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**Bachelor Thesis Circle: Understanding People in Public Organizations**

# **The Impact of Organizational Culture on Public Service Motivation**

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## Abstract

This thesis aims at analyzing the impact of the culture of an organization on its employees' motivation. Precisely, it is assessed how different Organizational Cultures (OC) in faculties of universities as public organizations influence the motivation of its academic staff. Motivation in this case refers to the Public Service Motivation (PSM) of academics at universities and universities of applied sciences in Germany and the Netherlands in 2016. Since the literature suggests that context, i.e. culture, has an impact on motivation but does not indicate which type of culture has what kind of impact on motivation in the public sector the general research question is: *In how far does Organizational Culture influence Public Service Motivation and how can this relationship be explained?* Further, the research seeks to analyze whether the concept of Public Service Motivation applies to public universities as specific type of public organizations that find themselves increasingly as subject to New Public Management reforms which conflicts with the traditional values of academics. Data has been collected through semi structured interviews with eight heads of faculties of both natural and social sciences at universities and universities of applied sciences in Germany and the Netherlands. According to the results of the study it is difficult to say whether there is a causal relationship between OC and PSM. Moreover, academic staff at universities appears as typically motivated by factors other than included in the classical concept of PSM. This thesis is interesting for anyone interested in the concepts of Organizational Culture and Public Service Motivation within the world of secondary higher education.

**Keywords:** Organizational Culture, Public Service Motivation, New Public Management, Secondary Higher Education, Academics

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## Frequently Used Abbreviations

CVF	Competing Values Framework
NS	Natural Sciences
OCAI	Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument
OC	Organizational Culture
PSM	Public Service Motivation
SS	Social Sciences
UAS	Universities of Applied Sciences
U	Universities

## 1. Introduction

This thesis aims at analyzing the impact of Organizational Culture (OC) on Public Service Motivation (PSM) in the case of academic staff at faculties of natural sciences and faculties of social sciences at German and Dutch universities and universities of applied sciences in 2016. The following paragraphs give an overview of the study's issue, the underlying theories and the relevance of the research. Moreover, the main research question as well as the sub-questions are presented.

Extensive literature concerning the field of PSM is available since a broad range of research has been conducted in that field already, especially over the last years. Public Service Motivation is usually defined as the will to serve the public based on intrinsic motivation such as altruism and idealism (Perry & Wise, 1990). Generally, PSM is described as a universal concept, applicable for all public sector staff in different kinds of public organizations. Whereas numerous studies have assessed the divergence in motivation between workers in public and private organizations (Rainey, 2014; Rashid & Rashid, 2012), different types and levels of PSM within the public sector have attracted less attention. As far as known, the concept of PSM has not been used in the world of higher education explicitly, although in most countries higher education is largely a public sector enterprise. Universities are public organizations with specific features and cultural contexts. Those specifics are likely to affect academic staff's motivation. Consequently, looking at higher education institutions from a PSM perspective is of interest as those organizations are distinct from other public sector organizations.

In analyzing motivation of academics at higher education institutions in Germany and the Netherlands one needs to keep in mind that since the 1990s a broad range of reforms has been introduced in European universities. While universities in Europe used to be institutions primarily controlled by the state, they gained more leverage and self-governance structures over the last decades (Benneworth, de Boer, File, Jongbloed & Westerheijden, 2012). Universities are nowadays increasingly market-driven and serve as deliverers of education which need to live up to internationalized expectations and rules. The New Public Management (NPM) approach that as in other public organizations has been introduced at many universities led to a rise in autonomy for higher education institutions, making them quasi-autonomous institutions where the state takes the role of a supervisor and provides the legal regulations (*ibid.*).

The described reforms also led to a change of culture of universities and the conditions under which academic staff perform their duties. Universities were usually perceived as institutions that were, among other things, loosely coupled, i.e. "events are responsive, but that each event also preserves its own identity and some evidence of its physical or logical separateness" (Weick, 1976, 3). Generally speaking, one of the effects of the NPM-driven reforms has been that universities are nowadays believed to be more tightly coupled (Fusarelli & Johnson, 2004). Several studies address the impact

of change in higher education institutions on the academic profession. According to Schimank (2005), professionals in the academic sector possess certain traditional values such as high academic independence and freedom that are threatened by NPM reforms. In line with the NPM mantra ‘managers were given the right to manage’ (Pollitt, 1993, 3) and with the new market orientation of universities academics increasingly lose control over their work as several authorities were shifted from academics to administrative managers (Schimank, 2005). Reforms at universities introducing greater extents of bureaucracy and surveillance systems result in a decrease of professional academics’ leverage as well as in a rising managerial power which goes hand in hand with a change of organizational structures (Parker & Jary, 1995). Academic professionals, realizing their autonomy fading and their tasks being reduced to teaching and researching, do not always welcome the introduction of NPM practices within their organizations (Enders, de Boer & Leišyte, 2009).

To conclude, due to higher education reforms as well as changing environments several things have changed within universities. While there are no studies explicitly stating that NPM approaches led to a change in Organizational Culture at universities, a broad range of research outlines that factors compromising OC, such as management style and decision making processes, have changed with the introduced reforms, also within universities (Schimank, 2005). It is thus very likely that the university culture in total has changed as well. How this affects the level of PSM within universities however, is unknown.

Various researchers indicate that a change in Organizational Culture through reforms leads to a change in motivation, for instance in the public sector of health care (Franco, Benett & Kanfer, 2002). Motivation of workers is perceived as closely related to the Organizational Culture in which they operate. Organizations with low levels of hierarchy, as one aspect of culture, have high levels of motivation (Franco et al., 2002, Panagiotis & George, 2014). Despite these findings, the number of studies on the relationship between PSM and Organizational Culture is scant, particularly in the world of higher education.

In summary, the scientific and societal relevance of the study is multifaceted. First, it adds to the research on PSM by taking into account that motivation differs over various kinds of public organizations with different cultures. It evaluates PSM in secondary higher education institutions as specific types of organizations which are on the one hand “loosely coupled systems” (Weick, 1976, 3) and on the other hand increasingly subject to New Public Management approaches (Benneworth et al., 2012). Second, a vast range of literature explaining the effect of university reforms on the academic profession in general exists. Still, little research has been done on how changes in OC through NPM reforms affect university academic’s motivation. This research seeks to fill that gap. Third and more general, the study further analyzes how the culture of an organization influences the motivation of public sector staff.

### 1.1 Main Research Question and Sub-Questions

Dependent variable	Public Service Motivation
Independent variable	Organizational Culture
Units of analysis	Faculties of natural and social sciences at universities and universities of applied sciences
Units of observation	Deans and faculty managers of faculties of natural and social sciences at universities and universities of applied sciences
Setting	Germany, the Netherlands 2016

Table 1: Variables, units and setting of the research

The research does not seek to differentiate between motivations of individuals but between motivations over different faculties at different universities. Data was collected via a qualitative approach. and eight interviews with deans and faculty managers of two different faculties per university were conducted. The explanatory research question is:

*In how far does Organizational Culture influence Public Service Motivation and how can this relationship be explained?*



Figure 1: Research Question

In order to solve the complex issue and to clarify the study's objective, a set of sub-questions is included in this research:

1. *What is Public Service Motivation in general and how is it measured?*
2. *What do we mean by Organizational Culture in general and how is it measured?*

The first two sub-questions are dealt with in the theory section. An answer to the issue of measurement is partly given in the theory section and elaborated upon in the methodology section.

3. *What type and level of PSM do academics of different faculties at universities hold and which organizational cultures can be distinguished in different faculties at universities in practice?*
4. *Does a variety in Organizational Culture at different faculties of different universities lead to a variety in Public Service Motivation of academics and how does that work?*

Sub-questions three and four are assessed over the course of the thesis. A final answer to all of the four sub-questions is given in the conclusion of this thesis.

## **2. Theory and Research Expectation**

The following chapter gives an insight to the theoretical framework in which this study is embedded. The main theories relevant for the at-hand research are those on Public Service Motivation and on Organizational Culture with the Competing Values Framework.

### **2.1 Public Service Motivation**

According to Rainey (2014, 263), “motivation refers to a person’s desire to work and to work well to the arousal, direction, and persistence of effort in work settings”. Motivation in the public sector is, following Perry (1996), built through attitudes and interests related to the four aspects of self-sacrifice, compassion, public interests and public policy making.

Much research has been done on the drivers of Public Service Motivation over the last decades. The usefulness of these studies is multifaceted. In order to keep a state functioning public institutions are of crucial importance. To ensure efficiency and effectiveness of these institutions public workers not only need to be competent in their field of operations but also to be highly motivated (Panagiotis et al., 2014). Besides keeping the current public employees eager to work well, it is also relevant to raise interest in working in the public sector for future prospective employees in the light of a rising decline in interest in working for the government among young people. Moreover, being aware of the factors that determine PSM prevents from declining job satisfaction within the public sector and from rising turnover (Bright, 2008).

To understand why it is more difficult to uphold motivation of people working for state institutions one needs to understand the special environment of public organizations. Due to the unique context in which public employees work, their motivation is perceived to differ from that of workers in private enterprises. Unlike private ones, public working environments usually lack economic markets and thus have less extrinsic incentives and performance measurement. Moreover, oftentimes public organizations are characterized by goal ambiguity as they have to pursue multiple and conflicting



values, both of their organization or oneself but also in interest of the public. Also, public organizations are more subject to external rules and regulations as well as to dynamic political environments. In general, workers in the public sector have to deal with a much larger amount of bureaucracy, structures and procedures than people in the private sector (Rainey, 2014). To summarize, a broad range of organizational factors such as high amounts of red tape, difficulties in promotion, fewer career opportunities (Rashid & Rashid, 2012) and high levels of emotional stress and exhaustion make it increasingly difficult to uphold motivation within the public sector (Kim, Henderson & Eon, 2015).

Despite these issues in fostering PSM, there are both extrinsic and intrinsic motivational factors for public workers that need to be mentioned (Rainey, 2014). Extrinsic motivation has different underlying attitudes and is oriented towards other achievements than intrinsic one. extrinsically motivated behavior is outcome-oriented and serves as an instrument to accomplish a certain goal, intrinsic motivation is built upon individual interest as well as the personal wish to do something for the sheer enjoyment of doing it (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Extrinsic motivation generally pertains to outcomes related to financial factors, reputation and rewards. Intrinsic motivation usually is related to personal motives, originating in individual wishes and needs (Rainey, 2014). In the public sector extrinsic motivation can for instance be job security and the pension system. For civil employees those factors also play a role in choosing to work in a civil environment. Nonetheless, intrinsic incentives are much more significant for opting to serve the public (Panagiotis et al., 2014). Motivation in the public sector is hence of a unique nature in which performance is closely related with altruistic behavior and the wish to serve the community, as Rainey (2014) states. Other scholars also support this (Dur & Zoutenbier, 2015; Perry et al., 1990). Furthermore, the motivation of the civil servants is strongly associated with their performance. Those people working in a public organization for intrinsic reasons rather than extrinsic ones are more motivated and thus perform better (Dur et al., 2015). That can be drawn back to the fact that extrinsic rewards are less frequent in public working environments than in private ones (Rainey, 2014). Performance, moreover, is difficult to reward in public organizations, especially in times where funding for public institutions in general diminishes. Hence, reward practices that are non-monetary are needed. These function for public workers rather than for private ones due to their intrinsic motivation (Panagiotis et al., 2014).

To conclude, as Perry, Hondeghem and Wise (2010, 887) put it in defining Public Service Motivation: “At the heart of the construct is that individuals are oriented to act in the public domain for the purpose of doing good for others in society”. PSM is hence assumed to be strongly norm and value oriented and appears as the result of the wish to serve the interest of the public (Perry et al., 1990).

