THE EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED RED TAPE ON THE ORGANIZATIONAL PRIDE AND WORK MOTIVATION OF PUBLIC AND NONPROFIT MANAGERS

by

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(Under the Direction of Hal G. Rainey)

ABSTRACT

This dissertation is primarily concerned with examining the effects of perceived organizational and personnel red tape on the organizational pride and work motivation of managers in the public and nonprofit sectors. It also incorporates multiple comparisons of public and nonprofit managers to determine if the groups differ significantly in terms of red tape perceptions, organizational pride, and work motivation. This research addresses the need for further theoretical development and empirical study of organizational pride by (1) advancing a novel conceptualization and measure of the construct, (2) determining if it varies across the public and nonprofit sectors, and (3) investigating the extent to which it is influenced by red tape perceptions. In addition, this dissertation makes a significant contribution to the motivation literature by exploring differences between public and nonprofit managers and examining the association between perceived red tape and general work motivation.

In order to investigate these relationships, this research utilizes survey data generated by the third National Administrative Studies Project (NASP III), which contain detailed information about state-level public administrators and nonprofit managers in Georgia and Illinois. The analyses presented in this dissertation employ a number of statistical methods to test hypotheses regarding organizational and personnel red tape, organizational pride, and work motivation. The results indicate that nonprofit managers generally have greater pride in their organizations and are more motivated than managers in the public sector. They also suggest that perceived organizational red tape is generally associated with a decrease in the organizational pride and work motivation of both public and nonprofit managers. However, while perceived personnel red tape diminishes the organizational pride of managers in both sectors, a significant negative effect on work motivation is found only among nonprofit managers. Finally, the results show that perceived personnel red tape has a greater negative impact on the organizational pride of public managers.

INDEX WORDS: Organizational pride, Work motivation, Organizational red tape, Personnel red tape, Public, Nonprofit

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DEDICATION

For Emily and Phoebe

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation is primarily concerned with investigating the relationships between red tape and two separate constructs: organizational pride and work motivation. The principal research objectives are (1) to determine the extent to which red tape influences the organizational pride and work motivation of public and nonprofit managers, and (2) to ascertain whether the two groups differ significantly in terms of these effects. Sectoral differences in perceived red tape, organizational pride, and work motivation are also examined in this study. In addition to contributing to the existing—and increasingly relevant—literature on public-nonprofit distinctions, this research makes important theoretical contributions. First, it advances a novel understanding of organizational pride and proposes a unique multi-item scale to measure the concept. Second, it extends the theories of red tape and work motivation by exploring the potentially demotivating effects of organizational and personnel red tape and examining the degree to which these types of red tape discourage managerial effort among public and nonprofit managers. The implications for organizational performance, public service provision, and managerial career selection make this research relevant to a broad range of theoretical and practical concerns.

A number of researchers have examined the effects of organizational and personnel red tape on a range of variables. Some have found that red tape is associated with negative individual and organizational outcomes such as greater risk aversion (Bozeman and Kingsley 1998; Feeney and DeHart-Davis 2009), higher levels of work alienation (DeHart-Davis and Pandey 2005), lower job satisfaction and organizational pride (C. A. Chen 2012), diminished organizational performance (Pandey and Moynihan 2006; Walker and Brewer 2009a), and reduced public service motivation (Moynihan and Pandey 2007). Others, however, have suggested that red tape might not be particularly harmful. For example, some studies have shown that red tape has no effect on work motivation (Baldwin 1990), organizational goal ambiguity (Pandey and Rainey 2006), and communication performance (Pandey and Garnett 2006). Some researchers have even found that red tape positively influences variables such as innovation (Moon and Bretschneider 2002) and some performance measures (Brewer and Walker 2010b). Thus, the common assumption that red tape is universally detrimental does not seem to be supported by the currently available evidence.

As prior investigations have yielded inconsistent findings, the effects of red tape remain somewhat of a mystery. As noted, the extant literature suggests that red tape is indeed harmful in some cases. However, several researchers have shown that red tape can be relatively benign or even beneficial in some instances. Further analysis is needed to provide new perspectives into how organizations and individuals are affected by red tape. Additional research could lead to a more nuanced understanding of red tape and how it might affect certain classes of variables (e.g., work attitudes or performance criteria). This study aims to contribute to the existing red tape literature by investigating the extent to which organizational and personnel red tape influence the organizational pride and work motivation of managers in the public and nonprofit sectors.

In addition to evaluating the extent to which red tape affects organizational pride and work motivation, this research also addresses a need for additional comparative analysis of public and nonprofit managers. Public administration and management researchers have frequently examined differences between the public and private sectors (e.g., Bozeman and Kingsley 1998; Bozeman, Reed, and Scott 1992; Buelens and Van den Broeck 2007; Hvidman and Andersen 2014; Jurkiewicz, Massey, and Brown 1998; Karl and Sutton 1998; Perry and Rainey 1988; Rainey 1979, 1982, 1983; Rainey, Backoff, and Levine 1976; Rainey and Bozeman 2000). Comparatively few studies, however, have addressed the potential distinctions between managers in the public and nonprofit sectors. Recently, though, several empirical analyses have provided evidence of significant differences.

Recent research, for example, has shown that public managers perceive higher levels of organizational red tape and personnel rule inflexibility (C. A. Chen 2012; Feeney and Rainey 2010). The extant literature also suggests that public managers have lower levels of job involvement (C. A. Chen 2012; Word and Park 2009), job satisfaction (Borzaga and Depedri 2005; Borzaga and Tortia 2006; C. A. Chen 2012), organizational commitment (C. A. Chen 2012; Goulet and Frank 2002), and work fewer hours (Feeney and Bozeman 2009b) compared to nonprofit managers. Other studies have found that while public and nonprofit managers share many of the same intrinsic and extrinsic motivations (Park and Word 2012), they differ with respect to career motivations (Lee and Wilkins 2011; Su and Bozeman 2009). Although some authors have de-emphasized the distinguishing characteristics of the two public service sectors (e.g., Berman 2006), this emerging body of research suggests that public and nonprofit organizations often differ in significant and consequential ways.

Identifying and attempting to explain these contrasts has become increasingly important as nonprofit organizations assume a more prominent role in the provision of public services

(Brooks 2000; Lipsky and Smith 1989; Milward 1994; Milward and Provan 2000). Despite their similar and often overlapping public service missions, public and nonprofit managers operate within distinctive environments and face challenges unique to those settings. Investigating the ways in which these sectors differ may facilitate the identification of appropriate public service arrangements (i.e., which sector or combination of organizations is more suited to providing particular services), and may serve to highlight potential problems as the sectors grow increasingly dependent upon one another (Word and Park 2009). Examinations of sectoral differences can provide a greater understanding of organizational context, while a generic perspective that regards the sectors as indistinct may preclude such scrutiny. This study supplements existing research by providing additional insights into the distinctive characteristics of public and nonprofit organizations.

This study uses data generated by the third National Administrative Studies Project (NASP III) survey, which was designed to collect information about public and nonprofit managers in Georgia and Illinois. The NASP III questionnaire asked these managers to offer their perspectives on a range of organizational topics, including job selection, work environment, organizational rules and procedures, civic and political activity, mentoring, and career history. Demographic information such as race, gender, age, and level of education was also collected.

The following chapters discuss the relevant literature and provide detailed descriptions of the analyses and results. Chapter 2 provides an overview of the literature concerning organizational and personnel red tape, while chapters 3 and 4 cover the theories and research concerning organizational pride and work motivation, respectively. Each of these chapters also specifies the hypotheses developed from previous empirical findings. Chapter 5 discusses the

NASP III data used in this research and describes the dependent and independent variables. Chapter 6 identifies the conceptual models used for the analyses and details the statistical methods used to test the hypotheses. Chapters 7, 8, and 9 contain the results of each analysis. Finally, chapter 10 discusses the results of the study and offers some conclusions based on the findings.

CHAPTER 2

RED TAPE

Interest in systematically developing and examining the concept of red tape has increased in recent decades (Bozeman 1993; Bozeman and Feeney 2011; Bozeman and Scott 1996). Theorists and researchers in several fields and disciplines are now devoting considerable attention to explicating red tape. A recent Google Scholar title search for “red tape” returned roughly 500 results (excluding patents and citations). The number of search results dramatically increased to over 80,000 when the condition that “red tape” appear in the title was removed. An examination of these results revealed that researchers in fields as varied as public administration, economics, sociology, law, medicine, computer science, education, marketing, and environmental policy have concerned themselves with exploring some aspects of red tape. This broad interest in red tape, however, is not necessarily characterized by rigorous investigation. Red tape is often invoked in reference to nonspecific types of bureaucratic experiences or interactions when researchers wish to convey some nebulous disdain for such occurrences, irrespective of the disciplinary lens. Frequently, this scorn is directed at government institutions or agencies.

As others have noted, red tape does not exist only within a public bureaucratic context. One is likely to find some degree of red tape in large and complex organizations of all types (Kaufman 1977; Rainey, Pandey, and Bozeman 1995; Wintrobe 1982). This makes it a potential concept of interest to any researchers concerned with organizational complexity and its accompanying challenges. As Bozeman (2000, 127) aptly states, “Even if there is a genuine tendency for greater red tape in government, this does not prevent some private organizations from having more red tape than similar government agencies.” That noted, public administration scholars have engaged in efforts to further the conceptual and theoretical development of red tape. Particularly in recent years, public administration researchers have embarked on a serious research agenda to advance a more complete understanding of red tape—its causes, maintenance, and supposed deleterious effects. As public administration has developed as a discipline, its attendant scholars have mostly avoided characterizing red tape as a phenomenon understood solely through experiential means (Bozeman 2000).

Avoiding appeals to popular perception is not as easy as one might suppose, as red tape suffers from both identifiability and comprehensibility. While the average person might have some difficulty formulating a precise technical definition of red tape, specific instances and seemingly legitimate examples of red tape could likely be produced with little difficulty. This familiarity has perhaps impeded scientific inquiry into the nature of red tape, delaying its systematic study until recently. Any attempts at discovering and providing remedies for onerous bureaucratic rules and procedures have likely been delayed because of widespread tendencies toward assumption rather than scholarship. In Herbert Kaufman’s early treatise on red tape, *Red Tape: It’s Origins, Uses, and Abuses*, he mentioned the lack of rigorous academic treatment of red tape, noting that this neglect required him to draw primarily upon impressions formed through his study of public administration (1977, 2). This early absence of research almost certainly prolonged the use of speculative characterizations of red tape, perhaps contributing to its persistence. Indeed, Kaufman's (1977, 1) work on red tape was largely motivated by his bemusement that something so universally reviled could endure for so long.

To some extent, the study of red tape has been hampered by the widespread tendency to refer to any perceived limitation on the realization of one's wishes, or to any organizational representative's alleged inability to carry out client demands precisely as they are communicated. It is possible that the inclination to perceive red tape whenever one is faced with a seemingly labyrinthine, impenetrable institution—irrespective of sector—results in protests of bureaucratic red tape simply due to the expectation that some amount of effort will be required to communicate preferences or express concerns to "the right person." The salient consequences of such situational complaints about red tape are the ubiquity of the term and widespread imprecision in reference to it. If red tape has come to denote the threat of organizational complexity or being subjected to any procedural requirement, it is merely a metaphor for sundry organizational criticisms.

This problematic situation is certainly not unique to red tape. Popular usage of various terms and phrases often alter or distort their accepted meanings, sometimes enhancing specific negative aspects of a more complex or subtle understanding. Susan Sontag (1978, 1988) rather famously addresses the use of disease as metaphor in popular references, noting in particular how mentions of cancer and other diseases are used to describe a host of situations and groups deemed undesirable. Others have also noted the use of illness—particularly mental illness—as metaphor. Duckworth et al. (2003, 1403) investigated uses of the word "schizophrenia" in U.S. newspapers, finding that it has supplanted cancer as the "new 'illness as metaphor.'" The authors maintained that "metaphorical references to an illness conjure up negative, disheartening associations and, when commonly accepted, contribute to social rejections and degradation of well-being among persons who suffer from that illness" (Duckworth et al. 2003, 1403). Metaphorical usage transformed the commonly understood meaning of schizophrenia to one that includes simple confusion, instability, contradictoriness, and unpredictability. Popular co-optation of the term precipitated a deviation from the clinical definition of a serious condition.

It is through such general or popular usage that terms and phrases have their meanings altered and their consequences misunderstood and mischaracterized. In much the same way that some serious medical conditions have been co-opted, commonly held perceptions of red tape have diminished its meaning by encouraging its use as an accessible metaphor for apparently taxing organizational behaviors. Red tape has been used to describe not only legitimately burdensome rules and regulations, but also readily explainable and defensible formal requirements. And because its metaphorical usage predates any empirical scrutiny, the resulting perceptions and associations are perhaps more intractable. Goodsell (2004, 62) summarized this perspective as it pertains to government, writing that red tape "is a classic condensation symbol in that it incorporates a vast array of subjectively held feelings and expresses them succinctly in a way all can relate to on an emotional plane." Continued research and conceptual development, accompanied by the dissemination of empirical findings, may serve to focus criticism on legitimate instances of red tape and aid in their amelioration.

Organizational Red Tape

For many, red tape is a blanket term conveying disapproval of government and, in particular, the bureaucracy, which is often viewed as the primary purveyor of onerous rules, regulations, procedures, and requirements (Goodsell 2004). Kaufman (1977, 4-5) observed that "when people rail against red tape, they mean they are subject to too many constraints, that many of the constraints seem pointless, and that agencies seem to take forever to act." However, while some may view a particular government rule or intervention as inapplicable, excessive, or even detrimental, others may consider the same rule to be reasonable and beneficial. As Kaufman (1977, 9) succinctly noted, "what is pointless to one person may seem essential to another". This statement clearly implies that subjective distinctions are often made between "good" and "bad" rules. It also raises the question of whether objective distinctions might be made based upon a definition of red tape that specifies conditions for its identification.

Whether perceptual experiences or objective measures (or both) should be used to gauge the level of red tape within an organization has been addressed in the literature. Bozeman and Scott (1996, 9) argued that while objective measures—"the number of forms to be filled out in connection with an action, the number of signatures required, and the number of delays encountered in authorizing or implementing action"—might be viewed more favorably by researchers, they are ultimately indirect ways of assessing the presence of red tape. Subjective measures, on the other hand, are better suited to capturing the direct effects of red tape on personnel (Bozeman and Scott 1996). Because each approach has shortcomings, Bozeman and Scott (1996) suggest using a combination of objective and perceptual measures to more comprehensively evaluate dysfunctional rules that might be characterized as red tape. Of course, there are difficulties associated with this method as researchers must design or have access to both types of measures. Another obvious consideration is whether a researcher *believes* red tape to be an objectively measurable phenomenon or evidenced by individual perception.

Several authors have endorsed the latter view when discussing and defining organizational red tape. Buchanan (1975, 427), for instance, asserted that the federal bureaucracy's putative preoccupation with rules is a "perceived characteristic." He cites four factors that might contribute to this perception (see Buchanan 1975, 427-428). Perhaps the most sympathetic view suggests that government employees may stress administrative rules and procedures in order to safeguard the public and ensure due process (Buchanan 1975). Legislative oversight that stresses procedural adherence might also generate red tape as public employees attempt to satisfy performance criteria based on compliance with detailed legislative directives (Buchanan 1975). Another perspective maintains that federal government employees view rules and regulations as more important than the organizational mission or client interests, contributing to the notion that red tape is endemic in public organizations (Buchanan 1975). Finally, Buchanan (1975) argued that greater goal ambiguity in the public sector may engender higher levels of red tape by making it difficult to distinguish between constructive rules and those that are inessential.

Rosenfeld (1984) also advocated for the perceptual view when defining organizational red tape, arguing that subjective perceptions based on individual criteria determine which government rules may be characterized as red tape. Incorporating elements of Kaufman's (1977) description, Rosenfeld (1984, 603) defined red tape as "guidelines, procedures, forms, and government intervention that are perceived as excessive, unwieldy, or pointless in relationship to decision making or implementation of decisions." Examining the administration of Community Development Block Grants (CDBGs), Rosenfeld (1984) approached red tape from an intergovernmental relations perspective. The implementation of CDBGs necessarily involves the coordination of multiple governmental levels, resulting in a complex network of actors who are subject to varying rules, regulations, and degrees of accountability. Such complexity would seem to present numerous opportunities for red tape to emerge. Indeed, Rosenfeld (1984) identified four possible sources of red tape: political culture, federalism, legislative bodies, and the bureaucracy.

Rosenfeld (1984) argued that red tape can be viewed as a product of the political culture when government responds to various citizen demands. As an inevitable consequence, citizens not seeking government intervention—including those who are opposed to it—are also subject to the rules (Rosenfeld 1984). Federalism may also be responsible for red tape insofar as it gives rise to complex and sometimes conflicting regulations as a result of intricate intergovernmental relations (Rosenfeld 1984). According to Rosenfeld (1984), legislative bodies such as Congress can also encourage the creation of red tape by enacting vague legislation while failing to consider the bureaucratic costs of implementing the resulting policies (e.g., expansive rules and requirements necessitating the allocation of considerable resources). Finally, Rosenfeld (1984) maintained that bureaucrats might also generate red tape by creating detailed procedures in order to protect their jobs, obtain power, and demonstrate accountability.

Baldwin (1990) also identified several potential sources of red tape. Rather than concentrating on impressions held by the general public, however, his descriptions of red tape emphasized employee perceptions and restrictions on organizational behavior. Baldwin (1990) distinguished between formal red tape, which he subdivided into internal and external types, and informal political red tape. He broadly defined formal red tape as “the constraint or impediments to an organization’s freedoms as a result of laws, rules, regulations, and procedures” (Baldwin

1990, 8). According to Baldwin (1990), formal red tape may refer to constraints on decision making coming from within an organization (internal formal red tape) or to restrictions imposed by a separate government agency (external formal red tape). Informal political red tape refers to constraints placed on organizational behaviors by influential outside actors such as politicians and other public officials, the media, and the public (Baldwin 1990, 8-9). This nuanced description, like the definitions offered by Kaufman (1977) and Rosenfeld (1984), ultimately relies on individual perceptions to determine which rules might be considered red tape. Constraints resulting from public opinion or media attentions, for example, might be considered red tape by some while others might view them as necessary for ensuring accountability.

While the definitions discussed above are certainly instructive, they fail to address two critical points. First, they make no distinction between rules that organizations and individuals are compelled to observe and those that have been rendered toothless through lack of enforcement. Second, the definitions fail to differentiate between rules that efficaciously promote organizational objectives and ineffective rules that nonetheless continue to be implemented. Bozeman (1993, 283; 2000, 12) addressed these points by defining red tape as "rules, regulations, and procedures that remain in force and entail a compliance burden but do not advance the legitimate purposes the rules were intended to serve." Bozeman's (1993, 2000) definition is comprised of two principal components, each specifying a condition of red tape. First, the rule in question must be in effect and enforced. In other words, the rule cannot be disregarded without sanction because it is deemed to be unimportant, pointless, or irrelevant. If the rule can be ignored without penalty due to a lack of enforcement, it cannot impose a compliance burden (Bozeman 2000, 12). Second, the rule must be officially authorized and aimed at achieving a legitimate goal, but fail to promote an organizational or individual objective. An unsanctioned or illegal rule, then, cannot be considered red tape (Bozeman 2000).

Although recent empirical research suggests that there may be a need to reconsider how red tape is operationalized and measured (see, for example, Borry 2016; Feeney 2012), red tape researchers in public administration have generally accepted and adopted Bozeman's (1993, 2000) definition of organizational red tape. Slight variations of this definition have appeared in the red tape literature (Bozeman and Feeney 2011; Bozeman and Scott 1996), but they are substantively the same in that they retain the focus on rules for which compliance is compulsory (i.e., the rules cannot be ignored as unimportant or nonessential) and also emphasize a lack of purpose. One particular variant of the organizational red tape definition has emerged to address the problem of specifying for whom rules actually constitute red tape—some individuals or groups may perceive a rule as epitomizing red tape while others may view the same rule as useful and legitimate. Bozeman (1993, 284) attempted to address this incongruity by offering a more situational definition of stakeholder red tape, which he defined as "organizational rules, regulations, and procedures that remain in force and entail a compliance burden, but serve no object valued *by a given stakeholder group*."

Red Tape versus Formalization

Organizational red tape differs conceptually from formalization (Bozeman and Feeney 2011; Pandey and Scott 2002), which generally entails written conveyance of information such as rules, procedures, roles, decisions, and instructions (R. H. Hall, Johnson, and Haas 1967; Pugh et al. 1963; Pugh et al. 1968). Formalization can also be described in terms of job codification and rule observation (Hage and Aiken 1967a, 1967b), or as an established "series of written documents that specify who is to do what, when, where, and why" (Hage and Aiken 1969, 371). While formalization does not necessarily have either positive or negative consequences for an organization (Bozeman and Feeney 2011), red tape is commonly viewed unfavorably.[1] For example, Bozeman (2000, 1-13) regularly referred to red tape as a "bureaucratic pathology." Although formalization might ultimately give rise to red tape (Bozeman and Scott 1996), the extent to which an organization is formalized does not necessarily determine the amount of red tape encountered by stakeholders. As Bozeman and Feeney (2011) observed, highly formalized organizations might have very little red tape while organizations with little formalization might have an extensive number of dysfunctional rules.

Pandey and Scott (2002) presented evidence in support of a theoretical distinction between red tape and formalization. These researchers factor analyzed several measures of red tape (organizational red tape, personnel red tape, and administrative delays) and items related to two formalization subconstructs (job codification and rule observation). The results indicated that the formalization subconstructs were plainly distinguishable from the various red tape measures. Pandey and Scott (2002) also performed a comparison of inter-item correlations with off-diagonal correlations to further determine the distinctiveness of the two concepts. This analysis also indicated that while red tape and formalization both pertain to rules, they are separate concepts. Findings reported by Welch and Pandey (2007) also suggested that red tape and formalization are not interchangeable. These researchers showed that a formalization

[1] It should be noted that red tape is sometimes regarded as useful or beneficial, particularly when it provides safeguards against abuses of power or ensures equitable treatment of clients (Buchanan 1975; Goodsell 2004; Kaufman 1977; Pandey and Bretschneider 1997). Bozeman and Scott (1996), however, argue that these instances are more appropriately characterized as examples of formalization.

measure focused on the perceived extent of record keeping was not associated with procurement red tape.

Although red tape and formalization are discrete concepts, they are clearly related. Indeed, researchers often associate formalization with red tape. Hage and Aiken (1967b, 73), for instance, refer to formalization as the "red tape of bureaucracy." The relationship between the two concepts is perhaps best understood in perceptual or impressionistic terms. Formalization within an organization may be considered red tape (or an element of red tape) when it is viewed by stakeholders as having an adverse impact on organizational or individual behaviors. Pandey and Kingsley (2000, 782) advocated this point of view as it pertains to administrators, stating that red tape "comprises impressions on the part of managers that formalization (in the form of burdensome rules and procedures) is detrimental to the organization." As formalization and red tape are closely linked, and are often treated by researchers as equivalent concepts, any review of empirical findings in the red tape literature would be incomplete without also examining the reported outcomes of formalization studies.

Empirical Findings

The extant literature on organizational red tape includes a number of studies that explore the association between red tape and a range of variables such as innovation (Moon and Bretschneider 2002), risk aversion (Bozeman and Kingsley 1998; Feeney and DeHart-Davis 2009), goal ambiguity (Lan and Rainey 1992; Pandey and Rainey 2006; Rainey, Pandey, and Bozeman 1995), organizational performance (Brewer and Walker 2010b; Pandey and Moynihan 2006; Walker and Brewer 2009a), public service motivation (Moynihan and Pandey 2007; P. G.

Scott and Pandey 2005), work alienation (DeHart-Davis and Pandey 2005; Pandey and Kingsley 2000; Pandey and Welch 2005), and work motivation (Baldwin 1990). Many of these studies conclude that perceived red tape has undesirable effects on organizational outcomes and individual work attitudes. For example, researchers have shown that red tape is associated with greater risk aversion.(Bozeman and Kingsley 1998; Feeney and DeHart-Davis 2009), higher levels of work alienation (DeHart-Davis and Pandey 2005), lower job satisfaction and organizational pride (C. A. Chen 2012), diminished organizational performance (Pandey and Moynihan 2006; Walker and Brewer 2009a), and decreased public service motivation (Moynihan and Pandey 2007). These findings are particularly relevant for public organizations, where perceived red tape is often found to be more pervasive (Feeney and Rainey 2010; Pandey and Welch 2005; Rainey 1983; Rainey, Pandey, and Bozeman 1995).

Although much of the empirical evidence supports the notion that red tape has negative consequences for organizations, some researchers have found that red tape is not necessarily associated with unfavorable outcomes. For example, studies have shown that red tape has no impact on organizational goal ambiguity (Pandey and Rainey 2006) or communication performance (Pandey and Garnett 2006). A few researchers have even found that red tape positively influences variables such as innovation (Moon and Bretschneider 2002) and some performance measures (Brewer and Walker 2010b). In a particularly relevant study, Baldwin (1990) determined that red tape has no effect on the work motivation of public and private managers. This finding is surprising given that other researchers have found red tape to be negatively associated with related work attitudes. DeHart-Davis and Pandey (2005), for instance, found that red tape is negatively related to organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction. Likewise, Chen (2012) found that red tape is negatively associated with some favorable work attitudes, including job satisfaction and a general sense of organizational pride.

Several studies investigating sectoral differences in red tape perceptions can be found in the red tape literature. Although red tape is operationalized and measured in various ways, these efforts have generally demonstrated that public employees perceive a greater amount of organizational red tape than those in private and nonprofit organizations. Baldwin (1990), for instance, found that managers in public sector organizations experienced higher levels of red tape than managers in private firms. Specifically, public managers perceived a greater amount of informal political red tape (imposed by public opinion and groups such as elected officials, political parties, and the media), external formal red tape (government rules and regulations), and internal formal red tape (the organization's rules and procedures). However, as Baldwin (1990) notes, the external and internal red tape measures focus almost entirely on personnel red tape (discussed below). As a result, the study did not truly address the broader concept of organizational red tape.

Other researchers seeking to empirically test the common assertion that public organizations exhibit a greater propensity for red tape have employed different, and perhaps more suitable, measures of organizational red tape. In several studies, researchers have focused on delays in task completion or time required to process a request for a particular undertaking (e.g., Bozeman and Bretschneider 1994; Bozeman, Reed, and Scott 1992; Bretschneider 1990). In a study of differences between public and private management information systems (MIS), Bretschneider (1990) found that public MIS organizations took significantly longer to complete tasks such as creating a position, hiring and firing, purchasing equipment, contracting services, and altering policies. He attributed the delays to greater accountability in government and higher levels of interdependence among public organizations. Bozeman, Reed, and Scott (1992) found government influence (i.e., publicness; see Bozeman 1987) and legal status (i.e., an organization's public or private designation) to be significant predictors of an aggregate organizational red tape measure of task delays. These researchers also found that a greater amount of red tape was present in organizations that were more public. While the measures applied in these studies represent efforts to more completely gauge organizational red tape in public and private organizations, they focus on specific task delays and explicitly include personnel red tape items related to hiring and dismissal. These measures, then, preclude the consideration of any rules or regulations that might be *perceived* as red tape.

Rainey, Pandey, and Bozeman (1995) specifically addressed sectoral differences in organizational red tape by relying on an inclusive (i.e., non-specific) operational definition designed to measure perceptions of rules and procedures that are detrimental to the organization.[2] These researchers found that managers in public organizations perceive significantly higher levels of organizational red tape than managers in private firms. Pandey and Kingsley (2000), employing the same measure of organizational red tape, also determined that public managers perceive significantly more red tape than their private sector peers. Feeney and Rainey (2010) also employed this measure of organizational red tape in a study of public and nonprofit managers. They found that public managers perceive higher levels of organizational red tape

[2] Managers indicated the level of red tape within their organizations in response to the following question: "If red tape is defined as burdensome administrative rules and procedures that have negative effects on the organization's effectiveness, how would you assess the level of red tape in your organization?" (Rainey, Pandey, and Bozeman 1995, 574). This operational definition is inclusive in that it does not specify any particular type of rule or regulation, allowing respondents to consider any rule deemed harmful to the organization.

than managers in nonprofit organizations. In each of these studies, the sector variable was a highly significant predictor of red tape perceptions.

Although the evidence presented thus far supports the commonly held belief that public organizations have higher levels of red tape, some studies have shown that this is not necessarily the case. These analyses, however, have frequently made sectoral comparisons based on the degree of formalization or structure in public and private organizations rather than organizational red tape. The findings reported in the Aston studies, for example, indicated that government organizations do not necessarily exhibit greater formalization or structuring of activities (Pugh, Hickson, and Hinings 1969; Pugh et al. 1969). Bozeman and Loveless (1987) found that scientists and engineers in public research units did not differ significantly from their industrial counterparts with respect to perceptions of restrictive administrative regulations (a measure intended to determine the amount of organizational red tape). In fact, the authors noted that the public researchers perceived slightly fewer administrative constraints. In a more recent study, Kurland and Egan (1999) found that public and private employees' assessments of job formalization and formal communication within their organizations were not significantly different.

Buchanan (1975) compared middle managers in four business firms with their peers in four federal agencies using a structural salience scale. The scale was designed to "measure individual impressions of the salience (prominence, significance, conspicuousness, importance) of formal bureaucratic routines in the administrative climate" (Buchanan 1975, 430). Surprisingly, the structural salience scores for the two groups indicated that the business managers attached greater importance to structure. Buchanan (1975) attributed this unexpected result to a relative lack of emphasis on the structural complexities that might exist in private sector organizations. He claimed that the finding “suggests that government agencies have no monopoly on red-tape, and that the image may be simplistic or inaccurate” (Buchanan 1975, 441). While few red tape researchers would argue with this conclusion, the suitability of the structural salience scale as an accurate measure of organizational red tape is debatable.

While these studies indicate that public organizations do not necessarily exhibit a higher degree of formalization that private firms, there is conflicting evidence. Rainey (1983), for instance, reported that middle managers in public agencies perceived higher levels of formalization than their private sector counterparts. Using Hage and Aiken’s (1967b, 1969) formalization measure, he found that the public managers generally perceived higher formalization within their organizations. In a study of public, private, and hybrid research and development laboratories, Emmert and Crow (1988) similarly determined that the public and hybrid organizations placed greater emphasis on administrative efforts.

Hypothesis

While there are several notable exceptions, many of the empirical findings discussed above indicate that organizational red tape can be harmful to organizations and that public employees are subjected to more of it relative to their private and nonprofit peers. Although most of the sectoral comparisons examine differences between public and private organizations, Feeney and Rainey’s (2010) study directly addresses public-nonprofit perceptual disparities. As noted above, these researchers reported that public managers perceived higher levels of organizational red tape than managers in nonprofit organizations. This finding, in addition to the other evidence cited, supports the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Nonprofit managers perceive less organizational red tape than public managers.

Because Feeney and Rainey (2010) analyzed the same data used in the present research, it is possible to perform a similar analysis in an attempt to replicate their study and independently confirm the findings. This approach is preferable to relying on the previously reported results when there is an opportunity to directly test a hypothesis that is relevant to the interpretation of the study's principal analyses. Thus, the inclusion and subsequent-testing of this hypothesis is warranted.

Personnel Red Tape

Rules constraining personnel decision making represent a distinct form of red tape. While organizational red tape can be framed in terms of burdensome or onerous rules that are usually harmful to an organization, personnel red tape may be characterized as a specific subset of rules that impede or otherwise limit personnel decisions. Researchers have alternately described these restrictive rules in terms of inflexibility or lack of autonomy (C. A. Chen 2012; G. Chen and Williams 2007; Coursey and Rainey 1990; Feeney and Rainey 2010; Rainey 1979, 1983; Rainey, Backoff, and Levine 1976), personnel constraints (Brewer and Walker 2013), human resource red tape (DeHart-Davis and Pandey 2005; Moynihan, Wright, and Pandey 2012; Pandey, Coursey, and Moynihan 2007; Pandey and Moynihan 2006), or personnel red tape (Baldwin

1990; Bozeman and Feeney 2011; Brewer and Walker 2010a, 2010b; Pandey and Garnett 2006; Pandey and Kingsley 2000; Walker and Brewer 2009a, 2009b). The terms generally refer to the degree to which personnel decisions regarding hiring, dismissal, promotions, and pay are restricted by formally structured and enforced personnel rules (Rainey 1983).

According to Bozeman and Feeney (2011), referring to personnel constraints as red tape may introduce some conceptual confusion or even represent a misapplications of the term. It can be argued that rules governing personnel procedures do not meet the definitional requirements of red tape. These rules may, in fact, effectively address legitimate concerns regarding due process, improper influence or pressure applied to personnel decisions, and discriminatory practices. One might reasonably assert, then, that rules pertaining to personnel matters do not qualify as red tape. However, if one applies the operational definition of red tape—"burdensome administrative rules and procedures that have negative effects on the organization's effectiveness" (Rainey, Pandey, and Bozeman 1995, 574)—when considering personnel rules that limit managerial discretion, it becomes evident that such rules can indeed be designated red tape. Managers and other employees may view personnel rules as achieving their legitimate objectives while also acknowledging that the rules introduce inefficiencies and limit organizational effectiveness.

It may also be the case that managers simultaneously view personnel rules as *ideally* furthering the purpose of addressing fairness concerns and as *practically* ineffectual. In other words, a manager or subordinate may very well understand the rationale and intent of certain mandated personnel rules, but nonetheless perceive them as failing to adequately address the concerns for which they were devised. In such cases, personnel rules may be considered red tape even according to the conditions set by the commonly used formal definition: "rules, regulations, and procedures that remain in force and entail a compliance burden but do not advance the legitimate purposes the rules were intended to serve" (Bozeman 1993, 283; 2000, 12). Of course, it would be a mistake to claim that all personnel rules, no matter how restrictive, represent red tape. To assert that such rules amount to benign formalization, however, would be equally erroneous. As with all rules governing organizational behavior, personnel constraints may or may not be red tape. How individual employees perceive these rules ultimately determines whether they may be characterized as having a negative impact on an organization's effectiveness.

Unfortunately, the questionnaire items frequently used to assess employee perceptions of personnel procedures do not specifically address red tape (Bozeman and Feeney 2011). Researchers have not asked managers, for example, to indicate whether various personnel rules pertaining to hiring, promotion, dismissal, and rewards constitute red tape. Thus, it is difficult to know definitively how such rules are perceived. Instead of directly addressing perceptions of personnel procedures, survey respondents are typically asked to express some level of agreement with statements describing different ways in which rules impede personnel decisions. The most frequently employed scales contain items originally developed by Rainey (1979, 1983) to determine managers' views concerning the flexibility of personnel procedures within public and private organizations. Bozeman and Feeney (2011, 88) identified eight of Rainey's original questionnaire items that are often used to measure various aspects of personnel red tape:

1. Even if a manager is a poor performer, formal rules make it hard to remove him or her from the organization.
2. The rules governing promotion make it hard for a good manager to move up faster than a poor one.
3. The formal pay structures and rules make it hard to reward a good *manager* with higher pay here.

4. The formal pay structures and rules make it hard to reward a good *employee* with higher pay here.
5. The personnel rules and procedures that govern my organization make it easy for superiors to reward subordinates for good performance (reversed).
6. Due to rules, pay raises for managers are based more on longevity than on performance.
7. Producing a low quality of work decreases my chances for promotion.
8. Because of the rules here, promotions are based mainly on performance (reversed).

Most of these items refer to situations in which the execution of standard personnel decisions are made simpler or more difficult by an organization's formal rules. While there is no mention of red tape, many of the statements imply that existing rules and procedures constrain decision making with respect to personnel matters (i.e., hiring, firing, promotion, and rewards). The items also contain implicit assumptions that personnel decisions might be more efficiently implemented in the absence of these administrative constraints. For instance, one might reasonably infer that agreement with the proposition that rules make it difficult to remove a poor-performing manager from an organization denotes some level of dissatisfaction with the relevant rules. Likewise, if a respondent agrees that rules governing promotion make it difficult for a good manager to advance faster than a poor one, he or she is likely expressing disapproval of the rules that impede the advancement of competent managers.

