

**A quantitative study into the impact of leadership on
employee motivation in an Irish civil service
department**

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Abstract

Purpose

The purpose of this paper is to investigate if leadership impacts employee motivation in an Irish civil service department. To advance the understanding of the role leadership has in the civil service this paper will examine any link(s) between leadership, motivation, public service motivation and job satisfaction.

Methodology:

A quantitative research approach was undertaken whereby questionnaires were issued to a cohort of administrative civil service staff, from one department. Participants were asked to rate effective leadership as they perceive it alongside other dimensions such as motivation, public sector motivation and job satisfaction elements. The data analyses was undertaken with 106 respondents' valid questionnaires where statistical measures were tested and investigated for relevance and impact.

Findings:

This study found that leadership in the civil service does not significantly impact motivation but does influence PSM. Based on the data, staff are principally influenced by work satisfaction and work satisfying dimensions.

Practical Implications:

This study will provide an insight into the influencing factors that improve or disprove employee motivation. Leaders /managers can use this information to improve and increase motivation and performance in the pursuit of organisational goals.

Research Limitations:

The limitations experienced with this study relate to the biases associated with self-reporting and the subjectivity of perception. The sample population for this study was from one civil service department and other research involving public service organisations have been on a grander scale so in comparison, this is a small-scale study.

This research was undertaken during a worldwide pandemic, so the normal working and academic environments were altered drastically.

Originality and value:

Research on the public sector in Ireland is deficient and there is a definitive lack of investigation around the subjects of effective leadership and motivation impactors in an Irish civil service context.

Keywords

Leadership, civil service, public sector, employee motivation, public service motivation, job satisfaction, job satisfying dimensions.

Abbreviations:

Civil service: CS

Public Sector: PS

Employee Motivation: EM

Public Service Motivation: PSM

Department of Public Expenditure and Reform: DPER

Linear Regression: LR

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1.0 Introduction

1.1 Academic Background:

Leadership is construed from various research fields such as social sciences, humanities, and management (Shafique and Loo-See, 2017). Leadership and motivation are interconnected and have the potential to influence each other, effective leadership is in essence the ability to motivate, (Săseanu, and Toma, 2019).

Over the last number of years leadership has been thoroughly researched and a focus for many studies, (Rehman, *et al.*, 2020), (Mandanchian, *et al.*, 2017). Employee satisfaction is reported to be associated with motivation and leadership (Shakil, 2020). Leadership behaviour and its effectiveness has been examined in varying facets and from many different aspects however there is gap in the research in reference to leadership and motivation in an Irish civil service (CS) setting.

Research has identified various leadership styles, alongside the debate of whether leaders gain followers through personal attributes or through their beliefs Grint (2004). Gardner (1993) states the importance of not confusing leadership with official authority/power and further extols that leadership requires huge effort and energy that not everyone is willing to exert. Gardner (1993) further determines that confusion in relation to leadership and authority can lead to disastrous consequences in an organisation. Grint (2004), raises the question of 'is the leader the person in charge'. Northouse (2015), on the other hand gives the view that leadership is when a person influences a group to succeed in attaining a joint goal/objective.

The CS has a history of reform throughout the decades, with influences from various studies and a particular focus on leadership. An OECD (2005) paper advised governments to modernise to best equip themselves to deal with changing international environments and differing societal needs. This reform included the generation of performance-based culture and the development of 'leadership'. The OECD report indicated that one of the goals of leadership

was to increase performance and relayed the importance of motivating public servants and moving towards a system whereby performance is monitored and managed effectively.

Irish led reform programs throughout the years have emphasised the importance of leadership and its pivotal function in change and employee management. In 1994 the government introduced the 'Strategic Management Initiative' (SMI), (OECD 2001) and this was succeeded by the 'Delivering Better Government (DBG, 996) program however, it was deemed that these programs did not go far enough in delivering radical reform. In light of this, the government introduced a more expansive program on reform based on the 'Programme for Government' which then led to the introduction of the 'Government's Public Service Reform Plan' (2011).

In more recent years the CS introduced two programs for reform and renewal, One Vision, (2014) was to unify the strengthen the capacity of the CS and it states that the CS performance is contingent on the performance of leadership, managers and staff. Following this the Department of Public Expenditure and Reform (DPER) presented 'Our Public Service 2020' which is the strategy and foundation for development and innovation in the public service.

The CS programs for reform emphasise that leadership and motivation are contributory in leading and managing the drive for improvement. Leadership and employee motivation are key drivers in organisational performance and effectiveness (Bedarkar and Pandita, 2014). Leaders in the CS differ from those in private industry as there is a greater focus on the societal impact of actions and decisions, all of which are open to examination and enquiry from government, the public and the media (Ozari, Turrini and Valotti, 2013). Not only do CS leaders differ but they behave differently according to Ozari, *et al.*, (2013). CS leaders do not have the same financial targets/rewards as their private industry counterparts however they are often faced with delivering public policy in complex environments with multiple public stakeholders.

Research indicates that employee behaviour and motivation can be positively influenced by leadership, however there is also evidence to suggest that both motivation and leadership can impact negatively on each other (Sougui, Mahamat and Hassan, 2017). Motivating employees is essential for performance outcomes and researchers have identified the necessity for good leadership for employee effectiveness (Alexandrov, Babakus, and Yavas, 2007).

Employee effectiveness does not solely rely on leadership, it is also dependent on an individual's motivations which can be intrinsic or extrinsic. Leadership has been associated with individual attitudes and organisational results in fields such as job satisfaction and performance (Walumbwa, *et al.*, 2005). Yukl (2010) remarks that effective leadership should be capable of discerning when to use alternate methods of influence to attain successful outcomes.

Motivational theories are expansive and varied such as self-efficacy, intrinsic, effort, expectancy theory, goal constructs etc., and this can lead to difficulty in the identification of employee motivators. There are numerous definitions of motivation such as an early version by Whiseand and Rush (1988) which refers to a person's willingness to do something to satisfy needs. Saraswathi (2011) later defined it in an organisational context whereby a person exerts effort to in line with organisation goals to satisfy a need.

Motivation can be intrinsic and each person will differ alongside their, desires, values and beliefs. External factors can also act as a stimulus for motivation and these come into play when someone does something in exchange for something i.e., money, praise, promotion etc or in order to avoid something unpleasant. Reiss (2012) describes intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as a dualistic theory and states that intrinsic motivation is doing something for its inherent satisfaction whereby extrinsic is doing something in 'pursuit of a goal'. Reiss and Havercamp, (1988) challenge the concept that motivation can be reduced to just two categories. They argue that human needs are too complex to be narrowed down to two factors and that a multifaceted approach should be considered.

The two-factor theory of motivation developed by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman, (1959), is also known as the motivator-hygiene theory and it purports that motivation is influenced by two sets of factors, hygiene factors and motivating factors. Herzberg, *et al.*, (1959) states that intrinsic and extrinsic motivators have an antithesis affect, in that intrinsic motivating factors increase motivation however, extrinsic stimuli can decrease motivation if not present.

Maslow's (1943), hierarchy of needs has similarities to Herzberg's theory whereby a person's needs on the lower end of the triangle only serve to prevent dissatisfaction whilst the needs at top must be met with intrinsic-factors for motivation to increase (Robbins, 2009).

Research on motivation in the Public Sector (PS) is interconnected with mentions of Public Service Motivation (PSM) and it would be amiss to ignore this concept when considering motivation in a civil service department. Perry and Porter's, (1982) research indicates that PS workers differ from other sectors and industries and therefor, so are their needs and values in the work place. Perry and Wise (1990) crafted PSM and defined it as a person's tendency to respond to motivations that are principally found in the PS such as civil duty and attraction to public policy.

Lee (2012) authors that the public sector organisations differentiate from private enterprises as the mission is different, value creation versus profit-maximising; stakeholders and outcomes differ as private organisations have shareholders that seek a return as an outcome while the public sector offers a public service as an outcome.

1.2 Research Gap

Over the last number of decades, research and literature pertaining to the topic of leadership has continued to prosper however, in recent years research on traditional leadership theories has declined, as new trends and theories emerge such as transformational, charismatic, ethical, and public leadership

(Gardner *et al.*, 2010). In contrast to this, leadership in the public administration arena does not garner the same volume of research (Vandenabeele, Andersen and Leisink, 2014). Lack of resources and researchers is one reason put forward by Van Wart (2003) while cynicism in the implementation of transformational leadership in the PS is the second reason (Currie and Lockett, 2007).

The researchers who have investigated leadership and motivation in the PS include; (Jabeen, Kahn and Manzor, 2020; Paarlberg Perry and Christensen, 2017; Anderson *et al.*, 2018). There is a large volume of research on motivation and leadership, however, there is a gap in the literature exploring the relationship between leadership and employee motivation (EM) in an Irish civil service (CS) context.

The bulk of previous research has taken place in America alongside some contributions from Germany and Switzerland. (Paarlberg *et al.*, 2017) noted that there is a greater need for 'diversity in geographic representation' and to that end it is envisaged that this paper will explore the relationship between leadership and EM from an Irish Civil Service perspective.

Furthermore, Vandenabeele, Scheepers, and Hondeghem (2006) posit that studies on PSM differ due to differencing country-national work variances, cultural belief and attitudes. Studies on PSM and its determinants from an Irish context are underprovided for and require further research. Taylor (2010) implemented some measures of PSM that were similar to Perry's Scale in private, non-profit and public sector organisations in Australia. The results signified that PSM was highest in the not for profit and public organisations. Other similar studies were conducted in Germany by Vandenabeele (2008) and in China by Liu *et al.*, (2011) who reported similar results but from only utilising two measures of PSM.

Mihajlov and Mihajlov (2016) report that studies in England and various European countries including Germany and Italy have indicated that public

sector workers are more satisfied in comparison to private sector workers in similar roles.

Forrester (2000) put forward the argument that management's intentions are only intentions, unless employees assign the same value to them. Management and staff must take the same perspective in order realise change. A high placement on an organisational chart may afford someone subordinates but not necessarily followers (Gardner 1993). Van Wart (2013) contends that leaders in the PS are those who hold positions in the organisation. Zubek (2020), poses the question of whether a manager is also a leader as he states that convention has shown that leaders are not always the ones who have formalised authority.

Bass and Riggio (2006) suggest that public organisations rely on bureaucratic elements of control and that transformational leadership is not as prevalent or as effectual in the PS when compared to private enterprises. Dundrum, Lowe and Avolio (2002) offer the opposing view that transformational leadership is as widespread and as effective in public organisations. The paper will investigate if leaders in the CS influence motivation or it is an autonomous act.

CS reform is set out in a program document 'One Vision' that actions the need to 'strengthen the performance management process' to motivate staff, but it does not provide any impetus on how this can be done or how leaders can impact motivation levels (DEPR, 2017).

1.3 Context and subject of this study

Organisational culture is defined by Schein (2004), as the set of rules, norms and values that are established in an organisation as the group seeks to contend with difficulties from external adjustments and internal integration, which are then indoctrinated as acceptable ways of thinking and acting. Zubek (2020) theorises that public organisations with low organisational culture can be a barrier to realising the organisations mission and leaders have a role in

connecting the staff with the mission in pursuit of goals for the organisation and the public.

This paper will focus on a large CS department whereby staff are of different civil service grades across varying administrative divisions. Administrative staff grades start at Clerical Officer (CO) followed by Executive Officer (EO), Administrative Officer (AO), Higher Executive Officer (HEO), Assistant Principal (AP), Principal Officer (PO), Assistant Secretary (A. Sec) and the department is headed by the Secretary General (Sec. Gen.)

Staff are located in the main office situated in Dublin. Decisions are made centrally and implemented as necessary, across the department. The department has a typical hierarchical structure that is dominated by staffing grades. Bureaucracy is highly evident and roles are grade structured along with the grade's associated responsibilities. Hvidman and Anderson (2016) report that PS organisations are often viewed negatively and that they are ineffective and hampered by heavily bureaucratic processes. To contrast this, Andrews, Boyne and Walker (2011) purport that there is not enough seminal evidence on public and private organisations to conclude that one type of organisation functions more efficiently than the other. A distinct difference between private and public enterprises is that public organisations do not have access to profit and market inducing incentives and controls (Rainey and Chun, 2007). Public organisations are associated with rules and regulations that are essential for functionality however, in addition to this they are seen to have rules and regulations that are onerous and unproductive (Blom, 2020).

The Department will not be named in this paper and this was done so purposefully in order to gain a greater degree of honesty and openness from respondents. Murdoch, Simon, and Polusny (2014) report that studies seeking sensitive information gain more disclosure when they are administered anonymously in comparison to confidential. A greater degree of engagement was anticipated by granting anonymity to both the department and the respondents. Andrews, Nonnecke and Preece (2003) denote that a disadvantage of anonymous online questionnaires is the problem of multiple

submissions from respondents. Konstan *et al.*, (2006) suggests that if someone is determined to complete a second or third questionnaire, they simply just use an alternative email address, therefore this negated Andrews *et al.*, (2003) contended drawback.

The department operates under the aegis of the government and is one of 18 CS departments. The government's current reform and renewal program is 'Our Public Service 2020' (OPS2020). Action 18 of the program identifies that organisational culture can impact performance and leaders will endeavour to improve culture and employee engagement (DEPR, 2021).

All CS employees participate in two-point performance management and development system (PMDS), whereby a person is deemed satisfactory or unsatisfactory. A paper by DPER in conjunction with DCU (2019) reported that this system was demotivating and did not address under or over performance. The paper also reported that 'most' civil servants demonstrate Public Service Motivation (PSM).

The objective of this paper is to examine the gaps identified in research and literature and with the use of primary data explore the impact of leadership in relation to motivating factors in an Irish CS setting.

1.4 Structure of the dissertation

This dissertation is organised in to 10 sections as follows:

- Section 1 Introduction
- Section 2 Literature Review
- Section 3 Research Question
- Section 4 Research Methodology
- Section 5 Data Measurement
- Section 6 Data Analysis and Interpretation
- Section 7 Discussion of Analyses
- Section 8 Findings
- Section 9 Conclusions
- Section 10 References
- Section 11 Appendices

2.0 Literature Review

Introduction

The literature review will examine the following main areas, leadership, motivation, PSM and jobs satisfaction dimensions. The associated theories, styles and characterises will be presented alongside researcher opinions and evidence. The function of leadership will be explored in relation to both motivation and PSM.

Leaders must ensure employees are motivated in order to reach their own potential, have job satisfaction and obtain organisational goals (Arnolds and Boshoff, 2002). The subject areas of this paper will provide a framework for discussion on CS motivation and how leaders can improve and optimise employee engagement to increase performance personally and professionally.

This study will investigate if CS employee's motivation (EM) is a result of leadership, altruism (PSM) or other motivational factors such as job security and flexibility as identified by Vandenabeele and Van de Walle (2008). Discussion amongst researchers on the impact of leadership on EM still prevails with Blomme, Kodden and Beasley-Suffolk (2015) proffering affirmation to support that fact that EM decreases when governed by poor leadership. In contrast to this Vogel and Masal (2012) argue that a leader's role is not critical and a change in leadership has no effect on EM. Positively, Anderson (2016) puts forward the idea that leaders are capable of inspiring and motivating their followers to obtain set goals. Furthermore, Mau (2020) asserts that public sector leaders are as significant as political leaders for organisational success. Orazi, Turrini and Valotti (2013) proffer that public sector leadership is developing as a separate independent area of knowledge. De Gennaro (2018) establishes that transformational leadership and its effect on PSM is an area of research that few authors have undertaken.

Motivation will be reviewed and its associated theories for context and relevance. PSM will be explored and researched for relevance to employee

motivating factors. PSM suggests that those who are involved in PS work are motivated to do so by a sense of public service duty or wanting to make a difference in society. Is PSM a reflection of those who chose vocational careers i.e., front line workers or does it extend to administrative staff also? Job satisfaction will be considered and assessed for any impact on CS employees.

2.1 Leadership

Leadership is referred to as the human element that joins a team together and motivates them toward set objectives (Ng'ethe, Namusonge and Iravo, 2012).

2.1.1 Leadership Theories

For several decades' leadership has been an integral part of research and literature in connection with the subject areas of management, the organisation and motivation. The research has been developed from the Great Man theory and the associated trait theories. This was followed by contingency theories which further evolved into the development of leadership styles.

Early research indicates that theories on leadership focused on physiological and psychological traits, with the 'Great Man', trait theory, taking centre stage for decades (Carlyle, 1841). This theory centres around the idea that people are born with the requisite traits to be leaders, however this is not empirically validated. The question 'are leaders born or made?' is still one that is debated today. Spencer (1873) argued that the Great Man theory was primitive and unscientific, he purported that leaders were products of society through his work the Study of Sociology, (Spencer 1873).

Trait theories were popularised in 1920's and 1930's where the focus was on identifying the traits that leaders had in comparison to non-leaders. The trait theory centres on the assumption that leaders have certain physical, social and personal characters innately. It was considered that if a leader's traits, qualities and behaviours could be identified then this would allow leaders to

be predetermined. The trait theory did not consider the situation or environment and it did not determine if the traits were inherent or if they could be acquired. Personality tests were used to identify traits of leaders but Van Wart (2003) argued that this was not a robust method to predict characteristics in varying contexts. Ahmed, Nawaz and Khan (2016) articulate that the trait theory failed to detect the commonality of every trait effective leaders possessed and this led to the theory falling out of favour

The trait theory of 'leaders are born' was undermined by the University of Michigan and Ohio State Leadership Studies which centred on a behavioural approach but also considered differing situational environments (Hernandez, Eberly, Avolio and Johnson, 2011). Stogdill (1948) was critical of the trait theory and emphasised the need to consider the situation alongside the situation. Both studies are criticised for not producing sufficient evidence to alter practise (Vroom and Jago, 2007).

Avolio (2009), (cited in Turner and Baker, 2018) recognised that up until the end of the 1970's, leadership theories were traditional theories, including behavioural, contingency and situational. Behavioural theories identified the behaviours of successful leaders and the focused on what successful leaders do rather than their traits. Hunt and Larson (1977) defined leadership as a subset of behaviour.

Contingency theories suggest that the one size does not fit all, and leaders should adapt their leadership style to suit differing situations. Some associated theories include Fiedler's contingency theory (1967), Hersey-Blanchard situational leadership model (1977) and Vroom-Yetton-Jago (1988) contingency model. Hodgson and White (2003) propose that effective leadership is getting the correct equilibrium between behaviours, wants and the conditions.

