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The Influence of Mission Valence and Intrinsic Incentives on Employee Motivation

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MPA, University of Victoria, 2012

BA, University of Waterloo, 2008

Proposal Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

Worker motivation is relevant to public sector leaders because motivated workers are more efficient and productive, demonstrate positive behaviors, and are happier. Scholars have focused on differing approaches on how to incentivise public service employees using extrinsic or intrinsic incentives. The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to explore the value and effectiveness of mission valence and other intrinsic means used to influence employee motivation and productivity. Using Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory as a guide, a homogeneous group of key participants was interviewed with the intent of answering research questions. The research questions focused on mission valence deployment and on the incentive preferences of 11 purposely selected members of a public sector executive management team. The study incorporated the Giorgi method of data analysis. Following inductive coding procedures, the findings were synthesised into five themes. Findings suggested that mission valence has theoretical appeal to public service leaders, but the antecedent conditions, such as current mission statements have not been implemented. Thus, mission valence within PSGD is a conceptual intrinsic incentive at this point in time. Public service leaders prefer fluidity in crafting blended extrinsic and intrinsic incentive models that are unique to each employee. Consequently, opportunities exist for development of targeted skills development training to supplement existing leadership skills. This aligns with the implications for positive social change because the findings of this study yielded information concerning social, psychological, and motivational nuances and learning that may shape the next generation of public service leaders.

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Dedication

I can do all things through Christ who strengthens me.

Philippians 4:13

I would like to thank God for the gifts of intellect and opportunity. This academic journey was not made alone. Without God's will, this would not have occurred. I would like to thank my committee, Dr. Cassandra Caldwell, Dr. Rocky Dwyer, and Dr. J. Scott Frampton for your guidance and encouragement. I would like to thank the Province of Manitoba for allowing me to conduct this research study and offer a special thank you to Regis Gosselin and Robert Gabor for your consistent and enduring endorsement.

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Kimmy…WE did it!

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

In the face of rapidly curtailed extrinsic incentive options, public sector leaders must embark on intrinsic motivational pathways and utilize established best practices to increase worker motivation. The relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic incentives to influence employee motivation does not require paramountcy of one approach over the other. A foundational requirement for employee motivation is that each employee must be compensated with a fair living wage. Extrinsic incentives tend to be task oriented and not sustainable over the long term for numerous reasons. For example, pay-for-performance schemes are expensive, and perceived satisfaction is linked to external factors often beyond the control of employees; however, scholars have established that workers prefer immediate extrinsic rewards to longer-term and more substantial intrinsic rewards (De Martino, Kondylis, & Zwager, 2017).

Researchers have identified that pay-for-performance or instrumental schemes often do not result in positive, sustained changes in performance (Belle & Cantarelli, 2015), although historically they are the preferred approach in many public, and private, sector organizations. Because extrinsic options are declining, public sector leaders must now focus their attention on developing effective intrinsic techniques, such as mission valence, as lower cost alternatives to motivate workers. When organizations and employees have misaligned values, this disconnect may manifest as stress, absenteeism, and negative attitudes (Afsar & Badir, 2017; Alagaraja & Shuck, 2015). When beliefs and values are aligned, employees "are more likely to be motivated intrinsically" (Afsar

& Badir, 2017, p. 97). This harmony is expressed as energized motivation, commitment, altruism, extra-role behaviors, increased creativity, and output. There are several effective intrinsic motivational techniques, and managers often utilize several approaches in tandem. Mission valence is the intrinsic motivational approach integrating person-organizational alignment, workplace spirituality, psychological needs with altruism, ethics, values, and vision (Duffy, Autin, Allan, & Douglass, 2015).

Background of the Study

Researchers have found that as extrinsic incentives are perceived as available, intrinsic based motivation diminishes (Murayama, Kitagami, Tanaka, & Raw, 2016). Additionally, extrinsic based motivation is not sustainable over time. This situation is identified as the *crowding-out effect* or the *undermining effect*. Anki and Palliam (2012) observed that extrinsic motivation incentives could be deleterious to intrinsic motivational approaches. When intrinsic motivation is reduced, the quality of the performance is also reduced (Jin, McDonald, & Park, 2016). A leader's inaccurate prediction about how a worker will feel in the future may lead them to select a suboptimal motivation strategy. This situation is compounded and moderated by the intensity and persistence of resource availability.

Several scholars have identified that intrinsic incentives are effective and can motivate employees in a manner where the motivation is sustained over time (Andrews, 2016; Caillier, 2014; Jin et al., 2016). Mission valence (MV) has not been investigated as robustly as other intrinsic methods. Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) presented a seminal article introducing the mission valence theory and arguing that mission valence could be the reason some people are attracted to an agency and perform well. They aligned mission valence with several theoretical frameworks, organizational culture, higher level intrinsic motivations, altruism, and the role of a leader in employee motivation. These correlations were also recognized in the research of several other scholars (Callier, 2016; Wright & Pandey, 2011). In Cailliers' (2014) quantitative experimental research, the investigator found that mission valence can be found in the expectancy theory. The basic premise of mission valence is that individuals demonstrate more intense motivational behaviors if their beliefs, values, and expectations align with the employing organization's purpose or mission. Other researchers noted that employees demonstrated increased motivational behavior when the employee's values and goals align with the organization's vision and objectives in an emotional (Jin et al., 2016), complementary (Andrews, 2016), spiritual (Afsar & Badir, 2017), and ideological (Wright, Moynihan, & Pandey, 2012) manner.

Previous scholars have revealed several gaps in the existing research. For example, Ahluwalia and Preet (2017) noted that there is a gap in the literature related to understanding the relationship between work motivation and organizational commitment. Caillier (2016) also observed that despite the potential organizational benefits, there is a deficit of research that explores the relationship between leadership and mission valence. Lastly, Jacobsen, and Jensen (2017) advised that future researchers should investigate the *cognitive shift* associated with extrinsic and intrinsic incentives (p. 552). These gaps in the literature have influenced the current study research study, in which I explored and interpreted the experience of public service leaders' use of intrinsic motivational techniques, such as mission valence. Within some Canadian provincial public sectors, there exists a fiscal environment where austerity measures are becoming prevalent, and extrinsic options such as pay raises have been frozen. As a result, public sector leaders need to focus on alternative methods to incentivize and motivate employees.

Problem Statement

There is a lack of data on organizational leaders' perceptions on the effectiveness of intrinsic incentives and approaches including mission valence. This is important because reductions in employee motivation and productivity can harm public sector organizational efficacy and result in negative consequences. The findings of the current study may contribute to the literature by providing data to policymakers regarding perspectives of key persons of influence on the value and effectiveness of mission valence and other intrinsic means used to influence employee motivation, performance, and productivity.

Hypothesis

During times of austerity, extrinsic incentive options traditionally preferred by public service leaders to motivate employees are reduced. Leaders must utilize more cost neutral intrinsic options in greater prevalence to motivate employees. My hypothesis is that public sector leaders will gravitate to specific combinations of intrinsic incentives to influence employee motivation when extrinsic options are diminished.

Research Questions

In this qualitative phenomenological study, I explored the lived experiences of 11 key participant leaders from a public sector government department (PSGD) regarding making positive, sustainable employee motivation behavior changes by using intrinsic motivational techniques. The research questions were as follows:

1. Which intrinsic incentives and approaches do public sector leaders from the Executive Management Team (EMT) of a public sector government department (PSGD) think are essential in making sustainable motivational changes in employees?
2. In what ways has mission valence influenced sustainable motivational changes in PSGD employees?

Theoretical Foundation

Researchers have used several theoretical frameworks for researching employee motivation. These include the public service motivation theory, expectancy-value theory, self-determination theory, and cognitive dissonance theory. Each of the theoretical frameworks has been used extensively in quantitative experimental research studies. The cognitive dissonance theory, however, has been favored in qualitative research. Thus, the theoretical framework that I used to guide this study was the cognitive dissonance theory. The cognitive dissonance theory has been used in the psychology, economics, organizational development, and education disciplines. Festinger (1957) posited that cognitive dissonance theory has three main components: hypersensitivity, dissonance, and cognition. Hypersensitivity occurs when the beliefs and values of the organization conflict with individual beliefs and values. Secondly, dissonance manifests as discomfort resulting from the conflict. Lastly, the cognition component is about changing actions or beliefs to reduce the dissonance. Synchronously, the three cognitive dissonance theory components influence interpretation, psychology, and social experiences, which include intrinsic and extrinsic incentives, goal setting, persistence, effort, and achievement over time. The cognitive dissonance theory approach relies on chronicling the unique lived experiences of key participants to explain variations in preferences for specific policies and motivational strategies. Through these research questions, I endeavored to support, build upon, or refute the three components of the cognitive dissonance theory.

Using cognitive dissonance theory, I will frame influences on a target population that impact choice and designs used by decision makers to motivate the target population. In this research, I focused on intrinsic incentives and techniques, which includes mission valence, used to motivate public service employees. Mission valence is one intrinsic technique used to influence employee motivation because the more appealing an organization's values and mission is to an employee, the higher their work motivation. When MV goals are matched with the values of employees, the result is sustained increased productivity. Researchers have found that when employees' goals and values align the organization's goals and values, they are 72% more productive than otherwise (Carpenter & Gong, 2016). I determined that the cognitive dissonance theory framework would guide the qualitative research needed to establish if mission valence has been selected and used by leaders to influence employee motivation and behavior positively.

Nature of the Study

I used a descriptive qualitative phenomenological research design in this study. This approach resulted in generating thick, rich, explanatory, and illustrative data based on the lived experiences of key participants. The researcher's goal when using phenomenological research is to make sense of lived experiences to interpret better and understand a specific phenomenon. The use of this research approach aligned with the need to better understand intrinsic motivational approaches within the civil service though in-depth face-to-face and telephonic interviews of key participants from EMT PSGD.

Definitions

Some specific terms that I use frequently throughout this doctoral study include the following:

Best practices: These are techniques that have been used successfully within a similar context and are often used as a benchmark to assess results (Salicru, Wassenaar, Suerz, & Spittle, 2016).

Executive management team (EMT): This is a committee of senior executives and leaders employed by a Canadian public sector governmental department.

Extrinsic motivation: This construct pertains to an individual performing an activity or demonstrating a particular behavior to gain some type of instrumental reward (Kulkarni, 2015).

Intrinsic motivation: This type of motivational behavior comes from within an individual independent of a physical reward (Lazauskaite-Zabielske, Urbanaviciute, & Bagdziuniene, 2017).

Public sector governmental department (PSGD): The PSGD is one of a Canadian Province's government departments.

Mission valence: MV is an intrinsic motivational technique that results in positive motivational behavior when the organization's mission is attractive and in alignment with an individual's values, beliefs, and goals (Wright & Pandey, 2011).

Assumptions

Assumptions are a condition precedent when conducting research studies (Foss & Hallerg, 2013). In this study, I made several assumptions. These included data collection, sample size, and methodology assumptions. I l conducted in-depth one-on-one, telephone interviews with 11 key participants. Because my sample participants are executive level leaders, their availability or preferred method of communication differed from the research plan. My second assumption was that all voluntary participants have experience using intrinsic incentives as motivational techniques. My third assumption was that the key participants are familiar with and have used mission valence as one of their intrinsic motivational techniques. The fourth assumption is that my research will achieve saturation by gathering data from 11 key participants. If saturation had not occurred, the research sample size would have been increased. Lastly, I assumed that the cognitive dissonance theory was appropriate to add credibility and rigor to this research study.

Scope and Delimitations

Researchers have the responsibility to identify, acknowledge, and mitigate possible bias or areas where their role may impact participants. I have been a senior leader within a Provincial government for years, and thus have a significant network with other senior leaders in the 14,000 members of the provincial civil service. I did know some of my voluntary key participants. None of the target sample participants had a reporting relationship to me, thus did not feel compelled to participate due to possible coercion. Additionally, because it will be a homogenous sample, I did not manipulate who participates. I elected to use EMT members as research subjects because all my potential volunteers were well-educated professionals who have a minimum of a bachelors' degree and most having graduate degrees. They all were long-term civil servants and highly experienced senior executive leaders within a PSGD in addition to being members of the department's Executive Management Team for a minimum of at least one year.

Limitations

Through this descriptive qualitative phenomenological study, I intended to provide a better understanding of the shared, lived experiences of a purposefully selected group of leaders from the EMT PSGD regarding intrinsic motivational approaches. These key participants shared their unique perspectives, lived experiences, and expert opinions on the value and effectiveness of mission valence and other instrumental and affective commitment strategies used to influence employee motivation and productivity. The first limitation is that the participants become impacted by austerity measures either professionally or personally. This could have influenced participants' responses, research commitment or availability, or their continued employment status during the research period. Secondly, this research study was subject to the continuing support of the senior Departmental official (i.e., Deputy Minister of Finance).

Significance of the Study

Worker motivation should be relevant to all public sector leaders because motivated workers are more efficient and productive, demonstrate positive behaviors, and are happier. Patel, Booker, Ramos, & Bart, (2015) argued that intrinsic influencers including mission valence, is cost effective and sustainable over time. When the organization's values and goals are in concordance with employees' values, employees find meaning in their work and exert more effort. These behavior choices manifest as positive attitudes, increased job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, and increased extra-role performance. Positive social change results because workers are happier and feel that they understand their organizational and social contributions, while the public sector organization benefits by increasing productivity without increasing organizational costs.

Significance to Practice

By exploring leaders' perspectives, experiences, and expert opinions on intrinsic motivational approaches, I hoped that the results will support the development of public policy and training tools to boost motivation and optimize productivity.

Significance to Social Change

Social change, as a social issue, can have many different faces. I believe that positive social change refers to scholar practitioners using their gifts, intellect, knowledge, and skills to make a positive contribution to a community. These positive contributions often involve social issues that have significant public profiles such as actions, which advocate for values, dignity, and the development of individuals and communities. Just as important, however, is the social change initiatives that are not as visible as national or pan-national initiatives. Social change can involve attitudes, behaviors, or policies on an individual, institutional, community, or national/international level and include many disciplines. The relevance of this fact is that no one best approach is appropriate to all situations. I intended to assist scholars by identifying evidence-based decision-making approaches that will inform individuals of either what to do or what not to do to make a positive social change. My research is essential to the public policy and administration field for several reasons. For example, the body of knowledge within the civil service will be increased. The scholarship, research, and capturing of best practices will assist civil service organizations, regardless of jurisdiction, in the design of public policy and training programs where employee motivation is a consideration. This should result in greater skills development. These enhanced skills will increase employee efficacy, improve recruitment strategies and lower absenteeism. These changes should supplement positive attitudes in both employer and employees making for a harmonious and productive work environment. My research may provide other future scholars opportunities to explore mission valence, and other motivational techniques through a lens not previously available.

Summary and Transition

Key participants, such as the most senior leaders in the selected PSGD, possess a wealth of experience in motivating employees. There are several approaches to motivate staff including intrinsic and extrinsic incentives. A public service leader’s choice of motivational techniques is influenced by context and environmental conditions such as political or economic considerations. Extrinsic motivation results in a behavior change provoked by tangible rewards. Often, this approach is not sustainable over time and is dependent on available fiscal resources. Intrinsic motivational techniques, such as mission valence, inspire behavior change for endogenous reasons. As seen in the body of previous literature, leader-influenced intrinsic motivations have been found to be cost-effective and sustainable while also positively affecting behavior, intention, attitude, and well-being (Kuvaas, Buch, Weibel, Dysvik, & Nerstad, 2017). Social change was evident through the formative and developmental knowledge gained by leaders through this research study. Leaders' behavior and tactical choices impact employee well-being, happiness, and productivity.

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to explore the value and effectiveness of mission valence and other intrinsic means used to influence employee motivation and productivity. In Chapter 2, I will provide a comprehensive review of the literature related to extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivational approaches, and mission valence, often in a public service context. In this chapter, I will explore several scholarly perspectives and identify knowledge gaps related to this phenomenon, which will justify this study. Chapter 3 will feature a discussion of the research method that I will use to conduct this qualitative phenomenological study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The purpose of this descriptive qualitative phenomenological study is to explore the value and effectiveness of mission valence and other intrinsic means used to influence employee motivation, performance, and productivity. Literature about motivation is dominated by quantitative experimental research within the educational, public and private sectors. A need exists to explore and understand successful tactics and techniques deployed in the public service sector to motivate employees. Due to several common characteristics, the public service sector reviewed encompassed government, NFP, and spiritual or charitable organizations. Due to the unique nature of the public service sector, often resources are limited by policy or appropriation in addition to being subject to significant public oversight and scrutiny. For these reasons, offering instrumental or extrinsic incentives is not as easily permissible in the public service sector as in the private sector.

Public sector leaders must develop and deploy combinations of less costly intrinsic incentives to influence employee motivation. In order to adequately understand intrinsic incentives and their impact on employee motivation, one must also study extrinsic incentives and how they can supplement or crowd out intrinsic incentives and impact employee productivity and motivation. Through the current study, I added to the body of knowledge by exploring mission valence and other intrinsic incentives within the public service sector. Despite significant interest in employee motivation and common fiscal pressures in the public service sector that restrict a leader's incentive options; there is a gap in the literature in this area.

In this section, I will explore several appropriate theoretical frameworks. Motivation and its two components, extrinsic and intrinsic incentives, are discussed in detail. I contrasted the components of the public service sector with the differences found in the private sector. Employee intrinsic motivation structures were examined in particular, including mission valence, values, altruism, alignment, and goal attainment. In the last section of the chapter, I will address literature findings on this issue from the context of leadership and human resource policy.

In the prefatory steps of the literature search, I identified several key terms and their synonyms. I continually expanded the list and it formed the basis of a codebook which I developed for using with the Atlas Ti qualitative data software. I used several databases to gather an inventory of academic journal articles. These databases included Sage Premier, Walden Scholarworks, Google Scholar, and ProQuest. The literature review scope was further broadened through the use of citation chain searches and local university libraries. On several occasions, the original authors were contacted and consulted concerning clarification(s) and for advice on identifying additional appropriate scholarly works. The criteria I selected for the literature review search included: (a) journal articles published within the previous 5 years, (b) seminal works on the research topic, (c) articles published in peer-reviewed journals, and (d) books that I was able to access through local university libraries. All articles were axial coded in a grounded theory process using Atlas Ti. I used the resulting inductive and explicit themes, terms, and concepts to identify, assimilate, synthesize, and organize the emerging information for additional search expansion and for writing the comprehensive literature review.

Theoretical Framework Meta Review

There is an extensive inventory of research on motivational theory. Theoretical frameworks favored by scholars have ranged from traditional frameworks such as Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs through more contemporary theories. The choices appear to have been influenced by context and disciplines. There is no one best theoretical framework for studying worker motivation, and in fact, several share some commonalities which make them all appealing in certain ways. I considered four theoretical frameworks as appropriate for this study. They are the cognitive dissonance theory, public service motivation theory, expectancy-value theory, and the self-determination theory.

Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Leo Festinger presented cognitive dissonance theory in 1957. The cognitive dissonance theory has been used extensively in qualitative research studies. The theoretical framework is composed of three tenets. The three tenets are:

1. Individuals are hypersensitive when actions and beliefs conflict;
2. When the conflict manifests, individuals experience a feeling of discomfort called dissonance;
3. Dissonance is the antecedent condition to actions intended change or reduce the level of dissonance by either changing one's beliefs, attitudes, or behaviors

(cognitions); changing one's actions by acquiring new information; or changing the importance of the cognitions. (Festinger, 1957, p. 3)

From the perspective of employee motivation, an individual experiences cognitive dissonance theory when there is misalignment between their values and the values and mission of the organization. The disharmony results in stress and reduces motivation to perform the task or organizational mission. To resolve the state of cognitive dissonance, the employee may be influenced by extrinsic or intrinsic incentives, reduced productivity or some other type of behavior adjustment. Research studies have found that within the cognitive dissonance theory framework, when extrinsic incentives are unexpected or reduced, employees will place greater emphasis on prosocial altruistic justifications for actions and intrinsic incentives in order to reduce dissonance (Hinojosa et al., 2017; Kroll & Porumbescu, 2015; Kwan, Hooper, Magnan, & Bryan, 2011; Stone & Cooper, 2001).

Public Service Motivation Theory

The public service motivation theory theoretical framework has been studied extensively in scholarly works. In their seminal article, Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) defined public service motivation theory as a “general altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation, or humankind” (p. 23). This theoretical framework is similar to the concept of the public service ethos. Public service ethos refers to the belief that public service is distinct in the manner it performs tasks when compared to the private sector (Prebble, 2016). Individuals are attracted to public service organizations when core values that include altruism, mission valence, spiritualism, and intrinsic motivation are elevated. Although public service employees tend to be most attracted and enthusiastic about prosocial motivations, it is recognized that public service motivation theory can also be experienced voluntarily within the private sector (Esteve, Urbig, van Witteloostuijn, & Boyne, 2016; French & Emerson, 2015). Public service leaders must explore appropriate tactics to inspire and reward employees that are grounded in the public service motivation theory culture. These employees are most often influenced by intrinsic incentives rather than extrinsic rewards (Belle & Cantarelli, 2015; Cheng, 2015; Jensen & Bro, 2017; Potipiroon & Ford, 2017). Some scholars have argued that public service motivated employees are not motivated exclusively by intrinsic incentives and leaders must also consider appropriate extrinsic incentives as a more balanced approach when pursuing increase performance and delivery of organizational goals (Bozeman & Su, 2015; Chen & Hsieh, 2015; Neumann, 2016).

Expectancy-Value Theory

The expectancy-value theory has been used by researchers in the disciplines of psychology, economics, organizational development, and education. The expectancy-value theory theoretical framework has three main components: a value component, a valence component, and an expectancy component (Elliott, Dweck, & Eccles, 2005). The value component focuses on the salience of the beliefs and values of the organization that an individual identifies with. Secondly, the valence component refers to an individual's perceived value that they assign to a particular outcome. Lastly, the expectancy or instrumentality component occurs when an individual believes in self-efficacy and that they can gain a reward (Blackman, Buick, O'Flynn, O' Donnell, & West, 2017).

