workers, such as adoption of flexible schedules and family friendly

work environments. This may have led to workers who value this type of environment to select

the nonprofit sector over other sectors because of these benefits.

Another possible explanation is the overwhelming number of women that work in the nonprofit sector as a whole (Leete, 2006). The nonprofit sector in comparison to both government and the for-profit sector have a much larger percentage of female workers. It is likely the role that women play in this sector enhances the ties between work life balance and motivation for nonprofit sector employees.

Our models also suggest that motivation has implications not just for the organizations that employ individuals but also communities. Employees in the public and nonprofit sectors who are strongly engaged in their jobs and had strong mentorship were also more likely to display other prosocial behaviors. Mentorship of employees in both sectors enhanced outcomes related to civic and volunteer activities. This suggests that use of good human resource management tools such as mentoring, not only improves outcomes for public and nonprofit organizations but also improves other types of citizenship behaviors. The hierarchical regression analysis provides further evidence about relations among the antecedents, moderators, and consequences as well as the role of motivation, mentoring, and interpersonal communication. The results of moderating effects, in particular, demonstrate that effective mentoring and interpersonal communication should act as important moderators which strengthen the relationship between intrinsic or NPSM and certain types of organizational outcomes. Another interesting finding is that the mean levels of intrinsic motivation were not significantly different across the public and nonprofit sector managers. This suggests that motivation factors similarly influence managers regardless of sector. This is somewhat surprising based upon the findings of Word and Park (2009) that found that nonprofit employees were more involved in their job on average than public employees.

Appendix
Construction of Indices [a]
Selected Representative Survey Items

Motivations in the Public Sectors

1) Intrinsic Motivation Scale (Deci & Ryan, 1985) (two items)

a. The Overall quality and reputation of this organization
b. Ability to serve the public and the public interest

2) Security Motivation Scale (Bozeman & Murdock, 2007) (three items)

a. Job security
b. The organization's pension or retirement plan
c. Benefits (medical, insurance)

3) Advancement Motivation Scale (Bozeman & Murdock, 2007) (three items)

a. Opportunity for advancement within the organization's hierarchy
b. Opportunity for training and career development
c. Desire for increased responsibility

4) Monetary Motivation Scale (three items)

a. Salary
b. Relatively low cost of living in the region
c. Employment opportunities for spouse or partner

Motivations in the Nonprofit Sectors

1) Nonprofit Service Motivation Scale (NPSM) (four items)

a. The organization's reputation for opportunities for women or minorities
b. Overall quality and reputation of this organization
c. Ability to serve the public and the public interest
d. Desire for less bureaucratic red tape

2) Work-Life Balance (WLB) Motivation Scale (three items)

a. "Family friendly" policies (e.g. flexible work hours, parental leave)
b. Desire for a low conflict work environment
c. Employment opportunities for spouse or partner

3) <u>Security Motivation Scale</u> (Bozeman & Murdock, 2007) (three items)

a. Job security
b. The organization's pension or retirement plan
c. Benefits (medical, insurance)

4) <u>Advancement Motivation Scale</u> (Bozeman & Murdock, 2007) (three items)

a. Opportunity for advancement within the organization's hierarchy
b. Opportunity for training and career development
c. Desire for increased responsibility

Mentoring and Social Communication

<u>Mentoring Socialization Scale</u> (eight items)
(Standardized Coefficient Alpha: .762)

a. My mentor and I share similar professional values
b. My mentor helped introduce me to influential people in this organization
c. My mentor helped introduce me to influential people outside this organization
d. My mentor and I are friends
e. My mentor has helped me deal with "office politics"
f. My mentor has a great deal of respect for my ideas
g. Overall, my mentor has contributed a great deal to my success in this organization
h. I have a great deal of respect for my mentor's ideas

<u>Interpersonal Communication</u>
During the last five working days, what percentage of work-related mail, email, and phone calls respondents sent to persons within an organization (% of correspondence)?