Transformational leadership (TFL) also known as relationship theory takes the viewpoint that leaders motivate and inspire through connections with followers. Leaders are focused on not only the process but also their followers/team.

Allen (2016) states that transformational leadership empowers and inspires followers for the combined good of the organisation. A transformational leader motivates by behaviour, of which Bass (1997) identified four key dimensions; charismatic, inspirational, intellectual and individualised consideration.

Riggio (2009) states that there is evidence to show that transformational leaders experience greater levels of effectiveness from followers than other leader types. In contrast to this Alveeson and Karreman (2016) proposed the modification of this construct. They contend that the achievement of leadership and transformational leadership is due to 'ideological appeal' and that it is interwoven into research which leads to favourable outcomes. Diaz-Saenz (2011) critique transformational leadership by also referring to the glorification of leadership, problems with measurement, a deficiency in the consideration given to context and confusion relating to charisma. Van Knippenberg and Stikin (2013) espouse that the postulation of the construct of charismatic transformational leadership is imperfect with a lack of definition and theory to support how the elements influence mediating processes and outcomes, alongside a defective measurement system.

Yukl (2002) states that leadership throughout time has uncovered four re-occurring features; it is a process, it involves influence, it requires a group setting and is in the pursuit of stated goals. Leaders do not work in isolation and they cannot display leadership without engaged followers. Okumbe (2013) describes leadership as helping and motivating followers, to work enthusiastically, to obtain predefined goals and objectives which combines and confirms the four stated elements of leadership according to (Yukl 2002).

Lussier and Achua, (2015) state that since the 1980's the topic of leadership has engaged scholars and practitioners alike, as the business environment changes with an ever-growing focus on the strategic operations of organisations. Leadership is a topic that evolves as does the business environment it operates in.

2.1.2 Leadership Perspectives

Different authors have differing concepts of leadership; Lorenzet, Eddy and Mastrangelo (2014) describe it as the power to influence and modify the behaviours of others. Munroe (2005) states that the nucleus of leadership is to influence for a common goal or purpose. The common theme amongst leadership definitions is, inspiring followers to attain a collective goal/objective (Northouse, 2009), (Vroom and Jago, 2007).

Leadership is pivotal in any organisation, not only for organisational performance but for future prosperity. An essential role of leadership is to motivate others so they can achieve great things (Vroom and Jago, 2007). Many researchers have shown that there is a meaningful relationship between leadership and motivation (Basford, Offerman and Wirtz 2012), however it should be noted that different types of leaders (styles) impact EM differently, (Chipunza, Samuel and Mariri, 2011).

Quintana, Park and Cabrera, (2015) conducted a study stating that a relationship does exist between leadership and EM, however, this study was on a private sector industry. The study used a Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), (Avolio and Bass 1997), which was adapted for use in this study. The MLQ is an extensively used survey to assess transformational and transactional leadership behaviours (Hunt 1999). Carless (1998) suggests that the MLQ lacks stability when used in alternative studies. In contrast Antonakis and House (2002) advocate that the MLQ provides the opportunity for evolving and progressing a wider ranging theory of leadership. Research provided by Antonakis, Avolio and Sivasubramaniam (2003) indicate that the current MLQ is a reliable measurement instrument that measures different dimensions incorporating the full-range leadership theory.

Within the CS, leadership is teamed with grade(s) and is expressed by competencies rather than personal qualities. Job design according to Grant and Parker (2009) has seen the reappearance of social characteristics of work. Research shows that interpersonal interactions are vital in building a solid foundation for the work that employees do, Oldham and Hackman (2010).

Work in the CS is highly structured, so are employees influenced to a better job because they have a 'good' leader or do they do a good job because they feel obligated to?

There have been numerous studies undertaken on the subject of Leadership from a PS viewpoint, such as Wright and Pandey (2010) and Fernandez (2005) however, in comparison to the volume of literature on leadership in other areas, leadership in the PS is the lesser known.

Fernandez (2005) states that leadership literature is diffused with weak, unpredictable and diametric findings. The study focused on creating a framework for PS leadership and it was tested in an educational setting only, so the author questions its validity for other public management areas. Wright and Pandey's (2010) study on 'Transformation leadership in the public sector' contributes to the thinking around leadership in the PS. The study provides rationale on why transformational leadership is more prevalent and at a higher level in PS in comparison to conventional management streams.

The theory of traditional leadership has mainly focused on leaders and an individual's actions excluding the systematic procedures that leadership works within and is impacted by (Uhl-Bien, 2006). From research, the main thesis put forward was the concept of leader centricity however, this had been widely criticised as portraying leaders as heroic beings whereby leaders practise ideals were perceived as 'great' leaders, Gronn (2002).

The terms leadership and management can cause ambiguity as anyone can be a leader and they do not have to have managerial status to lead. Conversely a manager is not automatically a leader or have the automatic capacity to lead. An alternate view offered by Morrissette and Hatfield (2006) (cited in Shafique and Loo-See 2017), states that 75% of managers, manage rather than lead. Many authors differ in opinion regarding the similarities and or differences of managers and leaders (Simic, 2020). This study will not attempt to resolve this complex issue and instead focus on defining leadership in the CS environment.

Research shows that effective leadership is a key component in the success or downfall of any enterprise (Madanchian, *et al.*, 2017). An alternative viewpoint is that organisational performance is not significantly impacted by leadership, Pendleton and Furnham (2016). Leadership in the CS is considered a key driver in organisational success, efficiency and reform (DPER, One Vision, 2017)

2.1.3 Effective Leadership

Stogdill (1974) articulates that leadership has nearly as many definitions as the people who have sought to determine the theory. Theorists and researchers have proven unsuccessful in establishing an overarching definition of leadership as it is influenced by a myriad of differing theories relating to traits, behaviours, interactions, relationships, influences and organisational culture. The term 'effective leadership' is even more ambiguous and difficult to determine

Throughout time the CS has introduced and implemented many programs for reform and renewal and a common theme amongst these programs is the requirement for leadership; effective leadership (Senior Public Service, 2017)

A comprehensive review of leadership in the Irish CS asserts a shift in understanding whereby, there is a transition from looking at what motivates employees in the PS to how motivation can impact and shape performance (McCarthy, Grady and Dooley, 2011). Research indicates that there is growing evidence to demonstrate a positive association with transformational leadership and performance in the PS (Moynihan, Pandey and Wright, 2009). Disparity in research indicates diametric results with some studies reporting negative / insignificant results with regard to elements of transformation leadership on motivation, (Masi and Cooke, 2000).

2011 saw the establishment of the Senior Public Service (SPS) which was set up to acknowledge the requirement for 'effective, unified leadership', (SPS, 2017). The SPS management committee consisted of a panel of senior civil

servants at top levels from a number of departments. They developed the 'Leadership Development Strategy (2017-2020)' which is a high-level paper established to meet the needs of leaders, organisations and the system. This report states that senior leaders are required to be effective leaders who can communicate the organisations strategic needs and vision to their teams. This brings about the question of what are the determinants of an 'effective leader'?

Effective leadership appears in most leadership studies however it is ill defined and appears congruent on many different aspects such as personality, situation, task, behaviour, organisation and followers. Northouse (2015) stated that it is a process whereby by an individual influences a group in pursuit of a common objective, however this statement lacks clarity on how effectiveness is achieved.

Cote (2017) suggests that effective leadership could be considered effective under any of the following leader-follower approaches; transformational, charismatic, transactional, and situational. Each one can have positive and negative traits. Trottier, Van Warf and Wang (2008) proffer that some leadership styles are thought to be more advantageous than others. Offering a different dimension, Armstrong (2012) counsels that no particular style of leadership is greater than another, however he does state that leadership types are reliant on elements such as the organisation, leader's personality, the role and followers. Leaders who are cognisant of how different styles of leadership can suit different situations can increase effectiveness (Northouse, 2015).

Research on the concepts of effective leadership was carried out by Yukl (1999) whereby it was stated that the transformational and charismatic leadership theories provided an understanding of leadership effectiveness. In this research study, earlier theories were overlooked and Yukl suggests that the scope of the theories should be expanded on. It is advised that further research should focus on characterising relevant behaviours and how effective leadership can take into consideration the competing values in organisations.

There is a definite requirement for further research in this area. How can organisations extol the virtues of effective management without defining it?

Owusu-Bempah (2014) reports that the definition of effective leadership has caused dissention amongst researchers and leaders alike. Due to the emergence of some high-profile leadership scandals (Enron, WorldCom and Lehman Brothers) any existing descriptions of effective leadership should be examined. Controversy continues to surround the exact determination of effective leadership and a gap in the research was identified whereby the role of followers was ignored as the role of leaders took centre stage.

A follower-centric approach is often used to determine effective leadership in research. Effective leadership is contingent on culture perceptions and norms of what is considered effective. For instance, in the USA followers have a preference for leaders who are assertive and visible and they view this as effective leadership, in contrast followers in Japan view leaders who are working in the background as more effective and followers in Malaysia value leaders who are humble and this contributes to their view of effective leadership, (Aycan, 2008). Yukl (2020) asserts that followers play a pivotal role in leadership because a leader cannot lead without followers.

Researchers contend that in order to understand effective leadership, an examination of the follower's expectations and perceptions in differing situations must be undertaken (Gerstner and Day, 1994). Owusu-Bempah, Addison, and Fairweather, (2014) posit that a leader's effectiveness is a consequence of how they are perceived by their followers and different groups of followers will perceive different leadership characteristics as effective. This area of research is complex and the measurement of follower's perception of effectiveness in varying situations is still embryonic and evolving.

Value-based leadership provides for the needs, wants and values of followers and is not subject to situational changes, (Burns, 1978). O'Toole (1996) described the characteristics of value-based leadership as integrity, vision, trust, clear thinking, inclusion, listening and respect for followers all of which

bare some similarity to the CS values of integrity, impartiality, equality, fairness and respect (DEPR, One Vision, 2017).

DPER an Irish CS department in conjunction with DCU (2019) produced a document 'Shaping the Future of Work in the Civil Service in Ireland' and it stated that none of the Higher Executive Officer's questioned could communicate their own leadership style, and furthermore they were unable to ascertain a leadership style that was valued and connected to the CS. This statement is thought provoking and confirms that leadership in the CS must be clearly defined if it is to be 'effective'.

This paper will explore leadership in the CS from the follower's perspective and any correlation to the motives that influence them. Everyone has their own intrinsic beliefs on what makes a good leader (Junker and Van Dick, 2014).

2.2 Motivation

Motivation is a fundamental factor that influences employee's performance. Motivation in an organisation is paramount for the pursuit of personal and organisational goals (Zareen, Razzaq, and Mujtaba, 2015). Research has established that there is a significant relationship between an employee's motivation and achievement, the more they are motivated, the more they achieve (Khuong and Hoang 2015).

An original management theorist, Taylor (2016), purported that simplified, specialised tasks and monetary reward were the main motivators for employees. Sinclair *et al.*, (2005) also asserts that that money is the most significant motivator in comparison to other options such as security and recognition.

Research suggests that highly motivated employees are a product of highly motivated leaders and leadership can impact on employee performance, positively or negatively (Wuryani, *et al.*, 2020). Additional studies have proven

that leadership is a determining factor in CS employee's motivation Fernandez, Cho and Perry (2010) thus providing the catalyst for this paper.

2.2.1 Motivational Factors

Motivating employees to achieve high performance in order to increase organisational performance is the main aim of every organisation (Lee and Wu, 2011). Latham and Pinder (2005) surmise that work motivation as a group of elements that are intrinsic and extrinsic, it is a psychological process involving the employee and the environment they are interacting in.

Saif, *et al.*, (2012) put forward the three main processes to motivation; content, process and contemporary theories. The psychological needs of motivation are referred to in process theories whereas, content theories describe factors that affect motivation; personal needs, motives and rewards (Dinibutun, 2012).

Needs theories include the renowned Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's two factor theory and McClelland's acquired-needs theory (cited in Steel and Konig, 2006). Process theories cover, Vroom's expectancy theory, and Porter-Lawler model (cited in Dinibutun, 2012). Contemporary theories include, goal setting, job design theory and control and agency (cited in Ghanbarpour, and Najmolhoda 2013). Motivation theories mainly suggest that motivation is either intrinsic or extrinsic. It is suggested that extrinsic motivation is the lesser known and researched area (Kuvaas, *et al.*, 2017)

This study investigates the intrinsic and extrinsic stimuli in relation to EM and how they can be utilised to increase performance and satisfaction. Intrinsic motivation is an inherent satisfaction whilst extrinsic motivation is dependent on the receipt of an outcome. Leaders cannot solely rely on extrinsic, hygiene factors to motivate; they must look at enriching the job role so employees are challenged and engaged.

Extrinsic motivators positively effect performance and do not diminish intrinsic motivation (Shaw and Gupta, 2015). Extrinsic rewards immediately conjure up thoughts of pay and financial rewards which are either non-negotiable or

non-existing in the CS. Marciano (2010) states that if employees are satisfied with their financial rewards, then other motivational factors must be considered in order to improve performance. Extrinsic motivating factors do not create a desire for the activity, the task is being performed solely to gain a reward (tangible) or to avoid a punishment (psychological). As Locke and Schattke (2019) succinctly declared, 'all motivation involves people wanting to get or avoid something'.

Deci and Ryan (1985) who advocate the self-determination theory (STD), put forward that concept that intrinsic motivation is dependent on; competence, autonomy and connection. All these factors are primarily internal sources of motivation. Providing positive feedback can increase self-determination and intrinsic motivation. If an employee's encounters difficulty completing duties and are subject to criticism, this results in a decreasing level of competence.

Much debate surrounds intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and the implications that result in employee performance. Researchers have generally reported that both factors positively predict favourable outcomes in relation to employee performance, (Porter and Lawler, 1968), (Vroom, 1964). In contrast other literature indicates that by providing employees who are intrinsically motivated with extrinsic rewards it can have a negative effect and undermine autonomy (Deci, Ryan and Koestner, 1999). Controlling behaviours diminish the feeling of autonomy. Behavioural economic studies evidence the fact that tangible motivators and penalties decrease a person's 'want' to perform an task for its own sake (Bowles and Polonia-Reyes, 2012).

Li, Wei, Ren and Di (2015) expresses the belief that a leader is responsible for improving an employee's performance intrinsically. Leaders can contribute and enhance an employee's wellbeing and performance in the pursuit of organisational effectiveness by increasing autonomy (Strauss and Parker, 2014)

Research indicates that the key drivers that determine an employee's motivation differs according to the industry they are in, private or public, Buelens and Van den Broeck (2007). It was ascertained by Houston (2000)

that employees in both sectors value work that has meaning, however; those in the private sector consider a high-income very important while PS employees' value, security, promotion and income in that order. Rainey, *et al.*, (2017) recognised that traditional motivational schemes when applied to the public sector have limiting results. Research shows that traditional motivation structures are designed around extrinsic, self-interest and financial incentives which are not all applicable in a CS setting.

2.2.2 Job Satisfaction

Robbins (1998) defines job satisfaction as ones' approach to work which is supported up by (Chen, Zhao and Liu 2012). Myung, McDonald and Park (2015) assert that there is a limited number of empirical studies in the PS that explore the connection of followership to job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction research in general relates to the measurement of job satisfaction and/or the association with other variables such as performance. The tasks and responsibilities of civil servants are interconnected with performance and performance is impacted by many elements including job satisfaction (Irwan, *et al.*, 2020).

Aziri (2011) maintains that previous studies have evidenced that job satisfaction significantly impacts the motivation of employees. which in turn impresses on performance.

Alternative research indicates that job satisfaction did not have a substantial influence on outcomes amongst civil servants Abidin (2018), Ekawati, *et al.*, (2019), (cited in Irwan *et al.*, 2020). Owing to research results differing with no one school of thought, it was deemed necessary to re-examine job satisfaction in relation to civil service employee performance. Taris and Schreurs (2009) confirm that research indicates that there is a positive association between job satisfaction and performance.

Robbins and Judge (2015) purport that several factors are responsible for employee satisfaction including leadership and motivation. Bass and Stogdill

(2010), promote the concept that leadership impacts a person's performance and this can have either a positive or negative effect on performance. Job satisfaction and performance are intrinsically linked to the motivation of civil servants (Irwan *et. al.*, 2020). The greater a person's motivation, the greater the performance.

Employees who exhibit high levels of job satisfaction are more inclined to be committed to the organisation, have increased positive outcomes and are less likely to leave the organisation (Chen *et al.*, 2012). Oppositely low job satisfaction can result in poor performance which can lower organisational performance (Rhodes and Toogood, 2016).

Job satisfaction is a changeable dimension that can affect many areas of an employee's wellbeing and affect their psychological and spiritual health which can improve or disprove their wellbeing and ultimately impact on the efficiency in the workplace and organisational performance (Esmaeili and Seidzadeh, 2017). Afraidi (2018), (cited in Irwan *et. al.*, 2020) conducted research which resulted in the study showing job satisfaction is instrumental in influencing employee performance.

Saif *et. al.*, (2012) indicates that research has classified two groups of variables that affect jobs satisfaction, environmental and personal characteristics. Job satisfaction theories interrelate with motivational theories and they nearly all start or discuss the evolution of the 'scientific' management viewpoint that was attributed to Taylor (1911) whereby money is the main motivator for job satisfaction. This theory was criticised by Mayo (1924) during the Hawthorne Studies, it was found that multiple factors were responsible for the motivation and satisfaction of employees including morale, relationships and communication. Locke (1969) states that job satisfaction is when a positive emotional state is gained from the application of a person's principles to the job. People will gain more satisfaction from a job/ task if it is consistent with their own values and this is particular pertinent to employees in the civil service and the role of public service motivation. Steijn (2004) conducted a study of over 14,000 Dutch PS employees where the findings reported that individual

characteristics had little effect on job satisfaction however job and organisational characteristics were more influential and intrinsic elements presented as the predominant contributing factor.

Providing managers / leaders with an understanding of the level of employee satisfaction towards their work and what the most satisficing factors are will provide them with an important tool in increasing or maximising performance through satisfaction Inuwa (2015). DeCremer (2003) reports that the nature and type of relationship that a leader and follower form impact greatly on the sense of job satisfaction an employee feels.