While displeasure with restrictive personnel rules is not necessarily indicative of red tape, it does signal that they are perceived as burdensome and, perhaps, injurious to organizational effectiveness. This comports with the frequently employed operational definition of red tape. One could also argue that many of the statements listed above describe scenarios in which personnel rules have resulted in unintended negative outcomes or have ceased to serve the purposes for which they were originally intended (e.g., the continued employment or advancement of poor managers resulting from the misapplication of civil service protections), per Bozeman’s (1993, 283; 2000, 12) formal definition of red tape. Consequently, it is appropriate to refer to such constraining rules as personnel red tape, while acknowledging that managers may be adept at coping with these rules.

Empirical Findings

The literature concerning personnel red tape includes a number of empirical studies. As noted above, most researchers studying personnel red tape have employed questionnaire items and scales initially developed by Rainey (1979, 1983). His early analysis of middle managers in public and private organizations showed that public managers’ personnel decisions were significantly more constrained relative to managers in private firms (Rainey 1979, 1983). Other studies have provided additional evidence of significant differences. Coursey and Rainey (1990), for instance, reported significant differences between public and private organizations with respect to personnel flexibility, authority over personnel actions, and approval time for personnel actions. They found that publicness was negatively associated with personnel flexibility and authority, but positively related to protracted task completion (Coursey and Rainey 1990). Baldwin (1990) reported that public managers perceived greater levels of external and internal red tape than private sector managers. Although he used items with somewhat different phrasing, Baldwin (1990, 20) acknowledged that his scales are similar to those advanced by Rainey (1983). Rainey, Pandey, and Bozeman (1995) also found that public managers perceived a significantly higher level of personnel red tape than managers in private organizations.

In a study of senior managers working in the public and private sectors, Pandey and Kingsley (2000) found that public managers perceived a much higher level of personnel red tape relative to business managers. The authors maintained that "the stronger effect associated with sector is consistent with the fact that managers in public organizations must contend with extensive civil service and personnel regulations" (Pandey and Kingsley 2000, 794). A strong sector effect has also been observed in comparisons of public and nonprofit organizations. Feeney and Rainey's (2010) analysis of personnel flexibility among managers in public and nonprofit organizations showed that nonprofit managers perceived significantly fewer constraints relative to their public sector counterparts. Chen (2012) corroborated this finding using the same data and measure of personnel rule constraints.

The studies support the popular belief—shared by proponents of government reforms—that public management is encumbered by rules that restrict personnel decisions (see Gore 1993; Gore 1995; Osborne and Gaebler 1992). Although the analyses rely on managerial perceptions of personnel procedures, the consistently strong relationship between public sector employment and personnel red tape suggests that public managers are indeed burdened with greater constraints.[3] Based on the evidence presented in the personnel red tape literature, these restrictive personnel rules represent one of the clearest distinguishing characteristics of public management, differentiating it from business and nonprofit administration.

Several researchers have endeavored to determine if and how the prevalence of personnel red tape affects various work related attitudes (Baldwin 1990; DeHart-Davis and Pandey 2005),

[3] One potential problem with relying on perceptual measures is that responses may merely reflect ingrained beliefs about the nature of public and private organizations (Rainey, Traut, and Blunt 1986). Respondents may, for example, report that public organizations have more restrictive personnel rules relative to private firms due to entrenched expectations that this is the case.

organizational effectiveness and performance (Brewer and Walker 2010b; Pandey, Coursey, and Moynihan 2007), and communication performance (Pandey and Garnett 2006). Other studies have focused on whether strategies to mitigate the effects of such constraints are effective (Walker and Brewer 2009a, 2009b). These efforts have produced somewhat mixed results. While some studies have shown that personnel red tape has negative effects, others have indicated that it is either innocuous or even beneficial. Baldwin (1990), for example, found no significant association between his measure of personnel red tape and work motivation. He posited that the absence of a relationship could be explained by several factors: the managers' relatively infrequent exposure to personnel red tape; managerial appreciation for some of the benefits of red tape; the managers' innate or learned ability to simply tolerate red tape; and, methodological weaknesses, including potentially inflated self-reports of work motivation (Baldwin 1990, 20). Given the well-known difficulties associated with using self-evaluation to measure work motivation (Rainey 2009), the methodological explanation is perhaps the most plausible.

Other researchers have also found perceptions of personnel red tape to be less harmful than supposed. Pandey and Garnett (2006), for instance, found no relationship between personnel red tape and public sector communication performance. Pandey, Coursey, and Moynihan (2007) reported that human resource red tape had no significant impact on the organizational effectiveness of state-level human services agencies (though, as the authors note, the relationship was narrowly insignificant and human resource red tape was cited as an inhibitor of effective administration in qualitative interviews). This finding was partially supported by Brewer and Walker's (2010b) analysis of local government managers in England. These researchers found that one measure of personnel red tape—"Even if a manager is a poor performer, formal rules make it hard to remove him or her from the organization"—was significantly and negatively associated with some internal perceptions of performance. However, another measure—"The formal pay structures and rules make it hard to reward a good manager with higher pay here"—was found to be significantly and *positively* related to several performance measures. Brewer and Walker (2010b, 246) speculated that this finding might be attributable to a lack of extrinsic motivation (and greater intrinsic motivation) among the surveyed government managers.

Although these findings suggest that personnel red tape is not necessarily harmful in terms of its impact, there is evidence that it may indeed be detrimental to an organization. DeHart-Davis and Pandey (2005) showed that personnel red tape was associated with various aspects of work alienation among managers in state health and human services agencies. Specifically, they found that personnel red tape was significantly and negatively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job involvement. Given the relatively strong and persistent negative influence of personnel red tape found in this study, DeHart-Davis and Pandey (2005, 143) claimed that the results "contradict the notion that public managers are impervious to the psychological effects of ineffective procedure because it is commonplace in their public sector context." This assertion stands in contrast to Baldwin's (1990, 20) claim that government managers may actually appreciate the utility of red tape, thereby diminishing its otherwise harmful effects.

These seemingly conflicting views can be reconciled by recognizing that perceptions of personnel red tape are likely to vary greatly among public managers. Because these administrators work in myriad agencies and organizations spanning every level of government, managerial impressions of personnel red tape, and the methods employed to address it, will certainly differ according to the circumstances. Walker and Brewer (2008) found evidence of this among English local government authorities. They reported that lower level managers perceived a greater amount of personnel red tape than managers in more senior positions. Others have demonstrated that individual perspectives, attitudes, motivations, and dispositions can also determine how public managers respond to personnel red tape. Pandey and Welch (2005), for instance, found that government managers with more positive work attitudes perceived less personnel red tape. Similarly, Scott and Pandey (2005) found that higher levels of public service motivation were linked to a reduction in perceived personnel red tape. These findings indicate that a diverse set of factors play a role in determining whether public managers perceived higher or lower levels of personnel red tape, and may also suggest that some managers are more capable of coping with it.

Hypothesis

The empirical evidence concerning sectoral differences strongly suggests that public managers are more likely to perceive higher levels of personnel red tape than managers in private or nonprofit organizations. While the findings regarding the effects of personnel red tape are somewhat mixed, there is general agreement that there are greater constraints on personnel decision making in public organizations compared to organizations in other sectors. Feeney and Rainey's (2010) analysis of perceived personnel rule flexibility among public and nonprofit managers is, of course, particularly relevant. As these researchers utilized the same data as those examined in the present analysis to determine that nonprofit managers perceived less personnel inflexibility than their public sector peers, there is direct support for the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Nonprofit managers perceive less personnel red tape than public managers.

As with the hypothesis concerning organizational red tape, testing the personnel red tape hypothesis represents a replication of the research conducted by Feeney and Rainey (2010). Reproducing their findings (using a somewhat different statistical model) is necessary to independently determine whether nonprofit managers do indeed experience less personnel red tape than managers in the public sector. Because support for this hypothesis has implications for the interpretation of the more central components of this study (i.e., organizational pride and work motivation), additional scrutiny of the previous findings is merited.

CHAPTER 3

ORGANIZATIONAL PRIDE

Pride has been touted as an important motivational asset for organizations—particularly business firms—that wish to foster engagement, increase the effectiveness and performance of their employees, and gain a competitive advantage (Bartlett and Ghoshal 1994; Katzenbach 2003a). Individual and organizational successes may induce pride, which may then motivate employees to perform at higher levels (Katzenbach 2003b; Katzenbach and Santamaria 1999; Williams and DeSteno 2008). While both personal and organizational achievements are likely to result in some measure of pride, the sources of organizational pride are almost certainly more complex. Individuals may be proud of the organization with which they are affiliated for myriad reasons that have little to do with specific or even consistent accomplishments, and organizations may engender pride among employees through means unrelated to the success of the organization. To the extent organizational pride motivates better performance and greater employee effectiveness, it is important to determine those factors that contribute to pride in an organization in order to properly define and comprehend the construct.

To more fully understand organizational pride, one must first examine the meaning of pride and dissect its contextual origins. The New Oxford American Dictionary defines pride as "a feeling of deep pleasure or satisfaction derived from one's own achievements, the achievements of those with whom one is closely associated, or from qualities or possessions that are widely admired." This definition emphasizes an essential condition of pride: the cause must in some way be associated with the individual in whom pride is aroused (Hume 1978). An object or condition is not likely to elicit pride if there is no affiliation between an individual and the potential source of pride. One may be proud of a personal achievement or the achievements of those with whom one is associated, but without this connection there is no pride-inducing condition. Within an organizational context, pride may result from an association with an organization that accomplishes its goals or possesses certain admired qualities. Without some connection to the organization, however, pride is unlikely to be aroused. An unaffiliated individual may admire, respect, or approve of an organization's attributes or achievements (Davidson 1976), but pride requires a direct or indirect association.

One may further distinguish between the pride subject and the qualities that are associated with it, as these may be considered two distinct but essential components of the cause (Hume 1978). For example, an employee who expresses pride in his or her organization—assuming the condition of association has been satisfied—is probably not proud of the organization per se. Rather, the employee is proud of certain exhibited qualities or characteristics. There is little on which pride may be based without these qualities. Likewise, pride may not be experienced without the subject (i.e., the organization) in which the qualities are found (Hume 1978). An organization may only evoke pride in an individual insofar as it possesses certain qualities or characteristics (or has attained some goal or objective) that act directly on pride. In order to effect pride, however, the qualities must be attached to a subject with which the individual is directly involved or otherwise acquainted. For instance, a person may value ethical behavior but he or she cannot be proud of such behavior in and of itself. It must be demonstrated by oneself or another entity (Árdal 1989). Still, the knowledge that another person, group, or organization exhibits ethical behavior is insufficient for generating pride. Again, one may only take pride in ethical behavior if it is displayed by an individual or group with whom one is associated.

Conceptualizing Organizational Pride

The modest organizational pride literature typically characterizes the pride construct in emotional terms, though some researchers have argued that it also has attitudinal qualities (e.g., Gouthier and Rhein 2011; Kraemer and Gouthier 2014). Somewhat surprisingly, there is an apparent lack of interest in exploring the term's social psychological foundations. The paucity of discussion concerning the affective and cognitive underpinnings of organizational pride is a rather conspicuous omission in extant treatments. One might argue that any distinction between emotional and attitudinal pride is merely semantic and ultimately has little bearing on the study and understanding of organizational pride. Such a perspective would clearly obviate the need for a definitional debate. However, this view would preclude identification of conceptual attributes that may distinguish organizational pride from other work-related attitudes and emotions. Discounting the examination of attitudinal qualities would, in fact, impede a more complete appreciation of organizational pride and potentially frustrate efforts to consistently operationalize and empirically test the construct. As Locke (1969, 334) succinctly and correctly noted, "the first question a scientific investigator must ask is not 'How can I measure it?' but rather, 'What *is* it?'"

One complication that emerges in attempting to distinguish between attitude and emotion is the manifest theoretical and definitional overlap (Breckler and Wiggins 1989). This situation is due in large part to the affective component of attitudes (Cohen 1990), which has traditionally been stressed by attitude theorists and researchers (see, for example, Insko and Schopler 1967; Rosenberg 1956). This is especially true of those subscribing to either the tripartite (or ABC) model, which classifies evaluative responses as affective, behavioral, or cognitive (Ostrom 1969), or a unidimensional model that explains attitude in terms of affective responses (Zanna and Rempel 2008). In some cases, attitude is defined solely or primarily in terms of affect (see Fazio 1986; Greenwald 1989; Thurstone 1931; Zajonc 1980). Irrespective of model type, integration of cognition and affect may obscure some distinctive affective properties, such as response arousal and registration (Cohen 1990).

The job satisfaction literature provides some direction, as theorists and researchers within that domain have also grappled with the conceptual balance of cognition and affect. The most prominent definition of job satisfaction emphasizes a positive emotional state resulting from a cognitive appraisal of one's job (Cranny, Smith, and Stone 1992; Locke 1976). However, some theorists have suggested that the definition, particularly as it has been operationalized and measured, actually stresses cognitive assessments and not feelings about the job (Brief 1998; Organ and Near 1985). Given that this widely adopted definition of job satisfaction emphasizes emotional responses to job assessments, this conclusion is surprising (Brief 1998). It suggests that inadequate attention has been paid to the distinctiveness of the affective and cognitive components of job satisfaction, which are described by Brief (1998) as elements of attitude. Employing attitudinal language frequently used in social psychological contexts, he defines job satisfaction as "an internal state that is expressed by affectively and/or cognitively evaluating an experienced job with some degree of favor or disfavor" (Brief 1998, 86). The definition explicitly distinguishes between cognitive and affective components, but allows for evaluative interactions between them.

Distinguishing between cognitive and affective elements of attitude, but allowing for componential interaction, offers a compelling model for both defining and interpreting organizational pride. It seems plausible that when people communicate pride in their organizations, such expressions are based on affective and cognitive evaluations. Their pride is based on what they think or believe and how they feel about their organizations. While the two components are distinct, the expected interaction between cognition and emotion in evaluative processes—the acts of evaluating and interpreting the evaluation—is what ultimately determines pride. When an individual thinks about his or her organization, there are feelings associated with this cognition. Likewise, when one experiences a particular affective state apropos the organization, there are related thoughts and beliefs associated with those feelings. As Judge and Church (2000, 167) have noted, "when we think, we have feelings about what we think. When we have feelings, we think about what we feel."

One important implication of this discussion pertains to the object(s) of evaluative processes. When people think or feel something about an organization, do these thoughts or feelings reference some particular organizational characteristics, behaviors, or values? In other words, are evaluations simply based on a generalized view of the organization or are there discrete organizational attributes which prompt cognitive and affective appraisals? Furthermore, are these organizational evaluations passive or active processes? If they are the latter, what are the factors likely to arouse conscious reflection? The following sections address these critical questions.

Organizational Pride: Emotion, Attitude, or Integrative Construct?

While pride is generally considered to be an emotion, some authors have maintained that organizational pride has both emotional and attitudinal properties (Gouthier and Rhein 2011; Kraemer and Gouthier 2014). According to this perspective, emotional pride is relatively short in duration and may be experienced on multiple occasions in response to assorted stimuli (Gouthier and Rhein 2011, 635). Attitudinal pride, on the other hand, is a more enduring state resulting from more general experiences rather than specific organizational attainments (Gouthier and Rhein 2011, 636). These characterizations can be directly linked to broader conceptualizations of attitudes and emotions

Although there is no universally accepted definition of attitude (Brief 1998; Fishbein and Ajzen 1972; Olson and Zanna 1993), there is some agreement among social psychologists that the construct represents a tendency to evaluate some psychological object in either positive or negative terms (Eagly and Chaiken 1993, 1998; Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; Insko and Schopler 1967; Petty and Cacioppo 1996; Thurstone 1931). This widely accepted contemporary definition differs from some earlier explanations (see, for example, Allport 1935) in that it emphasizes three fundamental attributes: evaluation, attitude object, and predisposition or tendency (Eagly and Chaiken 1993, 2007). According to Breckler and Wiggins (1989, 408), this definition implies that attitudes are learned, they induce action, and they involve evaluation. Attitude objects may take virtually any form, including people, places, physical objects, organizations, policies, and ideas (Fishbein and Ajzen 2005). Responses to these objects can be verbal or nonverbal, pertain to objects varying in generality (from broad to specific), and can be categorized in terms of cognition, affect, and conation (Ajzen 1989, 2012). Cognitive responses are expressions of beliefs about, or perceptual reactions to, a particular object, while affective responses involve evaluative feelings toward an object (Ajzen 1989). Conative responses refer to indications of behavioral intentions or overt behaviors concerning an attitude object (Ajzen 2005).

While social psychologists seem to be in agreement regarding the definition of attitude, particularly with respect to its evaluative nature (Ajzen and Fishbein 1977), a consensus definition of emotion has proved more difficult (Ashkanasy, Härtel, and Zerbe 2000; Izard 1993). Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981, 345) compiled a list of 92 suggested definitions of emotion, noting that "a major problem in the field of emotion has been the wide variety of definitions that have been proposed." Although Scherer (2005, 695) attempted to address the conceptual difficulties associated with affective processes, he acknowledged that "defining 'emotion' is a notorious problem." Much of the confusion can be attributed to the application of diverse theoretical perspectives and varied research agendas that emphasize different dimensions of emotion (Ashkanasy, Härtel, and Zerbe 2000; Frijda 2008). The inherent variability of the emotion process has also complicated attempts at providing a general definition of emotion (Scherer 2004b).

Although emotion theorists and researchers have failed to settle on a comprehensive definition, they generally agree that emotion entails a relatively brief reaction process initiated by an individual's conscious or unconscious evaluation of some object or event (Fredrickson 2003). In this respect, there has been some definitional convergence. As noted by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), all definitions concerning emotion either explicitly or tacitly acknowledge that emotions are reactions to specific events or objects. It is also widely recognized that evaluations and interpretations of these stimuli, and not the actual stimulating events or objects, govern which, if any, emotions are experienced (Basch and Fisher 2000; Ellsworth and Scherer 2003; Roseman, Spindel, and Jose 1990). In an organizational or work setting, occurrences that give rise to evaluative processes and, ultimately, emotional reactions can be considered affective events (see Weiss and Cropanzano 1996 for a detailed explanation of Affective Events Theory). Basch and Fisher (2000, 37) defined an affective event as "an incident that stimulates appraisal of and emotional reaction to a transitory or ongoing job-related agent, object or event." They noted that in the case of organizational pride, an individual evaluates his or her organization as the object that induced the emotion pride (Basch and Fisher 2000).

Some definitions of emotion provide more detailed accounts of the reaction component, particularly in terms of its adaptive properties and physiological impact. Plutchik (1980a, 1980b, 1984), for example, proposed a psychoevolutionary theory of emotion that details how elemental emotions shared by both humans and animals have evolved to facilitate environmental adaptation and aid in survival. His view of emotion stresses the response process that is elicited by an object or event. According to Plutchik (1984, 217), "an emotion is an inferred complex sequence of reactions to a stimulus, and includes cognitive evaluations, subjective changes, autonomic and neural arousal, impulses to action, and behavior designed to have an effect upon the stimulus that initiated the complex sequence." Using similar language, Scherer (2005, 697) proposed a component process definition that emphasizes the temporary changes in most or all of the five organismic subsystems resulting from a cognitive appraisal of an internal or external stimulus

Table 3.1: Fundamental Features of Emotion

Feature	Description
Event focus	Emotion is elicited by a specific internal or external stimulus event
Appraisal driven	The stimulus event must be cognitively evaluated by the individual as significant or important; that is, the event is deemed relevant to the individual's major concerns
Response synchronization	Emotion requires an immense and synchronized mobilization of neurophysiological resources
Rapidity of change	New information or re-evaluations prompt rapid changes in event assessments, triggering abrupt changes in emotional responses
Behavioral impact	Emotions are behaviorally disruptive, leading to the generation of new objectives and altered facial and vocal expressions, which may affect social interactions
Intensity	The intensity of responses to stimuli and the corresponding emotional experiences is high
Duration	As emotions necessitate a resource-intensive mobilization that would otherwise be overly burdensome, their duration is necessarily brief

Source: Scherer (2005, 700-702)

event as salient.[4] He detailed seven core features of emotion that distinguish it from other affective states (see table 3.1).

Emotions are often confused with related affective experiences such as feelings and moods. Indeed, the terms are frequently used interchangeably (Moore and Isen 1990). There are subtle but important distinctions between these concepts, however. Feelings may refer to subjective experiences that integrate and regulate emotional processes and represent one component of emotion (Scherer 2004a, 2005). And while emotions are elicited by events assessed as significant by an individual and are ephemeral in nature, moods can be characterized as diffuse and enduring states with no particular object (Ekman and Friesen 2003; Forgas and George 2001; Fredrickson 2003; Frijda 1986; Fuller et al. 2003; Lord and Kanfer 2002). Forgas

[4] The five major subsystems are: (1) the cognitive system, or appraisal; (2) the autonomic system, or arousal; (3) the motor system, or expression; (4) the motivational system, or action tendencies; and (5) the monitor system, or feeling (see Aue, Flykt, and Scherer 2007, 347; Scherer 1984; 2009 for an explication of Scherer's organismic subsystems).

and George (2001, 5) described affect as a more inclusive term that may refer to either emotions or moods. As these descriptions illustrate, the distinctions between the various affective states are critical to examining and understanding affective phenomena. This also applies to the understanding of organizational pride, as having an appreciation for whether it is an emotion or an attitude, or involves some complex interaction between the two, is essential to comprehending and applying the term.

Although the descriptions of emotion and attitude resemble one another, one can distinguish between the two constructs by comparing specific definitional criteria. While both emphasize evaluation of a stimulus object, the resulting affective states are quite different. Emotions and attitudes and can clearly be differentiated bases on the following characteristics: (1) stability or duration of the induced affective state; (2) the degree to which neurophysiological resources are activated and mobilized; (3) suddenness and intensity of reaction; and (4) behavioral impact. Emotions are largely fleeting due to the activation of a large amount of neurophysiological resources, whereas attitudes are more enduring. And while attitudes may predispose an individual to certain emotions (Scherer 2005), the difference in stability is a clear distinguishing characteristic.

Individuals may have pride in their own achievements and attributes or in the accomplishments and characteristics of an organization which whey they are associated (Hu and Kaplan 2015). Regardless of the context, pride has consistently been described as an emotion. This characterization, however, may not fully explain pride in an organizational setting. While pride may be a relatively short-lived emotion, organizational pride can endure for an extended period of time as a result of frequently recurring emotional pride experiences (Gouthier and

Rhein 2011; Kraemer and Gouthier 2014). This potential stability suggests that organizational pride might have attitudinal properties that may better explain employee behavior over time as individuals adopt tendencies toward favorable evaluations of their organizations (Eagly and Chaiken 1993, 2007; Kraemer and Gouthier 2014). Emotional pride may be induced when an employee experiences a discrete positive event, while prolonged or repeated positive experiences may result in a more enduring attitudinal pride (Gouthier and Rhein 2011).

Defining Organizational Pride

Organizational theorists generally characterize pride in terms of individual connections to, and evaluations of, groups or organizations with which an individual is associated. That is, organizational pride is typically viewed as how a person feels about or assesses the status of his or her organization (Tyler and Blader 2001, 2002). This perspective suggests that pride in one's organization is a reflection of group esteem, influencing individual views of the self and actions within the organization (Tyler and Blader 2001, 2002). People affiliated with an organization that is held in high regard view themselves as gaining status by association. This positive association may also influence commitment to the organization, even among those for whom financial incentives are unavailable. Researchers have shown, for example, that organizational pride is positively associated with the organizational commitment of volunteer workers in nonprofit organizations (Boezeman and Ellemers 2007, 2008).

Organizational pride is often considered to be a single element of a broader work-related attitude. However, pride in an organization is more appropriately viewed as a distinct affective construct that reflects a unique set of employee considerations not captured by related attitudinal measures. Specifically, organizational pride is an expression of admiration for an employer derived from positive employee assessments of specific organizational characteristics, conditions, and values. To the extent employees are proud to work for an organization, they are expressing approbation of particular organizational attributes and acknowledging positive organizational experiences (Arnett, Laverie, and McLane 2002). In other words, the organization engages in specific behaviors and performs in certain ways that induce pride among employees. An individual may, of course, exhibit a general sense of pride in an organization based upon a nebulous appreciation for the organization's values or characteristics, but a more comprehensive understanding of organizational pride may be realized by investigating specific organizational attributes or behaviors of which an individual might be proud.

Organizational pride is multidimensional construct incorporating several organizational elements that, among other things, demonstrate an organization's commitment to high standards and admired principles, a willingness to take risks and adapt to change, confidence in employees' abilities, and an interest in the well-being of employees. More specifically, organizational pride results, in part, from employee appraisals of the following organizational qualities: (1) organizational quality and status; (2) innovation and risk-taking; (3) organizational ethics; (4) trust in employees; and (5) work incentives. Though the selection of these pride facets relies in part on a priori assumptions about characteristics that may evoke organizational pride, the choice to include these elements is largely based on findings in the extant literature on organizational pride and related attitudes and emotions.

<u>Organizational Quality and Status</u>

Arnett, Laverie, and McClane (2002, 90) suggested that organizational pride is influenced by members' personal impressions and the perceptions of other outside the organization. In a study of the effects of internal marketing in a hotel property, these researchers found that positive employee appraisals of organizational performance were associated with pride in the organization. Although the authors did not-test for the effects of external opinions on organizational pride, they maintained that employees who believe their organizations are performing well have a high degree of pride (Arnett, Laverie, and McLane 2002, 96). Gunter and Furnham (1996) also found a relationship between performance and organizational pride in a study of four public organizations. They reported that organizational pride was significantly and positively related to perceived performance in all four organizations, though organizational performance predicted pride in only one (departmental performance was shown to predict organizational pride in a second organization).

In a comparison of successful public and private organizations, Gold (1982, 571) claimed that managerial perceptions of organizational distinctiveness were conducive to an organizational culture characterized by pride. He asserted that managers who viewed their organizations as distinctive, or "special" in terms of their operations and products, were likely to experience pride. In the case of the U.S. Forest Service, Gold (1982, 572) inferred that officials' positive perceptions of how the agency was viewed by citizen stakeholders also played a role in fostering pride in the agency. This suggests that insofar as managers perceive their organization as engendering positive public opinion, one may plausibly conclude that the organization's status—characterized by stakeholder satisfaction—contributes to organizational pride.

These findings indicate that perceptions of organizational quality and status among employees may influence pride as members of the organization assess the quality of work being performed and form impressions of stakeholder satisfaction. The empirical research suggests that perceptions of organizational performance may be significantly associated with pride, indicating that employee judgements regarding work quality and organizational status may represent a facet of overall pride in an organization. Organizational pride may be enhanced or diminished as a result of employee appraisals of work quality and beliefs about the reputation of status of the organization. Pride is likely to decrease if assessments of quality and status result in negative views of the organization. A net positive appraisal of these attributes will contribute to greater organizational pride.

Innovation and Risk Taking

Innovation and risk taking are characterized by the degree to which innovation, adaptability, and flexibility are important organizational values. Insofar as an organization's policies and practices are viewed as innovative by employees, one can expect heightened pride in the organization. Likewise, if an organization encourages risk taking among management and other employees, members may be imbued with a sense of job ownership which can further contribute to organizational pride. However, if employees view their organization as not valuing or fostering innovation, or stymieing risk taking, the organization and its policies may be perceived as stagnant or constraining creativity. While examinations of the relationship between pride and innovation or risk taking are lacking in the limited organizational pride literature, studies pertaining to related attitudes are relevant and instructive.

Some management scholars have suggested that individual attitudes and emotions such as job satisfaction and job involvement are positively associated with innovation (Pierce and Delbecq 1977). Empirical analyses largely support this proposition. Hage and Aiken (1967a), for example, reported that a high rate of program change was positively correlated with job satisfaction, suggesting that membership in an organization viewed as dynamic may contribute to greater job satisfaction. Agarwala (2003) found that the introduction of innovative human resource practices was a significant predictor of organizational commitment among managers in seven large industrial firms based in India. He concluded that innovative human resource policies led to greater identification with organizational values among employees by signaling the firm's commitment to positive change (Agarwala 2003, 190). West and Wallace (1991) reported that innovation was positively associated with team commitment within primary healthcare practices in the United Kingdom. These researchers used conceptualizations of organizational commitment advanced by Buchanan (1974a) and Cook and Wall (1980), defining commitment in terms of organizational identification, loyalty, and involvement. Using the same concept of commitment in a case study of a small wood products firms, Crespell and Hansen (2008) found that organizational commitment was significantly and positively correlated with innovativeness. These researchers also showed that an organization's propensity for innovation was positively correlated with job satisfaction.

Organizational Ethics

Although the relationship between ethics and organizational pride has seemingly gone unexplored in the literature, studies of corresponding work attitudes indicate that organizational ethics may play a significant role in determining the extent to which people identify with their organizations (Cullen, Parboteeah, and Victor 2003). Researchers have demonstrated that organizational ethics are associated with several positive job-related attitudes and emotions, providing support for the inclusion of an ethics measure in the organizational pride construct. Treviño, Butterfield, and McCabe (1998), for example, found that measures of ethical climate and ethical culture predicted organizational commitment in a sample of college alumni. Similarly, Schwepker (2001) reported that perceived ethical climate was significantly and positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment in a cross-sectional sample of business-to-business salespersons. Vitell and Davis (1990) explored the relationship between ethics and job satisfaction among management information system (MIS) professionals. They determined that perceptions of unethical behavior within a company and in the broader industry were negatively correlated with several dimensions of job satisfaction, including satisfaction with co-workers, supervisors, and the work itself. Other studies lend support to these findings, suggesting that there is a positive link between organizational ethics and various facets of job satisfaction (see, for example, Deshpande 1996; Koh and Boo 2001; Viswesvaran and Deshpande 1996; Viswesvaran, Deshpande, and Joseph 1998).

The ethics literature also provides some evidence that organizational ethics are positively associated with organizational identification. DeConinck (2011) investigated the relationship between ethical climate and organizational identification among salespersons and found that several components of ethical climate (responsibility and trust, ethical norms, and sales practices) were positively related to organizational identification. These findings suggest that ethical organizational behavior may also play an important role in fostering a sense of pride in an organization. To the extent a manager perceives (or is witness to) unethical behavior within his or her organization, one can expect a decrease in the manager's organizational pride. If employees consider ethical standards within an organization to be high, however, organizational pride should be enhanced as admiration for the organization among employees is strengthened.

Trust in Employees

The organizational trust literature is largely concerned with exploring the extent to which employees place trust in their organizations or management, or with examining the level of trust that exists between members of an organization. Within the context of the organizational pride construct, however, the focus is placed on the degree to which management trusts employees and how that trust is conveyed. Insofar as managers display trust in employees under their direction, they are expressing confidence in the abilities of the employees to perform competently and reliably. Such confidence implies that the employees are also afforded some degree of authority or autonomy to determine how to most capably fulfill their job responsibilities (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). The literatures on perceived organizational support (POS) and cognitive evaluation theory (CET) suggest that perceived autonomy may be positively associated with an employee's belief that his or her efforts and well-being are valued by an organization (Eisenberger, Rhoades, and Cameron 1999). Researchers have shown that increased autonomy is associated with perceived increases in organizational support, more positive moods, better work performance, and higher job satisfaction (Deci, Connell, and Ryan 1989; Eisenberger, Rhoades, and Cameron 1999).

Demonstrations of trust (e.g., greater subordinate autonomy) can also be a source of organizational pride, whereas constrained authority may erode pride in an organization by signaling an organization's lack of trust in its members. (This may be particularly disconcerting for public sector organizations as individual discretion is often officially limited as a means of ensuring due process and safeguarding the public.) Although such indications can be the result of some universally applied organizational policy, this is not necessarily the case. Immediate supervisors may also demonstrate a lack of trust in subordinates, which may adversely influence employees' assessments of their individual relationships and experiences with management (or top-level management in the case of lower- and mid-level managers) as well as their feelings and attitudes regarding the organization at-large (Deci and Ryan 1987). In terms of pride, employees who perceive a lack of trust in their abilities may not only lack pride in their individual roles within an organization, but also experience significantly reduced pride in the whole organization.

Work Incentives

An organization may incentivize hard work among employees by providing positive or negative inducements. Positive incentives encourage employees to focus on attainment while negative incentives stress undesirable outcomes to be avoided (Rainey 1979). Positive inducements are often evident in extrinsic rewards such as pay, promotions, and other forms of recognition or commendation, while the threat of punitive sanctions (e.g., demotion or dismissal) typically characterizes negative incentives. While each motivational approach is, of course, intended to increase work effort, an emphasis on sanctions or punishment may be associated with the potential for discord among group and organizational members (Oliver 1980). Extrinsic motivators in general may have negative consequences for work relationships as employees compete for pay and other material rewards (A. Kohn 1993). Extrinsic rewards and punishments may also serve to reduce interest in work, inhibit self-determination, and generally undermine the intrinsic motivation of employees (Deci, Koestner, and Ryan 1999; A. Kohn 1993; Ryan and Deci 2000). There is also evidence that extrinsic rewards might discourage intrinsically motivated individuals from working in the public sector (Georgellis, Iossa, and Tabvuma 2011).

To the extent that extrinsic rewards adversely affect intrinsic motivation, one might expect intrinsically motivated employees to express negative work-related attitudes and emotions when extrinsic motivators are stressed. One might also expect extrinsically motivated employees to have more positive attitudes. There is some evidence that this is indeed the case. Using a sample of lower and middle managers drawn from three large organizations, Gorn and Kanungo (1980) found that extrinsically motivated managers had significantly higher job satisfaction and job involvement than intrinsically motivated managers. The researchers concluded that job dissatisfaction among the latter group may have resulted from the nature of the work not meeting the managers' high expectations or from an organization's failure to establish appropriate incentive structures for intrinsically motivated individuals. As the public service sectors are typically characterized as employing individuals who are service-oriented and more intrinsically motivated (Crewson 1997), there are serious implications for public and nonprofit organizations that turn to extrinsic rewards to motivate employees. Individuals in these types of organizations may find their work to be less rewarding and their jobs less satisfying. They may also lack organizational pride if their reward preferences are unfulfilled.

Related Constructs

As noted above, an organizational attribute is the object of a person's pride insofar as the individual is associated with the organization and the characteristic is exhibited by the organization and valued by the individual. An employee may express pride in an organization because it demonstrates particular values or traits with which the individual identifies. A person may view an organization as having qualities that he or she also possesses or otherwise deems important and valuable, which is likely to result in organizational pride. If organizational attributes are not aligned with an individual's inherent values or personal characteristics, something akin to organizational humility may result. These propositions are predicated on the assumptions that the organization has an identity—it is associated with certain positive or negative attributes—and that employees are cognizant of that identity. To the extent this depiction is accurate, members may identify with the organization or, lacking identification, experience a form of dissonance.

The interaction between identity and identification influences many organizational behaviors (Albert, Ashforth, and Dutton 2000). Understanding the relationship between these two foundational constructs is essential to interpreting pride in an organizational context. In many respects, organizational pride may be conceived as an affective or attitudinal consequence of the conceptual linkages that characterize the association between an organization's identity and the ability or willingness of its members to identify with the organization. Organizational pride can emerge only when an employee knows and identifies with the organizational attributes that constitute its identity.

In order to fully understand organizational pride, one must also grasp the meanings and significance of identity and identification. These constructs are defined and briefly explained below. An appreciation for how organizational pride is informed by several other related constructs is also necessary. The most salient of these—organizational commitment, organizational reputation, organizational image, and job involvement—are also discussed in this section.