Job Engagement

<u>Job Engagement Scale</u> (six items)
(Standardized Coefficient Alpha: .715)

a. I put forth my best effort to get the job done regardless of the difficulties
b. Time seems to drag while I am on the job (reversed)
c. It has been hard for me to get very involved in my current job (reversed)
d. I do extra work for my job that isn't really expected of me
e. The most important things that happen to me involve my work
f. I do not have enough authority to determine how to get my job done (reversed)

Personal Civic Activities and Volunteer Activities

<u>Personal Civic Activities Scale</u>

Please indicate which of the following organizations you are currently a member, if any.

a. Church, synagogue, mosque, or religious organization
b. Political club or political party committees
c. Professional societies, trade or business association, or labor union
d. Service organizations such as Rotary or Lions
e. Youth support groups (e.g. Girl's & Boy's club, Little League Parents Association)
f. Neighborhood or homeowners associations
g. PTA, PTO, or school support groups
h. Groups sports team or club (e.g. softball team, bowling league)
i. Other: Please specify

Volunteer Activities

In the last four weeks, how many hours, if any, did you engage in volunteer activities?

Individual-level Controls

Gender (dummy variable; female: 1)
Age
Ethnicity (dummy variable; non-white: 1)
Education (1= Less than college; 3= Graduate degree)

Managerial –level Controls

Job Responsibility (four categories: managerial, professional, technical and others)
Job Tenure (year job started)
Managerial Power (Supervisory status)

Organizational –level Controls

Organizational Size (natural log)
Organizational Age (natural log)
State Context (dummy variable; Georgia: 1)

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics: Public and Nonprofit Agencies

Variables	Public Agencies				Nonprofit Agencies			
	Valid N	Mean	Min	Max	Valid N	Mean	Min	Max
Individual Attributes								
Gender (Female:1)	796	.439	.00	1.00	370	.492	.00	1.00
Age	793	49	23	72	369	50.450	26	78
Ethnicity (Non-white: 1)	780	.189	.00	1.00	353	.048	.00	3.00
Level of Education (1= Less than college; 3= Graduate degree)	796	2.266	1.00	3.00	366	2.430	1.00	3.00
Managerial Attributes								
Job Responsibility: Manager	802	.64	0	1	374	.84	0	1
Job Responsibility: Professional	802	.24	0	1	374	.11	0	1
Job Responsibility: Technical	802	.08	0	1	374	.01	0	1
Job Tenure (year job started)	771	2.520	1.00	4.00	347	2.297	1.00	4.00
Managerial Power (the number of employees supervised)	677	2.579	1.00	4.00	341	2.569	1.00	4.00
Organizational Attributes								
Organization Size (natural log)	760	3.318	.70	4.27	344	1.445	.00	3.88
Organizational Age (natural log)	705	2.575	1.00	4.00	351	2.291	1.00	4.00
State Context (Georgia: 1)	802	.54	0	1	375	.23	.00	1.00
Motivation Effects (CFA factor scores)								
Intrinsic Motivation	792	-.036	-3.091	1.187				
Monetary Motivation	785	.144	-1.543	2.976				
Security Motivation	791	.217	-2.974	1.015	366	-.376	-2.974	1.015
Advancement Motivation	790	.046	-2.928	1.312	363	-.127	-2.928	1.313
Nonprofit Service Motivation (NPSM)					363	-.012	-2.654	1.756
WLB Motivation					363	.062	-1.805	1.753
Socialization Effects								
Mentoring Socialization	410	3.289	.62	4.00	194	3.410	1.75	4.00
Interpersonal Communication	786	68.40	0	100	368	50.35	0	100
Outcome Variables								
Job Involvement	792	3.188	1.29	4.00	365	3.46	1.57	4.00
Personal Civic Activities	802	2.551	.00	8.00	375	2.835	.00	8.00
Volunteer Activities	783	7.06	0	165	367	7.37	0	120

Figure 1: A Conceptual Model of Motivation and Consequences

Antecedents, Moderators, and Mediator

Motivation in the Public Service:

Intrinsic Motivation
Security Motivation
Advancement Motivation
Financial Motivation

Short-term Consequence: Mediator

Long-term Consequences

(+)

Job Engagement

(+)

Motivation in the Nonprofit Service:

Nonprofit Service Motivation (NPSM)
Work-Life Balance Motivation
Security Motivation
Advancement Motivation

Personal Civic Activities

Volunteer Activities

(+)

(+)

Individual-Level Controls:
Gender
Age
Ethnicity
Education

Organizational Moderators

Mentoring Socialization

Interpersonal Social Communication

Managerial –Level Controls:
Job Responsibility
Job Tenure
Managerial Power

Organizational – Level Controls:
Organizational Size
Organizational Age
State Context