Under Action 25 of the 'Civil Service Renewal Plan', the Irish CS pledged to conduct a number of employee surveys. The survey seeks to examine employee points of view on a variety of subject areas such as leadership, employee engagement and well-being in order to gain feedback that can be acted upon to improve the working life of employees. The most recent results are from 2017, whereby over 21,000 completed the survey, (Civil Service Employee Engagement Surveys, 2021).

The 2017 CS employee engagement survey reported that 'well-being' was at 75% which is a measure of the extent that employees can realise their potential and feel able to cope with day-to-day work stresses. It is influenced by how competent employees feel in meeting their job demands and how their skills match job expectations. The figure for this area is deemed significant as it is linked to job performance and job satisfaction.

The area 'job skills match' was reported at 60% which is less when benchmarked against other European countries. Research shows that job satisfaction can be impacted when a person's abilities and skills are not appropriately matched to the job (Farooqui and Nagendra, 2014). When it came to pay only 46% of participants agreed that their pay 'adequately reflects my performance' which also impacts job satisfaction and performance (Civil Service Employee Engagement Surveys, 2021).

Researchers in the public management arena suggest that public employees have to overcome barriers such as inadequate promotional opportunities, lower pay and bureaucracy, all of which affect job satisfaction levels (Rainey, 2014), (Light, 2008). Job satisfaction in the PS is often pitted against the private sector and it is argued by some that public sector workers are more inclined to have greater job satisfaction than their private sector counterparts (Wang, Yang and Wang, 2012) while others maintain that private sector employees have the greater sense of job satisfaction (Rainey, 1983).

Taylor and Westover (2011) denote that PS employees have a preference for particular characteristics in the workplace which can affect levels of job satisfaction. They state when compared to private sector workers, PS employees are reported to be motivated to a greater degree by intrinsic elements of work rather than extrinsic. Private sector employees are documented as placing 'high salary' as the most significant dimension of the job, whereas PS employees commonly give a higher degree of significance to work that impacts public policy, autonomy, work that is interesting and learning new things (Frank and Lewis, 2004).

Much debate surrounds the varying attitudes and behaviours of those in the public sector vs private sector and empiric research indicates that there is an appreciable deviation in the levels of job satisfaction for employees in both sectors (Mihajlov and Mihajlov, 2016). Research based in Italy indicated that public sector workers were on average 3.5% more satisfied with their roles and responsibilities in comparison to their contemporaries in the private sector which was attributed to working conditions (Ghinetti, 2007). Additional studies demonstrate that better salaries, monetary and non-financial benefits impacted on the extent of job satisfaction in public sector workers (Luechinger, Meier and Stutzer, 2008), (Clark and Senik, 2006)

The continuous debate of job satisfaction, motivation and leadership in the PS continues but often with diametric results. This paper will look at examining these three intertwined elements for connectivity and influence.

2.3 Public Service Motivation (PSM)

PSM is the study of what motivates people to pursue public good; it also refers to the element of public sector work that motivates others to do well for the greater good of many (Perry and Wise, 1990).

Rainey (1982), was one of the researchers to investigate behaviours of managers in private and public organisations. This research examined if motivations amongst the managers, intrinsic and extrinsic were similar or differentiated. The investigation found that public sector managers were more reactive to public service issues in comparison to managers in the private sector. This finding initiated the concept that those working in different sectors had different motivational triggers and people working in the PS were drawn to motivations that shaped public interest.

Perry and Wise (1990) refer to PSM as a challenge to the traditional theory with regard to work motivation. Traditional theorists suggested that people are motivated by analogous motivations irrespective of the sector; public, private, government and non-profit. PSM is expressed by Perry and Wise (1990) as a person's propensity to want to provide services for the good of others/society. PSM is generally described as altruistic but it is not exclusive to the PS, (Perry and Hondeghem, 2008). PSM is a combination of motivational factors and they are linked to prosocial behaviours. Bozeman and Su (2015) dispute that the paradigm of PSM has not been sufficiently differentiated from associated paradigms i.e., altruism and further theoretical research is required to understand the impact of PSM. A further criticism of PSM came from Ritz (2011) who observed that some elements of the PSM measure were inadequately formulated and therefore should not be included in future studies. Despite the criticisms, PSM is considered a valuable construct that has been instrumental in the furtherance of research with regard to the large volume of literature pertaining to public administration (Harari, *et al.*, 2016)

PSM does not refer to the motivation for choosing a PS career, but what it does refer to is the motivation of employees to do 'public good'. It challenges

the concept that people are self-maximising to secure position and power. Are CS employees primarily motivated by PSM, this study will investigate this viewpoint. Previous studies on transformational leadership and PSM, showed that PSM had a favourable association with job satisfaction which affected performance (Callier, 2014), (Park and Rainey, 2008).

In order to determine PSM, four measures were conceptualised; compassion, self-sacrifice, attraction to policy making and commitment to public interest (Perry, 2000). Compassion and self-sacrifice are classified as affective motives, whilst policy-making is rational and public-interest is norm-based. The affective motives are often viewed as the main tenets which portrays altruism and prosocial values. The rational and norm-based motives are linked to public service and public organisations.

Research on PSM makes references the characteristics that influence it. Camilleri (2007) suggested that the organisational context was the greatest control variable of PSM however (Camilleri, 2009) put forward the idea that employees in the PS are stimulated by their perception of pay and promotion opportunities. Different influencing factors were continually put forward however the main tenet to be gained from the differencing views is that they all reference personal characteristics and organisational attributes in the effect of PSM.

PSM theory suggests, it is greater for those working in the PS however, researchers Anderson, Pallesen and Pederson (2011) investigated PSM levels in groups of physiotherapists working in both sectors and found that there was no difference in PSM levels of employees completing the same duties.

The essence of PSM is to do good and help others so therefore rewards are more attuned towards intrinsic motivators in comparison to the private sector where extrinsic motivators are more common (Steijn, 2008).

Vandenabeele (2009) reports of strong evidence that PSM is positively associated with job satisfaction and performance. Homberg, McCarthy and Tabvuma (2015) report that the PSM dimensions, public interest and self-sacrificing showed the strongest effect. This paper will explore and test PSM for any association with leadership using an adaption of Perry's scale of measurement.

2.4 Literature Review Conclusion

From the review of leadership theories, it is notable that leadership plays a vital role in influencing others in order to achieve organisational success by increasing employee performance. The study of leadership in the PS has provided many researchers with notable findings. Charismatic leadership was founded on bureaucratic organisations (Weber, 1947). Studying political leadership led to the forging of transformational leadership which contributed significantly to the leadership literature, leadership (Burns, 1978).

Research and literature on leadership is continually changing and offering differing viewpoints as the role of leadership changes alongside the organisational context. Leadership is an influential factor that increases or decreases employee outcomes and organisational performance. Leaders can modify behaviours, attitudes, motivational levels and performance by adapting the determinants of motivation and job satisficing dimensions to increase commitment and performance output.

Research states that leadership can be a major factor in either the success or failure of an organisation (Jabeen, *et al.*, 2020). Managing employee motivation, satisfaction and performance is a continuous challenge for management. This study aims to contribute to the examination of leadership and motivation in an Irish CS context which requires further investigation (Bryson, 2014). The Irish civil service has undertaken many programs for action under the areas of reform and renewal with a greater focus on output, increasing effectiveness and efficiency. In any organisation where economic or career incentives are ineffectual, managers and leaders alike must look at

'what' actually motivates employees and leverage these driving forces to fulfil and increase the needs of the individual for the combined good of the organisation.

Motivation in the CS is different to that of a private enterprise as the organisational context is different alongside the factors that motivate and are available to motivate. Perry and Wise (1990), produced the main body of research into PSM and this is widely accepted as a variant of motivation. Job satisfaction is vital for the individual as it is an internal function that requires consideration in order to increase performance.

Based on the research conducted there are some conflicting findings with divergent viewpoints from different authors (Rainey *et al.*, 2017), (Deci *et al.*, 1999). However, there are similarities and reoccurring themes of interconnectivity amongst the subjects of leadership, motivation, job satisfaction as per previous studies (Perry and Wise, 1990), (Vandenabeele and Van de Walle 2008), (Park and Rainey, 2008). The literature review demonstrates the significance of the stated dimensions and the influence they have on employee behaviour in the realm of public administration.

3.0 Research Question

This study will systematically examine the relationship between leadership and employee motivation in the context of an Irish Civil Service department. For the purpose of this study the following research question (Hypothesis 1) and sub-questions will be examined.

Hypothesis 1: **Leadership significantly impacts motivation in an Irish Civil Service department?**

Sub-objectives:

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant relationship between leadership and PSM in the CS

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and motivation is the CS

The result of the hypothesis will either be the null hypotheses, (H_0), that there is a significant impact between the variables examined or the alternative, (H_1), that there is no significant impact between the variables examined in the study.

4.0 Research Methodology

The methodology proffers the research with its philosophical standpoint, principals and suppositions that underpin the foundation of the study (Bailey, 1987).

Crotty (1998) describes the research process as a process with four elements. Each element defines the next; epistemology, theoretical perspectives, methodology and methods. Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson (2012) represent ontology and epistemology via a diagram of a tree whereby both ontology and epistemology are depicted at the trunk. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016) offer an alternative framework to describe the research process, the framework is likened to an onion that has several layers, each layer leading to the next until the core is reached whereby data collection and analysis methods are selected. Both diagrammatic representations may initially appear to be dichotomous however, they both give prominence to the fact that ontology and epistemology are the foundations for research (Johnston, 2014).

The research framework undertaken in this study is anchored to Saunders, *et al.*, (2019) 'Research Onion' and was adopted in the development of the methodology for this paper. The research onion provides a supportive layered model for the appropriate selection of each research method (Saunders *et al.*, 2019).

4.1 Research Philosophy

Research philosophies are divided into two divergent belief systems: ontology the study of being, which is concerned with what exists and epistemology the nature of knowledge, the way of knowing and learning about reality (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Research philosophy relates to how the researcher views the world; this study takes an epistemological outlook, which alchemises information into knowledge, justified belief (Horne, 2019).

Saunders *et al.*, (2019) further identified various perspectives that relate to how the researcher views the research process such as, realism, positivism and interpretivism. The positivist view is that the world can be determined objectively and in comparison, the interpretivist outlook is that the world is subject to interpretation (Easterby-Smtih *et al.*, 2012). Saunders *et al.*, (2016) suggest that a researcher's design is affected by the perspective they take.

McAuley, Duberley and Johnson (2007) proffer that positivism is the main philosophical position in a large volume of organisational theory and is often considered the automatic perspective for research that is intended to advance management performance.

A positivist philosophy was selected for this study as it adopts a distinct approach to exploring phenomena resulting in quantifiable evidence to either confer or reject the findings of the experiment and study (Mukhles and Al-Ababneh, 2020).

4.2 Research Approach

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2017) classify two types of research approaches; deductive and inductive. Inductive reasoning generates theories from observations that then form perceptions and theories from them (Locke, 2007). Deductive reasoning begins with a theory and builds upon it by the generation and testing of hypotheses and then reviewing the theory (Nola and Sankey, 2007)

Consequently, a deductive approach was deemed the most apt for this study as it culminated in the use of literature to identify and discuss theories and the use of data to test and report on.

4.3 Research Strategy

This layer of the proverbial research onion considers how the study will be carried out and, in this instance, the elected strategy was survey (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). The survey strategy is often used in quantitative research and refers to the process of collating data by means of a questionnaire, that is issued to a sample population (Bryman and Bell, 2011). The data will either support or reject the research hypothesis. Rovai, Baker and Ponton, (2014) affirm that quantitative research is considered a deductive approach. An online questionnaire was selected as a strategy and email was the chosen survey medium for distribution.

4.4 Research Method and Time Horizon

Collated data can be qualitative, quantitative or a combination of both. Qualitative data generally refers to non-numerical data whereas quantitative data incorporates numerical data that can be measured and analysed (Daniel, 2012). This study will use a mono method which will be quantitative data. A cross sectional approach was adopted in this study due to time constraints whereby the questionnaire was live for one week. Data was collected over a period of one week. An advantage of cross-sectional studies is that they reduce the amount of time and money required to undertake a research study (Jackson, O'Callaghan and Adserias, 2014).

Lindell and Brandt (2000) state that cross sectional studies are susceptible to validity errors owing to use of one-shot or single source data. Additionally, the respondents themselves may cause measurement errors as Rindfleisch, *et al.*, (2008) reports that respondents are prone to answering questionnaires in a consistent manner and the survey can be vulnerable to a person's disposition at the time of answering which can impact their answers.

4.5 Data Collection

4.5.1 Sample Size

The population in this study is represented by all (530) administrative staff from a singular CS office. Probability sampling was undertaken as it indiscriminately takes from the wider population and therefore generalisations of the population can be made, it also has a lesser risk of bias (Cohen, *et al.*, 2017). Daniel (2012) remarks that a strength of probability sampling lies in its ability to make statistical inferences from the sample, however, he also states a weakness of this approach is the lack of exploratory function and need for a large sample size. A simple random sampling method was employed whereby each person within the population had an equal opportunity to partake in the questionnaire. A total of 530 administrative staff members were emailed and this was comprised of staff with differing genders, grades, ages, experiences and divisions.

4.5.2 Pilot Test

Prior to issuing the questionnaire to 'All' staff, a pilot study was undertaken whereby the survey was sent to 10 staff members from across the department in order to illicit feedback on the questionnaire design, questions and ease of use. Turner (2005) contends that pilot studies are a critical component for any project or piece of work as it contributes to the minimisation of risk or misperception.

The responses received from the pilot run provided feedback on the construct of the questionnaire with many citing 'confusion' over how questions were posed. As a result of the feedback questions were adapted, simplified and reworked.

4.5.3 Questionnaire Construction

A descriptive questionnaire was chosen in order to identify frequencies between respondents on different subjects for assessment (Collis and Hussey, 2003). The questionnaire was anonymous and did not require or record any personal information or email addresses. The questionnaire was constructed

in Google Forms and was sent as link in the email body for ease of access and to comply with internal IT guidelines. The email was sent to all 530 staff with text informing them of the purpose and background to the questionnaire. The questionnaire was split into 7 sections and consent was required from the outset. If consent was not provided the questionnaire did not progress and respondent could not partake. *Appendix A*

The different sections on the questionnaire are fully outlined in further detail in Section 5 of this study.

4.5.4 Response Rate

The questionnaire was issued via email to all administrative staff in a CS office. Everyone had an equal opportunity to respond to the questionnaire. Ranchhod and Zhou (2001) state that using email as a means to send out a questionnaire is disadvantageous and cite low response rates as a major concern. Other authors suggest that the response rate depends on the content of the questionnaire rather than the method of issue (Fraught, Green, and Whitten, 2004). Michaelidou and Dibb (2006) suggest that short questionnaires are more inclined to elicit more responses,

The questionnaire was issued to staff members via email with 67% responses collected on the first day of issue. Nulty (2008) poses the question of what is an adequate response rate, and in response he states that this is dependent on how the data will be used. Dillman (2000) cites nonresponse errors as a lack of uptake from respondents who fail to engage with a questionnaire, however, it is suggested that in today's society of self-administration this is unavoidable.

The data from the 106 respondents was collated and statistically analysed by utilising methods such as descriptive, reliability and regression analysis.

5.0 Data Measurement

The use of questionnaires is to facilitate the acquisition of data in a standardised format and when collated allows for determinations to be made about the sample population, which is indicative of the wider population (Rattray and Jones 2007). Esyenc (1978) maintains that reports of varying quality are input into a computer with the expectation that people will care less about the integrity and calibre of data on which inferences are based and references the adage 'garbage in -garbage out'.

The questionnaire used in this study consisted of 47 questions in 7 clear sections with the respondent selecting answers from a given range or scale, no text answers were allowed or required. The first section requested consent and the second section collected information about age and gender. The third section sought answers to work related questions such as grade and years of service. The remaining sections canvassed for responses on leadership, motivation, PSM, work satisfaction and work satisfying dimensions.

Appendix B

5.1 Measuring Leadership

Leadership and follower paradigms impact on how participants think and respond, however the respondents are not consciously aware of this and therefore this cannot be regulated (Hunt, Boal, and Sorenson, 1990). Avolio and Bass (1997), developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire-(MLQ) Rater form (5x-short) which was adapted for this study to measure outcomes of leadership behaviour rather than leadership styles. The MLQ uses a five-point Likert scale for reporting. The Likert scale is widely used in research and is considered a stable instrument for questionnaires resulting in good coefficient alpha (Martins and Proenca, 2014). Bryman and Bell (2011) asseverate that the MLQ is one of the most prominent and used scales in the sphere of organisational behaviour. They further maintain that the MLQ's wide acceptance is attributed to its sound psychometric qualities.

Ten questions were asked regarding the respondent's perception of leadership and these answers were aggregated to create a mean score for testing. Research has shown that by aggregating respondents scores for leadership, it disregards the variations in relationships among staff and leaders (Vidyarthi, *et al.*, 2010)

5.2 Measuring Motivation

An Employee Motivation Questionnaire (EMQ) was employed as part of the questionnaire to measure and capture employee motivation. The questions were adapted from an 18- item Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivational Scale (WEIMS), Deci and Ryan (2000), (cited in Tremblay *et al.*, 2009). The WEIMS questionnaire was adapted for this study whereby respondents were asked to select their response using a Likert scale, from 1 (does not correspond at all) to 5 (corresponds exactly) to the reasons why they are presently working in the CS. Seven motivation related questions were asked and scores were transformed into means scores for testing.

5.3 Measuring PSM

Many studies have used Perry's scale (1996) but there are criticisms, owing to the uncertainty of whether it actually impacts job performance or decisions, Wright and Grant (2010). Researchers have suggested that measurement of the scale can vary according to geographic location, history, political and institutional context. In this regard, scholars have added new dimensions to the scale, Vandenabeele (2008) added a governance scale, whilst Giaugue, *et al.*, (2011) added dimensions that are country specific. Kim (2009) noted that the attraction to policy-making component was a poor fit with the other three elements, and research indicates that further studies are needed.

PSM was measured with an amended version of Perry's (1996) scale as the questions in the original questionnaire caused confusion and ambiguity amongst the test group. The text was altered to provide clarity for participants. The Likert scale of measurement was used ranging from, strongly disagree to strongly agree for five questions.