Synchronously, the three expectancy-value theory components influence interpretation, psychology, and social experiences, which include incentive-based behaviors, goal setting, persistence, and achievement over time (Kanfer, Frese, & Johnson, 2017; Stringer, Didham, & Theivananthampillai, 2011). “Because expectancies and values themselves are related, each can have indirect influences on the performance and choice outcomes” (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2008, p. 170). Scholars have not been consistent with advocacy of the expectancy-value theory model. Some advocates have suggested that the expectancy-value theory model has cogently been demonstrated over time (Elliott et al., 2005; Kolesnik, 1978), while others have concluded that there is “not enough empirical evidence to validate it” (Nimri, Bdair, & Al Bitar, 2015, p. 73).

Self Determination Theory

One of the foundational elements of the self determination theory is that an individual’s behavior, motivation, and actions are influenced internally. Individuals have specific psychological needs such as autonomy, self-regulation, and cognition. Intrinsic and extrinsic propositions can enhance or diminish an individual's idiographic standards of satisfaction and the associated behaviors that are spawned as goal-directed behaviors. Self determination theory motivated individuals will consistently pursue intrinsic incentives when compared to extrinsic reasons (Benedetti, Diefendorff, Gabriel, & Chandler, 2015; Jacobsen & Jensen, 2017; van Egmond, Berges, Omarshaw, & Benton, 2017). The reason that individuals tend to reject extrinsic incentives is that they are interpreted as coercive and controlling, thereby limiting the degree of internalization desired by the employee and varies “greatly in the degree to which it is autonomous”

(Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 60). Experiential researchers have established that within a self determination theory environment, extrinsically motivated behaviors are tangentially related to intrinsic motivation. Extrinsically motivated behaviors are dominant at the initiation of the research exercise but diminish over time, once the actions are assimilated within one's internalized self-regulation (Ankli & Palliam, 2012; Pope & Harvey, 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Zhang, Zhang, Song, & Zhenxing, 2016).

Motivation

Much has been written in the extant literature about motivation theories. Many of the theories share principles and characteristics, yet there is no one definition that scholars have universally adopted. This makes generalizing about motivation difficult, but there are several reasons why this has occurred. Scholars studying motivation come from several disciplines, and thus their respective definitions have been influenced by these schools of thought. The focus and subject scope vary greatly. Researchers have concentrated on motivation as it pertains to several entities, such as the individual, groups, organizations, employees, and leaders. Each of the entities carries with it nuances that influence the definition to align these influencers. Additionally, several definitions of motivation tended to describe inputs which motivate, moderators of the inputs, or the resulting outputs of motivation. I suggest that an adequate definition of motivation cannot describe the phenomena in unitary steps. Rather, the definition must encompass several factors to result in sufficient meaning to be useful in exploring the research topic further. Motivation is a process whereby several inputs such as incentives, mission and leadership are moderated by multiple intrinsic and extrinsic variables before resulting in action or behavior-based output. Kuvaas et al. (2017) contended that "the most important outcome of motivation is individual performance" (p. 247).

Moderators include influencers such as intensity, physiological differences, culture, psychological considerations, temporal circumstances, cognition, perceptions, and bias. Each unique combination of moderators interfuse with inputs and result in an action that is particular to the factors that preceded it. Scholars have argued that motivational outputs and behaviors are unique to each other (Ankli & Palliam, 2012; Cerasoli, Nicklin, & Ford, 2014; Desai & Kleiner, 2016; Lau & Roopnarain, 2014; Taylor, 2015). Individuals have different needs; therefore, they are driven by different motivators (Howard, Gagne, Morin, & Van den Broeck, 2016; Lau & Roopnarain, 2014; Lee & Raschke, 2016).

Several researchers have indicated that there is a positive correlation between positive motivation and attitude (Merriman, 2017), mission (Bassous, 2015), happiness (Nantha, 2017), job satisfaction (Stringer et al., 2011; Palma, 2016), productivity (Lazauskaite-Zabielske et al., 2015), and work attendance (Nazir, Shafi, Nazir, & Tran, 2016; van Scheers & Botha, 2014). Motivation is a multifaceted concept and will appear unique to the circumstance and framework of analysis. For example, a researcher may consider mission valence as the primary input for considering employee motivation. Several factors or combination of factors such as employee age, time of day, organizational hierarchal level, and ethnicity could moderate outputs in the form of degree of persistence, goal commitment, and sustainability of productivity. This means that the action or behavior may be positive or negative subject to the antecedent factors.

Self-determination theory research signals that motivation can be conceived as a linear continuum whereby employee motivation intensity levels are fluid and slide back and forth subject to extrinsic and intrinsic influences. The resultant challenges are generalization and drawing absolute conclusions based on analytics.

Festinger (1957) indicated that within the cognitive dissonance theory, an individual would move toward or embrace situations which contribute most toward the individual's happiness. Alternatively, the same individuals will move away from or avoid situations that contribute to woe and distress. When dissonance reducing activities occur, an individual is motivated to engage in processes to minimize this state and reduce the inconsistent state of cognitions (Festinger, 1957; Harmon-Jones & Amodio, 2009). Employees may react differently to the moderating stimuli thus manifest outputs inconsistently. Additionally, as employees achieve cogitative harmony, their behavior may slide along the self determination theory linear continuum and thereby also be problematic for generalization and drawing absolute conclusions. It is, therefore, necessary for the qualitative researcher to describe the actual experience and capture individual cognitions to understand and make sense of the phenomena. These differences may be even more apparent between public service and private sector employees.

Public versus Private

Scholars have focused on the heterogeneity between public service employees (PSE) and private sector for-profit employees (FPE) when considering motivation. The label of public service employees encompasses public sector employees, spiritual sector employees, and not-for-profit employees. Researchers have found that these three employee types share several common characteristics, behaviors, and reactions to specific stimuli such as incentives while differing significantly from private sector employees (Ahluwalia & Preet, 2017; Kroll & Porumbescu, 2015; Piatak, 2016). Motivation in both public and private sector employees is modulated by incentives, albeit differently. Public service organizations face obstacles such as restrictive policies and stringent austerity measures that limit, contest or prevent extrinsic incentives being available to employees on greater prevalence than in private sector organizations (Belle & Cantarelli, 2015; Blackman et al., 2017; Cheng, 2015; Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2004; Heald & Steel, 2017; Prebble, 2016). This has resulted in public service leaders exploring less costly approaches to prompt increases in employees' motivation, such as mission valence and other intrinsic incentive strategies.

Carpenter and Gong (2016) noted that both sectors embrace the need for having salient missions; however, other scholars have found that PSEs are quicker to adopt mission valence behaviors because altruistic, public service, and prosocial based goals overlap with their values and beliefs (Caillier, 2016; Cowley & Smith, 2014; Esteve et al., 2016; Wright et al., 2012). PSEs have been found to place less value or importance on extrinsic incentives such as performance-based pay and bonuses. Belle and Cantarelli (2015) reported that the effect of extrinsic incentives on PSEs negatively moderated levels of intrinsic motivation. Many experiential researchers have labeled this phenomenon the *crowding-out effect* (van Yperen, Wortler & De Jonge, 2016). This finding differs from those of Bozeman and Sue (2015) and Jacobsen and Jensen (2017), who both reported motivational concordance when examining the sectors.

Several researchers have reported that public service sector leaders and employees believe that there are differences in core values between sectors (Cheng, 2015). PSEs have higher levels of public service motivation tendencies than private sector employees. Public service motivation theory manifests in a greater motivation to serve society because the goals are congruent with personal values (Vandenabeele, Brewer, & Ritz, 2014). When the organizations goals and values align with employees' goals and values, the corollary is extra-role behaviors due to mission valence. DeVaro, Maxwell, and Morita (2017) asserted that intrinsic motivation becomes more relevant as extrinsic incentives decrease.

Researchers have attempted to determine whether private sector models of organization and program delivery are superior to public service models, finding that there is a lack of evidence of private sector productivity superiority (Cheng, 2015; Rainey & Steinbauer, 1999). One significant difference between sectors in performance analytics is that the targets differ. Public service organizations effectiveness is not based on a profit motive. Performance indicators may include political considerations, public engagement aspects, and other non-measurable goals. Andrews (2016) observed that it is difficult to assess whether goals in the public services are being met or not because public employees tend to focus on what is being measured rather than on delivery of intangible quality public services. This type of comparison is binary only if a more compressive definition of the public service sector is entertained to include not for profit and spiritual/charitable organizations, and further review of these component parts is undertaken.

Not-for-Profit Organizations

In the review of the literature about the motivation of employees in not-for-profit (NFP) enterprises, several themes are evident:

1. NFP employees are motivated by non-pecuniary higher order needs in greater prevalence than private sector employees;
2. NFP employees often are compensated at lower levels than private sector employees;
3. There are identified homogeneity characteristics between NFP, spiritual, and public sector organizations;
4. NFP profit organizations are as productive in program delivery as private sector organizations albeit differently.

NFP employees are motivated by non-pecuniary higher order needs in greater prevalence than private sector employees (Bassous, 2015). The value framework for NFP employees is unique. For example, Akingbola and van den Berg (2017) declared that NFPs provide an opportunity for individuals to "actualize their personal altruistic values" (p. 5). Individuals are motivated by innate psychological needs such as valence or altruism. This aligns with the concept of intrinsic motivation whereby employees are attracted to and will perform specific activities purely for their own sake without compunction or coercion. When compared to private sector employees, NFP employees are found to possess greater social missions which encompass intrinsic incentives such as altruism, refinement, and development (Bassous, 2015; DeVaro et al., 2017).

Comparisons have been made between sectors regarding compensatory factors. Researchers have found that NFP employees are compensated at lower levels than employees in for-profit companies (DeVaro et al., 2017; Renard & Snelgar, 2016a). Holding the type of tasks and education levels constant, scholars have speculated that in the face of depressed remuneration, NFP and public service employees may be motivated more by the nature of the work itself.

Some authors have endeavored to draw parallels between various types of NFP organizations under the banner of public service organizations. Other scholars have researched charities, spiritual organizations, not for profits, and government agencies and reported similar organizational characteristics, leadership behaviors, and employee motivations (Henderson & Lambert, 2017; Kroll & Porumbescu, 2015). Piatak (2016) identified this as a gap in the literature and recommended that future researchers examine the distinctions or lack of them, in greater detail. In some cases, NFP entities are used as a delivery mechanism for social programming or other responsibilities that were once exclusively the responsibility of public sector organizations (Word & Park, 2015).

There has been a debate on the efficiency and effectiveness of public service organizations compared to private for-profit enterprises. One important fact that emerged in the literature is that the productivity analytics of the two sectors vary greatly. For example, a for-profit entity meets a need with the intent of being rewarded for their efforts. The result of severing the profit incentive is temporal sustainability. Wilensky and Hansen (2001) offered that NFP organizations must deal with hard financial issues on soft human issues while struggling with accountability. Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) presented multiple scenarios where public service organizations have demonstrated program delivery excellence. Kroll and Porumbescu (2015) elucidated that NFP employees when possessing pro-social motivation, outperform other sector types of employees in both in-role and extra-role behaviors (p. 2).

Additionally, Leete (2006) determined that NFP employees often have higher levels of post-secondary education than other sectors. This investigator indicated that 69% of all NPF employees have some college-level education or higher, compared to 45.6% of for-profit employees. This may suggest that NFP employees have skills and competencies as good as other sectors, albeit the concentration may be in alternative vocations. As stated earlier, spiritual and charitable originations share some foundational elements with their public service brethren.

Spiritual Factors

When one considers spiritualism in organizations, the default conception is religious institutions. A second conception involves a paradigm of ethics, values, emotion, and commitment to social responsibilities. Spiritualism then embraces visceral intrinsic meaning and purpose, which influences attitude and culture. Researchers have previously profiled sundry viewpoints explaining these circumstances as deontic justice and commitment. Organizational spirituality and charitable proclivities are grounded in the interconnectedness between the enterprise and its employees. They share transcendent characteristics that are intangible. When organizations integrate holistic virtues and obligation into its mission, often prosocial and altruistic employees find shared meaning and aspirations (Barron & Chou, 2017; Wilensky & Hansen, 2001). This manifests as a shared distinctive identity bounded by ethical stewardship. Afsar and Badir (2017) observed that workplace spirituality is comprised of three constructs: meaningful work, a sense of community, and value alignment.

Additionally, scholars have argued that individuals employed in spiritual workplaces tend to be intensely loyal and aligned with the organization's authentic purpose and values. This is labeled *spiritual connection.* Employees in spiritual and charitable organizations are fuelled by trust and passion. These employees demonstrate sustainable extra-role behaviors because they find fulfillment in contributing to the well-being of the community. Esteve et al. (2016) reported that these individuals exhibit elevated levels of public service motivation. Both sectors require productive and motivated employees. Employees can be motivated extrinsically and/or intrinsically.

Extrinsic Incentives and Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic incentives are task related positive rewards or negative disincentives such as the threat of compensatory reductions or dismissal. Extrinsic incentives can be either tangible or psychological rewards. A tangible transactional extrinsic reward includes incentives such as pay for performance schemes, bonuses, and gifts. Examples of psychological extrinsic rewards are prestige and acknowledgment. Like tangible rewards, they are extrinsic because others grant them. Howard et al. (2016) explained that when actions are avoidance behaviors intended to avert unpleasant feelings, they are conceptualized as examples of psychological intricated regulation. Extrinsic rewards motivate employees to perform tasks that they may not enjoy, do not find challenging or interesting, or lack autonomy. Some scholars have argued that this is a form of coercion through external regulation; however, extrinsic motivation occurs when an individual becomes inclined to perform tasks to gain a tangible reward that is valued by the individual. Several researchers have found that rewards influence employees' behavior, level of commitment, and degree of performance (Danish, Khan, Shahid, Raza, & Humayon, 2015; Nazir et al., 2016; Pope & Harvey, 2014).

Extrinsic rewards are preferred by organizations and employees for various reasons. Bassous (2015) reported that extrinsic rewards are used in 91% of organizations due to the ease of task-related analytics used to justify the expense when compared to increased performance. Extrinsic rewards have been identified as relevant to increasing employee task-related performance. Taylor (2015) found that there was a 22% gain in performance, post introduction of incentives, for the performance of manual tasks (p. 32). This trend aligned with research findings reported by Graves (2015), where results showed a 22% increase in performance when comparing workers who received extrinsic incentives against those who did not. Extrinsic rewards are immediate, which appeals to both hedonistic inclinations and lower order needs.

Some researchers have established that extrinsic rewards impede intrinsic motivation while other researchers suggested that intrinsic and extrinsic stimuli complement each other. In order to avoid confusion about methodological effectiveness, scholars must be vigilant in analyzing the type of motivation that is the catalyst for acting in a particular manner (Erdogan et al., 2004). For example, a public servant may perform tasks due to interest or altruistic reasons while at the same time be synergistically motivated by remuneration for performing the same work. Other researchers have indicated that extrinsic incentives may not be effective in every scenario.

Extrinsic incentives do not result in significant sustainable effects on public service employees (Bassous, 2015; Belle & Cantarelli, 2015; Ryu, 2017). One of the reasons for this is that the unique nature of public sector tasks does not align with transactional leader-member exchanges (Plaskoff, 2017; Prebble, 2016; Ryu, 2017). Public service enterprises must comply with strict fiscal transparency policies and compensation guidelines. When these restrictions are coupled with budget pressures, offering instrumental rewards may be impractical. Other researchers have declared that extrinsic motivation is not sustainable over time. Once employees come to expect or anticipate rewards or they “become passé” (Taylor, 2015, p. 32) employees will revert to their traditional productivity performance levels. Extrinsic rewards may result in substandard output in favor of throughput, especially in pay-for-performance schemes or employees may exclusively focus only on incentivized tasks (Norberg, 2017; Taylor, 2015). Lastly, some employees may view the offer of extrinsic incentives with animosity. Loss of autonomy may translate into reduced job satisfaction, or the perception that offering instrumental rewards to perform a task implies that “the task is undesirable” (Graves, 2015, p. 40). Both of these reasons will result in decreased levels of intrinsic motivation and adds credence to the argument that extrinsic rewards crowd out intrinsic motivation. The second approach to increase employee performance and motivation is through the introduction of intrinsic incentives.

Intrinsic Incentives and Intrinsic Motivation

When examining this aspect of employee motivation, it is essential to understand the difference between intrinsic incentives and intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic incentives are a type of intangible reward that will lead one toward increased intrinsic motivation. Examples of intrinsic incentives include mission valence, empowerment, autonomy, and learning and development. Intrinsic motivation is a psychological state where a person volitionally performs a task or behavior for his or her own sake, personal fulfillment, and pleasure; often, these two factors are linked. Renard and Snelgar (2017a) found evidence of a positive correlation between intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation, positing that workers' intrinsic motivation was elevated "as a result of receiving intrinsic rewards at work" (p. 191).

Intrinsic rewards are generally not offered autonomously. Public sector leaders blend multiple intrinsic rewards based on specific availability, strategy, and environmental considerations to provide incentives salient to the employee. If the employee does not value the incentive, it will not be effective in influencing productivity or motivation (Yousaf, Yang, & Sanders, 2015). Intrinsic rewards are also coupled with extrinsic rewards for four reasons: Firstly, not all actions or behaviors are pursued exclusively for intrinsic reasons (Merriman, 2017). Secondly, employees need for basic wages will supersede the desire for higher order intrinsic rewards. Thirdly, the incentive mix is determined by the types of desirable or undesirable performance behaviors (Cerasoli et al., 2014). Lastly, researchers have determined that public sector leaders prefer the use of extrinsic rewards, rather than intrinsic rewards (Bassous, 2015). As I explained earlier, the reason this occurs is due to the ease of analytics needed to justify instrumental incentives and the speed at which these types of rewards may be deployed.

Public service leaders and human resource professionals must balance employee needs and desires with the fiscal sustainability of the organization and the likelihood that incentives will achieve the organizations desired results. “A well-implemented incentive plan can increase productivity by 10 to 30 percent” (Desi & Kleiner, 2016, p. 38). Carpenter and Gong (2016) further supported this finding when they reported that “workers offered incentives increased their output by 35% on average” (p. 213). In order for rewards to be effective in increasing productivity, they must be appealing to employees.

Intrinsic rewards are appealing to both employees and organizations for numerous reasons. When employees find meaning in their organizational mission and understand the impact of their contributions, they are more inclined to accept lower wages because of amplified efficacy, fulfillment and affective commitment. For intrinsic motivation to flourish, tasks must hold intrinsic interest (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and result in the job or personal satisfaction for the employee (van Scheers & Botha, 2014). It is critical for organizational leaders to build a culture that includes ongoing dialogue and useful feedback for employees. Several researchers have discovered that intrinsic rewards sustain employee’s psychological needs for altruism, spiritualism, and valence (Bassous, 2015; Kuvaas et al., 2017; Nazir et al., 2016). Not all previous researchers espoused only the benefits of intrinsic motivation.

Although many scholars have presented positive correlations between intrinsic motivation and extra-role behaviors, some have reported a range of alternate findings and perspectives. At one end, some researchers have reported that extrinsic motivation has a more significant impact on employee organizational commitment than intrinsic motivation (Ahluwalia & Preet, 2017), while others have argued that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are not only complementary but that the effect of extrinsic incentives is dependent on intrinsic motivations (DeMartino et al., 2017). Because individuals are distinct, intrinsic rewards have an inconsistent influence on motivation from employee to employee. For example, some employees may be negatively affected by an intrinsic reward if they do not value what is being offered, it is inconsistent with their values or expectations or was it deemed insufficient to meeting their needs. Additionally, researchers have established that demographic and structural differences influence intrinsic motivation (Graves, 2015; Taylor, 2015). As a result, some employees may be more motivated by extrinsic incentives rather than personal development or career progression. Gender has been identified as a variable where differences occur in levels of intrinsic motivation. Females value public service more and are more intrinsically motivated than males (Ahluwalia & Preet, 2017; Word & Park, 2015). There is less debate in the extant literature that when employees believe that instrumental rewards may be available, it will crowd out or negatively impact intrinsic motivation.

The crowding-out effect refers to the incompatibility between extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Numerous researchers have demonstrated that extrinsic instrumental material rewards are negatively correlated with intrinsic motivation similar to a zero-sum-game (Andrews, 2016; Bénabou & Tirole, 2003; Jacobsen & Jensen, 2017; Murayama et al., 2016; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Woolley & Fishbach, 2015). The observation is that extrinsic rewards are immediate and have tangible benefits. This includes rewards such as pay-for-performance schemes, bonuses, and gifts. These rewards are often task related as opposed to pursuing an action or behavior because of salience of the mission or some other type of intrinsic motivator. The crowding-out effect manifests in multiple forms. Researchers have reported that it decreases willingness to exert effort for non-compensatory tasks (Jacobsen & Jensen, 2017), negatively impacts the quality of work performed (Miller, 2017), and decreases morale (Looser & Wehrmeyer, 2016).

Some researchers have argued conversely about the negative impacts of the crowding-out effect. Propositions have included the possible overstatement of alternative findings (Stringer et al., 2011), and the possibility that all incentives undermine intrinsic motivation (Kuvaas et al., 2017), and potential impacts on intrinsic motivation being either insignificant or absent (Putra, Cho, & Liu, 2017). Intrinsic rewards include many related elements and approaches that affect intrinsic motivation such as mission valence, goal attainment, values, altruistic propensities, alignment, person-organization fit, and psychological factors. Researchers have found that the joint impact of intrinsic and extrinsic incentives is critical to performance (Cerasoli et al., 2014). Leaders can impact employee motivation by using a combination of both approaches; however, researchers have found that intrinsic approaches are effective over time (Cheng, 2015; Kanfer et al., 2017).