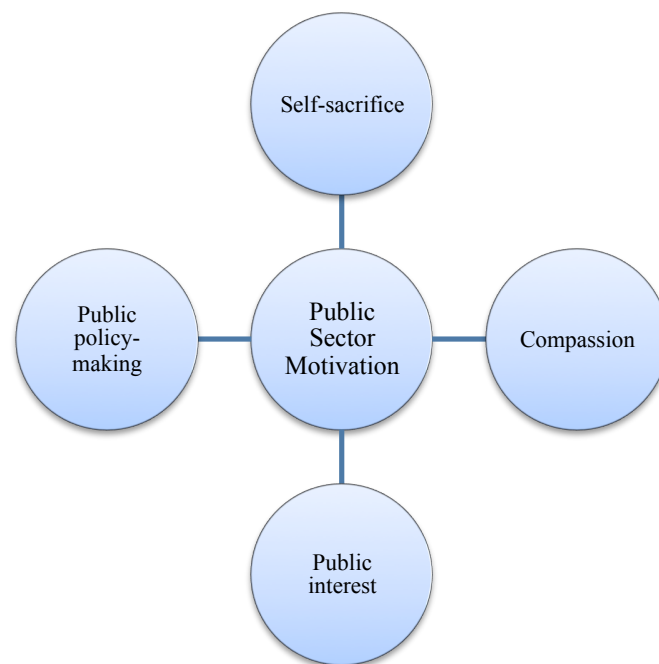


Figure 2: Perry's (1996) four components of Public Service Motivation

## 2.2 Organizational Culture

Hofstede (n.d., 1) defines Organizational Culture as “the way in which members of an organization relate to each other, their work and the outside world in comparison to other organizations”.

The research on Organizational Culture began in the 1980s when scientists increasingly cooperated with managers in developing concepts on the drivers of organizational performance. As Organizational Culture is comprised by status quo assumptions and present memories and does not appear in a written or calculable form and is hence difficult to detect, it has long been ignored within research on the functioning of organizations.

However, culture influences organizations on different levels. Cultural differences between countries or subgroups (gender-related, occupation-related, etc.) can largely impact the way an organization works (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). A culture within an organization, however, usually is determined through “what is valued, the dominant leadership styles, the language and symbols, the procedures and routines, and the definition of success” (Cameron et al., 2006, 17). Also according to other scholars, rituals, decision-making processes, leadership style and the existence of sub-cultures make up for the type of Organizational Culture (Moynihan & Pandley, 2007).

These cultural patterns not only differ over organizations but also over countries (Franco et al., 2002). Within an organization culture is also likely to differ over departments, subunits and hierarchies. Each group at an organization tends to develop its personal set of values and rules, guided by the overall organizational framework, the so-called “organization glue” (Cameron et al., 2006, 18). Organization glue holds together all subunits of an organization and maintains efficiency.

In summary, Organizational Cultures diverges with regard to dominant characteristics, organization-

al leadership, management of employees, organizational glue, strategic emphasis and criteria of success (ibid.).

Organizational Culture is one component of the overall organizational context. Next to OC, organizational context consists of structural and procedural factors as well as of resources and performance feedback. While organizational context as a whole is acknowledged to largely determine motivation of workers, the evidence for the influence of OC as a single concept is not very concrete. (Franco et al., 2002). Still, OC is perceived to impact working attitudes crucially, including factors such as commitment, emotional health, working morale and productivity (Cameron et al., 2006). For instance, in order to enhance motivation of the employees and to promote commitment a culture in which organizational processes and structures are formulated clearly and both visions and goals of the organization are communicated is helpful (Franco et al., 2002). Moreover, immediate feedback on performance is a component of OC that is likely to increase motivation as well as reward-giving for good performance. Under the condition that these requirements are met, Organizational Culture can be depicted as a driver of working attitude and behavior that is able to elevate motivation, also in the public sector (Panagiotis et al., 2014).

### **2.2.1 Assessing OC through the Competing Values Framework**

In order to analyze the culture of an organization several scholars have used the Competing Values Framework (CVF) (Parker & Bradley, 2000), also in studies assessing OCs at universities (Fralinger & Olson, 2007). The CVF allows for the organizational grouping and interpretation of phenomena within organizations. It has been developed within the research on drivers of organizational effectiveness (Cameron et al., 2006).

According to Cameron and Quinn (2006), Organizational Culture can be divided into the four quadrants of clan, adhocracy, market and hierarchy. Clan and adhocracy build the upper quadrants of the CVF and are based on discretion and flexibility. Market and hierarchy pose the CVF's lower quadrants and are based on stability and control. Just like an Organizational Culture, each quadrant includes a set of values, orientations and basic assumptions (ibid.).

1. **CLAN:** An organization with a clan culture has family-like structures in which the leaders take the role of parents. The working environment is friendly and the organization is characterized by its employees' commitment and a strong emphasis on human resource policies enhancing a socially balanced and thus more productive working atmosphere (Hooijberg & Petrock, 1993). The special emphasis on social relations does not necessarily lead to less external output. Especially in times of instability, clan cultures are useful to uphold efficiency. When employees have similar sets of values, working attitudes and goals, it is easier to maintain a smooth running of the organization (Quinn et al., 2006).

2. **ADHOCRACY:** Adhocracy culture is given in an organization that has an entrepreneurial character and stays open for change. Innovation is perceived as a goal and achieved through taking risks. The organization's leaders take the role of risk takers in order to stay on edge of components. Employees are encouraged to show commitment through working independently and to take initiatives (Hooijberg et al., 1993). Organizations with adhocracy cultures increasingly occurred in response to the information age in which conditions constantly change under the influence of internationalization and globalization and with ever-new actors and opportunities entering the stage, as they are most suitable to adapt to novel circumstances (Cameron et al., 2006).
3. **HIERARCHY:** A hierarchical Organizational Culture is characterized by organization, procedures and formalization. Leaders are depicted as organizing and coordinating figures. A set of formal rules as well as internal policies serve to ensure the functioning of the organization. Efficiency and stability form the major achievements (Hooijberg et al., 1993). The characteristics of a hierarchical culture are based on Max Weber's "classical attributes of bureaucracy: rules, specialization, meritocracy, hierarchy, separate ownership, impersonality, accountability" (Quin et al., 2006, 37). Hierarchical organizations are best suitable to ensure efficient production for a complex set of customers or clients (ibid.).
4. **MARKET:** In an organization that holds a market culture the focus largely is on results. Leaders produce and compete in order to obtain measurable success and results. Success is depicted as penetration of the market and achieving a large market share (Hooijberg et al., 1993). The term market, however, is not be confused with the classical consumer market. Instead, market in this case relates to the functioning of the organization itself. That is, the organization is not internally oriented but towards external affairs and transactions with the external environment in order to establish advantage over others (Cameron et al., 2006).

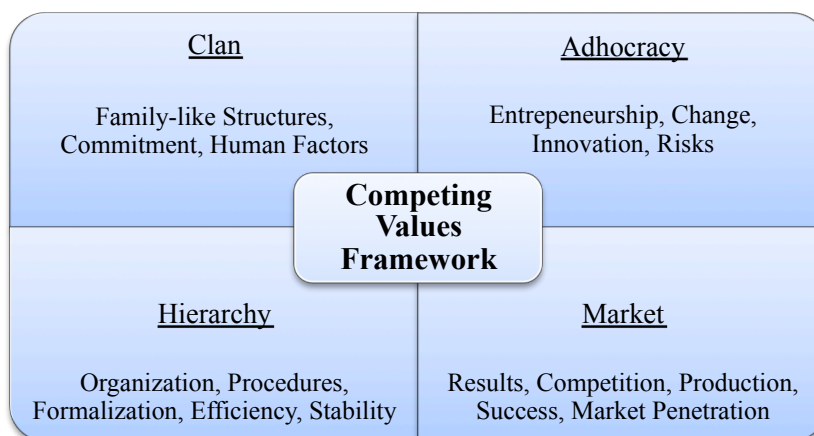


Figure 3: Cameron & Quinn's (2006) Competing Values Framework

### 2.3 Relationship between Organizational Culture and Public Service Motivation

The research seeks to analyze whether certain types of Organizational Cultures are more likely to elevate PSM than others. In order to be able to elaborate upon this issue, it has been looked whether the literature gives indications on that.

Franco et al. (2002) list OC as one of the determinants of PSM. According to them, motivation is perceived higher in organizations where employees meet and interact regularly both during working hours and at social activities after office time. Collaborative decisions as well as a transformational leadership style further enhance PSM. The feature of social interaction is typical for clan culture while joint decision-making and dynamicity allow for new ideas and innovations, as it is common in adhocracy culture. Both clan and adhocracy culture pose the upper quadrants of the CVF and are based on the value of flexibility (Cameron et al., 2006). Panagiotis et al. (2014) who also made use of the CVF to measure OC and researched on the relation between Organizational Culture and PSM found out that a hierarchical culture leads to low levels of PSM while a clan culture results in higher motivation. While Moynihan et al. (2007) were not able to statistically confirm a relationship between OC and PSM they did find out that high levels of red tape and bureaucracy, as it is typical for hierarchical cultures of organizations, result in low levels of PSM. Traditional values of a market culture as typical for NPM systems are hard to combine with the traditional values of academics (Schimank, 2005). It can hence be assumed that motivation of academic staff is lower in universities with market and/or hierarchy culture that pose the CVFs lower quadrants based on stability.

To conclude, the literature leads to the following expectation:

*Research expectation 1: In organizations with clan and/or adhocracy culture, the level of PSM is higher than in organizations with market and/or hierarchy culture.*

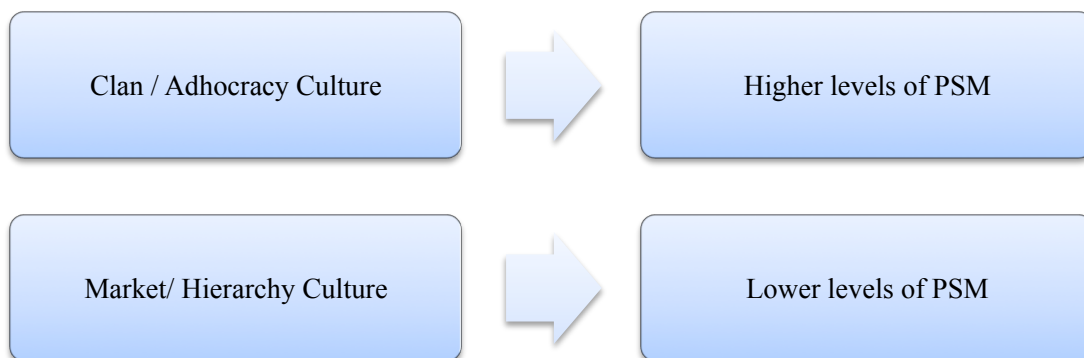


Figure 4: Research expectation 1

### **3. Methodology & Cases**

The subsequent chapter presents the methodology used for this study, including the research design, the data collection method and the case selection as well as a case description. Further, it is illustrated how the variables were operationalized and how the data was analyzed. This section serves the purpose of allowing a replication of this study in order to check for the consistency of the results.

#### **3.1 Research Design**

In order to answer the research question, a cross-sectional research design has been used. That is, all variables and units were measured at the same time and the variables were not manipulated differently for a specific group (Dooley, 2009). Among the benefits of a cross-sectional study is the feasibility. Even with limited time and monetary resources it is possible to measure the variables since no repetition is needed which usually is associated with a time and financial investment (Sedgwick, 2014).

The threats in conducting cross-sectional studies lie mainly in the internal validity.

First, one cannot be sure whether the time order of the variables has been established correctly (Mann, 2003). Considering that Organizational Culture is comprised by the underlying status quo assumptions, values and beliefs of an organization (Cameron et al., 2006) one can, however, assume that the independent variable of Organizational Culture precedes the dependent variable of Public Service Motivation in time. Moreover, several scholars found that organizational context determines worker motivation and not vice versa (Panagiotis et al., 2014). Still, even though reverse causality is unlikely one cannot completely rule out the threat.