5.4 Measuring Job Satisfaction

A highly popularised job satisfaction research measurement is the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ); (Weiss, *et al.*, 1967) which uses a 5-point Likert scale. The MSQ is adapted for use in this paper as it has been widely studied and validated (Fields, 2002). The Likert scale ranged from very dissatisfied (1) to very satisfied (5). Nagy (2002) indicates that there is some divergence on how job measurement should be measured however Scarpello and Campbell (1983) cited in (Nagy 2002) evidenced that a single five-point scale was the optimum global way to measure job satisfaction.

The MSQ presents job satisfaction as being connected to either intrinsic or extrinsic elements of the job/role. Seven questions were adapted for use in the questionnaire, four extrinsic and three intrinsic.

5.5 Measuring Job Satisfying Dimensions

The MSQ short version (Weiss *et al.*, 1967) was used as a basis for ten questions that were posed to rate the respondent's satisfaction with job dimensions such as salary, work life balance and variety of work. The scale used a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) not at all to (5) extremely important. The ten questions were divided, five extrinsic and five intrinsic questions.

5.6 Ethical Considerations

Cohen *et al.*, (2017) state that ethical considerations are interspersed throughout the entire research process. At the outset this study the researcher conducted a review to identify any risks from a procedural or ethical standpoint and following this the required ethical considerations form was filled out and submitted to the college.

In order to protect the organisation and the respondents, no identifiable or personal information was used, collected or stored therefore, negating any possible ethical considerations in relation to identity or the use of personal

data. The selected method for hosting the questionnaire was Google Forms as this was an accepted survey tool in the organisation.

When respondents accessed the questionnaire, they were immediately presented with text requesting consent and consent was required to proceed with the questionnaire. All respondents had the right to withdraw from the questionnaire at any point and their scores were not recorded. Respondents were invited to partake in the questionnaire in a personal capacity and on a voluntary basis.

5.7 Limitations

There are limitations to this paper and self-reporting is one of them. Survey respondents answered the questionnaire on their perceptions which can be influenced by varying factors. There is an associated bias with self-reporting so this will be noted when processing the data results. Responses will be from within one department which may not be representative of the whole CS. Permission to send out the survey was limited to employees in one geographical location. Participation was voluntary.

Research has shown that non response is a problem Levin (2006). Another identified risk was that of partial responses so the questionnaire was constructed so that all questions must be answered and the participant cannot proceed without submitting a response for each question (Crawford, Couper and Lamias 2001).

The greatest limitation was Covid-19 and having to conduct all research for the dissertation by online means only.

6.0 Data Analysis

The data collated from the online survey was exported to Excel where it was coded and then transferred to SPSS. The data in SPSS was then transformed by assigning values and measures to the variables (questions).

6.1 Descriptive Statistics

This segment of the paper employees' descriptive statistics to give a summarily view of the data and describe some of the main tenets and attributes of the respondents and answers. *Appendix C*.

Descriptive statistics include the independent and dependent variables from the questionnaire offering an overview of the data. The independent variables are age, grade, length of service, full-time/part-time, management and or coach/mentor staff alongside leadership. The dependent variables are motivation, PSM, job satisfaction and the job satisfying dimensions of work.

Table 6.1.1 shows the demographic data in tabular format. The largest group of respondents were represented by the 45-54 age bracket who accounted for 36.8%, followed by the 35-44 age group accounting for 26.4%. Female participation was recorded at 50%, males at 45.3% while the remainder 4.7% preferring not to say. The grade that responded in the greatest number was Executive Officers (EO) at 33% and in contrast the Principal Officers (PO) grade were at the opposite end of the scale with 7.5% (Figure 2).

Respondents with 20+ years of service in the CS accounted for 42.5%, although those with 0-4 years were the second largest group at 24.5%. The majority of staff work full time, 92.5%.

Table 6.1.1 Demographic data

Age	Percent
18-24	3.8
25-34	12.3
35-44	36.4
45-54	36.8
55-64	19.8
65+	9
Grade	
CO	8.5
EO	33
AO	12.3
HEO	19.8
AP	18.9
PO	7.5
Years worked in the CS	
0-4	24.5
5-10	14.2
11-15	3.8
16-20	15.1
20+	42.5
Gender	
Male	45.3
Female	50
Prefer not to say	4.7

57.5% staff said that they manage staff, however, a slightly reduced number confirmed that they coach and/or mentor staff at 53.8%, this may indicate that not everyone who manages staff also coaches/mentors or vice versa.

Leadership, Motivation, PSM, Work Satisfaction (WS1), and Work Satisfying Dimensions (WS2) were measured and examined using a mean score for linear regression analysis.

6.1.2 Leadership

This section asked participants to identify the organisational level they were at, in comparison to the leader they were scoring and posed questions on their perception of effective leadership. The scoring ranged from 'not at all' to 'frequently /if not always. The majority, 81%, chose to rate a leader who was

at a higher organisational level. Respondents were asked to select the grade of the person they were rating and the top three grades selected were PO at 33%, Assistant Principal (AP) 30.2%, and Higher Executive Officer (HEO) 25.5%. (Figure 1). The grade least selected was that of Secretary General which accounted for less than 1%. This may communicate that respondents identify with their supervisor or someone closer on the organisational chart as a leader.

The process of leadership influences diverges according to how close or distant followers are from their leaders, and furthermore it is contended that leadership effectuality is dependent on the level of proximity that followers require from the leader in differing situations (Antonakis and Atwater, 2002).

Figure 1: Chosen leader- grade

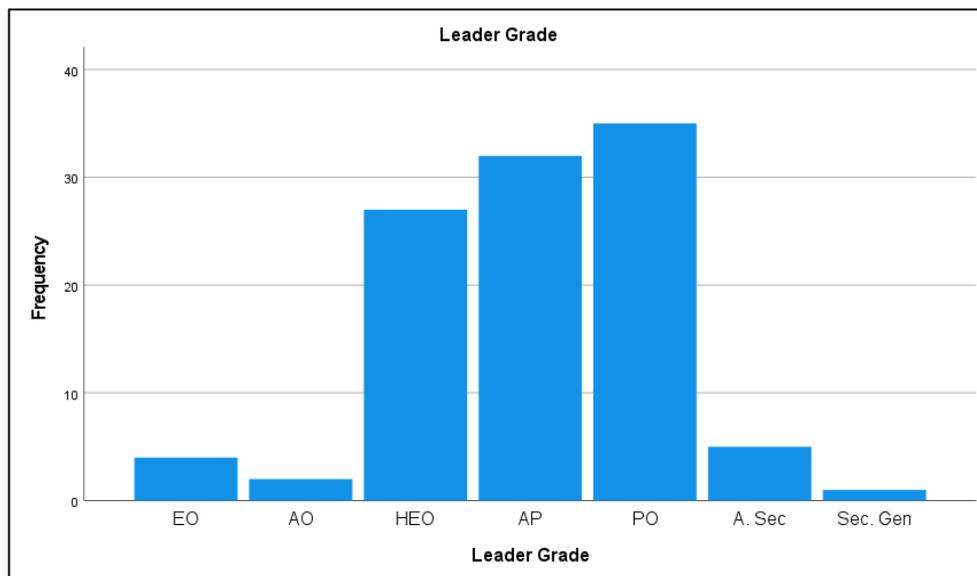
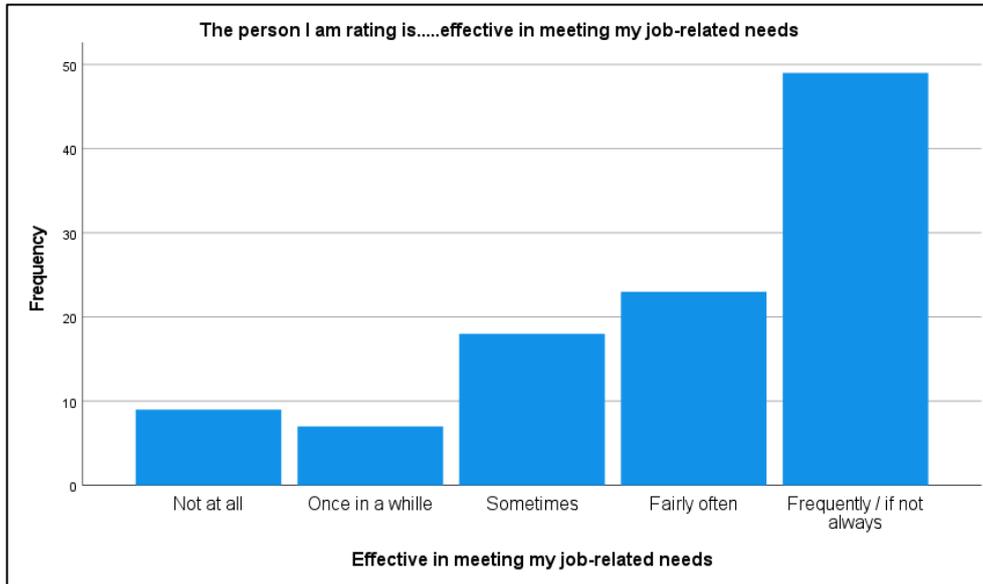


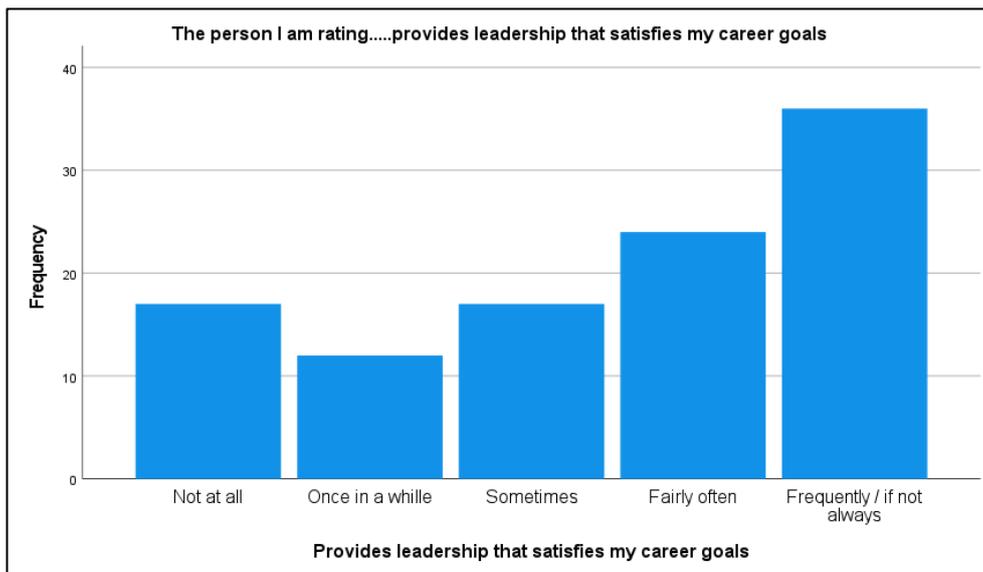
Figure 2. shows the responses to the question that garnered the highest response level and the highest rating of ‘frequently / if not always’; it was in relation to a leader meeting the respondent’s job-related needs at 46.2%. This was closely followed at 45.3% of respondents ‘frequently /if not always’ agreed that the leader they were rating was effective in meeting organisational needs.

Figure 2: The person I am rating is effective in meeting my job-related needs



In comparison, questions relating to the leader 'providing leadership to satisfy career goals' and 'increases my desire to succeed in the job' both scored 16% on the 'not at all' option (Figure 3).

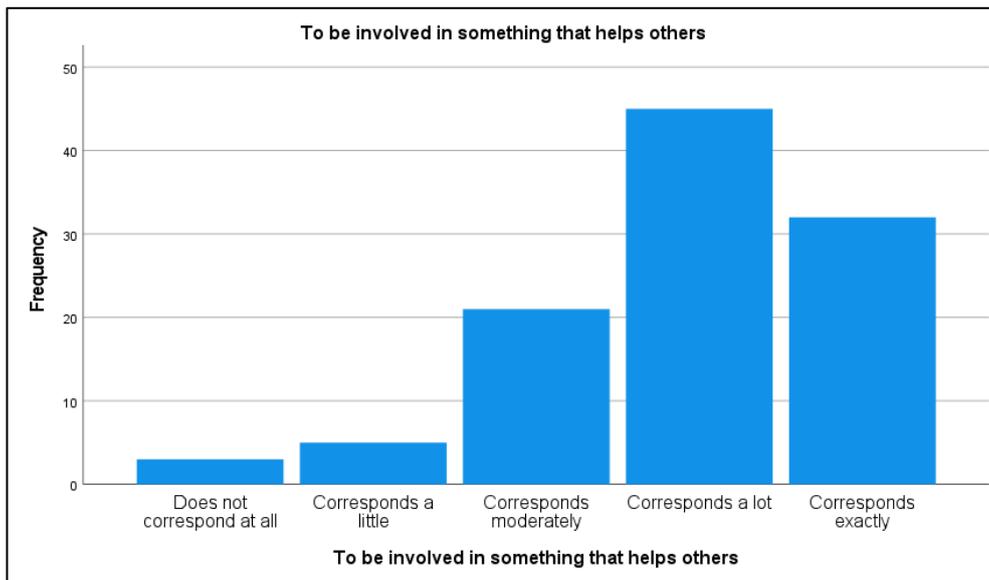
Figure 3. The person I am rating, provides leadership that satisfies my career goals



6.1.3 Motivation

Respondents were required to evaluate questions on intrinsic and extrinsic motivating elements using the scale of 'does not correspond at all' to 'corresponds exactly. Respondents rated the reasons why they work in the CS. The question that had the highest percentage score at 42.5% was 'to be involved in something that helps other's'. Figure 4.

Figure 4. To be involved in something that helps others



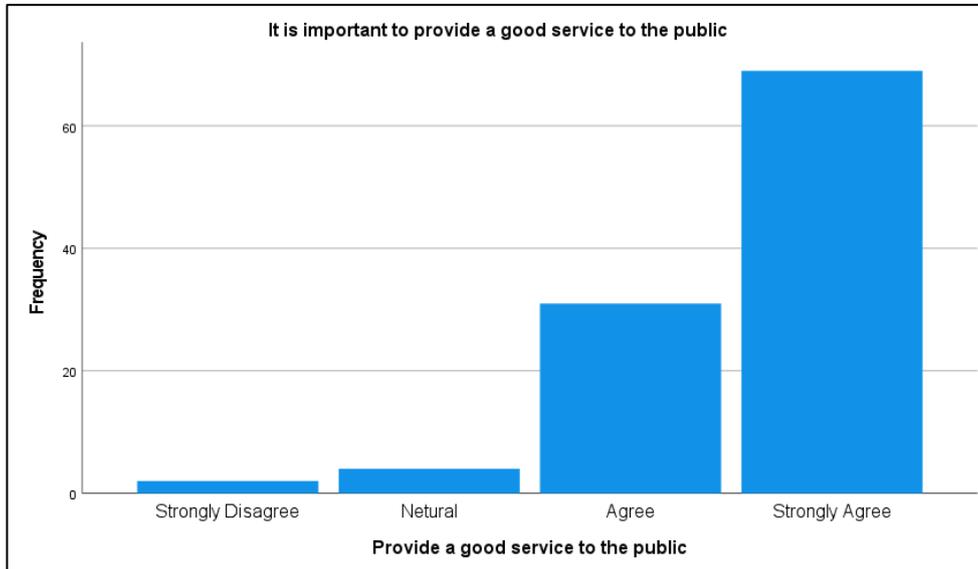
Conversely the item that received the highest 'does not correspond at all' response rate was in regard to the question 'to help me attain my carer goals', albeit this was a small reading of 6.6%.

6.1.4 PSM

PSM questions were presented to elicit responses in order to measure commitment to public interest. The respondents selected answers that ranged from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. The question that received the highest rating of 'strongly agree' and the highest number of responses was 'it is important to provide a good service to the public' at 65.1%, and 'meaningful public service is important to me' at 48.%. Figure 5

Overall, the PSM motivation response rate for ‘commitment to public interest’ was high, with three out of the five questions exhibiting over 40% in the ‘strongly agree’ category

Figure 5. It is important to provide a good service to the public



6.1.5 Work Satisfaction

This block of questions required participants to rank their satisfaction level from ‘very dissatisfied’ to ‘very satisfied’ on various work-related elements in their current role. In general staff were satisfied with the extrinsic elements of work such as, their managers staff management, working conditions and recognition for work done. Participants were also satisfied in intrinsic dimensions such as, doing something worthwhile, making use of my abilities and doing something that benefits others.

All questions scored low on the ‘very dissatisfied’ scale, accounting for less than 5% in each instance. The question concerning ‘recognition I get for the work I do’ measured the highest of the ‘very dissatisfied’ scale at 4.7%. In comparison the highest measurement of ‘very satisfied’ at 29.2% was for ‘things that benefit others’.

6.1.6 Work Satisfying Dimensions

The final section of the questionnaire consisted of ten dimensions relating to work dimensions in the CS. The respondent was required to rate the dimension on how important it was to them, on a scale that extended from 'not at all important' to 'extremely important'. The dimensions encompassed job associated elements such as job security, variety of work and work life balance options. This questionnaire contained a mix of five intrinsic and five extrinsic factors.

'Job security' and 'flexible working conditions' measured the highest on the 'extremely important' scale at 37.7% and 36.8% respectively. 'Public service duty' attributed for 42.5% on the 'very important' scale, just slightly less than 'variety of work' at 46.2%. Interestingly, 'work on public programs' was ascertained at 4.7% on the 'not at all important' scale which was the largest percentage for that scale point. (Table 6.16)

Table 6.1.6 Work Satisfying Dimensions

	Job Security	Public Service Duty	Work on Public Programs
Likert Scale	%	%	%
Not at all important	.9	3.8	4.7
Slightly important	2.8	5.7	15.1
Moderately important	132	29.2	34
Very important	45.3	42.5	34.9
Extremely important	37.7	18.9	11.3

6.2 Scale reliability

The reliability analyses employed was the Cronbach alpha co-efficient which is a measurement of internal consistency that measures power, adequacy and reliability (Jack and Clark, 1998). The Cronbach alpha test is considered apt for ascertaining reliability and consistency for items on Likert type scales (Gliem and Gliem, 2003). The measure ranges from 0 to 1 whereby a figure of .5 is considered to be sufficient (Büyüköztürk, 2018), (Alarcón and Sanchez 2015) however, other authors have suggested a value of .7 or higher is required for acceptability (Cortina 1993).