Mission Valence

The concept of mission valence refers to the degree of appeal that an individual has toward the mission, values, and goals of his or her organization. In their seminal work, *Galloping Elephants: Developing Elements of a Theory of Effective Government Organizations*, Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) reasoned that mission valence is the positive or negative intensity that a person assigns to an agencies' mission and influences their motivation, performance, and attitude. Several researchers have determined that mission valence is influenced by polymorphic factors. These pressures include incentives (Bassous, 2015), mission drift (Henderson & Lambert, 2017), alignment (Kopaneva & Sias, 2015), organizational and leadership consistency (Marimon, Mas-Machuca, & Rey, 2016), spirituality and altruism (Afsar & Badir, 2017), and person-organization fit (Word & Park, 2015). Often, in the literature, plural stimulus is not explained as unitary influences. The ubiquitous nature of mission valence moderators manifests simultaneously and forms multiplicative constructs of the phenomenon (Akingbola & van den Berg, 2017; Blackman et al., 2017; Lau & Roopnarain, 2014).

A vision statement is a forward-looking document that states where an organization would like to ascribe to in the future. Jensen, Moynihan, and Salomonsen (2018) explained that vision alters established routines and subsequently the goals pursued by employees. A mission statement focuses the organization's goals and activities both now and in the future. A values statement articulates an organization's core principles, culture, and serves as the organization's moral compass. The mission valence phenomena encompass all three of these concepts. Many organizations recognize the value of having clear objectives, mission statements, and goals. A mission, values, and purpose statement sets out the organization's intentions, targets, and the means to achieve them. Barron and Chou (2017) offered that a vision, mission, and values statement provides a broad understanding of an organization's intentions, raison d'être, and "where the firm is going in the future" (p. 51). Such statements inspire employees and guide the organization's activities in alignment with aspirations, values, and ideals. Researchers have determined that organizations with clear, succinct, well-communicated vision and mission statements perform better than organizations that do not possess them (Carpenter & Gong, 2016). Having these in place does not guarantee an organization's success or harmony with its stakeholders and employees. Kopaneva and Sias (2015) cautioned that when there are inadequate goals, tools, and engagement, some organizational missions are ineffectual for self-governance or inspiring employees. In order to increase the opportunities for organizational success, leaders must create an environment whereby shared goals, values, and behaviors are embedded in the organizational culture so that employee's behavior(s) are voluntarily and positively aligned and demonstrated (Alagaraja & Shuck, 2015; Andrews, 2016).

Leaders must be aware of moderators that positively or negatively affect mission development and implementation. Kopaneva (2015) elucidated that due to the importance of mission valence and its value component, "it is necessary to know what organizational values are from the point of view of employees" (p. 13). Effective organizations have clear, inclusive, and achievable goals. Some researchers have argued that when employees understand, accept, and incorporate aligned goals within their foundational values and sense of identity, increased motivation, productivity improvements, and better recruitment and retention result (Afsar & Badir, 2017; Rainey & Steinbauer, 1999; Wright et al., 2012). Not all mission valence research has identified consistent outcomes. For example, Caillier (2016) rebutted the findings of Wright et al. (2012), positing that since organizational leaders are more engaged than employees with the development and delivery of an organization's mission, the effects on transformational leadership style “may be masked by an elevated baseline of mission valence” (p. 236).

Additionally, Callier argued that leadership style aligned with mission valence inspires specific higher–order needs which may be especially prevalent in the public and NFP sectors. Several researchers have focused on how motivation, employee behavior, and mission valence is influenced by leadership style both in the private and public sector, to include NFP spheres. Similar to Caillier (2016), Bassous (2015) and van de Walle, Steijm, and Jilke (2015) reported that NFP employees are more motivated by altruism, and intrinsic rewards such as personal development, than for-profit employees. Mission valence is one method of intrinsic motivation; a second approach involves goal attainment.

Goal Attainment

There are many different types of goals, all of which have differing nuances. Kanfer et al. (2017) defined goals as “internal representations of desired states that direct attention, organize action, and sustain effort aimed at achieving those states” (p. 343). Goal types include learning goals, performance goals, distal goals, and proximal goals (Pasha, Poister, Wright, & Thomas, 2017; Taylor, 2015). Learning goals align with intrinsic motivation because they share characteristics of knowledge, competency, and skills development. Performance goals tend to be influenced by normative expectations. These goals are often associated with extrinsic incentives because the analytical aspects enable pay-for-performance rewards to influence behaviors. Distal goals are tangentially related to proximal goals. Distal goals focus on an ultimate long-term performance target. These goals are often found in organizational plans. Proximal goals define preliminary benchmarks to be achieved while one works toward achieving distal goals. They are often found in mission statements and lead to increased intrinsic enthusiasm for meeting the task burden. In each case, clarity of goals is essential. When goals are clear, employees can identify connections between their values and the organizations (Lau & Roopnarain, 2014; Wright et al., 2012). In consideration of the principles of the expectancy-value theory, employees hold specific expectancies regarding long and short-term goals and their ability to achieve the targets. The expectancies influence choices that the employee will make which will lead performance. This concept is similar to the Galatea and Pygmalion effects theory. This is also known as the self-fulfilling prophecy (Lopez, 2017).

Interestingly, Campbell (2016) observed that a reverse Galatea situation exists in highly controlled or centralized systems, which leads to “damaging employee motivation, commitment, and role clarity” (p. 658). Leaders must be aware of the appropriate tactics to motivate employees to achieve organizational goals and use techniques that are most effective and cost-effective. Goals are often a reflection of, and heavily influenced by, personal and organizational values.

Organizational Values

Organizational values align with the mission of the enterprise. They reflect attitude and culture and bind them to behaviors. Organizational values are often infused with considerations from employees and society, which contribute to the existential semblance of the inventory. Values are metaphors of organizational culture; because they are a psychological construct, explanations of organizational values are open to criticism. Hultman and Gellerman (2002) argued that organizations do not have values; rather, they are comprised of individuals that shape shared and accepted values for the organization. Thus, in this way, organizational values reflect human values. Organizational values are often expressed as written value statements, which are united with organizational mission statements. They serve as a tool to assist organizational leaders and employees to become self-aware of the organization's identity and commitments. Value statements are not intended to be a top-down exercise and imposed on employees; rather, they should be developed as a volitional activity involving leaders and employees. Cascading from the value development is values measurement. Once measured, leaders can reconcile the organizational values with contributions of the management team and employees (Afsar & Bilar, 2017; Krogsaard, Thomsen, & Anderson, 2014). Several scholars have noted that organizational values are intertwined with perception; when values are perceived to contribute to social missions, they will serve to motivate staff and lead to job satisfaction (Akingbola & van den Berg, 2017; Sokouti, Fayyazi, & Yavari, 2015; Yeung, Fung, & Chan, 2016). Another relevant psychological construct is altruism.

Altruistic Factors

Altruism is an inherent aspiration to selflessly serve humanity without expectation of compensation or reward (Resh, Marvel, & Wen, 2017; Toumbourou, 2016). Lazauskaite-Zabielske et al. (2015) explained that altruistic behaviors exceed formal duties and normal expectations. Some scholars have suggested that altruism is more prevalent in public service organizations due to elevated pro-social or public service motivation tendencies (Renard & Snelgar, 2017b; Vandenabeele et al., 2014); others have counterclaimed that altruism can be explained as an organization's moral commitment that enhances its legitimacy and sustainability (Baron & Chou, 2017). Moynihan, DeLeire, and Enami (2015) observed that there is little difference in altruistic behavior between private and public service employees; they also speculated that altruistic behaviors might actually "confer benefits upon the giver" (p. 313), through either extrinsic, intrinsic, or psychological privilege such as comforts derived from gravitation toward cognitive dissonance. This latter explanation divorces altruism from the volitional activities requirement in public sector motivation theory.

Public service motivation theory serves to explain why some individuals voluntarily choose public service sector careers despite opportunities for higher remunerative options in the private sector. Altruism has been used by scholars to rationalize one potential motive for selecting public service careers (Piatak, 2016; Potipiroon & Ford, 2017; Prebble, 2016). Equally important is the *a priori* belief that altruism and intrinsic motivation are positively correlated (Bassous, 2015; Danish et al., 2015; Duffy et al., 2015; Kroll & Porumbescu, 2015). When public service sector leaders understand the reasons and preferences of certain individuals demonstrate altruistic orientations, they will be more focused on attracting and retaining these persons. One condition precedent that leaders seek to identify when recruiting individuals with strong altruistic and mission valence leanings is alignment.

Alignment

Alignment is recognized as significant moderator of mission valence. However, its definition and impact are subject to the context being considered. For example, firstly, it may refer to the degree of harmony between the organizations mission and the organization's culture and behavior. Secondly, it may refer to the congruence between an employee’s values and the degree of mission matching with the organization. Lastly, it may refer to the foundational levels of commitment shared between the employee and the organization.

In order for public sector leaders to influence intrinsic motivational behaviors, they must create an inclusive and trusting environment that demonstrates integrity and consistency. Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) reflected that “culture refers to patterns of shared meaning in organizations, including shared values and beliefs about appropriate behaviors and actions” (p. 17). The difficulty in generalizing Rainey’s definition of culture is that culture is not a unitary construct. Each organizational member brings factors into the mix which results in organizational culture. These factors include history, beliefs, perceptions, and normative expectations of themselves and others (MacLeod, 2016; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Sokouti et al., 2015; Story & Neves, 2015).

Alignment may refer to the congruence between an employee's values and the degree of mission matching with the organization. "Work-value congruence may be defined as the match between the organization's values (or culture) and the individual's values" (Erdogan et al., 2004, p. 308). Several scholars have explored eudaimonic motivation in relation to this definition of alignment. Researchers have determined that there are positive relationships between motivation and psychological factors (Alagaraja & Shuck, 2015), employee perceptions (Caldwell, Hayes, Karri, & Bernal, 2007; Merriman, Sen, Felo, & Litzky, 2016), and employee organization fit (Afsar & Badir, 2017; Smith, 2016). Additionally, researchers have reported that there is a positive relationship between mission matching and productivity (Resh et al., 2018).

Lastly, alignment may be dependent on commitment levels. Within the realm of motivation research, there are three recognized types of commitment: affective, normative, and continuance commitments. Affective commitment postulates that there are emotional and psychological attachments from the employee to their organization (Mitonga-Monga & Cilliers, 2016; Oh, Choi, & Colbert, 2015). Employees remain aligned with their organization through affective commitment through a sense of loyalty, ethics, and involvement. Normative commitment means that an employee feels a sense of obligation to the organization often in the form of remaining in its employ (Potipiroon & Ford, 2017). When an employee is aligned through normative commitment, there is often a sense of duty and committal to participate in meeting organizational goals. Finally, continuance commitment stresses that there are specific costs and benefits for an employee to contribute to and remain with their organization (Nazir et al., 2016).

Markovits, Boer, and van Dick (2014) found that in times of austerity, affective commitment is depressed due to the resulting adverse pressures on moods and affections. Alignment in motivation research is not a zero-sum game. Employees often subscribe to fluid motivational constructs which coexist subject to external and internal circumstances (Kopaneva & Sias, 2015; Lee & Raschke, 2015; Weske & Schott, 2016). When alignment exists, there is greater likelihood that dissonance is muted, and a substantial person-organization fit occurs.

Person-Organization Fit

Person-organization fit (POF) is also referred to as mission matching. Much has been written about the importance of POF and its impact on productivity. Ryu (2017) posited that POF is comprised of two constructs. The first, supplementary fit, is recognized by matched values, goals, and culture between the employee and the organization. The second construct is complementary fit, which occurs when one of the parties characteristics result in something that the other party wants. Three observations resulted from Ryu’s research. Firstly, the supplementary fit is an antecedent condition precedent to mission valence. Secondly, complementary fit applies to both intrinsic and extrinsic incentives as long as the recipient values the reward or behavior. Lastly, the two types of fit are synchronously linked. For example, from the perspective of cognitive dissonance, an individual will gravitate toward a mission, values, or goals that bring about a state of grace. They will quickly abandon plans or organizations that do not contribute to psychological higher-order desires or conflict with their beliefs. Thus, Rye's description of fit demonstrates that pro-social behavior involves both an employee’s concept of self, in addition to organizational social identity. Elsbach and Bhattacharya (2002) explained that “organizational dis-identification appears to be motivated by individuals desires to both affirm positive distinctiveness and avoid negative distinctiveness by distancing themselves from incongruent values and negative stereotypes attributed to an organization” (Ryu, 2017, p. 393). Ryu’s constructs apply equally well using the expectancy-value theory. Ryu explained that within the expectancy-value theory framework, behavior is governed by expectancies of success and task value. A normative argument is that the expectancies or Galatea effect implicitly requires matched missions. Otherwise, the individual and the organization would be at odds and the Galatea effect cannot be achieved. When employees are mismatched, they have difficulty finding meaning or purpose with their organization's goals (Afsar & Badir, 2017; Zoutenbier, 2016). The value component of the theoretical framework aligns well with Ryu’s (2017) principle of complementary fit. Some researchers have determined that actual and perceived value congruence is positively related to work attitudes, productivity and job satisfaction (Akingbola & van den Berg, 2017; Erdogan et al., 2004). The importance of POF quickly becomes evident when leaders are accountable for organizational productivity.

Employees that have substantial fit with their organizations are significantly more productive than those who are mismatched (Smith, 2016). Carpenter and Gong (2016) found that mission matched workers are 72% more productive than mismatched workers. Several scholars have offered explanations of this phenomenon. Employees possessing considerable workplace spirituality blend life purpose with matched core beliefs and values. This results in connectedness and alignment with the organization through perceived future shared intentions and greater meaningfulness in their tasks. Smith (2016) found that matched workers found tasks 45% more meaningful than mismatched employees. A possible explanation for this is that employees may feel an obligation to compensate the organization for its support and fairness by deictic pro-social behaviors and extra effort in meeting goals (Afsar & Badir, 2017; Barron & Chou, 2017).

Productivity is also impacted by compatibility for several reasons. Job seekers are attracted to organizations that they perceive as harmonious to their psychological and instrumental needs. Likewise, organizations will attempt to attract, recruit and retain employees that project a complementary fit (Neumann, 2016). Additionally, organizations will invest greater time and resources in employees which they deem to be most receptive to organizational goals thereby increasing competencies and a likelihood of success in meeting the mission (van Loon & Vandenbele, 2017). Lastly, researchers have established that employees with superfluous levels in intrinsic public service motivation are better performers than employees who do not possess this characteristic. Public service motivation, person-organization fit, and performance are positively correlated (Carpenter & Gong, 2016; Palma, 2016; Potipiroon & Ford, 2017; Prebble, 2016; Ryu, 2017; van Loon & Vandenbeele, 2017).

Social exchange theory is influenced by bi-lateral mutually beneficial exchanges. Consistent with this theoretical framework, some research suggests that the impact of POF can be offset or influenced by instrumental or extrinsic incentives. Incentives are imperfect substitutes for mission preferences (Carpenter & Gong, 2016; Merriman, 2017). This implies that losses in productivity due to low POF can be recovered if the organization provides sufficient compensatory incentives to the employee to increase output. Smith (2016) took these findings one step further, suggesting that productivity gains could be made by providing either extrinsic or intrinsic incentives to the employee. The X-factor variable is the intensity of the change based on the degree that the employee deems the incentive valuable and adequate. In contrast, Carpenter and Gong (2012) found that when employees are not motivated by the organization's mission, they are more than four times less likely to believe that the instrumental or extrinsic incentives supplied are fair and equitable. Mission valence, goal attainment, values, altruism alignment, and person-organization fit all identified psychological factors as a common element which partially explains why many individuals are intrinsically influenced.

Psychological Factors

It is important to explore the psychological factors that influence employee motivation because they may offer an interpretation and rationale for certain leadership and employee behaviors. Numerous scholars have rendered opinions on the consequence of needs (Ryan & Deci, 2000), emotion (van Scheers & Botha, 2014), social needs (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2002), cognition (Alagaraja & Shuck, 2015), sense of self (Benedetti et al., 2015) and the impact of incentives on leader and employee behavior and attitude (Resh et al., 2018). Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory includes the argument that individuals are motivated by specific graduated needs, which take precedence over lower order needs. Basic needs, which are comprised of physiological and safety requirements, are trumped by higher order psychological needs. Psychological needs subsume social needs and esteem needs (Acevedo, 2018). The highest order needs are self-actualization needs. Within this reflection, psychological needs are what is considered. Several scholars have considered psychological needs holistically. Individuals, irrespective of organizational role, share common needs and will react similarly in specific conditions and colloquial idiosyncrasies (Andrews, 2016; Kwan et al., 2011). Several researchers have found that individuals have demonstrated homogeneity in need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Astakhova & Porter, 2016; Jensen & Bro, 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000; van Egmond et al., 2017; Weske & Schott, 2016; Woolley & Fishbach, 2015). All of these elements influence intrinsic motivation. The self-determination theory describes the genesis of autonomy as internalized behavior. Competence is depicted as feelings of capability. Lastly, relatedness represents the feeling that when an individual is connected to others in some manner, it can result in expressed emotions.

Emotions are effective internal mechanisms that result in actions. Researchers have identified emotion as one of the causal orientations that influence other psychological needs (Kwan et al., 2011) and propensity for employees to remain with their organizations (Ahluwalia & Preet, 2017; Renard & Snelgar, 2017a). Due to the uniqueness of each individual, emotional reactions differ from person to person. This makes emotional intelligence competencies in leaders a necessary condition for establishing aligned social needs, goals, and culture.

In Maslow's (1943) needs model, the theorist identified social needs as including "belongingness and loving relationships" (p. 380). Many researchers have linked social needs and cognition. When individuals find common purpose with other individuals or the enterprise, it results in meeting one's social needs. When the individual’s sense of self feels connected to the organization or group, there is an affective attachment and a greater voluntary desire to seek common purpose or calibrate behaviors consistent with the organizational environment (Lee, Park, & Koo, 2015; Mitonga-Monga & Cilliers, 2016). A sense of self refers to one's self-image, self-esteem, and efficacy. When individuals possess a positive self-image, they have greater confidence and contribute to one’s sense of purpose and pro-social behaviors (Esteve et al., 2016; Resh et al., 2018). One’s self-image intrinsically influences one's choices, goals, persistence, and motivation. The principles of the cogitative dissonance theory include self-knowledge and judgment in interpreting and evaluating whether a particular choice or behavior leads to greater contentment or can reduce distress. Unfortunately, most scholars studying this phenomenon have not measured the psychological discomfort associated with cogitative dissonance (Hinojosa et al., 2017). Hypersensitivity that are personal or internal tend to result in inflated dissonance.

Additionally, the intensity of the cogitative dissonance creates inflated pressure on the self-esteem to take actions to mitigate feelings of discomfort. For example, a public servant may support austerity measures as a taxpayer as an effective tactic to manage deficits, but may also be faced with deciding whether to participate in a labor strike to secure higher wages. The person's choice is motivated to decrease the dissonance and reflect their beliefs and sense of self. Previous scholars have identified the importance of incentives in influencing behaviors. This is further explained by analyzing incentives through a psychological factors lens.

Incentives refer to both extrinsic and intrinsic alternatives. Although the two incentive types are not exclusive, they are considerably different in triggering a psychological reaction. Jensen and Bro (2017) found that “satisfaction with basic psychological needs is important to both intrinsic motivation and the internalization of extrinsic motivation” (p. 3). Extrinsic incentives motivate behavior by offering explicit rewards. To stimulate behavior, the individual must value the reward and accept the sufficiency as appropriate. An example of an extrinsic reward is a pay-for-performance bonus (Stringer et al., 2011). Extrinsic incentives negate the effectiveness of the more sustainable intrinsic reward models such as mission valence (Zhao & Zhu, 2014). As previously explained, this is called the crowding-out effect. Some individuals consider extrinsic incentive techniques as a form of coercion and thereby resent them being offered by the organization. Additionally, the use of extrinsic incentives is linked to lower vitality and need satisfaction (Benedetti et al., 2015).

An example of intrinsic incentives is a well-designed and interesting job. Intrinsic incentives lead to visceral drives and intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation occurs when psychological rewards arise from work itself (Kroll & Porumbescu, 2015). In this manner, intrinsic rewards align with higher order needs such as happiness, self-esteem, and personal development. Kulkarni (2015) offered that “psychologically, passion is another name for intrinsic motivation” (p. 79). Previous researchers have presented a compelling case that intrinsic motivation leads to several positive psychological outcomes such as better well-being, increased self-esteem, and stronger social relationships (Nantha, 2017; Renard & Snelgar, 2016b). Previous researchers have also revealed a volume of knowledge that leaders should capture and use when crafting a human resource policy.

Leadership

The importance of leadership to employee motivation cannot be overstated. Scholars have asserted that leadership may be the most important factor influencing employee motivation. Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) stated that "scholars cite leadership as an essential element in the success of public agencies" (p. 18). Leadership style, specifically transformational leadership, has repeatedly been cited as being significant in influencing behavior. The locus of leaders with humanistic styles is the relationship between the leader and the employee. They create enriching environments and cultures by establishing inclusive, clear, and achievable goals while providing the necessary training and tools to achieve them. They are fluid in being able to adjust tactics to match the needs of the organization with the skills and competencies of their employees. They influence behavior by aligning mission and incentives to achieve positive outcomes. They lead by example and demonstrate ethics, integrity, and trust. Caldwell et al., (2011) suggested that although leadership theories abound, the common factor is the ability of leaders to influence employees to achieve organizational objectives in times of change (p. 155). Several scholars have argued that the transformational leadership style is essential in promoting employee motivation.

There is a significant association between transformational leadership and mission valence (Caillier, 2016; Wright et al., 2012). The transformational leadership style can be identified by several characteristics. Such leaders are strong communicators, with a clear vision and the ability to inspire efficacy and motivate employees to meet this vision. They are authentic, collaborative, decisive, and empowering (Campbell, 2018; Nohe & Hertel, 2017). Through the effective use of these traits, transformational leaders inspire employees to reach for higher order goals such as altruism and public service motivation. They prefer offering intrinsic incentives such as growth, empowerment, and training rather than extrinsic transactional incentives. They work with their subordinates to make organizational goals relevant, especially when they are socially oriented and thereby increase employee efficacy (Andrews, 2016; Caillier, 2016). Transformational leaders build enriching cultures that encourage ongoing engagement and involvement from their empowered employees.