The second threat towards internal validity is spuriousness, i.e. that a third variable influences the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables (ibid.). In this study various factors could pose intervening variables impacting the association of Organizational Culture and PSM. Motivation of university teachers could for example be driven not merely by the type of OC but by individual wishes, for instance the desire to create and promote knowledge through scientific research. To protect from this threat the interview consists of two parts in which OC and PSM are measured independently from each other. In answering the questions on PSM the interviewee is free to mention all of his drivers of motivation disregarding the factor of OC. Moreover, the semi-structured nature of the interview allows for more comprehensive responses and, if necessary, questions that are not formally included in the interview protocol can be asked to find out the drivers of the teachers' motivation. Considering all possible third variables, however, will go beyond the scope of this research. Still, it is kept in mind that the result could be influenced by other factors which could be subject of future research (cf. 5.4).

### **3.2 Data Collection Method**

In this research, data was gathered via a qualitative approach. The collection method is comprised by a card game on the independent variable of Organizational Culture and a semi-structured interview with questions on the dependent variable of Public Service Motivation. The card games were played in the same session as in which the interviews were conducted and each component made up approximately half of the session's time. In total, one session lasted about forty minutes. Deans and faculty managers in Germany and the Netherlands who lead faculties of natural and social sciences which serve as units of observation in this study posed the interviewees.

Unlike structured interviews, semi-structured interviews allow for adapting to unforeseen situations and for developing and applying new ideas in the course of the interview. They provide a clear structure on which questions to ask both content- and sequence wise but a certain degree of flexibility is maintained (Dooley, 2009). Moreover, semi-structured interviews best allow for exploring the interviewees perception on the issues at stake. Leaving some openness to the talk best assesses culture and motivation as concepts that are perceived differently by each individual (Barribal & While, 1994).

A qualitative data collection method has been selected as most comparative studies of PSM approach the issue via quantitative methods where they measure PSM in different countries and organizations with universal instruments. Despite some efforts in that field a quantitative measurement taking into account the respective differences remains to be developed (Jilke, Meulemann & van de Walle, 2015). However, as in assessing Public Service Motivation from a comparative perspective one needs to keep in mind that PSM may differ over countries due to different cultures and systems of public administration (Franco et al., 2002). Hence, this research follows a qualitative approach. Public Service Motivation as a sociological topic is best addressed by looking at people's perspective in a detailed case study. While the generalizability of this method is argued to be lower than of quantitative ones, it helps to get to the core of individual PSM better. Moreover, the cases for this study have been selected in such a way, that the highest possible generalizability is ensured (cf. Case Selection).

### **3.3 Case Selection**

For this study universities and universities of applied sciences in Germany and the Netherlands have been selected in order to contest the theories on the influence of OC on Public Service Motivation. Within the universities two faculties have been chosen, one of natural sciences and one of social sciences.

The universities in the two countries pose the possibility of generalization insofar as the university systems in Germany and the Netherlands are different from each other (de Boer, Enders & Schimank, 2007). That becomes especially apparent when considering in how far NPM approaches have been introduced at universities in both countries. In the Netherlands, New Public Management gained relevance already in the 1980s. It was not until the 1990s that Germany followed suit. Since then market-oriented structures have been established to a large extent everywhere in the Netherlands. In Germany, where education is legal subject of the individual federal state and decisions on educational reforms are decided upon by the state ministries, in most states NPM reforms have been implemented less significantly and only in those areas where they are absolute crucial to maintain or foster efficiency (ibid.).

Also considering matters of a more organizational structure, such as duration of terms and holidays, frequency of examination and contact between professors and students, the university systems of both countries differ. Typically, an academic year in Germany is divided into two semesters between which lie holidays, that total three to five months over the year, depending on the examination dates. Exams are taken usually twice a year, right before the holidays. In the Netherlands, on the contrary, the typical academic year is divided into quartiles with exams at the end of each quartile. Between the quartile there are only short holidays of maximum one week and two months of holidays during the summer. Also with regard of the relations between teachers and students both countries have different traditions. Whereas in Germany lectures are very large with up to 1000 students in one lecture, in the Netherlands they usually are for a maximum of 100 students. Moreover, the contact between teachers and students in Germany is much lower than in the Netherlands (Studieren in Holland, n.d.).

Further, universities and universities of applied sciences pose two different types of higher education. While universities are strongly theory and research oriented, the focus at universities of applied sciences is much more practical and serves as preparation for a professional career rather than as an academic education (Leue, 2011). It can be assumed that those circumstances also lead to different Organizational Cultures as well as to different patterns of PSM between universities and universities of applied sciences.

Half of the deans and faculty managers interviewed stem from faculties of social sciences and half from faculties of natural sciences. The literature indicates that there are relevant differences in the cultures of different departments within one organization (Cameron et al., 2006). Within the theory, Natural sciences are referred to as “hard” sciences and social sciences as “soft”. Hard and soft sciences are distinct in terms of the usage of paradigms, of the application of theories to practical issues and of occupation with living systems. While hard sciences tend to use paradigms, to apply their research in practice and to concern themselves with non-



living objects, soft sciences are less strict on paradigms, less focused on practicalities and concern themselves mostly with living objects (Biglan, 1973). Those discrepancies in beliefs and ways of operating over faculties imply discrepancies in culture as well.

In total, it was necessary to include eight cases. Within the two countries two different types of universities, i.e. universities and universities of applied sciences are considered. Moreover, at each university one academic from a faculty of social sciences and one from a faculty of natural sciences are interviewed. That amounts for eight interviews at respectively two different faculties of four universities in two countries.

The heads of faculty serve as the interviewees as they best are able to give extensive insight on their faculty. As the deans and faculty managers need to have an overview of the whole staff their views should be more valid than those of other faculty members who might focus on individual perceptions as it is not their task to concern themselves with the work and attitudes of their colleagues as much as the deans and faculty managers. Naturally, the deans and faculty managers' views are still biased to some extent. However, as the heads of faculty on a daily basis deal with their whole staff they should best be able to estimate how the faculty as a whole perceives cultural as well as motivational matters. Further, the deans and faculty managers pose important characters, as they as leaders are the ones who are able to implement changes within their faculty. Nevertheless, the view of lower level staff may be different. Hence, the research issue at stake is assessed "through the eyes of the deans".

Due to the small number of cases that are studied, random sampling has not been a suitable approach for this research. Instead, purposive sampling was needed. The difficulty in selecting few cases to be studied is that those few cases need to represent a number of cases which are combined much larger than the cases analyzed (Seawright & Gerring, 2008). Thus, in qualitative small number of cases research the selection of cases and their analysis is much more connected than in quantitative large-scale population studies.

Despite the potential of generalization practical issues play a role in choosing cases, such as monetary and time resources. Germany and the Netherlands as neighboring ideally meet these requirements.

Country	Type of University	Type of Faculty	Interviewee
Germany	University 1	Natural sciences	Dean
Germany	University 1	Social sciences	Dean
Germany	University of applied sciences 1	Natural sciences	Faculty manager
Germany	University of applied sciences 1	Social sciences	Dean
The Netherlands	University 2	Natural sciences	Dean
The Netherlands	University 2	Social sciences	Dean
The Netherlands	University of applied sciences 2	Natural sciences	Faculty manager
The Netherlands	University of applied sciences 2	Social sciences	Dean

*Table 2, Selected cases, one case = one interview, total: 8 interviews at 8 faculties within four different universities*

### 3. 4 Case Description

In order to allow for a more detailed understanding of the respective organizations and their cultures, factual information on the faculties has been gathered and is provided in the following paragraphs. As anonymity of this study's participants is to be protected, it is not possible to list sources for these parts of information. Further, to rule out the possibility of back-tracing the information given is kept superficial.

A faculty of natural sciences as well as one of social sciences at a university in a German university town pose the first two cases assessed in this study. The university is one of the biggest in Germany and has a high reputation both for research and education. The faculty of social sciences analyzed has a high student number and offers a large variety of Bachelor and Master degree programs. Compared to the faculty of natural sciences the staff number is rather low. That especially appeals to the academic staff as the research orientation of the faculty of natural sciences is even larger than that of social sciences. The number of students and study programs hence is lower at the natural sciences faculty than at the social sciences one.

From a university of applied sciences located in the same university town in Germany stem cases three and four of this study. As the university in this town, also the university of applied sciences is one of the biggest in Germany. It regularly scores high in university rankings. Both the faculty of natural sciences and that of social sciences are rather small in terms of student and staff number as well as considering the amount of study programs offered. An exception poses the student number at the faculty of social sciences which is medium-high as it offers a variety of highly popular study programs.

Cases five and six are posed by two faculties, one of natural and one of social sciences, at a town of similar size as the German one in the Netherlands. The university has a technical orientation but also

offers a variety of social science courses. Both faculties are medium-sized to large considering the number of staff, students and degree programs.

The last two faculties analyzed stem from a university of applied sciences. This university of applied sciences is situated in the same Dutch city as the Dutch university and three more campuses are located in other cities in the same region. That makes this university of applied sciences one of the biggest in the Netherlands. The faculties assessed, however, are rather small in terms of staff number and study programs offered. The student number still ranges medium-high as does the number of Bachelor programs at the faculty of natural sciences.

To conclude, all eight faculties assessed belong to renowned and large universities located in towns characterized by a high number of students due to the presence of several universities.

Case/ Characteristic	GER U/NS	GER U/SS	GER UAS/NS	GER UAS/SS	NL U/NS	NL U/SS	NL UAS/NS	NL UAS/SS
Number of academic staff	high	medium	small	small	high	high	small	small
Number of non- academic staff	high	small	small	small	high	medium	small	small
Total staff number	high	medium	small	small	high	high	small	small
Number of students	medium	high	small	medium	medium	high	medium	medium
Number of Bachelor programs	medium	high	small	small	medium	medium	medium	small
Number of Master pro- grams	medium	high	small	small	medium	high	small	none
Total number of study pro- grams	medium	high	small	small	medium	medium	small	small

*Table 3: Case description (A legend stating which numbers belong to the categories of “small”, “medium” and “low” as well as a table with more detailed information and numbers can be found in Appendix 1.)*

### **3.5 Operationalization**

As this research seeks to explain the effect of Organizational Culture on Public Service Motivation data for both dependent and independent variable had to be collected. In order to be able to assess both variables through interviews, OC and PSM had to be operationalized. On the basis of the existing literature on the two concepts an interview protocol has been developed.

#### **3.5.1 Dependent Variable (Y): Public Service Motivation**

In 1996, Perry developed the most-widely used quantitative measurement tool for PSM, consisting of a 24-item scale (Bright, 2008). The scale items are grouped into what are considered the four components of civil servants' motivation: self-sacrifice, compassion, public interest and public policy-making. Self-sacrifice in PSM is defined as the civil servants willingness to serve others for intangible rewards rather than monetary ones. Compassion is depicted as the love of "regime values and love of others" (Perry, 1996, 7). Commitment to public interest connotes to the altruistic dimension of PSM and the motive of being a servant for the public. Attraction to public-policy making perceives to the wish of participation in public policy formulation (ibid.).

An issue related to measurement of PSM is the lack of an instrument that considers the differences in PSM over countries or cultures and the thus arising risk of spuriousness and false conclusions (Jilke et al., 2015). Since most of the theory on PSM has been developed in the United States of America, also most measurement instruments originate there. Problematically, those mainly take into account the structure of the public administration system in the US and fail to consider country-specific differences. This can be perceived as ignorance of recent findings suggesting that PSM can vary according to cultural and locational conditions (Franco et. al., 2002). Hence, in order to assess Public Service Motivation from a comparative perspective diverging cultural pre-circumstances need to be taken into account (Kim et al., 2012). This research offers a counter model to commonly used quantitative methods in avoiding errors of measurement through approaching the matter in a qualitative fashion. The data for the dependent variable of Public Service Motivation was consequently collected via interviews. As it deemed not feasible to include 24 items in the interview as suggested by Perry (Bright, 2008), based on Perry's instrument, a limited number of questions was formulated that are based on the four components of PSM and adapted to the world of universities (cf. Appendix 2). As the interviews are of a semi-structured nature it is possible to pose follow up questions when that allows for a better collection of data.