······ : denotes moderating effects
——— : denotes mediating effects
– · – : denotes control effects

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Figure 2: Motivation in the Public Sectors (CFA Model)

Overall Fit Indexes of the CFA Model

Model 1	df	Chi-Square	CFI	NNFI	NFI	IFI	RFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Suggested Cut-off Values			>.95	>.95	>.95	>.95	>.95	<.08	<.08
A Measurement Model	212	232.44	.98	.96	.97	.98	.96	.058	.067

[a]Based on the WLS (ADF) method, all coefficients of the factor loadings (lambda-Ys and gammas) in this CFA model are standardized (t-statistics are in parentheses).

Figure 3: Motivation in the Nonprofit Sectors (CFA Model)
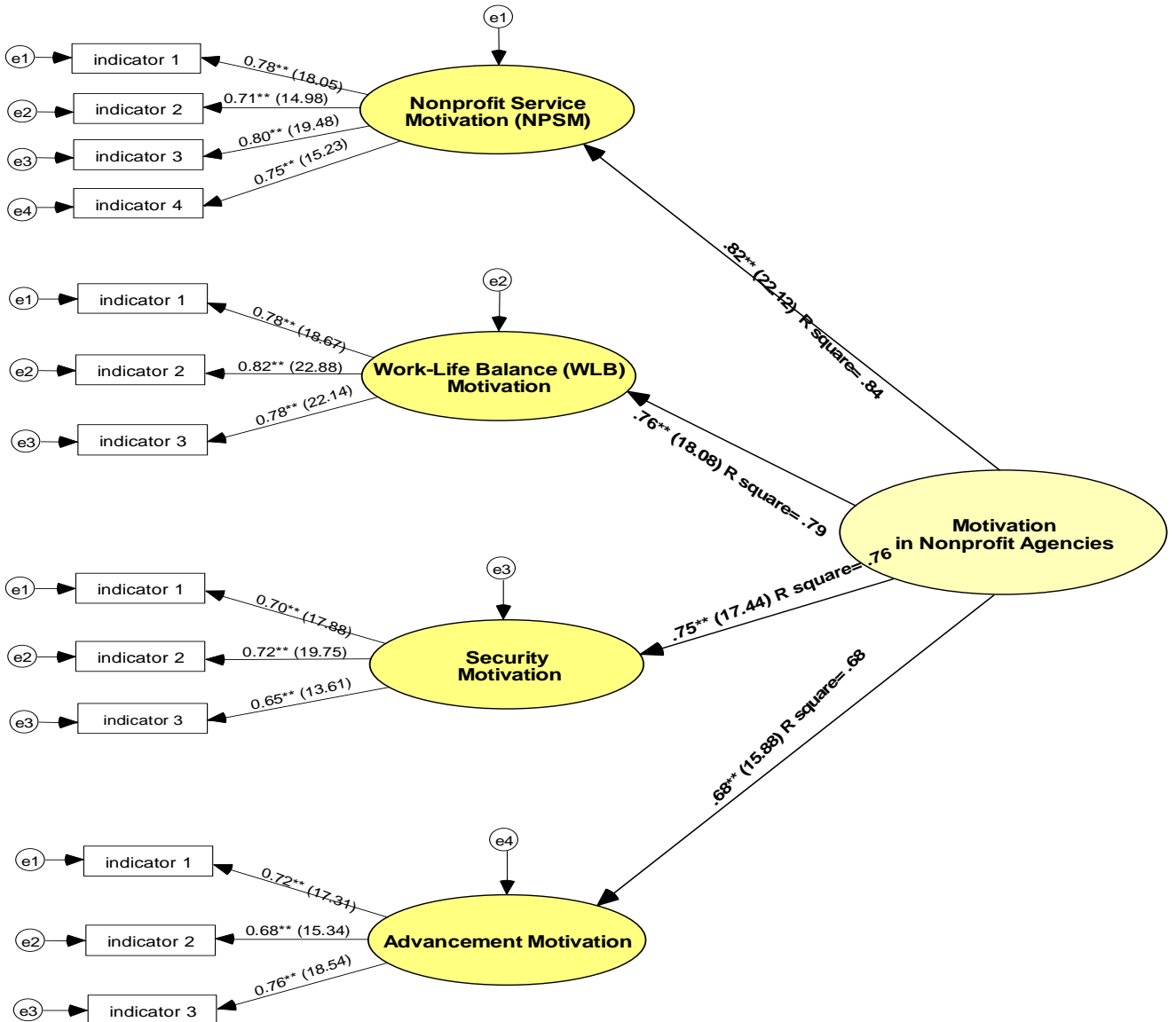
Overall Fit Indexes of the CFA Model