The Cronbach alpha takes into consideration the average relationship between questions posed. A result that is closest to 1 implies that there is a high level of internal consistency. This test measures latent variables and is a widely accepted form of reliability.

Leadership:	0.943
Motivation:	0.782
PSM:	0.566
Work satisfaction (WS1):	0.868
Work satisfying dimensions (WS2):	0.753

The Cronbach alpha for PSM is on the lower scale and it was possible to raise this number to 0.746 by deleting one item, however the researcher elected to not do this and to continue with the study without any amendments to the questions posed.

Leadership, PSM, motivation, work satisfaction (WS1) and work satisfying dimensions (WS2) were all scored and tested using a mean score as suggested by literature as the appropriate method for analyses (Rattray 2007).

6.3 Test of Hypotheses

The main research question in this study is associated with Hypothesis 1: Does leadership significantly impact motivation in an Irish civil service department?

Sub-objectives:

- H2: There is a significant relationship between leadership and PSM in the CS
- H3: There is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and motivation in the CS

To test the influence of leadership which is an independent variable on motivation, PSM and work satisfaction (WS1 and WS2) which are dependent variables this study utilised a linear regression analysis.

6.4 Linear Regression - Motivation

The statistical method of linear regression (LR) was chosen because the aim of the regression analysis is to build mathematical models that can explain relationships that may exist between variables (Seber and Lee 2012). A multiple linear regression analysis was performed to uncover which dimensions were statistically significant predictors of motivation and PSM. Olejncik and Algina (2000) point out that statistical significance tests do not infer relevance.

Ho *et al.*, (2006) postulate that LR approximates the strength of the association between variables and permits the researcher to infer the outcomes of an independent variable(s) on a dependent variable.

The impetus for this paper was to gain an understanding of what motivates staff in a CS therefore, leadership was tested for relatedness to dependent variables and if there was influence, to what extent.

When utilising a statistical model, it is fundamental to note the principal assumptions of that model and how it affects the data. Research indicates that there are six wide ranging assumptions associated with multiple linear regression. Assumption one is that the relationship between variables, independent and dependent is linear, can be depicted by a straight line, scatterplots can provide a visualisation to determine this. The second assumption is that there is no multicollinearity in the data. This assumes that that predictor variables are not highly correlated to each other. The third assumption is that residuals are normally distributed. The fourth assumption is that the model is not unduly affected by significant outliers that can impact the model and the data it is presenting. The fifth assumption is homoscedasticity, which is where the variance of the residuals (errors) is

constant. The final assumption is that the values of the residuals are independent (uncorrelated) and this can be tested using the Durbin-Watson statistic. (Tranmer *et al.*, 2020), (Büyüköztürk 2002) cited in (Uyanik and Güler, 2013)

Prior to running any analysis, it is assumed that there is no understanding of motivation from the questionnaire data.

The first LR model in this study tested for the level of relatedness of motivation (dependent variable) to leadership, WS1 and WS2.

Table 6.4.1 Motivation, leadership, WS1 and WS2

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.749 ^a	.561	.548	.46348
a. Predictors: (Constant), WS2, Leadership, WS1.				

The R square figure of .561 from the model summary table indicates to the researcher that they can now understand 56.1% of motivation. WS1, WS2 and the respondent's perception of a leader indicate 56.1% of the variation in motivation.

In order to check the reliability of the data the ANOVA summary was utilised (Table 6.4.2). ANOVA is an analysis of variance, it provides information on variances so the user can understand the differences in means (Kim, 2007).

Table 6.4.2 Motivation, leadership, WS1 and WS2

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	27.963	3	9.321	43.391	.000 ^b
	Residual	21.911	102	.215		
	Total	49.874	105			
a. Dependent Variable: Motivation						
b. Predictors: (Constant), WS2, Leadership, WS1.						

A hypothesis test has two positions, null and the alternative. The null hypothesis on this ANOVA is leadership, WS1 and WS2 do not influence motivation, the alternative hypothesis is that they do account for the variation in motivation. If the sig value is <0.05 the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative is accepted. The sig value on test is .000 therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. This means that leadership, WS1 and WS2 do statistically account for the variation in motivation. Furthermore, it can be stated that this demonstrates a 95% confidence level, that the three variables account for variations in motivation.

The Coefficient table (6.4.3) provides information on whether p-values are statistically significant or not.

Table 6.4.3 Coefficients – Motivation, leadership, WS1 and WS2

Coefficients ^a				
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta	
Leadership	-.070	.044	-.115	.117
WS1.	.541	.076	.588	.000
WS2.	.399	.103	.301	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Motivation

The sig column indicates whether or not individual variables influence motivation. The leadership sig value is .117 so the null hypotheses cannot be rejected, leadership on its own is not a significant contributor. WS1 and WS2 both have sig values of .000 so this means that they both are statistically significant impactors on motivation.

The 'Standardised Coefficient Beta' figures identify which variable(s) have the greatest impact on motivation. WS1 has the largest number at .588 followed by WS2 at .301, both figures are positive which means if a person's satisfaction in their work can be increased then this would have a positive impact on motivation. The leadership beta is -.115 which is a negative number and this implies that leadership is not effective, however, this cannot be relied

on as Leadership is not statistically significant. The impact of leadership is less than WS1 and WS2.

This approach is considered a naïve approach, so the data was further analysed using the Durbin-Watson test for autocorrelation of the residuals from the regression analysis. The test statistic ranges from 0-4 where a value of 2 indicative that there is zero autocorrelation. A value that is between 0-2 illustrates there is no autocorrection while a value that is between 2-4 imparts negative autocorrelation (Mustapha, 2019). A predefined assumption of regression is that observations are independent of each other.

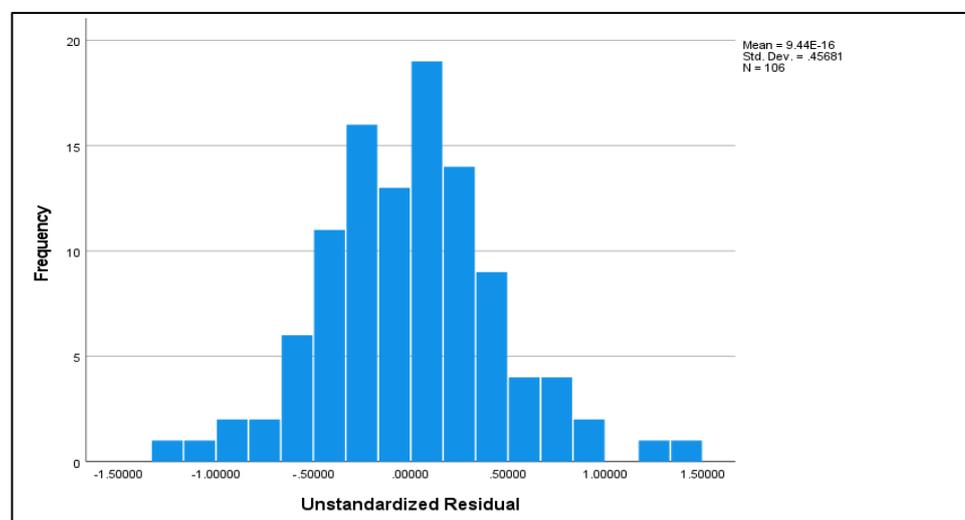
Table 6.4.4 Durbin Watson – Motivation, leadership, WS1 and WS2

Model Summary ^b					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.749 ^a	.561	.548	.46348	1.767

a. Predictors: (Constant), WS2., Leadership, WS1.
b. Dependent Variable: Motivation

The Durbin-Watson measurement was 1.76, so this indicates that there is no autocorrelation and it is an acceptable measure. A histogram was created to further assess if the residuals were normally distributed, Figure 6 shows that the errors are normally distributed so it satisfies the normality condition for LR.

Figure 6. DW, Histogram Motivation, leadership, WS1 and WS2



The next statistical test employed was the Shapiro-Wilk test, which is a test of normality, it compares the data with a normally distributed set of scores with the same mean and standard deviation (Ghasemi and Zahediasl, 2012). In this statistical test, the objective is to not reject the null hypothesis. The null hypothesis is that the residuals are normal and the alternative hypothesis is the residuals are not normal. The results of the test are shown in Table 6.4.5.

Table 6.4.5 Shapiro-Wilk – Motivation, leadership, WS1 an WS2

Tests of Normality			
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Unstandardized Residual	.991	106	.699

The Sig value is .699 which is greater than the alpha value of 0.05 so we cannot reject the null hypothesis, the residuals are normally distributed.

6.5 Hierarchical regression - motivation

This section expands the analysis of motivation with the introduction of other dependent variables. The first variable that was introduced was gender, the regression model can utilise only dichotomous or continuous variables so the variable gender was transformed into a dichotomous variable.

How does gender impact on motivation? When the LR was performed, it returned an R-square value of .059 which means that gender impacts on motivation 5.9%. The ANOVA model gave a sig value of .014, which means the test is statistically significantly. The Coefficients table showed that gender coefficient is .311 and the standardised beta coefficient is .243 which is a positive variable. When assigning values in SPSS, males were coded as 0 and female 1, therefore what this positive number represents is moving from one measure to another, will positively impact motivation. In essence, females are slightly more motivated than males. *Appendix D*

An additional regression model was applied to the data, a hierarchical regression test which indicates if the selected variables demonstrate a statistically significant variance on motivation. This test incorporated

motivation as the dependent variable, gender (block 1) and then leadership, WS1 and WS2 (block 2). The analysis showed that gender accounts for 5.9% of motivation and everything else 51%. The test was statistically significant and the Coefficient results indicated when all the variables are together only, WS1 and WS2 impact. The Shapiro-Wilks was re-run and this produced a sig. value of .366 so the null hypotheses cannot be rejected. *Appendix E*

The final regression model tested to see if grade impacted on motivation, employing the hierarchical regression model. Grade has more than two variables so dummy variables were created for the regression-analysis. Grade explains 7% of motivation but it is not statistically significant with a sig. value of .164. Adding in all the different variables, gender (block 1), grades (block 2), leadership, WS1 and WS2 (block 3) a hierarchical LR was performed. The ANOVA indicates that only block 3 is statistically significant. The coefficient table indicates that WS1 and WS2 are the only impactful variables. *Appendix F*

The tests indicate that gender in insolation accounts for 5% of motivation and is statistically significant. Gender along with grades account for 12% of motivation, however grade does not increase motivation. Table 6.5.1

Table 6.5.1 Model Summary, Hierarchical regression – Motivation, gender, grades, leadership, WS1 and WS2

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.243 ^a	.059	.050	.62454
2	.347 ^b	.120	.064	.61974
3	.726 ^c	.527	.481	.46175
a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender				
b. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Grade				
c. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Grade, Leadership, WS2, WS1				

6.6 Linear Regression - PSM

PSM which is component of motivation was also tested in order to fully investigate any impact of leadership. LR was used to maintain consistency. PSM is the dependent variable and leadership, WS1 and WS2 are the independent variables.

This section will test Hypothesis 2: There is a significant relationship between leadership and PSM in a CS department

The LR analysis provided the following results, the R-square value was .358 which indicates that leadership, WS1 and WS2 provide for 35.8% of the variation in PSM. *Appendix G*

The ANOVA model indicated that the sig. value was .000, so the test was statistically significant. The null hypothesis for the ANOVA is leadership, WS1 and WS2 do not account for any variation in PSM and the alternative is that they do account for the variation in PSM. The null hypothesis can be rejected. There is a 95% confidence level in stating that leadership, WS1 and WS2 account for a variation of 35.8% in PSM. *Appendix G*

The sig. column on the Coefficient statistic (Table 6.6.1) indicates all three variables influence PSM however, WS2 and leadership are the only statistically significantly variables. WS2 has the greatest impact followed by leadership.

Table 6.6.1 Coefficient -PSM, leadership, WS1 and WS2

Coefficients ^a				
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta	
Leadership	.106	.040	.251	.009
WS1.	.131	.071	.190	.066
WS2.	.323	.089	.336	.000

a. Dependent Variable: PSM.

The Durbin-Watson was processed, it reported a value of 1.942 which indicates positive autocorrelation of the residuals. Furthermore, a graph of the unstandardised residuals was undertaken and a histogram generated.

Appendix G

The Shapiro-wilks test was applied to the data and it indicated that the sig. value was .012 and this suggests that the residuals are not normally distributed.

Table 6.6.2 Shapiro-Wilk, PSM, leadership, WS1 and WS2

Tests of Normality			
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Unstandardized Residual	.967	101	.012

The regression analyses was generated to include gender which indicated that gender accounted for .03% of the variation in PSM, however, it was not statistically significant. *Appendix H.*

The final hierarchical regression tested PSM with all the variables, gender (block1), grade (block2), leadership, WS1 and WS2 (block 3). This test indicated that all the variables together account for 45.7% of the variation in PSM. Gender was not statistically significant however; the other two blocks of variables were statistically significant. *Appendix I*

The Durbin-Watson test stated a value of 2.063 which would suggest no autocorrelation was found. The unstandardised residual test was performed with the histogram generated, to demonstrate the residual distribution. *Appendix I*

The final test was the Shapiro-Wilk, test of normality, which indicated the sig value was .007 which means the residuals are not normally distributed.

Table 6.6.3 Shapiro-Wilk, PSM, gender, grade, leadership, WS1,WS2

Tests of Normality						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Unstandardized Residual	.070	101	.200*	.964	101	.007

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Summarily, when testing PSM using leadership, WS1 and WS2, these variables accounted for 35.8% of the variance in PSM. Leadership and WS2 were statistically significant.

Results from the hierarchical regression indicate that when using gender and grade, the only statistically significant variable was the grade PO. The grade of PO impacts PSM nearly two times more than any other grade, however the other grades were not statistically significant.

When all the variables were taken into account the only statistically significant variables were WS2 and leadership. WS2 has the greatest impact on PSM with a standardised-coefficient-beta of .365 and leadership at .188.

Taking all the variables, gender, grades, leadership, WS1 and WS2 into the mix, the LR indicates that together they account for 45.7% of the variation in PSM and is statistically significant (Model Summary). *Appendix I*

7.0 Discussion

7.1 Hypothesis 1

The testing initially began with trying to understand the impact level leadership, WS1 and WS2 had on motivation and it was discovered that these three variables accounted for 56.1% of the variation in motivation. Then the study attempted to understand what the differences were across gender and how gender impacts motivation. Gender is not a variable that can be changed but it did allow the researcher to gain an understanding that there are natural differences based on gender. Gender influenced motivation by 5% which was statistically significant. The testing model was extended to see what it would

look like when a person's grade was taken into consideration. Adding grade to the mix of gender it was noted that the amount of variation that could be accounted for in motivation went up to 12%

Gender was a statistically significant impactor in that 11% but the grades were not statistically significant impactors. Now that the model was providing an understating to grade and gender, a person's perception of effective leaders and their perception with respect to their own work satisfaction and work satisfying dimensions, the results have shown as a collection of variables, gender, grade, leadership, WS1 an WS2 give an understanding of 52% of the variation in motivation. That interestingly indicates that neither gender or any levels associated with grade were statistically significant impactor. The only statistically significant impactors were WS1 and WS2.

The results of this study are not consistent with research by Sougui *et al.*, (2017) whereby it was stated that leadership positively influenced motivation. The data from this paper suggests that leadership does not influence motivation. Respondents generally rated their perception of a leader positively however, the analysis provided outcomes that suggest an opposing view, that leadership was not an impactor of motivation.

Research by Bloome *et al.*, (2015) contradicts the findings from this study and states that leadership is pivotal in influencing motivation. Furthermore Wuryani *et al.*, (2020) and Fernandez *et al*, (2010) assert through research that leadership is a determinant for employee motivation, however, the data from this study does not support this.

7.2 Hypothesis 2

Using the same statistical test linear regression, PSM was tested to ascertain if leadership, WS1 and WS2 impacted a person's PSM. Initial testing indicated that the three variables accounted for 35.8% of variation in PSM. Looking at the individual variables WS2 and leadership were statistically significant and impacted motivation whereby WS1 was not statistically significant.

The hierarchical linear regression tested PSM as the dependent variable and grade, gender, leadership, WS1 and WS2 as the independent variables. Taking all these variables into account they explain 45.7% of the variation in PSM. This test indicated that leadership and WS2 were statistically significant impactors on PSM. Interestingly WS1 was not deemed to be a statistically significant impactor as it was for general employee motivation. WS2 is three times more impactful on PSM than most grades, leadership is two times more impactful. Grades in general did not have any statistically significant impact on PSM levels.

The results suggest that leadership does impact PSM which corresponds to research undertaken by Paarlberg and Lavigna (2010) whereby leaders were proven to increase motivation and organisational performance.

Houston (2000) proffered that PS employees value security, promotion and income in that order; however, this study offers a slightly divergent result. Based on the data from this study CS employees valued variety of work first, followed by job security and salary. *Appendix J*

Additional studies by Callier (2014) posit that PSM has a positive association with job satisfaction and this is affirmed by the data from this study.

7.3 Hypothesis 3

In order to determine the outcome of hypothesis 3, the results from the motivation and PSM statistical test models were used. As previously stated, motivation was found to be influenced by WS1 and PSM was influenced by WS2 and leadership. WS1 and WS2 were found to be greatest impactors on motivation and PSM respectively.

This study infers that CS employees are significantly motivated by work satisfaction dimensions. It is indicated that work satisfaction is an influence of employee motivation and work satisfying dimensions influence PSM.

The results of this study confer with Afraidi's (2018) research that job satisfaction is pivotal in influencing employees. Steijn *et al.*, (2012), Taylor and Westover (2011) posit that PS employees have a predominate preference for intrinsic motivation and data from this study reflected this for the top response which was 'variety of work', albeit this was followed by extrinsic factors such as pay and security.

Research by Robbins and Judge (2015) suggest that leadership is responsible for job satisfaction however this study did not find that leadership had a significant impact on job satisfaction.

The diverging results from studies can be attributed to data size, methodology and measurements of data.