The establishment of culture is one of the most challenging aspects of leadership. Culture is influenced to some degree by each person in an organization. Each is unique and brings with her differing experiences, attitudes, beliefs, bias, and viewpoints. A successful leader embraces this diversity and through inclusion and empowerment guide subordinates toward integrated personal and organizational goals (Kulkarni, 2015; Looser & Wehrmeyer, 2016; Mangi, Kanasro, & Burdi, 2015; Putra et al., 2017). Previous researchers have presented evidence that when managers have control of work environments, resulting in positive impacts on employees, intrinsic motivation and productivity occur (Astakhova & Porter, 2016; Erdogan et al., 2004; Word & Park, 2015). Effective leaders communicate clear and achievable goals, values, and missions with and to their employees.

Consistent, open, clear, and respectful communications are precedent conditions for promoting a constructive environment. High performing organizations reflect the dialogue between leaders and employees on roles, goals, and values (Blackman et al., 2017; Jensen & Bro, 2017; Kopaneva, 2015). Due to the uniqueness of each, leaders find that each person is motivated differently and responds to different treatments. It is the leader's responsibility to learn what elements are most effective for each employee in differing contexts. Consistent dialogue is essential for ascertaining this information. This is especially important if leaders hope to use mission valence as an intrinsic technique to increase productivity.

Scholarly researchers have established that there is a positive correlation between leadership style(s) and enhanced mission valence (Caillier, 2016; Wright et al., 2012). Many scholars have agreed that an organizational mission must be concise to obtain sustainable success, and the most appropriate manner to achieve this is through top-down engagement. This argument suggests that organization vision solely belongs to the leader(s), including the strategic initiatives designed to achieve the mission. The belief is that this type of leadership engagement is welcomed because it sends strong signals of validity and commitment and will lead to overall fidelity to the mission (Karatepe & Aga, 2016; Kulkarni, 2015; Marimon et al., 2016). Alternatively, some scholars have advocated for leaders that are skilled in goal-setting that is inclusive and aligns with the needs and values of engaged employees (Afsar & Badir, 2017; Linz, Good, & Busch, 2015; Kopaneva & Sias, 2015; Rainey & Steinbauer, 1999). It is the leader's role and responsibility to develop and use an appropriate mix of incentives within the context and fiscal resources available to achieve organizational goals.

Agency theory postulates that leaders will establish appropriate compensatory schemes to incentivize individuals toward greater productivity and performance albeit sometimes to the detriment of organizational owners. Bassous (2015) found that extrinsic incentives are used by 91% of organizations to enhance employee motivation, and noted that there is a strong preference for managers to use extrinsic incentives over intrinsic incentives. Other researchers have claimed that intrinsic incentives are more cost-effective and sustainable over time (Carpenter & Gong, 2016; Kulkarni, 2015). This latter point implies that to mitigate the organizational risks alluded to in the agency theory, at a minimum, leaders must consider intrinsic incentives alongside extrinsic incentives. Weske and Schott (2016) found that "employees are motivated by several motives at the same time" (p. 13). This means that leaders must adjust binary incentives schemes subject to the individual and situation. This must be done wisely and with caution because "at times, intrinsic and extrinsic incentives are negatively associated" (Woolley & Fishbach, 2015, p. 968). Leaders should find the balance between schemes to subdue the impacts of the crowding out effect and execute fiduciary fiscal stewardship. Miller et al., (2017) recommended that leaders provide fair and equitable wages (extrinsic incentives) before considering various intrinsic incentives to stimulate additional productivity (p. 17) and build them into the organization's human resource policies.

Demographics

Demographics are important to leaders who are responsible for designing HR policies and procedures. Researchers have established that there is no one best approach in this pursuit due to the numerous variables that influence an employee's perceptions and behaviors. Thus, consistently effective generalized HR policies are difficult to sustain. Researchers have argued that one size does not fit all (Graves, 2015; Gupta & Sharma, 2016; Weske & Schott, 2016). Nomothetic standards dictate that leaders should use dialogue, observation, research, and analytics to determine how specific strata of employees are influenced and impacted by HR policies and procedures (Esteve et al., 2016; Lee & Raschke, 2016; Piatak, 2016). Employees' motivation and performance are impacted by factors such as age (French & Emerson, 2015), professional affiliation (Gamassou, 2015), hierarchical or seniority levels (Weske & Schott, 2016), education (van de Walle et al., 2015), and gender (Karatepe & Aga, 2016). For example, researchers have found that women are more attracted to public service and job security, but less satisfied with remuneration, when compared to male employees (French & Emerson, 2015; Word & Park, 2015). Organizational leaders must consider multiple demographic and environmental factors to manage unique individuals toward shared commitments while mitigating against undesirable conduct such as increased turnover or inflated absenteeism.

Recruitment and Retention

Human resource management is an important aspect for leaders when considering employee motivation. Aside from the importance of demographics, research studies have found that employee motivation is affiliated with recruitment and retention efforts and negatively correlated with the perception of fairness and absenteeism. Turnover is often influenced by employees' level of commitment. It can result in organizations accruing significant costs associated with recruitment, selection, and training (Nazir et al., 2016). Multiple researchers have found that organizations should substantially invest in the lower cost employee retention policies and procedures. Researchers have consistently recommended that organizations dedicate time and care in recruiting employees which intrinsically align with the organizations culture and goals, and ensure employees are frequently engaged in dialogue and feedback (Kobersy et al., 2016; Neumann & Ritz, 2015; Pasha et al., 2017; Ryu, 2017; Smith, 2016; Wilensky & Hansen, 2001; Wright & Pandey, 2011). When mismatches occur, or fairness is questioned, it manifests in undesirable behaviors such as low productivity and increased absenteeism.

Fairness

"Money is the most obvious way that organizations use to reward employees" (Tampu, 2015, p. 48). The perception of unfairness can quickly result in negative consequences if not addressed by leaders in a timely and equitable manner. Scholars have suggested that the most common complaint of perceived unfairness is remuneration, which is an extrinsic incentive. Renard and Snelgar (2017a) found that when base pay is deemed acceptable by the employee, there is greater task dedication, connection to the organization mission and higher levels of retention.

Interestingly, Carpenter and Gong (2016) reported that workers who are unmotivated by the organizational mission are "more than four times less likely to believe that they are paid fairly" (p. 212). Organizational leadership should have defined guidelines and criteria for incentives stipulating how and when they will be offered. Performance appraisals are reasonable measures used to provide feedback and initiate incentives (Blackman et al., 2017; Caillier, 2014; Cheng, 2015). Fairness is associated with trust in management and the extent that the enterprise values its employees and their contributions (Erdogan et al., 2004; Zia-ur-Rehman, Faisel, & Khan, 2015).

Summary and Transition

Much has been written in the extant literature about employee motivation. Scholars have applied numerous theoretical frameworks and offered countless experimental research studies in efforts to add to the body of knowledge. The concepts were explored by using several theoretical frameworks to provide examples and interpret theory and results from various perspectives.

Public service is broader than just considering government civil service activities. Scholars have revealed that other organizations that do not have a profit incentive share important characteristics. Not-for-profit and spiritual/charitable organizations have similarity to government service in structural, functional, and philosophical essence. Employees of public service organizations often have elevated altruistic pro-social public service motivated proclivities.

These unique inclinations manifest in several ways. Employees tend to favor intrinsic incentives over extrinsic rewards. Intrinsic incentives motivate these employees because the reward comes from within. Scholars have observed public service sector employees gravitate to higher order fulfillment needs through preferences such as alignment, goal attainment, expressed values, and person-organization fit. These preferences result in mission valence. Mission valence occurs when the values, beliefs, and goals of the individual are in concordance and harmony with the values, beliefs, and goals of their respective organizations. When this occurs, employees tend to be more productive than employees that are not motivated in the same manner.

Not all employees are motivated by intrinsic incentives. Some employees, and a majority of organizations, prefer the use of task associated instrumental extrinsic rewards. These rewards have demonstrated effectiveness in increasing motivation, albeit differently than intrinsic incentives. There are benefits to deploying tandem incentive programs, and numerous scholars have demonstrated that extrinsic rewards will erode intrinsic motivation. The reason is that extrinsic rewards appeal to hedonistic psychological tendencies and are immediate. Extrinsic motivation is not sustainable over time. These facts lead public service leaders to develop knowledge and competencies necessary to understand how to develop an appropriate mix of extrinsic and intrinsic incentives that are valued by employees and will result in sustained productivity and achievement of organizational goals. Using dialogue and engagement, leaders develop human resource policy and strategies that balance fiscal realities with employees’ needs and ultimately improve performance through increased motivation. In this way, positive social change results.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

This chapter contains a detailed description of the qualitative phenomenological design and the research methodology that I employed in this study. A qualitative research study is less about achieving generalization, where different researchers would produce the same results, and is more about producing comprehensive descriptions of a phenomenon after a meticulous examination of an experience or data. Through a phenomenological research design, researchers endeavor to inductively study and understand key participants' descriptions of lived experiences within the context of the phenomenon. Finlay (2012) offered that the goal of the phenomenological research is to "move beyond what the participant says of experience to what is revealed in the telling" (p. 180). Descriptive phenomenological researchers couple detailed narratives and depictions with phenomenological reduction in order to gain knowledge. Phenomenological reduction ensues after a researcher revisits the study data to understand, apprise, and describe the essence of participants' lived experience (Finlay, 2014). The use of this research approach aligns with the need which inspired the current study: to better understand intrinsic motivational approaches within the civil service through face-to-face and telephone interviews of key participants from EMT PSGD. I conducted this research study in accordance with Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) requirements.

My hypothesis is that public sector leaders will gravitate to specific combinations of intrinsic incentives to influence employee motivation when extrinsic options are diminished.

Research Questions

RQ1: Which intrinsic incentives and approaches do public sector leaders from the EMT PSGD think are essential in making sustainable motivational changes in employees?

RQ2: In what ways has mission valence influenced sustainable motivational changes in PSGD employees?

By answering these research *questions*, I provided data that identified the combinations of intrinsic incentives preferred by PSGD leaders to motivate employees. The participants identified whether mission valence was a preferred option and its degree of effectiveness if it had been selected.

Role of the Researcher

It is not possible to separate the role of the researcher from qualitative research. Researchers have the responsibility to identify, acknowledge, and mitigate possible bias or areas where their role may impact participants (Morrow, 2005). I am a senior leader in a Canadian provincial civil service, and thus, I have a significant network of other senior civil service leaders. As of December 2017, there are 14,000 employees in the provincial civil service and approximately 900 employees of PSGD selected for research. I did know some of my voluntary key participants. None of the voluntary participants had a reporting relationship to me; therefore, they did not feel compelled to participate due to possible coercion. Some career paths may temporally intersect a researcher's career span, thus macro experiences may be shared albeit through a differing lens. Additionally, I recruited a homogenous sample to eliminate the risk of participant manipulation. My role as a qualitative phenomenological researcher was to gather participants' descriptions and interpretations of their lived experiences and present an understanding of the phenomena within specific frames of context and setting by using categorization and themes. Due to my 27 years of public service management experience, it was critical that I rigidly complied with the principles of reductionism and bracketing to guarantee integrity in the study. In addition to the role of facilitator, I am also a learner gaining insight and knowledge of the phenomena. As the researcher, my role included building trust with my participants, demonstrating fidelity, interpreting verbal and nonverbal communication, and demonstrating appropriate and professional interviewing skills.

Methodology

I implemented a descriptive qualitative phenomenology approach in this research study to explore, analyze, and examine key participants' rich, thick descriptions of their lived experiences. I relied on descriptive phenomenological procedures to capture details of the lived experiences of EMT PSGD members and gain the meaning and understanding of employee motivation within a specific public service sector. I gathered descriptive data through one-on-one interviews and a survey, and provided the foundation for thematic identification and qualitative analysis.

Participant Selection

In qualitative research, it is more important to have a sample size that is large enough to ensure that all perceptions of phenomena are covered (Creswell, 2007) than to have a sample that is so large that the study's aims are not reasonably achievable. Several scholars have argued that there is no perfect qualitative sample size. The sample must be determined by factors such as the research questions, what knowledge the researcher is seeking, and factors such as proximity and costs. My purposively selected sample of expert key participants was homogeneous. They were all well-educated and experienced senior leaders that work for the same government department. The number of qualitative interviews depends on the "purpose of the research" (Brannen, 2012, p. 16). Through this research, I intended to study a specific phenomenon from the perspectives and experiences of the specific key participants. Sample size can be reduced when the participants are experts in the topic area (Jette, Grover, & Keck, 2003) because expert data will usually lead to saturation quicker than that of non-experts.

The initial research sample was 10 EMT members. The rationale for this qualitative sample size is based on a recommendation of five to 25 participants as appropriate for phenomenological research (Joo & Sung, 2017). The sample was drawn from the key participant EMT population until saturation occurred. If saturation had not occurred, the sample size would have been increased. Brannen (2012) explained that theoretical saturation is achieved when no additional data can be developed into a category and incorporated into a theory. I elected to use EMT members as research subjects because all my potential volunteers are well-educated professionals who had a minimum of a bachelors' degree and most having graduate degrees. They all were long-term civil servants and highly experienced senior executive leaders within the selected PSGD, in addition to being members of the department's Executive Management Team for a minimum of at least one year. I received written approval from the Deputy Minister of the PSGD before inviting any voluntary EMT members to participate in the research. I invited the participants to participate through an invitation correspondence. Participants were invited to send me an email indicating their interest. I have elected this step to ensure the privacy of volunteers and to ensure that the EMT members do not feel pressured by the larger group.

Instrumentation

The instrumentation data-capture strategy included three critical components: the research design, the tools that will be needed to complete the data capture, and the structure required to manage and assess the data. As stated earlier, the voluntary participants learned about this research in a presentation to EMT PSGD before deciding if they are interested in participating. Interested participants received more detailed written information that explained the purpose of the research, the required time commitment, and an agreement to voluntary participate. It was necessary for me to include a specific authorization that the voluntary participants understood that I needed to make audio recordings of all telephone conversations and interviews. The authorization included notification that any written material was to be saved by myself as the researcher. I invited my participants to check and review any recorded materials they were involved. This included access to all written transcriptions related to any researcher-participant dialogue regardless of the media used. I stored all data in a dedicated password-protected external hard drive. The hard drive is stored in a locked fireproof safe in my residence. Seven years after the successful completion of this research study, all electronic and hard copy records will be destroyed to ensure the participants' confidentiality.

I used in-depth interviews and a survey to capture data. In-depth interviews can be used by researchers to gain a holistic understanding of a phenomenon from the participant's perspective. Patton (2015) offered that in-depth interviews can be used for reasons including illuminating meaning, capturing stories, understanding context, and identifying unanticipated consequences. This approach can also enable researchers to gain contextual opinions of individual key participants rather than knowledge obtained via focus groups. Rubin and Rubin (2012) advised that in-depth interviews are especially useful when researchers wish to explore issues which are not readily apparent. Additionally, this type of instrumentation is valid for exploring complex, contradictory, or counterintuitive matters.

Current researchers have indicated that problems associated with in-depth interviewing may occur. The problems are that the approach is prone to bias, it is time intensive, it requires significant training and experience to develop interviewer competencies, and the results tend not to be generalizable (Alsaawi, 2014; Milena, Dainora, & Alin, 2008). Many of these issues were mitigated by dedicating adequate time to planning. Researchers must use clear, concise, and well-informed language in their open-ended questions when interviewing. This research study required a usable interview guide as a tool to assist me in staying on topic and not straying too far from the primary research topic. Additionally, I will be conscious of possible bias, and dedicate time and attention to building rapport with the participants. Researchers must be careful not to commit transcription errors, avoid potential leading questions, and be aware of nonverbal communication cues such as body language when interpreting captured data.

There are several different qualitative data collection methods. Two of these methods are face-to-face interviews and electronic interviewing. Each of these methods has strengths and weaknesses. Individualized qualitative interviews are the primary approach for researchers to extract rich, contextualized data which are unique to the participant's experiences and interpretations. Face-to-face interviews allow a rapport to be built between myself and participants based on trust. They are often more structured than other types of data collection methods, and they allow a more accessible opportunity to address sensitive or personal issues and assure confidentiality with more certainty. Face-to-face interviews need to be diligent in guarding against bias. One of the concerns about this method is the researcher does not have as much opportunity to review or make notes without losing eye contact with the participant. Some scholars have argued that with one-on-one interviews, participants answers are not influenced by other group members; thus, the quality of the information is better.

Electronic interviewing can enable the researcher to gain access to a more extensive research sample while not being restricted by geography, mobility, or cost (Ravitch & Carl, 2016); however, the weaknesses of this approach include the lost opportunity to interpret non-verbal communication, difficulty in establishing trust between the participants and myself, and the lack of technology in specific geographical locations. Irvine, Drew, and Sainbury (2013) observed that "researchers giving personal accounts of conducting telephone interviews tend to offer more nuanced or critical reflections on the extent to which the lack of visual cues affects the interaction in practice" (p. 87). Other scholars have made similar arguments in favor of this approach, citing that the research sample can expand very quickly with little direct costs.

I developed an interview guide consisting of 24 open-ended qualitative semistructured questions, which was emailed to the participants in preparation for the one-on-one interviews. A short demographic questionnaire/survey was emailed to the research participants before the interview with a request that it be completed and returned for demographic capture purposes. I used Survey Monkey as a tool to capture and manage the demographic data. I designed the initial question to learn about the participants and establish rapport.

By asking for a story, my participants had ultimate control of what was shared and how. The next several questions were consistent with a phenomenological research study because I inquired about the participants' experiences and observations. Some of these questions were influenced by both the literature and theories of worker motivation and mission valence. I inquired about the best approach and the worst intrinsic approach a leader could use to motivate staff. This was intended to elicit different experiences and perspectives. Additionally, these two questions helped me to assess content validity, reliability, and whether the answers conflict. Lastly, by inquiring about any missing information, I was signaling that the interview is over.

Part of my professional experience spanned the same historical period of when austerity measures were a factor in the participant's decision about incentive mixes. Thus, I was able to use my experience as an additional validity check. The challenge of aligning data collection methodologies with the research questions can present specific challenges. Polkinghorne (2005) argued that “the unit of analysis in qualitative research is experience, not individuals or groups” (p. 139). Qualitative studies diverge in the kinds of experience that their researchers investigate, yet they share an exploration of the experience itself—not about its distribution in a population. This suggests that the researcher must be more focused on the “how” and “what,” rather than on the “who” when gathering data. Polkinghorne further explained that the intent of data gathering is to provide evidence for the experience that is investigated. The evidence is in the form of accounts people have given of the experience. The researcher analyzes the evidence to produce a core description of the experience. Without adequate alignment between method and the research questions, the researcher may capture unusable data. The best way to manage this may be through triangulation. By using multiple approaches, the researcher reduces the limitations of using only one data capture method and its influence it could have on the interpretation

I used triangulation to combine methodology, publically available data sources, and alternative theories to gain a better understanding of the foci of the research topic and resultant answers provided by participants. These assisted me as the researcher in identifying any potential convergent or divergent views and add validity, reliability, and trustworthiness to my research. Moustakas (1994) argued that validity within a qualitative study is demonstrated when a researcher's questions instigate recollections of a lived experience from the key participant or research participant. This perspective was interpreted as an initial test of validity. The second test of validity was the substantiation of the data's accuracy and credibility. This research was authenticated through member checking. Measures such as journaling interview notes, adhering to an interview protocol and a codebook, and integrating hand coding with an established qualitative data analysis software program ensured that the data met the test for credibility. I used Atlas Ti 8.0 as the primary tool to manage and assess the data and identify themes. I demonstrated credibility by integrating bracketing, reduction, triangulation, saturation, and member checking into my research methodology.

The principle of credibility is coupled with that of reliability. O'Sullivan, Rassel, Berner, and Taliaferro (2017) offered that reliability is comprised of three dimensions: stability, equivalence, and consistency. Stability is demonstrated when similar results, with few inconsistencies, are realized when the research is replicated at a later time. In phenomenological qualitative research studies, it's critical that established theoretical frameworks, such as the cognitive dissonance theory, be used to guide future researchers. Equivalence occurs when multiple researchers measure data in the same manner and achieve similar results. Equivalence in the current research study was evident through the use of the Giorgi (2012) method for data analysis. Lastly, consistency was perceptible when the items reviewed are related to the same phenomenon. In this study, I used semistructured, open-ended research questions to extract the unique lived experiences of key participants from PSGD leaders. By using semistructured questions, there was consistency between participants in the manner of how I extracted the data to investigate this phenomenon.

Pilot Test

I requested two-three volunteers from a specific Canadian provincial department to serve as a pilot study. I learned whether one-on-one topical semistructured interviews can be conducted via telephone, with follow-up interviews utilizing email or face to face engagement (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). By testing my semistructured initial interview questions, and recording the interviews for later transcribing, I was able to determine if my questions were appropriate and supported my research question or needed adjustment. This enabled me to pretest my research instrument, research methods, and analysis approach with an abridged participant sample. I used the pilot study to code the results and develop skills and experience in this area before attempting to conduct my actual research interviews and consequent narrative analysis (Saldaña, 2016). I was able to identify any ambiguities and gain knowledge respecting the necessary time commitment and scheduling. I required approval from Walden IRB and the Civil Service Commissioner before initiating any contact with the participants (Ravitch & Carl, 2016).