Model 1	df	Chi-Square	CFI	NNFI	NFI	IFI	RFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Suggested Cut-off Values			>.95	>.95	>.95	>.95	>.95	<.08	<.08
A Measurement Model	268	243.67	.96	.97	.99	.98	.96	.06	.067

[a]Based on the WLS (ADF) method, all coefficients of the factor loadings (lambda-Ys and gammas) in this CFA model are standardized (t-statistics are in parentheses).

Table 2: Independent Samples T Test:
Intrinsic Motivation in the Public and Nonprofit Sectors

		Levene's Test for Quality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Intrinsic Motivation	Equal Variance Assumed	2.034	.154	-1.751	1155	.080	-.11	.063
	Equal Variance Not Assumed			-1.710	668.713	.088	-.111	.065

Table 3: Independent Samples T Test:
Nonprofit Service Motivation (NPSM) in the Public and Nonprofit Sectors

		Levene's Test for Quality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
NPS Motivation	Equal Variance Assumed	.151	.697	.234	1149	.815	.015	.064
	Equal Variance Not Assumed			.234	702.849	.088	.015	.064

Table 4: Independent Samples T Test:
Work-Life Balance (WLB) Motivation in the Public and Nonprofit Sectors

		Levene's Test for Quality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
WLB Motivation	Equal Variance Assumed	.521	.471	-1.720	1146	.086	-.109	.063
	Equal Variance Not Assumed			-1.703	688.390	.089	-.109	.064

Table 5: Independent Samples T Test:
Security Motivation in the Public and Nonprofit Sectors

		Levene's Test for Quality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Security Motivation	Equal Variance Assumed	6.028	.014	9.886	1155	.000	.593	.059
	Equal Variance Not Assumed			9.379	627.191	.000	.593	.063

Table 6: Independent Samples T Test:
Advancement Motivation in the Public and Nonprofit Sectors

		Levene's Test for Quality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Advancement Motivation	Equal Variance Assumed	6.510	.011	2.742	1151	.006	.173	.063
	Equal Variance Not Assumed			2.653	649.811	.008	.173	.065

Table 7: Independent Samples T Test:
Monetary Motivation in the Public and Nonprofit Sectors

		Levene's Test for Quality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Monetary Motivation	Equal Variance Assumed	44.066	.000	6.950	1144	.000	.435	.063
	Equal Variance Not Assumed			7.602	877.633	.000	.435	.057

Motivations among Public Managers: Group 1
Motivations among Nonprofit Managers: Group 2

Table 8: Results of Hierarchical Multivariate Regression Analysis: Public Agencies

Antecedent Variables	Dependent Variables		
	Model 1: Short-term Consequence	**Model 2: Long-term Consequence**	**Model 3: Long-term Consequence**
	Job Engagement (N= 802)	**Personal Civic Activities (N= 802)**	**Volunteer Activities (N= 783)**
Step 1: Individual Attributes	Coefficient (SE)	Coefficient (SE)	Coefficient (SE)
Gender (Female:1)	.000 (.050)	-.201 (.194)	-1.534 (1.465)
Age	.005 (.003)	.012 (.011)	-.048 (.084)
Ethnicity (Non-white:1)	.102 (.061)	.439 (.238)	2.706 (1.797)
Level of Education	-.038 (.037)	.073 (.144)	**2.501**** (1.090)
Partial F Value	1.881	1.494	.071
R²	.028	.022	.032
Step 2: Managerial Attributes			
Job Responsibility: Manager	.133 (.122)	-.346 (.495)	2.510 (3.639)
Job Responsibility: Professional	**.207**** (.118)	-.197 (.481)	**3.973*** (3.737)
Job Responsibility: Technical	-.068 (.151)	-.130 (.614)	1.474 (4.634)
Job Tenure	.011 (.023)	.106 (.093)	-.149 (.701)
Managerial Power (Supervisory Status)	**.083***** (.030)	.100 (.122)	-.076 (.920)
Partial F Value	3.062***	.903	2.153*
R²	.097	.030	.039
Δ R²	.069	.008	.007
Step 3: Organizational Attributes			
Organizational Size (natural log)	.000 (.000)	.000 (.000)	**-2.459**** (1.647)
Organizational Age (natural log)	.000 (.001)	-.001 (.003)	.026 (.023)
State Context (Georgia: 1)	**.183***** (.053)	-.188 (.221)	.000 (.000)
Partial F Value	3.738***	.762	3.524**
R²	.151	.034	.135
Δ R²	.053	.004	.096