#### **3.5.2 Independent Variable (X): Organizational Culture**

Cameron and Quinn (2006) developed the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) to categorize OC into one of the four quadrants of the Competing Values Framework, i.e. clan, adhoc-

racy, hierarchy and market culture. The OCAI includes questions on the six dimensions that distinguish between types of Organizational Cultures, namely on dominant characteristics, organizational leadership, management of employees, organization glue, strategic emphases and criteria of success. For each dimension the interviewee has to select one out of four statements that apply to his organization most. Each of the four dimensions respects to one of the CVF quadrants (Cameron et al., 2006).

For this research, based on the OCAI a card game has been developed. It consists of six sets of cards whereas one set represents one dimension of Organizational Culture, as listed above. Each card set is built up through four cards. On each card there is one statement related to one of the four quadrants of the CVF. The statements on the cards are partly the same as in the questionnaire, though formulated less complex and shorter (cf. Appendix 3). The interviewees are asked to rank the statements and to divide 100 points between them. They are supposed to give most points to the statement with which they agree most and least points to the statements with which they agree least. In order to avoid that each quadrant scores the same amount of points which would make a categorization impossible, it is not allowed to give 25 points to each card. To conclude on the Organizational Culture of the respective faculty, the points of the six dimensions are added. The quadrant that obtained most points poses the OC at stake. Moreover, the ranking of the cultures per dimension is taken into account. Those cultures that have most often been ranked first according to the assigned scores are more dominant than those who most often have been ranked lower. That helps to come to a result in case two or more types of cultures achieved a similar amount of points and to discover whether a faculty possesses strong elements of cultures other than the one dominant. The card game is used instead of the questionnaire, as it is more convenient to incorporate in a qualitatively oriented interview. It allows for some variation and more openness in the interview process than filling in a standardized survey.

### **3.6 Data Analysis**

In order to be able to assess the data from the interviews a framework analysis has been conducted. As a first step the interviews have been transcribed and coded manually (the complete interview transcriptions were published in a separate document as their length exceeds the scope of this paper). Due to the small number of cases it was not deemed necessary to make use of a qualitative data analysis software package.

As a next step a thematic framework has been identified. The framework includes a priori issues of both variables as found in the literature, for instance idealism, altruism, and job security. It allows for a coding of the data as it provides a range of themes into which the data can be grouped.

For the variable of Organizational Culture it has not been necessary to create a coding as the CVF

already provides four different groups, i.e., clan, adhocracy, market and hierarchy. The grouping already took place during the interview process when the participants were asked to divide points between the statements that are each related to one quadrant of the CVF. The quadrant that obtained most points presents the type of OC present at the respective faculty. A matrix has been created showing which case, i.e. faculty, upholds which Organizational Culture.

In order to categorize the content of the interviews on Public Service Motivation, a deductive approach has been used. Based on the theory on PSM and with regard to the interview questions, the following five categories have been developed:

1. Significance of working in a public organization
2. Attitude towards the public sector with respect to differences between public and private sector
3. Contribution to the public and responsibility towards societal challenges
4. Engagement in society
5. Public interest versus self-interest

Perry describes PSM as composed by self-sacrifice, compassion, public interests and public policy making (1996). All five categories were created in order to assess in how far the interviewees relate their work to the four components of Public Service Motivation.

The first category, significance of working in a public organization, seeks to identify whether the interviewees consider it as special to work in a public organization. Aspects such as idealism and the wish to help others would classically be related to the concept of PSM (Perry et al., 1990) - as would job security, predictability and reliability be (Rainey, 2014). Since the public working environment differs from the private one, the second category, attitude towards the public sector with respect to differences between public and private sector, serves to assess whether the interviewees perceive it as different to work in a public instead of a private organization. Among the typical characteristics of public organizations in comparison with private ones are lower salaries but higher job security as well as the idealistic desire to do something meaningful through work (ibid.). As public employees are defined as eager to serve the public interest and to participate in public policy making (Perry, 1996), category three, contribution to the public and responsibility towards societal challenges, aims at discovering in how far the academic staff perceives their work as a relevant contribution to society, for instance through teaching and sees itself responsible for the solution of issues in society, for instance through research. According to the literature on PSM, people who work in the public sector are more actively engaged in society than those working at a private enterprise (Rainey, 2014). With category four, engagement in society, it is possible to analyze how active the academic staff is in the public, for instance by working over hours and fostering outreach as well as cooperating with social

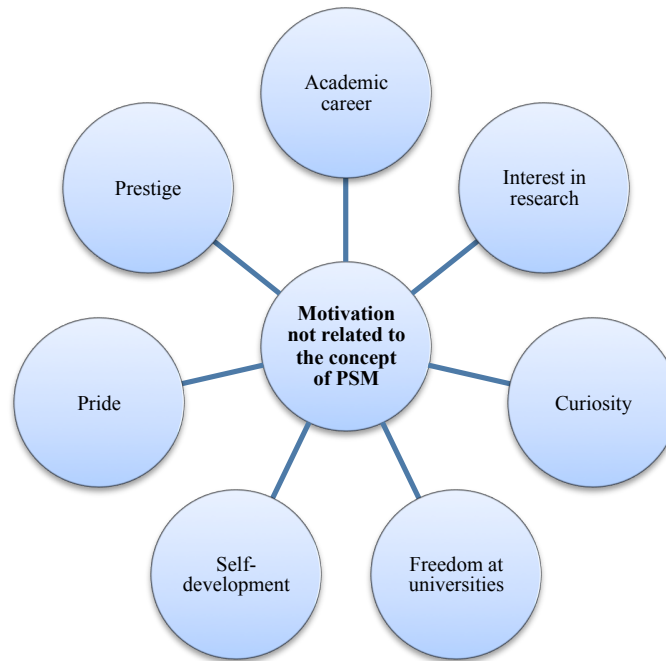
organizations and the media. Public workers oftentimes are subject to goal ambiguity as they pursue organizational and own goals as well as those of the society. Nonetheless, they are generally described as prioritizing the interest of the public over their own (ibid.). The fifth category of public interest versus private interest allows for assessing whether that appeals to this study's cases.

All of the five codes were put in a matrix, together with the eight cases. For each case it has been checked what statements the participant made related to all five categories. After summarizing the statements in the matrix, a "traffic light" system has been used. Content positively related to the concept of PSM has been marked green. Content negatively related to the concept of PSM has been marked red. Content that is partly related to the concept of PSM has been marked orange. By using this matrix it has been possible to summarize eight interviews in one table and to deliver a description of the data. For practical reasons in this part of this thesis a table has been included that merely displays the aspects of each category (cf. Table 4) as well as one in the analysis that shows whether the case has been assigned a green, red or orange score in the respective category (cf. Table 7). (For the complete matrix, see Appendix 5.)

Category	<b>Significance of working in a public organization</b>	<b>Attitude towards public sector with respect to differences between public and private sector</b>	<b>Contribution to the public and responsibility towards societal challenges</b>	<b>Engagement in society</b>	<b>Public interest vs. self-interest</b>
Aspects	Idealism, Education, Reliability, Predictability, Security, Contribution to the Public, Social responsibility, Intrinsic motivation	Lower salaries, Less pressure, Less obligations, No experience in private sector, Not decisive, More sacrifices, Work to help, Less competition	Education, Research where public can relate, Within own field of interest, Cooperation with social organization, Contribution to society as by-product, Social responsibility	Working after hours, Media-tion of science for the public, Provision of expertise to the media, Engagement in society beyond work, Active in outreach	Conflict, Pursuit of self-interest first, Pursuit of public interest first, Difficult to assess, Not merely altruism

*Table 4: Categories and aspects of coding for PSM*

In evaluating the interviews it became evident that the five categories listed above and a merely deductive approach are not sufficient to analyze the motivation of the academics as it appears to be determined by factors not included in the classical PSM theories. Hence, a table with aspects concerning “Motivation not related to the concept of PSM” has been developed (see Appendix 6). Aspects such as interest and curiosity in research, the desire to pursue an academic career and the ambition to gain prestige, compromise this category.



*Figure 5: Motivational factors for academics not related to the concept of PSM*

After describing the results of the cards games and content of the interviews, the analysis followed suit. Within the analysis it has been searched for associations, concepts, patterns and explanations in the data. Moreover, it has been checked in how far the interview data is in accordance with the description on the theory on PSM and in how far it contains factors not included in the theories’ classical concepts. Furthermore, it has been analyzed whether the expectations for this study on the relation between OC and PSM are confirmed by the data or not.



## **4. Findings & Analysis**

The chapter at hand poses the core of this thesis. It outlines the findings of this study, concerning the variables of both Organizational Culture and Public Service Motivation. Moreover, the relationship between the two variables is analyzed.

### **4.1 Organizational Culture**

In adding the scores of the card game on Organizational Culture it becomes apparent that most faculties have one dominant culture (cf. Table 4). The three cultures of hierarchy, adhocracy and clan prevail at the analyzed cases, whereas market culture does not dominate any of the faculties.

Hierarchy culture exists at the faculty of natural sciences at the German university, as well as at both faculties at the German university of applied sciences. The faculties of social sciences of both the German and the Dutch universities have an adhocracy culture. Clan culture can be found as dominant at the faculty of natural sciences at the university in the Netherlands as well as at both faculties at the Dutch university of applied sciences.

Whereas the natural sciences faculty at the German university, the social sciences faculty at the Dutch university and the natural as well as the social faculty at the Dutch university of applied sciences are clearly characterized by one culture only, the other four faculties also have strong components of other cultures than the one dominant. That comes apparent in looking at how often the cultures were ranked first, second, etc. in the card game. The German university's faculty of social sciences next to an adhocracy culture also has some elements of a clan culture. Both faculties at the German university of applied sciences are most relevantly described as hierarchical cultures but also entail clan culture aspects. The faculty of natural sciences furthermore appears as slightly market-oriented, too. The existing component of market culture also modestly applies to the Dutch university's natural sciences faculty which is predominantly a clan culture with some a adhocracy aspects.

University	Clan	Adhocracy	Market	Hierarchy
GER/ US/ NS	105 (16)	135 (13)	150 (12)	<b>240 (6)</b>
GER/U/SS	150 (12)	<b>195 (11)</b>	130 (14)	135 (15)
GER/UAS/NS	155 (10)	130 (15)	150 (12)	<b>175 (8)</b>
GER/UAS/SS	165 (10)	130 (16)	130 (14)	<b>175 (12)</b>
NL/U/NS	<b>175 (10)</b>	170 (11)	160 (11)	95 (18)
NL/U/SS	150 (12)	<b>292,5 (8)</b>	42,5 (17)	115 (16)
NL/UAS/NS	<b>320 (7)</b>	130 (14)	140 (14)	10 (20)
NL/UAS/SS	<b>280 (6)</b>	90 (15)	70 (16)	120 (12)

*Table 5: Scores & Results of the Organizational Culture card game*

#### 4.1.1 Germany and the Netherlands

All three universities with hierarchical cultures are situated in Germany. As Germany is perceived as a country with high degrees of bureaucracy, especially in the field of public administration and within public organizations (Jann, Wegrich & Tiessen, 2007), this comes as no surprise. In the Netherlands public organizations usually pursue a more market-oriented approach (de Boer et al., 2007). Classically, market orientation serves to strengthen efficiency and hence comes along with a decline in red tape (Rainey, 2014). That, however, is not the case for universities. Higher education institutions long had little hierarchy and bureaucracy. To foster efficiency though, NPM reforms introduced these drivers of productivity to a greater extent (Schimank, 2005).

New Public Management at universities hence not only brings about market structures but also hierarchical elements. Still, the focus is on market rather than bureaucracy reforms. That explains why the two faculties entailing slight aspects of market cultures are Dutch, as NPM prevails in the Netherlands to a larger extent than in Germany.

Contrarily to the German universities, most Dutch universities have clan cultures. Three out of the four faculties emphasized the importance of social relations and human resource development. Moreover, the Dutch interviewees have evaluated the contact between students and teachers posi-

tively. Interaction between students and teachers usually is much higher at Dutch universities than at German ones (Studieren in Holland, n.d.) and which also contributes to a more familiar atmosphere at higher education institutions in the Netherlands. However, clan culture also prevails to a less distinct extent at three of the German faculties assessed. As an adhocracy culture appears once in each country there does not seem to be a specific pattern why it exists in either Germany or the Netherlands.