8.0 Findings

Hypothesis 1 indicates that leadership does not significantly impact motivation in an Irish civil service department.

Hypothesis 2 reveals that leadership and PSM do have a significant relationship in the CS department.

Hypothesis 3 illustrates that there is a significant relationship between job satisfaction and motivation in the CS

In summation, the statistical tests indicate that leadership does not significantly impact motivation however, it does impact PSM in an Irish civil service department. Therefore, in relation to Hypothesis 1, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative accepted. For hypothesis 2, the null is accepted.

The study indicated that work satisfaction (WS1) and work satisfying dimensions (WS2) were significant impactors on motivation and PSM and therefore in relation to hypothesis 3 the null hypothesis is accepted.

9.0 Conclusion

The main tenet of this study was to investigate if leadership impacted motivation. Leadership, motivation, PSM and job satisfaction were all presented from differing authors and research perspectives. Research was undertaken and the results analysed for comparison and/or differentiation.

The outcomes from this study suggest that Irish CS employee's motivation is not significantly influenced by leadership, however, their PSM is impacted by leadership. Answers taken directly from the survey questions indicate that PSM is an important part of the job.

Employee motivation: WS1 is five times more impactful than leadership and WS2 is three times more impactful than leadership for general employee motivation. Leadership is five times less of an impactor than WS1 and three times less of an impactor than WS2. Of the three variables, WS1 and WS2 were statistically significant impactors whereas leadership wasn't identified as a statistically significant impactor. Leadership, WS1 and WS2 account for 56.1% variation in employee motivation.

PSM: Leadership and WS2 were found to statistically significant impactors of PSM. WS2 was three times more impactful than most grades and leadership two times more impactful. Gender did not impact PSM and the only grade when mixed with gender that was impactful was that of PO which was statistically significant. When all the variables were included, grade did not impact PSM. Gender, grade, leadership, WS1 and WS2 account for 45.7% variation in PSM.

Based off this particular study the most powerful influences of motivation were found to be WS1 and WS2 which were statistically significant. Leadership was also found to be an influence on PSM but to a lesser extent. When the hierarchal regression was tested, grades were not deemed impactful or statistically significant. Therefore, WS1 and WS2 are denoted as pivotal motivators. In order to increase motivation interventions should be put in place

to build work satisfaction and increase work satisfying dimensions in the workplace. This study indicates that leadership is effective in influencing PSM and this positive result can be built on to influence motivation to a greater extent in the CS.

9.1 Recommendations

For leaders in the CS to be effective they must be capable of motivating staff to pursue and carry out tasks to the best of their ability. This study investigated the link between motivation, PSM, job satisfaction and leadership. In order for leaders to maximise employee motivation they must be cognisant of what motivates staff and this study has identified significant motivational impactors for employees and leaders alike.

The findings from this study, suggest that leadership does not influence general employee motivation and this alone presents a huge opportunity for departments in the CS. Contrastingly, leadership does impact PSM and this positive outcome can be utilised to increase the reach of effective leadership to generate greater employee motivation in the pursuit of organisational goals. These outcomes can be used to induct effective leadership and motivation in order to increase overall motivation. The literature review suggests that leadership can influence motivation, so these findings can be used as the impetus to introduce more effective motivational leadership models.

Leadership is a prominent feature of CS renewal and reform so a study should be undertaken to investigate if leadership recruitment/programs are producing the desired results. A study on a larger scale within the CS, on the level of impact leadership has, would proffer valuable evidence and insights for future performance for the organisation and staff alike.

10. References

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11. Appendices

Appendix A: Research questionnaire cover email

Hi Folks,

I am currently working on my Masters dissertation (MSc in Management, National College of Ireland) and I am looking for support in completing a questionnaire (link below) that will help with my research.

My dissertation research focuses on *leadership* and *motivation* in the civil service. The research aim is to investigate if leadership impacts motivation or if employee motivation is autonomous of leadership.

The research will incorporate the results of the linked questionnaire, which is **quick and easy** to complete, no text answers are required.

Info on the questionnaire:

- **The Department will not be named in the dissertation**
- The questions are tick box or scale answers only
- Participation is voluntary

Section 1: Consent for questionnaire answers to be saved – **anonymously** – no personal details are collected

Section 2 & 3 Short questions about you and your role

Section 4: Questions on leadership – your perception of leadership, you can select any leader or manager you have worked with in the Civil Service and answer the questions with them in mind.

Section 5: Questions on your career choice

Section 6: Questions on public service interest

Section 7: Questions on work satisfaction

All questions must be answered but you can stop – opt out at any point, just close the browser page and your answers will not be recorded. If the questionnaire is not completed the results are invalid, so please make sure you submit at the end. You will see a thank you message when all the answers have been saved.

Questionnaire LINK

CTRL + Click to open the link or you can forward this link to your personal email if preferred.

I would really appreciate it if you could spare a couple of minutes and complete the questionnaire by Tuesday 23rd March 2021

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Thanks in advance for your support and time,

Kind regards,

Joanna OByrne

Appendix B: Research questionnaire

Word version of questions asked.

Questionnaire:

I agree to participate in the research study. I understand the purpose and nature of this study and I am participating voluntarily. I understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time, without any penalty or consequences.

1 I consent: Yes / No

2. About you

D1. Please select your age group 18-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, 65+

D2. Please select gender M/F/Prefer Not to say

3 Your Work

W1. Please select your grade:

Clerical Officer -CO

Executive Officer- EO

Administrative Officer- AO

Higher Executive Officer- HEO

Assistant Principal -AP

Principal Officer -PO

W2. How many years have you worked in the Civil Service?

0-4, 5-10, 11-15, 16-20, 20+

W3. Please select your work pattern?

Full time (i.e., 4.25 hours a week)

Less than full- time

W4. Do you currently manage staff? Yes / No

W5. Do you coach / mentor staff? Yes / No

4 Leadership:

Please answer the following questions about your perception of a leader / manager in the organisation you have worked with

L1. You can select any leader / manger that you have worked with during your civil service career, it does not have to be your direct manager.

Which best describes you?

I am at a higher organisational level than the person I am rating

The person I am rating is at my organisational level

I am at a lower organisational level than the person I am rating

I do not wish my organisational level to be known

L2. This questionnaire is to describe the effectiveness of the person selected below; as you perceive it. CO, EO, AO, HEO, AP, PO, A. Sec, Sec Gen

Not at all, Once in a while, Sometimes, Fairly often, Frequently / if not always.

L3. The person I am rating..... Is effective in meeting my job-related needs

L4. The person I am rating..... Gets me to do more than what I initially thought I would

L5. The person I am rating..... Provides leadership that satisfies my career goals

L6. The person I am rating..... increases my desire to succeed in the job

L7. The person I am rating..... Is effective in meeting organisational requirements

L8. The person I am ratingIncreases my willingness to try harder

L9. The person I am ratingLeads an effective team

L10. The person I am rating.....demonstrates effective communication skills

5 Career Choice

Using the scale below, please indicate to what extent each of the following items correspond to the reasons why you are presently involved in your work

Does not correspond at all, ~~Corresponds a little~~, Corresponds moderately, Corresponds a lot, Corresponds exactly

M1. Because this type of work provides me with security

M2. Because I like learning new things

M3. Because this is the type of ~~work~~ I chose to do attain a certain lifestyle

M4. For the satisfaction I experience from taking on interesting challenges

M5. For the satisfaction I experience when I am successful at completing difficult tasks

M6. To be involved in something that helps others

M7. To help me attain my career goals

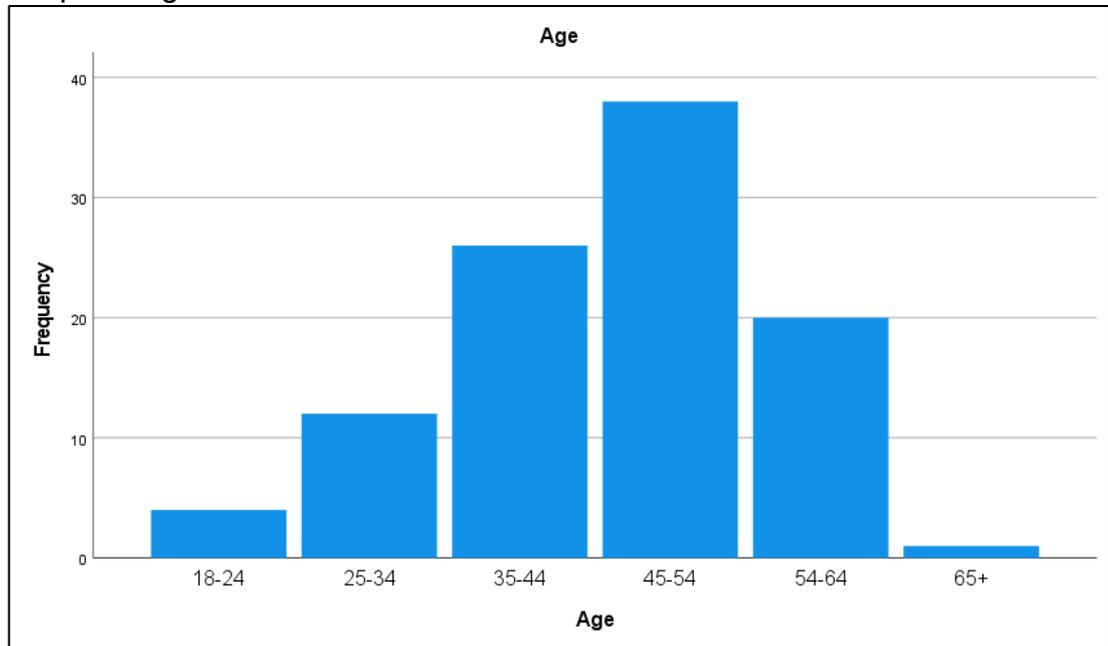
WS2 Please rate how important the following are to you

Not at all important, Slightly important, Moderately important. Very important, Extremely important

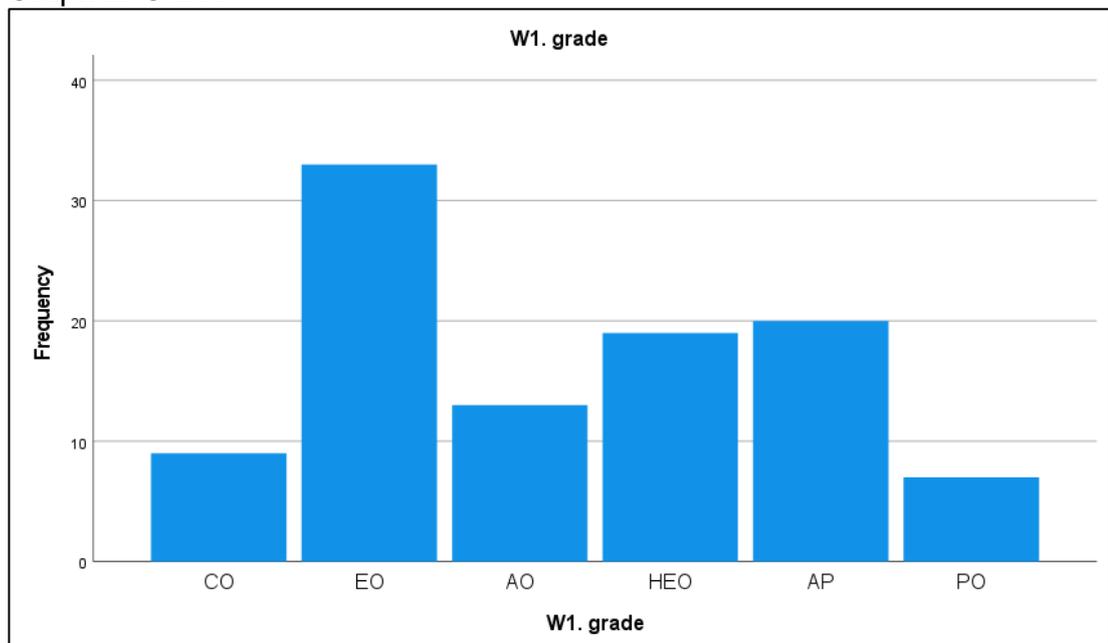
- | | |
|--------|---------------------------------------|
| WS2.1 | Public Service Duty |
| WS2.2 | Salary |
| WS2.3 | Flexible working options |
| WS2.4 | Variety of work |
| WS2.5 | Further training / education |
| WS2.6 | Making a difference in society |
| WS2.7 | Job security |
| WS2.8 | Career Development |
| WS2.9 | The chance to work on public projects |
| WS2.10 | Work life balance i.e., career breaks |