Organizational Identity

In its simplest conceptualization, identity provides an answer to the question, “Who are we as an organization?” (Albert and Whetten 1985; Whetten 2006; Whetten and Mackey 2002). This implies a “shared understanding of what the organizational is all about and how it should operate” (Berg 1985, 296). Exactly who and what determine an organization’s identity, however, is the subject of some debate. Some theorists stress the role of senior management in the creation and maintenance of organizational identity (Humphreys and Brown 2002), while others emphasize the importance of the viewpoints held by all organizational members (Hatch and Schultz 1997). Still others argue that identity is a more inclusive concept involving the interactive views of multiple constituencies (S. G. Scott and Lane 2000). Although these perspectives refer to different organizational stakeholders, they are collectively concerned with individuals affiliated with an organization who are in a position to identify distinguishing organizational traits, providing a frame of reference for determining what the organization is and what it is not.

At the organizational level, identity may generally be characterized as the manner in which an organization defines itself comparatively and contextually (Corley et al. 2006). This broad perspective suggests that organizations arrive at their identities through an ongoing process of relative differentiation (Albert and Whetten 1985). Peer organizations may seek to distinguish themselves from one another by persistently performing comparative assessments and defining themselves in terms of distinctive attributes. An organization may also compare its existing identity with past or future conceptions of itself. Temporal comparisons may contribute to the formation of an organization's present identity based on how it has been perceived in the past or what is aspires to be in the future (Albert 1977). For example, an organization formerly embroiled in scandal may attempt to establish an identity focused on trust and transparency while also defining itself in terms of aspirational goals (Corley and Gioia 2003).

Albert and Whetten's (1985; Whetten 2006) characterization of organizational identity as the fundamental, enduring, and distinguishing attributes of an organization has been widely adopted. This definition refers to qualities or features that make an organization distinctive in fundamentally important ways. They are enduring to the extent they have been preserved and perpetuated as overriding organizational principles (Whetten 2006). Gioia, Schultz, and Corley (2000), however, asserted that an organization's identity cannot remain temporally static. They claimed that it is more likely an impermanent state owing to a changing environment to which the organization must adapt, arguing that "identity is imputed from expressed values, but the interpretation of those values is not necessarily fixed or stable" (Gioia, Schultz, and Corley 2000, 65). Gagliardi (1986) agreed, suggesting that the maintenance of organizational identity hinges on the degree to which organizations can adapt to change. An organization that characterizes itself in terms of its commitment to ethical practices, for instance, can preserve this part of its identity by adapting to evolving ethical concerns and norms. The defining attribute is not rigidly fixed over time, but it is durable in the sense that the organization's commitment to the value remains intact even as its meaning changes or is broadened.

Organizations must adapt to environments that can change quite rapidly (Gioia 1998). In order to preserve their identities, organizations maintain "the appearance of stability and order so that change can be managed while still retaining essential features of core identity…" (Gioia 1998, 22). An organization's identity can be viewed as enduring insofar as the appearance of stability in maintained during inevitable change intervals. To some extent, this view implies that organizational identity is maintained through the cultivation of member perceptions of the organization's core identifying characteristics (Gioia, Schultz, and Corley 2000). That is, identity can be actively managed by an organization so that members identify their organization in a particular way based in part on how the organization portrays itself through its projection of a favored image.

An organization's identity is related to organizational pride in rather obvious ways. If an employee expresses pride in his or her organization, that individual is conveying approval of its core qualities. The individual must have an appreciation for what the organization is and how it functions both internally and externally (i.e., relates and connects to the broader public) in order to express approval. Moreover, the employee must have some sense of how his or her organization compares to peer organizations, or how its identity is being positively advanced. As employees may be in a position to actively shape the organization's identity, their pride in the organization is intimately tied to the organization's identity. To the extent members positively influence an organization’s identity, they may view themselves as also enhancing its prospects for success, contributing to the members’ organizational pride (Arnett, Laverie, and McLane 2002). In other words, the identity-pride relationship may, to a certain extent, be described as a positive feedback loop. Individuals who positively influence the identity of the organization may exhibit greater pride as a result of this enhanced identity, and may be eager to work toward further strengthening the organization’s identity as a consequence of their increased organizational pride.

Organizational Identification

The concept of identification is largely based on social identity theory, which posits that individuals classify themselves into social groups from which elements of their self-image are derived (Ashforth and Mael 1989; Tajfel 1982; Tajfel and Turner 1979, 1986). Organizational identification is closely linked to organizational identity—without a generally agreed upon organizational identity employees lack the necessary criterion for determining whether they identify with an organization (Frandsen 2012). In other words, organizational members must have an appreciation for the identity of their organization (and the attributes that compose that identity) before deciding whether or not they might identify with it. Organizational identification refers to how the relationship between a person and an organization manifests itself in the individual’s self-conception (Pratt 1998). When an individual consistently describes him- or herself in terms of a particular relationship, the association becomes a self-defining one (M. E. Brown 1969).

It is perhaps unsurprising that individuals tend to identify with organizations with which they are associated, particularly in cases of employer-employee relationships (Humphreys and Brown 2002). An organization may actively or passively stimulate thoughts and actions that are consistent with established objectives, thereby influencing the degree to which an individual identifies with the organization. Organizational identification may therefore be described as the process by which individual and organizational goals become more integrated (D. T. Hall, Schneider, and Nygren 1970).

Simon (1997, 284-85) argued that "a person identifies himself with a group when, in making a decision, he evaluates the several alternatives of choice in terms of their consequences for the specific group." He noted that an individual may identify with the broader organization and its "conservation" or with a particular organizational objective. In other words, identification entails some measure of deliberation over the ramifications of decisions affecting the group or organization (or function) with which one identifies. Simon (1997, 287-88) also enumerated three factors, or motives, that contribute to identification in public organizations: personal interest in the success of the organization, the application of private sector notions of job ownership, and limited focus on immediate values and goals. He argued that the first two motives will lead to identification with conservation of the organization, while the third will give rise to identification with organizational objectives (Simon 1997, 287-88)

While the decision making described by Simon (1997) clearly implies subsequent actions or behaviors, others have argued that organizational identification does not require that a person take action to further group or organizational goals. According to Ashforth and Mael (1989, 21), identification stipulates only that one is psychologically invested in the fate of the group. They argued that this condition is separate and distinct from both behavior and loyalty. Tajfel (1982, 2) maintained that group identification consists of two, and perhaps three, components: awareness of membership in the group (cognitive) and some value attached to this awareness (evaluative). The third potential component entail an "emotional investment in the awareness and evaluations" (Tajfel 1982, 2).

Pride in the organization has often been considered an element of organizational identification. One of the most frequently used identification measurement scales, the organizational identification questionnaire (OIQ; Cheney 1982), includes the following item: "I am proud to be an employee of [my organization]." Other identification scales have included similar items, such as "I feel proud to work for [my organization]" (Smidts, Pruyn, and van Riel 2001).

Organizational Commitment

While there is no consensus definition of organizational commitment (Buchanan 1974a; Meyer and Allen 1991), common themes have emerged as organizational theorists and researchers have attempted to explain, operationalize, and measure the construct. Organizational commitment is generally described in terms of a person's identification with and involvement in an organization (Buchanan 1974a, 1974b; Mowday, Porter, and Steers 1982; Mowday, Steers, and Porter 1979; O'Reilly and Chatman 1986; Porter et al. 1974). The construct is often characterized as having three central components (though these also differ slightly by author). One prominent characterization describes organizational commitment as (1) a durable belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values, (2) working hard on behalf of the organization, and (3) a desire to remain a member of the organization (Mowday, Porter, and Steers 1982; Mowday, Steers, and Porter 1979; Porter et al. 1974). Some have also noted that organizational commitment often exists within the context of an exchange relationship in which individuals trade their attachment for specified rewards or payment (March and Simon 1958).

Buchanan (1974a, 533) defined organizational commitment as “a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one’s role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth.” He also described organizational commitment as being comprised of three components: (1) *identification* with the goals, values, and mission of the organization; (2) *involvement* in one’s organizational duties and activities; and (3) *loyalty* to the organization (Buchanan 1974a, 1974b). O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) defined organizational commitment as an individual’s psychological attachment to the organization. These authors maintained that the psychological bond linking the individual and the organization is based on three forms of involvement: (1) *compliance*—involvement in exchange for extrinsic rewards; (2) *identification*—involvement owing to a desire for affiliation; and (3) *internalization*—involvement due to compatible organizational and individual values (O'Reilly and Chatman 1986, 492-93).

Some organizational theorists have distinguished between specific types of commitment. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982), for example, differentiated between *attitudinal* and *behavioral* commitment. The former term refers to how individuals think about their association with an organization and can be used interchangeably with organizational commitment, while the latter describes circumstances in which individuals are “locked into” an organization and the behavioral processes meant to address such situations (Mowday, Porter, and Steers 1982, 26-27).

Allen and Meyer (1990) argued that attitudinal (organizational) commitment can be further separated into three components: *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* commitment. Employees with affective commitment stay with an organization because they want to; individuals with continuance commitment stay because they need to; and, those with normative commitment remain with the organization because they feel they are obligated to do so (Meyer and Allen 1991, 67).

The organizational commitment literature stresses the importance of commitment to positive organizational behaviors and outcomes. As Balfour and Wechsler (1991, 355) noted, "a common element in this literature is the contention that higher levels of performance and productivity result when employees are committed to the organization, take pride in organizational membership, and believe in its goals and values." Empirical research has shown that commitment is also negatively associated with some undesirable organizational and individual behaviors such as employee turnover, diminished performance, absenteeism, and tardiness (Reichers 1985). With respect to organizational commitment among managers, Buchanan (1974a, 533-34) argued that "the commitment of managers is essential for the survival and effectiveness of large work organizations because the fundamental responsibility of management is to maintain the organization in a state of health necessary to carry on its work."

Pride has long been considered a component of organizational commitment. There is some evidence, in fact, that organizational pride is the best predictor of commitment (Knoop 1994). Questionnaires have included a general measure of pride as a facet of organizational commitment for several decades. One of the most widely employed instruments measuring organizational commitment in the United States, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

(OCQ; Mowday, Steers, and Porter 1979; Porter et al. 1974), includes the item "I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization." O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) also incorporated this statement into their organizational commitment scale as one dimension of commitment. Buchanan (1974a, 1974b) uses a similar item—"I feel a sense of pride in working for this organization."—as one measure of identification in his three-part commitment scale. The British Organizational Commitment Scale (BOCS; Cook and Wall 1980) also includes a single item concerning pride: "I am quite proud to be able to tell people who it is I work for."

Given the importance of pride as a predictor of organizational commitment, it seems apparent that the two concepts are closely related. It is surprising, then, that organizational pride has not received more attention as an independent construct. One can speculate that organizational theorists and researchers have simply concluded that organizational pride is merely one element of the broader organizational commitment construct and, as such, is not worthy of further consideration. Some, however, have maintained that pride is deserving of greater attention. Knoop (1994, 201), for instance, argued that "since pride seems an important predictor of commitment, it needs to be examined more closely." It can be argued that pride in an organization merits greater investigation not only because of its importance in predicting organizational commitment, but also because of the potentially unique organizational insights that analyses of an independent pride construct might provide.

Organizational Reputation

Lange, Lee, and Dai (2011, 155) noted that the management literature generally conceptualizes organizational reputation as simply being known, being known for something, or as an overall assessment of favorability. They incorporate these related elements into a broad definition, stating that organizational reputation refers to the notion "that over time an organization can become well known, can accrue a generalized understanding in the minds of observers as to what it is known for, and can be judged favorably or unfavorably by it observers" (Lange, Lee, and Dai 2011, 154). In a review of the organizational reputation literature, Rindova et al. (2005) observed that definitions of organizational reputation have been largely shaped by two perspectives: economic and institutional. The economic perspective suggests that reputation describes evaluations of specific attributes whereas the institutional perspective defines organizational reputation as general knowledge or recognition of an organization (Rindova et al. 2005).

The definition of organizational reputation can be summarized as "the general perception of a given organization across stakeholders over time" (Wæraas and Byrkjeflot 2012, 189). More specifically, reputation can be conceptualized as the beliefs held by various constituencies about how an organization performs while pursuing its primary mission (Maor 2010; Maor, Gilad, and Bloom 2013). Carpenter (2010) identified four dimensions of organizational reputation: performative, moral, procedural, and technical. Respectively, these facets concern whether the organization is capable of performing its responsibilities competently, how it protects the interests of various stakeholders, how it follows accepted rules and procedures, and whether it possesses the necessary skills to carry out its duties, irrespective of actual performance (Carpenter and Krause 2012). Because of the infeasibility of promoting all aspects of their reputations, organizations are likely to prioritize only those dimensions that emphasize their particular strengths (Carpenter and Krause 2012).

Some management and marketing theorists have suggested that the term organizational reputation should be reserved for describing views held by external constituencies, as opposed to beliefs held by all stakeholders (T. J. Brown et al. 2006; Gioia, Schultz, and Corley 2000). This perspective allows for distinguishing reputation from other related concepts—particularly organizational identity—that may more accurately describe organizational members' perceptions (T. J. Brown et al. 2006). It also implies that it is predominantly insiders who are engaged in managing the organization's reputation as they seek to influence how their organization is viewed by outsiders. This process of reputation management involves "bridging the gap between a desired and an actual image of the organization" (Wæraas and Byrkjeflot 2012, 190).

The economic perspective suggests that reputation is based on several organizational characteristics or dimensions, such as credibility, reliability, responsibility, trustworthiness, and accountability (Carmeli and Freund 2002; Fombrun 1996; Petrick et al. 1999). These properties, among others, may be used as the bases for comparing and differentiating organizations. In practice, reputation can be appraised according to any attribute that serves to distinguish one organization from another (Deephouse and Carter 2005). Organizational reputation, then, represents external constituents' perceptions of certain organizational qualities or characteristics that are used to compare organizations over time. This perspective, however, does not discount the institutional position that reputation may simply refer to a general grasp or awareness of an organizations on which comparisons can also be based. As with organizational pride, an organization's reputation my ultimately depend upon stakeholder familiarity with the organization's identity, or its central, enduring, and distinctive characteristics (Albert and Whetten 1985; T. J. Brown et al. 2006).

There are manifest similarities between organizational reputation and pride. Each of these constructs clearly involves assessments of organizational attributes and/or general perceptions to form notions about the organization's identity. There are three key differences, however. First, organizational reputation describes views primarily held by external constituencies while pride in an organization may be expressed only by organizational affiliates such as employees. Second, organizational pride is an emotional or attitudinal response to an organization's identity, whereas reputation refers to observers' opinions or perceptions. While reputation may contribute to feelings of organizational pride (Helm 2013), it does not by itself connote any particular feelings. Finally, an organization's reputation may have a negative orientation, while organizational pride is a positive expression of admiration for an employer. While an organization may have a favorable or unfavorable reputation, pride in the organization is, by definition, a positive emotion or attitude.

Organizational Image

There is some debate concerning the definition of organizational image, as evidenced by the various descriptions and perspectives found in the extant literature (Gilpin 2010; Gioia, Schultz, and Corley 2000). Organizational image can refer to a mental representation of an organization generated through interpretations of disseminated information (Schuler 2004), or to an individual's subjective beliefs, attitudes, and impressions concerning organizational behaviors (Treadwell and Harrison 1994). The concept has also been described as occupying the space "where the projections of an organization meet its audiences, where symbols engage their viewers and texts encounter their readers" (Carpenter 2010, 26). Alternatively, organizational image can be defined as members' beliefs about how an organization is perceived by external constituencies (Dhalla 2007; Dutton and Dukerich 1991; Gioia, Schultz, and Corley 2000; Labianca et al. 2001), a description that has been labeled *construed external image* (Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail 1994).

Some marketing theorists have suggested that organizational image has two components: intended image and construed image (T. J. Brown et al. 2006). Intended image refers to managerial preferences for how an organization is viewed by various stakeholders, and may differ according to how management wishes the organization to be perceived by particular groups (T. J. Brown et al. 2006). For example, a government agency may portray itself to citizens as helpful and accessible while concurrently presenting itself to political leaders as impactful and efficient, with the clear potential for some degree of image overlap. Construed image, as noted above, refers to organizational insiders' beliefs about how others perceive the organization (T. J. Brown et al. 2006; Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail 1994). Respectively, these two facets of organizational image describe (1) how the organization wants external constituencies to perceive it and (2) how the organization believes it is viewed by others (T. J. Brown et al. 2006).

Treadwell and Harrison (1994) argued that organizational image is important to the functioning of organizations because it provides information that may serve to engender loyalty among both members and non-members. It also assists in the functioning and maintenance of the organization by promoting shared knowledge among members, allowing for greater coordination and joint action (Treadwell and Harrison 1994). These roles may be particularly salient when an organization confronts adverse circumstances that threaten to damage its image. Because an individual's self-image and character are closely linked to the image of the organization with which they are affiliated (Dutton and Dukerich 1991; Sutton and Callahan 1987), he or she is motivated to engage in behaviors meant to repair the organization's image in response to such crises (Dutton and Dukerich 1991; Kauffman 1997). This particular link between the individual and the organization is unique to the concept of organizational image, though related notions entail somewhat similar individual-organization connections.

Organizational image is intertwined with several corresponding concepts, particularly organizational identity (T. J. Brown et al. 2006; Dhalla 2007; Dutton and Dukerich 1991; Gioia, Schultz, and Corley 2000; Gioia and Thomas 1996; Ravasi and Schultz 2006; S. G. Scott and Lane 2000), identification (Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail 1994; Frandsen 2012), commitment (Treadwell and Harrison 1994), culture (Hatch and Schultz 1997; Ravasi and Schultz 2006), and reputation (T. J. Brown et al. 2006; Gilpin 2010). In large measure, organizational images are derived from an organization's identity (Parent and Foreman 2007), and both image and identity have been positively linked to strong organizational identification (Dukerich, Golden, and Shortell 2002; Lievens, Van Hoye, and Anseel 2007). Researchers have also shown that organizational images, especially similar images shared by organizational members, are associated with positive feelings of organizational commitment (Treadwell and Harrison 1994). Others have suggested that organizational image and organizational culture are interdependent, forming a reciprocal relationship in which the former is influenced by the latter and vice versa (Hatch and Schultz 1997; Ravasi and Schultz 2006). Finally, organizational image has been described as one element of a complex set of processes that determine an organization's reputation (Gilpin 2010). While image refers to organizational members' beliefs about how the organization is perceived by outsiders, organizational reputation describes the actual perceptions held by external constituencies (T. J. Brown et al. 2006). Although image and reputation are often used interchangeably in an organizational context, they are discrete concepts (Barnett, Jermier, and Lafferty 2006; Gilpin 2010).

Organizational image is also closely linked to, but distinct from, organizational pride. Indeed, organizational image has been cited as on potential source of pride in an organization (Gouthier and Rhein 2011; Schwyhart and Smith 1972). When employees express pride in their organizations, they are almost certainly taking into account their beliefs about what others think of their organization. Organizational pride may be amplified if an employee believes that others hold the organization in high regard. Conversely, pride in the organization may be moderated or damaged if an employee perceives that other constituencies have unfavorable views of the organization. If, for example, employees believe that their organization's clients have positive (or negative) opinions concerning the organization's performance or effectiveness, these beliefs are likely to be factored into employees' feelings of pride. Of course, such assessments do not necessarily determine the global level of organizational pride—employees may be proud of their organization even if they believe others view it negatively. Organizational image is, however, one potentially important factor in the evolution of employee pride in an organization.

Job Involvement

Job involvement has been conceptualized in various ways, indicating both a lack of definitional coherence and conceptual complexity (Saleh and Hosek 1976). Lodahl and Kejner (1965, 24) provided several definitions of job involvement, initially describing it as "the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self-image." They also defined involvement as "the internalization of values about the goodness of work or the importance of work in the worth of the person…" and "the degree to which a person's work performance affects his self-esteem (Lodahl and Kejner 1965, 24-25). Lawler and Hall (1970) suggested that the first definition is the most appropriate as it differentiates job involvement from Lawler's (1969) definition of intrinsic motivation and Vroom's (1962) definition of ego involvement. Kanungo (1979, 1982) agreed with the characterization of job involvement as a cognitive state of psychological identification, further clarifying that identification depends on the perceived potential of work to satisfy salient intrinsic and extrinsic needs.

Summarizing four conceptualizations found in the job involvement literature, Saleh and Hosek (1976, 215) concluded that an individual is job involved when work is a central life interest (Dubin 1956, 1968), there is active participation (Allport 1945; Vroom 1959, 1962; Wickert 1951), and when performance is perceived to be fundamentally linked to self-esteem and is consistent with one's concept of self (French and Kahn 1962; Vroom 1962, 1964). Based on a factor analysis of a 65-item job involvement questionnaire administered to undergraduate students (male and female) and a single insurance company's sales managers and representatives (all male), Saleh and Hosek (1976, 223) determined that job involvement encompasses three central components: identification with the job, active participation, and a strong link between performance and self-worth. Patchen (1970, 7) maintained that "where people are highly motivated, where they feel a sense of solidarity with the enterprise, and where they get a sense of pride from their work, we may speak of them as highly 'involved' in their jobs." He suggested that job involvement is "merely a convenient label to summarize several characteristics which make the job more important, more salient, and potentially more satisfying to the individual" (Patchen 1970, 7).

Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) noted that job involvement, among several alternative terms, has been used to describe either (a) the degree to which work performance affects self-esteem or (b) an element of self-image (i.e., psychological identification with one's work), concluding that the latter description has greater empirical support. They also identified three theoretical perspectives on job involvement. The first characterizes individuals as having different levels of job involvement based on work ethic and values concerning work. According to this view, differences in job involvement can be explained by personal circumstances. The second perspective stresses situational job factors that might influence the extent to which a person becomes involved in his or her job. This point of view emphasizes the organization's role in either inhibiting or encouraging employee involvement. The third perspective takes into consideration the roles of both individual and organizational (or situational) characteristics in determining an employee's job involvement. Several personal and organizational traits, as well as a number of work outcomes, have been empirically linked to job involvement (see Rabinowitz and Hall 1977 for a summary).

Researchers have also suggested that organizational pride is associated with job involvement. Buchanan (1975) indicated that pride is merely one component of job involvement. He included a single organizational pride measure—"I feel a sense of pride in working for this organization."—among more conventional items in his job involvement scale. This is ostensibly the only notable job involvement scale to incorporate an item measuring pride, and Buchanan (1975) offers no justification for its inclusion. He does, however, define job involvement as "the internalization of values about the goodness of work or the importance of work in the worth of the person" (Buchanan 1975, 432). Based on this definition, one can speculate that he deems organizational pride to be an influential factor in determining the extent to which work is considered worthwhile and important to an individual's self-worth.

Other researchers have empirically examined the relationship between the organizational pride and job involvement constructs. In a study of middle managers in a single company, Schwyhart and Smith (1972) found that job involvement was significantly related to company satisfaction, which was defined and operationalized as attitudinal pride in the organization. This finding would seem to suggest that an employee whose job positively influences his or her self-image will also be proud of the organization that employs them (Schwyhart and Smith 1972). Of course, job involvement in not a precondition of feeling pride in one's organization—employees who are not job involved may experience some degree of pride in their organization. However, any sense of organizational pride is likely to be strengthened when an individual also maintains a positive self-image as a result of constructive interactions with the organization. The relationship between job involvement and organizational pride, then, can be characterized in terms of potential pride enhancement as a consequence of a favorable self-image derived from personal work inclinations and positive organizational experiences.

Analyzing Organizational Pride

Despite the inclusion of pride items in several measures of related concepts and its clear relationship to others, researchers have paid comparatively little attention to organizational pride as an independent construct. Those who have attempted to analyze pride have done so using a variety of conceptualizations. Researchers have also tended to take significantly different approaches when operationalizing and measuring pride. Some have devised organizational pride scales while others have relied upon single-item measures.

Empirical Findings: Why Organizational Pride Matters

Although the number of empirical studies specifically addressing some form of organizational pride is rather limited, researchers in several fields and disciplines have undertaken efforts to investigate how pride in an organization or group influences members' attitudes and behaviors. Social psychologists in particular have made significant contributions to the study of group pride, often employing frameworks based on social identity theory or the group-value model to analyze pride in group membership and respect within groups.[5] As noted in the prior discussion of organizational identification, social identity theory suggests that some elements of an individual's self-image are derived from the social groups to which the person belongs (Ashforth and Mael 1989; Tajfel 1982; Tajfel and Turner 1979, 1986). The group-value model advances the notion that procedural justice (fair treatment and decision making) communicates information about members' social relationships with their groups and group authorities (Tyler, Degoey, and Smith 1996; Tyler and Lind 1992). The conveyed information indicates whether members can take pride in their group membership and whether they are respected within the group (Tyler, Degoey, and Smith 1996).

Tyler, Degoey, and Smith (1996) applied the group-value model in four related studies of procedural justice effects in the following groups: family, work, university, and nation. The

[5] Although respect within groups or organizations is frequently analyzed along with pride, these analyses are omitted from this discussion.

analysis of work organizations revealed that pride was positively related to several positive group-oriented behaviors. Specifically, the researchers found that pride was associated with rule compliance, extra-role behaviors such as staying late, and commitment to the organization. In a similar study, Smith and Tyler (1997) employed frameworks based on social identity theory and the group-value model to investigate how pride and respect affected self-esteem, behaviors among group members, and attitudes toward other groups. They conducted two corresponding studies of undergraduates at a large public university, finding in each case that pride in group membership was associated with collective self-esteem (i.e., self-worth based on one's social identity) and conforming group behaviors (e.g., rule compliance, attending all meetings, and attending optional functions). Smith and Tyler (1997) also found that greater pride in group membership was associated with less positive characterizations of other groups.

In each of these studies, the researchers devised indices to measure pride in group membership. Tyler, Degoey, and Smith (1996, 919) utilized a seven-item scale that contained three items regarding family membership and four pride measures concerning broader cases of group membership, including work organizations:

1. I am proud to think of myself as a member of this group.
2. It would be hard to find another group I would like as much to be a part of.
3. When someone praises my group's members, I feel it is a personal compliment to me.
4. I talk up my group to friends as a great group to be a part of.

Smith and Tyler (1997, 152) constructed an eight-item scale to measure related dimensions of group pride:

1. Would you feel good if you were described as a typical [ ]?

2. Is the position of [ ] in society something that concerns you deeply?
3. I am proud to tell my friends about [ ].
4. I often talk about [ ] as a great group.
5. I am a person who feels strong ties to [ ].
6. I am a person who makes excuses for being a [ ] (reversed).
7. I feel held back because I am a [ ] (reversed).
8. I would be proud to be identified as a [ ].

In a particularly relevant study of over 400 employees in a wide array of jobs and organizations, Tyler and Blader (2001) reported that organizational pride was related to a number of cooperative behaviors, attitudes, and values. In terms of employee behavior, pride was found to be positively related to mandatory rule compliance, discretionary rule compliance (or deference), and intentions to remain with the organization. Organizational pride was also found to be associated with positive work attitudes such as job satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, and affective commitment to the organization. The researchers also showed that pride in an organization had a positive influence on employee views of rule legitimacy (values). Finally, Tyler and Blader (2001) found that pride was a significant predictor of identification, which was described as the the extent to which employees defined themselves in terms of their organizational membership. They concluded that “pride appears to influence those aspects of behavior that are group-level and deal with people’s relationship to the group and group norms and values” (Tyler and Blader 2001, 222).

Tyler and Blader (2001, 215-16) created a nine-item scale to measure various aspects of organizational pride. The scale was comprised of the following items:

1. I feel proud to be working where I am.
2. I talk up where I work to my friends as a good place to work.
3. I would recommend to a close friend that they work where I do.

4. I feel that my work setting inspires me to do the very best job I can.
5. I cannot think of another setting in which I would rather work.
6. I agree with what my organization stands for.
7. I find that my values and the values where I work are very similar.
8. I am embarrassed to tell others where I work (reversed).
9. I disagree with many of the things that my organization stands for (reversed).

This scale is noteworthy because it includes items intended to measure responses to several *sources* of pride in the organization. These items—particularly the measures concerning an inspiring work setting, agreement or disagreement with what the organization stands for, and compatibility of individual and organizational values—required that the study participants consider some of the potential causes of their pride when indicating their feelings toward the organization. As a result, the scale has greater dimensionality relative to previous and succeeding organizational pride scales. As evidenced by the reported Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.85$), Tyler and Blader (2001) were able to construct a multidimensional scale without sacrificing internal consistency.

In a series of three subsequent studies, Tyler and Blader (2002, 833-36) used a range of pride measures to investigate the effects of *autonomous* and *comparative* pride on several group-oriented behaviors and organizational outcomes. Autonomous pride—a form of pride derived from assessments of representative group characteristics (Tyler and Blader 2002)—was found to have positive effects on collective self-esteem in each of the first two studies, consistent with the earlier findings reported by Smith and Tyler (1997). These analyses also showed that autonomous pride was positively associated with promoting behaviors, which are "individually initiated behaviors intended to benefit the group by helping the group achieve its goals" (Tyler and Blader 2002, 818). The first study also indicated that autonomous pride had a positive effect on limiting behaviors, which refer to “people’s willingness to act on the group’s behalf by refraining from behaviors that might damage the group, although they could potentially benefit the individual” (Tyler and Blader 2002, 818). Comparative pride—a positive consequence of group comparisons (Tyler and Blader 2002)—was not significantly related to any group-oriented behavior in either study.

In the third investigation, Tyler and Blader (2002) collected data from over 500 employees of a national financial services firm located in the U.S. They found that autonomous pride was a positive predictor of both promoting and limiting behaviors, identification, and intentions to remain with the organization. Comparative pride was positively related only to limiting behaviors. Tyler and Blader (2002) also identified procedural justice (i.e., fairness within the organization) and outcome favorability (i.e., the extent to which organizational decisions are favorable to the employee) as significant and positive predictors of both autonomous and comparative pride. These findings are especially germane because they are based on an analysis of employees in a work organization (whereas the first two studies utilized data collected from samples of undergraduates).

Boezeman and Ellemers (2007, 2008) modified three items from Tyler and Blader’s (2002) measure of autonomous pride in order to investigate the relationships between pride, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions among volunteers in charitable organizations. Their pride scale was comprised of the following items (Boezeman and Ellemers 2007, 777; 2008, 167):

1. I am proud to be a member of an organization with a charitable cause.
2. I am proud of being a member of [organization].

3. I feel good when people describe me as a typical volunteer.

In a series of three studies, these researchers found that pride in the volunteer organization had a positive impact on organizational commitment, which is congruous with the findings reported by Tyler, Degoey, and Smith (1996) and Tyler and Blader (2001). They also determined that pride was indirectly and positively associated with volunteers' intentions to remain with the organization (through organizational commitment). Finally, Boezeman and Ellemers (2007, 2008) found that the perceived importance of volunteer work was directly and positively related to pride in the volunteer organization.

In one of the first studies to explicitly examine *organizational* pride, Arnett, Laverie, and McLane (2002) employed a proprietary scale to investigate the antecedents and effects of organizational pride and job satisfaction in a single organization (one property of a hotel-casino corporation). They found that pride in the organization was significantly associated with positive employee behaviors such as commitment to customer service, cooperation with other employees, and commitment to the organization. They also reported that organizational pride was positively influenced by favorable employee evaluations of management, organizational performance, and job satisfaction. In other words, employees who had positive impressions of management, believed the organization was performing well, and were satisfied with their jobs had greater pride in the organization. Based on these findings, Arnett, Laverie, and McLane (2002) concluded that organizations should place greater emphasis on fostering and enhancing organizational pride among their employees.

In a study of organizational pride among customer service workers, Gouthier and Rhein (2011) examined the effects of both emotional and attitudinal organizational pride on commitment to customer service, creativity, and turnover intentions. They reported that emotional organizational pride had a positive impact on commitment to customer service and creativity, while attitudinal pride was positively associated with commitment to customer service and negatively related to turnover intentions. Emotional organizational pride was also found to have a positive influence on more durable organizational pride attitudes. These findings suggest that organizational pride is associated with at least some positive employee characteristics and may significantly reduce turnover.

Gouthier and Rhein (2011) developed two scales in order to measure emotional and attitudinal pride in an organization. The emotional pride scale is comprised of four items detailing potential emotional responses to a recent organizational success (Gouthier and Rhein 2011, 649):

1. In these moments I am happy to be a member of this organization.
2. In these moments I have a feeling of joy to be a part of this company.
3. In these moments I am proud of what the company has achieved.
4. In these moments I have the feeling that the company is doing something meaningful.

The attitudinal pride scale consists of three closely related items meant to indicate a more enduring form of pride (Gouthier and Rhein 2011, 649):

1. I feel proud to work for my company.
2. I feel proud to contribute to my company's success.
3. I feel proud to tell others for which company I am working.

As Gouthier and Rhein (2011) acknowledged, one limitation of their approach to measuring and testing organizational pride is the absence of any potential causal factors that might affect pride. This notable omission leaves one to speculate about how organizational characteristics, conditions, actions, and values might alter employee assessments of organizational pride.

Gouthier and Rhein's (2011) attitudinal pride measure was also employed by Kraemer and Gouthier (2014) in a study of organizational pride among call center employees. With regard to pride effects, these researchers found that pride in an organization significantly decreased turnover intentions. In addition, they identified three variables that had a positive influence on organizational pride: autonomy, supervisor consideration (i.e., recognition and appreciation), and team support. According to Kraemer and Gouthier (2014), each of these variables enhanced the organizational pride of employees. When they analyzed the sample by gender, the effects of autonomy and supervisor consideration on organizational pride were not significantly different between men and women. Team support, however, had a significant impact only on the organizational pride of women. They also found that the effect of supervisor consideration on organizational pride was stronger among employees with longer tenure, while team support had a greater impact on those who had been employed by the organization for a shorter period of time. With regard to the effect of autonomy on organizational pride, there was no significant difference between long-term employees and those with shorter tenures.

Other researchers have employed Gouthier and Rhein's (2011) attitudinal organizational pride scale to further explore potential connections between organizational pride and work-related variables. Mas-Machuca, Berbegal-Mirabent, and Alegre (2016) used the scale to investigate the relationships between work-life balance, organizational pride, and job satisfaction among employees in a pharmaceutical company located in Spain. They reported that autonomy and supervisor support were positive predictors of employee work-life balance and that work-life balance was positively associated with greater pride in the organization. Organizational pride was also found to fully mediate the relationship between work-life balance and job satisfaction. These findings suggest that managerial demonstrations of interest in the well-being of employees can heighten organizational pride, which may then increase overall job satisfaction (Mas-Machuca, Berbegal-Mirabent, and Alegre 2016, 596-97).

In another mediation study, Helm (2013) investigated the links between organizational reputation, employee pride in organizational membership, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. She reported that an organization's perceived external reputation was positively related to organizational pride and job satisfaction. She also found that pride in organizational membership was positively linked to job satisfaction and negatively associated with employee intentions to leave the organization. In addition, a mediation analysis showed that organizational pride and job satisfaction mediated the relationship between perceived external reputation and turnover intentions. According to Helm (2013, 551), these findings suggest that job satisfaction is more likely to reduce turnover if employees are proud of their organization. She also noted the need for additional organizational pride research using a multidimensional approach (Helm 2013, 553).

The findings discussed in this section indicate that pride in group and organizational membership is related to a number of cooperative behaviors and attitudes. Several significant antecedents of pride have also been identified. However, it seems that researchers have made no attempts to investigate potential organizational pride disparities between organizations in different sectors. Furthermore, the organizational pride literature ostensibly contains no empirical analyses of how undesirable or potentially detrimental organizational traits (such as red tape) might affect pride in the organization.

Hypotheses

The organizational attributes and values discussed in previous sections by no means exhaust the potential facets of organizational pride. They do, however, represent an attempt to establish the construct's varied dimensionality. Efforts to assess an employee's organizational pride are likely to be significantly enhanced when organizational traits and behaviors that might engender admiration are incorporated. Simply asking whether an individual is proud of his or her organization is insufficient. To some extent one must also consider organizational qualities that are conducive to pride. This dimensional approach to evaluating organizational pride among employees makes it possible to achieve a more comprehensive understanding of the policies and practices that are likely to engender pride. Empirical evidence suggests such insight is valuable, as instilling pride in employees can benefit organizations by strengthening commitment, increasing job satisfaction, reducing turnover, and promoting other desirable employee behaviors such as greater rule observance and cooperation. To the extent these represent organizational goals, gaining insight into organizational characteristics that foster pride in an organization is clearly important.