#### **4.1.2 Universities and Universities of Applied Sciences**

Considering the difference in Organizational Cultures at universities and universities of applied sciences it was assumed that universities of applied sciences as more practical oriented institutions with smaller classes and more intense relations between teachers and students tend to have a clan culture rather than universities. That is in line with the fact that two faculties of the universities of applied sciences are dominantly characterized by a clan culture. The other two, despite having hierarchical culture, are also characterized by clan cultures. However, to a less distinct extent. As family-like working environments are more easily established in smaller faculties it is not surprising that the faculties of universities of applied sciences who employ fewer people have higher level of clan culture than most university faculties.

Research-focused universities are on the hand organizations that entail high degrees of freedom and loose systems (Schimank, 2005). With the new market orientation, on the other hand (Benneworth et al., 2012), they need to be able to implement reforms and to develop new systems. Hence it is reasonable that two out of four university faculties have an adhocracy culture which combines freedom with dynamicity (Cameron et al., 2009). As the cultures of hierarchy and clan are only upheld by one research university faculty each there does not seem to be a general pattern for the occurrence of these CVF quadrants at this type of universities.

#### **4.1.3 Faculties of Natural Sciences and Faculties of Social Sciences**

Following the literature on the differences between faculties of natural sciences and social sciences the former ones are usually referred to as “hard” and the latter ones as “soft”. Hard or natural sciences are usually described as more strict and practicality-focused whereas soft or social sciences concern themselves with less formalized and structured issues (Biglan, 1973). Hence, one would assume that faculties of natural sciences have either hierarchical or market cultures while the cultures at social sciences faculties are either of an adhocracy or a clan nature. Instead, the ratio is balanced. Two of the natural sciences faculties’ cultures are hierarchical and two are clan-like. Furthermore, two of the social sciences faculties’ cultures are hierarchical and two are adhocracy-like. It is thus impossible to formulate a pattern of Organizational Cultures for different academic faculties.

#### 4.1.4 Summary and Interpretation of Results

Case/	GER	GER	GER	GER	NL	NL	NL	NL
Organizational	U	U	UAS	UAS	U	U	UAS	UAS
Culture	NS	SS	NS	SS	NS	SS	NS	SS
Clan		x	xx	xx	xxx		xxx	xxx
Adhocracy		xxx			xx	xxx		
Hierarchy	xxx		xxx	xxx				
Market			x		x			

Table 6: Summarized results from the OC card game, xxx=dominant culture, xx=strong aspects of that culture, x=slight aspects of that culture

According to the literature the New Public Management approaches introduced at universities over the last decades resulted in a larger market orientation of universities (Benneworth et al., 2012). Moreover, NPM led to a conflict between the traditional values of academic professionals, i.e. freedom and self-determination and the newly established competitive structures, i.e. more bureaucracy and surveillance systems (Schimank, 2005). Hence, one would assume that market and hierarchy cultures prevail at universities nowadays. Following the results of this study, however, that is not the case. Hierarchy cultures occur indeed, next to those of adhocracy and clan. A market-oriented culture, however, is the only one that does not appear as dominant culture in any of the cases, while it characterizes to a less distinct extent the faculties of natural sciences at the German university of applied sciences and the Dutch university. Despite the more competition based orientation of universities the focus on production and market share still does not relevantly seem to apply to universities as institutions primarily funded by the state and fixed tuition fees.

The fact that three out of eight faculties have hierarchy cultures is in line with the theoretical assumptions of high amounts of red tape and bureaucracy within public organizations (Rainey, 2014) as well as with the greater extent of bureaucracy introduced by NPM approaches (Schimank, 2005). When looking at the literature where universities are classically described as loosely coupled systems (Weick, 1967), it is not surprising that three out of eight faculties entail a clan culture. Moreover, both faculties at the German university of applied sciences as well as that of social sciences at the German university have distinct features of a clan culture too, while dominated by hierarchy and adhocracy cultures. Also from the interview data it becomes apparent that in the three faculties with clan cultures the focus on social relations is extensive and a prerequisite for the functioning of the institutions.

The Organizational Culture of adhocracy can be found at two of the assessed faculties as well as in a less distinct form at the Dutch university's faculty of natural sciences. That also matches the description of universities as loosely coupled systems (ibid.). Moreover, universities as public institutions

are constantly subject to policy reforms (Rainey, 2014) and hence need to be dynamic and able to adapt to novel conditions. The focus on bringing about innovations matches the research component of universities.

To conclude, all quadrants of the CVF are dominant at at least one of the eight university faculties, despite the market culture. However, that also partly characterizes two faculties. Clan and hierarchy both appear three times each and adhocracy twice, whereas clan culture also exists to a lower degree at three other faculties as does adhocracy in one case.

It appears that the difference between countries is much more relevant than the divergence between universities and universities of applied sciences or natural and social sciences faculties. Whereas in Germany there seems to be a tendency towards hierarchical cultures at universities in the Netherlands there is one towards clan cultures. Faculties of universities of applied sciences appear as likely to have clan cultures. However, neither for research-oriented universities a pattern of OC distribution is apparent, nor for different faculties at the universities. Hence, a generalizable distribution of cultures over types of universities and academic faculties does not seem possible.

## 4.2 Public Service Motivation

The levels of Public Service Motivation found in the sample differ over the cases. According to the deans and faculty managers, staff at four out of eight faculties is characterized by high levels of PSM, i.e. in the faculty of natural sciences at the German university, in the faculty of social sciences at the German university of applied sciences as well as both faculties at the Dutch university of applied sciences. In three cases motivation can be discovered that is partly related to the concept of Public Service Motivation, namely at the German university of applied sciences's faculty of natural sciences as well as at the Dutch university's faculties of social and natural sciences. Very low is PSM merely in one of the assessed faculties; that of social sciences at the German university.

Category/ Case	Significance of working in a public organization	Attitude towards public sector with respect to differ- ences between public and private sector	Contribution to the public and responsibility towards societal challenges	Engagement in society	Public interest vs. self-interest	Result
GER U/NS	■	■	■	■	■	■
GER U/SS	■	■	■	■	■	■
GER UAS/NS	■	n.a.	■	■	■	■
GER UAS/SS	■	■	■	■	■	■
NL U/NS	■	■	■	■	■	■
NL U/SS	■	■	■	■	■	■
NL UAS/NS	■	■	■	■	■	■
NL UAS/SS	■	■	■	■	■	■

Table 7: PSM within the different faculties, ■ = PSM, ■ = partly related to PSM, ■ = not related to PSM

### 4.2.1 High levels of PSM

For the academic staff with high levels of Public Service Motivation working at a university as a public organization is to some extent based on idealism and the wish to contribute to society by offering education. The desire to take social responsibility forms one of the major intrinsic work motivations. Moreover, the academics generally value the aspect of job security and employment privileges which they perceive as higher than in private organizations. However, the dean of the German

university's faculty of natural sciences points out that job security can also be threatened at universities due to high competition on professorial careers. The academics realize that their salaries would be higher if they worked in the private sector. However, working at the public sector for most employees of the faculties with high levels of PSM is a deliberate choice. Being driven by idealism and the wish to serve society the academics still opt for a career in the public sector despite the lower salaries.

Idealism means that they see it as their responsibility to provide good education for society. With regard to the second field of their profession, research, the societal relevance is less obvious. That especially appeals to basic research to which uninformed members of society cannot relate.

In general, the employees are willing to devote time after working hours to the public cause through being present at open days and by taking care of public relations. It is considered important to mediate sciences to the public or to provide expertise to the media. However, that is only the case as long as the concerned issue lies within the field of research of the respective professional. Also, it is difficult to say how active each individual is as there is a spectrum ranging from academics that are highly active in society to those who are not active beyond their regular working hours at all.

In considering the conflict between the pursuit of self-interest and public interest, the staff of the German university's faculty of natural sciences sees a conflict between teaching and education as public interest and research as private interest, based on personal curiosity. Also the administrative parts are not related to private interest but rather serve the public to ensure a functioning of the university. However, despite acknowledging the general conflict, it is difficult to say whether the pursuit of own interests is more dominant than that of public ones or vice versa. In case of the Dutch university of applied sciences natural sciences faculty as well as in that of the German university of applied sciences social faculty the pursuit of self-interest is considered as more important than that of public interest. Still, the faculty manager of the Dutch faculty does not necessarily see a conflict between both as serving the public matches the personal interest of the faculty's staff. The dean of the social sciences faculty of the German university of applied sciences points out that even though the work of his staff has an important societal meaning, it is not merely altruism that drives them but for instance privileged employment opportunities. The academic staff of the faculty of social sciences at the university of applied sciences in the Netherlands poses public interest over their self-interest.

Besides the intrinsic motivations of the staff that are related to the classical concept of PSM, such as idealism and the wish to contribute to society by educating young people, the deans pointed out that there simply is no other way for pursuing a full academic professional career than working at a university which happens to be a public organization. Moreover, intrinsic interest in basic research or in the own field of interest is stated to be one of the most relevant drivers of work motivation. The freedom of universities and the possibilities for self-development pose further trigger for motivation of the staff at these four faculties.

#### **4.2.2 Moderate levels of PSM**

The attitude towards working in the public sector of the academic staff working at faculties with moderate levels of PSM is ambivalent. While it is a deliberate choice to work at a university, it is not perceived as highly decisive that universities are public instead of private organizations. Working at a public organization though positively comes along with job security. Moreover, the dean of the faculty of social sciences at the Dutch university states that his staff follows a certain public sector ethos, the wish to engage in public affairs and to help others. That is also supported by the other deans who perceive contribution to society as important, especially through the provision of education. Also the job aspect of research serves the public by developing technologies that are relevant for society and inspired by application.

Nonetheless, even though the employees realize the importance of serving the public it is not their main driver of motivation, especially not in the short term. The willingness to serve society only persists as long as one can make use of a societal challenge to the benefit of personal scientific programs. Societal challenges serve as a source of inspiration rather than as a priority. Responsibility towards solving societal challenges is only taken when the societal challenge at stake can be translated into an interesting scientific matter.

Still, the academics of these faculties are active in outreach activities, by being present at open days and fairs, as well as by providing expertise to the media. They possess a large degree of loyalty towards exposing and conveying work to society. For that, they are also motivated to work after hours, but that is also because long working days during the semester are compensated by lecture free times between the terms, as the faculty manager of the German university of applied sciences natural sciences faculty states.

All deans find it difficult to assess whether the majority of their staff poses self-interest or public interest first, but they believe that self-interest in the form of conducting research projects within the personal field of interest is prioritized by most.

To sum up, contribution to society does have a motivational factor for the staff of these three faculties. However, the drive to scientific research and a little less relevant to teaching are much more determining for the staff's motivation. Next to the intrinsic interest and curiosity in research extrinsic rewards in the form of prestige, pride and scientific careers play a role in motivating the staff members of these faculties.

#### **4.2.3 Low levels of PSM**

PSM hardly exists at the faculty of social sciences at the German university. In working at a public organization the staff values the factors of reliability, predictability and security. For them, working in the private sector would bring about larger pressures and obligations.



Contribution to society and responsibility towards solving societal challenges is not considered as very relevant. Instead, the academics are focused on matters which they find interesting themselves, not those that are relevant for society. That is especially the case for historical and philosophical research questions where the orientation towards the public good is not evident. In educational and political sciences, however, it is obvious that the work of the academics contributes to society. People at this faculty are willing to work after hours. Nonetheless, that is not in order to serve the public cause but in the self-interest of promoting the personal career. Again, staff of the educational and political sciences institutes is more active in society than others whereas the dean finds it difficult to claim how active individuals are.

In general, the faculty leader believes that the pursuit of self-interest has a higher priority than contributing to the public cause. The reasons why people opt for a career at a university are not grounded in altruistic ideals but determined by personal interest and curiosity in research and science. Moreover, the university is the only public organization that has enormously high degrees of freedom while offering the classical securities of a public sector institution.