Appendix C: Demographic Graphs

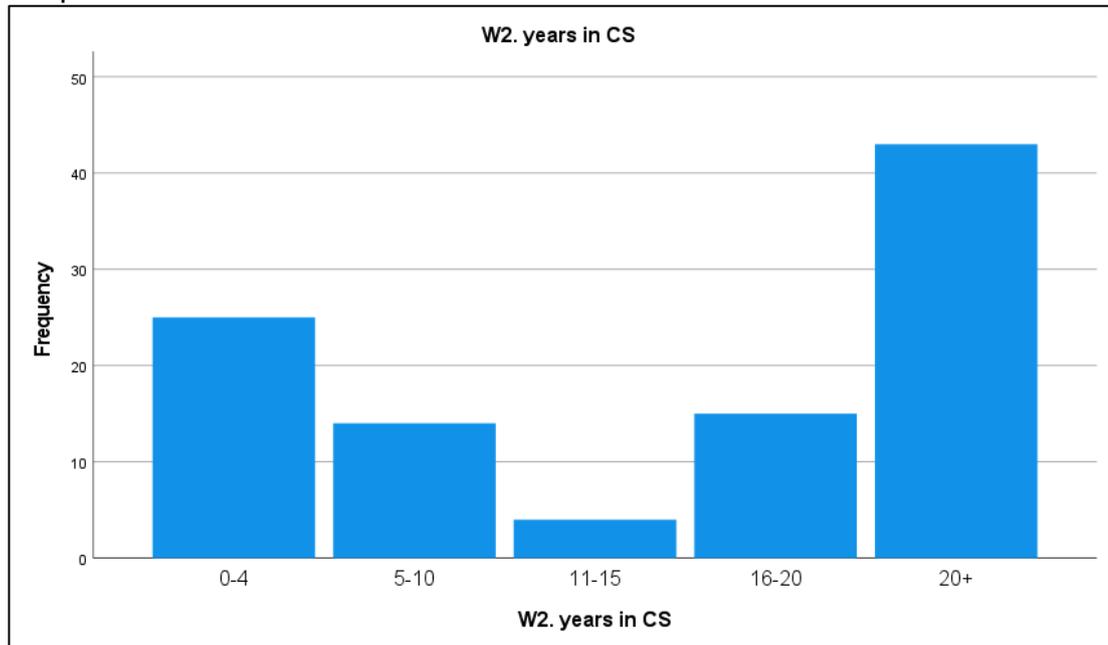
Graph 1. Age Profile



Graph 2. Grade



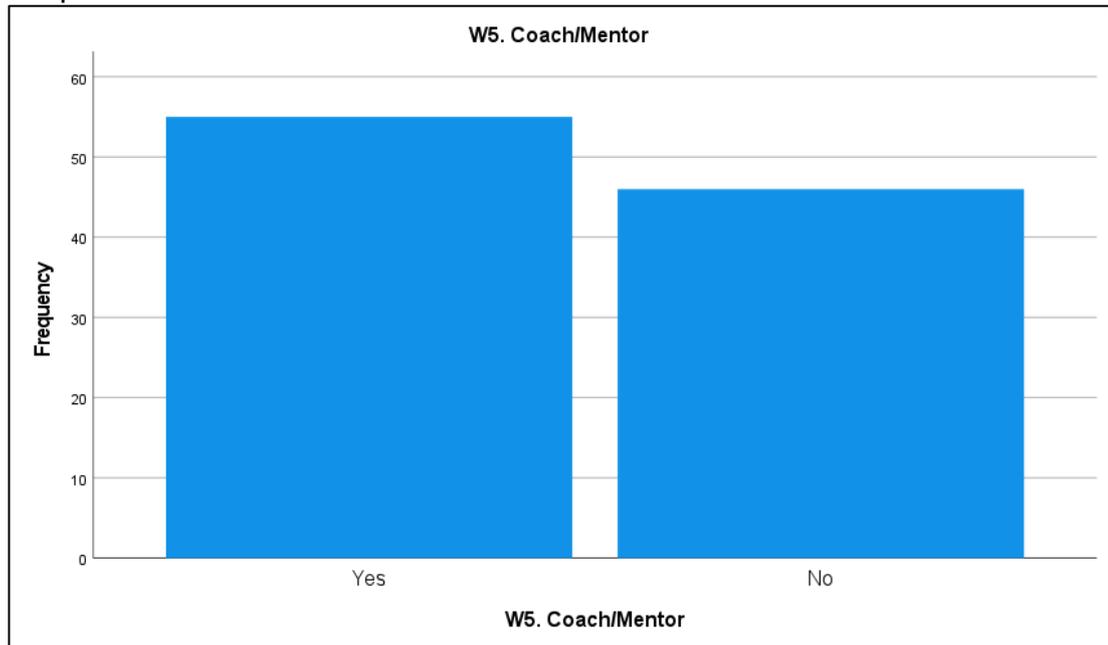
Graph 3. Years' service in CS



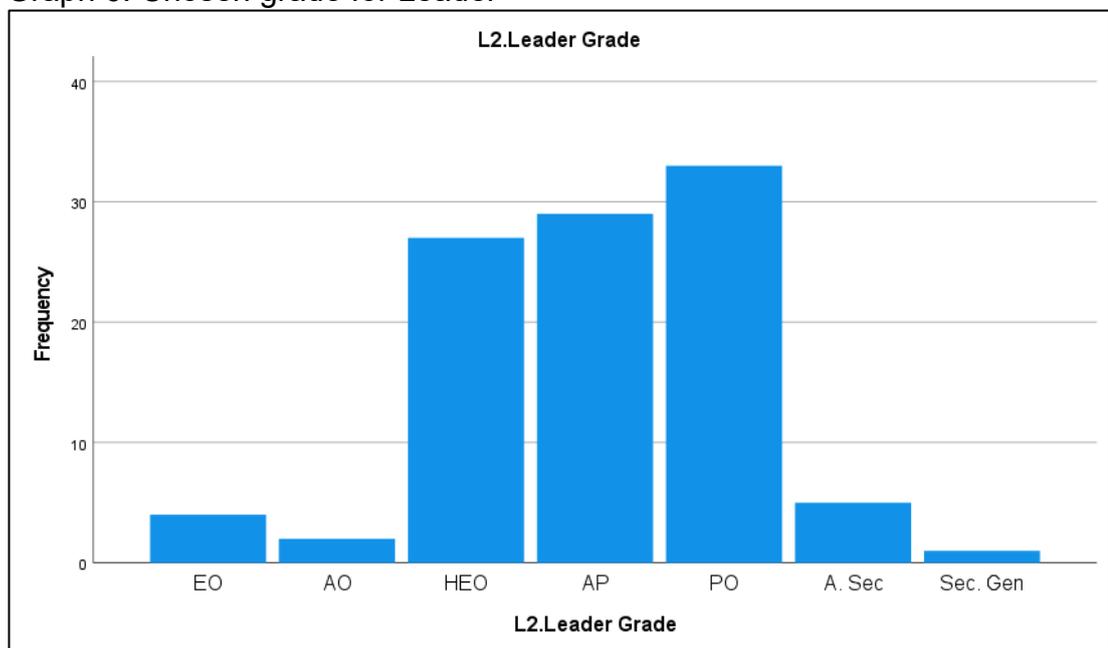
Graph 4. Managing Staff



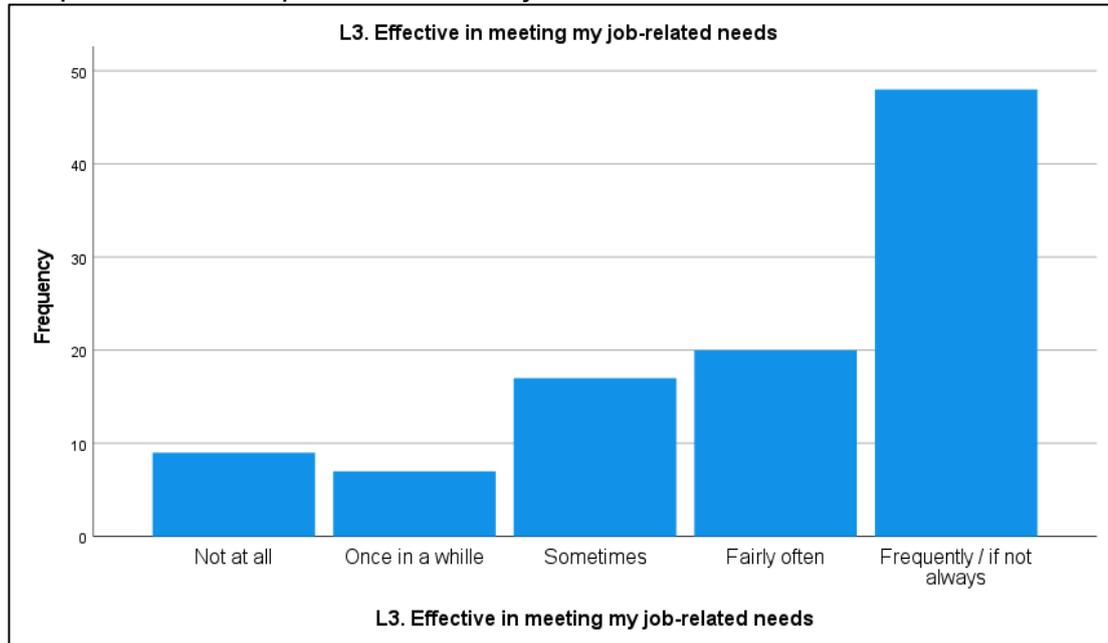
Graph 5. Coach/Mentor Staff



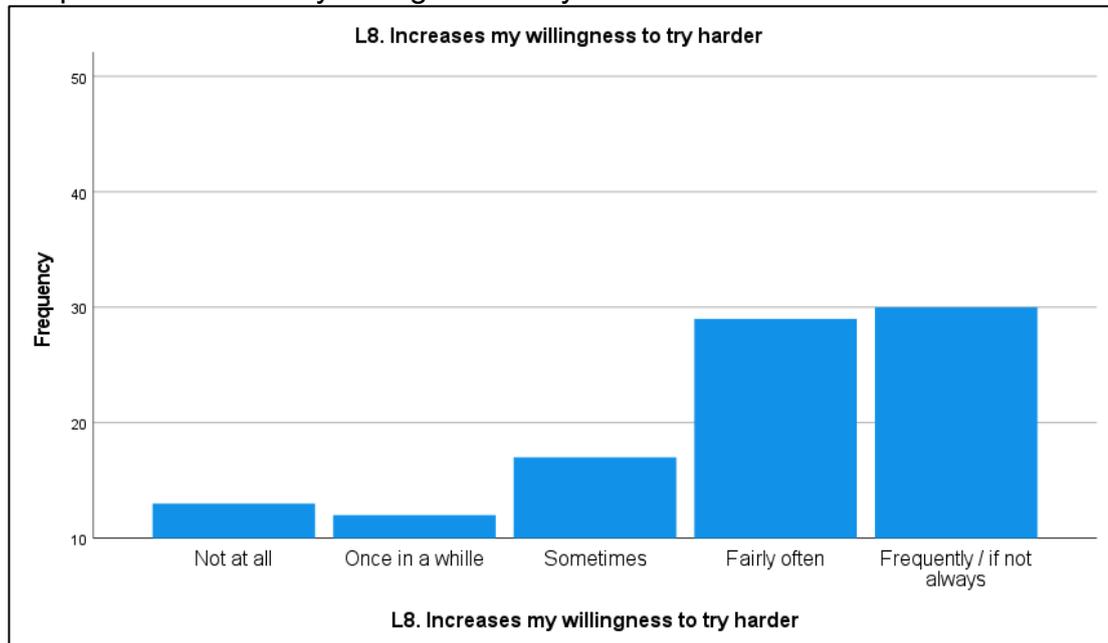
Graph 6. Chosen grade for Leader



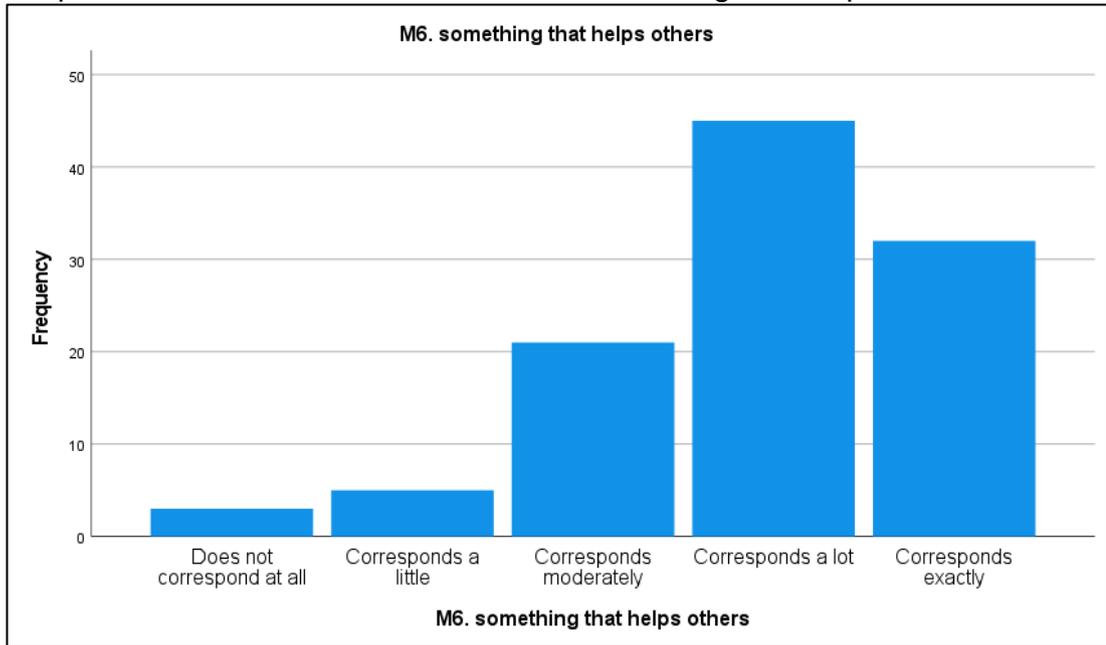
Graph 7. Leadership effectiveness - job related needs



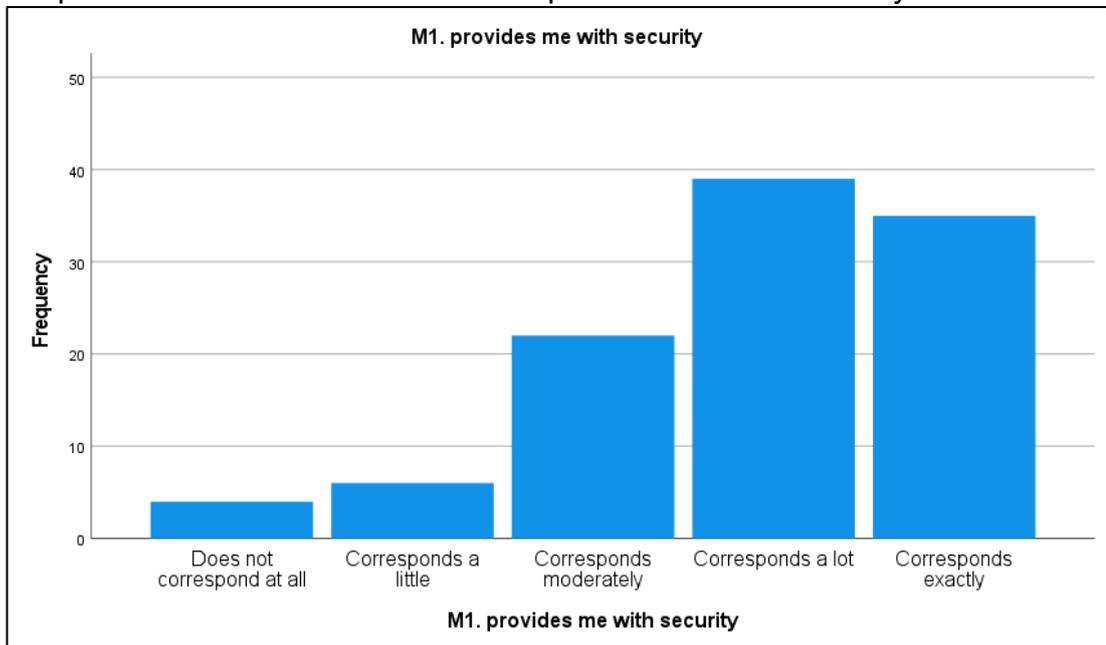
Graph 8. Increases my willingness to try harder



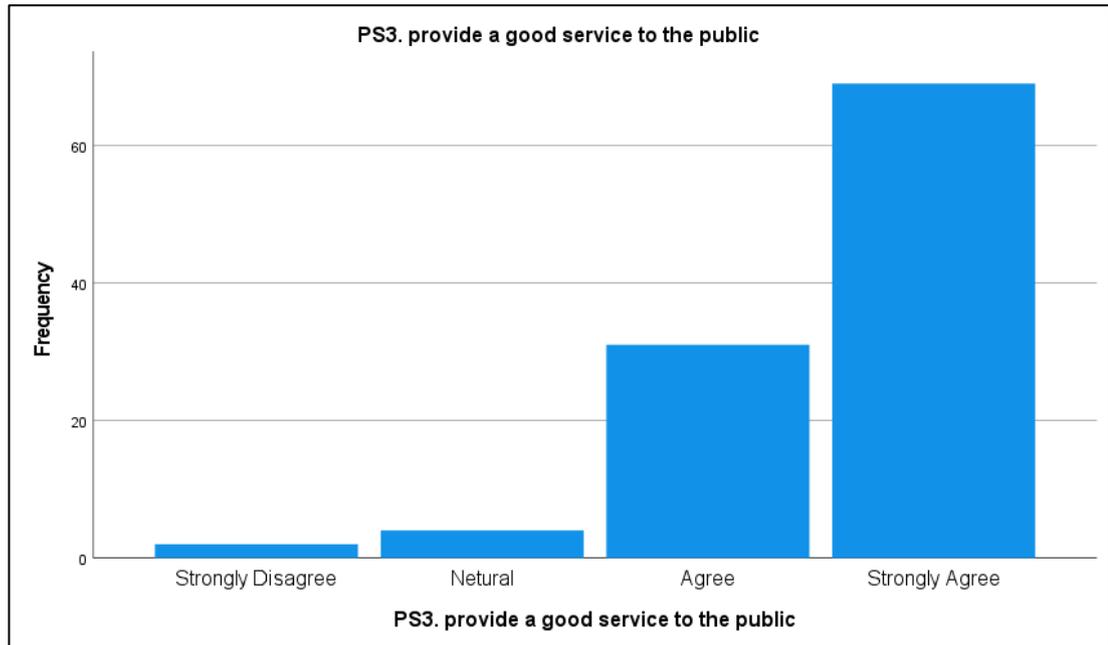
Graph 9. I work in the civil service to do something that helps others



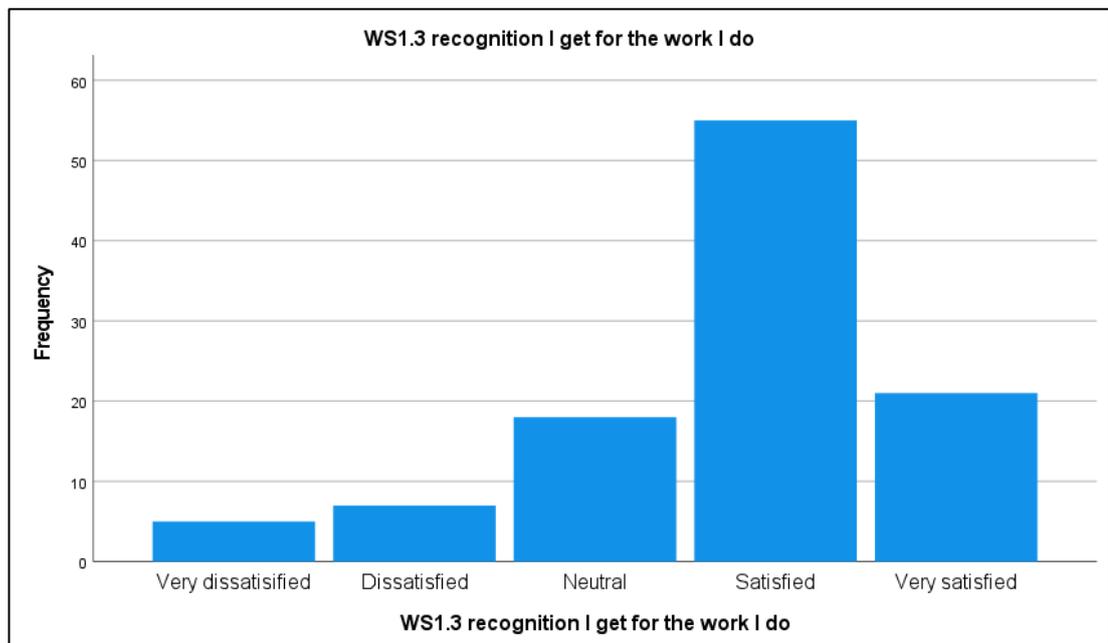
Graph 10. I work in the CS because it provides me with security



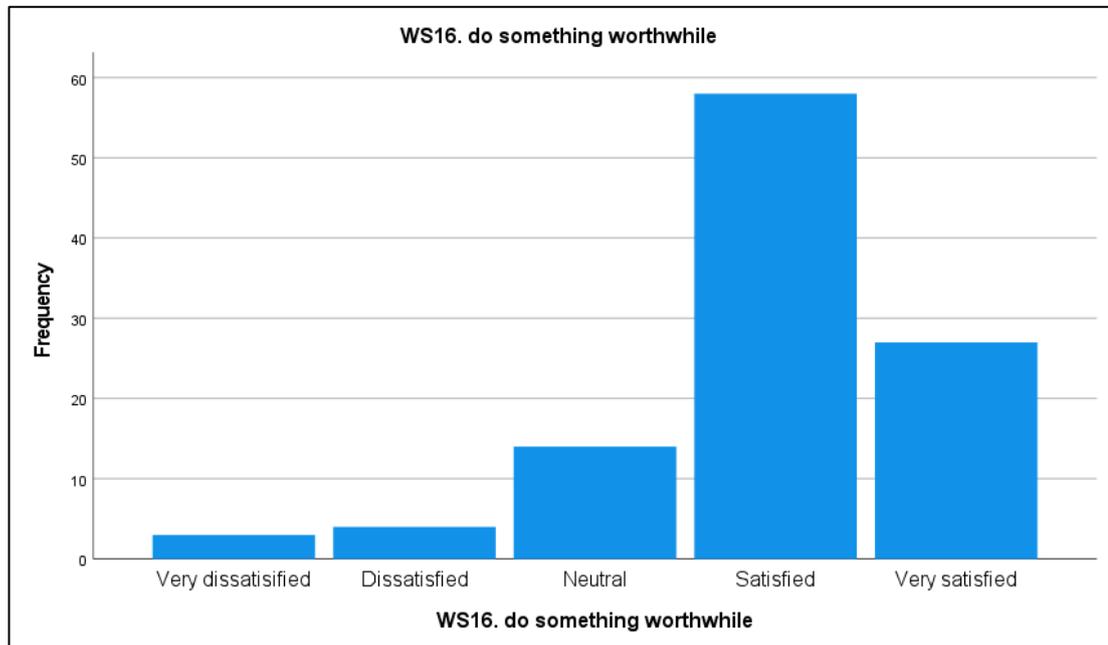
Graph 11.PSM – It is important to provide a good service to the public