Hypothesis 3: Nonprofit managers have greater organizational pride than public managers.

Hypothesis 4a: Perceived organizational red tape has a negative effect on the organizational pride of public and nonprofit managers.

Hypothesis 4b: Perceived organizational red tape has a greater negative impact on the organizational pride of public managers relative to nonprofit managers.

Hypothesis 5a: Perceived personnel red tape has a negative effect on the organizational pride of public and nonprofit managers.

Hypothesis 5b: Perceived personnel red tape has a greater negative impact on the organizational pride of public managers relative to nonprofit managers.

Relative to public administrators, nonprofit managers are likely to express greater pride in their organizations. With respect to organizational quality and status, public managers may have more negative views of their organizations than nonprofit managers resulting from persistent criticisms of government in general and civil servants in particular (Gabris and Simo 1995; Goodsell 2004). Managers in the public sector may also be more averse to risk taking or reluctant to engage in innovative practices due to factors such as direct political oversight, public and media scrutiny, and limited financial incentives (see Rainey 1999 for a review of common assertions). Although nonprofit managers face many of the same impediments to innovation and may also exhibit some degree of risk aversion (Hull and Lio 2006), greater scrutiny of public sector organizations and their personnel is likely to make any tendency toward risk aversion more conspicuous.

This hypothesis is also supported by research indicating that public sector managers have less favorable work-related attitudes. Chen (2012), for example, found that public managers had lower job involvement, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment than nonprofit managers. To the extent these attitudes are related to organizational pride, one can reasonably expect public managers to report lower levels of pride in their organizations.

CHAPTER 4

WORK MOTIVATION

Although the term itself is rather ubiquitous, a comprehensive definition of work motivation has proved elusive. Pinder (2008, 10) notes that "there are, paradoxically, few singular definitions of motivation because there are so many aspects of it." As evidenced by the numerous ways in which it has been conceived and studied, theorists have had a difficult time adequately describing work motivation (Rainey 2001). Motivation in work settings has also been measured in a variety of ways, further indicating that an agreed upon conceptualization has been hard to achieve. Despite its conceptual complexity and the lack of definitional consensus (Rainey 2009), several important theoretical and empirical contributions have resulted in a greater understanding of work motivation and its fundamental qualities. These efforts have served to clarify what the term entails and its role in determining personal and organizational outcomes.

Because of its rather nebulous nature, work motivation has sometimes been used as a blanket term to refer to other work-related concepts such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Rainey 2009, 273). Attempts at describing the distinct characteristics of work motivation, however, demonstrate that there has been some definitional convergence. Simply defined, work motivation involves some internal stimulus that causes an individual to expend effort while engaged in a work-related undertaking. More formally, it may be described as "a set of energetic forces that originate from both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behavior and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration" (Latham and Pinder 2005, 486; Pinder 2008, 11). Other definitions characterize work motivation similarly, emphasizing degree of intensity or level of effort, direction of energy or choice of behavior, and persistence in maintaining the behavior (J. J. Campbell et al. 1970; Emmert and Taher 1992). These elements of motivation are also emphasized in organizational behavior and industrial-organizational psychology textbooks (e.g., Jex 2002; Schermerhorn et al. 2010; Spector 2006). Rainey (2001, 20) provides a concise definitional summary, writing that work motivation "refers to how much a person tries to work hard and work well—to the arousal, direction, and persistence of effort in work settings."

The general tone of these definitions allows for broad applications, leaving to the researchers or practitioner the task of determining what compulsions might initiate certain actions or behaviors at work. Wright (2001) takes issue with this lack of precision, claiming that the implication of such definitions is that they describe ends rather than means. He advocates a more applied approach to examining work motivation, proposing that the purpose of studying motivation at work is not to determine how individuals act but to learn how to motivate employees to perform tasks and duties mandated by an organization (Wright 2001, 560). One may argue, however, that in order to motivate workers to perform certain tasks, a general understanding of work motivation processes and the nature of the behaviors being motivated is essential. One might further argue that the preceding definitions do not preclude practical studies of the ways in which employees might be motivated to perform certain tasks or engage in desired behaviors. Of course, researchers need not rely solely on technical definitions of work motivation given the considerable theoretical development of the concept.

Miner (2003, 259) notes that “if one wishes to create a highly valid theory, which is also constructed with the purpose of enhanced usefulness in practice in mind, it would be best to look to motivation theories.” These theories are generally divided into two broad categories: content (or needs) theories and process theories (J. J. Campbell et al. 1970). Content theories are concerned with employees’ needs and motivations that result from attempts to fulfill these needs. From a management perspective, work motivation may be increased through attempts to address and satisfy the needs of employees (Jex 2002; Schermerhorn et al. 2010). Process theories address the cognitive processes that motivate employee behaviors (Rainey 2009; Schermerhorn et al. 2010). Unlike content theories, process theories are unconcerned with motivations derived from attempts to satisfy or fulfill various needs; they instead focus on understanding why and how individuals act in certain ways in response to certain stimuli. A brief review of some of the more influential theories of motivation to further clarify these differences and to explore various theoretical perspectives is useful.

Content Theories of Motivation

Needs Hierarchy Theory

One of the more prominent content theories is Maslow’s (1943, 1954) hierarchy of needs, which distinguishes between lower-order and higher-order needs. Lower-order needs include physiological, safety, and social needs, while higher-order needs consist of of esteem and self-actualization (see table 4.1). Needs situated at the lower end of the hierarchy motivate behaviors associated with obtaining sustenance, seeking freedom from danger, and giving and receiving affection. The needs occupying the hierarchy’s higher level motivate the pursuit of of self-

Table 4.1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Lower-order needs	Physiological	Basic biological needs such as food, water, and sleep. These needs dominate one's outlook if all other needs are left unsatisfied.
	Safety	Need for security, orderliness, and stability. These needs may be perceived in individual predilections for job and financial security.
	Social	Need for group belongingness and to give and receive love. Unsatisfied social needs are a principal cause of maladjustment.
Higher-order needs	Esteem	Desire for achievement, competence, confidence, independence, reputation and prestige, status, recognition, importance, and appreciation. In short, the need for respect and self-respect.
	Self-actualization	Need for self-fulfillment, or to realize one's potential (to become what one is capable of becoming). Harnessing and utilizing talents to the best of one's ability.

Source: Maslow (1943, 1954)

respect, status, and self-fulfillment through the utilization of ability and realization of potential. Maslow's (1943, 1954) hierarchy stipulates that the needs must be satisfied sequentially; that is, physiological needs must be satisfied before safety needs may emerge, and so on. More broadly, the lower-order needs must be satisfied before one can consider and gratify higher-order needs. The needs hierarchy suggests that an individual who is critically hungry, threatened with violence, or without friends is unlikely to envisage the gratification of respect and self-fulfillment needs.

Maslow (1954, 146-54) notes several distinctions between the higher and lower needs. Higher-order needs, for example, are distinguished by their emphasis on particularly human inclinations. Deprivation of these higher needs is also less critical because they do not imperil or isolate the individual. Satisfying these needs, however, engenders a more profound sense of happiness whereas gratification of lower-order needs merely brings about relief. This distinction is important to the application of Maslow's (1965) theory of motivation to management, where self-actualized workers are emphasized. He argues that Drucker's (1954) principles of management apply only to those self-actualized persons who occupy "the top of the hierarchy of human development" (Maslow 1965, 15). Different management principles are needed for individuals whose basic needs have not been satisfied—workers who fear potentialities such as unemployment or who are unable to identify with co-workers (Maslow 1965, 16).

While popular and influential among work motivation scholars, there is little evidence to support or refute the hierarchy of needs theory (Pinder 2008; Wahba and Bridwell 1976). Several researchers, however, have made attempts to test the validity of the theory in an organizational setting (e.g., D. T. Hall and Nougaim 1968; Ivancevich 1969; Pellegrin and Coates 1957; Porter 1961, 1962, 1963a, 1963b, 1963c). Porter (1961) investigated differences in perceived deficiencies in need fulfillment and need importance among lower- and mid-level managers. Employing the Need Satisfaction Questionnaire (NSQ; see table 4.2), he found that perceived need deficiencies were more frequently indicated by bottom-level managers, but that there was no difference between the two groups in the degree of importance they attached to the various needs. The need categories that most differentiated the management levels were security, esteem, and autonomy.

In several follow-up studies, Porter (1962, 1963a, 1963b, 1963c) utilized a larger sample to examine differences in need satisfaction and perceived need importance between five management levels: president, vice president, upper-middle, lower-middle, and lower. He again found that level of position was associated with perceived need fulfillment deficiencies and

Table 4.2: Porter's Need Satisfaction Questionnaire (NSQ)

Need category	Questionnaire item
1. Security needs	a. Feeling of security in the management position
2. Social needs	a. Opportunity the management position offers for helping other people b. Opportunity to develop close friendships in the management position
3. Esteem needs	a. Feeling of self-esteem a person gets from being in the management position b. Prestige associated with the management position, or the regard received from others, inside the organization c. Prestige of the management position, or the regard received from others, outside the organization
4. Autonomy needs	a. Authority associated with the management position b. Opportunity for independent thought and action provided by the management position c. Opportunity the management position provides for participation in the setting of goals d. Opportunity afforded by the management position for participation in the determination of methods and procedures
5. Self-actualization needs	a. Opportunity for personal growth and development in the management position b. Feeling of self-fulfillment a person gets from being in the management position, or the feeling of being able to use one's own unique capabilities and realizing one's potential c. Feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in the management position

Adapted from Porter (1961, 3)

perceived importance of needs. For each successive lower management level the need fulfillment deficiencies tended to increase for the esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization categories; however, no significant differences between management levels were found for the lower-order security and social needs. In terms of perceived importance of needs, Porter (1963a) found that higher-level managers considered autonomy and self-actualization needs to be more important relative to lower-level managers, though all five management levels tended to rate the importance of the five need categories similarly. Porter (1963c) also found that organization size played a role in need gratification, but the results differed according to management level. For the lower-level positions, smaller organizations were associated with a decrease in perceived need deprivation. However, greater need satisfaction was observed among managers in higher management positions (upper-middle and vice president) in larger organizations. Furthermore, organization size was not related to perceived need importance.

Comparisons of public and private sector managers have also found that perceived need fulfillment and need importance are associated with management position within a vertical hierarchy. In a study comparing commissioned and noncommissioned officers at an overseas Air Force Command with private sector managers, Porter and Mitchell (1967) found that the military personnel generally experienced less need satisfaction than their private sector counterparts.[6] The authors also concluded that hierarchical position was associated with perceptions of need fulfillment and satisfaction, just as it was for the private sector managers. That is, need satisfaction increased as rank increased.

Similar results were reported in other comparative studies of government and business managers. Paine, Carroll, and Leete (1966) found that the needs of government managers were less satisfied compared to the private managers in Porter's (1962) earlier study. The public managers also had more security need deficiencies than the business and industry managers. Rhinehart et al. (1969) provided additional support for these findings. They compared supervisors from the Veteran's Administration's Department of Medicine and Surgery with Porter's (1962) private sector managers and found that position within the management hierarchy correlated with need satisfaction for both samples. In other words, greater perceived need fulfillment was associated with higher levels of management authority. All management levels were deficient in the fulfillment of autonomy and self-actualization needs. The public managers, however, expressed greater overall need dissatisfaction than the business managers at all

[6] Brigadier generals and colonels were compared with vice presidents, lieutenant colonels and majors with upper-middle managers, and captains and lieutenants with lower-middle managers.

management levels. The government supervisors also indicated that the need for security was unfulfilled to a greater extent than the need for esteem, while the private sector managers experienced greater security need gratification versus esteem (Rhinehart et al. 1969).

Studies of need satisfaction have been extended to include the influence of international locus (Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter 1966; Ivancevich 1969). Utilizing the NSQ developed by Porter (1961) to investigate need satisfaction among American managers working outside the United States, Ivancevich (1969) found that managers occupying top-level positions perceived greater opportunities for fulfilling prestige and goal-setting needs than mid-level managers. Esteem and social needs were the most deprived. Ivancevich (1969) compared the results with those reported by Porter (1963c), showing that high- and mid-level managers generally experienced greater need satisfaction than their domestic peers. Autonomy and self-actualization needs were the least gratified for each management level in both domestic and foreign settings, which comports with Haire, Ghiselli, and Porter's (1966) earlier finding that satisfaction of these particular needs is generally deficient irrespective of location (Ivancevich 1969, 278).

Several authors have pointed out shortcomings of the NSQ. For instance, most of the items included in the NSQ pertain only to esteem and self-actualization needs (Wahba and Bridwell 1976). Researchers have also expressed concerns over response bias. As Wahba and Bridwell (1976, 216) observed, the questionnaire prompts respondents to rank need satisfaction and perceived need importance nearly simultaneously, resulting in a high correlation between gratification of the need and its importance. Low correlations among questionnaire items within the same need categories have also been cited as a weakness of the NSQ (Lawler and Suttle 1972). There have also been documented problems with the utilization and interpretation of deficiency scores (Cronbach and Furby 1970; Wall and Payne 1973). Some authors have raised concerns regarding a “psychological constraint” inherent in the NSQ. “In practice it is found that when subjects are asked to rate how much of a (desirable) characteristic is associated with their job and then to rate how much of that characteristic should be associated with their job, they rarely state that there should be less than there is” (Wall and Payne 1973, 323).

Perhaps because of the methodological limitations associated with the NSQ, organizational studies employing the questionnaire (or a modified version) and its constituent need items have provided little support for Maslow’s (1943, 1954) theory. As Mitchell and Moudgill (1976) illustrate, attempts at confirming the existence of the needs hierarchy by factor analyzing the NSQ items have been largely unsuccessful (see, for example, Herman and Hulin 1973; Payne 1970; Roberts, Walter, and Miles 1971; Schneider and Alderfer 1973; Waters and Roach 1973). The authors note, however, that the NSQ items have a certain degree of face validity and represent an adequate operationalization of the needs hierarchy (Mitchell and Moudgill 1976, 338). Indeed, in their need satisfaction study of accountants, engineers, and scientists, Mitchell and Moudgill (1976) factor analyzed a modified version of the NSQ and found that the obtained factors were consistent with the needs hierarchy categories.

Hall and Nougaim (1968, 14) observed that “one problem with inferring the existence of a need hierarchy from the study of deprived and satisfied groups is that selection, situational, or cultural factors, and not personality processes, may be affecting the result.” In a five year longitudinal study of 49 managers within a single organization (an AT&T operating company), these researchers found little support for the existence of a hierarchy of needs. Instead of finding that the gratification of lower-order needs results in the reduction of strength of the lower needs and a related increase in the strength of higher needs, their data demonstrated that satisfaction of the lower needs decreased for both successful and less successful managers. Hall and Nougaim (1968, 25) criticized earlier studies for inferring the strength of needs and satisfaction while omitting direct measures of these variables (excepting Porter 1962, 1963a). They note that previous conclusions regarding the strength and satisfactions of needs at different managerial levels have erroneously failed to consider the existence of managerial perspectives prior to taking their positions, instead attributing the findings to positions levels.

ERG Theory

Like Maslow's needs hierarchy, Alderfer's (1969, 1972) ERG theory posits that fundamental human needs serve as the bases for individual motivation. Rather than five classes of needs, however, ERG theory emphasizes three core need categories: existence needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs. Existence needs include all material and physiological needs such as food and water, as well as work-related pay, fringe benefits, and safe working conditions (Schneider and Alderfer 1973, 490). While existence needs are primarily characterized by the goal of satisfying material desires (Schneider and Alderfer 1973), another fundamental quality of these needs is that limited resources such as pecuniary rewards can be apportioned so that one person's satisfaction is another's disappointment (Alderfer 1969, 1972; Schneider and Alderfer 1973). "This property of existence needs frequently means that a person's (or group's) satisfaction, beyond a bare minimum, depends upon the comparison of what he gets with what others get in the same situation" (Alderfer 1969, 146; 1972, 9). Alderfer (1969, 146;

1972, 10) contends that such comparisons are limited to the allocated material rather than between the individuals or groups to whom these resources are distributed.

Relatedness needs pertain to the important relationships a person maintains with other key individuals and groups (Alderfer 1969, 1972). According to Alderfer (1969, 1972; Schneider and Alderfer 1973), relatedness needs are satisfied through a mutual process of sharing thoughts and feelings. “This process markedly distinguishes relatedness needs from existence needs because the process of satisfaction for existence needs prohibits mutuality” (Alderfer 1969, 146). Alderfer (1972, 11) explains that satisfying relatedness needs does not always entail the exchange of positive sentiments, as expressions of anger are also an essential part of meaningful relationships. Thus, frustration of relatedness needs does not necessarily lead to discontentment, but to feelings of dissociation or isolation (Alderfer 1969, 1972).

Growth needs refer to the development of an individual’s capabilities to effect positive personal and environmental change (Alderfer 1969, 1972; Schneider and Alderfer 1973). Alderfer (1969, 1972) maintains that these needs are satisfied when a person fully employs innate or acquired abilities to resolve problems. Problems (and the means by which they are solved) may vary according to the particular environmental settings with which a person must contend (Alderfer 1972). Addressing challenges in a work environment, for example, would likely require different capacities than resolving problems in a domestic setting. According to ERG theory, such problem-solving occasions represent opportunities for individuals to realize their full potential, leading to greater personal fulfillment (Alderfer 1969, 1972).

While the need categories stressed by ERG theory are similar to those found in Maslow’s needs hierarchy, there are clear differences in how certain needs are classified. Schneider and

Alderfer (1973) explain how the two theories differ in terms of their respective need categorizations. They note that existence needs correspond to Maslow's physiological needs, but also incorporate the threats to physical safety included in Maslow's safety needs category. According to Schneider and Alderfer (1973), relatedness needs combine elements of Maslow's safety, belongingness, and esteem categories. Specifically, relatedness needs refer to interpersonal threats to safety (e.g., verbal abuse), relationships with other individuals and groups (i.e., belongingness), and esteem from others. Finally, Schneider and Alderfer (1973) state that growth needs include esteem derived from competence or achievement and self-actualization.

In addition to the manifest difference in need categories, ERG theory diverges from Maslow's needs hierarchy in other important ways. According to Schermerhorn et al. (2010), ERG theory further distinguishes itself by (1) allowing for a frustration-regression process and (2) proposing that individuals may attempt to satisfy multiple needs simultaneously. Frustration-regression describes a situation in which a person reverts to more concrete needs when more indefinite needs are not satisfied.

Need for Achievement, Power, and Affiliation (Acquired Needs Theory)

McClelland's (1961, 1962) need for achievement, power, and affiliation (or acquired needs) theory emphasizes needs motivations that could be developed in the pursuit of achievement. McClelland and his colleagues used thematic apperception tests to elicit stories from participants, and these stories indicated the degree to which the participants were concerned with achieving. The need for achievement (nAch) pertains to a desire to do things better. The need for power (nPower) refers to the desire to act in accordance with one's own desires or influence the behavior of others. The need for affiliation (nAff) concerns the desire to maintain friendly relations with others (Miner 2005). The need for achievement is fostered in situations where individual effort is not constrained but encouraged, the risks of failure are relatively low, and there is expeditious and conclusive feedback regarding one's performance (McClelland 1962, 106; Miner 2005). The implications for management are fairly clear—managers who identify individuals with high achievement needs may motivate them by placing them in appropriate situations and providing them with opportunities to satisfy their aspirations.

Theory X and Theory Y

McGregor's (1957, 1960) theory X and theory Y contrasts two views of management. The first, theory X, posits that management must take control of directing and motivating employees because they are either unwilling or incapable of doing so themselves. Barring such managerial intervention, employees would seek to counteract and undermine organizational rules and procedures. The preferred view, according to McGregor (1957, 1960), is that of theory Y, which suggests that management should empower employees to direct their own activities and realize their own achievements. According to this perspective, employees have become unreceptive to organizational direction due to past experiences and the job of management is to ensure that the organizational environment fosters individual achievement by creating the conditions necessary for employees to attain their own goals through their own efforts.

Motivation-Hygiene (Two-Factor) Theory

Herzberg's (1966, 1968; Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman 1959) motivation-hygiene (or two-factor) theory posits that the factors responsible for producing job satisfaction and those that result in job dissatisfaction are distinct. Herzberg (1968, 57) claims that motivator factors—intrinsic factors that induce job satisfaction—are achievement, recognition for achievement, the work itself, responsibility, and growth or advancement. Hygiene factors—extrinsic factors that result in job dissatisfaction—include organizational policies and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status, and security.

Process Theories of Motivation

Equity Theory

Adams' (1963, 1965) equity theory of motivation describes a condition that results when job inputs or outcomes of one party (Person) are psychologically opposed to his or her perceptions of the inputs or outcomes of another (Other). Inequity results if Person is rewarded more or gives greater effort relative to Other, or if Person is rewarded less or puts forth less effort relative to Other. Depending on the ratio, either situation may result in perceived inequity that necessitates attempts at inequity reduction. That is, whether the resulting inequity favors Person or not, the perceived inequity will result in tension for Person. Based on Festinger's (1957) theory of cognitive dissonance, equity theory suggests that perceptions of inequity must be reduced in order to lessen the tension or discomfort that arises in an individual as a result of perceived inequity (Adams 1963, 427).

Expectancy Theory

Vroom's (1964, 17) expectancy theory is based on the notion that employee decisions are influenced not only by individual preferences, but also by employee perceptions of the probability that a particular outcome will be realized. A worker may have an expectancy that a particular behavior will result in a certain level of performance or effort. For instance, if one were to work harder then one might perceive the probability of increased performance to be high (approaching one). The worker may understand the instrumentality of the relationship between increased performance and a promotion to also be high (also approaching one). These outcomes have valence—the value attached to particular outcomes such as performance and certain rewards—for the employee. In some cases, valence may be negative. If, for example, a promotion is associated with moving to an undesirable location where the employee has no acquaintances or family, this outcome is likely to be viewed negatively. Vroom (1964) maintained that employees' decisions are motivated by such assessments.

Goal-Setting Theory

This theory involves the establishment of goals in pursuit of attaining some level of performance (Locke and Latham 1990, 2002; Locke et al. 1981). Locke and Latham (2002, 706-07) suggest that goals affect performance in four ways. First, goals serve to focus attention on relevant tasks and direct attention away from irrelevant activities. Second, setting high goals results in greater individual performance. Third, more difficult goals result in greater persistence in attempting to attain those goals. Fourth, setting goals results in the application of relevant knowledge and strategies to accomplish those goals. Managers who wish to increase employee motivation and task performance should consider establishing relatively difficult but attainable goals in order to focus employee attention and increase persistence and performance.

Analyzing Work Motivation

Research and Empirical Findings

Studies comparing motivation across employment sectors are well-represented in the management literature, though much of the available research emphasizes specific intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and no general work motivation. The lack of research on general work motivation is a reflection of the ambiguous nature of the term and concerns regarding its adequate and reliable measurement (Rainey 2009). Wright (2001, 2004) asserts that public administration scholars have been remiss in studying work motivation, even as practitioners have been disparaged for supposedly lacking motivation. He contends that a better understanding of motivation is essential if any defense is to be offered against such criticisms (Wright 2001, 560).

Researchers—particularly those in public management and administration—have tended to focus their efforts on specific sources of motivation that are more concretely defined, more easily measured, and more easily compared across sectors (relative to general work motivation). For example, several studies indicate that public sector employees are more likely to be motivated by opportunities to serve the public than members of private sector organizations (Bullock, Stritch, and Rainey 2015; Houston 2006; Lyons, Duxbury, and Higgins 2006; Rainey 1982). Other comparative analyses, however, have found few substantial sectoral differences with respect to public service motivation (Gabris and Simo 1995), or conclude that private sector managers have a greater service ethic than managers in public organizations (Buchanan 1975).

While these unexpected findings are noteworthy, the research showing few sectoral distinctions with respect to public service motivation tends to suffer from methodological problems such as small sample sizes or poor measures.

The findings are also mixed with respect to security motivations. Some researchers report that public sector employees are motivated by security concerns to a greater extent than those in private firms and nonprofit organizations (Grupp and Richards 1975; Houston 2000; Kilpatrick, Cummings, and Jennings 1964; Lewis and Frank 2002; Park and Word 2012), and that these differences can be partially attributed to greater risk aversion among public sector employees (Bellante and Link 1981). Others, however, have claimed that there are few significant differences between the sectors in terms of security motivations or risk aversion (Barton and Waldron 1978; Bozeman and Kingsley 1998; Gabris and Simo 1995; Jurkiewicz, Massey, and Brown 1998; Karl and Sutton 1998; Rainey 1982). Several researchers have even found that security is valued less in the public, nonprofit, and hybrid sectors relative to the private sector (Khojasteh 1993; Newstrom, Reif, and Monczka 1976; Rawls, Ullrich, and Nelson 1975; Wittmer 1991). These contradictory findings indicate that security motivations may not be exclusive to the public sector.

It has also been frequently claimed that public sector employees value monetary rewards to a lesser extent than those in business firms, and there is considerable evidence in support of this assumption (Alban-Metcalfe 1989; Buelens and Van den Broeck 2007; Frank and Lewis 2004; Houston 2000; Karl and Sutton 1998; Khojasteh 1993; Lewis and Frank 2002; Rainey 1982; Wittmer 1991). Rainey (1982, 297), however, cautions against overgeneralizing such findings, noting that “financial and other extrinsic rewards are highly valued by many public sector employees." Evidence indicating that financial rewards are valued similarly across sectors supports this contention (Gabris and Simo 1995; Lyons, Duxbury, and Higgins 2006). Park and Word (2012) found that public managers were motivated by financial interests to a greater extent than nonprofit managers, contradicting earlier findings by Rawls, Ullrich and Nelson (1975). It remains unclear whether the sectors truly differ with respect to financial motivations.

As noted, these studies do not directly address work motivation. Instead, they compare the sectors in terms of specific motivational factors. They do, however, illustrate that empirical analyses involving sectoral comparisons of motivation tend to focus on particular individual motives—values, needs, and reward preferences—not associated with any specific behavioral outcomes (Wright 2001). Wright (2001, 575) notes the lack of comparative analysis of general work motivation, arguing that researchers have generally failed to examine the effects of sector on work motivation. A few studies, however, have endeavored to compare general work motivation in the public and private sectors but have found no significant differences. In a study of middle managers in five public and four private organizations, Rainey (1983) found no statistically significant differences in several facets of work motivation (time dragging at work, doing extra work that is not required, and working hard) between the two sectors. Using similar questionnaire items to compare work motivation among public and private managers in metropolitan Atlanta, Baldwin (1984) also found only statistically insignificant differences between the two sectors.

These studies suggest that there is little difference in work motivation between public and private managers. Wright (2004, 2007), however, provides some evidence suggesting sectoral differences may exist. He explored how work context influences the work motivation of New

York State employees using a conceptualization and measure of work motivation similar to those employed by Rainey (1983) and Baldwin (1984), finding that much of the variance in work motivation among the sampled public employees was explained by job goal specificity, job goal difficulty, and self-efficacy. He also suggested that procedural constraints and organizational goal specificity have an indirect impact on work motivation through their effects on job goal specificity (Wright 2004, 71). These findings indicate that rule constraints and more ambiguous goals may negatively affect work motivation among public sector employees. To the extent public employees experience more rigid rules and unclear goals, they may be less inclined to expend effort at work.

While the body of evidence substantiating comparatively greater rule inflexibility in public organizations is rather convincing (Baldwin 1990; Bozeman and Bretschneider 1994; Coursey and Rainey 1990; Feeney and Rainey 2010; Lan and Rainey 1992; Rainey 1983; Rainey, Pandey, and Bozeman 1995), empirical studies of goal ambiguity have produced mixed results. Several researchers have found little or no difference between public and private organizations (Bozeman and Kingsley 1998; Lan and Rainey 1992; Rainey 1983). Baldwin (1987) determined that while public sector managers do experience less goal clarity then managers in business firms, sector proved to be a somewhat poor predictor. In a more recent study, Chun and Rainey (2005) analyzed organizational data obtained from the U.S. federal government using a multidimensional conception of goal ambiguity in federal agencies. They found that financial publicness—the degree to which an organization is funded by the government—was positively associated with three out of four dimensions of goal ambiguity in federal agencies, calling into question the conclusions reached in previous studies.

According to Wright (2004), ambiguous goals and rule inflexibility in public agencies may indirectly affect the work motivation of agency employees. The question with which the present study is concerned is whether there are differences in work motivation between public and nonprofit managers. Like public agencies, nonprofits are often characterized as having ambiguous goals (McGill and Wooten 1975). Multiple stockholders (e.g., political interests, board members, contributors and donors, project developers, communities, clients, employees, and volunteers) represent diverse demands that may give rise to goal conflict or confusion about who is responsible for setting goals (D. Campbell 2002). Goals may also be modified to satisfy donors (goal displacement) or adapted to new missions that contributors find more engaging (Ebrahim 2003; Froelich 1999). To the extent goal ambiguity plays a role in reducing work motivation, it seems the both the public and nonprofit sectors are susceptible.

While nonprofits contend with a considerable amount of goal ambiguity, they also have fewer rule constraints and less organizational red tape (C. A. Chen 2012; Feeney and Rainey 2010). Inasmuch as public organizations have more procedural constraints and red tape relative to nonprofits, Wright's (2004) proposition concerning work motivation implies that public administrators may be less motivated than nonprofit managers if public organizations also have ambiguous goals. However, Baldwin (1990) found no relationship between red tape and work motivation. Consequently, public managers may still exhibit high work motivation even as they contend with more rules and red tape.

There are ostensibly no public-nonprofit comparisons of general work motivation as it is conceptualized in Rainey (1983), Baldwin (1984), Wright (2004, 2007), and the present study. Additionally, the findings regarding sectoral differences in work motivation are somewhat equivocal, providing few indications of how work motivation among public and nonprofit managers may differ. The public service orientations of public and nonprofit managers may provide some insight. Wright (2007) found that mission valence influenced the work motivation of public managers by enhancing the degree to which they considered their jobs important. Given the comparable service missions of the public and nonprofit sectors and their similar public service motivations (Houston 2006), it is plausible that mission similarly influences the work motivation of nonprofit managers. Insofar as mission is associated with work motivation, managers in the two sectors may report similar levels of work motivation.

Hypotheses

The literature concerning sectoral differences in work motivation informs the first hypothesis listed below. The empirical findings regarding the effects of organizational and personnel red tape promote the remaining hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6: There is no statistically significant difference in general work motivation between public and nonprofit managers.

Hypothesis 7a: Perceived organizational red tape has a negative effect on the work motivation of public and nonprofit managers.

Hypothesis 7b: Perceived organizational red tape has a greater negative impact on the work motivation of public managers relative to nonprofit managers.

Hypothesis 8a: Perceived personnel red tape has a negative effect on the work motivation of public and nonprofit managers.

Hypothesis 8b: Perceived personnel red tape has a greater negative impact on the work motivation of public managers relative to nonprofit managers.

The findings related to sectoral differences in work motivation indicate that there are few, if any, differences between the public and private sectors in terms of work motivation. While there are no studies contrasting public and nonprofit organizations, the lack of a public-private distinction is instructive. The available evidence suggests that there is no detectable difference between public and nonprofit managers with respect to their work motivation. However, the findings concerning the effects of red tape suggest that organizational and personnel red tape will negatively impact work motivation. The findings related to sectoral differences in red tape perceptions also indicate that public managers will experience a greater negative effect on their work motivation.

CHAPTER 5

DATA AND VARIABLES

This research utilizes data from the third National Administrative Studies Project (NASP III) survey. According to the NASP III codebook, the survey was designed to examine the career histories and organizational views of public and nonprofit managers. Managers from Georgia and Illinois representing a range of agencies and organizations were surveyed, providing detailed information pertaining to job selection and general work motivations, work environment, job views, perceptions of rules and procedures, mentoring, and demographic characteristics. The NASP III questionnaire also gathered information regarding the civic and political activities of public and nonprofit managers. Because the survey instrument contains specific items concerning perceptions of organizational and personnel red tape, the data provide a unique opportunity to investigate the effects of these perceptions on public and nonprofit managers' organizational pride and work motivation.

The Georgia public sector population was derived from publicly accessible databases of state agency employees and Georgia job titles provided by the Georgia Department of Audits and Accounts and the Georgia Merit System, respectively. The survey researchers utilized job titles such as manager, director, and coordinator, in addition to pay grade information, to identify state managers. The resulting list included state employees with alternative job titles whose pay reflected managerial responsibilities. Employees of technical colleges, commissions, authorities, and employees working in the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of Georgia state

Table 5.1: NASP III Response Rates

	Surveyed			Responded			Response Rate (%)		
	Public	Nonprofit	Total	Public	Nonprofit	Total	Public	Nonprofit	Total
Georgia	914	274	1188	432	107	539	47.3	39.1	45.4
Illinois	936	1033	1969	358	323	681	38.2	31.3	34.6
Total	1850	1307	3157	790	430	1220	42.7	32.9	38.6

Source: National Administrative Studies Project III Codebook

government were excluded from the sampling frame. The Illinois public sector population was obtained through a Freedom of Information Act (FOIA) request submitted to the State of Illinois. The request yielded 5,461 employees classified as either public service administrators or senior public service administrators. Random samples of 1,000 managers were drawn from the populations from each state. Retirements and invalid mailing addresses resulted in reduced samples of 914 in Georgia and 936 in Illinois and a combined sample of 1,850 state managers (see table 5.1).

The population of nonprofit managers was procured from a private marketing firm which provided a list of members of the American Society of Association Executives (ASAE). The supplied list contained 280 nonprofit managers from Georgia and 1,048 from Illinois. The nonprofit managers comprising the list had varied job responsibilities, including sales and marketing, communications, public and government relations, president, and chief executive officer. Due to retirements and incorrect mailing addresses, the number of nonprofit managers from Georgia was subsequently reduced to 274 while the number of Illinois nonprofit managers was reduced to 1,033 managers. The combined number of nonprofit managers surveyed was 1,307.

A survey pretest was administered to 200 Georgia managers in April 2005 and pre-contact letters were mailed to public managers in both states in early July 2005. The survey of state administrators was administered in three waves beginning in July 2005 and ending in December 2005. The first wave resulted in 545 completed surveys, while the second and third waves generated 132 and 113 responses, respectively. The total number of surveys completed by public managers was 790, with 432 coming from Georgia and 358 from Illinois. Nonprofit managers were also surveyed in three waves beginning in September 2005 and ending in January 2006. As with the public manager survey, the majority of the nonprofit returns were collected from the first wave, which produced 266 responses. The second wave generated 72 returns and the third wave resulted in 92 completed surveys. The total number of surveys completed by nonprofit managers was 430, with 323 coming from Illinois and 107 from Georgia. As shown in table 5.1, there were a total of 1,220 total respondents to the survey, resulting in an overall response rate of 38.6 percent.

Dependent Variables

As noted in previous chapters, this research is primarily concerned with determining and comparing (across sectors) the effects of organizational and personnel red tape on two discrete constructs: *organizational pride* and *work motivation*. Each of these dependent variables is a summative scale composed of several distinguishable elements that represent constituent components of global concepts. The items included in the initial scales were based on conclusions drawn primarily from the pertinent literature and, to a limited degree, *a priori* assumptions about their connections to the broader concepts. Each of the components were then analyzed for fit and consistency, resulting in scale revisions that reflected the items' statistical relevance to the underlying constructs.

Organizational Pride

Although the NASP III survey instrument contains a single item concerning general pride derived from simply working for an organization ("I feel a sense of pride working for this organization."), the statement fails to capture the multifaceted nature of organizational pride. While employees may certainly experience and express an indistinct form of pride in their organizations, it is reasonable to expect that there are also specific sources or origins of pride in which the feeling is rooted. This premise motivated the development of an organizational pride measure that includes some portion of its elemental bases in addition to the overall feeling or notion. This preliminary scale included ten Likert items representing six facets of organizational pride:

1. General Sense of Pride
   - "I feel a sense of pride working for this organization."
2. Organizational Quality and Status
   - "I would rate the overall work quality being done in my organization as very good."
   - "Our clients seem quite satisfied with the performance of this organization."
3. Innovation and Risk Taking
   - "Innovation is one of the most important values in this organization."
   - "Employees in this organization are afraid to take risks." (reversed)
   - "Top management in this organization is afraid to take risks." (reversed)
4. Organizational Ethics
   - "This organization has high ethical standards."
5. Trust
   - "Top management displays a high level of trust in this organization's employees."
   - "I do not have enough authority to determine how to get my job done." (reversed)
6. Incentives
   - "There are incentives for me to work hard in my job."