#### **4.2.4 Germany and the Netherlands**

In Germany, two university faculties have high levels of PSM. In one they are moderate and in one they are low. In the Netherlands all four faculties entail levels of PSM, whereas they are moderate in two and high in the other two. The fact that PSM is higher in the Dutch organizations can be drawn back to the circumstance of higher bureaucracy in Germany as indicated in the literature (Jann et al., 2007) and proven by this study's results concerning OC. As motivation is higher in organizations with less red tape (Moynihan et al., 2007) it makes sense that university faculties in the Netherlands have higher levels of Public Service Motivation. Freedom in decisions is higher at Dutch universities (de Boer et al., 2007) and moreover generally fosters positive working attitudes of academic professionals (Schimank, 2005).

#### **4.2.5 Universities and Universities of Applied Sciences**

Two out of four faculties at research-oriented universities have moderate levels of Public Service Motivation. At one university faculty PSM is high, at another one it is low. In the cases of the universities of applied sciences at all faculties motivation is related to the concept of PSM; in three cases to a large extent and in one case moderately. That Public Service Motivation in universities of applied sciences appears as higher than in universities is due to the more practical orientation of the former group. The focus is less on research than on application-oriented education of young people. The interviewees emphasized that a contribution to society occurs primarily through the educational aspect of their work. As the work at research universities comprises more research than that at uni-

versities of applied sciences it is reasonable that the focus on education and hence on contributing to the public good is higher in universities of applied sciences as organizations directed towards practicalities.

#### 4.2.6 Faculties of Natural sciences and Faculties of Social Sciences

Considering the dimensions of natural and of social sciences, Public Service Motivation appears to almost the same amount in both groups. Whereas PSM is moderate in three faculties of natural sciences cases and high in, it is high in two faculties of social sciences and moderate and low in one each. Concluding from the literature on the discrepancies between academic disciplines it was assumed that the desire to contribute to the public cause is higher in social faculties concerning themselves with social issues rather than in natural ones concerning themselves with the development of new technologies (Biglan, 1973). Nonetheless, the cases assessed in this study do not confirm this relationship.

#### 4.2.7 Summary and Interpretation of Results

Case	GER/ U/NS	GER/ U/SS	GER/ UAS/NS	GER/ UAS/SS	NL/ U/NS	NL/ U/SS	NL/ UAS/NS	NL/ UAS/SS
PSM	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■

Table 8: Summarized results of the interviews on PSM, ■ = PSM, ■ = partly related to PSM, ■ = not related to PSM

The body of literature on PSM largely assumes that motivation within the public sector does not differ over types of organizations and mostly distinguishes between motivation at public and private institutions (Rainey, 2014; Rashid et al., 2012). Public Service Motivation is described as a general attitude of people working in the public sector, consisting of the wish to serve the public cause and based on intrinsic motivation to help other people.

In looking at the cases of this study, however, it becomes evident that motivation of public employees differs over types of organizations. High levels of PSM are persistent in three out of eight higher education institutions. The desire to contribute to society mainly by educating young people but also less significantly by developing new technologies has been mentioned by all three deans of the university faculties with high levels of PSM. That is in line with the classical concept of Public Service Motivation (Perry, 1996). Four deans emphasized that serving the public comes along with working at a university, also through the provision of education and research. However, they underlined that this is not the main driver of motivation for their academic staff but rather perceived as a sort of desirable side effect of their work. Those four deans work at faculties with medium-high levels of Public Service Motivation. The dean of the only faculty where PSM does not occur at all pointed out

that his staff is merely motivated by the personal interest in and curiosity for research. They are not motivated to serve the public in general.

The fact that not all faculties analyzed have high level of PSM can be drawn back to the expectation that motivation differs over types of public organizations (cf. 1). While seven out of eight cases possess medium to high levels of PSM, one dean sees the concepts of PSM as rather irrelevant in motivating his staff. Still, in the majority of the faculties, components of Public Service Motivation can be found which matches the assumptions of previous studies that motivation patterns in public environments including altruism and the feeling of social responsibility persist over different types of organizations (Rainey, 2014). However, divergence in the existence and nature of PSM exists as proven by this study.

To conclude, discrepancies in Public Service Motivation can mainly be found over countries and types of universities. That PSM is higher in the Netherlands can be drawn back to lower levels of bureaucracy and more contact between students and teachers. Universities of applied sciences tend to be characterized by Public Service Motivation more than universities as their focus is on practical education which contributes more directly to the public than the research orientation of universities. The kind of academic discipline seems less relevant as there are no large differences in the occurrence of PSM over types of faculties.

In general, it needs to be emphasized that for most academics the main motivation stems from the intrinsic interest in research, to some extent also in education. According to the deans, the employees of the faculties perceive it as a positive spin-off of their work that it contributes to society but do not see it as their main motivation.

#### **4.3 Analysis of the Relationship between Organizational Culture and Public Service Motivation**




Following the literature, PSM is higher in organizations that have features related to aspects of clan culture, such as collaborative decision-making processes and social interaction. Moreover, adhocracy components such as dynamicity and innovations also foster PSM (Franco et al., 2002). On the contrary, hierarchical cultures are described as resulting in lower levels of PSM (Panagiotis et al., 2014) as do market-oriented NPM approaches that conflict with the traditional values of freedom and independence of academics (Schimank, 2005). Hence, it has been assumed that the faculties assessed which entail clan and adhocracy cultures have higher levels of Public Service Motivation than those with adhocracy and market cultures.

As indicated in the literature, PSM persists in all three clan culture faculties, as well as in most with elements of clan culture which otherwise are dominated by hierarchical and adhocracy cultures. In

two of those cases Public Service Motivation is high and in two it is moderate. The literature also suggested that organizations with adhocracy cultures have high levels of PSM. However, while Public Service Motivation is at least moderate in one faculty with adhocracy culture, it is very low in the other. That is despite the fact that the faculty with low PSM also has clan elements.

In contrast to the expectation that faculties with hierarchical cultures have little Public Service Motivation, one of the faculties characterized by hierarchy has high levels of PSM. The other two hierarchical faculties have at least medium high levels of PSM. That might be because they also entail some elements of a clan culture. However, one needs to keep in mind that the one faculty that is merely characterized as a hierarchy culture has no other cultural elements at all. As none of the faculties has a relevant high degree of market culture - merely two have slight aspects of it - it is difficult to assess in how far that is related to the level of PSM which is moderate in both cases.

To conclude, while faculties with clan culture or at least elements of clan culture tend to have higher levels of Public Service Motivation, there are also hierarchical cultures with moderate or high levels of PSM. Moreover, one of the two adhocracy culture-characterized faculty has very low PSM, even though the literature suggested otherwise. A tendency of clan cultures enhancing Public Service Motivation is hence apparent but it remains impossible to generalize that due to the inconsistencies with regard to the other cultures. It is not possible to verify the research expectation that faculties with clan and/or adhocracy cultures have higher levels of PSM than faculties with hierarchy and/or market culture as there is no dominant pattern over the eight cases.

<b>Dominant Culture/ Levels of PSM</b>	<b>Clan</b>	<b>Adhocracy</b>	<b>Hierarchy</b>	<b>Market</b>
	NL/UAS/NS NL/UAS/SS		GER/UAS/SS	
	NL/U/NS	NL/U/SS	GER/U/NS GER/UAS/NS	
		GER/U/SS		

*Table 9: OC and PSM at the eight faculties according to the interview data*

## 5. Conclusion

This study aimed at analyzing in how far the type of Organizational Culture influences Public Service Motivation in the case of eight faculties of natural and social sciences at universities and universities of applied sciences in Germany and in the Netherlands and at explaining the relationship between the two variables.

The final chapter of the thesis at hand demonstrates the conclusions that can be drawn from the results of this study. It hence gives answers and statements to the sub-questions as well as to the main research question and expectation. Next to that, other findings of this research are presented. Moreover, it is reflected upon the study's limitations and recommendations for future research are introduced.

### 5.1 Answers to the Sub-Questions

In order to break down this extensive research problem a set of sub-questions was included.

1. The first sub-question asked what Public Service Motivation is in general and how it is measured. According to the literature, PSM consists of the four components of self-sacrifice, compassion, public interests and public policy-making (Perry, 1996). People working in the public sector are described as intrinsically motivated through idealism and the wish to serve the public good. Extrinsic motivation in the public sector occurs through high levels of job security and the pension system (ibid.). Most scholars measure PSM quantitatively (Jilke et al., 2015). Commonly, Perry's 24-item scale is used for the measurement (Bright, 2008). The quantitative tools to measure PSM do not take country or culture-specific differences into account (Jilke et al., 2015). As this research sought to analyze whether culture leads to divergence in PSM, it made use of a qualitative approach. Based on Perry's scale an interview protocol has been developed. It takes into account those items and components of PSM that are relevant for this study and related to factors such as significance of working in a public organization, willingness to contribute to society and preferences of public interest over private interest.
2. Sub-question two dealt with the issue of what Organizational Culture is in general and how it is measured. Organizational Culture consists of status quo assumptions and present memories. It is not written down but apparent through values, styles of leadership, ways of communications and types of procedures (Cameron et al., 2006). One common approach to measure OC is through the help of the Competing Values Framework. The CVF groups organizations and their cultures into the four quadrants of clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market (ibid.). Cameron and Quinn developed the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument which is a questionnaire that allows for grouping OCs according to the CVF. Based on

the OCAI an Organizational Culture card game has been developed for this study. The card game included the four quadrants of the CVF as well as six components of OC, for instance dominant characteristics and definition of success, and enabled the grouping of the faculties' cultures.

3. Sub-question three was concerned with what type and level of PSM academics of universities hold and which Organizational Cultures can be distinguished at universities in practice. According to the data of this study, PSM and OC differ largely over countries, as well as types of universities and faculties. While four faculties have high levels of PSM, two have moderate and one has low degrees of Public Service Motivation. Clan culture prevails in three cases, as does hierarchy. Two faculties have adhocracy cultures.
4. Sub-question four asked whether a variety in university OC leads to a variety in PSM of academics and how that works. According to the cases of this study there is a variety in OC as well as in PSM. However, it is not discoverable whether certain types of Organizational Culture result in certain levels of Public Service Motivation. While a tendency of faculties with clan cultures having high levels of PSM is apparent, there is no obvious pattern of which variety in OC leads to which variety in PSM. It is hence impossible to give a definite answer to sub-question four.

## **5.2 Answer to the Main Research Question and Evaluation of the Research Expectation**

The main research question of this study was: *In how far does Organizational Culture influence Public Service Motivation and how can this relationship be explained?* The units of analysis were eight faculties of social as well as natural sciences at universities and universities of applied sciences in the Netherlands. In order to answer the research issue interviews were conducted with eight faculty deans and managers at the respective organizations. The general research expectation was: *In organizations with clan and/or adhocracy culture the level of PSM is higher than in organizations with market and/or hierarchy culture.*

According to the literature, clan and adhocracy culture are likely to result in high levels of PSM. Market and hierarchy cultures on the contrary lead to lower levels of Public Service Motivation (Panagiotis et al., 2014). Following the results of this study, it appears indeed as likely that clan culture fosters PSM, since three faculties with dominant clan cultures have high or moderate levels of PSM, as do two faculties with strong clan elements. However, Public Service Motivation also prevails at university faculties with hierarchy cultures, in one case on a high level and in two in a moderate way. This was not expected. Moreover, while one faculty with an adhocracy culture has at least medium high levels of Public Service Motivation, the other one has no PSM at all, unlike assumed from the literature. As merely two faculties have slightly distinct elements of market culture, it is not possible to assess to which type of PSM market culture leads.