Step 4: Motivation Effects			
Intrinsic Motivation (IM)	**1.52**** (.030)	**.186**** (.128)	**1.252*** (.956)
Security Motivation (SM)	**-.055**** (.029)	-.134 (.123)	-.289 (.922)
Advancement Motivation (AM)	**.054**** (.028)	**.084*** (.119)	-.178 (.894)
Monetary Motivation (MM)	-.013 (.024)	.046 (.103)	.516 (.771)
Partial F Value	3.716***	3.569***	3.198***
R²	.193	.186	.171
Δ R²	.042	.152	.036
Step 5: Social Communication Effects			
Mentoring Socialization	**.087*** (.048)	.068 (.200)	**3.435**** (1.563)
Interpersonal Communication (natural log)	.001 (.001)	**.012***** (.004)	-.032 (.031)
Partial F Value	3.824***	4.015***	4.262***
R²	.209	.253	.194
Δ R²	0.16	.067	.023
Step 6: Moderating Effects of Mentoring			
Mentoring x IM	**.159***** (.048)	**.052**** (.025)	**.153**** (.688)
Mentoring x SM	.006 (.046)	-.183 (.206)	.112 (.088)
Mentoring x AM	**.054**** (.019)	.138 (.121)	.074 (.198)
Mentoring x MM	.051 (.039)	.131 (.099)	.001 (.003)
Step 6: Moderating Effects of Interpersonal Communication			
Interpersonal Communication x IM	**.055**** (.027)	.013 (.012)	.051 (.132)
Interpersonal Communication x SM	.097 (.165)	.066 (.397)	.077 (.0190)
Interpersonal Communication x AM	**.043*** (.026)	.032 (.104)	.343 (.243)
Interpersonal Communication x FM	.014 (.024)	.109 (.121)	.222 (.676)
Partial F Value	4.343***	4.312***	4.353***
R²	.286	.267	.201
Δ R²	.077	.010	.007

***p < .01: significant at the .01-level
**p < .05: significant at the .05-level
*p < .10: significant at the .10-level
Critical values (two-tailed test) are 1.96 for p < .05 and 1.65 for p < .10 (Std. Errors are in parentheses)

Table 9: Results of Hierarchical Multivariate Regression Analysis: Nonprofit Agencies

	Dependent Variables		
	Model 1: Short-term Consequence	Model 2: Long-term Consequence	Model 3: Long-term Consequence
Antecedent Variables	Job Engagement (N= 365)	Personal Civic Activities (N= 375)	Volunteer Activities (N= 367)
Step 1: Individual Attributes	Coefficient (SE)	Coefficient (SE)	Coefficient (SE)
Gender (Female:1)	.049 (.058)	**-.611**** (.238)	-3.248 (2.389)
Age	**.013***** (.003)	-.004 (.013)	-.033 (.133)
Ethnicity (Non-white:1)	-.356 (.139)	.079 (.573)	.290 (5.758)
Level of Education	-.007 (.047)	-.224 (.190)	-2.620 (1.905)
Partial F Value	5.872***	1.889	.863
R^2	.150	.053	.025
Step 2: Managerial Attributes			
Job Responsibility: Manager	-.104 (.154)	.406 (.636)	6.563 (6.439)
Job Responsibility: Professional	-.197 (.172)	.480 (.712)	7.646 (7.211)
Job Responsibility: Technical	.042 (.280)	-1.243 (1.156)	-6.358 (11.710)
Job Tenure	.029 (.031)	-.165 (.125)	-.664 (1.263)
Managerial Power (Supervisory Status)	**.072**** (.040)	-.217 (.165)	-1.779 (1.668)
Partial F Value	3.280***	1.468	.777
R^2	.187	.092	.051
ΔR^2	.037	.039	.026
Step 3: Organizational Attributes			
Organizational Size (natural log)	**-.103**** (.021)	.000 (.000)	-.001 (.002)
Organizational Age (natural log)	.001 (.001)	-.005 (.003)	-.038 (.033)
State Context (Georgia: 1)	.073 (.074)	.067 (.310)	.083 (3.179)
Partial F Value	3.392***	1.554	.707
R^2	.246	.128	.063
ΔR^2	.059	.036	.012