Data Analysis Plan

By selecting a descriptive phenomenological research method, the data analysis plan aligned with the Giorgi (2012) method, which was modified from the Husserl’s philosophical phenomenological method. The Giorgi approach incorporates five steps in analyzing the data. The steps include initiating the process by developing a holistic understanding of the data; correlating the parts with my attitude but respecting the principles of bracketing and reduction; and delineating meaning by aligning it with the phenomena being studied. Fourthly, I must transform the meaning units into statements or themes based on the lived experiences, and finally, the researcher synthesizes a general structure of experience by interpreting the data (Giorgi, 2012).

The descriptive phenomenological methodology allows me to explore participants' lived context by concentrating on their unique perspectives without the use of deception (Giorgi, 2012). Additionally, it enabled me to guarantee the *voice* of the key participants without abstracting, changing or discounting their perspectives through data analysis. Data are captured through open-ended inductive semistructured questions and grouped into larger dimensions using open, focused, axial codes, categories, and themes. Once data saturation occurred, multilevel codes emerged into theoretical concepts. Codes were then used during the disassembly of the participants' textualized data, allowing researchers the opportunity to analyze multiple data sources in their search for patterns. The qualitative data were coded both manually and with the aid of Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) software named AtlasTi. 8. The QDA program increased productivity and revealed matching and linkages that were not otherwise evident. The QDA tool has been validated in numerous qualitative research studies. I selected this tool due to its flexibility in data analysis and enabled qualitative researchers to demonstrate validity, trustworthiness, and rigor. Hand coding was also be used to ensure that nuances, non-verbal clues, and integrative memo writing were fused into the process to extract rich answers and interpretations. Hand coding and QDA coding was used in tandem to complement each method's strengths.

Trustworthiness

Shenton (2004) identified trustworthiness as having four criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Trustworthiness can be enhanced and demonstrated in several ways. I ensured that the thick, rich descriptions of the key participants are recorded within a context of when the lived experience occurred. Patton (2015) explained that "sensitivity to context is central in qualitative inquiry and analysis" (p. 9). It was critical in building trust that I demonstrate fidelity, honesty, and integrity with each participant throughout the study. A fiduciary duty ensures that all participants are well informed about the study and protocols, and their voluntary status is respected at all times. Member checks empower participants to review, affirm, question, and critique the research on an ongoing basis. Lastly, I ensured that the controls established by Walden University's IRB were complied with on an on-going basis.

Credibility

Although there are no uniform or best practices in establishing credibility, research should be robust enough to withstand the testing of peers and scholars. My research plan involved a qualitative phenomenological design. I used one-on-one telephone interviews. I recorded, transcribed, and analyzed these interviews. The reason was to capture and understand the lived experiences of a group of key participants. My plan included open iterative questioning, frequent debriefing questions with my Committee, and the use of peer reviewers. Additionally, I incorporated memo writing and reflective journaling into the process and pursued member checks subject to the willingness of my participants. As previously explained, I demonstrated credibility by subscribing to the principles of bracketing, reduction, triangulation, saturation, and member checking.

Transferability

Shenton (2004) offered that when results differ between studies, one cannot infer that either study is wrong or untrustworthy. The lack of transferability may be heavily influenced by either the researcher or the context. My research may result in transferability between departments within the provincial government. To assist readers in determining if the research findings have transferability, the research plan includes information on key participants, the data collection methodology, the number and length of data collection sessions, and the period that the data were collected. I enhanced transferability by using Atlas Ti 8 to assist in identifying themes, which will assist future researchers in assimilating or replicating the current findings.

Dependability

Dependability is demonstrated through strict adherence to accuracy protocols, transparency of reliability controls, and utilization of a proven methodological process. Methods that have been successfully deployed in other studies can provide greater comfort to critics. One method phenomenological researchers use to ensure accuracy is to audio record interviews. A researcher’s reflexivity can influence the data and analysis due to inherent bias. I also must mitigate this reality by frequently reassessing their positionality and subjectivities (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Several tactics introduce rigor into the process. One approach is participatory action research, or alternately having participant partners review data, memos, draft analysis, and reports to ensure emic accuracy. Additionally, a method I used to demonstrate transparency was to record all variations or changes to methodologies or research designs. Tracking and reporting divergence added pertinence and integrity which ultimately increased the dependability of the research study.

Confirmability

Creswell (2007) offered that persuasive evidence breeds credibility when supported by validation strategies such as triangulation, peer review, and member checking. In the current study, I embraced triangulation as a principle way to substantiate veracity by using evidence from alternate sources. My 27 years of experience in the Provincial government lent credibility to my competencies and ability to establish rapport with the key participants. By using member checks and triangulation, I ensured that I remained objective, accurate, and unbiased. In this way, conclusive research findings were holistically aligned and validated.

Ethical Procedures

Institutional Review Boards are major ethics gatekeepers for qualitative research and their participants. The IRB is charged with the responsibility of ensuring that formal guidelines for ethical research are adhered. IRB tests research proposals for beneficence. "Beneficence means that researchers should always have the welfare of participants in mind and should not cause harm to research participants in any way" (Ravitch & Carl, 2016, p. 347). Harm can include coercion, deception, marginalization, power differentials, compromising confidentiality, failing to obtain adequate informed consent, and present participant data inaccurately. For example, cultural relativism may be a factor if ethics have been breached. Shordike et al. (2017) explained that “there are multiple and complex cultural and contextual differences among researchers, among participants, and between researchers and participants. Increasingly, it is recognized that existing ethical codes and research paradigms do not sufficiently address these issues” (p. 286). A second important area of ethics pertains to compensation for participation. Some scholars have advised that participants should not be paid. Others have recommended that an honorarium such as a charitable donation may be appropriate. Unfortunately, there are no hard rules which can be applied universally.

Participants must only be interviewed on a voluntary basis and must also be reminded that they may withdraw at any time without consequence (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). In this research, participants did not receive gifts or rewards for participating. I addressed and mitigated privacy and confidentially concerns through rigid protocols designed to protect and store the information.

Summary

The purpose of this descriptive qualitative phenomenological study was to explore the value and effectiveness of mission valence and other intrinsic means used to influence employee motivation, performance, and productivity. Scholars have demonstrated that positive social change results when employees are content and satisfied with their understanding of how contributions align with the organization’s mission. I selected the qualitative methodology because it was the most appropriate approach to capture substantive descriptions of lived experiences of a set of key participants with a public service context. In this chapter, I profiled several alternative phenomenological approaches before explaining the rationale for this study's approach and methodology. I used a purposively selected sample of voluntary key participants which are members of EMT PSGD. I captured data through in-depth one-on-one interviews via telephone. I also used a survey to capture demographic characteristics of the respondents. The study was approved by both by PSGD senior officials and Walden University's IRB before I commenced recruitment and data collection.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The pilot study, data capture, and analysis occurred after receiving IRB approval number 11-01-18-0657154. The purpose of this descriptive qualitative phenomenological study was to explore the value and effectiveness of mission valance and other intrinsic means used to influence employee motivation. I utilized a one-on-one interview approach guided by 24 semistructured questions. I used the questions to inform the problem and purpose statements, and the cognitive dissonance theoretical framework. I designed research questions to learn from the lived experiences of a purposive sample of senior executive leaders from within the provincial government. My pilot study was undertaken and involved three voluntary key participants from a Department of Education and Training (MET). The pilot study enabled me to test my research questions, research design, and conduct a preliminary examination of the data. The research study involved 11 voluntary key participants from the (PSGD).

This chapter will focus on the pilot study experience, the data collection process, demographics, the research setting, data analysis, and include evidence of trustworthiness. The chapter will conclude with a summary of the research study findings and a preview of Chapter 5.

Pilot Study

Chenail (2011) offered that piloting is a “feasible and scaled down version or trial run that is conducted before a major study” (p. 257). My intent on conducting this pilot study was to ensure the research questions were pertinent and not ambiguous. By establishing relevancy, the pilot test enabled me to demonstrate the validity of the research questions. Additionally, the pilot study helped me to test the research instrument, contemplate contextual nuances, assess my research approach, and identify how long it would take to complete the interviews.

As a condition precedent for receiving IRB approval, I made a PowerPoint presentation and submitted a written request to my pilot study research partner for consideration and approval. The Deputy Minister of Education and Training (MET) granted permission for me to request volunteers from the Executive Management Committee (EMC). Additionally, The Deputy Minister sent an email to members of the EMC, introducing me, indicating that I had been granted approval to request volunteers, and authorizing potential volunteers the use of up to one hour of on-duty work time to participate in the study. The Deputy Minister's email was immediately followed by an invitation to participate email (Appendix B).

Four key participant volunteers from MET EMC indicated interest in participating. I selected three of the volunteers after being assessing them against the selection criteria identified in Chapter 3. I contacted the volunteers independently via telephone and canvassed for a preferred interview medium and potential dates which the interview could occur. All participants were long tenure senior executives holding graduate degrees. I emailed the three volunteers a copy of the informed consent form.

Additionally, I generated a demographic survey (Appendix C), via Survey Monkey, and shared it with the volunteers. Lastly, I provided all participants with a copy of the research questions. I conducted all interviews via telephone and digitally recorded on a Sony ICD-UX560 recorder which was coupled with an Olympus TP8 pickup microphone.

The pilot study data capture occurred between the second and third weeks of December 2018. I transcribed all interviews with the aid of Dragon 10 voice to text software and refined with the assistance of my notes taken during the interviews. All participants provided feedback on the informed consent letter, completed the demographic survey, provided verbal consent to be recorded, and member checked the interview transcription. All participants were assigned an alphanumeric identifier to protect their privacy and confidentiality. Semistructured interview questions (Appendix D) guided the conversations with the pilot study participants. None of the participants were known to me. There were two male and one female voluntary pilot participants (VPP). VPP1's interview lasted 55 minutes and resulted in 15 pages of transcribed test. VPP2's interview lasted 71 minutes and resulted in 17 pages of transcribed text. Lastly, VPP3's interview lasted 60 minutes and resulted in 22 pages of transcribed text.

I did not coerce or influence VPPs in any manner. They were all articulate, well read, prepared, and appeared comfortable throughout the interview. All participants indicated that they were comfortable with the questions, which they thought were clear and concise. In two instances participants stated that there were not familiar with the term "mission valance" and they had researched the term on-line prior to the interviews commencing.

I saved a copy of the digital recordings to a Seagate T3 external hard drive. I stored the hard drive, copies of the transcriptions, and identification key in a locked safe in my home in Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada.

Although there were no major edits to the research instruments resulting from the pilot test, I did gain confidence that the approach and methodology would serve to answer the research questions. Following a holistic review of the pilot study participant answers, I realized that my interview questions did not adequately probe into the areas of stress and stress mitigation behaviors. I felt that this information was necessary in order to explore the research topic through the lens of the theoretical framework. As a result, four questions were added to the semistructured interview questions for use in the following research data capture. All VPPs indicated that the timing was ideal for this type of research study due to the challenging fiscal environment and scarce public sector resources.

Setting and Data Collection

After receiving conditional IRB approval, I presented a PowerPoint presentation to the Deputy Minister of the selected PSGD. As the research partner, the Deputy Minister provided written authorization for me to approach members of the PSGD executive management team/executive management committee. Additionally, the Deputy Minister authorized 1 hour of on-duty work time for volunteers to participate in the research study. No incentives or rewards were offered to volunteers to participate. There were no personal or organizational conditions influencing participants or their experience within the organization at the time of the study that may have prejudiced interpretation or participation in the study. After receiving full IRB approval, I sent an introduction email to EMT \ EMC members by the Deputy Minister. I immediately provided the invitation to participate via email.

The research target was ten voluntary key participants. I received 11 responses of interest to participate in the research study. I used all 11 volunteers for the data capture. Once individuals indicated interest in participating and assessed as meeting the participant selection criteria, they received the informed consent letter, a request to indicate how they would like to be interviewed with respect to logistics and medium, a copy of the research questions, and a link to the demographic survey via monkey survey.

I interviewed all 11 voluntary participants via telephone. Nine participants elected to be interviewed during regular business hours and two volunteers elected to be interviewed on weekends. The data capture occurred between the third week of December 2018 and in the second week of January 2019. Immediately post-interview, I transcribed the digital recordings using a combination of Dragon 10 and handwritten notes. The average time to complete the 24 semistructured questions interview was 60 minutes. These questions included the four additional stress-related questions that I had identified in the pilot study as necessary to adequately assess the impacts of the theoretical framework. I sent the transcriptions to the participants for a member check within 48 hours of being interviewed. The digital recordings and transcription notes were stored in a locked safe at my residence in Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada. Most participants opted to be interviewed in the morning before their business-related duties and responsibilities inhibited available time. All participants signed and returned the informed consent letter in addition to verbally affirming consent during the interview. All participants completed the demographic survey. Nine of the 11 participants completed the requested member check. In one instance, there was a failure of the digital equipment during the interview. When this occurred, I made an annotation in my notes and was reflected in the transcription which was sent for member check. If participants indicated any inaccuracies in the transcriptions, their amendments were accepted without challenge. I assigned all participants an alphanumeric designation to preserve anonymity. No participants appeared stressed when responding to questions and there did not appear to be discomfort from any parties while interviews were being conducted. No interviews were interrupted while underway.

Demographics

In my research methodology plan, I identified that the research frame would be comprised of 10 homogeneous purposively selected expert key participants from the Executive Management Team of a PSGD. I sent an invitation to participate (Appendix B) to 43 potential participants. There were 11 responses to the invitation, and all 11 were subsequently interviewed. All participants met the screening requirements. The sample comprised both of male and female volunteers residing in a Canadian Province. Age, race, and creed are not relevant to the research study; thus no demographic questions about those factors were included. I captured the demographic data via Survey Monkey software. I used the approved demographic survey questions (Appendix C). All volunteers elected to complete the survey in its entirety. I used some data to ensure that the voluntary participant met the study inclusion screening criteria. Additionally, I used some demographic survey data validity triangulation purposes. I used one demographic survey question to reaffirm informed consent.

Figure 1 presents a breakdown of participants based on gender. Males represented 45.5% of the sample while females represented 54.5% of the sample.

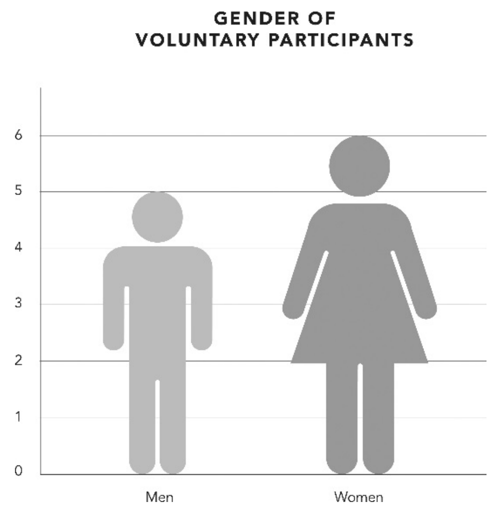

Figure 1: A comparison of the gender of participants

All participants were graduates of post-secondary education programs with the largest strata, 45.5%, having graduate degrees.

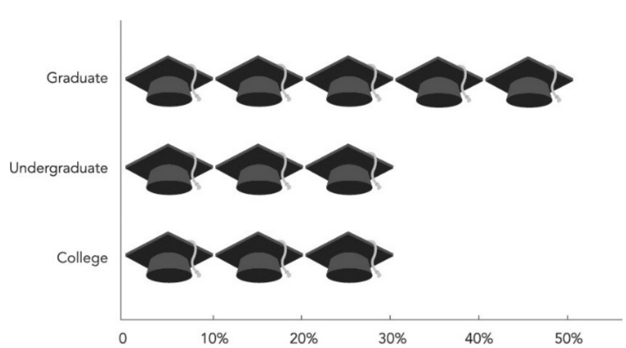

Figure 2: A comparison of the education levels of participants

All participants had significant leadership and management experience. In fact, 91% of participants declared that they have had held a leadership position in a, not for pay, non-government organization such as a charity, spiritual organization or professional organization. Additional demographic data delineates the number of years of management experience in the public service for pay, from the number of years of leadership experience in paid public service (Figure 3).

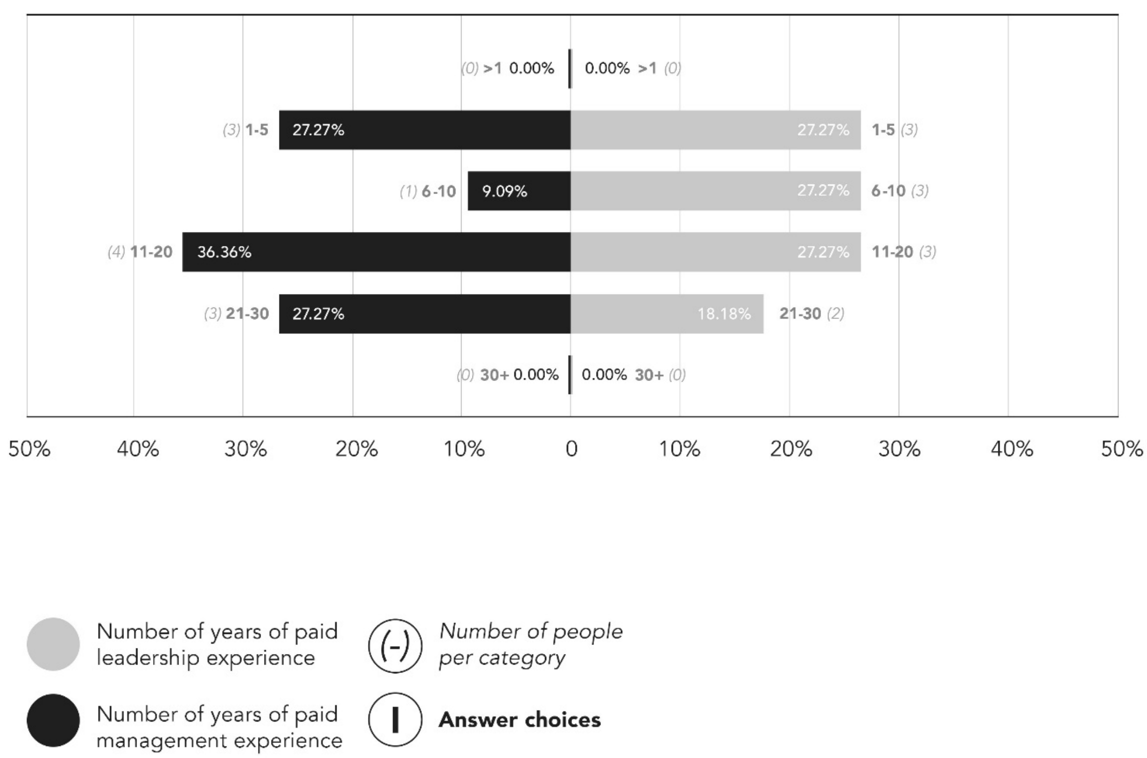

Figure 3: Years of Leadership Experience / Years of Management Experience

All key participants were responsible for significant organizational and legislated mandates. On average they have ten direct reporting employees. One participant's response to this survey question was eliminated due to being deemed as outlier information that would have significantly skewed the analysis in this specific area.

Data Analysis

My data analysis plan was based on the Giorgi method. The method constitutes five sequential steps for analyzing qualitative data. The steps encompass a holistic review of the data followed by infusing bracketing and reduction with the correlating data elements. The third step requires the researcher to delineate meaning by aligning it with the phenomena being studied. Once completed, I reconstructed the data into statements and themes based on phenomenological experiences. Lastly I was able to synthesize structure through interpretation (Giorgi, 2012).

The data were holistically analyzed initially through manual open coding of the eleven verbatim transcriptions. Charmaz (2006) offered that first cycle open coding assists researchers in determining unique dimensions of the research phenomena and allows for the identification of rational coding categories (P. 60). This step enabled me to commence journaling of thoughts and observations as well as identify where research bias was self-evident. Additionally, it also resulted in a codebook being created. The codebook was supplemented and revised through the generation of a word cloud and subsequent multilevel coding exercises using Altas Ti V8 (Atlas) qualitative data analysis software. The Atlas Ti word cloud demonstrates data word frequency in Figure 4. The first cycle open coding resulted in 38 codes and 870 interview excerpts serving as the initial foundation for the ensuing data analysis. The codebook ultimately has 43 codes. By synchronously considering the knowledge gained through open, holistic, and focused coding, I was able to identify themes and categories via axial coding. Five themes emerged from the analysis of the bracketed and reflected data. Consistent with the Giorgi method's fourth step, the themes were transformed through the evaluation of the two research questions.

Figure 4: Atlas Ti. word frequency word cloud extract

The five emergent themes are as follows: 1: Extrinsic conventions. Theme number 2: The Significance of intrinsic incentives. Theme number 3: Leadership paramountcy. Theme number 4: Material communications. Lastly, theme number 5: Rationalizing cognitive dissonance.

The balance of this chapter presents a detailed delineation of each emergent theme which has been infused with my journaling, knowledge realized through multiple coding exercises and supported with participant transcriptions. To honor participant fidelity and anonymity, each participant was assigned an alphanumeric identification. The identifications range from VRP1 (voluntary research participant number one) through VRP11. It is important to note that in this chapter, the themes are stochastically ordered.