Further, it has been assumed that NPM approaches resulted in changes of OC at universities. On the one hand, New Public Management is described as resulting in a larger market orientation of secondary higher education institutions, as well as in greater extents of bureaucracy. Since market culture is not a relevant component for any of the faculties, the first effect of NPM was not confirmed. Merely the effect of higher levels of red tape is displayed in the fact that three faculties have hierarchical cultures. Those faculties, however, also entail levels of Public Service Motivation. Hence it was not possible to assess how developments in Organizational Culture triggered by New Public Management reforms led to a shift in motivation of academics at universities.

To conclude, this study does not provide conclusive evidence to coherently answer the research question. No distinct pattern of the influence of OC on PSM appears in the eight cases analyzed in the at-hand thesis. It seems likely that clan culture fosters Public Service Motivation. Still, it is not possible to generalize whether certain types of OC increase or decrease the level of PSM. Instead, a mere assumption can be made.

Further, the research expectation cannot be verified. While in the cases of this study it seems obvious that organizations dominated by clan culture or with strong aspects of clan culture have higher levels of PSM, it is not possible to verify the expectation. That is due to the fact that there is no clear evidence for adhocracy fostering PSM as the second upper quadrant of the CVF. Moreover, also at faculties with dominant hierarchy cultures Public Service Motivation prevails considerably.

According to the results of this study, Organizational Culture does not seem to pose a major driver of Public Service Motivation, at least not within the world of universities. Consequently, the question rises whether there are other factors more relevant in determining PSM.

The deans interviewed for this study stated that their staff is partly motivated to work in a public environment due to their intrinsic wish to contribute to society by providing education. The aspect of research also serves the society as long as it is application-oriented. Further, the academics appreciate that the university as public organization provides high job security.

That is line with the assumptions from the literature that there are both intrinsic and extrinsic drivers to work in the public sector (Rainey, 2014). Educating the people and providing new research insights and developments to society pose typical intrinsic motivation factors as it seeks to add to the public good. Job security presents an extrinsic driver to work in the public sector (ibid.).

In the body of literature there are mentioned other important determinants of PSM, not named by the deans. That might be because they are not applicable to universities as unique types of public organizations. In general, next to extrinsic and intrinsic motivational factors, individual and organizational performances as well as organizational incentives are perceived to play an important role in setting the level of Public Service Motivation, as Perry et al. (2010) state. Nonetheless, the authors line out that the majority of research on PSM until now focused not on its triggers, but on “definition, meas-

urement and incidence” (ibid., 688). Consequently, it still remains to be assessed whether factors such as Organizational Culture are able to elevate Public Service Motivation.

In case of this study it appears that there are reasons other than OC why PSM differs over university faculties (cf. 5.3).

### **5.3 Further Conclusions on Organizational Culture and Public Service Motivation at University Faculties**

The results of this study lead to two other major conclusions explaining why and how Organizational Culture and Public Service Motivation differ over university faculties.

1. The first conclusion is that countries are most relevant in determining OC. For PSM, the type of university plays a decisive role, as does the country to a lesser extent. Types of faculties matter for neither of the two variables.

From the literature it had been expected that clan cultures prevail in the Netherlands rather than in Germany as the levels of bureaucracy are lower and social interactions are valued higher. Vice versa, more hierarchical cultures were assumed to be found at German universities. That corresponds to the fact that three quarters of the Dutch faculties have clan cultures and three quarters of the German ones have hierarchy cultures.

Moreover, the fact that universities of applied sciences are more practically oriented and have higher contact between teachers and students led to the expectation that clan cultures prevail at universities of applied sciences. Instead, merely two out of four faculties have clan cultures; the other two are hierarchically oriented. Also for research universities there appears no distinguishable pattern of OCs, as they are dominated by all kinds of cultures apart from the market one.

After Biglan’s (1973) description of faculties of natural sciences as “hard” and faculties of social sciences as “soft” it was expected that the former group entails cultures from the lower quadrants of the CVF and the latter from the upper ones. Anyhow, as types of cultures are evenly spread over types of faculties, no distinguishable pattern is apparent.

With regard to Public Service Motivation it is reasonable that Dutch faculties in total have slightly higher levels of motivation related to serving the public good than German ones as PSM is expected to be higher in cultures with less red tape (Panagiotis et al., 2014). Even more relevant in determining PSM appears the type of university. As expected, universities of applied sciences have larger degrees of PSM than research universities. That can be drawn back to the fact that the focus is more on education which serves the public in a more immediate way than research.

Considering divergence in Public Service Motivation over types of faculties, there is no coherent picture as it varies strongly over the faculties. Unlike assumed, “soft” or social sci-



ences faculties do not have higher levels of PSM in general than “hard” or natural sciences faculties.

2. Conclusion number two lines out factors not related to the concepts of PSM relevant for academic staff’s motivation. Public Service Motivation most commonly is described as a universal concept, prevailing at all types of public organizations. Distinction between worker motivations typically is made between private and public enterprises but not between different kinds of public organizations (Rainey, 2014).

Universities though, are organizations with special characteristics that are probable to have an impact on the motivation of their employees. While they used to be “loosely coupled” (Weick, 1976, 3), they recently gained more market-like structures through New Public Management approaches (Benneworth et al., 2012). Moreover, academics are believed to have certain traditional values such as independence and freedom which conflict with the newly introduced NPM practices (Enders et al., 2009).

In the light of this university specific context, this research sought to find out whether the classical concept of PSM is also applicable in the case of universities. This aim of the study has been achieved. While Public Service Motivation seems to appeal to some academics working at universities, there are other factors just as relevant or even more important in determining their motivation and work attitudes.

Most university employees value the fact that education contributes to society as does research in a less explicit way. While for some academics that also has motivating factors, for most it is rather a positive spin-off of their work. Instead of being triggered to work at the university for altruistic and idealistic reasons, the academic staff deliberately chooses this employer due to its intrinsic interest in and curiosity for research. Furthermore, they value universities as only public organizations that offer large degrees of freedom and the possibility to pursue self-interest while providing classical privileges of public service such as job security and a well-established pension system.

#### **5.4 Discussion, Study’s Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research**

The research has several limitations upon which is elaborated in this paragraph in order to be able to give recommendations for future research in related fields.

The small number of cases included in this study is the research’s first significant weakness. As this thesis sought to analyze how OC influences PSM in two different countries, two different types of universities, and two different types of faculties, it was necessary to include a number of cases that can be divided by eight. Since within the framework of this Bachelor Thesis both financial and time resources were scant there was no opportunity to include more than eight cases. Due to the small

sample it was not possible to find generalizable patterns of Organizational Culture and Public Service Motivation. Future research in the field hence should include a larger number of cases in order to come up with a definite solution to the research issue. Instead, this study merely is able to give hints for future research.

The second major limitation of the research lies in the fact that merely deans and faculty managers were consulted to determine OC and PSM at the eight faculties. While they as leaders of the faculties are most able to reflect on the perceptions of the whole staff, talking to staff of all levels would have allowed for a more coherent picture. Especially for the faculties with many employees the risk of biased opinions cannot be ruled out for this study.

Smaller limitations of the study occurred in the risks of reverse causality and spuriousness. As pointed out in the methodology section of this paper, however, it is unlikely that the underlying concept of OC precedes levels of PSM in time. The influence of third variables on the relationship between the two variables has been considered by having semi-structured interviews allowing for an open development of the conversations. That allowed for discovering and lining out factors other than OC working on the level of PSM of the academic staff.

Moreover, the results of this study indicate that Public Service Motivation in general is not the most suitable concept for universities. With the results of this study it became evident that most academics are not predominantly motivated by factors comprised by classical PSM theories. That can be drawn back to the special nature of secondary education institutions. Future research hence should either further elaborate why Public Service Motivation does not largely apply to universities or why other drivers of motivation appear as more relevant to most academics.

To conclude, for further research in this area it is recommended to include a larger sample, both in terms of cases and in terms of gathering more opinions from employees at different career levels. That would allow for a more general conclusion as well as for an even greater prevention against the threats of reverse causality and spuriousness.

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## Data Appendix

### Appendix 1(a): Case Description

Case/ Characteristic	GER U/NS	GER U/SS	GER UAS/NS	GER UAS/SS	NL U/NS	NL U/SS	NL UAS/NS	NL UAS/SS
Number of academic staff	311	188	43	51	424	347	84	85
Number of non- academic staff	136	28	7	19	156	74	19	37
Total staff number	447	216	50	70	580	423	105	122
Number of students	2730	3658	567	1600	2212	3187	1600	2100
Number of Bachelor programs	5	24	4	2	6	5	5	3
Number of Master pro- grams	9	21	2	4	7	13	1	none
Total number of study pro- grams	14	45	6	6	13	18	6	3

## Appendix 1 (b): Scales for the Case Description

Scale/ Characteristic	Small	Medium	High
Number of academic staff	<100	100-300	>300
Number of non-academic staff	<50	50-100	>100
Total staff number	<150	150-400	>400
Number of students	<1000	1000-3000	>3000
Number of Bachelor programs	<5	5-10	>10
Number of Master programs	<5	5-10	>10
Total number of study programs	<10	10-20	>20

## Appendix 2: Interview Protocol

### Introduction

I would like to thank you very much for having me today and for being willing to participate in my interviews and thus enabling me to conduct my research. My name is Nora Kürzdörfer and I am in the 6<sup>th</sup> and final semester of my Bachelor studies. I study Public Governance which is a joint degree program between the University of Twente and the University of Münster and includes subjects in politics, sociology, economics and law. Currently, I am in the process of writing my Bachelor thesis. In my research I analyze in how far the type of organizational culture determines the level of Public Service Motivation at universities and universities of applied sciences in Germany and the Netherlands.

Outcomes of the interview will be treated with anonymity, will serve educational purposes only and will not be given to others.

Do you mind if I tape the interview? It would facilitate the conversation.

In the first part of this interview I will analyze the Organizational Culture of your University with a little card game.



In the second part of this interview I will analyze the level of Public Service Motivation within your faculty. I will hence ask you a set of open questions.

Introduction question

1. You, as the dean of the faculty of XYZ, for how long have you been in this position and how would you describe your role?

Interview Part 1: Diagnosing Organizational Culture (approximately 15 minutes)

I will now present you six times a sets of cards with four statements each. I will then ask you to divide 100 points between the four statements. You give most points to the statement that you find most suitable and least to the one you find least suitable. Please do not divide your points in such a way that each card obtains 25 points.

- *conduction of the card game-*

Interview Part 2: Diagnosing Public Service Motivation (approximately 20 minutes)

We now completed part one of the interview, thank you very much. I will now continue by posing a set of open questions and statements. I would like to have your perception as a dean of the attitude and motivation of your academic staff. In general terms, what is in your eyes the perception of staff on a number of uses related to working in a public organization?

1. *In your eyes, how important is it for your academic staff to work in a (semi) public organization instead of a private organization? Is it special to them to work in a (semi) public organization?*

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements? Please motivate your answer (for all the statements).

2. *The academic staff of my faculty has a strong feeling that their work contributes to serving the public.*
3. *The academic staff of my faculty believes that it is very important that their work contributes to serving the public.*

4. *The academic staff of my faculty is willing to devote time after working hours for the public cause.*
5. *The academic staff of my faculty feels a strong sense of responsibility to contribute to solving societal challenges.*
6. *The academic staff of my faculty is actively engaged in public discourses. They are 'active in society' because of working at the university*
7. Finally (important statement)  
*The academic staff of my faculty is driven by serving the public even when this interferes with the pursuit of their self-interests.*

### Appendix 3: Organizational Culture card game

The organization is a very personal place, with family-like structures.	The organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place and people are willing to take risks.
The organization is very results-oriented, people are competitive and achievement-oriented.	The organization is a very controlled and structured place where formal procedures govern what people do.

The leadership in the organization mentors, facilitates and nurtures.	The leadership in the organization exemplifies entrepreneurship, innovation and risk-taking.
The leadership in the organization is highly results-oriented.	The leadership in the organization coordinates, organizes and ensures efficiency.

The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.	The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation and freedom.
The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.	The management style in the organization is characterized by job security, conformity, predictability and stability in relationships.

The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty, mutual trust and commitment.	The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development.
The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment.	The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules, policies, and smooth-running organization.