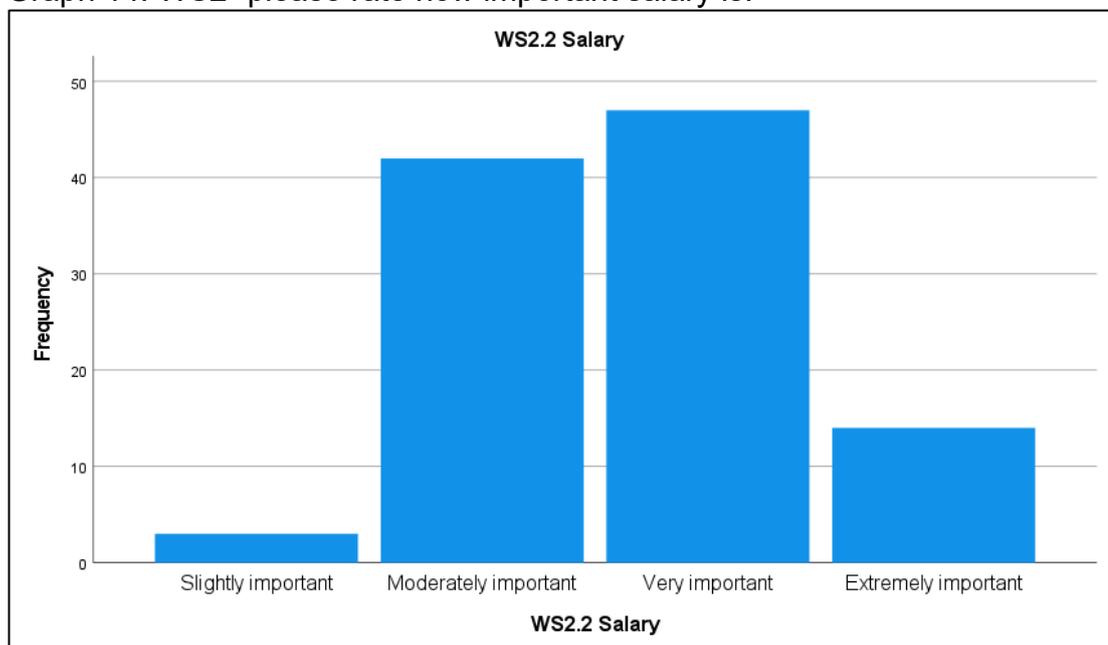
Graph 12.WS1 – the recognition I get for the work I do



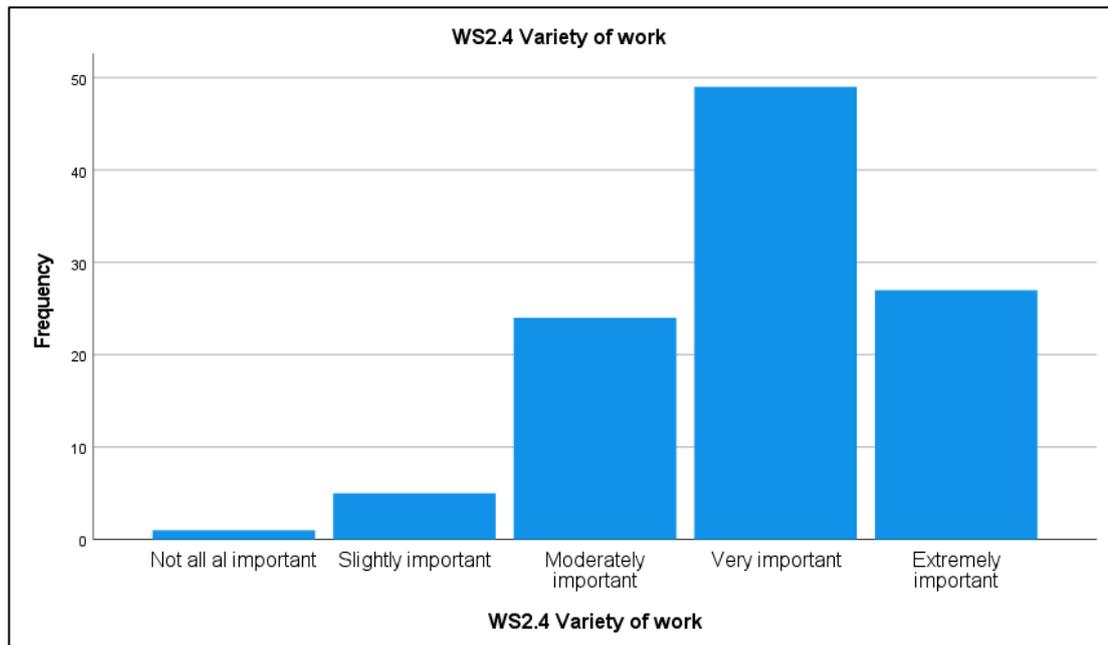
Graph 13.WS1 – the chance to do something worthwhile



Graph 14. WS2- please rate how important salary is:



Graph 15. WS2- please rate how important variety of work is:



Appendix D: Linear Regression tables, Gender - Motivation

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.243 ^a	.059	.050	.62454
a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender				

ANOVA^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.433	1	2.433	6.239	.014 ^b
	Residual	38.615	99	.390		
	Total	41.048	100			
a. Dependent Variable: Motivation						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Gender						

Coefficients^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.562	.090		39.520	.000
	Gender	.311	.124	.243	2.498	.014
a. Dependent Variable: Motivation						

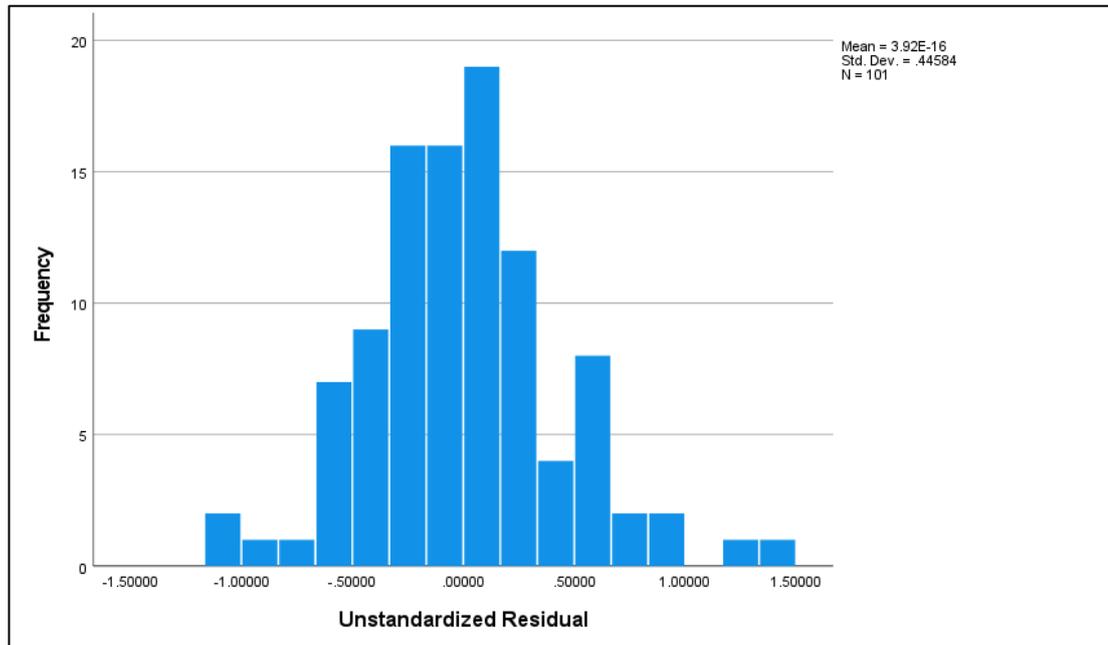
Appendix E: Hierarchical regression tables- Motivation

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.243 ^a	.059	.050	.62454	.059	6.239	1	99	.014
2	.718 ^b	.516	.496	.45504	.456	30.164	3	96	.000
a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender									
b. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Leadership, WS2, WS1									

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.433	1	2.433	6.239	.014 ^b
	Residual	38.615	99	.390		
	Total	41.048	100			
2	Regression	21.171	4	5.293	25.561	.000 ^c
	Residual	19.878	96	.207		
	Total	41.048	100			
a. Dependent Variable: Motivation						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Gender						
c. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Leadership, WS2, WS1						

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.562	.090		39.520	.000
	Gender	.311	.124	.243	2.498	.014
2	(Constant)	.609	.356		1.710	.090
	Gender	.155	.093	.121	1.661	.100
	Leadership	-.054	.046	-.096	-1.157	.250
	WS1	.507	.082	.557	6.166	.000
	WS2	.344	.105	.273	3.267	.002
a. Dependent Variable: Motivation						

Histogram – residuals (all variables)



Tests of Normality						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Unstandardized Residual	.065	101	.200*	.985	101	.336

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Appendix F: Hierarchical regression - Motivation, gender, grades, leadership, WS1 and WS2

ANOVA, Hierarchical regression

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.433	1	2.433	6.239	.014 ^b
	Residual	38.615	99	.390		
	Total	41.048	100			
2	Regression	4.945	6	.824	2.146	.055 ^c
	Residual	36.103	94	.384		
	Total	41.048	100			
3	Regression	21.646	9	2.405	11.280	.000 ^d
	Residual	19.403	91	.213		
	Total	41.048	100			

a. Dependent Variable: Motivation
b. Predictors: (Constant), Gender
c. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Grade
d. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Grade Leadership, WS2., WS1.

Coefficient, Hierarchical regression

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.562	.090		39.520	.000
	Gender	.311	.124	.243	2.498	.014
2	(Constant)	3.372	.230		14.657	.000
	Gender	.277	.130	.217	2.126	.036
	W1.grade=EO	.366	.234	.269	1.565	.121
	W1.grade=AO	.105	.272	.055	.385	.701
	W1.grade=HE	-.008	.258	-.005	-.032	.974
	O					
	W1.grade=AP	.247	.251	.154	.982	.329
	W1.grade=PO	.406	.319	.162	1.274	.206
3	(Constant)	.545	.397		1.373	.173
	Gender	.168	.099	.132	1.702	.092
	W1.grade=EO	.140	.178	.103	.786	.434
	W1.grade=AO	.018	.203	.009	.087	.931
	W1.grade=HE	.110	.193	.067	.567	.572
	O					
	W1.grade=AP	.052	.189	.033	.276	.783
	W1.grade=PO	.272	.242	.108	1.125	.264
	Lead.	-.060	.049	-.107	-1.228	.223
	WS1.	.507	.084	.557	6.000	.000
WS2.	.339	.111	.269	3.062	.003	

a. Dependent Variable: Motivation

Appendix G: Linear Regression – PSM

Model Summary ^b										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.614 ^a	.377	.358	.39081	.377	19.590	3	97	.000	1.942

a. Predictors: (Constant), WS2, Leadership, WS1.

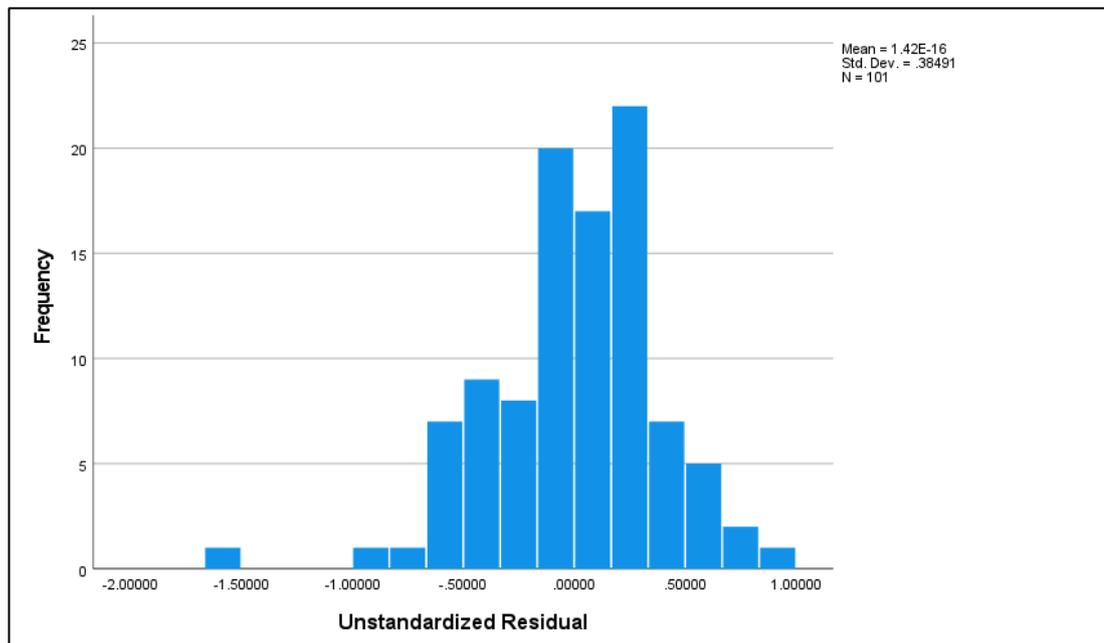
b. Dependent Variable: PSM.

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8.976	3	2.992	19.590	.000 ^b
	Residual	14.815	97	.153		
	Total	23.792	100			

a. Dependent Variable: PSM.

b. Predictors: (Constant), WS2, Leadership, WS1.

Histogram PSM –Unstandardised Residuals



Appendix H: Linear regression, PSM – Gender

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				Sig. F Change
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	
1	.053 ^a	.003	-.007	.48954	.003	.275	1	99	.601

a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.066	1	.066	.275	.601 ^b
	Residual	23.726	99	.240		
	Total	23.792	100			

a. Dependent Variable: PSM
b. Predictors: (Constant), Gender

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.938	.071		55.725	.000
	Gender	.051	.098	.053	.525	.601

a. Dependent Variable: PSM

Appendix I: Hierarchical regression, PSM, gender, grade, leadership, WS1 and WS2

Model Summary

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change
						F Change	df1	df2	
1	.053 ^a	.003	-.007	.48954	.003	.275	1	99	.601
2	.412 ^b	.170	.117	.45847	.167	3.775	5	94	.004
3	.676 ^c	.457	.403	.37691	.287	16.029	3	91	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender
b. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Grade
c. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Grade, Leadership, WS2, WS1.

Coefficients

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	3.938	.071		55.725	.000
	Gender	.051	.098	.053	.525	.601
2	(Constant)	3.842	.170		22.573	.000
	Gender	.032	.096	.033	.330	.742
	W1.grade=EO	.161	.173	.156	.933	.353
	W1.grade=AO	.236	.201	.163	1.172	.244
	W1.grade=HEO	-.231	.191	-.186	-1.210	.229
	W1.grade=AP	.142	.186	.117	.764	.447
	W1.grade=PO	.549	.236	.287	2.328	.022
3	(Constant)	1.930	.324		5.956	.000
	Gender	-.066	.081	-.068	-.817	.416
	W1.grade=EO	.009	.145	.009	.065	.948
	W1.grade=AO	.145	.166	.100	.874	.384
	W1.grade=HEO	-.177	.158	-.142	-1.120	.266
	W1.grade=AP	.016	.154	.013	.105	.917
	W1.grade=PO	.389	.197	.204	1.973	.052
	Leadership	.080	.040	.188	2.005	.048
WS1.	.113	.069	.163	1.636	.105	
WS2.	.351	.090	.365	3.880	.000	

a. Dependent Variable: PSM.

Durbin-Watson, PSM, gender, grade, leadership, WS1 and WS2

Model Summary ^d										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.053 ^a	.003	-.007	.48954	.003	.275	1	99	.601	
2	.412 ^b	.170	.117	.45847	.167	3.775	5	94	.004	
3	.676 ^c	.457	.403	.37691	.287	16.029	3	91	.000	2.063

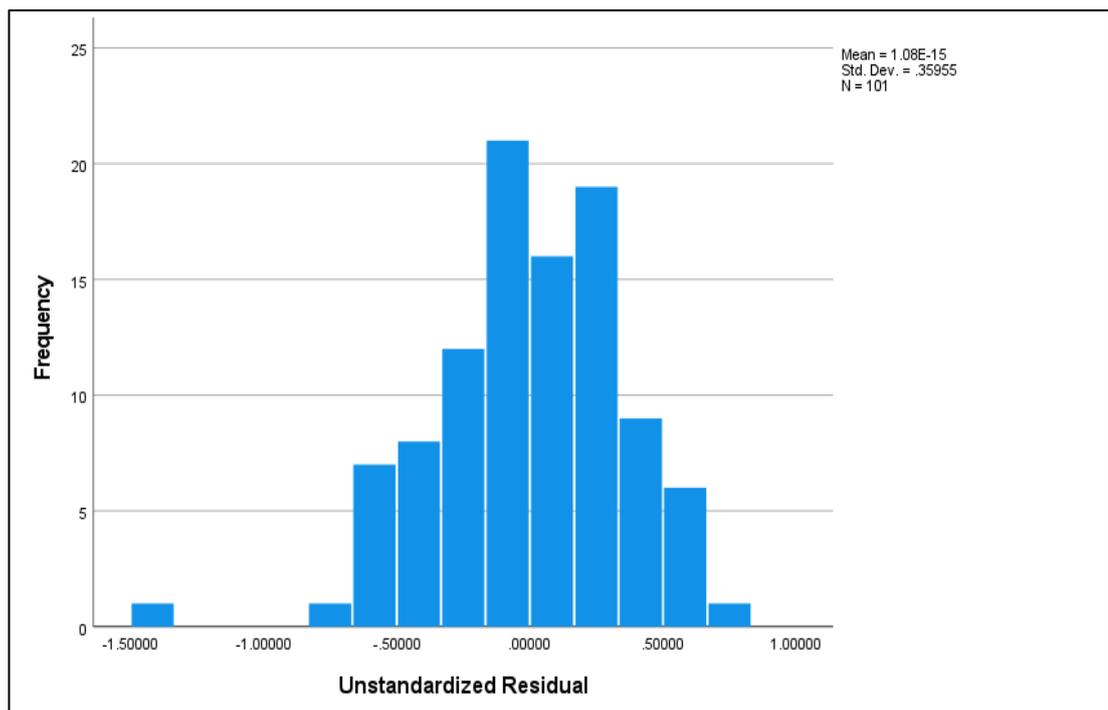
a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender

b. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Grade

c. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Grade Leadership, WS2, WS1.

d. Dependent Variable: PSM.

Histogram, residuals, PSM, gender, grade, leadership, WS1 and WS2



Appendix J: Work Satisfying Dimensions