Theme 1 – Extrinsic Conventions

Theme	Code	Number of partcipants referencing code	Percent of participants referencing code	Participants	Number of times the code was referenced	Interview questions where code was referenced in answer
Extrinsic Conventions	Extrinsic Elements	11	100%	VRP: 1-11	95	Q1/5/6/7//8/9/10/11/12/15/18/23
	Extrinsic examples	11	100%	VRP: 1-11	23	Q1/2/7/10/11/23
	Extrinsic stories	6	55%	VRP:1/2/3/6/8/10	8	Q1/11/23
	Compensatory	6	55%	VRP: 1/3/4/6/10/11	8	Q1/10/12/15/16
	Rewards	4	36%	VRP: 2/5/7/8	11	Q1/5/10/12/23
	Food	2	18%	VRP: 8/10	4	Q1/11/18
	Technology	4	36%	VRP: 1/7/8/10	9	Q1 /5/10/12/23
	Austerity	11	100%	VRP: 1-11	64	Q1/2/4/5/6/8/9/10/11/12/15/16/19/21/23
	Motivational Uniqueness	9	82%	VRP: 1/2/3/5/6/7/9/10/11	36	Q1/2/3/5/6/7/10/12/18
	Maslow	3	27%	VRP: 1/5/6	8	Q1/6/10/15/23
	Leadership	11	100%	VRP: 1-11	107	Q1/2/3/4/5/6/9/10/11/12/15/19/20/21/23

Figure 5: A comparative representation of responses related to extrinsic incentives

As explained earlier, extrinsic incentives are task related positive rewards or negative disincentives such as the threat of compensatory reductions or dismissal. Extrinsic incentives can be either tangible or psychological rewards. A tangible transactional extrinsic reward includes incentives such as pay for performance schemes, bonuses, and gifts. Examples of psychological extrinsic rewards are prestige and acknowledgment. Approximately one-quarter of respondents identified extrinsic incentives as their preferred method to reward employees and influence motivation. This perspective aligns with determinations published by Stringer and Didham (2011), whereby they observed that the dominant view in the management accounting literature is that pay-for-performance incentive systems have a large motivational effect.

“I do think that extrinsic motivators are most appropriate for the individuals who are pushing themselves because they want to be good contributors to a team and on Maslow's hierarchy of employee engagement they are near the top” (VRP05).

“I think that extrinsic motivators are used the most” (VRP06).

“I think that compensation has the largest impact….and benefits. That's because that's what puts food on our table. It provides us with the lifestyle that we live, and that's a big piece of motivation (VRP09).

“What’s the best way to motivate people? Money of course” (VRP10).

I noted that there is significant variation between respondents regarding the degree that extrinsic rewards should be used, when they should be used and what types should be used. Most participants indicated that instrumental rewards do not result in sustainable behavior changes over time.

> You could get a gift card or some little doodads from around here. We didn't buy anything. I’ll put it that way. What I will say is that I paid for the gift cards myself personally because to myself, it was worth it. So, it was super well received. (VRP08)

“Often, extrinsic incentives are part of the work benefits” (VRP04).

“We do pizza lunches” (VRP10).

“Pay increases are of course, very powerful” (VRP07).

“I think small recognition like a gift card or fancy coffee reinforce that their work and contributions are appreciated” (VRP06).

“They are fine as they go, but they are for just a point in time” (VRP04).

> I think extrinsic incentives are important. I think it's important to have fair and competitive compensation. However, extrinsic rewards are going to become the expectation quickly and are no longer going to be a motivator in the long run. (VRP10)

All participants expressed some levels of hypersensitivity and anxiety related to the austerity environment. This further manifested into cognitive frustration at the resulting limitations of motivational options available to public service leaders.

"I think that there is certainly value to extrinsic rewards, but not in every case. Many times these are not even an option. I've never experienced these in government" (VRP11).

"Aside from employment security, extrinsic options are limited in the public sector" (VRP01).

"Finding some money for a luncheon is very difficult" (VRP07).

"There's a limit to monetary incentives" (VRP05).

> In the civil service, it's a tough one. We have to be responsible in our budgets. Our budgets are very tight. I don't think I've ever been in a job in my 12+ years of government positions that I had an adequate budget to reward people in a monetary way. (VRP02)

"I haven't funded them with extrinsic motivators when it's something that could be separated from our work" (VRP06).

"I spend my own money a lot, on my staff. It's my choice, and I'm not complaining, and I'm happy to do it" (VRP08).

"I think that extrinsic incentives are important, but they are very limited in the public sector" (VRP04).

Although most participants expressed a preference for intrinsic incentives to motivate staff, there is recognition for blended incentive models and the necessity to have competitive salaries to recruit and retain employees. Research conducted by Kobersy et al., (2016), determined that intangible and tangible approaches to work motivation complement each other.

“Both intrinsic and extrinsic are important, and you can hit it both ways to assist employees in increasing motivation" VRP11).

“At certain times it's possible for an incentive to be both intrinsic and extrinsic at the same time, depending on the lens of how it's viewed” (VRP01).

> For some people, it could be something as simple as an acknowledgment, for others, it may be compensation or having a strong connection to their work, like understanding their mission, or also having a good leader/mentor. They are all important together as a package. (VRP09)

“We are having difficulties in recruiting because our compensation is too low” (VRP10).

“Compensation schemes need to be appropriately designed and appropriately implemented” (VRP03).

"I'm not asking for a lot here, but I think we are at a point that we can't attract people sometimes to the public service because of the low pay" (VRP08).

“Government does not pay what is being paid in the private sector. They didn't back then and certainly don't now” (VRP11).

It is important to note that there was a compensatory dichotomy evident. Several participants felt that current compensation and benefits were insufficient while others argued a contrary position.

“We are compensated very well as public servants, but I think that extrinsic rewards just help” (VRP06).

“Staff in the public sector are very well paid and have very good benefits. Like Hertzberg or Maslow would tell you, once those needs are satisfied, the opportunity to use them as positive motivation influencers, is diminished” (VRP01).

"The pension is great, and it's a great incentive" (VRP11).

“With respect to pay, staff is paid well, but management is not paid well” (VRP04).

Lastly, several participants identified that although positive employee motivation can be a corollary from extrinsic options, it is intrinsic incentives that have a greater appeal and likelihood of being offered within the public service sphere. French and Emerson (2015) offered that employees in the public sector often exhibit behaviors and actions that are not prompted solely by extrinsic motives and self-interest.

“Because we're not able to adequately incentivize people through monetary or extrinsic determinants, the intrinsic aspects becomes extremely important to the individual” (VRP05).

“I think that whatever can be done within reason, should be done” (VRP08).

> In that environment, leadership and performance is the key. There were motivational incentives for the leaders, to be creative and aggressive. Most of the opportunities were extrinsic. At the end, they became intrinsic because we didn't have any money left. (VRP01)

“Recognizing that there were fewer and fewer extrinsic motivators on offer, and realizing that they needed something, they started offering opportunities for secondment and job shadowing” (VRP07).

“People like money. People like acknowledgment more” (VRP04).

“The public service is always evolving so maybe it will be possible to identify differences in the future. It is very difficult to tell if extrinsic works better than intrinsic or vice versa” (VRP04).

Theme 2 – The Significance of Intrinsic Incentives

Theme	Code	Number of partcipants referencing code	Percent of participants referencing code	Participants	Number of times the code was referenced	Interview questions where code was referenced
The significance of intrinsic incentives	Intrinsic elements	11	100%	VRP: 1-11	134	Q1/2/3/4/5/6/7/8/10/12/12/16/17/18/20/23
	Intrinsic examples	8	73%	VRP: 1/2/3/4/7/8/9/10	22	Q1/2/7/19/21/23
	Intrinsic stories	5	45%	VRP: 1/3/8/9/11	14	Q1/ 6/19/20/21/22/23
	Mission valence	11	100%	VRP: 1-11	119	Q1/2/4/5/6/8/9/10/12/13/14/15/16/17/18/19
	Alignment	9	82%	VRP: 1/2/3/4/5/6/7/10/11	23	Q1/2/5/7/9/12/16/17
	Public service ethos	7	64%	VRP: 1/3/4/5/6/7/8	27	Q1/2/3/4/5/6/7/8/10/11/15/17/19
	Culture	11	100%	VRP:1-11	60	Q1/2/3/4/6/7/8/9/12/14/15/17
	Values	8	73%	VRP: 1/2/3/4/6/8/10/11	18	Q1/2/3/4/7/10/14/15/16
	Maslow	3	27%	VRP:1/5/6	8	Q1/6/10/15/23
	Motivational Uniqueness	9	82%	VRP: 1/2/3/5/6/7/9/10/11	36	Q1/2/3/5/6/7/10/12/18
	Accountability	8	73%	VRP: 1/2/3/6/7/8/9/10	25	Q1/2/3/4/5/6/7/8/12/15/17/18
	Fairness	9	82%	VRP: 1/2/4/6/7/8/9/10/11	19	Q1/3/4/6/8/10/12/19
	Coach	6	55%	VRP: 2/3/5/6/7/9	15	Q2/3/4/5/7/17
	Mentor	8	73%	VRP: 1/2/5/7/8/9/10/11	20	Q/1/2/3/4/5/6/7/8/12
	Security	8	73%	VRP: 1/3/4/6/7/8/10/11	13	Q1/2/6/7/8/10/12/15
	Flexibility	7	64%	VRP: 4/6/7/8/9/10/11	16	Q5/6/7/11/12/18
	Spiritual	8	73%	VRP: 1/2/4/5/6/8/10/11	23	Q15/22
	Recognition	7	64%	VRP: 1/2/4/5/6/7/8	15	Q1/5/6/7/8/10/20
	Acknowledgement	7	64%	VRP: 1/4/5/6/7/9/11	13	Q1/5/6/7/8/15/17
	Training	7	64%	VRP: 2/4/5/6/7/8/11	10	Q1/3/4/6/7/8
	Senior Leader involvement	7	64%	VRP: 1/2/5/6/7/8/10	31	Q1/2/3/4/5/6/8/11/12/16/23

Figure 6: A comparative representation of responses related to intrinsic incentives

Intrinsic motivation is a psychological state where a person volitionally performs a task or behavior for his or her own sake, personal fulfillment, or pleasure. Leaders will often use polymorphic approaches or incentives to generate intrinsic motivation or specific actions in employees. Ten of the 24 research interview questions were constructed to elicit an understanding of PSGD EMT leader's eudaimonic motivations within the context of intrinsic incentives. Figure 6 displays the data and codes pertaining to this theme and the level of participant engagement. The theme appears to be a conglomeration of heterogeneous ingredients. However, all factors share a symbiotic relationship within the greater theme. Most participants expressed a preference for using intrinsic incentives over extrinsic incentives; however, blended models within specific contexts were also promoted.

"Leaders need to adapt the incentive toolbox" (VRP01).

"There are multiple approaches depending on circumstances and context" (VRP05).

> I think a huge swath of those people are intrinsically motivated. They're trying to come to work to do a good job. A lot of motivated by being good public servants. Some people say this is the best job in my town. (VRP03)

"There are many circumstances where intrinsic incentives supersede extrinsic ones" (VRP09).

Mission valence is an intrinsic incentive that is emerging through research and scholarly study. The concept of mission valence refers to the degree of appeal that an individual has toward the mission, values, and goals of his or her organization. The investigation of this concept revealed inconsistent results. For example, many participants indicated that mission valance was a good idea for motivating staff while also selecting other tactics as their preferred approach. Several participants stated that they were unfamiliar with the mission valence terminology however offered multiple examples and stories consistent with the approach, less the label. Other participants defended the mission valence concept but were critical of past mission statement exercises or had stale dated organizational mission statements.

"You have to have a mission statement, and it's important that employees values are aligned as an important strategy to motivate staff" (VRP01).

> They don't talk about how their job satisfaction is increased because they now know that you're supposed to support the present and enable the future. That's too far away. Mission and vision statements may be for management, but they're not necessary for the rank-and-file. (VRP07)

"If people know their role in the organization and their contribution is recognized, that seems to be something that gives comfort and motivation as they continue in the same vein" (VRP07).

> I get value out of working here, or rather I derive meaning out of working here. This is because I have a say in the job and I have a say in the output as opposed to just being a factor of production. (VRP05)

"A mission statement at this point is just words on a piece of paper and does not make sense to most people on this floor" (VRP05).

"If there's a strong alignment then my experience tells me that is a good thing for personal happiness and engagement and productivity. This is because employees are satisfied, so performance increases because of the satisfaction" (VRP03).

> It was not for the individuals to determine the mission. It was the prerogative of the government. The government said this is what we want your organization to accomplish. It is up to the individual to figure out what it means. What it means for them and what it means within their role within the organization. (VRP03)

“People kept asking me if we even had a vision or mission statement” (VRP06).

“I think alignment is a good thing, so I think mission valance is a good thing” (VRP06).

“They have an understanding what the connection is between our work and why we are here, what we’re here to do, and how that fits into the team environment” (VRP09).

“I think that mission valance is very important because all of us want to have a purpose in life” (VRP09).

“I think it's important for everyone to know how they fit in the organization and how their contributions benefit the organization and each other” (VRP04).

“It ends up being analysis paralysis because a lot of people don't even know what a mission statement is” (VRP08).

“Mission valence is 100%, a good idea” (VRP08).

> I think it's very critical for mission valance to be there. If you have an organization that has the mission of X and you’re a Y, you're never going to be engaged because you're not seeing yourself contributing toward a common goal. (VRP10)

“Without alignment and a common purpose you are not going to be motivated because you will see your work is being futile” (VRP10).

All key participants offered stories about how they or their employees have been impacted by intrinsic incentives, albeit differently. They posited that no perfect approach or incentive fits every situation or individual. They stressed that leaders must be engaged with their staff and make concentrated efforts to understand the unique individual motivations and deploy them wisely.

“With perceptions, goes differences” (VRP06).

“Anyone can be motivated by just understanding what motivates them. You need to understand what their goals are or whether there is a generational gap or a cultural one” (VRP09).

“There are different views based on how people grew up, how they view information, how they view hierarchy, how they view credibility, and deference to the organization” (VRP03).

"People are motivated differently; it’s not the same for everybody” (VRB08).

Similar to the principle of dissonance, the participants shared that several reoccurring perceivable employee characteristics modified the earnestness of intrinsic motivational behaviors and mindsets. These aspects included work-life-balance, security, trust, and perceived fairness. These modulating elements either supplemented or depressed the intensity to intrinsic incentives.

"Well, time off is challenging because you get all these days, but you can never use them because you're so busy" (VRP05).

“I once tried to create a work-life-balance” (VRP03).

“How do you engage people when they are already a bit worried about their jobs and that kind of stuff?” (VRP08).

“There are fears that are preventing them from moving forward” (VRP10).

“I believe that the heart of the public service feels that a small reward is enough” (VRP06).

“People can be demotivated by what they view as injustice” (VRP02).

“Fairness is balanced with expectations” (VRP08).

There were a priori positions on the importance of spiritualism to employees and a posteriori perspectives on the significance of culture. Those participants who identified themselves as spiritual answered the spirituality interview questions from a religious perspective. For those participants that did not identify themselves as religious a supplementary viewpoint was offered. During the peer review, one voluntary peer review participant interpreted the noun "spirit" to mean "the spirit of the organization" rather than religion. Using this point of view, I restructured the interview question to encompass the modified interpretation. The result was stories and examples from this stratum of participants that addressed organizational culture.

“I talked about religion as spirituality, how each individual is able to find a place in that larger culture…I think it's a huge motivator” (VRP06).

“I think religion/spirituality serves an important purpose for each individual. Diverse workplaces must be conscious of this” (VRP04).

“Spiritualism is such a big part of the indigenous culture and awareness for building relationships. I think that it does have a place in the public service” (VRP08).

“I think there's more of a willingness with the focus of diversity in the workforce and inclusion and equity that that sense of individual spirituality has a place as part of the individual in the workplace” (VRP05).

“The culture here like a family unit and we believe that we are all working toward the same goals” (VRP11).

"I think the big challenge for any organization is to change the culture" (VRP07).

“Our culture gets in the way of motivation” (VRP03).

“We do need to have cultural awareness” (VRP08).

"I believe that you need to give staff opportunities to reflect the spirit of the organization" (VRP04).

Theme 3 – Leadership Paramountcy

Theme	Code	Number of partcipants referencing code	Percent of participants referencing code	Participants	Number of times the code was referenced	Interview questions where code was referenced
Leadership Paramouncy	Leadership Elements	11	100%	VRP: 1-11	101	Q1-23
	Leadership Examples	11	100%	VRP: 1-11	30	Q1/2/3/4/8/11/12
	Leadership Stories	7	64%	VRP: 1/2/5/6/8/10/11	7	Q1/2/11/12/23
	Human Resources	9	82%	VRP: 1/3/4/6/7/8/9/10/1 1	35	Q1/2/3/5/6/8/10/12/15/19/20/23
	Personal Relationships	10	91%	VRP: 1/2/3/4/5/6/7/8/9/ 11	34	Q1/3/4/5/7/11/14/15/16/17
	Huddles	3	27%	VRP: 2/4/7	5	Q1/16
	Consistency	7	64%	VRP: 2/4/6/8/9/10/11	12	Q1/2/3/4/6/7/11/13/18/23
	Leading by Example	6	55%	VRP: 2/4/7/8/9/11	9	Q3/4/11/20/22
	Humility	3	27%	VRP: 1/4/11	6	Q2/4/20/21
	Teams	11	100%	VRP: 1-11	40	Q1/2/3/5/6/7/8/11/12/14/15/16/18/20/21
	Competing Priorities	8	73%	VRP: 1/2/4/6/7/8/9/11	19	Q2/4/7/10/11/12/15/17/19/20/21

Figure 7: A comparative representation of responses related to leadership paramountcy

The emergent leadership theme was anticipated. Several interview questions were influenced by the knowledge gained through a review of the extant literature. Additionally, I deemed it necessary to explore the leadership phenomenon in depth, to better understand if and how key participants' leadership approaches and experiences inspired motivational changes in PSGD employees. The results of this theme were established through the integration of hand-coded and QDA coded data with my observations and journal notes. All participants postulated the belief that leadership attitude, behavior and competencies are a major factor influencing employee motivation.

“I really believe that if employees really know and believe that their boss works really hard it will inspire them too” (VRP08).

"The golden rule is to treat other people the way you want to be treated, and they will respond" (VRP11).

"People, by and large, will do hard work and respond to different types of management styles" (VRP01).

> I've always learned in some ways more from negative coaches or leaders than positive ones. You know what you don't want to do. You don't want that negativity projected onto you as an individual and especially not in front of the team. (VRP05)

"I use encouragement, acknowledgment, accountability, consistency, coaching, mentoring, providing new and interesting opportunities, I empower them, challenge and help them develop and grow through new skills and competencies development. I give them recognition when they have earned it" (VRP10).

Effective leadership entails influencing employee capabilities and developing them to achieve success by performing at higher levels, thereby producing mutual benefits for the employee and the organization (Trmal, Bustamam & Mohamed, 2013, p.1234). The data suggest that PSGD EMT members believe that there is a correlation between leadership methods and motivational results. Bassous (2015) reported that more than 80% of employees verified that their leaders profoundly influenced their motivational levels at work.

“To achieve self-actualization, leaders need to help employees believe they are important. This applies to both individuals and groups” (VRP01).

> There are four things that I like to focus on as a leader. The first one relates to confidence. A leader needs to be able to project confidence as a leader because others will feel motivated that someone is leading them who is confident in their own work and how they present the organization. The second piece is about results. You know, a team has to have success in what it’s mandated to accomplish. The other piece that I feel is really important is the mindset. You can inspect the team with both positivity and negativity. The last piece that I'm thinking about is how do you maintain momentum? If it's not maintained or continues to exist, then it's not possible to create a positive motivational culture. (VRP05)

"In my career, I have had good and bad leaders. I understand the impacts that each can have on employee motivation" (VRP04).

Participants postulated about the necessity of fluidity of leadership tactics and approaches to influence employee motivation. If leaders singlehandedly prescribe workplace climate and the context of employees expected contributions, then employees will most likely be extrinsically motivated because there will not be ample opportunities for shared success.

> People absolutely respond differently to diverse leadership approaches. I think that I pride myself on the ability to read people. If you tried something with an employee before, then you need to pay attention to the response. I might try things differently the next time. (VRP02)

“Motivating employees depends on the individual, the situation and the times we’re talking about” (VRP09).

"Individuals are motivated differently. Leaders need to recognize this and adjust to that" (VRP05).

Coupled with the concept of fluidity is the notion of fail-safe. Leaders expressed the need for supportive environments where innovation is encouraged and where an unsuccessful outcome does not result in punitive measures based solely on an unsatisfactory result. Participants felt that this locus is common within the public sector due to scrutiny focused on the use of public funds. PSGD leaders envisioned their roles as not only creating the fail-safe environment but protecting inspired employees from public sector structural reprisals. They believe that these leadership actions foster trust, innovation, team building, and prosocial behaviors.

"I learned from what didn't work" (VRP05).

"People cannot be afraid to fail, and if they do they need to know I have to back" (VRP02).

"Everything that we did in the past whether it worked well or didn't is a learning opportunity. When we apply that learning. I call it fail-safe because someone can fail…they just are not going to hit the ground" (VRP10).

> My approach is offering the team members support and encouragement. We look for areas of efficiency and directly assist each other with work where possible. We continue to make the branch environment a happy, safe place where we all work as a team. (VRP11)

"I always assume the best of my employees and then hope that they don't give me a reason to change my mind" (VRP07).

One of the most essential characteristics of leadership paramountcy is personal relationships between the leader and the employee(s). A chain of argument can be identified in support of this precept. For example, authentic relational efforts must always be voluntary. Without personal relationships, trust is absent. Without trust, there is no intrinsic motivation. Without intrinsic motivation, there are no altruistic or prosocial behaviors. Personal relationships are mainly a foundational transactional exercise yet with conscious commitment, integrity, and active engagement they can become the spark for transformational leadership.

> You need to connect with your staff. But, to do so, you must consistently demonstrate personal integrity, commitment, humility which influences your leadership style, and active collaboration and engagement. All these are necessary to have trusting and meaningful relationships with your employees. (VRP01)

> You have to meet with staff, and you have to talk about what's important and meaningful; it’s an opportunity to engage everyone. As the leader, you need to know everyone's name and actually care about them as a person and as an employee. (VRP08)

"Because we have all got to know each other better as individuals, it helped build positive working relationships" (VRP04).

“Interpersonal relationships brings us together as a team, and it's about building those strong relationships” (VRP09).

Caillier (2016) argued that transformational leaders possess skills and attributes that enable them to positively influence turnover intentions, mission valence, and extra-role behaviors. This is accomplished by inspiring employees to forsake self-interests for those of their teams and organizations.