The original NASP III researchers elicited responses to these items using a forced-choice Likert scale format (i.e., no neutral option was provided). Public and nonprofit managers responded to the series of statements by choosing one level of agreement from four options: strongly disagree, somewhat disagree, somewhat agree, or strongly agree.[7] Summing the individual items resulted in an initial scale that ranged from ten to forty, with a score of forty representing the highest level of organizational pride. Because of their negative phrasing, two of the items concerning innovation and risk taking and one trust item were reverse coded (these are clearly marked as "reversed" in the list above).

Determining the appropriateness of the scale items and the suitability of the overall scale for measuring organizational pride involved several different analytical approaches. First, the correlations between the individual scale items and the overall scale were examined to ascertain if any of the items were candidates for exclusion. An item analysis revealed that all of the items are highly correlated with the scale (see table 5.2). The correlation between perceived lack of authority and the overall scale, however, is notably weaker than the other item-scale correlations. This particular item is also not very highly correlated with the scale constructed from the other components, as evidenced by the item-rest correlation of 0.436. Furthermore, perceived lack of authority was the only item to result in an increased Cronbach's alpha when removed from the scale. However, the coefficient alpha was only marginally improved, increasing from 0.880 to 0.882. The alphas indicated that the organizational pride scale has a high level of internal reliability whether or not perceived lack of authority was included in the scale.

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[7] The responses were coded as follows: 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = somewhat disagree; 3 = somewhat agree; 4 = strongly agree.

Table 5.2. Initial Organizational Pride Scale Item Analysis

Questionnaire Item	*N*	Item-Test Correlation[a]	Item-Rest Correlation[b]	Inter-Item Covariance	Alpha[c]
General Pride					
Proud of working for organization	1209	0.746	0.681	0.331	0.864
Organizational Quality and Status					
Overall work quality very good	1209	0.722	0.656	0.336	0.866
Clients satisfied with org. performance	1193	0.671	0.592	0.340	0.869
Innovation and Risk Taking					
Innovation is an important org. value	1205	0.738	0.658	0.321	0.864
Employees afraid to take risks (r)	1201	0.651	0.561	0.339	0.871
Top management afraid to take risks (r)	1194	0.660	0.560	0.332	0.872
Organizational Ethics					
Organization has high ethical standards	1207	0.761	0.690	0.320	0.862
Trust					
Top management trusts employees	1201	0.787	0.713	0.308	0.859
Do not have enough authority (r)	1209	0.562	0.436	0.345	0.882
Incentives					
Incentives to work hard	1208	0.685	0.579	0.322	0.871
Test scale				0.329	0.880

Note: (r) = reversed
[a]Correlation with overall scale
[b]Correlation with scale constructed from other items
[c]Cronbach's alpha if item is removed from scale

Because the item analysis failed to provide a strong indication of whether perceived lack of authority measured the same underlying construct as the other items, the scale components were factor analyzed to further scrutinize the item's relationship to organizational pride. The results presented in table 5.3 show that perceived lack of authority is somewhat distinct from the other scale items. The one retained factor is least defined by perceived lack of authority, supporting the item analysis results and providing further indication that the item is a relatively poor fit. In addition, 72.3 percent of the item's variance is not shared with other elements comprising the organizational pride scale.

Table 5.3: Factor Analysis of Initial Organizational Pride Scale Items

Questionnaire Item	Rotated Factor Loadings[a]	Uniqueness	Scoring Coefficients[b]
Proud of working for organization	0.767	0.412	0.156
Overall work quality very good	0.743	0.448	0.151
Clients satisfied with org. performance	0.684	0.533	0.139
Innovation is important org. value	0.742	0.450	0.151
Employees afraid to take risks (r)	0.643	0.586	0.131
Top management afraid to take risks (r)	0.637	0.595	0.129
Organization has high ethical standards	0.777	0.397	0.158
Top management trusts employees	0.787	0.380	0.160
Do not have enough authority (r)	0.526	0.723	0.107
Incentives to work hard	0.670	0.551	0.136
Eigenvalue	4.925		
Variance Explained	0.493		

Note: Principal-component factor method with Kaiser normalization
[a]One factor retained
[b]Method = regression based on varimax rotated factors

Though there is theoretical support for including perceived lack of authority in the organizational pride scale as a component of trust, the statistical case for its removal was reasonably convincing. The possibility that the item is associated with a different latent construct could not be discounted. As discussed in chapter three, one could argue that a lack of authority is not necessarily perceived as a lack of trust by employees, particularly managers who are accustomed to constraints that limit the delegation of authority. Due to this uncertainty, the item was ultimately excluded from the organizational pride scale.

Analysis of the remaining organizational pride elements suggested that the potential scale items are closely related. All of the variables are significantly correlated ($p < 0.001$) and the relationships are generally strong. Table 5.4 shows that all of the correlation coefficients are

Table 5.4: Pairwise Correlation Matrix of Organizational Pride Items

Questionnaire Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
General Pride									
1. Proud of working for organization	1.000								
Organizational Quality and Status									
2. Overall work quality very good	0.604	1.000							
3. Clients satisfied with org. performance	0.485	0.518	1.000						
Innovation and Risk Taking									
4. Innovation is an important org. value	0.493	0.468	0.415	1.000					
5. Employees afraid to take risks (r)	0.345	0.392	0.377	0.472	1.000				
6. Top management afraid to take risks (r)	0.355	0.356	0.334	0.457	0.467	1.000			
Organizational Ethics									
7. Organization has high ethical standards	0.631	0.591	0.457	0.536	0.386	0.380	1.000		
Trust									
8. Top management trusts employees	0.547	0.501	0.515	0.528	0.448	0.494	0.572	1.000	
Incentives									
9. Incentives to work hard	0.474	0.410	0.389	0.485	0.359	0.363	0.472	0.480	1.000

Note: All are significant at the .001 level; (r) = reversed

above 0.3 (some are notably higher). As expected, the correlations between the general pride item and most of the other scale components are quite strong, with most of the coefficients approaching or exceeding 0.5 (the items concerning employee and top management risk-aversion are the exceptions). The correlations between components of the two multi-item facets are also quite strong. The two items defining organizational quality and status had a coefficient above 0.5, and the three elements of innovation and risk-taking have correlation coefficients only slightly below 0.5.

The reduced number of organizational pride variables were again factor analyzed in order to determine the strength of the factor loadings for each variable and to confirm the retention of one factor. An examination of the rotated factor loadings indicated that each of the items is strongly correlated with the latent organizational pride construct (see table 5.5). Five of the items

Table 5.5: Factor Analysis of Reduced Organizational Pride Scale Items

Questionnaire Item	Rotated Factor Loadings[a]	Uniqueness	Scoring Coefficients[b]
Proud of working for organization	0.768	0.410	0.164
Overall work quality very good	0.748	0.441	0.159
Clients satisfied with org. performance	0.688	0.526	0.147
Innovation is important org. value	0.750	0.437	0.160
Employees afraid to take risks (r)	0.642	0.589	0.137
Top management afraid to take risks (r)	0.632	0.601	0.135
Organization has high ethical standards	0.783	0.387	0.167
Top management trusts employees	0.789	0.377	0.168
Incentives to work hard	0.677	0.541	0.144
Eigenvalue	4.691		
Variance Explained	0.521		

Note: Principal-component factor method with Kaiser normalization
[a]One factor retained
[b]Method = regression based on varimax rotated factors

have factor loadings greater than 0.7, while the remaining four have loadings greater than 0.6. The level of trust in employees displayed by top management has the strongest association with the organizational pride construct, followed closely by the ethical standards exhibited by the organization. Pride derived from working for an organization, innovation as an important organizational value, and overall work quality were also highly related to the unobserved factor. Overall, the factor analysis suggested that the items are indeed defining multiple dimensions of a common factor, with the factor accounting for 52.1 percent of the total variance. This analysis provided additional evidence that inclusion of each of the items comprising the organizational pride scale is appropriate.

Further inspection of the nine scale items using Cattell's (1966) scree test suggested that they were likely associated with only one factor. The eigenvalues of the factors were plotted to allow for a visual examination of the relative importance of each of the factors. The scree plot shown in figure 5.1 demonstrates that the amount of the total variance explained levels off considerably after the first factor, which has an eigenvalue of 4.69. There appears to be a slight downward bend after factor two (eigenvalue = 0.89) before the curve further levels off at factor three (eigenvalue = 0.66), potentially indicating that there is a second latent factor with which at least some of the organizational pride items might be associated. However, the difference in the amount of variance explained by factors one and two (difference in eigenvalues = 3.80) suggests that the scale items very likely describe only factor one. In other words, the curve appears to sufficiently flatten at the factor two "elbow."

Because the interpretation of the scree plot proved somewhat problematic, the commonly used Kasier-Guttman (or simply Kasier) criterion was applied to the eigenvalues (Guttman 1954;

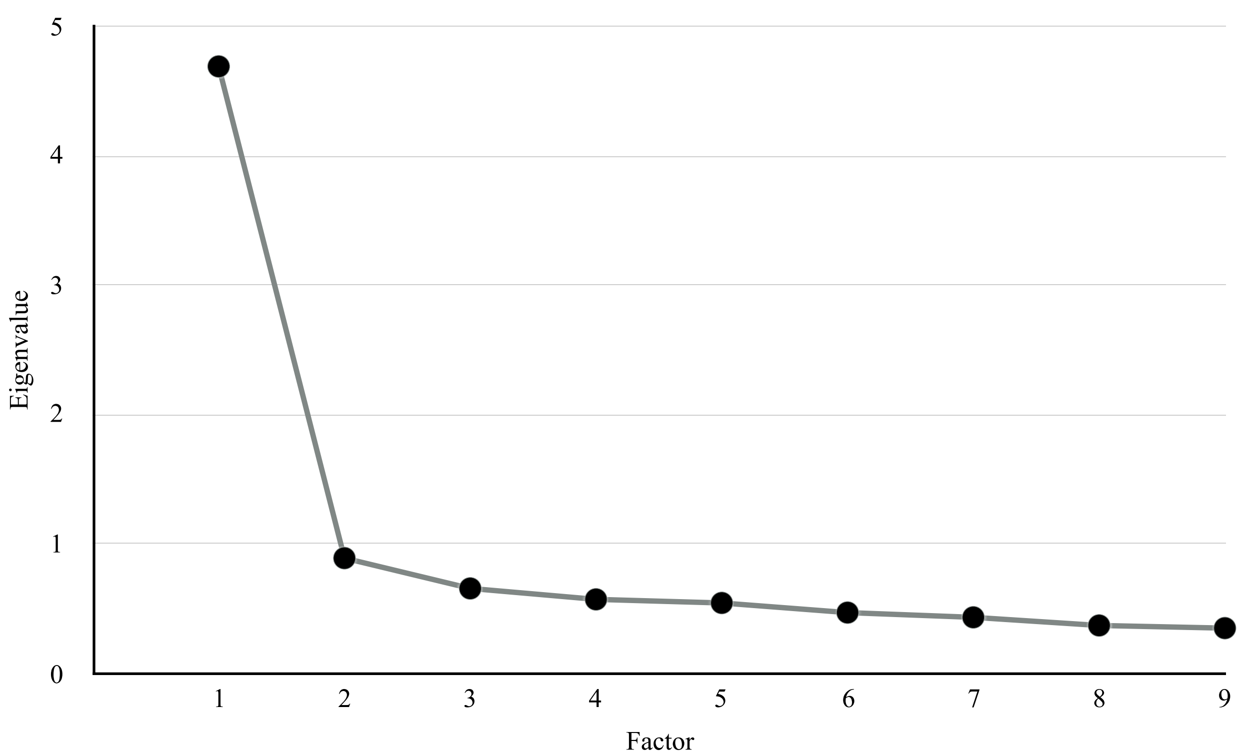

Figure 5.1: Global Organizational Pride Factor Scree Plot

Kaiser 1960). The rule recommends retaining only those factors with eigenvalues greater than one. A simple rationale for utilizing the Kaiser-Guttman criterion is that a factor could be considered to be relatively unimportant if it accounts for less variance than a single variable (Cliff 1988). Application of the rule indicated that only one factor should be retained since the eigenvalue for factor two fell below the threshold. This provided further indication that the retention of only one factor was appropriate.

Analysis of the components defining organizational pride determined that they were likely describing one latent construct, and that there were statistical grounds for incorporating each of the nine elements into the scale. The items are sufficiently correlated with one another and with the overall scale, as determined by the item analysis and an examination of the factor loadings. Based on these results, the organizational pride scale was deemed acceptable and finalized.

Work Motivation

This scaled variable is similar to the job motivation measure developed by Patchen (1965), variants of which have been used in other empirical studies of work motivation (Baldwin 1984, 1990; Rainey 1983; Wright 2004, 2007). The scale is intended to measure multiple aspects of general work motivation, which can be broadly classified as level of effort (intensity), involvement, and, to a certain extent, persistence. These components are largely consistent with the generally accepted definition of work motivation and with work motivation scales utilized by other motivation researchers. The five defining questionnaire items used to construct the preliminary scale were selected based on their previous usage and relevance:

1. “I put forth my best effort to get the job done regardless of the difficulties.”
2. “I do extra work for my job that isn’t really expected of me.”
3. “Time seems to drag while I am on the job.” (reversed)
4. “It has been hard for me to get very involved in my current job.” (reversed)
5. “The most important things that happen to me involve my work.”

The surveyed managers were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the series of statements concerning their job views by selecting one of the following responses: strongly disagree, somewhat disagree, somewhat agree, or strongly agree. Summing the individual Likert items resulted in a scale ranging from five to twenty, with a score of twenty representing the highest level of work motivation. Items with negative phrasing were reverse coded, as indicated in the list above.

As with organizational pride, the preliminary work motivation scale was analyzed to ascertain if any of the initially included items should be excluded. The items were first examined to determine the strength of their associations with the overall scale. As shown in table 5.6, the scale as initially constructed had a relatively low level of internal consistency (Cronbach’s α =

Table 5.6: Initial Work Motivation Scale Item Analysis

Questionnaire Item	*N*	Item-Test Correlation[a]	Item-Rest Correlation[b]	Inter-Item Covariance	Alpha[c]
I put forth best effort regardless of difficulties	1209	0.485	0.355	0.149	0.562
I do extra work not expected of me	1208	0.596	0.290	0.120	0.565
Time seems to drag while I am on the job (r)	1206	0.730	0.484	0.082	0.446
Hard to get involved in my current job (r)	1208	0.711	0.477	0.088	0.456
Most important things involve my work	1206	0.582	0.230	0.129	0.612
Test scale				0.114	0.588

Note: (r) = reversed
[a]Individual item correlation with overall scale
[b]Individual item correlation with scale constructed from other items
[c]Cronbach’s alpha if individual item is removed from scale

0.59). The item analysis demonstrated that the scale's coefficient alpha could be marginally improved by removing the item concerning the centrality of work to one's life ("The most important things that happen to me involve my work."). While the relationship between this item and the overall scale was reasonably strong ($r = 0.582$), it was weakly correlated with a scale constructed from the other items ($r = 0.230$).

The five items were factor analyzed in order to establish the factor structure of the work motivation scale, and to determine whether the importance of work in an individual's life exhibited a high degree of uniqueness. One factor explaining 40.8 percent of the total variance was retained (see table 5.7). The work importance item had a factor loading of less than 0.5, indicating that it was only modestly associated with the underlying work motivation construct. In addition, over 80 percent of its variance was unshared with the other scale items. These results indicated that the work importance item described an insubstantial share of the work motivation construct. Excluding the item from an additional factor analysis resulted in one retained factor that explained a greater proportion of the total variance (48.4 percent).

Table 5.7: Factor Analysis of Work Motivation Items

Questionnaire Item	Rotated Factor Loadings[a]	Uniqueness	Scoring Coefficients[b]
I put forth best effort regardless of difficulties	0.613	0.624	0.301
I do extra work not expected of me	0.544	0.704	0.267
Time seems to drag while I am on the job (r)	0.768	0.410	0.377
Hard to get involved in my current job (r)	0.773	0.403	0.379
Most important things involve my work	0.422	0.822	0.207
Eigenvalue	2.037		
Variance Explained	0.408		

Note: Principal-component factor method with Kaiser normalization
[a]One factor retained
[b]Method = regression based on varimax rotated factors

The correlations among the five items show a similar pattern. Though all of the items were significantly correlated ($p < 0.001$), the relationships between work importance and the other scale items were comparatively weak (see table 5.8). The weakness of these relationships further indicated that while the item is associated with the other proposed elements of work motivation, it was unsuitable for inclusion in the scale. It is likely the case that the predominance of work-related concerns in an individual's life more accurately describes a related but distinct construct. Indeed, the item has typically been viewed as an element of job involvement (see, for example, Kanungo 1982; Lodahl and Kejner 1965; Saleh and Hosek 1976) and used in scales measuring that construct (e.g., Rainey 1983). Given the results of the factor and item analyses, and the rather weak theoretical case for its inclusion, the work importance item was dropped from the work motivation scale.

The reduced four-item scale has a marginally improved level of internal reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.61$), though it is still below the 0.7 cutoff often employed by researchers to determine scale acceptability. While some psychometricians have suggested that reliability alphas are unacceptable below the 0.7 level (Kline 2000), others have proposed that increased scale narrowness (i.e., greater homogeneity among scale items) might achieve higher reliability

Table 5.8: Pairwise Correlation Matrix of Work Motivation Items

Questionnaire Item	1	2	3	4	5
1. I put forth best effort regardless of difficulties	1.000				
2. I do extra work not expected of me	0.259	1.000			
3. Time seems to drag while I am on the job (r)	0.269	0.228	1.000		
4. Hard to get involved in my current job (r)	0.301	0.223	0.547	1.000	
5. Most important things involve my work	0.126	0.134	0.202	0.170	1.000

Note: All are significant at the .001 level; (r) = reversed coefficients at the expense of predictive power (Loevinger 1954). As scale items are more highly intercorrelated, the internal reliability of the scale increases; however, greater intercorrelation between scale items may inhibit measurement of distinct characteristics. Others have suggested that the typically recommended 0.7 cutoff for alpha is too often used to assume a valid measure. Schmitt (1996, 351) notes that as some researchers attain this level of internal reliability, “they then proceed to use the measure without further consideration of its dimensionality or construct validity.” He argues that a low alpha does not preclude validity, noting that a measure may have characteristics—sufficient coverage of a concept, for example—that make its usage desirable (Schmitt 1996, 352).

An additional concern with the work motivation scale is the potential presence of a ceiling effect, resulting in a censored distribution of responses that are clustered at the high end of the scale (indicating high work motivation; see figure 5.2). The ceiling effect and attendant negative skewness in this instance are likely manifestations of two measurement problems: (1) the inability of the work motivation scale to adequately capture the full range of responses, and (2) an apparent social desirability response bias. The first concern emerges when respondents’ choices for expressing some level of agreement with a statement are artificially limited by the available response options. Because a four-point scale was used to gauge managers’ agreement with statements related to work motivation, the precision with which managers could respond was severely limited. It is possible that some proportion of managers would have expressed an even greater level of agreement with statements concerning effort and involvement if given additional options. This might explain, at least in part, the grouping of responses at the upper limit of the distribution.

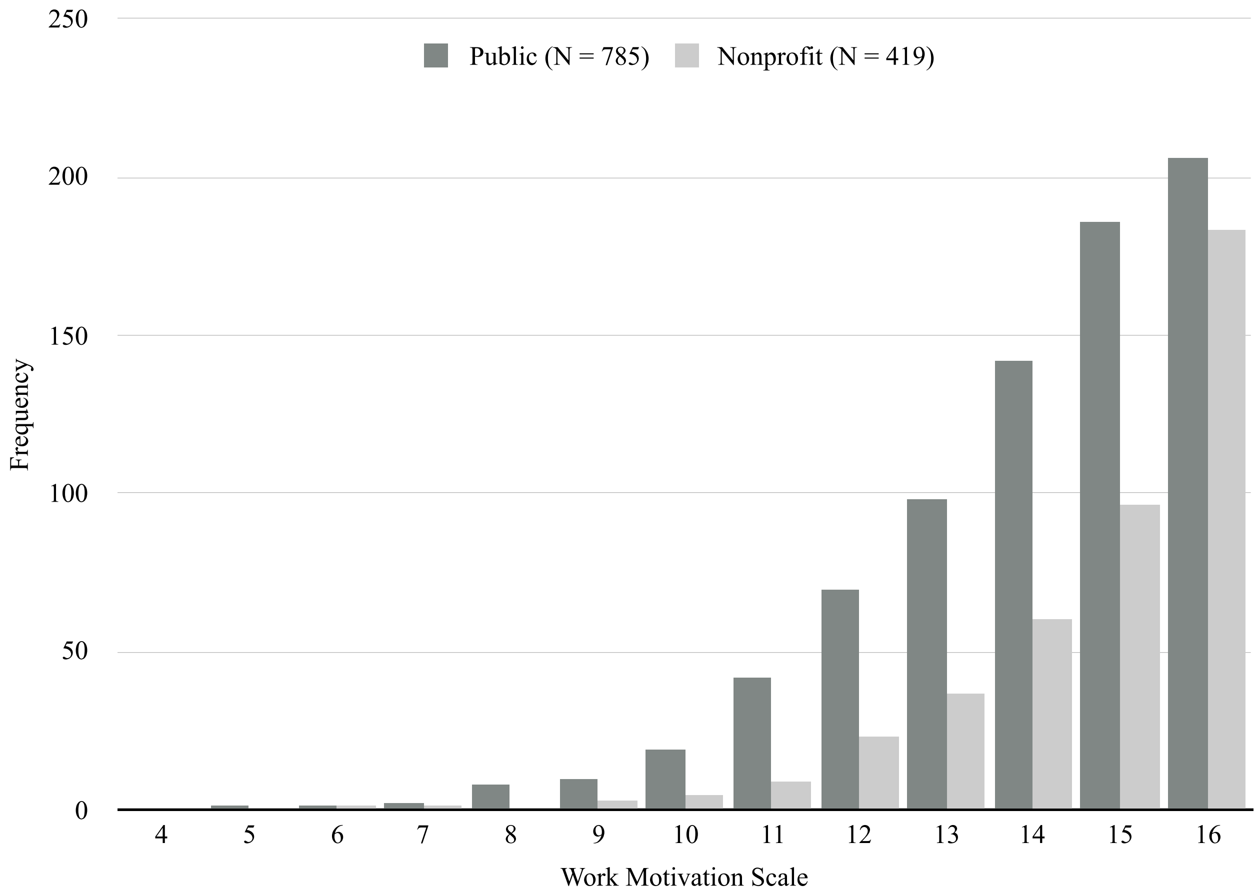

Figure 5.2: Work Motivation Scale Response Distribution for Public and Nonprofit Managers

The possible ceiling effect is also suggestive of social desirability response bias, which is characterized by the belief that approval and acceptance can be realized through behaviors that comport with cultural norms (Crowne and Marlowe 1964; Marlowe and Crowne 1961). The presence of this type of response bias is not particularly surprising given that the problem is endemic in the study of general work motivation—individuals are frequently inclined to respond favorably when asked about their level of effort at work (Rainey 2009). A likely explanation is that people often consider themselves to be industrious and want others to judge them similarly. This tendency is perhaps indicative of a societal emphasis on working hard and a fear of being viewed as indolent (Rainey 2001). As a result, responses to the work motivation scale items are concentrated at the top end of the scale representing the highest levels of effort and involvement. Irrespective of the cause, the potential ceiling effect and negative skewness of the work motivation distribution entail methodological challenges and may impede interpretation due to the inherent lack of variability.

One especially relevant issue arising from the asymmetry of the responses involves comparisons between individuals and groups. If the vast majority of respondents report that they put forth significant effort or work hard at their jobs, attempts at group comparisons may yield little useful information (Rainey 2009). The work motivation scale constructed for this analysis clearly illustrates the problem. Both public and nonprofit managers tended to express very positive views regarding their work effort and job involvement. The clustering of responses at the high end of the scale would seem to indicate that nearly all of the managers in the sample, regardless of sector, believe they are exceedingly hard working and involved in their jobs. Though it is conceivable that these responses reflect the broader population from which the sample was drawn, one simply cannot disregard the strong possibility that the clustered responses are a consequence of the limitations imposed by the measurement scale format and the social desirability bias associated with self-reports of work effort and job involvement.

Independent Variables

This research employs several variables as predictors and controls, though the variables included in each of the models differ slightly according to the dependent variable under consideration, the predictors of interest, and the theoretical bases for the models. Each of the general models—organizational and personnel red tape, organizational pride, and work motivation—incorporates slightly different controls depending on their conceptual relevance to the dependent variable. In this discussion of the independent variables, the model in which they are included is noted and briefly discussed. A more detailed consideration of these relationships is provided in chapter six.

Organizational Red Tape

This study employs the General Red Tape (GRT) Scale—a measure of perceived organizational red tape developed by Rainey, Pandey, and Bozeman (1995)—as both a dependent variable and a regressor. The scale has been widely utilized in empirical studies involving red tape as both an outcome and explanatory variable (see, for example, DeHart-Davis and Pandey 2005; Feeney and Bozeman 2009a; Feeney and Rainey 2010; Pandey and Kingsley 2000; P. G. Scott and Pandey 2005). The scale is used as a dependent variable in the present investigation to determine whether public and nonprofit managers perceive different levels of organizational red tape. This analysis represents a replication of previous research which found a significant difference between the two groups (see Feeney and Rainey 2010). This research, however, is primarily concerned with using the GRT Scale as an independent variable to predict levels of organizational pride and work motivation. It is an eleven-point scale ranging from zero ("Almost No Red Tape") to ten ("Great Deal of Red Tape") and appeared on the NASP III survey instrument as the sole response option to the following question: "If red tape is defined as 'burdensome administrative rules and procedures that have negative effects on the organization's effectiveness,' how would you assess the level of red tape in your organization?"

It is important to stress that the GRT Scale is a perceptual measure—it does not measure the actual amount of red tape that exists within an organization. As a result, any observed relationships or effects involving organizational red tape must be interpreted within the context of managers' perceptions. It would be inappropriate to suggest that red tape itself is associated with any observed changes in either of the dependent variables; any effects must be attributed to the level of *perceived* red tape. (Of course, this is also the case when perceived organizational red tape is used as a dependent variable—only changes in perceptions of red tape may be observed). Although the organizational red tape measure is a perceptual one and may introduce attendant biases (O'Reilly, Parlette, and Bloom 1980; Starbuck and Mezias 1996), its potential influence on organizational pride and work motivation should not be disregarded. Not only does the lack of archival data concerning organizational red tape necessitate reliance upon perceptual measures, one can argue that such measures are of equal importance to understanding work-related attitudes. Perceptions of red tape may very well influence the formation of other attitudes or perceptions that have significant implications for organizations.

Personnel Red Tape

The summative Personnel Red Tape (PRT) Scale is a measure commonly employed by red tape researchers (Bozeman and Feeney 2011). Indeed, some version of the measure has appeared in several previous empirical studies (see, for example, Brewer and Walker 2010a; Brewer and Walker 2010b; Feeney and Rainey 2010; Pandey and Moynihan 2006; Rainey 1983). The scale is intended to reflect managers' views of personnel rule inflexibility (or personnel constraints) by measuring perceptions of rules concerning performance-based promotions,

Table 5.9: Pairwise Correlation Matrix of Personnel Red Tape Items

Questionnaire Item	1	2	3
1. Promotions based on performance (r)	1.000		
2. Hard to remove a poor performer	0.306	1.000	
3. Hard to reward with higher pay	0.308	0.557	1.000

Note: All are significant at the .001 level; (r) = reversed

dismissal of poor-performing managers, and the provision of monetary rewards. The PRT Scale used in this research is composed of the following three Likert items:

1. "Because of the rules here, promotions are based mainly on performance." (reversed)
2. "Even if a manager is a poor performer, formal rules make it hard to remove him or her from the organization."
3. "The formal pay structures and rules make it hard to reward a good employee with higher pay here."

The surveyed managers indicated their level of agreement with these statements by selecting one of the following four options: strongly disagree, somewhat disagree, somewhat agree, or strongly agree. The correlation matrix presented in table 5.9 shows that the three dimensions of personnel red tape accounted for by this version of the PRT Scale are positively related and statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). The scale also has a sufficient level of internal reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.66$). An item analysis revealed that each of the items is strongly correlated with the overall scale ($r \geq 0.70$).

Nonprofit

While comparisons between the public and private sectors abound in the public administration literature, potential public-nonprofit distinctions have received far less attention.

Because the NASP III survey generated data from managers in both the public and nonprofit sectors, direct comparisons between the two groups are possible. For the purposes of this study, it was necessary to create a dichotomous variable (nonprofit = 1; public = 0) in order to test for any sector effects and to determine if the sectors differed significantly. The variable was used as a predictor in the organizational and personnel red tape models, and to control for sector effects on organizational pride and work motivation.

Controls

Several controls are included in each of the models. As each model differs to reflect the supposed influence of certain variables on the corresponding dependent variable, the controls in each model vary slightly. For example, the controls included in the organizational pride model differ from those in the work motivation model due to the assumption that each of these dependent variables is influenced by a different set of factors. While some controls are predicted to influence each of the dependent variables to some degree, others are included only in certain models as they are assumed to be relevant only to those dependent variables. In the discussion below, it is noted whether the control is included in all models or only certain models.

Job Selection Factors (All Models)

The NASP III questionnaire contains sixteen items concerning the factors that motivated managers to accept their positions in the organization at which they are currently employed. The respondents indicated each factor's degree of importance by selecting one of the four following responses for each item: very important, somewhat important, somewhat unimportant, or not important.[8] Because of their influence on reward expectancies (Lee and Wilkins 2011; Rainey 1982; Rainey, Traut, and Blunt 1986), job choice motivations are relevant to this research and are therefore incorporated into each of the models. To the extent decisions to reward managers are constrained in government agencies, careers in sectors promising fewer pecuniary restraints may be more attractive to prospective employees also considering employment in the public sector. Perceptions of red tape may be negatively influenced if rules are perceived as barriers to realizing expected rewards. Organizational pride and work motivation may also suffer as a result of unrealized work expectations. For instance, if monetary rewards are important to a manager and expected of an employer, a negative appraisal of such rewards may reduce organizational pride by indicating a lack of interest or caring on the part of the employer.

Many of the job selection items convey an underlying dimensionality, indicating that they are defining attributes of more general latent constructs. Thirteen of the items were factor analyzed to confirm four unobserved factors that explain 61.3 percent of the total variance. I named these factors *security*, *organizational culture*, *career advancement*, and *practical*. Table 5.10 displays the resulting factor loadings, demonstrating that motivations such as benefits, pension and retirement plans, and overall job security predominate the security motivations factor. The desire for less bureaucratic red tape characterizes organizational culture, while career advancement motivations are distinguished by opportunities for advancement and training. Practical motivations are characterized by low cost of living, opportunities for spouses or partners, and few alternative job offers. These factors are included in each of the specified

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[8] The Likert-type items were coded as follows: 4 = very important, 3 = somewhat important, 2 = somewhat unimportant, and 1 = not important.

Table 5.10: Rotated Factor Loadings Pattern Matrix for Job Acceptance Motivations

Job Acceptance Motivation	Security	Organizational Environment	Career Advancement	Practical Concerns
Benefits (medical, insurance)	0.843			
The organization’s pension or retirement plan	0.818			
Job security	0.734			
Desire for less bureaucratic red tape		0.802		
Desire for a low conflict work environment		0.746		
“Family friendly” policies (e.g., flexible work hours, parental leave)		0.610		
Overall quality and reputation of this organization		0.516		
Opportunity for training and career development			0.784	
Opportunity for advancement within the organization’s hierarchy			0.783	
Desire for increased responsibility			0.614	
Relatively low cost of living in the region				0.771
Employment opportunities for spouse or partner				0.750
Few, if any, alternative job offers				0.679
Eigenvalues	3.682	1.720	1.396	1.168
Cumulative Variance Explained	0.283	0.416	0.523	0.613

Note: Blanks represent loadings < 0.4 (absolute value); principal-component factor method with Kaiser normalization

models to control for job selection motivations that may influence perceptions of red tape, organizational pride and work motivation.

Public Service Motivation (All Models)

Another job selection variable included in each of the models is the ability to serve the public. Public service motivation (PSM) may be conceptualized as “an individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations” (Perry and Wise 1990, 368). While it has been suggested that public service employees may be distinguished by their interests in public policy and serving the public good (Perry 2000), public service motivation might be more appropriately described as a general public service orientation (Brewer, Selden, and Facer 2000; Bright 2008; Crewson 1997). Describing PSM in this way extends the concept beyond the public sector to individuals employed in the nonprofit and private sectors (Brewer and Selden 1998; Gabris and Simo 1995). Managers in nonprofit organizations may be particularly inclined toward public service as nonprofit missions often entail the provision of public services (e.g., healthcare-related services, education, and myriad social services).

The NASP III questionnaire addresses PSM with a single item that asks managers if the "ability to serve the public and public interest" was an important factor influencing their decisions to accept their jobs. Respondents selected one of the four following response options: very important, somewhat important, somewhat unimportant, or not important. Although the measure fails to address the multidimensional nature of public service motivation (Perry 1996, 1997), it is adequate for determining a general public service orientation. Including this variable controls for the potential influence of public service motives on organizational pride and work motivation, further isolating the effects of organizational and personnel red tape.

Financial Motivation (All Models)

The NASP III questionnaire also asks surveyed managers to indicate the importance of *salary* to their job selection decisions. There is evidence that managers in the public service sectors do not rate salary highly in terms of job values or motivation relative to private sector managers (Alban-Metcalfe 1989; Buelens and Van den Broeck 2007; Karl and Sutton 1998; Rainey, Backoff, and Levine 1976), though salary is likely to have at least some role in motivating career decisions among public and nonprofit managers. Jurkiewicz, Massey, and

Brown (1998, 235) find that public and private employees in both supervisory and nonsupervisory roles ranked “high salary” as an important job “want,” suggesting that those inclined to work in the public sector may be partially motivated by salary when deciding to accept a job.

Research suggests that salary has a role in work motivation and job satisfaction among public and nonprofit employees. Vinokur-Kaplan (1991) found that social workers in public agencies were more likely to cite salary as a factor contributing to their job satisfaction compared to nonprofit social workers. The latter group was more likely to claim that their salaries made them dissatisfied with their jobs. Although no salary comparisons were provided for the two sectors, the vast majority of those in the study earned annual salaries of less than $24,000. Exploring wage equity and its effect on worker motivation in nonprofit and private sector organizations, Leete (2000) determined that wage equity was more prevalent in the nonprofit sector and that equitable wages contributed to the maintenance of employee motivation in nonprofit organizations.

Georgia (All Models)

A state indicator variable (Georgia = 1; Illinois = 0) is incorporated into each of the research models to account for the effects of state differences on organizational pride and work motivation. Given Georgia’s status as a “right to work” state and the strength of public sector labor unions in Illinois, there are likely to be significant differences between managers in these states. Civil service reforms established at-will employment in Georgia in the mid-1990s (Battaglio and Condrey 2006; Kellough and Nigro 2006), removing merit system protections

(Facer 1998; Kellough and Nigro 2002; Nigro and Kellough 2000) and emphasizing a more business-like approach to personnel management. Pay-for-performance strategies and the lack of merit system protections may serve to diminish both organizational pride and work motivation among state employees in Georgia (Battaglio 2010; Battaglio and Condrey 2009), whereas these concerns are likely to be less prevalent among state workers in Illinois, where public sector labor unions remain strong actively advocate for government employees.