Step 4: Motivation Effects			
Nonprofit Service Motivation (NPSM)	**.078*** (.063)	**.109*** (.134)	**2.045*** (1.360)
Work-Life Balance (WLB) Motivation (WLBM)	**.092**** (.034)	**.328**** (.187)	**2.908*** (1.494)
Security Motivation (SM)	.043 (.032)	.069 (.134)	.414 (1.366)
Advancement Motivation (AM)	-.002 (.030)	-.046 (.127)	-1.895 (1.295)
Partial F Value	3.267***	2.431**	2.938**
R^2	.302	.157	.189
ΔR^2	.056	.029	.126
Step 5: Social Communication Effects			
Mentoring Socialization	**.158***** (.060)	-.072 (.264)	-1.587 (2.644)
Interpersonal Communication (natural log)	.000 (.001)	.001 (.005)	.097 (.087)
Partial F Value	3.488***	1.259	2.899**
R^2	.345	.158	.189
ΔR^2	0.43	.001	.000
Step 6: Moderating Effects of Mentoring			
Mentoring x NPSM	**.013**** (.005)	**.298**** (.145)	**.779*** (.398)
Mentoring x WLBM	**.045**** (.021)	.276 (.171)	.250 (5.343)
Mentoring x SM	**.012**** (.006)	.637 (.661)	1.655 (1.669)
Mentoring x AM	-.022 (.049)	.150 (.521)	.434 (1.344)
Step 6: Moderating Effects of Interpersonal Communication			
Interpersonal Communication x NPSM	**.442**** (.211)	.012 (.014)	1.443 (2.343)
Interpersonal Communication x WLBM	**.089**** (.431)	.296 (.198)	2.344 (6.212)
Interpersonal Communication x SM	.024 (.031)	.072 (.345)	1.344 (2.011)
Interpersonal Communication x AM	.037 (.152)	.766 (.769)	1.445 (2.777)
Partial F Value	5.123***	2.577**	2.901**
R^2	.411	.166	.194
ΔR^2	.066	.009	.005

***p < .01: significant at the .01-level

**p < .05: significant at the .05-level

*p < .10: significant at the .10-level

Critical values (two-tailed test) are 1.96 for p < .05 and 1.65 for p < .10 (Std. Errors are in parentheses)

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Notes

[1] Skewness can show whether the item's distribution deviates from the symmetry distribution. We can argue that skewness values outside the range of ±2 would be problematic because this is a serious level of skew. Kurtosis measures the degree to which the area in a distribution is in the middle and the tails of a distribution. As a rule of thumb, the range of ±2 is often considered as a significant departure from normality (Pedhazur, 1997). In this research, most items show a relatively stable and similar amount of variance. The results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro normality tests suggest that items in this study do differentiate responses fairly well. In terms of individual normality, most items have a high positive kurtosis value, which means that most respondents have selected the same response option. Most variables of skewness or kurtosis are all between $-2 < s(k) < 2$, and we can argue that these variables are approximately normally distributed. Relative multivariate kurtosis (1.155< 2.0) also indicates approximate multivariate normality.

[2] We created ordinal-level variables (four categories) for job tenure and managerial power because we have found that survey responses to these items were seriously skewed which might reduce the validity and reliability of these variables.

[3] We acknowledge the imperfections and limitations with our measure of communication variables based on employee attitude survey data – we measured the intensity (a percentage measure) of communication rather than measuring the actual quantity (a count measure) of measurement due to the limitation of operationalizing communication variables. What these communication indicators are measuring is the relative spending time that a manager communicates internally, relative to externally with business, or externally with government. Using a count measure, future research should examine how "intensity" of social communication would affect work motivation and organizational effectiveness.