The organization emphasizes human development; trust, openness, and participation persist.	The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges.
The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement.	The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.

The organization defines success on the basis of the human resource development, teamwork, commitment and concern for people.	The organization defines success as being the product leader and innovator.
The organization defines success as competitive market leadership.	The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency, dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production.

#### Appendix 4: Scores and Results of the Organizational Culture Card Game

University	Aspect of OC	Clan	Adhocracy	Market	Hierarchy
<b>GER/U/NS</b>	Dominant Characteristics	10 (4)	20 (3)	30 (2)	40 (1)
	Organizational Leadership	30 (1)	20 (2)	20 (2)	30 (1)
	Management of Employees	20 (3)	25 (2)	25 (2)	30 (1)
	Organization Glue	15 (3)	15 (3)	20 (2)	40 (1)
	Strategic Emphasis	10 (3)	25 (2)	25 (2)	40 (1)
	Criteria of Success	20 (2)	30 (1)	20 (2)	30 (1)
	<b>Total</b>	<b>105 (16)</b>	<b>135 (13)</b>	<b>150 (12)</b>	<b>240 (6)</b>
<b>GER/U/SS</b>	Dominant Characteristics	0 (4)	20 (2)	40 (1)	40 (1)
	Organizational Leadership	40 (1)	30 (2)	0 (3)	30 (2)
	Management of Employees	50 (1)	15 (3)	30 (2)	5 (4)
	Organization Glue	0 (3)	60 (1)	0 (3)	40 (2)

	Strategic Emphasis	40 (1)	30 (2)	10 (4)	20 (3)
	Criteria of Success	20 (2)	40 (1)	40 (1)	0 (3)
	<b>Total</b>	<b>150 (12)</b>	<b>195 (11)</b>	<b>130 (14)</b>	<b>135 (15)</b>
<b>GER/UAS/NS</b>	Dominant Characteristics	40 (1)	10 (4)	20 (3)	30 (2)
	Organizational Leadership	20 (3)	10 (4)	30 (2)	40 (1)
	Management of Employees	35 (1)	15 (2)	15 (2)	35 (1)
	Organization Glue	20 (2)	20 (2)	30 (1)	30 (1)
	Strategic Emphasis	30 (1)	25 (2)	15 (3)	30 (1)
	Criteria of Success	10 (2)	40 (1)	40 (1)	10 (2)
	<b>Total</b>	<b>155 (10)</b>	<b>130 (15)</b>	<b>150 (12)</b>	<b>175 (8)</b>
<b>GER/UAS/SS</b>	Dominant Characteristics	20 (3)	20 (3)	25 (2)	30 (1)
	Organizational Leadership	35 (1)	15 (4)	20 (3)	30 (2)
	Management of Employees	35 (1)	15 (4)	30 (2)	20 (3)
	Organization Glue	25 (2)	25 (2)	20 (3)	30 (1)
	Strategic Emphasis	25 (1)	35 (2)	15 (3)	25 (2)
	Criteria of Success	25 (2)	20 (1)	20 (1)	35 (3)
	<b>Total</b>	<b>165 (10)</b>	<b>130 (16)</b>	<b>130 (14)</b>	<b>175 (12)</b>
<b>NL/U/NS</b>	Dominant Characteristics	35 (1)	20 (3)	30 (2)	15 (4)
	Organizational	25 (2)	20 (3)	30 (1)	25 (2)

	Leadership				
	Management of Employees	35 (1)	25 (2)	15 (3)	25 (2)
	Organization	35 (1)	35 (1)	20 (2)	10 (3)
	Glue				
	Strategic Emphasis	20 (2)	35 (1)	35 (1)	10 (3)
	Criteria of Success	25 (3)	35 (1)	30 (2)	10 (4)
	<b>Total</b>	<b>175 (10)</b>	<b>170 (11)</b>	<b>160 (11)</b>	<b>95 (18)</b>
<b>NL/U/SS</b>	Dominant Characteristics	50 (1)	12,5 (3)	12,5 (3)	25 (2)
	Organizational Leadership	30 (2)	50 (1)	10 (3)	10 (3)
	Management of Employees	10 (3)	50 (1)	10 (3)	30 (2)
	Organization	40 (1)	40 (1)	10 (2)	10 (2)
	Glue				
	Strategic Emphasis	20 (2)	80 (1)	0 (3)	0 (3)
	Criteria of Success	0 (3)	60 (1)	0 (3)	40 (2)
	<b>Total</b>	<b>150 (12)</b>	<b>292,5 (8)</b>	<b>42,5 (17)</b>	<b>115 (16)</b>
<b>NL/UAS/NS</b>	Dominant Characteristics	20 (2)	20 (2)	60 (1)	0 (3)
	Organizational Leadership	60 (1)	20 (2)	20 (2)	0 (3)
	Management of Employees	60 (1)	20 (2)	20 (2)	0 (3)
	Organization	60 (1)	10 (3)	30 (2)	0 (4)
	Glue				
	Strategic Emphasis	60 (1)	35 (2)	0 (4)	10 (3)
	Criteria of Success	60 (2)	30 (1)	10 (1)	0 (2)

	<b><i>Total</i></b>	<b><i>320 (7)</i></b>	<b><i>130 (14)</i></b>	<b><i>140 (14)</i></b>	<b><i>10 (20)</i></b>
NL/UAS/SS	Dominant Characteristics	40 (1)	20 (2)	20 (2)	0 (3)
	Organizational Leadership	40 (1)	10 (3)	10 (3)	20 (2)
	Management of Employees	60 (1)	0 (3)	20 (2)	20 (2)
	Organization Glue	60 (1)	10 (3)	10 (3)	20 (2)
	Strategic Emphasis	50 (1)	20 (3)	0 (4)	30 (2)
	Criteria of Success	30 (1)	30 (1)	10 (2)	30 (1)
	<b><i>Total</i></b>	<b><i>280 (6)</i></b>	<b><i>90 (15)</i></b>	<b><i>70 (16)</i></b>	<b><i>120 (12)</i></b>

#### Appendix 5: Coding of the Interviews on PSM

Variable / Case	Significance of working in a public organization	Attitude towards private sector	Contribution to the public and responsibility towards societal challenges	Engagement in society	Public interest vs. self-interest
GER U NS	idealism, education for research and industry	more security, higher salaries, but idealism motivates to work at university	responsibility to provide good education, societal relevance of research not always obvious, especially not for basic research, only where public can relate, for instance battery research	working after hours at open days, public relations work, mediation of sciences to the public, when related to field of research, provision of expertise to the media, difficult to say how active individuals are	conflict between teaching as public interest and research as private interest, administration as public interest, difficult to say what comes first, both is time-consuming
GER U SS	reliability, predictability, security	higher pressures & obligations	academic focuses on things that he himself considers interesting, for historical and philosophical questions the orientation	working after hours only in self-interest to promote career, people in educational and polit-	pursuit of self-interest first

				towards the public good is not given, in educational and political sciences it is self-evident that the work contributes to society	cal sciences engage themselves, difficult to say how active individuals are	
GER UAS NS	Job security			Education is considered as important contribution to society	Contribution to society within own field of work, willing to work over hours but compensated through lecture-free time between terms, difficult to say how many engage but some do, in committees, associations etc.	Self-interest comes first, difficult to assess whether job security or serving the public is more important
GER UAS SS	Job security, privileges of university as public employer, contributing to the public as main driver of motivation	no experience with working in the private sector but many would be open for that		Education of professionals for social services is important, research is oriented on application and immediate contribution to society, cooperation with social organizations, providing expertise to the media	Engagement in society also beyond work, understand that as a component of work, working over hours for the public cause, willingness to engage for society as prerequisite for working in the faculty, as self-understanding, independently of working at the university	Even though the work has an important societal meaning, self-interest comes first, not merely altruism
NL U NS	Not that decisive whether public or private sector	Not that decisive whether public or private sector, less freedom, no deliberate choice for public or private organization		Teaching contributes to society, but research as well, teaching very directly by providing high quality work force, research by developing technologies that have relevance in society, inspired by application, even though staff realizes that it is important to contribute to society it is not the main driver, es-	Active in outreach, open days, fairs etc., loyalty to exposing and conveying work to society, responsibility towards society only when societal challenge can be translated into an interesting scientific matter	Self-interest comes over public interest, willing to contribute to society as long as one can make use of a societal challenge to the benefit of one's own scientific program, societal challenges as source of inspiration rather than as priority



			pecially not in the short term, basic research in itself also is a goal		
NL U SS	public sector ethos for those who also have the option to work in industry but still come to university, do not want to be civil servants, not working for merely money	some people work at the interface of consultancy and business and then come back to university, working at the university asks for more sacrifices than private sector, if private is the other option than it is public	they want to serve science and knowledge, not the public, but that is according to them in the public interest, they do not work at the university because they want to serve the people, teaching perceived as something they have to do in order to be allowed to research, not interested in research related to the region, serving the public by creating new technologies etc., contribution to society as by-product, willing to devote time after hours, work ethics, contribute to society, especially in the region as most students stay in region when they start their professional career, see it as social responsibility to do something for the region, contribute mostly through the students as the project work done by the students are all real life projects where problems of companies and organizations are being solved, teachers contribute to society by encouraging students to solve problems, tutoring them etc., stimulation	working from home, at summer camps, motivated to solve societal problems, dubious whether because of intrinsic interest or because of research programming, active on all media channels, newspapers, TV etc, professional talks at organizations	when it comes to push-off: self-interest, difficult to say that for everyone, collection of individuals, not one organization
NL UAS NS	deliberate choice to work in public sector, social responsibility, work motivation intrinsic	experience in private sector, but prefer university, want to see young people develop, most are not motivated to work in private sector because they want to help other people, some who work at university and then go back to private sector	contribute to society, especially in the region as most students stay in region when they start their professional career, see it as social responsibility to do something for the region, contribute mostly through the students as the project work done by the students are all real life projects where problems of companies and organizations are being solved, teachers contribute to society by encouraging students to solve problems, tutoring them etc., stimulation	willing to devote time after working hours, extensive contact with students, not necessarily active in public discourse, some who really believe in their subject, for instance sustainability, very idealistic and those are very active, too, but most want to contribute to society by helping young people develop, not by engaging in society, so rather indirectly	self-interest comes first, it is not violated by working at the university because that matches their self-interest
NL UAS SS	Special to work in a public organization, educate students,	Staff does not want to work in private sector or is not able to do	Strong involvement with teaching to contribute to society, teaching students	Hard working staff, willing to devote a lot of time to their	Pursuit of public interest comes first, putting a lot of effort into

contribute to knowledge generation, internal involvement with occupation	that, but also those who would be able would not want to, all about money, all about competition	how to act within society, how to deal with governmental framework etc.	students, also on the weekends, but not beyond their work as a university teacher, only within their field of interest/knowledge, but besides teaching no active roles in society
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“Traffic light” system:

Content positively related to the concept of PSM has been marked green.

Content negatively related to the concept of PSM has been marked red.

Content that is partly related to the concept of PSM has been marked orange.

## Appendix 6: Motivation not Related to the Concept of PSM

Variable/ Case	Motivation other than PSM
GER/U/NS	no other possibility for a full academic professional career, interest in basic research, research within own field of interest
GER/U/SS	freedom at universities, personal interest, personal curiosity for science
GER/UAS/NS	Freedom, combine teaching and research
GER/UAS/SS	Freedom, possibility for self-development
NL/U/NS	Drive to scientific research (a bit higher) & teaching, freedom, working with young people
NL /U/SS	working in the university is a deliberate choice, research, pride and prestige, scientific career, intrinsic interest in doing research because of own curiosity
NL /UAS/NS	n.a.
NL /UAS/SS	n.a.

## **Declaration of Academic Integrity**

I hereby confirm that the present thesis “The Impact of Organizational Culture on Public Service Motivation” is solely my own work and that if any text passages or diagrams from books, papers, the internet or other sources, all references – including those found in electronic media – have been acknowledged and fully cited.

*Enschede, 29 June 2016*

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Willemsen', is written below the date.