Organization Size (Red Tape Models)

Larger organizations have been associated with greater organizational hierarchy (Blau 1968) and increased structuring of activities (Pugh, Hickson, and Hinings 1969; Pugh et al. 1969). Unsurprisingly, greater organization size has been found to be positively correlated with perceived organizational and personnel red tape (Feeney and Rainey 2010; Pandey and Kingsley 2000). Research has also shown that greater organization size is negatively related to job satisfaction (Talacchi 1960). To control for potential effects on organizational pride and work motivation, organization size is included in the research models.

Promotion (Organizational Pride and Work Motivation Models)

This variable is included in the organizational pride and work motivation models to control for job attitudes associated with advancement within an organization. If a manager's current job represents a promotion, it is reasonable to assume that he or she will have a more positive outlook toward the job and organizational in general. There are a number of reasons why a promotion may result in unfavorable job perceptions, however. A manager may feel that the promotion is unwarranted or that he or she is otherwise undeserving relative to peers. This scenario may result in perceptions of inequitable treatment or outcomes, reducing job satisfaction and motivation (Adams 1963, 1965). A manager receiving a promotion may also feel overwhelmed by extra responsibilities or unprepared to assume additional duties, resulting in self-doubt with respect to managerial ability and leading to diminished self-efficacy.

Mentored (Organizational Pride Model)

Several studies have shown that mentoring relationships are associated with various positive individual and organizational outcomes. Researchers have found that mentored individuals have greater job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and job involvement than those who received no mentoring (T. D. Allen et al. 2004; Aryee and Chay 1994; Chao, Walz, and Gardner 1992; Eby et al. 2008; Underhill 2006; Whitely and Coetsier 1993). Others have found that constructive mentoring relationships are associated greater organizational commitment and with employee endorsement of organizational goals and values (Donaldson, Ensher, and Grant-Vallone 2000). While any effects on organizational pride are apparently not addressed in the mentoring literature, the extant research suggests that mentoring may influence several related work-related attitudes and emotions. Due to the likelihood that it may affect the pride that managers have in their organizations, mentoring is included as a control in the organizational pride model.

Amount of Supervision (Red Tape and Work Motivation Models)

Some researchers have found that closeness of supervision was positively related to job satisfaction and other positive work-related attitudes (Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1976; Dubinsky, Yammarino, and Jolson 1994). Others have suggested that close supervision was distressing and indicative of oppressive working conditions (M. L. Kohn and Schooler 1982). These findings suggest that whether a manager feels that he or she has too much or too little supervision may be associated with both perceptions of red tape and work motivation. Thus, a variable representing the amount of supervision perceived by managers is included in these models. Amount of supervision was measured using an eleven-point scale ranging from zero ("Not enough supervision) to ten ("Too much supervision"). A selection of five on the scale indicates that a manager feels that he or she has the "Right amount" of supervision.

Civic Engagement (Work Motivation Model)

A scale of *civic engagement*, constructed using managers' indications of political and civic participation, is included in the models to control for motivations and attitudes reflected in community participation. The scale includes items such as involvement or membership in professional associations, service organizations, homeowner's associations, sports leagues, religious institutions, and other organizations associated with a high level of community engagement. Research has shown that public managers with religious affiliations have more positive views of co-workers and their organizations, while those who are politically active have less positive views (Bozeman and Murdock 2007). There is also evidence that community involvement has a positive effect on job satisfaction (Iverson and Roy 1994). To the extent that civic engagement influences organizational views and attitudes toward work, inclusion of this scale controls for these effects on organizational pride and work motivation.

Demographic Controls (All Models)

In addition to the more substantive control variables noted above, each model includes controls for the effects of several demographic factors: *nonwhite*, *female*, *education*, and *age*. Although multiple racial identifications are reported in the NASP III data, race has been transformed into a dichotomous variable (nonwhite = 1; white = 0) due to the lack of respondents in most race categories. Education refers to the "highest formal level of education" obtained by the respondents. Age is included in the models to control for both linear and curvilinear effects on work attitudes and red tape. The literature has frequently shown that attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (and to some extent, work motivation) are positively associated with age (Rhodes 1983). As workers get older, they frequently express higher job satisfaction and greater commitment to their organizations. These findings indicate that age may also be related to organizational pride and work motivation.

CHAPTER 6

STATISTICAL MODELS AND METHODS

Three different conceptual models were devised in order to test the hypothesized relationships between perceived organizational and personnel red tape and (1) sector, (2) organizational pride, and (3) work motivation. The methodological approaches to testing the models are contingent upon the assumption that the dependent variables are interval in nature. More accurately, I assume an underlying interval quality to variables that appear to be ordinal. There is a continuing debate regarding the appropriateness of this assumption and the suitability of parametric statistical techniques for analyzing *prima facie* ordinal-level data. However, much of the disagreement regarding the application of parametric methods to Likert scale data emanates from common misconceptions regarding the use (and misuse) of Likert scales (Carifio and Perla 2008). A clear distinction can be drawn between the Likert scale response format and the resulting overall scale that measures some latent or underlying construct. The former is clearly meant as a data-gathering tool while the latter represents an unobserved multidimensional concept (Carifio and Perla 2007). A single Likert item is but one element of a broader measure of interrelated components.

Because much of this analysis makes use of Likert Scales (i.e., summative scales), there is a strong case for analyzing the relevant variables using parametric methods and, specifically, linear regression methods. Even in the one instance in which a single scaled item is used as a dependent variable (organizational red tape), the item exhibits interval properties in that there are rather clear indications of separate levels that demonstrate a consistent ordering and the adjacent levels (0 through 10) are intuitively known. However, given the current disputation, methods for analyzing ordinal data are utilized in conjunction with more traditional linear approaches when appropriate.

Organizational and Personnel Red Tape Models

As illustrated in figure 6.1, each type of red tape (organizational and personnel) is estimated using the same set of variables in order to test the hypotheses concerning sectoral perceptions (*Hypotheses 1* and *2*). As noted in chapter five, organizational red tape is measured using the General Red Tape (GRT) Scale, while the PRT Scale is comprised of three individual

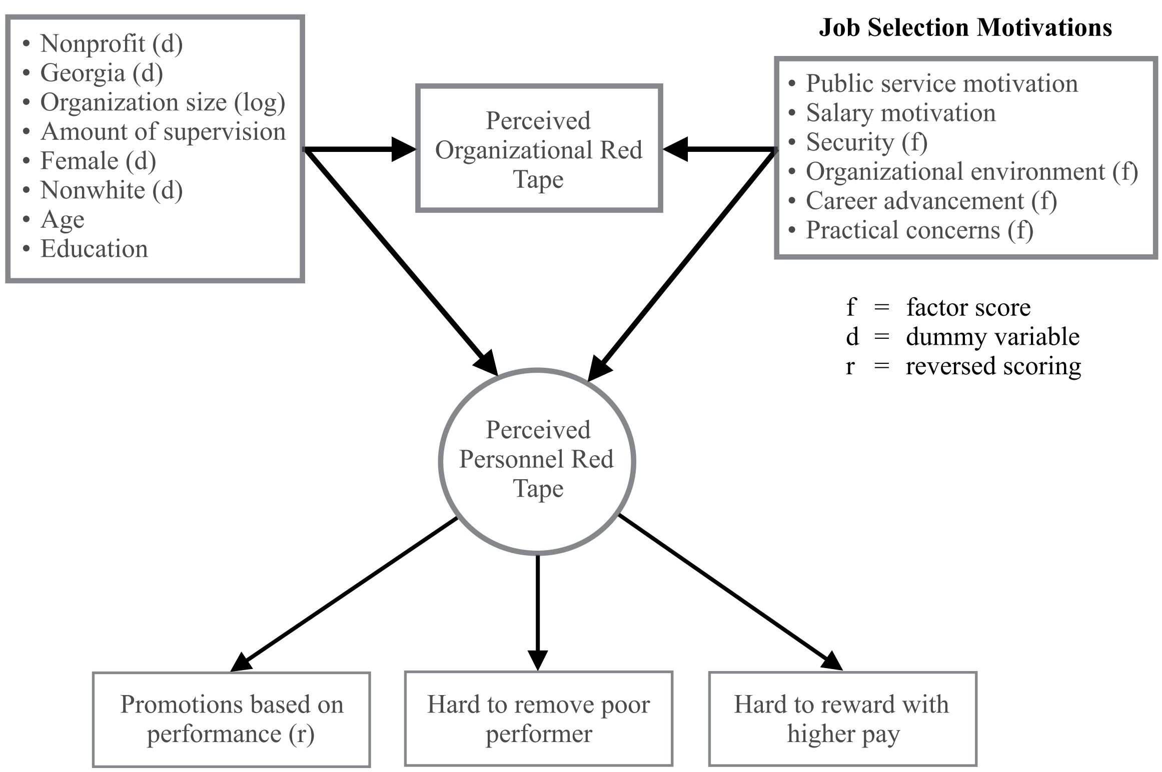

Figure 6.1: Organizational/Personnel Red Tape Model

items measuring multiple perceptual dimensions of personnel red tape. These models allow for testing the effects of sector on perceived organizational and personnel red tape and determining the magnitude of the differences between public and nonprofit managers. Although no relationships are explicitly hypothesized, these models also test for any relationships between job acceptance motivations and perceived red tape. The relationships between organization size and perceived organizational and personnel red tape are also tested. In addition to controlling for any differences among managers from Georgia and Illinois, managers' perceived amount of supervision is included to control for any influence these perceptions may have on the degree of red tape discerned by public and nonprofit managers.

Although they are somewhat different, these models largely represent replications of previous efforts to determine sectoral differences in perceptions of organizational red tape and personnel rule inflexibility (see Feeney and Rainey 2010). While this research is primarily concerned with determining the impact of red tape on managers' organizational pride and work motivation, it is prudent to first ascertain whether public and nonprofit managers differ with respect to the amount of red tape they perceive within their organizations. These relationships may provide additional context for any work-related attitudes. If managers in different sectors have dissimilar experiences with red tape and express contrasting attitudes concerning their work and jobs, one might reason that the two perceptions are related and perhaps dependent upon one another. It would be shortsighted to consider managerial attitudes toward work without also investigating potentially differing perceptions of red tape when such data are available.

Analyzing the Effect of Sector on Perceptions of Red Tape

This analysis employs a multi-method approach to analyzing sectoral differences in perceived red tape. This enabled me to fully examine any differences between the sectors with respect to organizational and personnel red tape, determining both simple sectoral distinctions and magnitudes of differences. The first step involved conducting two-sample *t*-tests to determine if public and nonprofit managers expressed different perceptions of organizational and personnel red tape within their organizations. This initial exploratory step allowed me to conduct simple means comparisons between the two groups in order to establish if the managers' responses differed significantly. Comparisons of the group medians were also conducted in order to test the null hypothesis that the difference in the medians was equal to zero.

Next, I performed ordinary least squares (OLS) regressions. While the *t*-tests indicated if there were significant differences between public and nonprofit managers regarding their perceptions of red tape, the regression analyses made it possible to determine the magnitude of any differences. Using the sector indicator variable as a predictor of organizational and personnel red tape made it possible to determine the degree of change in perceived red tape resulting from managing in the nonprofit sector relative to the public sector. The use of linear regressions is consistent with the methods applied by previous researchers using the same data and similar red tape models. Ordered logit models were also employed.

Organizational Pride Model

This conceptual model was constructed to illustrate the hypothesized effects of organizational and personnel red tape (analyzed separately) on organizational pride. This model includes a number of variables controlling for job acceptance motivations, demographics, sector, and state. A dummy variable indicating whether a manager's current job represented a promotion is also included (promotion = 1; otherwise = 0). For the purposes of this analysis, a job was considered a promotion if the individual advanced from within his or her current organization, or if the job constituted a promotion from a previous position held in another organization. The models contain an additional binary variable representing the presence or absence of prior mentoring (mentored = 1; otherwise = 0).

As discussed in the previous chapter, organizational pride is a multidimensional construct defined by nine variables, which I categorized into six key facets (see figure 6.2). Four of the elements—general pride, ethics, trust, and incentives—represent single questionnaire items, while the other two—innovation and risk taking and organizational quality—categorize multiple items. Perceived risk aversion among top managers and employees and the impression that innovation is an important organizational value describe the innovation and risk taking facet, while overall quality and client satisfaction with organizational performance characterize the organizational quality facet. The conceptual model shows organizational pride as a latent construct defined by these components, and depicts the hypothesized relationships between organizational pride and the independent variables.

Analyzing the Effect of Red Tape on Organizational Pride

I used several statistical methods to determine if there were meaningful differences between the sectors with respect to organizational pride, and to estimate the impact of

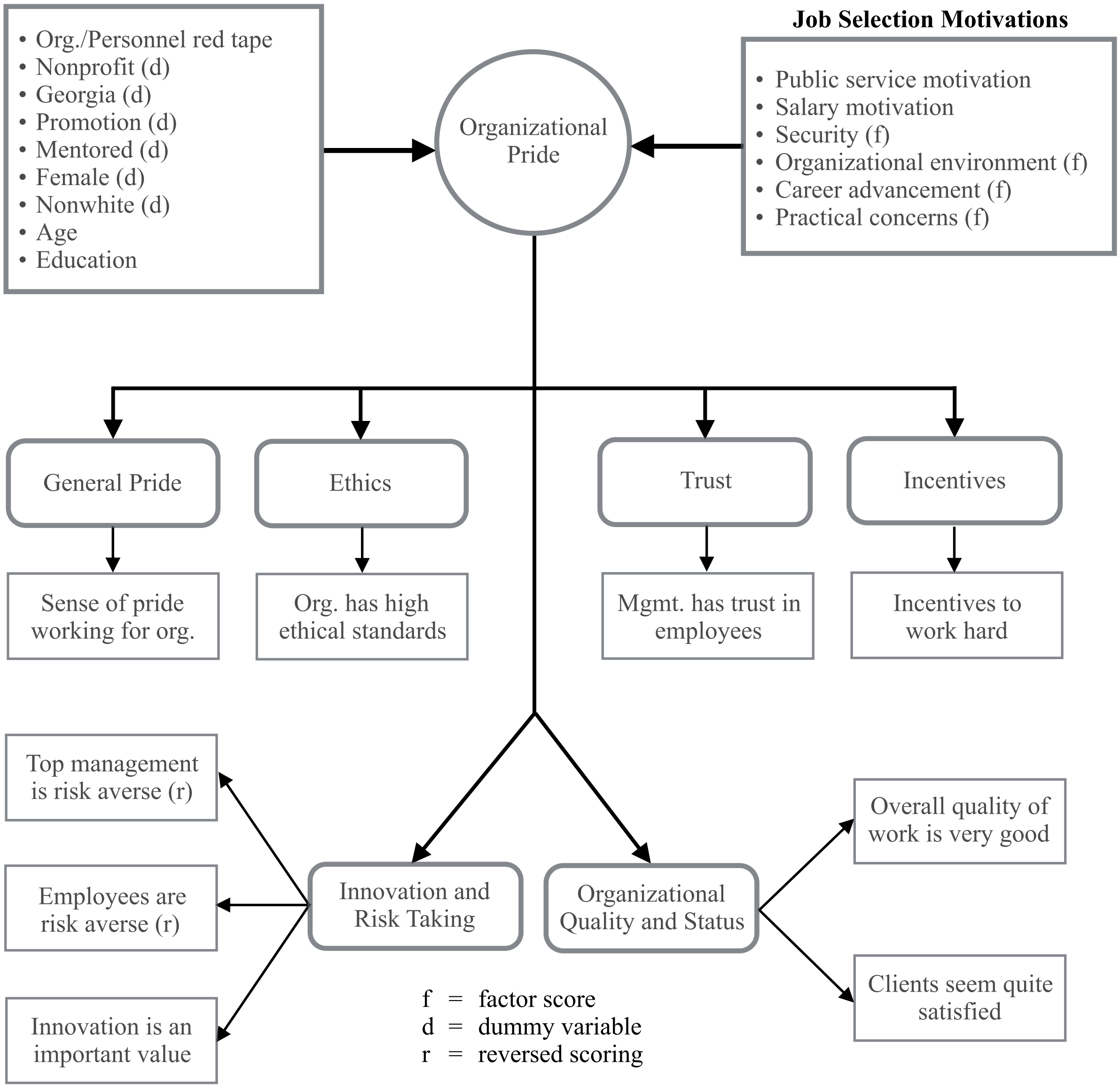

Figure 6.2: Organizational Pride Model

organizational and personnel red tape on organizational pride. First, *t*-tests were conducted to determine if public and nonprofit managers exhibited any statistically significant differences in their mean responses to the items comprising the organizational pride scale. This tested the hypothesis that nonprofit managers have higher levels of organizational pride than public managers (*Hypothesis 3*).

Next, I ran a series of OLS regressions to determine the impact of organizational and personnel red tape on managers' organizational pride (*Hypotheses 4a* and *5a*), and to ascertain the extent of any differences between public and nonprofit managers using the nonprofit indicator variable (*Hypotheses 4b* and *5b*). To further analyze the potential differences between the sectors concerning the effects of organizational and personnel red tape on organizational pride, I disaggregated the models by sector. This allowed me to compare the regression coefficients on the red tape variables between the two sectors.

Though the underlying dimensions of organizational pride are based on ordinal Likert items, the use of ordinary least squares to test these models is warranted due to the continuous nature of the additive scale. As noted in chapter three, summing the individual questionnaire items related to the organizational pride construct resulted in a scale that ranges from nine to thirty-six, thus the scale lends itself to analysis by linear regression.

Work Motivation Model

This model was designed to test the hypothesized relationships between work motivation and organizational and personnel red tape. Figure 6.3 depicts the expected effects of both forms of red tape controlling for several other factors. Most of the control variables included in the work motivation motivation model are also found in the model pertaining to organizational pride, as each construct represents an attitude or feeling toward an individual's job or organization. The work motivation model, for instance, includes controls for whether the job was a promotion, the amount of supervision perceived by the manager (also found in the red tape models), job selection motivations, sector, state, and for demographic factors such as gender, race, age, and level of education. The one distinguishing regressor found in the work motivation model measures the degree of managers' civic engagement, as greater participation in extra-organizational activities may indicate a high level of innate motivation.

The conceptual model depicted in figure 6.3 also details the four interrelated components of the unobserved work motivation construct. These elements can be broadly classified as effort and involvement. Putting forth one's best effort and performing beyond expectations describe effort, while involvement is characterized by the degree to which managers feel it has been hard to get involved in their jobs and how they perceive time on the job.

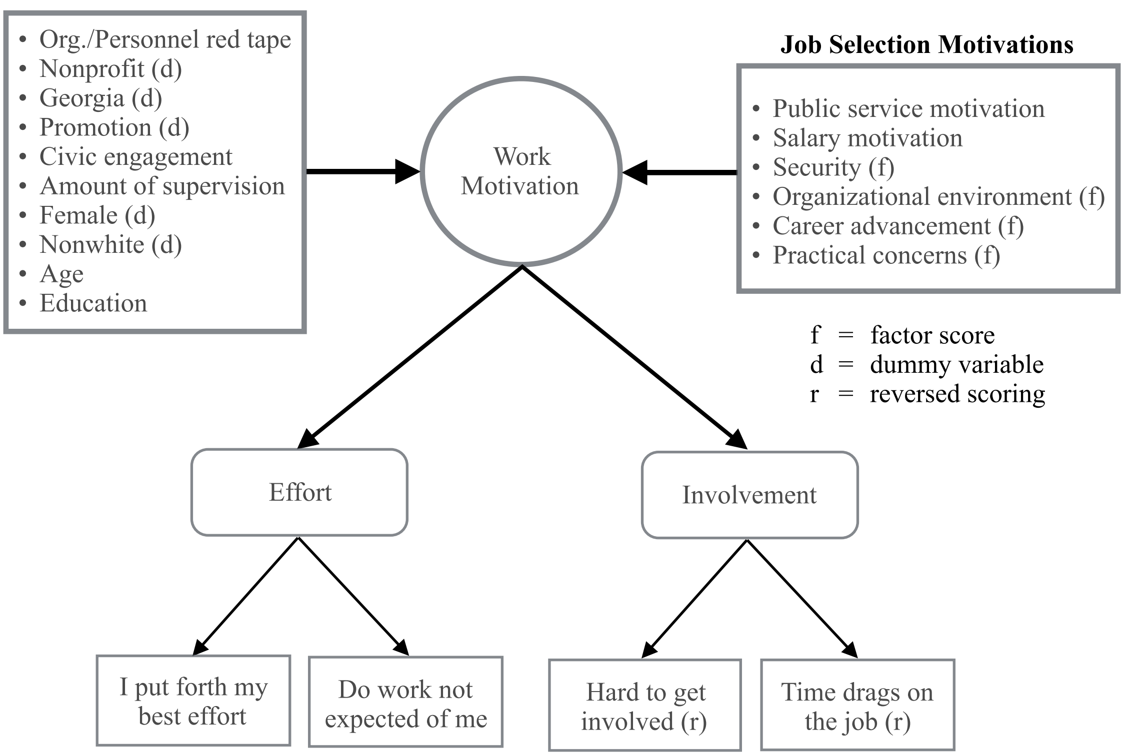

Figure 6.3: Work Motivation Model

Analyzing the Effect of Red Tape on Work Motivation

Analyzing work motivation required taking into account its negatively skewed and censored distribution. Due to the lack of variance in the responses, the majority of which were grouped at the high end of the scale, several methods were utilized to determine if there were any differences between public and nonprofit managers in terms of work motivation (*Hypothesis 6*), and to test for the effects of perceived organizational and personnel red tape (*Hypotheses 7a* and *8a*). The magnitude of the effects of organizational and personnel red tape on public and nonprofit managers' work motivation was also compared (*Hypotheses 7b* and *8b*). Two-sample *t-test*s were first performed for the individual items comprising the work motivation scale, and the for the scale itself, to compare the means between the two groups. Nonparametric alternatives were then employed to further investigate whether the groups differed in their responses. I performed OLS regressions to ascertain the effects of organizational and personnel red tape on work motivation. Tobit regressions were also conducted given the potentially censored distribution of the work motivation scale.

CHAPTER 7

ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERSONNEL RED TAPE: PERCEPTUAL DISPARITIES BETWEEN PUBLIC AND NONPROFIT MANAGERS

The research presented in this chapter entails multiple comparisons of public and nonprofit managers designed to determine whether the two groups perceive significantly different levels of red tape within their organizations. In addition to estimating the amount of perceived red tape by sector, this analysis includes comparisons by state and primary responsibility (managerial versus professional, technical, or other principal duty). These supplementary assessments test whether the results persist when managers are categorized differently. Though this research represents an attempt to reproduce Feeney and Rainey's (2010) study involving red tape and personnel flexibility among the same managers, it employs marginally different models to estimate public-nonprofit differences. The results of this replication provide the necessary context for interpreting the effects of red tape on organizational pride and work motivation described in subsequent chapters.

Sectoral Differences in Organizational Red Tape Perceptions

Perceived Organizational Red Tape by Sector

An initial mean comparison of the General Red Tape (GRT) Scale ratings suggests that perceptions of organizational red tape among public and nonprofit managers are markedly different. Specifically, a two-sample *t*-test indicates that nonprofit managers perceive

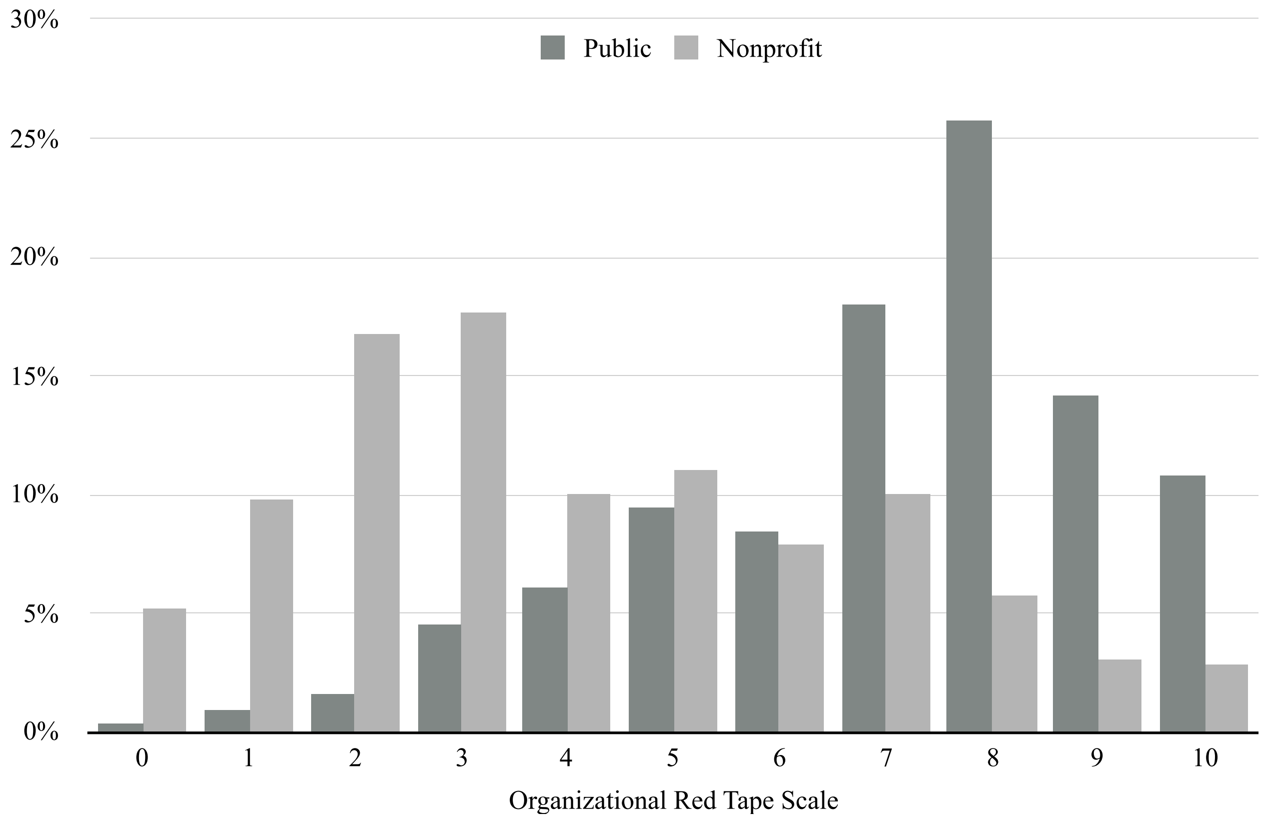

Figure 7.1: Public and Nonprofit Managers' Perceptions of Organizational Red Tape

significantly less organizational red tape than managers in public organizations, $t(1191) = 21.41$, $p < 0.001$.[9] This result provides evidence in support of *Hypothesis 1*. As illustrated in figure 7.1, there is a clear perceptual disparity between the two groups. While most nonprofit managers observe relatively little organizational red tape ($\bar{x} = 4.11$), the majority of public managers perceive considerably higher levels within their organizations ($\bar{x} = 7.07$).

The OLS regression analysis also indicates that nonprofit managers perceive significantly fewer instances of organizational red tape relative to managers in public organizations. As shown in table 7.1, *Nonprofit* is associated with an mean rating decrease of 1.678 points on the GRT

[9] A two-sample Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney rank sum test also suggests that public and nonprofit managers are significantly different in terms of their organizational red tape perceptions. This test indicates that public managers have significantly higher rank compared to nonprofit managers ($z = 17.629$, $p < 0.001$).

Table 7.1: OLS Model Estimating Perceptions of Organizational Red Tape by Sector

	All Managers		Public		Nonprofit	
Nonprofit	-1.678***	(0.293)				
Georgia	-0.933***	(0.148)	-0.896***	(0.166)	-0.671*	(0.327)
Desire to serve public	0.058	(0.081)	-0.067	(0.098)	0.216	(0.127)
Salary motivation	0.072	(0.102)	0.069	(0.115)	0.036	(0.201)
Security concerns	0.273***	(0.078)	0.046	(0.091)	0.476***	(0.140)
Organizational environment	-0.199*	(0.078)	-0.155	(0.094)	-0.158	(0.134)
Career advancement	-0.102	(0.074)	-0.114	(0.086)	-0.041	(0.132)
Practical concerns	0.254***	(0.071)	0.314***	(0.077)	0.115	(0.162)
Organization size (log)	0.262***	(0.049)	0.154**	(0.056)	0.483***	(0.106)
Amount of supervision	0.249***	(0.048)	0.232***	(0.047)	0.384**	(0.138)
Female	0.053	(0.141)	-0.101	(0.162)	0.420	(0.277)
Nonwhite	-0.332	(0.202)	-0.495*	(0.207)	1.122	(0.583)
Age	-0.036***	(0.008)	-0.030**	(0.010)	-0.024	(0.015)
Education	0.119	(0.061)	0.144*	(0.067)	0.041	(0.132)
Constant	4.885***	(0.764)	5.954***	(0.834)	0.941	(1.503)
Observations	983		676		307	
R^2	0.390		0.154		0.274	
Adjusted R^2	0.381		0.138		0.241	
F statistic	56.533		9.884		11.023	
Prob > *F*	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Scale, controlling for other factors. In other words, nonprofit managers on average rate the amount of organizational red tape within their organizations nearly two points lower than their public sector peers.[10] This result provides additional support for *Hypothesis 1*. It also corroborates Feeney and Rainey's (2010) original finding, though their analysis suggests that there is an even larger disparity between public and nonprofit managers with respect to perceptions of organizational red tape.

[10] A supplementary ordinal logistic regression also shows a highly significant and negative relationship between working in the nonprofit sector and perceptions of organizational red tape (see table A.1 in Appendix A).

Among the variables included in the full model, employment sector is the strongest predictor of perceived organizational red tape. When the sector indicator is removed from the model, there is a substantial reduction in explanatory power (based on the adjusted R^2 value). Whereas the full model explains 38.1 percent of the variation in perceived organizational red tape, the public and nonprofit models explain 13.8 and 24.1 percent, respectively. This sizable decrease suggests that employment sector is a substantive and consequential predictor of organizational red tape perceptions among public and nonprofit managers.

The *Georgia* dummy variable is also significantly related to perceptions of organizational red tape. Relative to managers working in Illinois, Georgia managers perceived significantly less organizational red tape. In the full model, serving as a manager in Georgia is significantly associated with roughly a one point lower rating on the GRT Scale (-0.933, $p < 0.001$). In the public sector model, working in Georgia is also significantly linked to approximately a one point decrease in perceived organizational red tape relative to being employed in Illinois (-0.896, $p < 0.001$). Nonprofit managers in Georgia also report significantly fewer instances of organizational red tape than their Illinois counterparts (-0.671, $p < 0.05$). Overall, these results suggest that managers in Georgia perceive significantly less organizational red tape than Illinois managers, irrespective of employment sector.

Several factors influencing job selection decisions are significantly associated with perceptions of organizational red tape. *Organizational environment*—largely characterized by wanting less bureaucratic red tape and a desire for a low conflict work setting—is associated with less organizational red tape in the full model (-0.199, $p < 0.05$). This is unsurprising as it indicates that managers who selected jobs based on these environmental concerns were ultimately exposed to less organizational red tape while in those jobs. Desiring less red tape and conflict, then, seems to have led to job choices that fulfilled these wants.

Security and practical concerns are also significantly related to perceived organizational red tape. Managers who selected their positions because of job security and related concerns perceive significantly higher levels of organizational red tape (0.273, $p < 0.001$). Managers who chose their jobs based on practical considerations—cost of living, spousal or partner employment opportunities, or few alternative job offers—also discern significantly greater amounts of organizational red tape (0.254, $p < 0.001$). Because security and practical concerns are largely indicative of interests that are only tangentially related to the actual work or work environment, these relationships may reflect some measure of managerial unpreparedness in terms of coping with organizational red tape. It is also possible that the primacy of security and practical motivations for some individuals led them to choose their jobs despite misgivings about the levels of organizational red tape.

Interestingly, security and practical concerns become the only significant job selection factors when *Nonprofit* is removed from the model. Among nonprofit managers, security concerns are associated with significantly higher levels of perceived organizational red tape (0.476, $p < 0.001$), while practical concerns are significantly and positively related to perceptions of organizational red tape in the public model (0.314, $p < 0.001$). In terms of factors that shape perceptions of organizational red tape, these results might reflect a notable difference between the two sectors. In both the public and nonprofit models, managers' perceptions of organizational red tape are affected by factors representing peripheral benefits that do not involve the actual work or work environment. However, public and nonprofit managers are seemingly influenced by different types of peripheral benefits. Job selection based on medical and other insurance provisions, pension and retirement plans, and overall job security is related to higher perceived organizational red tape among nonprofit mangers. For public managers, choosing a job because of other advantages such as cost of living and opportunities for spouses or partners is associated with an increase in perceived organizational red tape.

Organization size and amount of supervision are significant predictors of perceived organizational red tape in each of the three models. Both public and nonprofit managers working in larger organizations report experiencing higher levels of organizational red tape. Similarly, managers who perceive greater amounts of supervision also indicate that they encountered more organizational red tape. An increase in the assessed level of supervision is associated with a significantly higher amount of perceived organizational red tape, irrespective of sector.

Several demographic variables are related to perceptions of organizational red tape. In the public model, the race dummy variable (*Nonwhite*) is significantly and negatively associated with perceived organizational red tape (-0.495, $p < 0.05$). This relationship suggests that nonwhites in the public sector experience fewer instances of organizational red tape than whites. *Age* is also negatively associated with perceived organizational red tape in the full (-0.036, $p < 0.001$) and public sector (-0.030, $p < 0.01$) models. The sizes of the age coefficients, however, suggest that the strength of each of the relationships is not particularly strong. Finally, *Education* is positively related to perceived organizational red tape among public managers (0.144, $p < 0.05$).

Perceived Organizational Red Tape by State

When public and nonprofit managers are categorized by state, nonprofit managers continue to indicate that they encounter less organizational red tape than managers in public organizations. The mean comparisons presented in table 7.2 indicate that nonprofit managers on average discern significantly less organizational red tape than public managers, regardless of whether they work in Georgia or Illinois. The mean differences between public and nonprofit managers in both Georgia and Illinois are similar to the difference observed in the full sample, providing additional support for *Hypothesis 1*.

Table 7.2: Mean Comparisons of Perceived Organizational Red Tape by State

	Public	Nonprofit	Difference	t	df
Georgia	6.601	3.276	3.325***	14.055	527
Illinois	7.643	4.389	3.254***	18.450	662
Full Sample	7.072	4.110	2.962***	21.414	1191

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed)

The OLS regression results presented in table 7.3 suggest that nonprofit managers in both Georgia and Illinois perceive less organizational red tape compared to their public sector peers, further substantiating *Hypothesis 1*.[11] Nonprofit managers in Georgia on average rate the prevalence of organizational red tape within their organizations roughly two points lower than the state's public managers (-2.286, $p < 0.001$). The relationship was somewhat weaker (though still significant) for managers in Illinois, where being employed by a nonprofit organization is

[11] Ordinal logistic regressions also demonstrate that managing in the nonprofit sector is significantly and negatively related to perceived organizational red tape in both states (see table A.2 in Appendix A).

Table 7.3: OLS Model Estimating Perceptions of Organizational Red Tape by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Nonprofit	-2.286***	(0.513)	-1.253**	(0.381)
Desire to serve public	0.107	(0.134)	0.038	(0.102)
Salary motivation	0.062	(0.147)	0.076	(0.143)
Security concerns	0.274*	(0.115)	0.226*	(0.107)
Organizational environment	-0.221	(0.118)	-0.178	(0.104)
Career advancement	-0.118	(0.121)	-0.103	(0.093)
Practical concerns	0.285*	(0.113)	0.265**	(0.094)
Organization size (log)	0.142*	(0.071)	0.372***	(0.069)
Amount of supervision	0.220**	(0.079)	0.279***	(0.061)
Female	-0.227	(0.219)	0.267	(0.188)
Nonwhite	-0.481	(0.305)	-0.124	(0.269)
Age	-0.030**	(0.012)	-0.043***	(0.012)
Education	0.070	(0.097)	0.161*	(0.081)
Constant	5.010***	(1.076)	3.938***	(1.057)
Observations	430		553	
R^2	0.341		0.434	
Adjusted R^2	0.320		0.421	
F statistic	21.280		40.768	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

associated with approximately a one point lower rating on the GRT Scale relative to managers working in the public sector (-1.253, $p < 0.01$).