Theme 4 – Material Communications

Theme	Code	Number of partcipants referencing code	Percent of participants referencing code	Participants	Number of times the code was referenced	Interview questions where code was referenced
Material Communications	Communication Elements	11	100%	VRP: 1-11	100	Q1/2/3/4/5/6/7/8/9/10/11/12/14/15/18/19/20/21/23
	Positive	11	100%	VRP:1-11	66	Q1/2/3/4/5/6/7/8/9/10/12/14/15/16/17/20
	Negative	8	73%	VRP: 1/2/4/5/6/7/8/11	25	Q1/2/6/9/12/14/18/19/20/21
	Context	5	45%	VRP: 3/5/6/7/9	17	Q1/4/6/7/8/10/12/15/18
	Senior Leader Involvement	7	64%	VRP: 1/2/5/6/7/8/10	31	Q1/2/3/4/5/6/8/11/12/16/23

Figure 8: A comparative representation of responses related to material communications

Emergent theme 4 is material communications. No specific interview questions were designed to elicit feedback in this area. The theme emerged by aggregating four codes. The four codes were positive communications, negative communications, context, and senior leader involvement. In the analysis of the data contained in table 4, one notes that a vast majority of participant feedback entails positive feedback. The importance of effective material communications cannot be understated. It is one of the fundamental tenets required for successful leadership. Luthra and Dahiya (2015) offered that leadership communication incorporates the encouraging and inspirational sharing of information in a meaningful and consistent manner. Further, they suggest that it is comprised of three specific facets. Core aspects involve written and verbal skills. Managerial aspects encompass cultural awareness, team fundamentals, and active listening. Lastly, corporate aspects are higher level skills necessary in times of change and uncertainty. (p. 44). The desire for, and examples of, encouraging and inspirational sharing of information in a meaningful and consistent manner, permeated the responses to several interview questions.

"You should share as much as you can and make people feel that their opinions matter as well, and that way they can be engaged with what's going on and if you contribute" (VRP11).

"It has to be regular communication. The communication has to be honest, open, and effective. You must connect with employee" (VRP01).

"I admire the ability to communicate well and to communicate clearly and think clearly, especially so when this is done consistently" (VRP06).

"I use consistent messaging" (VRP08).

A core competency for senior leaders within the civil service is exceptional communication skills. All the key participants demonstrated superior communication skills throughout the data capture process. The participants are all well-educated and experienced leaders. They were well prepared for the interview. They were polite, inquisitive and expressed enthusiasm for the research study. All participants were succinct, articulate and engaged. They shared enlightening stories and examples of positive communications but also readily shared hypersensitive stories and examples where lessons were learned from suboptimal communications.

"I know what doesn't work. I've seen this happen where people get negative feedback in front of others" (VRP05).

"When management make a declaration that we are going to be communicating and collaborative, and then the organization doesn't follow through, people lose faith" (VRP07).

“People can really resent the directive that has been forced on them especially if it's not well thought out” (VRP06).

“A lot of times in our environment, communication is not the best” (VRP02).

The volunteers observed that senior public service leaders make significant contributions to the organizational culture and motivational behaviors of employees. Responses ranged from self-reflections to hierarchical expectations and aspirations to criticisms. Senior leaders must be sensitive to the ethos of their organizations and employees which includes moral ideologies and ethical demonstrations and attitudes. This is one of the conditions precedent necessary to instill trust and enthusiasm and thereby prosocial and intrinsically motivated employee behaviors.

“There needs to be a strong and consistent tone at the top from the Clerk of Executive Council, on down. More than just talking. They need to walk the talk. This is about integrity and accountability” (VRP10).

“The number of executives will only talk to their senior management and never go down to the staff level” (VRP01).

“When they communicate with the organization about the work and with the employees to align efforts, I think it’s very powerful” (VRP07).

“Senior leadership need to be open and communicative. Those of the things that I find are most influential on employees and organizations (VRP03).

As stated earlier, Luthra and Dahiya (2015) posited that the managerial aspects of effective communications encompass cultural awareness, team fundamentals, and active listening. Participants offered several cognitions that aligned with the managerial aspects of communication maxim.

"Culture eats structure for lunch" (VRP07).

"Culture is critical to engagement" (VRP10).

"It's an enormous motivator when you have a spirited culture in an organization, and everyone's excited, and the teams are focused, and everyone goals are clear (VRP06).

"I like a leader who listens and doesn't always have to accept advice but will at least listen to it" (VRP07).

> Singing together is just awesome I need to flag that! I use this. I know it might sound awkward and weird, but it goes over very well. It makes everyone laugh together, but you need to be really careful on how this works. (VRP08)

It was noted that several participants offered observations pertaining to the challenges of motivating employees using differing communication mediums and technologies. Several participants cautioned that it's vitally important for a leader to be aware of contexts of messaging including temporal factors and tone. To be ignorant of these factors will result in depressed interactions and unintended employee behaviors.

"What I've learned over the years is that engaging with people in-person is best. Even over Skype, it's just not the same. You need to be hands-on" (VRP08).

"Many of the leaders, I have found, in the public service do not create or perhaps use the wrong medium to articulate corporate goals. This creates a culture of confusion" (VRP01).

"A 10-year old acknowledgment is not going to be a motivating factor" (VRP07).

"There are multiple approaches to effective communication, and all are dependent on circumstances and context" (VRP05).

The corporate aspects of communication are higher level skills necessary in times of change and uncertainty. Times of austerity result in stress and anxiety. Positive communication approaches that have been traditionally successful may be overshadowed by employee uneasiness. The key participants indicated that they are experiencing these challenges within their respective teams.

“Public messaging of new programs should not be immediately followed by cuts to the civil service” (VRP04).

"One of the things that come from austerity is uncertainty. People are concerned about their positions in the organization. They are concerned, quite frankly that they may lose their job" (VRP07).

> This is a stressful time for everybody. You’re going to be paid less. You're going to expected to work more. You're going to be expected to feel very uncomfortable in the workplace. You are going to be expected to sacrifice. (VRP03)

“It's kind of fun being inventive and seeing how much can be done with what little we have to work with” (VRP06).

Theme 5 – Rationalizing Cognitive Dissonance

Theme	Code	Number of partcipants referencing code	Percent of participants referencing code	Participants	Number of times the code was referenced	Interview questions where code was referenced in the answer
Rationalizing cognitive dissonance	Hypersensitivity	11	100%	VRP: 1-11	55	Q1/12/19/21/23
	Dissonance	11	100%	VRP: 1-11	15	Q1/12/19/21/23
	Cognitions	11	100%	VRP: 1-11	62	Q1/4/7/15/17/20/22/23
	Psychological Positive	11	100%	VRP: 1-11	42	Q1/2/3/4/7/8/15/17/23
	Psychological Negative	11	100%	VRP: 1-11	33	Q1/2/11/12/23

Figure 9: A comparative representation of responses related to rationalizing cognitive dissonance

In critically examining the data contained in Figure 9, one notes the high percentage of participants which addressed this theme within the context of their interview responses (*N*=11). It is inaccurate to conclude that cognitive dissonance has elevated importance to the research participants. Instead, specific questions were designed to draw this phenomenological data from the key participants. The rationale was threefold. Firstly, interview questions 19-22 were included to assess the applicability of the theoretical framework in this research study. Secondly, the pilot study revealed that in the absence of overt questions probing the rational and reasoning behind particular perspectives and beliefs of the voluntary participants, a potential for unacceptable research bias existed. Lastly, patterns of behavior emerged from the significant number of times the correlating code was referenced in interview responses. This insight enabled the data to be examined in a novel manner which was not initially apparent to me. As previously explained, the cognitive dissonance theoretical framework subsumes three credos.

The three credos are:

1. Individuals are hypersensitive when actions and beliefs conflict;
2. When the conflict manifests, individuals experience a feeling of discomfort called dissonance;
3. Dissonance is the antecedent condition to actions intended change or reduces the level of dissonance by either changing one's beliefs, attitudes, or behaviors (cognitions); changing one's actions by acquiring new information; or changing the importance of the cognition. (Festinger, 1957, p. 3)

I identified that the trinary elements were evident throughout the key participants' interview responses. At times, participant's stories and examples ranged from the perspective of being an PSGD employee to being a senior leader within PSGD. Regardless of the temporal hierarchal position of the participant, the hypersensitivity and dissonance elements were perceptible. The echelon reflected in the participant's stories was reflected in the degree of control that they believed they had and thereby influenced the cogitative approach.

"I can't control my job" (VRP11).

"Sometimes the easiest approach is just acceptance" (VRP04).

"I focus time and effort to participating in or supporting what may be levers of larger systemic change" (VRP03).

“I introduce organizational improvement within my sphere of influence and, when possible, outside as well” (VRP07).

“I make an assessment of things that are within my control and things that are outside of my control” (VRP08).

One of the dilemmas in applying the CDT to explain participant motivations for certain behaviors is that the conjecture of the model is antagonistic. The data revealed that it is not the dominate guise within the EMT leadership. All participants offered stories and examples of optimism, certainty, confidence, and pride.

“It can’t be all work, work, work…that gets really boring. We need to add a little bit of fun” (VRP02).

"In that process we got the troops fired up, we did a LEAN evaluation process and then problem-solving …which we loved" (VRP06).

“You can ask your network if they motivate you, but you also have to be able to motivate yourself because everyone else is looking to you to provide a positive mindset” (VRP05).

An objective consideration must be that hypersensitivity is not a binary construct. Hypersensitivity and dissonance can be moderated by emotion, experience, and attitude and thereby influence the paths of cognition. An optimist and a pessimist, all things being equal, will approach cognitive mitigations differently.

“Leaving an organization doesn't always have to be a negative thing especially if you have happiness and success in the new role” (VRP11).

“It's much more enjoyable to know that someone is open to a wide perspective of options and ideas” (VRP06).

“You always need to be fair while balancing so many different individual issues and their needs and their goals” (VRP09).

“I find working in government stressful, now more than ever” (VRP04).

If moderated hypersensitivity is cogent, then one would expect that dissonance can be mollified into either low or high-intensity reflections. Positive connotated hypersensitivity may result in a lower intensity dissonance than hypersensitivity motivated by emotion or crisis.

> I want to be empathetic and understand where they're coming from. Then I try to figure out how we can help not necessarily fix, but help. We need to own our piece, but we don't need to own it all. (VRP10)

“Pressures result in continuous conflict and wrangling before the right things are done the right way...often by finding ways to work around the obstacles” (VRP01).

“I was not going to spend my time working for someone I don't trust” (VRP03).

“I always hold on to hope. I hope it gets better” (VRP04).

During the holistic review of the data, I noted a linkage between the spiritual element, as identified by participants as religious factors, with the cognition element of the theoretical framework. Several participants identified their belief systems as an essential aspect which influenced how cognitions were managed in both in an individual sense and as senior leaders.

“I believe that most of them know that my servant leadership approach is based on my spiritual beliefs” (VRP01).

“I think religion/spirituality serves an important purpose for each individual. Diverse workplaces must be conscious of this” (VRP04).

“Spiritualism is such a big part of the indigenous culture and awareness for building relationships. I think that it does have a place in the public service” (VRP08).

“My spiritual beliefs are the foundation of my stress management approach” (VRP01).

The research data revealed an attitude of persistence, confidence and strong leadership skills as participants explained their approaches to confront dissonance challenges. Many declared a propensity to lead by example and shun avoidance behaviors. Several noted the necessity of increasing the amount of overtime required to meet expectations and a preference for using physical exercise as a personal stress abatement technique. However, most responses gravitated toward pragmatic and realistic cognitions within the leadership context.

“I tried to make the discomfort comfortable” (VRP10).

> If everyone else is participating and is engaged then hopefully, that will spread to that one individual that is not participating, and they will see that it's a good thing and will hopefully want to join in. So by trying different things, my stress level goes down. (VRP09)

"It's going to be hard, and we're going to work through it together. I focus on the benefits of meeting the challenges" (VRP02).

“We have very few resources. The biggest resource we have is ourselves. We build relationships and networks to empower ourselves, our teams, and our stakeholders” (VRP06).

Hypothesis

I hypothesize that public sector leaders will gravitate to specific combinations of intrinsic incentives to influence employee motivation when extrinsic options are diminished.

Based on the phenomenological data generated by one-on-one interviews of EMT members from PSGD, the hypothesis is incorrect. Participants gravitate to motivational strategies that have been successful in the past. However, leaders are fluid in their approaches and embrace the uniqueness of their employees. They recognize that each employee is motivated differently and thus incentive recipes must be based on the knowledge gained through personal relationships established between the leader and employee(s). A majority of PSGD leaders indicated a preference for intrinsic incentives, but the fluidity of options was more important than any one specific approach. All participants embrace the value of extrinsic incentives, even in times of austerity. There was a pattern of hypersensitivity and dissonance where participant's expectations of the number of extrinsic options did not align with available public funds. The resulting cognitions was a partial adjustment of their perspectives and resolution methodologies.

Most leaders acknowledge that the Province being researched is in a time of austerity. With this acceptance, there is a correlation to the belief that extrinsic incentive options will continue to be depressed well into the future. PSGD leaders are reluctant to abandon extrinsic incentives and indicate that a new apportionment model of intrinsic and extrinsic incentives is needed to motivate existing staff and attract new individuals to public service.

Research Question 1

Which intrinsic incentives and approaches do public sector leaders from the Executive Management Team (EMT) of a PSGD think are essential in making sustainable motivational changes in employees?

The research determined that there are multiple intrinsic approaches that are preferred by PSGD leaders. The participants stressed the importance of meaningful, authentic communications as the catalyst for establishing healthy relationships with employees. The participants referred to attributes like humility, trust, consistency, honesty, and fairness as conditions precedent for genuine connections. The extant literature has established that a foundational element for employee prosocial or altruistic behaviors is ethical leadership. Mitonga-Monga & Cilliers (2016) stated that "the results indicated employee perceptions of the integrity, fairness and honesty aspects of ethical leadership explain their effective, continuous and normative aspects of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. The results also showed that employee perceptions of high ethical leadership influenced their willingness to engage in positive organizational commitment such as psychological attachment, normative commitment and also their organizational citizenship behaviors such as altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, and civic virtue" (p.35).

Participants advocated that leaders must establish appropriate environmental conditions and culture for public service ethos to flourish. Engaged leaders must have safe workplaces where diversity, spirituality, and work-life-balance are eminent. Participants advocated for flexible approaches for motivating employees. Tactics such as training, learning and development plans, coaching, empowerment and job enrichment must be tailored to the unique needs and desires of individual employees. Many key participants perceived value in the mission valence option but favored the other intrinsic incentives at this time.

Research Question 2

In what ways has mission valence influenced sustainable motivational changes in PSGD employees?

Mission valence, solely, has not resulted in any sustainable motivational changes in PSGD employees. A majority of research participants declared that mission valence has theoretical potential; however several problems exist. Firstly, the concept of mission valence as an intrinsic incentive option is not well understood or known. The principle was first introduced in 1999 and is an emerging area of interest for scholarly research. Several participants were unfamiliar with the nomenclature however were able to share stories and examples which aligned with the intrinsic tactic. It appears that expectations of mission valence are premature. Secondly, many participants either did not have the current mission and vision statements or were in the process of refreshing them. Current mission statements are a conditions precedent for implementing mission valence. Thirdly, many key participants expressed concern regarding the logistical challenges of engaging with all employees in crafting bi-lateral goals and value statements. For some, there was a geographic barrier while for others, concerns about the difficulty in getting a significant number of employees to "agree to anything." Fourthly, in the absence of employee / public service organization goals alignment, the fallback position is a top-down establishment of goals with later engagement from staff. From this approach, paramountcy is established from management over employees. This is inconsistent with the basic tenets of mission valence. One participant explained their cascading approach. In this model, branch goals must align with divisional goals, which must align with departmental goals, which must align with central government priorities. It is within only the branch goals where non-management employees have the opportunity to participate in a process that resembles mission valence (VRP05). Another participant shared a success story where their Division was encouraged to participate in a mission valence exercise by using a combination of leading by example, creating excitement about the initiative, developing metrics and accountabilities, and making extrinsic rewards such as “really good food” available to participating employees (VRP08).

Evidence of Trustworthiness

As stated earlier, Shenton (2004) identified trustworthiness as having four criteria. The four criteria are credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Coupled with this, researchers have a fiduciary duty to ensure that all voluntary participants are treated honestly, with integrity and are well informed about the study protocols. This is not only a moral obligation but necessary to demonstrate compliance with Walden University's Institutional Review Board requirements.

Evidence of Credibility

This research study utilized 24 iterative semistructured questions and one-on-one interviews to capture the research data. I transcribed the interviews within 48-hours of completing the interview. All transcriptions were member checked. In every instance where voluntary participants made suggestions for transcription edits, they were accepted. The intent for this decision was to maintain trust between the voluntary participants and myself, as well as, ensure that participants had voice. As articulated in chapter 3, I provided periodic briefings to my Committee regarding my progress and engaged with my Chairperson on specific questions. I did use peer reviewers to assess and critic the research findings. I incorporated memo writing into the analysis phase of the research study. I adopted the principles of reflexivity and bracketing into the research project. Reflexivity is a precursor to bracketing, in that, through self-evaluation, I identified possible preconceived notions that developed as a result of my public sector career and as a result of my literature review. I identified reflections concerning the importance of spirituality to employee motivation, the extent of knowledge of mission valence possessed by the voluntary participants, and the importance that they may have assigned to the austerity experience. By completing the reflexivity exercise, I was able to set aside my personal experiences, biases, and preconceived notions as they pertained to the research topic. This latter activity is referred to as bracketing (Tufford & Newman, 2010). Lastly, to the extent that I was able, third-party documentation such as publically released provincial government reports, media articles, and provincial government transformation strategy framework were used to triangulate the data for credibility. There were no incidences where the truthfulness or accuracy, as was experienced was in question.

Evidence of Transferability

This research study utilized the lived experiences from senior leaders in two government departments. Although examples provided by the key participants were often unique to their respective work areas, the findings have been distilled into themes which will have transferability of other government departments and the pan-Canadian public service environment. The methodology process undertaken has demonstrated rigor and will assist other scholars in assimilating or replicating the research findings

Evidence of Dependability

Dependability has been exhibited through the use of member checks to ensure accuracy. As previously explained, reflexivity has been established by reassessing my positionality, and subjectivities relating to the research topic. Lastly, by reporting a change to the interview questions, post-pilot study, I have demonstrated transparency and integrity.

Evidence of Confirmability

Creswell (2007) propounded that the corollary of persuasive evidence is credibility. Validation of the research findings has been secured through the demonstrated use of established verification strategies such as triangulation, peer review, and member checking.

Summary and Transition

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to explore the value and effectiveness of mission valence and other intrinsic means used to influence employee motivation and productivity. A homogeneous group of key participants was interviewed with the intent of answering the research questions. Based on the responses analyzed, gender had no bearing on overarching determinations. However, the level of education and years of leadership experience were salient factors influencing participant perspectives. It appears that PSGD leaders have a preference for intrinsic incentives to motivate staff; however, there is not one dominant approach which supersedes other options. These participants stressed the need for fluidity of incentive design that is unique to the needs and desires of the employee. They stressed the criticality of authentic, meaningful communications and relationships as conditions precedent for determining the appropriate model.

This chapter furnished an overview of the pilot study, setting, and demographics as a preface to the data collection and data analysis. Chapter 5 will interpret the research findings and explore recommendations for further research. Lastly, the chapter will ascertain the potential impact of these findings on social change.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusion, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to explore the value and effectiveness of mission valence and other intrinsic means used to influence employee motivation and productivity. I designed the study to explore which intrinsic methods were preferred by a select group of key participant leaders from a PSGD, to influence employee motivation. Additionally, I attempted to understand if one specific intrinsic incentive, mission valence, has been used within the department. There is a lack of data on organizational leaders' perceptions on the effectiveness of intrinsic incentives and approaches including mission valence. This is important because reductions in employee motivation and productivity can harm public sector organizational efficacy and result in negative consequences. I used specific research questions to gather knowledge by understanding the phenomena based on the lived experiences of 11 key participants.

In this study, I used a descriptive qualitative phenomenological approach to generate an understanding of the phenomena. The data were captured through the use of one-on-one semistructured interviews. In the analysis, I utilized multiple coding strategies and was guided by the Giorgi method to synthesize themes which were later interpreted. I explain the findings of these interpretations in detail in this chapter. The findings are an integration of knowledge gained through the research process and the knowledge gained through the literature review. In this chapter, I will describe the limitations to trustworthiness, implications and lastly will offer recommendations for future research.

Interpretation of the Findings

I utilized 24 iterative semistructured questions and one-on-one interviews to capture the research data. I transcribed the interviews within 48-hours of completing the interview. Nine of 11 transcriptions were member checked. I accepted without challenge every instance where accuracy was questioned, the participant.

The data from this qualitative phenomenological research study are presented in alignment with the five themes found in Chapter 4. The five themes are extrinsic conventions, the significance of intrinsic incentives, leadership paramountcy, material communications, and rationalizing cognitive dissonance. The interpretations of these findings are based on the knowledge gained in the literature review in Chapter 2 and integrated with the understanding realized through the data capture and analysis. This research study's findings will both supplement and diverge from much of the conclusions presented in the extant literature.

Theme 1 – Extrinsic Conventions

Although extrinsic incentives were not the focus of the research study, it is not possible to give reasonable credence to an intrinsic incentive study without also thoroughly investigating this tangentially corroborating element. Similar to other literature-based public sector leaders, some EMT leaders prefer extrinsic options to other choices mainly due to the ease of use and immediacy of performance gains. There are specific structural characteristics unique to public sector organizations which influence the proclivity of leadership reliance on extrinsic incentives to motivate staff. For example, PSGD, like all government departments, are constrained by rigid fiscal policies, diminishing budgets, transparency requirements, political scrutiny, and compensatory protocols. EMT leaders work within these boundaries daily. Regardless of personal preference, the fiscal environment dictates the prevalence and extrinsic options available to leaders. Even in the face of fiscal austerity, most EMT leaders will not wholly abandon the use of extrinsic incentives. Pay-for-performance schemes and other instrumental bonuses do not presently exist. Thus, other tangible rewards valued individuals are becoming more relevant. These include reasonable base pay, pensions, and job security. The research revealed that EMT leaders demonstrated hypersensitive inclinations by holding these lower order needs sacrosanct. Coupled with this understanding is the argument that these principles must be adequately profiled in order to draw the interest of potential job seekers. If any of the three paramount extrinsic base requirements are perceived to be in jeopardy, potential adverse impacts on employee retention or recruitment will result.