Several additional factors are linked to significant changes in organizational red tape perceptions in the state regression models. Two job selection factors—*Security concerns* and *Practical concerns*—are significantly associated with higher levels of perceived organizational red tape among managers in both Georgia and Illinois. Organization size is also significantly and positively related to organizational red tape perceptions among managers in each state. This is particularly evident in Illinois, where the relationship between organization size and perceived organizational red tape is highly significant and comparatively strong (0.372, $p < 0.001$).

The level of supervision reported by Georgia and Illinois managers is a significant predictor of organizational red tape perceptions. As the perceived amount of supervision increases, managers in both states report higher levels organizational red tape. Conversely, there is a significant inverse relationship between age and the amount of perceived red tape among managers in both models. Though the *Age* regression coefficients are rather small, the relationship suggests that older managers are likely to report lower levels organizational red tape. Finally, *Education* is significantly and positively related to organizational red tape perceptions among Illinois managers. This relationship indicates that managers with higher levels of education report higher levels of organizational red tape (0.161, $p < 0.05$).

Perceived Organizational Red Tape by Primary Responsibility

When public and nonprofit managers are sorted by primary responsibility, their perceptions of organizational red tape continue to differ significantly, irrespective of their principal duties. A comparison of the mean GRT Scale ratings indicates that nonprofit managers perceive significantly less organizational red tape in both the managerial and non-managerial categories, lending further support to *Hypothesis 1* (see table 7.4). The results show that this

Table 7.4: Mean Comparisons of Perceived Organizational Red Tape by Primary Responsibility

	Public	Nonprofit	Difference	t	df
Managerial	7.110	3.980	3.130***	19.457	827
Non-managerial†	6.985	4.492	2.493***	7.669	322
Full Sample	7.072	4.110	2.962***	21.414	1191

†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
$^{*}p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, $^{***}p < 0.001$ (two-tailed)

perceptual disparity between the two sectors is not limited to individuals with more conventional managerial responsibilities (i.e., those in the Managerial category). Rather, the sectoral difference is also observed among managers serving in primarily professional, technical, or other capacities (those in the Non-managerial category, including lawyers, accountants, information technology specialists, and other highly trained professionals).

The OLS regression results also indicate that there is a significant difference between public and nonprofit managers' perceptions of organizational red tape when they are categorized by primary responsibility (see table 7.5). The managerial model shows that on average nonprofit managers in primarily managerial roles rate the level of organizational red tape within their organizations about one point lower than public administrators serving in comparable roles (-1.342, $p < 0.001$). *Nonprofit* is also significantly and negatively related to perceived organizational red tape in the non-managerial model. Among managers with mainly professional, technical, or other responsibilities, working in a nonprofit organization is associated with roughly a two point lower rating of organizational red tape relative to public managers with similar responsibilities (-2.253, $p < 0.001$).[12] These comparisons indicate that nonprofit managers with a range of responsibilities—not just those in managerial positions—perceive significantly less red tape than public managers in broadly similar roles, further substantiating *Hypothesis 1*.

The state indicator variable (*Georgia*) is also significantly and negatively related to perceived organizational red tape among managers with either managerial or non-managerial primary functions. In the managerial model, Georgia managers rate the prevalence of

[12] The results of an ordinal logistic regression are highly consistent with the findings from the ordinary least squares analysis. The ordered logit models show that nonprofit employment is significantly and negatively related to perceptions of organizational red tape irrespective of primary responsibility (see table A.3 in Appendix A).

Table 7.5: OLS Model Estimating Perceptions of Organizational Red Tape by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial†	
Nonprofit	-1.342***	(0.345)	-2.253***	(0.601)
Georgia	-0.868***	(0.168)	-1.194***	(0.295)
Desire to serve public	0.113	(0.096)	-0.103	(0.170)
Salary motivation	0.050	(0.116)	0.055	(0.220)
Security concerns	0.368***	(0.093)	-0.052	(0.145)
Organizational environment	-0.265**	(0.087)	-0.025	(0.161)
Career advancement	-0.086	(0.089)	-0.155	(0.151)
Practical concerns	0.309***	(0.082)	0.154	(0.154)
Organization size (log)	0.321***	(0.056)	0.146	(0.101)
Amount of supervision	0.269***	(0.059)	0.254**	(0.090)
Female	-0.012	(0.162)	0.118	(0.294)
Nonwhite	-0.430	(0.225)	-0.302	(0.425)
Age	-0.032**	(0.010)	-0.045**	(0.015)
Education	0.152*	(0.073)	-0.050	(0.116)
Constant	3.806***	(0.916)	7.688***	(1.468)
Observations	692		264	
R^2	0.440		0.270	
Adjusted R^2	0.429		0.229	
F statistic	49.283		9.231	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

organizational red tape within their organizations nearly one point lower than managers employed in Illinois (-0.868, $p < 0.001$). The effect size is even greater in the non-managerial model, where the GRT Scale ratings submitted by managers in Georgia are on average over one point lower than those provided by Illinois managers (-1.194, $p < 0.001$).

Several job selection factors are significant predictors of organizational red tape perceptions, but only in the managerial model. Security and practical concerns are associated with higher levels of perceived organizational red tape among individuals with mainly managerial responsibilities, while concerns related to organizational environment are associated with a significant GRT Scale rating decrease among these managers. This suggests that managers in conventional managerial roles (i.e., they are primarily engaged in managerial activities) who chose their jobs based on benefits and job security discern higher levels of organizational red tape. Among the same group of managers, however, job selection decisions based on the prospects of fewer bureaucratic rules and reduced conflict are significantly and negatively related to perceived organizational red tape. None of the job selection factors have a significant effect on perceptions of organizational red tape in the non-managerial model.

Several other variables are related to perceptions of organizational red tape in each of the models. Organization size is associated with significantly higher levels of perceived organizational red tape among individuals with predominantly managerial roles, while the reported level of supervision is related to a significant increase in perceived organizational red tape in both the managerial and non-managerial models. *Age* is significantly and negatively associated with perceptions of organizational red tape in both models, though the regression coefficients continued to be relatively small. Finally, *Education* is associated with significantly higher levels of perceived organizational red tape among individuals in principally managerial roles, but not among managers with primarily professional, technical, or alternative duties.

Contrasting Perceptions of Personnel Red Tape

Perceived Personnel Red Tape by Sector

A comparison of the mean personnel red tape ratings indicates that public and nonprofit managers' perceptions of personnel red tape differ significantly. The mean differences between

Table 7.6: Mean Comparisons of Personnel Red Tape Items

	Public	Nonprofit	Difference	*t*	*df*
Promotions based on performance (r)	2.863	2.146	0.717***	12.330	1191
Hard to remove poor performer	2.962	1.959	1.003***	18.549	1193
Hard to reward with higher pay	3.683	2.351	1.332***	28.349	1197
Personnel Red Tape Scale	9.511	6.454	3.057***	27.556	1189

Note: (r) = reversed
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed)

public and nonprofit managers are significant for each of the individual items comprising the personnel red tape scale (PRT Scale) and for the scale itself (see table 7.6). The results indicate that nonprofit managers perceive lower levels of personnel red tape than managers in the public sector. Supplementary nonparametric testing also suggests that public and nonprofit managers differ significantly with respect to perceived personnel red tape.[13] The results suggested that *Hypothesis 2* was supported.

The results of the related OLS regressions also indicate that public and nonprofit managers perceived significantly different levels of personnel red tape. As shown in table 7.7, nonprofit managers on average perceive significantly less personnel red tape within their organizations relative to managers in the public sector. Managing in the nonprofit sector is associated with approximately a two point lower rating on the PRT Scale, holding other factors constant (-2.386, $p < 0.001$). This outcome is congruous with the results of the two-sample *t*-tests, and provides additional support for *Hypothesis 2*.[14] It is also largely consistent with the

[13] Two-sample Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney rank sum tests indicate that public and nonprofit managers differ significantly in terms of each of the scale items and the overall scale: (a) Promotions based on performance: $z = 11.692$, $p < 0.001$; (b) Hard to remove a poor performer: $z = 16.029$, $p < 0.001$; (c) Hard to reward with higher pay: $z = 21.397$, $p < 0.001$; (d) PRT Scale: $z = 20.867$, $p < 0.001$. In each case, public managers have significantly higher rank relative to nonprofit managers.

[14] The results of an ordered logit model are highly consistent with those of the OLS regression, showing a significantly negative relationship between managing in the nonprofit sector and perceived personnel red tape (see table A.4 in Appendix A).

Table 7.7: OLS Model Estimating Perceptions of Personnel Red Tape by Sector

	All Managers		Public		Nonprofit	
Nonprofit	-2.386***	(0.229)				
Georgia	-0.969***	(0.113)	-1.007***	(0.123)	-0.648*	(0.273)
Desire to serve public	-0.094	(0.068)	-0.118	(0.076)	-0.061	(0.119)
Salary motivation	0.015	(0.083)	-0.047	(0.090)	0.114	(0.179)
Security concerns	0.201**	(0.064)	0.074	(0.071)	0.300*	(0.130)
Organizational environment	-0.065	(0.060)	-0.067	(0.068)	0.065	(0.114)
Career advancement	-0.124*	(0.059)	-0.135*	(0.065)	-0.086	(0.112)
Practical concerns	0.145*	(0.057)	0.108	(0.062)	0.384**	(0.138)
Organization size (log)	0.168***	(0.037)	0.072	(0.041)	0.415***	(0.081)
Amount of supervision	0.065	(0.037)	0.080*	(0.038)	0.021	(0.102)
Female	0.192	(0.113)	0.075	(0.124)	0.447	(0.238)
Nonwhite	-0.351*	(0.151)	-0.401**	(0.154)	0.525	(0.485)
Age	-0.026***	(0.007)	-0.023**	(0.007)	-0.018	(0.013)
Education	0.018	(0.048)	0.035	(0.053)	-0.063	(0.109)
Constant	9.695***	(0.606)	10.522***	(0.678)	6.177***	(1.119)
Observations	978		681		297	
R^2	0.467		0.155		0.230	
Adjusted R^2	0.459		0.138		0.195	
F statistic	60.556		10.195		7.516	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

results of Feeney and Rainey's (2010) study, which also indicated that nonprofit managers perceive fewer personnel rule constraints than public managers. In their model, however, managing in the nonprofit sector is associated with an even lower rating of personnel red tape.

The sector dummy variable is a highly significant and consequential predictor. Among the independent variables included in the full model, *Nonprofit* has the largest effect on perceived personnel red tape as indicated by the size of the regression coefficient. It is also an important explanatory variable in the full model, as evidenced by the reduced adjusted R^2 values in the two models without the sector indicator. The full model predicts 45.9 percent of the variation in personnel red tape perceptions, while the public and nonprofit models account for 13.8 percent and 19.5 percent, respectively. The decrease in explanatory power when the sector indicator variable is excluded from the public and nonprofit models suggests that employment sector is an important factor in explaining perceived personnel red tape.

The state in which managers work is also significantly related to perceived personnel red tape. Georgia managers on average rate their level of personnel red tape nearly one point lower compared to managers employed in Illinois (-0.969, $p < 0.001$). A similar relationship is evident in the public model, where being employed as a manager in Georgia is associated with a one point lower rating of personnel red tape relative to public managers in Illinois (-1.007, $p < 0.001$). Nonprofit managers in Georgia also perceive less personnel red tape than their Illinois peers (-0.648, $p < 0.05$).

Three job selection factors are significantly related to perceived personnel red tape: security concerns, career advancement, and practical concerns. Security and practical concerns are associated with higher PRT Scale ratings in the full and nonprofit models. Interest in career advancement is related to higher levels of perceived personnel red tape in the full and public sector models.

Organization size is positively and significantly associated with perceived personnel red tape in the full (0.168, $p < 0.001$) and nonprofit (0.415, $p < 0.001$) models. The effect on PRT Scale ratings among nonprofit managers is relatively strong as indicated by the size of the regression coefficient. Interestingly, there is no statistically significant relationship between organization size and perceived personnel red tape in the public sector model, indicating that public managers' perceptions are not influenced by the number of employees in their organizations. (There is, however, a positive and significant link between the amount of perceived supervision and personnel red tape ratings among public managers.)

Two demographic variables are significantly associated with perceived personnel red tape in the full and public models: *Nonwhite* and *Age*. Nonwhites rate their experiences with personnel red tape lower on the PRT Scale relative to white managers. Age also has a negative impact on personnel red tape perceptions, though the effect size was comparatively small. This result is consistent with the age effects on perceived organizational red tape.

Perceived Personnel Red Tape by State

Categorizing public and nonprofit managers by state of employment allows for additional comparisons of the groups' mean responses to the individual personnel red tape scale items, as well as further comparisons of the mean responses for the overall scale. As shown in table 7.8, nonprofit managers' mean responses for each of the individual scale items and the overall PRT Scale ratings are significantly lower than those of public managers. The two-sample *t*-tests indicate that nonprofit managers perceive significantly lower levels of personnel red tape irrespective of the state in which they are employed. These results provide additional support for *Hypothesis 2*.

The results of the OLS regressions also indicate that public and nonprofit managers in both states differ significantly in terms of personnel red tape perceptions. Working in the nonprofit sector remains significantly and negatively related to perceived personnel red tape in the state models (see table 7.9). In Georgia, nonprofit management is associated with an average rating decrease of 2.861 points on the PRT Scale ($p < 0.001$). In Illinois, managing in the

Table 7.8: Mean Comparisons of Personnel Red Tape Items by State

	Public	Nonprofit	Difference	*t*	*df*
Promotions based on performance (r)					
Georgia	2.522	2.030	0.492***	4.679	524
Illinois	3.273	2.183	1.090***	16.062	665
Full Sample	2.863	2.146	0.717***	12.330	1191
Hard to remove poor performer					
Georgia	2.843	1.683	1.160***	12.120	525
Illinois	3.104	2.048	1.056***	15.309	666
Full Sample	2.962	1.959	1.003***	18.549	1193
Hard to reward with higher pay					
Georgia	3.640	2.087	1.553***	20.074	529
Illinois	3.735	2.438	1.297***	20.492	666
Full Sample	3.683	2.351	1.332***	28.349	1197
Personnel Red Tape Scale					
Georgia	9.009	5.808	3.201***	16.779	523
Illinois	10.113	6.659	3.454***	24.912	664
Full Sample	9.511	6.454	3.057***	27.556	1189

Note: (r) = reversed
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed)

nonprofit sector is associated with nearly a two point lower rating on the PRT Scale relative to public managers in the state (-1.980, $p < 0.001$). Nonprofit managers, then, indicate that they experience fewer instances of personnel red tape than managers in the public sector, regardless of whether they work in Georgia or Illinois.[15] The findings are also largely consistent with the results of the full model in terms of significance and magnitude. The results of the state models further substantiate *Hypothesis 2*.

The state models also show that several other factors are significant predictors of personnel red tape perceptions, though they tend to differ by state. Among the job selection factors, three are associated with perceived personnel red tape: *Security concerns*, *Practical*

[15] Ordinal logistic regressions also indicate that nonprofit management is significantly and negatively associated with perceived personnel red tape in both states (see table A.5 in Appendix A).

Table 7.9: OLS Model Estimating Perceptions of Personnel Red Tape by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Nonprofit	-2.861***	(0.403)	-1.980***	(0.303)
Desire to serve public	-0.125	(0.108)	-0.076	(0.088)
Salary motivation	0.000	(0.114)	0.044	(0.120)
Security concerns	0.175	(0.096)	0.196*	(0.088)
Organizational environment	-0.128	(0.087)	-0.010	(0.083)
Career advancement	-0.224**	(0.084)	-0.074	(0.080)
Practical concerns	0.139	(0.088)	0.171*	(0.076)
Organization size (log)	0.054	(0.054)	0.275***	(0.054)
Amount of supervision	0.103	(0.059)	0.048	(0.049)
Female	0.018	(0.171)	0.289	(0.151)
Nonwhite	-0.301	(0.217)	-0.336	(0.211)
Age	-0.032***	(0.009)	-0.021*	(0.010)
Education	0.010	(0.071)	0.020	(0.067)
Constant	9.937***	(0.823)	8.539***	(0.856)
Observations	427		551	
R^2	0.417		0.507	
Adjusted R^2	0.399		0.496	
F statistic	22.880		43.856	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

concerns, and *Career advancement*. In Illinois, security and practical concerns are linked to significant increases in personnel red tape ratings. The desire for career advancement opportunities has a significant and negative effect on perceived personnel red tape in the Georgia model (-0.224, $p < 0.01$). Georgia managers who selected their positions based on the job's provision of such opportunities experience significantly fewer instances of personnel red tape.

Organization size is a highly significant and positive predictor of perceived personnel red tape, but only among Illinois managers (0.275, $p < 0.001$). The absence of a significant relationship between organization size and perceived personnel red tape in the Georgia model may suggest that personnel rules and procedures are not closely linked to organization size in the state. Rules governing personnel matters may be more universally adopted and applied across a broad range of Georgia agencies and organizations, whereas greater levels of personnel red tape in Illinois are more commonly found in larger organizations. It may also be the case that managers in Georgia are less sensitive to personnel red tape even in larger organizations.

Perceived Personnel Red Tape by Primary Responsibility

Classifying public and nonprofit managers by their primary responsibilities further demonstrates the strength of the relationship between employment sector and perceived personnel red tape, and provides additional evidence of the disparities between the two groups. Comparisons of the mean responses to the individual PRT Scale items and the overall scale ratings indicate that nonprofit managers perceive significantly less personnel red tape than their public sector peers, irrespective of their primary responsibilities (see table 7.10). For each of the individual scale items and the overall scale, the results in each category are highly consistent with the public-nonprofit differences seen in the full sample. The results of the two-sample *t*-tests, then, provide additional support for *Hypothesis 2*.

The significant differences between public and nonprofit managers are also evident in the OLS regression results. The negative relationship between nonprofit management and perceived personnel red tape persists in both the managerial and non-managerial models (see table 7.11). Nonprofit managers with primarily managerial duties rate the level of personnel red tape within their organizations approximately two points lower than public managers with similar responsibilities (-2.071, $p < 0.001$). Nonprofit managers with mainly professional, technical, or

Table 7.10: Mean Comparisons of Personnel Red Tape Items by Primary Responsibility

	Public	Nonprofit	Difference	*t*	*df*
Promotions based on performance (r)					
Managerial	2.780	2.135	0.645***	9.473	829
Non-managerial†	3.023	2.281	0.742***	5.569	321
Full Sample	2.863	2.146	0.717***	12.330	1191
Hard to remove poor performer					
Managerial	2.869	1.918	0.951***	15.405	830
Non-managerial	3.109	2.140	0.969***	7.393	321
Full Sample	2.962	1.959	1.003***	18.549	1193
Hard to reward with higher pay					
Managerial	3.706	2.314	1.392***	25.040	832
Non-managerial	3.637	2.603	1.033***	9.960	323
Full Sample	3.683	2.351	1.332***	28.349	1197
Personnel Red Tape Scale					
Managerial	9.360	6.365	2.995***	23.163	827
Non-managerial	9.767	7.035	2.732***	10.849	321
Full Sample	9.511	6.454	3.057***	27.556	1189

Note: (r) = reversed
†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed)

unspecified roles also report significantly less personnel red tape relative to public managers serving in similar capacities (-2.462, $p < 0.001$).

Being employed as a manager in Georgia is also negatively associated with perceived personnel red tape when public and nonprofit managers are categorized by their primary responsibilities. In each of the models, Georgia managers on average rate personnel red tape within their organizations roughly one point lower than managers in Illinois. The relationships are highly significant and largely consistent with the results of the sector models. The differences between managers in these states seem to indicate that there is generally less perceived personnel red tape in Georgia compared to Illinois. Alternatively, Georgia managers might be less sensitive to personnel red tape within their organizations. In either case, it appears that managers in

Table 7.11: OLS Model Estimating Perceived Personnel Red Tape by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial[†]	
Nonprofit	-2.071***	(0.275)	-2.462***	(0.440)
Georgia	-1.065***	(0.138)	-0.967***	(0.203)
Desire to serve public	-0.076	(0.080)	-0.089	(0.131)
Salary motivation	0.093	(0.099)	-0.159	(0.152)
Security concerns	0.159*	(0.076)	0.194	(0.122)
Organizational environment	-0.021	(0.072)	-0.199	(0.109)
Career advancement	-0.061	(0.069)	-0.117	(0.118)
Practical concerns	0.209**	(0.068)	-0.005	(0.111)
Organization size (log)	0.226***	(0.044)	0.089	(0.071)
Amount of supervision	0.063	(0.045)	0.035	(0.069)
Female	0.191	(0.134)	0.257	(0.225)
Nonwhite	-0.364*	(0.173)	-0.321	(0.294)
Age	-0.017*	(0.008)	-0.036**	(0.011)
Education	0.026	(0.058)	-0.012	(0.092)
Constant	8.380***	(0.699)	11.863***	(1.141)
Observations	690		262	
R^2	0.493		0.333	
Adjusted R^2	0.482		0.295	
F statistic	46.901		12.797	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
[†]Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Georgia feel they have greater discretion with respect to personnel decisions relative to Illinois managers. These findings are consistent with the results reported by Feeney and Rainey (2010).

Several additional factors are significantly associated with perceived personnel red tape. Most, however, are found only in the managerial model (there is notable lack of statistically significant relationships in the non-managerial model). Among the job selection variables, security and practical concerns are significantly and positively related to perceived personnel red tape in the managerial model. Organization size is also a highly significant predictor of perceived personnel red tape among individuals whose duties are principally managerial (0.226, $p < 0.001$).

Among the demographic variables included in the models, *Nonwhite* and *Age* are significantly linked to perceived personnel red tape. Nonwhites on average experience fewer instances of personnel red tape than whites among individuals with primarily managerial responsibilities (-0.364, $p < 0.05$). Age is significantly and negatively related to perceived personnel red tape in both the managerial and non-managerial models.

CHAPTER 8

ORGANIZATIONAL PRIDE: PUBLIC-NONPROFIT DISTINCTIONS AND THE EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED RED TAPE

This chapter explores organizational pride disparities between public and nonprofit managers. It also details the extent to which the managers' pride in their organizations is affected by perceptions of organizational and personnel red tape. Two-sample *t*-tests and OLS regressions demonstrate how the the mean organizational pride ratings (as measured by the organizational pride scale) differ for public and nonprofit managers and how organizational and personnel red tape affect organizational pride among the two groups. Additional analyses involving two-stage least squares (2SLS) regressions address endogeneity concerns.

Organizational Pride Disparities Between Public and Nonprofit Managers

Organizational Pride by Sector

Comparisons of mean responses to the individual organizational pride scale items and the average overall scale ratings suggests that public and nonprofit managers differ significantly in terms of organizational pride. This analysis indicates that nonprofit managers on average have greater pride in their organizations compared to managers in the public sector, lending support to *Hypothesis 3*. As table 8.1 demonstrates, nonprofit managers' average response to each of the organizational pride scale items is significantly greater than the mean response of public

Table 8.1: Mean Comparisons of Organizational Pride Items

	Public	Nonprofit	Difference	*t*	*df*
General Pride					
Proud of working for organization	3.176	3.660	-0.484***	-11.018	1207
Organizational Quality and Status					
Overall work quality very good	3.203	3.618	-0.415***	-9.574	1207
Clients satisfied with org. performance	2.849	3.432	-0.583***	-13.368	1191
Innovation and Risk Taking					
Innovation is an important organizational value	2.417	2.957	-0.540***	-10.304	1203
Employees afraid to take risks (r)	2.217	2.732	-0.515***	-10.687	1199
Top management afraid to take risks (r)	2.419	2.952	-0.533***	-9.888	1192
Organizational Ethics					
Organization has high ethical standards	3.025	3.613	-0.588***	-11.794	1205
Trust					
Top management trusts employees	2.607	3.390	-0.783***	-14.351	1199
Incentives					
Incentives to work hard	2.018	2.912	-0.894***	-16.000	1206
Organizational Pride Scale	23.959	29.257	-5.298***	-17.388	1177

Note: (r) = reversed
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed)

managers. The average rating of overall organizational pride for nonprofit managers is also significantly higher relative to managers employed in the public sector.[16]

The results of the related OLS regressions further indicate that nonprofit managers have significantly higher levels of pride in their organizations compared to managers in the public sector. As shown in table 8.2, managers in nonprofit organizations on average rate their organizational pride approximately five points higher than public managers (4.944, $p < 0.001$).

[16] The results of two-sample Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney rank sum tests are consistent with those of the two-sample *t*-tests. For each of the following individual scale items and the overall scale, nonprofit managers have significantly higher rank: (a) Proud of working for organization: z = -10.718, p < 0.001; (b) Overall work quality very good: z = -9.510, p < 0.001; (c) Clients satisfied with org. performance: z = -12.933, p < 0.001; (d) Innovation is an important org. value: z = -9.827, p < 0.001; (e) Employees afraid to take risks (reversed): z = -10.082, p < 0.001; (f) Top management afraid to take risks (reversed): z = -9.416, p < 0.001; (g) Organization has high ethical standards: z = -11.351, p < 0.001; (h) Top management trusts employees: z = -13.645, p < 0.001; (i) Incentives to work hard: z = -14.476, p < 0.001; (j) Organizational pride scale: z = -15.895, p < 0.001.

Table 8.2: OLS Model Estimating Organizational Pride by Sector

	All Mangers		Public		Nonprofit	
Nonprofit	4.944***	(0.376)				
Georgia	2.470***	(0.305)	2.796***	(0.381)	1.607**	(0.517)
Desire to serve public	0.390*	(0.171)	0.514*	(0.244)	0.214	(0.228)
Salary motivation	-0.020	(0.226)	0.166	(0.287)	-0.415	(0.369)
Security concerns	-0.300	(0.169)	-0.063	(0.237)	-0.423	(0.248)
Organizational environment	0.764***	(0.158)	0.768***	(0.216)	0.489*	(0.237)
Career advancement	0.948***	(0.163)	1.179***	(0.215)	0.405	(0.246)
Practical concerns	-0.715***	(0.153)	-0.635***	(0.183)	-0.835**	(0.295)
Promotion	1.240***	(0.329)	1.249**	(0.415)	1.225*	(0.536)
Mentored	0.673*	(0.286)	0.729*	(0.354)	0.682	(0.470)
Female	-0.085	(0.295)	0.252	(0.373)	-0.610	(0.476)
Nonwhite	0.539	(0.394)	0.639	(0.427)	-1.256	(0.913)
Age	0.104***	(0.016)	0.095***	(0.020)	0.109***	(0.027)
Education	-0.087	(0.125)	-0.109	(0.150)	-0.055	(0.217)
Constant	15.836***	(1.390)	14.880***	(1.788)	22.771***	(2.246)
Observations	1051		696		355	
R^2	0.358		0.249		0.182	
Adjusted R^2	0.349		0.235		0.150	
F statistic	47.177		17.560		6.907	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

This outcome is consistent with the results of the two-sample *t*-tests and provides additional support for *Hypothesis 3*.

As indicated by its effect size, employment sector is the strongest predictor of organizational pride in the full model. When the sector dummy variable (*Nonprofit*) is excluded, the resulting models have considerably less explanatory power. While the full model explains 34.9 percent of the variation in organizational pride (based on the adjusted R^2 value), the public and nonprofit models explain 23.5 and 15.0 percent, respectively. The substantial decrease in explanatory power in the reduced models suggests that sector is a highly consequential determinant of organizational pride.

The state in which managers work (*Georgia*) is also a highly significant predictor of organizational pride in the full model. Specifically, managers working in Georgia on average rate their level of organizational pride nearly two-and-a-half points higher than managers employed in Illinois (2.470, $p < 0.001$). Among public managers, being employed in Georgia is associated with nearly a three point higher rating of organizational pride relative to working in Illinois (2.796, $p < 0.001$). The level at which nonprofit managers in Georgia rate their organizational pride is over one-and-a-half points higher points higher than nonprofit managers in Illinois (1.607, $p < 0.01$).

Among the factors affecting job selection decisions, several are significantly related to organizational pride: *Desire to serve public*, *Organizational environment*, *Career advancement*, and *Practical concerns*. The desire to serve the public and public interest is associated with significantly higher levels of organizational pride in the full and public models, while organizational environment is a significant and positive predictor of organizational pride in all three models. Career advancement opportunities are associated with significantly higher organizational pride in the full and public models. Finally, accepting a job based on practical concerns is negatively related to organizational pride in all three models.

Three additional variables are significantly and positively related to organizational pride among public and private managers: *Promotion*, *Mentored*, and *Age*. In all three models, managers who attained their current positions via promotion on average rate their organizational pride over one point higher than those who obtained their jobs through other means. In the full and public models, managers who were mentored on average have higher organizational pride than those who were not involved in a mentoring relationship. Finally, the age of the manager is a highly significant predictor of organizational pride in all three models.

Organizational Pride by State

Sectoral dissimilarities in organizational pride are also apparent when public and nonprofit managers are categorized by the state in which they work. A comparison of the mean responses to the individual organizational pride scale items shows that, regardless of whether nonprofit managers are employed in Georgia or Illinois, they have significantly higher mean responses to each of the items relative to managers in the public sector (see table 8.3). The overall organizational pride scale ratings are also higher for nonprofit managers in each state. These findings further indicate that *Hypothesis 3* is supported.

The OLS regression results also show that managers in nonprofit organizations have significantly more organizational pride than public managers, irrespective of the state in which they are employed (see table 8.4). In the Georgia model, nonprofit managers on average rate their level of organizational pride nearly four points higher than public managers (3.857, $p < 0.001$). In the Illinois model, managers in the nonprofit sector on average rate their organizational pride well over five points higher than public managers (5.582, $p < 0.001$). These findings offer additional support for *Hypothesis 3*.

Several job selection factors are also significantly related to organizational pride. The desire to serve the public and public interest is associated with higher levels of organizational pride in the Illinois model (this variable has no significant impact on organizational pride in the

Table 8.3: Mean Comparisons of Organizational Pride Items by State

	Public	Nonprofit	Difference	*t*	*df*
Proud of working for organization					
Georgia	3.331	3.752	-0.421***	-5.607	535
Illinois	2.989	3.630	-0.641***	-11.320	670
Overall work quality very good					
Georgia	3.329	3.676	-0.347***	-4.578	535
Illinois	3.051	3.598	-0.547***	-9.872	670
Clients satisfied with org. performance					
Georgia	2.934	3.533	-0.599***	-7.395	525
Illinois	2.747	3.398	-0.651***	-12.122	664
Innovation is an important org. value					
Georgia	2.567	3.086	-0.519***	-5.716	533
Illinois	2.234	2.914	-0.680***	-10.039	668
Employees afraid to take risks (r)					
Georgia	2.317	3.057	-0.740***	-8.710	529
Illinois	2.096	2.623	-0.527***	-8.646	668
Top management afraid to take risks (r)					
Georgia	2.592	3.248	-0.656***	-6.905	525
Illinois	2.211	2.854	-0.643***	-9.499	665
Organization has high ethical standards					
Georgia	3.264	3.762	-0.498***	-5.802	535
Illinois	2.734	3.563	-0.829***	-13.367	668
Top management trusts employees					
Georgia	2.833	3.587	-0.754***	-7.736	528
Illinois	2.335	3.326	-0.991***	-14.751	669
Incentives to work hard					
Georgia	2.181	3.076	-0.895***	-8.647	534
Illinois	1.820	2.858	-1.038***	-15.220	670
Organizational pride scale					
Georgia	25.343	30.731	-5.388***	-10.171	519
Illinois	22.287	28.767	-6.480***	-17.214	656

Note: (r) = reversed
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed)

Georgia model). Job choice considerations involving organizational environment and career advancement opportunities are significantly and positively related to organizational pride in both

Table 8.4: OLS Model Estimating Organizational Pride by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Nonprofit	3.857***	(0.579)	5.582***	(0.504)
Desire to serve public	0.200	(0.282)	0.542*	(0.213)
Salary motivation	-0.137	(0.315)	0.057	(0.333)
Security concerns	-0.224	(0.258)	-0.402	(0.228)
Organizational environment	1.100***	(0.238)	0.557**	(0.213)
Career advancement	1.287***	(0.261)	0.716***	(0.211)
Practical concerns	-0.678**	(0.221)	-0.714**	(0.217)
Promotion	0.791	(0.470)	1.573***	(0.459)
Mentored	0.863*	(0.415)	0.464	(0.391)
Female	0.395	(0.429)	-0.406	(0.407)
Nonwhite	0.260	(0.546)	0.810	(0.591)
Age	0.119***	(0.023)	0.099***	(0.024)
Education	0.005	(0.180)	-0.154	(0.176)
Constant	18.346***	(1.851)	15.328***	(2.025)
Observations	471		580	
R^2	0.319		0.385	
Adjusted R^2	0.300		0.370	
F statistic	21.572		29.031	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

models. *Practical concerns*—those related to cost of living, employment opportunities for spouses or partners, or few alternative job offers—are significantly and negatively associated with organizational pride among both Georgia and Illinois managers.

Several additional variables significantly and positively influence organizational pride. In the Illinois model, receiving a promotion is associated with significantly higher levels of organizational pride. Illinois managers who were promoted into their current positions rate their level of organizational pride well over one point higher than managers who were not promoted into their jobs (1.573, $p < 0.001$). In the Georgia model, past mentoring is associated with significantly higher levels of organizational pride. Georgia managers who were previously mentored rate their organizational pride nearly one point higher than those who had no mentoring (0.863, $p < 0.05$). Finally, *Age* is a highly significant predictor of organizational pride in both state models.

Organizational Pride by Primary Responsibility

The public-nonprofit differences in organizational pride continue to be evident when the managers are grouped according to their primary responsibilities. Comparisons of the mean responses to the individual organizational pride scale items and the overall scale ratings indicate that nonprofit managers on average have greater pride in their organizations than their public sector peers (see table 8.5). The differences between public and nonprofit managers are significant for each of the organizational pride scale items and the overall scale ratings. These two-sample *t*-tests for the primary responsibility groupings further suggest that *Hypothesis 3* cannot be rejected.

The results of the related OLS regressions further indicate that nonprofit managers have significantly higher amounts of pride in their organizations relative to their public sector counterparts, irrespective of their primary responsibilities. As demonstrated in table 8.6, nonprofit managers whose principal job duties are managerial on average rate their organizational pride roughly five points higher than public managers serving in similar roles (4.832, $p < 0.001$). Similarly, nonprofit managers with mainly professional, technical, or other responsibilities also rate their organizational pride nearly five points higher than public managers

Table 8.5: Mean Comparisons of Organizational Pride Items by Primary Responsibility

	Public	Nonprofit	Difference	*t*	*df*
Proud of working for organization					
Managerial	3.231	3.695	-0.464***	-9.808	839
Non-managerial†	3.078	3.475	-0.397***	-3.269	326
Overall work quality very good					
Managerial	3.233	3.661	-0.428***	-9.074	839
Non-managerial	3.152	3.424	-0.272*	-2.312	326
Clients satisfied with org. performance					
Managerial	2.879	3.448	-0.569***	-11.567	832
Non-managerial	2.812	3.356	-0.544***	-4.888	318
Innovation is an important org. value					
Managerial	2.479	2.991	-0.512***	-8.707	836
Non-managerial	2.313	2.746	-0.432***	-3.269	325
Employees afraid to take risks (r)					
Managerial	2.280	2.753	-0.473***	-8.514	835
Non-managerial	2.113	2.593	-0.480***	-4.181	322
Top management afraid to take risks (r)					
Managerial	2.480	3.009	-0.529***	-8.436	829
Non-managerial	2.306	2.695	-0.389**	-3.140	322
Organization has high ethical standards					
Managerial	3.059	3.644	-0.585***	-10.783	837
Non-managerial	2.963	3.492	-0.529***	-3.924	326
Top management trusts employees					
Managerial	2.665	3.437	-0.772***	-12.570	835
Non-managerial	2.500	3.121	-0.621***	-4.447	322
Incentives to work hard					
Managerial	2.065	2.945	-0.880***	-13.653	839
Non-managerial	1.951	2.746	-0.795***	-5.955	325
Organizational pride scale					
Managerial	24.413	29.591	-5.178***	-15.370	822
Non-managerial	23.221	27.517	-4.296***	-5.383	314

Note: (r) = reversed
†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed)

with comparable obligations (4.730 , $p < 0.001$). These results provide additional evidence in support of *Hypothesis 3*.