Both the literature and findings revealed that extrinsic rewards are specific to a point in time and do not result in sustainable long-term productivity changes. Both extrinsic and intrinsic incentives can motivate individuals. Many research studies determined that extrinsic incentives crowd out intrinsic incentives. This is primarily because they appeal to the hedonistic human characteristics and have immediate tangible benefits (Kuvaas, Buch, Weibel, Dysvik, & Nerstad, 2017). Although intrinsic incentives are more sustainable over time, they often take longer to implement and manifest as benefits valued by the individual (Putra, Cho, & Liu, 2017). For these reasons, EMT leaders advocated for a multiplicative model of incentivizing employees that are comprised of both extrinsic and intrinsic options. Due to the modest use of extrinsic incentives during periods of austerity, the crowding out paradigm was not evident in these research findings.

These research findings corroborate previous research which has suggested that blended incentive models occur for four reasons. Firstly, not all actions or behaviors are pursued exclusively for intrinsic reasons (Merriman, 2017). Secondly, employees' need for basic wages will supersede the desire for higher order intrinsic rewards. Thirdly, the incentive mix is determined by the types of desirable or undesirable performance behaviors (Cerasoli et al., 2014). Lastly, I have determined that public sector leaders prefer the use of extrinsic rewards, rather than intrinsic rewards (Bassous, 2015).

Theme 2 – The Significance of Intrinsic Incentives

Intrinsic incentives lead to visceral drives and ultimately to intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic rewards aligned with higher order psychological needs such as happiness, self-esteem, and personal development. Leadership actions and behaviors cannot allot psychological gifts. Leaders are limited to offering incentives which may lead to meeting psychological needs, but ultimately the innate reaction and manifestation of behaviors are solely within the realm of the recipient. Based on the research findings, and extant literature, I identified several potential intrinsic options available to leaders, in addition to, several modifying elements that influence the intensity of the recipient's reactions to the stimuli. As noted earlier, all individuals have different needs and are therefore driven by different motivations. Coupled with this observation is the fact that modulating influencers such as emotion, temporal factors, bias, and expectations are also unique to the individual. Thus, the result is that a particular intrinsic incentive, such as mission valance, could have utterly differing value for each person that it is being offered to. The context of the reward and moderating relationship becomes critically essential to interpreting a person's cognition and reactions. This is a generalization dilemma. As a result, EMT leaders indicated a preference to rely on pragmatic experience(s) of successful past results to influence incentive choices.

The concept of mission valance was met with inconsistent results. Several participants admitted being unfamiliar with the lexicon, however in the interview they shared rich stories and examples where mission valance was evident. Multiple participants saw merit in the intrinsic option. However, several corresponding organizations lacked current mission and value statements. Others had current mission statements but appraised limited value to them. Some recognized the need to have these guiding principles but presented cogent arguments why in the public sphere, the process was unlikely ever to involve all impacted employees. Lastly, it was recognized that performance analytics associated with determining success are often inappropriate in a government setting. Indicators of success may include fluid factors such as political considerations and public engagement in establishing intangible non-measurable goals. Within PSGD, the mission valence concept cannot be adequately deployed until these foundational requirements have been addressed.

The need for an embedded healthy culture was seen as paramount by all participants. Culture is not a unitary construct because it is influenced to some degree by each person in the organization. It includes sundry catalysts such as spirituality, diversity, honesty, trust, values, fairness and accountability. It is the responsibility of the leader to acknowledge this plural diversity and shepherd employees toward mutual objectives. Scholars agreed that a healthy workplace culture assists in teambuilding, employee physiological and psychological wellbeing, employee retention, and potential alignments of beliefs and goals (Afsar & Badir, 2017; Ahluwalia & Preet, 2017). From a normative perspective, one could conclude that there is a need for public service organizations to devote learning and development resources focused on supplementing leadership competencies in healthy organizational culture development.

Theme 3 – Leadership Paramountcy

Scholars have asserted that leadership may be the most critical factor influencing employee motivation (Mitonga-Monga & Cilliers, 2016). The reasoning for this contention is that there is a power imbalance between leaders and followers. Leaders have influence, coercion, and inspirational tools that the employees do not. Multiple participants argued from a normative perspective that leaders should be examples worth following. They should embrace diversity but concurrently define enriching workplace cultures. The anecdotal stories revealed a paternal/maternal perspective from leader to employees. The perceived impacts of organizational austerity on employees were often personified by internalized emotional reflections. When asked about leaders that participants were inspired by, several references were made to parents, teachers, previous bosses. Many described their leadership styles as a combination of skills possessed and skills desired. When providing descriptive stories where psychological stress was probed, many participants shared dissonance stories where employees were impacted and their roles (or those of other leaders) within the context of cognitions resolving the concern. When asked about what they find personally stressful, most included work-related details. Many PSGD leaders felt that there were macro opportunities to influence departmental human resource policy, but this did not exist within the larger central government realm. They felt that one of the most important tactics in incentivizing employees was to be both engaging and fluid in incentive design. By understanding what was important and valuable to the specific employee, they were able to compose incentive arrangements that were likely to be effective.

Theme 4 – Material Communications

At the most rudimentary level, communications are a reciprocal process intended to transmit information from one individual to another. However, communications fill many other vital roles that cannot be overlooked. For example, communications are used to engage, share, inspire, inform, and collaborate. Communications between leaders and employees encompass all of these elements but also can be the fundamental mechanism for achieving a shared success within specific contexts. Leaders have a fiduciary responsibility to ensure that communication exchanges with employees are open, transparent and respectful. Many organizations invest significant training and development resources to assist individuals honing their skills in the various types of communications mediums. The extant literature revealed that effective leader-employee communications could result in reduced turnover, increased productivity, and better employee engagement and relationships. Savolainen, Lopez-Fresno, & Ikonen (2014) explained that effective communication is an iterative process and an essential leadership skill and that “communication is seen as an antecedent of trust” (p. 232). Because many intrinsic incentives are intangible and appeal to the psychological needs of individuals, it is especially important that leaders exercise material communications effectively and consistently.

The findings exhibited that employees are motivated by authentic and consistent face-to-face engagement with senior leaders. This is especially important in times of austerity where hypersensitivity and dissonance are elevated due to uncertainty.

Theme 5 – Rationalizing Cognitive Dissonance

In Chapter 4, it was explained that cognitive dissonance theory is comprised of three tenets. These are:

1. Individuals are hypersensitive when actions and beliefs conflict;
2. When the conflict manifests, individuals experience a feeling of discomfort called dissonance;
3. Dissonance is the antecedent condition to actions intended change or reduces the level of dissonance by either changing one's beliefs, attitudes, or behaviors (cognitions); changing one's actions by acquiring new information, or changing the importance of the cognition. (Festinger, 1957, p. 3)

The cognitive dissonance theory is not only important to this research study by guiding the methodology but also emerged as a theme within its own right. Unlike Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, cognitive dissonance theory was not expressly mentioned in participant responses. However, it was apparent in the stories and illustrative examples shared by the participants. The cognitive dissonance theory resembles a crescendo or bell curve as one moves from hypersensitivity through dissonance and into cognition. Rationales for certain choices and behaviors become plausible. In evaluating the cognitive dissonance theory, one learns that in the cognitions step, individuals will gravitate toward choices and behaviors that inflate feelings of contentment while averting unsavory situations. Individuals attain cognitive reconciliation at different rates, earnestness, and as a result of different inducements. Once again, this makes generalization problematic. What the findings reveal, however, is that leaders will adjust decisions based on the unique set of circumstances they are faced with. EMT leaders embrace the uniqueness of individual relationships and strive to discover appropriate mixes of incentives that best fit the specific employee. The participant's attitudes and affective commitments to the organization are significantly impacted by austerity. This mostly manifests as frustration. Participants appeared to internalize austerity in the hypersensitivity phase rather than accepting the external nature of the fiscal pressure. It impacts their self-esteem as effective leaders in the dissonance phase. Some participants accept the fiscal situation as beyond their control and thus focus on alternative treatments to affect employee motivation. Others, attempt to mitigate the fiscal situations through using their own personal funds and resources. This is an example of altruistic behavior focused toward their employees. Several PSGD leaders have a bicameral fidelity to both the organization and simultaneously to their respective employees. For example, some participants have expressed incite in the fiscal need for the Provincial government to reduce expenses. This includes pressures on government programs and public servants.

Nevertheless, they advocated for the "Transformation the Manitoba Public Service: a strategy for action" report as a viable option for mitigating the employee motivation pressures resulting from the austerity. All three of these examples are approaches that will result in decreasing dissonance albeit very differently.

Limitations of the Study

There was a chance of possible researcher bias. It was necessary to maintain a heightened awareness of bias potential and thus exercise countermeasures such as impartiality throughout the process (Cresswell, 1998). For example, open-ended semistructured interview questions were used in the research interviews. This allowed participants to furnish straightforward responses without opportunity for unintended researcher coercion. Additionally, all participant amendments or edits resulting from member checks were accepted without question.

The most obvious limitation of this study was the small size of the purposive sample. In the research methodology, I identified a research frame of 10 key participants. I used 11 voluntary participants. Due to the small sample size, the findings were not generalizable to all government departments or other Provincial governments. Leung (2015) explained that the purpose of a phenomenological study is not to provide solutions to problems or to be used for generalization of results. Its purpose is to gain knowledge and meaning from the lived experiences of a specific group of key participants. Due to the methodological features of qualitative research studies, they tend to involve smaller sample sizes than quantitative studies; however, are no less credible.

In this research study, the data capture of rich, fulsome lived experiences from knowledgeable participants familiar with the phenomenon was more important than generational, gender factors or cultural aspects of the key participants. This focus enabled me to attain data saturation relatively quickly. I used a purposive sampling technique in engaging with a homogeneous group of public sector leaders. Because of the homogenous nature of the research sample participants, reaching saturation of the data at 10 or 11 interviews was anticipated.

The responses to the one-on-one qualitative interviews were self-reported. Due to the nature of self-reflective interviews, it was possible that some participants may have misstated some facts or had recall bias. In order to mitigate against this possibility, I employed member-checking with 9 of the 11 key participants to appraise the accuracy of the transcribed narratives.

Despite the limitations of this study, it contains rich details extracted from the first-hand lived experiences of senior leaders from a PSGD. Some of the novel findings emerged from the contextual understanding of the shared lived experiences and perspectives.

Recommendations

The findings from this qualitative study advanced several opportunities for future research. A substantial body of research confirmed the value of intrinsic incentives in influencing positive behavior changes in employees. Several scholars have argued that extrinsic incentives crowd-out intrinsic incentives because the rewards are immediate. The extant literature, as well as, the research findings demonstrated that most public service leaders prefer an integrated extrinsic/intrinsic approach that is tailored to the employee. I used the research study to explore multiple intrinsic alternatives and correlative moderating factors that influence employee passion for the options.

The following recommendations are by no means all-inclusive but instead, are within the depth and scope of the parameters of the present study.

Firstly, future researchers should stress the personal, social, and cultural knowledge of public service leaders through the construct of leadership styles to assess employee motivational impacts.

Secondly, it is important for future research to assess the influence that a public sector leader’s demeanor and conduct has on their employee’s sentiments and behaviors. This could be coupled with research on the Pygmalion and Galatea effects.

Thirdly, there are opportunities for scholars to consider conducting longitudinal studies investigating the impacts on employee motivation as resources gradually erode over time.

Fourthly, researchers could conduct comparative case studies to better understanding of the cultural and spiritual fabrics and if either moderating factor has greater influence intensity on employee motivation.

Lastly, future researchers should contemplate an extensive analysis of how several varying leadership styles impact public sector motivation within the context of the austerity environment.

Implications

It is clear that public service leaders, regardless if they represent government service, not-for-profit, or spiritual organizations, share some foundational characteristics, thus by extension one can assume that the findings of this study may have some applicability to these same entities. At the most basal level, there are communal implications for social change. Social change can involve attitudes, behaviors, or policies on an individual, institutional, community, or national/international level and include many disciplines. The relevance of this fact is that no one best approach is appropriate in all situations. The participants in this research study had extensive experience as civil service leaders in addition to leadership roles in not-for-profit, NGO's and spiritual organizations. They shared lived experiences that were not exclusively bound to just their government service. The cohort expressed the criticality of fostering credible trusting and empathetic relationships with their employees. They advocated for the principle of individual uniqueness in establishing an appropriate intrinsic schema. This information may also provide public administrators and leaders with better ways to motivate employees using either preferred methods of highly experienced PSGD leaders or tactics and approaches captured through the literature review.

The findings of this study yielded information concerning social, psychological, and motivational nuances and learning that may shape the next generation of public service leaders. Increasing accountability and addressing barriers to goal achievement are fundamental strategies to supplementing leader and employee behavior(s). Andrews (2016) explained that in order to increase the opportunities for organizational success, leaders must create an environment whereby shared goals, values, and behaviors are embedded in the organizational culture so that employees' behavior(s) are voluntarily and positively aligned and demonstrated. The extant literature aligned with the findings in revealing that each organizational member brought factors into the mix which resulted in a distinct organizational culture. Some of these factors included history, beliefs, perceptions, and normative expectations of themselves and others.

The findings helped fill the gap that existed in the literature regarding mission valance within a context of public service organizations during times of austerity. There was not an unequivocal endorsement of mission valance when one looks past the verbal affirmation of the concept. This did not create a dilemma within the context of the research study. It contributed to literal pathways to understanding the cohort's prerogative and an appreciation of the temporal aspects of mission valance adoption. The findings of this study most closely aligned with the positions elucidated by Kopaneva (2015) and Caillier (2016).

Finally, there is potential for public policy adjustments to enable the establishment a peer-to-peer network within PSGD. A concentrated effort should be made to draw out the experiences of EMT members and use this intuitive knowledge to design leadership training programs focused on supplementing soft leadership skills. This is one way where social change would be evident.

This study is important because it supplemented existing quantitative experimental research into the area of mission valance and intrinsic motivation theory with relevant qualitative viewpoints which added meaning to existing data.

Conclusion

Through this research study, I explored the essence of the public service employee motivation phenomena with a specific focus on extrinsic and intrinsic incentives. I undertook to answer two research questions. Firstly, which intrinsic incentives are essential for making sustainable motivational changes and secondly if mission valence has been used successfully in PSGD. Five themes emerged from the data. I further distilled these themes into knowledge gained by assessing the implications of each of the themes. Within the PSGD mission valence has not been explicitly undertaken as an intrinsic tactic. The key participants expressed interest in the concept and appear to be encouraged to beta test this approach. As a key foundational element, current cascading mission and vision statements must exist at each level of the government hierarchy. A concentrated effort must be made to engage impacted employees during the development stages. To not do this will result in a top-down mission where employees may lack interest, buy-in, and not have an opportunity for mission alignment. This approach requires face-to-face engagement with senior government leaders. Departmental commitment must be more than aspirations. The approach, to be successful, requires a concentrated commitment to fiscal and human resources. The mission valence project should be beta tested in one or two branches and divisions, but the progress needs to be shared with each person in the department in order to seed enthusiasm. Successes should be shared communally. If the PSGD is committed to mission valence, it should include becoming a center of excellence as a guiding principle in the PSGD mission statement and subsequent divisions and branches. As mistakes and missteps occur, they need to be embraced as learning opportunities. PSGD must invest in leadership skills development. Leadership forums and learning opportunities can be developed even in times of austerity by using the skills and competencies already existing within the Department. Due to the demographic shifts, more senior experienced leaders are approaching retirement. Some may welcome the opportunity to become leadership mentors or center of excellence facilitators on a graduated basis as retirement nears. Perhaps half-time semi-retired PSGD key experts would embrace the opportunity to end their public service career by sharing and contributing in this manner.

We have learned that even in times of austerity, EMT key participants are reluctant to abandon extrinsic incentives as motivational options. There is a perceived cleave between government policy and leadership expectations. Participants have overwhelmingly argued for fluidity in crafting incentive approaches. Open sharing and engagement between very senior decision makers and the center of excellent should occur in order to explore what can be done rather than barriers. Alignment between this approach and the "Transforming the Manitoba Public Service: A strategy for action" initiative is likely to achieve benefits. Periods of austerity are just one point in time. The opportunity for good leadership and public service organization innovative policy and practices is enduring.

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Appendix A: NIH Certificate

Certificate of Completion

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that **Darren Christle** successfully completed the NIH Web-based training course "Protecting Human Research Participants."

Date of Completion: 05/16/2018

Certification Number: 2820232

NIH National Institutes of Health
Office of Extramural Research

Appendix B: Participant Invitation

[Date]

Re: A Research Study on the Influence of Mission Valence and Intrinsic Incentives on Employee Motivation

Dear [Participant Name]:

My name is Darren Christle and I am currently a doctorial candidate attending Walden University in the Public Policy and Administration Program with a concentration in Leadership and Management. This research project is part of the final requirement for obtaining my Ph.D. degree. I am conducting research on the lived leadership experiences of members of the Executive Management Team (EMT), as it pertains to using intrinsic approaches to motivate employees.

I will be interviewing volunteers from EMT based on specific inclusionary criteria. The volunteers must be members of EMT for a minimum of 1-year, volunteers must currently hold a management position within a PSGD, and volunteers must have sufficient scheduling flexibility to participant in two interviews of approximately 60-90 minutes in duration. I believe that there is a wealth of knowledge within EMT and participant’s unique experiences will contribute to understanding this research phenomena.

During this research study, I will ask volunteers to undertake a short on-line survey, read and endorse a voluntary consent letter, participate in a 60-90 minute one-on-one interview either in-person on via telephone. This interview will be recorded, transcribed, and shared with participants to insure no errors in transcription have occurred. It may be necessary to conduct a second 60-minute interview either in-person on via telephone in order to probe certain answers further to gain clarity or better understanding. These second interviews will also be recorded, transcribed, and shared only with participants who provided the interview information to insure accuracy and privacy.

EMT members who meet the aforementioned criteria and are interested in voluntarily participating in the study, please contact me by [DATE] at Researchers name and phone number. Please note that participation is voluntary and no compensation or rewards will be provided.

Thank you very much for your time and consideration of this request.

Sincerely,

Darren Christle

Appendix C: Demographic Questions

Gender: M F Other

Highest level of education obtained:

Age: 20-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60+

Number of years as a member of the Executive Management Team (EMT)?

Tenure of Service GoM (years): >1 1-5 6-10 11-20 21-30 30+

Tenure of Service "PSGD" (years): >1 1-5 6-10 11-20 21-30 30+

In your career – How many levels of government have your been employed in?

Tenure of all public service (years): >1 1-5 6-10 11-20 21-30 30+

How many years of leadership experience in paid public service?

How many years of management experience in paid public service?

Largest number of direct reports within your public service career?

Do you anticipate retirement within the next three (3) years? Yes No

Geographically, how would you classify your employment?

Urban based – such as Winnipeg or Brandon -or- Rural Based

Have you had a leadership role outside of government service? Yes No

Are you a spiritual or religious person? Yes No

Have you had a leadership role in a not-for-profit organization? Yes No

What role or occupation or capacity was the most influential person on your leadership style? (example: Teacher, Boss, Coach, Author)

What gender was this person? M F Other

Does your Branch or Division have a current (1-3 years) Mission Statement? Yes No

Does your Branch or Division have a current (1-3 years) Strategic Plan? Yes No

Do you know the content of your department's Mission Statement? Yes No

Appendix D: Interview Questions

Interview questions

1. I’m very interested in your experience(s) and approaches in motivating employees. I would like to start with asking you to share a story with me about how employees were motivated in some manner by using intrinsic approaches.
2. Please share with me what you believed worked or didn’t work?
3. I would like to know more about you as a leader. How would you describe your management style?
4. What leadership characteristics do you admire?
5. Can you tell me about your experiences in motivating direct reports?
6. What type of things could a leader anticipate being in the incentive tool-box of options?
7. What type of motivational incentives and tactics have the biggest impact and why do you think that's the case?
8. Can you tell me what types of experiences you've had in using intrinsic incentives with your staff?
9. Can you explain to me what you understand about mission valence as an intrinsic motivator?
10. What do you think about using extrinsic incentives to motivate staff in the public service?
11. Can you share an example where a public service leader replaced extrinsic incentives with intrinsic incentives to motivate someone?

12. Can you tell me about any observations about motivating public sector employees albeit differently due to generational, cultural, career progression (as examples)?
13. Can you tell me about your organization's mission statement?
14. Can you share about how employees have been, should be, or should not be involved or engaged in the mission statement development process?
15. Can you explain your thoughts about spiritualism in with workplace and if it influences employee motivation?
16. What are your thoughts about mission valance (when the mission statement and employee's values are in alignment) being used to motivate staff?
17. In your opinion should, what's the best intrinsic approach to motivate public service staff?
18. On a similar vein what's the least effective intrinsic approach that someone could try to use to motivate staff?
19. As a leader, what do you find stressful?
20. With respect to your answer to question #1, how do you address or deal with that?
21. Taking off the leadership hat…what types of things do you find personally stressful?
22. With respect to your answer to question #3, how do you address or deal with that?
23. Is there any other information or stories that I could or should have asked you about as it pertains to this particular subject and topic that I didn't think task and maybe you'd like to tell me about?

24. Would it be okay with you, If I contacted you again in the near future, if I need any clarification on your responses so that I can ensure I have a clear understanding?