Table 8.6: OLS Model Estimating Organizational Pride by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial[†]	
Nonprofit	4.832***	(0.423)	4.730***	(0.879)
Georgia	2.358***	(0.352)	3.325***	(0.623)
Desire to serve public	0.292	(0.189)	0.721*	(0.354)
Salary motivation	-0.131	(0.266)	0.189	(0.438)
Security concerns	-0.439*	(0.188)	0.384	(0.365)
Organizational environment	0.707***	(0.178)	0.746*	(0.330)
Career advancement	0.580**	(0.188)	1.899***	(0.317)
Practical concerns	-0.889***	(0.174)	-0.131	(0.333)
Promotion	1.347**	(0.427)	1.109	(0.577)
Mentored	0.672*	(0.331)	0.926	(0.601)
Female	-0.211	(0.343)	0.374	(0.612)
Nonwhite	0.816	(0.462)	-0.752	(0.769)
Age	0.072***	(0.019)	0.148***	(0.029)
Education	-0.132	(0.146)	0.063	(0.247)
Constant	18.552***	(1.596)	10.262***	(2.513)
Observations	742		281	
R^2	0.359		0.358	
Adjusted R^2	0.347		0.325	
F statistic	34.445		14.539	
Prob > *F*	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
[†]Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
[*] $p < 0.05$, [**] $p < 0.01$, [***] $p < 0.001$

The state dummy variable (*Georgia*) is also a highly significant and influential predictor of organizational pride when public and nonprofit managers are segmented by primary responsibility. Among individuals with predominately managerial responsibilities, those working in Georgia have an organizational pride rating that is well over two points higher than Illinois managers with equivalent primary duties (2.358 , $p < 0.001$). Similarly, Georgia managers serving in primarily professional, technical, or other positions rate their organizational pride over three points higher than Illinois managers employed in the same capacities (3.325, $p < 0.001$).

As in the previous models, several job selection factors are significantly related to organizational pride. A desire to serve the public is a significant and positive predictor among managers with primarily professional, technical, or other responsibilities (0.721, $p < 0.05$). *Security concerns*—those related to benefits, retirement, and job security—are negatively associated with organizational pride among individuals serving in mainly managerial roles (-0.439, $p < 0.05$). *Organizational environment*—concerns related to the desire for less bureaucratic red tape, a low conflict work setting, "family friendly" policies (e.g., flexible hours and parental leave), and the overall reputation of the organization—is a highly significant and positive predictor of organizational pride in the managerial model (0.707, $p < 0.001$). Accepting a job based on the career advancement opportunities it might potential provide is associated with significantly higher organizational pride in both models. This is particularly the case in the non-managerial model, where the effect size is relatively large (1.899, $p < 0.001$). Finally, *Practical concerns* are associated with significantly lower levels of organizational pride among individuals with principally managerial functions (-.889, $p < 0.001$).

Receiving a promotion is also a significant predictor of organizational pride in the managerial model. Individuals in mainly managerial roles who were promoted into their current positions on average have organizational pride scores that are over one point higher than managers who were not promoted into jobs involving similar responsibilities (1.347, $p < 0.01$). Previous mentoring is also associated with greater organizational pride in the managerial model (0.672, $p < 0.05$). *Age* is a highly significant predictor of organizational pride in each of the regressions. As in previous models, however, the regression coefficient for the age variable indicates that its impact is relatively small in both models.

The Effects of Perceived Organizational Red Tape

The Effects of Perceived Organizational Red Tape by Sector

Incorporating a variable measuring perceived organizational red tape (*Organizational red tape*) into the sector OLS models allows for determining its effect on organizational pride. The regression results indicate that a higher level of perceived organizational red tape is linked to significantly lower organizational pride. As shown in table 8.7, a one point higher rating of organizational red tape is associated with approximately a one point reduction in organizational

Table 8.7: OLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Organizational Red Tape on Organizational Pride by Sector

	All Managers		Public		Nonprofit	
Organizational red tape	-1.026***	(0.056)	-1.009***	(0.079)	-1.035***	(0.081)
Nonprofit	2.185***	(0.343)				
Georgia	1.396***	(0.271)	1.761***	(0.349)	0.652	(0.409)
Desire to serve public	0.471**	(0.146)	0.520*	(0.215)	0.359	(0.187)
Salary motivation	-0.080	(0.190)	0.069	(0.248)	-0.416	(0.283)
Security concerns	0.098	(0.150)	0.116	(0.216)	0.148	(0.207)
Organizational environment	0.526***	(0.134)	0.599**	(0.189)	0.238	(0.184)
Career advancement	0.916***	(0.136)	1.119***	(0.185)	0.465*	(0.196)
Practical concerns	-0.422**	(0.136)	-0.276	(0.172)	-0.760***	(0.225)
Promotion	0.836**	(0.278)	1.059**	(0.366)	0.470	(0.410)
Mentored	0.816**	(0.250)	0.742*	(0.321)	0.977**	(0.366)
Female	0.072	(0.260)	0.186	(0.336)	-0.119	(0.387)
Nonwhite	0.206	(0.359)	0.141	(0.399)	-0.304	(0.749)
Age	0.072***	(0.015)	0.072***	(0.019)	0.078***	(0.023)
Education	-0.051	(0.110)	-0.034	(0.138)	-0.088	(0.178)
Constant	24.962***	(1.264)	23.756***	(1.700)	28.974***	(1.753)
Observations	1044		690		354	
R^2	0.516		0.394		0.471	
Adjusted R^2	0.509		0.382		0.449	
F statistic	80.459		35.538		19.665	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

pride (as measured by the organizational pride scale) in each of the models, holding other factors constant. These results suggest that when public and nonprofit managers perceive higher levels of organizational red tape, their organizational pride is significantly diminished. This finding supports *Hypothesis 4a*.

The consistency of the results across the public and nonprofit models appears to indicate that there is no significant difference between the two groups in terms of the impact of perceived organizational red tape on organizational pride. Incorporating a term representing an interaction between sector and organizational red tape (*Nonprofit* × *Organizational red tape*) allows for determining if this is indeed the case. The resulting t-statistic and its associated p-value indicate that there is no significant difference between the managers with respect to the effect of organizational red tape on organizational pride ($t = 0.12$, $p = 0.901$). Thus, the results of the sector regression models fail to support *Hypothesis 4b*.

The outcomes of the public and nonprofit models suggest that the inverse relationship between perceived organizational red tape and organizational pride is more uniform than predicted. That is, even as nonprofit managers perceive significantly less organizational red tape and have more organizational pride than their public sector counterparts, the effects of organizational red tape perceptions on organizational pride are nearly identical for each group. While public and nonprofit managers differ significantly with respect to the amount of organizational red tape they perceive within their organizations, and in terms of their levels of organizational pride, these differences are not reflected in the relationship between the two variables.

While the association between perceived organizational red tape and organizational pride is highly significant, it is not the strongest relationship in the full model. Among the variables that have significant effect on organizational pride, the sector indicator has the largest impact. On average, nonprofit managers rate their organizational pride roughly two points higher than managers in the public sector when controlling for the effects of organizational red tape (2.185, $p < 0.001$). This result lends further support to *Hypothesis 3*.

The state in which managers work is also significantly related to organizational pride in the full model and among public managers. Georgia managers on average rate their organizational pride well over one point higher than Illinois managers in the full model (1.396, $p < 0.001$), while public managers in Georgia report that their organizational pride is nearly two points higher than their Illinois peers (1.761, $p < 0.001$). However, the state dummy variable (*Georgia*) is not a significant predictor of organizational pride in the nonprofit model.

Several job selection factors are associated with higher organizational pride. A desire to serve the public and public interest (*Desire to serve public*) has a positive impact on organizational pride in the full and public sector models, though there is no significant relationship in the nonprofit model. *Organizational environment*—characterized by the desire for less bureaucratic red tape and a low conflict work environment, family friendly policies such as flexible work hours, and the overall quality and reputation of the organization—is associated with significantly higher levels of organizational pride in the full sample and among public managers. Accepting a position based on career advancement opportunities—factors such as opportunities for training and career development, opportunities for advancement, and the desire for increased responsibility—also has a significant and positive impact on organizational pride.

These considerations are related to roughly a point higher rating of organizational pride in the full and public sector models. Though the relationship is significant among nonprofit managers, it is considerably weaker (0.465, $p < 0.05$).

Practical concerns are negatively related to organizational pride in the full and nonprofit models. The relationship is highly significant among nonprofit managers, where such considerations are associated with nearly a one point lower rating of organizational pride (-0.760, $p < 0.001$). These findings are somewhat unsurprising given that these concerns are characterized by factors peripheral to the actual work and are largely indicative of a manager accepting a position due to convenience or necessity. If job selection decisions are based on the employment opportunities available to a spouse or partner or are the result of few alternative job offers, these choices may be manifested in a particularly limited connection to the organization. When there is little attachment to an organization, the underpinnings for organizational pride will likely be deficient.

Being promoted and mentored have significant and relatively strong effects on organizational pride. In both the full and public sector models, managers who advanced into their positions via promotion rate their organizational pride on average nearly one point higher than managers who were not promoted. In all three models, *Mentored* is also associated with nearly a one point higher rating on the organizational pride scale relative to managers who were not mentored. The strength of the relationship is fairly consistent across each of the models.

The Effects of Perceived Organizational Red Tape by State

The sector models discussed in the previous section suggest that perceived organizational red tape is significantly and negatively associated with organizational pride. Sorting the managers by state of employment permits further scrutiny of the relationship in order to determine if the effect holds among the resulting groups. The OLS regression results suggest that when the managers are categorized by in this way, the relationship between perceived organizational red tape and organizational pride remains highly significant and relatively strong (see table 8.8). In the Georgia model, perceived organizational red tape is negatively related to organizational pride—a one point higher rating on the GRT Scale is associated with roughly a one point decrease on organizational pride pride scale (-0.940, $p < 0.001$). Among public and nonprofit managers in Illinois, a one point increase in perceived organizational red tape is also related to about a one point reduction in organizational pride (-1.088, $p < 0.001$). These results indicate that the negative relationship between perceived organizational red tape and organizational pride is significant irrespective of whether the managers work in Georgia or Illinois. The results are compatible with the findings of the sector regressions, and provide additional support for *Hypothesis 4a*.

The sector indicator (*Nonprofit*) remains the strongest predictor of organizational pride in the state models. Among Georgia managers, nonprofit management is associated with a over a one point higher rating on the organizational pride scale relative to managing in the public sector (1.390, $p < 0.01$). The association is considerably stronger in the Illinois model, where working in the nonprofit sector is related to well over a two point higher rating compared to public management (2.592, $p < 0.001$). These results suggest that nonprofit managers have greater pride

Table 8.8: OLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Organizational Red Tape on Organizational Pride by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Organizational red tape	-0.940***	(0.085)	-1.088***	(0.075)
Nonprofit	1.390**	(0.496)	2.592***	(0.474)
Desire to serve public	0.370	(0.246)	0.554**	(0.180)
Salary motivation	-0.208	(0.270)	0.067	(0.278)
Security concerns	0.122	(0.229)	0.023	(0.201)
Organizational environment	0.862***	(0.203)	0.295	(0.181)
Career advancement	1.186***	(0.225)	0.736***	(0.172)
Practical concerns	-0.366	(0.196)	-0.417*	(0.195)
Promotion	0.659	(0.417)	0.908*	(0.381)
Mentored	0.805*	(0.373)	0.787*	(0.335)
Female	0.292	(0.380)	-0.020	(0.359)
Nonwhite	-0.207	(0.496)	0.706	(0.526)
Age	0.090***	(0.021)	0.062**	(0.022)
Education	0.037	(0.163)	-0.119	(0.151)
Constant	25.513***	(1.707)	25.170***	(1.819)
Observations	468		576	
R^2	0.463		0.552	
Adjusted R^2	0.447		0.541	
F statistic	32.686		54.686	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

in their organizations regardless of whether they work in Georgia or Illinois, controlling for the effects of organizational red tape. The findings lend further support to *Hypothesis 3*.

Among the remaining variables included in the state models, several remain significantly associated with organizational pride. The highly significant and positive relationship between career advancement opportunities and organizational pride persists in each of the state models, while *Organizational environment* is a highly significant predictor of organizational pride only among Georgia managers (0.862, $p < 0.001$). Previous mentoring is also positively associated with pride in an organization among both Georgia and Illinois managers. Regardless of state of employment, being mentored at some point in one's career is associated with nearly a one point higher rating on the organizational pride scale relative to those who were never mentored. *Age* also continues to be a significant predictor of organizational pride in the state models.

The Effects of Perceived Organizational Red Tape by Primary Responsibility

Segmenting managers by their primary responsibilities provides an additional perspective for examining the relationship between perceived organizational red tape and organizational pride. When the managers are categorized in this way, perceived organizational red tape continues to have a highly significant and negative impact on organizational pride. As table 8.9 demonstrates, the relationship holds for individuals with primarily managerial responsibilities and those in professional, technical, and other roles. In both the managerial and non-managerial models, a one point increase in perceived organizational red tape is associated with approximately a one point rating decrease in organizational pride. This finding offers additional support for *Hypothesis 4a*. It also further indicates that there is a reasonably strong relationship between perceptions of organizational red tape and organizational pride that persists throughout different managerial groupings.

Nonprofit remains the strongest predictor of organizational pride in the primary responsibility models. In the managerial model, nonprofit managers rate their organizational pride nearly two points higher than public managers with similar primary responsibilities (1.866, $p < 0.001$). The difference is even more pronounced in the non-managerial model. Nonprofit managers serving in professional, technical, or other capacities have an organizational pride

Table 8.9: OLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Organizational Red Tape on Organizational Pride by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial†	
Organizational red tape	-1.062***	(0.065)	-0.887***	(0.121)
Nonprofit	1.866***	(0.398)	2.711***	(0.777)
Georgia	1.334***	(0.313)	2.230***	(0.597)
Desire to serve public	0.440**	(0.159)	0.599	(0.316)
Salary motivation	-0.240	(0.221)	0.155	(0.380)
Security concerns	0.055	(0.166)	0.461	(0.338)
Organizational environment	0.419**	(0.153)	0.761**	(0.288)
Career advancement	0.602***	(0.151)	1.696***	(0.281)
Practical concerns	-0.544***	(0.152)	0.024	(0.313)
Promotion	0.837*	(0.351)	0.777	(0.523)
Mentored	0.864**	(0.280)	0.623	(0.536)
Female	-0.025	(0.294)	0.338	(0.555)
Nonwhite	0.353	(0.416)	-0.934	(0.727)
Age	0.046**	(0.017)	0.115***	(0.027)
Education	-0.052	(0.125)	-0.064	(0.228)
Constant	27.466***	(1.420)	20.001***	(2.653)
Observations	736		280	
R^2	0.537		0.469	
Adjusted R^2	0.527		0.439	
F statistic	63.690		21.554	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

rating that is on average nearly three points higher than public managers with comparable responsibilities (2.711, $p < 0.001$). These results suggest that nonprofit managers have significantly greater pride in their organizations than public administrators regardless of their primary responsibilities.

The state indicator variable (*Georgia*) also continues to be associated with higher levels of organizational pride. In the managerial model, Georgia managers on average rate their organizational pride over one point higher than managers employed in Illinois, as measured by the organizational pride scale (1.334, $p < 0.001$). In the non-managerial model, managers in Georgia have an organizational pride rating that is over two points higher than Illinois managers in comparable positions (2.230, $p < 0.001$). These relationships indicate that public and nonprofit managers in Georgia have significantly greater pride in their organizations than Illinois managers irrespective of their primary responsibilities.

Several job selection variables are associated with organizational pride in the primary responsibility models. A desire to serve the public and public interest is significantly and positively linked to organizational pride among individuals with primarily managerial responsibilities (0.440, $p < 0.01$). However, there is no significant relationship between *Desire to serve public* and organizational pride among individuals with primarily non-managerial obligations. *Organizational environment* and *Career advancement* are associated with significantly higher levels of organizational pride in both the managerial and non-managerial groups. The link between career advancement potential and organizational pride is highly significant among both types of managers, but the relationship is particularly strong among individuals in mainly non-managerial positions (1.696, $p < 0.001$). In the managerial model, *Practical concerns* are associated with a significant reduction in organizational pride (-0.544, $p < 0.001$).

Advancement by means of promotion (*Promotion*) positively affects the organizational pride of administrators with primarily managerial duties. Managers who were promoted into their current positions have an organizational pride rating that is on average nearly one point higher compared to individuals who attained their positions in some other manner (0.837, $p <$

0.05). As in the previous models, prior mentoring (*Mentored*) has a significant and positive impact on organizational pride in the managerial model. Individuals in mainly managerial roles who were mentored have an organizational pride score that is nearly one point higher than managers with similar duties who were not mentored (0.864, $p < 0.01$). Finally, *Age* is significantly related to greater organizational pride in both models. As in the previous models, however, the regression coefficients continue to indicate that its effect is comparatively weak.

Ancillary Analysis: Two-Stage Least Squares Regression

The OLS regression results strongly suggest that perceived organizational red tape is associated with significantly lower levels of pride in an organization. However, the results are potentially biased due to an omitted variable influencing organizational pride. Simultaneity, or reverse causality, is another potential concern as it is possible that those with higher levels of organizational pride may report fewer instances of organizational red tape within their organizations. Analyzing the relationship using a two-stage least squares (2SLS) regression model with an exogenous instrumental variable addresses these endogeneity concerns. In this model, *Organization size* (natural log) is instrumented for organizational red tape, as it satisfies the two assumptions for an instrumental variable, z.

First, an instrumental variable must be exogenous, $\mathrm{Cov}(z,u) = 0$. Organization size appears to meet this condition. Second, an instrumental variable must be correlated with the endogenous independent variable, x, $\mathrm{Cov}(z,x) \neq 0$ (Wooldridge 2009, 508). Organization size is clearly correlated with perceived organizational red tape ($r = 0.54$, $p < 0.001$), but this assumption is further tested using a simple bivariate regression in which *Organizational red tape* is regressed on *Organization size*. The results ($\beta = 0.569$, $p < 0.001$) indicate that *Organization size* satisfies the second condition for an instrumental variable.

The 2SLS regression results presented in table 8.10 show that perceived organizational red tape has a significant and negative effect on organizational pride. A one point increase on the GRT Scale is associated with over a one point decrease in organizational pride (-1.275, $p < 0.001$). This result is consistent with the finding of the full OLS regression (see table 8.7), and

Table 8.10: 2SLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Organizational Red Tape on Organizational Pride

	First Stage†		Second Stage‡	
Organizational red tape			-1.275***	(0.332)
Organization size (log)	0.258***	(0.050)		
Nonprofit	-1.632***	(0.299)	1.637	(0.961)
Georgia	-0.924***	(0.150)	1.162**	(0.450)
Desire to serve public	0.062	(0.085)	0.498**	(0.157)
Salary motivation	0.064	(0.107)	-0.066	(0.201)
Security concerns	0.328***	(0.082)	0.176	(0.202)
Organizational environment	-0.218**	(0.080)	0.422**	(0.163)
Career advancement	-0.070	(0.076)	0.890***	(0.142)
Practical concerns	0.269***	(0.073)	-0.338*	(0.163)
Promotion	-0.290	(0.155)	0.760*	(0.309)
Mentored	0.090	(0.141)	0.850**	(0.264)
Female	0.075	(0.145)	0.158	(0.267)
Nonwhite	-0.235	(0.208)	0.383	(0.384)
Age	-0.031***	(0.008)	0.056**	(0.019)
Education	0.069	(0.062)	-0.060	(0.119)
Constant	6.343***	(0.769)	27.504***	(2.958)
Observations	959		959	
R^2	0.372		0.510	
Adjusted R^2	0.362		0.502	
F statistic / χ^2	45.028		792.015	
Prob > F / χ^2	0.000		0.000	

Note: Instrumental variable: Organization size (log); Robust standard errors in parentheses
†Dependent variable: Organizational red tape
‡Dependent variable: Organizational pride
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

provides additional support for *Hypothesis 4a*. Post-estimation tests following the 2SLS regression indicate that perceived organizational red tape can be treated as exogenous and that the OLS estimator may be more suitable. A robust score test ($\chi^2 = 0.480$, $p = 0.489$) and a robust regression test ($F = 0.472$, $p = 0.492$) each fail to reject the null hypothesis that perceived organizational red tape is exogenous, lessening concerns over potential endogeneity and supporting the use of OLS.[17]

The Effects of Perceived Personnel Red Tape

The Effects of Perceived Personnel Red Tape by Sector

The analyses detailed above strongly suggest that perceived organizational red tape has a detrimental effect on organizational pride. The following sections examine whether perceptions of personnel red tape also have a negative effect on organizational pride. A variable measuring managers' perceptions of personnel red tape is incorporated into the OLS regression models (in lieu of *Organizational red tape*) to determine its impact on organizational pride. The results presented in table 8.11 show that perceived personnel red tape has a highly significant and negative impact on organizational pride, holding other factors constant. In the full model, a one point higher rating of perceived personnel red tape is associated with approximately a one point reduction in organizational pride (-1.258, $p < 0.001$). In the public and nonprofit models, *Personnel red tape* is the strongest predictor of organizational pride. Among public managers,

[17] These tests were performed in lieu of the typical Durbin and Wu-Hausman tests due to the use of robust standard errors. When performing the 2SLS regression using normal standard errors, the Durbin test ($\chi^2 = 0.462$, $p = 0.497$) and Wu-Hausman test ($F = 0.454$, $p = 0.501$) also failed to reject the null hypothesis that perceived organizational red tape is exogenous.

Table 8.11: OLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Personnel Red Tape on Organizational Pride by Sector

	All Managers		Public		Nonprofit	
Personnel red tape	-1.258***	(0.073)	-1.361***	(0.102)	-1.081***	(0.105)
Nonprofit	1.169**	(0.404)				
Georgia	1.278***	(0.284)	1.332***	(0.369)	0.833	(0.451)
Desire to serve public	0.331*	(0.147)	0.388	(0.218)	0.189	(0.188)
Salary motivation	-0.011	(0.196)	0.005	(0.253)	-0.152	(0.312)
Security concerns	0.016	(0.145)	0.127	(0.206)	-0.097	(0.206)
Organizational environment	0.623***	(0.145)	0.663***	(0.196)	0.358	(0.212)
Career advancement	0.824***	(0.145)	1.078***	(0.192)	0.257	(0.215)
Practical concerns	-0.506***	(0.136)	-0.469**	(0.165)	-0.547*	(0.246)
Promotion	0.662*	(0.287)	0.698	(0.368)	0.687	(0.454)
Mentored	0.484	(0.254)	0.624*	(0.318)	0.318	(0.405)
Female	0.245	(0.261)	0.395	(0.332)	-0.007	(0.416)
Nonwhite	0.194	(0.356)	0.173	(0.384)	-0.799	(0.893)
Age	0.075***	(0.015)	0.067***	(0.019)	0.087***	(0.025)
Education	-0.097	(0.111)	-0.102	(0.137)	-0.093	(0.186)
Constant	30.315***	(1.467)	31.262***	(2.018)	30.968***	(2.023)
Observations	1042		695		347	
R^2	0.501		0.400		0.403	
Adjusted R^2	0.494		0.388		0.378	
F statistic	82.423		38.959		17.079	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

perceived personnel red tape is associated with over a one point decrease in organizational pride (-1.361, $p < 0.001$). Similar results are observed in the nonprofit model, where perceived personnel red tape is related to a significant decline in organizational pride (-1.081, $p < 0.001$). The regression results lend support to *Hypothesis 5a*.

While the regression results are consistent across each of the models, the relevant coefficients in the public and nonprofit models suggest that there is a modest difference between the two groups in terms of the effect of perceived personnel red tape on organizational pride.

Adding a term representing the interaction between employment sector and perceived personnel red tape (*Nonprofit* × *Personnel red tape*) to the full model allows for determining if the public-nonprofit difference is significant. The resulting t-statistic and related p-value indicate that the effect of perceived personnel red tape on organizational pride is significantly greater for managers in the public sector at the 0.05 level ($t = 0.294$, $p = 0.030$). This result provides support for *Hypothesis 5b*.

Working in the nonprofit sector is positively associated with organizational pride in the full model. Nonprofit managers on average have an organizational pride rating that is roughly one point higher than managers in the public sector, holding personnel red tape and other factors constant (1.169, $p < 0.01$). This is further indication that nonprofit managers in general have greater pride in their organizations than managers working in public organizations, providing additional support for *Hypothesis 3*.

A comparison of all three models also suggests that the sector dummy variable is fairly consequential. Based on the adjusted R^2 values, the full model explains nearly half of the variation in organizational pride (49.4 percent) while the public and nonprofit models explain roughly 38 percent of the variation in organizational pride. The reduction in the explanatory power when *Nonprofit* is excluded from the public and nonprofit models indicates that employment sector is an important predictor of organizational pride.

The state of employment indicator (*Georgia*) is also highly significant predictor of organizational pride in the full and public models. In the full model, working in Georgia is associated with over a one point increase in organizational pride (1.278, $p < 0.001$). Among public managers, those working in Georgia have approximately a one point higher score on the organizational pride scale relative to Illinois managers (1.332, $p < 0.001$). The disparity in the full model, then, appears to be influenced mostly by the difference between public manager as there is no significant relationship between working in Georgia and organizational pride among nonprofit managers.

Four of the six job selection variables are significantly associated with organizational pride in the full model: *Desire to serve public*, *Organizational environment*, *Career advancement*, and *Practical concerns*. A desire to serve the public and public interest is related to a significant increase in organizational pride in the full model (0.331, $p < 0.05$), while accepting a job based on organizational environment considerations is associated with a significant increase in organizational pride in both the full and public sector models. Job choices based on the potential for career advancement is significantly linked to nearly a one point increase in organizational pride in the full model (0.824, $p < 0.001$). A similar relationship is observed in the public model, where *Career advancement* concerns are significantly associated with over a one point increase in organizational pride (1.078, $p < 0.001$). *Practical concerns*, on the other hand, have a negative effect on organizational pride in each of the three models.

These results suggest that public managers who were attracted to their jobs because of desirable characteristics and policies directly related to the work or work environment—for example, reduced bureaucratic red tape and conflict, opportunities for training and advancement, and increased responsibility—have relatively high levels of organizational pride. More pragmatic considerations, such as cost of living, job opportunities for spouses or partners, or few employment alternatives, seem to have a negative influence on the organizational pride of managers in general. The reasons for choosing a particular job, then, appear to be consequential in terms of organizational pride.

Several other variables are significant predictors of organizational pride. Attaining a position via promotion has a significant effect on organizational pride (0.662, $p < 0.05$), although there are no significant relationships between *Promotion* and organizational pride in the public and nonprofit models. Past mentoring is also associated with increased organizational pride (0.624, $p < 0.05$), but only among public managers. Finally, *Age* is significantly and positively related to organizational pride in each of the three models.

<u>The Effects of Perceived Personnel Red Tape by State</u>

Perceived personnel red tape continues to have a significant and negative effect on organizational pride when public and nonprofit managers are categorized by state. In each of the models, higher levels of perceived personnel red tape result in lower organizational pride (see table 8.12). In Georgia, a one point higher rating on the PRT Scale is associated with over a one point decrease in the pride managers have in their organizations (-1.378, $p < 0.001$). Perceived personnel red tape has a similar negative effect on organizational pride among Illinois managers (-1.171, $p < 0.001$). These results suggest that perceived personnel red tape significantly reduces organizational pride whether a manger works in Georgia or Illinois, providing additional support to *Hypothesis 5a*.

Working in a nonprofit organization is associated with significantly higher organizational pride in the Illinois model. Nonprofit managers in Illinois on average rate their organizational pride nearly two points higher than managers in the state's public organizations (1.876, $p <$

Table 8.12: OLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Personnel Red Tape on Organizational Pride by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Personnel red tape	-1.378***	(0.114)	-1.171***	(0.097)
Nonprofit	0.132	(0.593)	1.876***	(0.561)
Desire to serve public	0.114	(0.241)	0.503**	(0.182)
Salary motivation	-0.283	(0.280)	0.185	(0.284)
Security concerns	0.171	(0.216)	-0.150	(0.198)
Organizational environment	0.927***	(0.210)	0.428*	(0.200)
Career advancement	1.096***	(0.244)	0.638***	(0.182)
Practical concerns	-0.420*	(0.194)	-0.569**	(0.195)
Promotion	-0.104	(0.414)	1.237**	(0.398)
Mentored	0.694	(0.358)	0.300	(0.352)
Female	0.632	(0.368)	-0.008	(0.368)
Nonwhite	-0.053	(0.479)	0.463	(0.548)
Age	0.078***	(0.020)	0.080***	(0.023)
Education	-0.038	(0.159)	-0.143	(0.157)
Constant	34.199***	(2.074)	27.769***	(2.052)
Observations	466		576	
R^2	0.493		0.511	
Adjusted R^2	0.477		0.499	
F statistic	37.391		52.733	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

0.001). There is no significant relationship between the employment sector dummy variable (*Nonprofit*) and organizational pride among managers in Georgia, however. Thus, *Hypothesis 3* is not supported by the Georgia regression model when controlling for the effect of perceived personnel red tape. While the previous models strongly suggest that there is a significant sectoral difference in organizational pride, this finding indicates that there is no significant difference between public and nonprofit managers in Georgia when perceived personnel red tape is incorporated into the state models.

As in previous models, several job selection motivations are significant predictors of organizational pride. A desire to serve the public and public interest is related to significantly greater organizational pride in the Illinois model (0.503, $p < 0.01$), but not among Georgia managers. *Organizational environment* and *Career advancement* continue to have significant and positive effects on the organizational pride of both Georgia and Illinois managers. The effects are particularly large in the Georgia model, where each variable is associated with roughly a one point increase on the organizational pride scale. *Practical concerns*, on the other hand, remain associated with a significant reduction in organizational pride among managers in both Georgia and Illinois.

Attaining a job through promotion also has a significant and positive effect on organizational pride, but only among Illinois managers. Relative to individuals not promoted into their current positions, receiving a promotion in Illinois is on average associated with over a one point higher rating of organizational pride (1.237, $p < 0.01$). However, there is no significant relationship between being promoted and organizational pride for managers employed in Georgia. This may suggest that promotions generally hold greater significance for public and nonprofit managers in Illinois, or that managers in the state place greater emphasis on the importance of being promoted. Another plausible explanation is that promotions may occur with less frequency in Illinois. In this case, pride in the organization may be directly affected by the individual pride one feels as a consequence of being promoted.

The continued absence of a significant relationship between receiving a promotion and organizational pride in Georgia is somewhat surprising. Given that the desire for career advancement opportunities is a significant predictor of organizational pride among managers in the state, one might reasonably expect that actually receiving a promotion would also have an impact on pride in an organization. Perhaps obtaining a promotion is ultimately not as important as the potential for advancement in determining the pride that public and nonprofit managers in Georgia have in their organizations. This may be the case if managers view the opportunity for career advancement as an organizational attribute but regard promotions as reflective of individual achievement. Organizational pride might result from the former, whereas personal pride may be associated with the latter.

The Effects of Perceived Personnel Red Tape by Primary Responsibility

Perceived personnel red tape continues to have a significant and negative impact on organizational pride when the managers are sorted by primary responsibility. In each group, a one point increase in perceived personnel rule constraints is associated with over a one point decrease on the organizational pride scale (see table 8.13). Irrespective of whether an individual primarily serves in a managerial capacity or is principally engaged in professional, technical, or other duties, perceived personnel red tape significantly and negatively effects pride in an organization. This result provides further support for *Hypothesis 5a*.

Among individuals in primarily managerial positions, working in the nonprofit sector is associated with a significant increase in organizational pride. Nonprofit managers in primarily managerial roles on average assess their levels of organizational pride to be over one point higher than public administrators with similar responsibilities (1.248, $p < 0.01$). This is not the case with other types of managers, however. For managers with professional, technical, or other primary duties, managing in a nonprofit organization is not a significant determinant of organizational

Table 8.13: OLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Personnel Red Tape on Organizational Pride by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial[†]	
Personnel red tape	-1.185***	(0.088)	-1.307***	(0.145)
Nonprofit	1.248**	(0.476)	1.247	(0.829)
Georgia	1.150***	(0.333)	2.026**	(0.612)
Desire to serve public	0.237	(0.164)	0.703*	(0.310)
Salary motivation	-0.018	(0.230)	-0.097	(0.396)
Security concerns	-0.180	(0.160)	0.717*	(0.321)
Organizational environment	0.623***	(0.165)	0.481	(0.308)
Career advancement	0.535**	(0.166)	1.705***	(0.293)
Practical concerns	-0.649***	(0.155)	-0.073	(0.299)
Promotion	0.802*	(0.380)	0.648	(0.522)
Mentored	0.556	(0.293)	0.752	(0.524)
Female	0.090	(0.303)	0.768	(0.529)
Nonwhite	0.518	(0.421)	-0.982	(0.702)
Age	0.057**	(0.018)	0.095***	(0.027)
Education	-0.104	(0.129)	-0.013	(0.225)
Constant	30.981***	(1.679)	27.607***	(3.022)
Observations	736		279	
R^2	0.501		0.486	
Adjusted R^2	0.490		0.457	
F statistic	60.511		24.981	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
[†]Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
$^{*}\ p < 0.05$, $^{**}\ p < 0.01$, $^{***}\ p < 0.001$

pride. This finding indicates that *Hypothesis 3* is not supported by the non-managerial model when holding perceived personnel red tape constant.

Georgia managers have significantly higher organizational pride irrespective of their primary responsibilities. For individuals with primarily managerial responsibilities, being employed Georgia is associated with over a one point increase in organizational pride relative to working in Illinois (1.150, $p < 0.001$). In the non-managerial model, Georgia managers on average have an organizational pride rating that is roughly two points higher than managers in Illinois (2.026, $p < 0.01$). Managing an organization in Georgia is the strongest predictor of organizational pride among managers with principally professional, technical, or other duties based on the size of the coefficient.

Several job selection factors are associated with organizational pride in each of the models. A desire to serve the public and public interest is associated with significantly higher organizational pride among individuals with primarily non-managerial positions (0.703, $p < 0.05$). Interestingly, *Security concerns* are also related to significantly higher levels of organizational pride among these managers (0.717, $p < 0.05$). This finding suggests that for managers with primarily professional, technical, or other duties, choosing a job based on the potential for job security and fringe benefits results in higher organizational pride. This may indicate that these managers are more likely to associate job security and related benefits with incentives that are demonstrative of organizational support and care for employees.

Organizational environment is associated with significantly higher organizational pride among individuals with primarily managerial responsibilities (0.623, $p < 0.001$), suggesting that these managers in particular value less bureaucratic red tape and a low conflict work environment when controlling for personnel red tape. *Career advancement* motives are significantly related to higher levels of pride in an organization for both groups of managers, but the relationship is particularly strong among those with primarily professional, technical, and other responsibilities. Among these managers, accepting a job because of the career advancement opportunities it affords is associated with an organizational pride rating increase of nearly two points (1.705, $p < 0.001$). *Practical concerns* have a highly significant and negative impact on the organizational pride of individuals with mainly managerial duties (-0.649, $p < 0.001$).

Two other variables are significant predictors of organizational pride: *Promotion* and *Age*. Receiving a promotion is associated with nearly a one point increase on the organizational pride scale among individuals with primarily managerial responsibilities (0.802, $p < 0.05$). *Age* continues to be associated with an increase in organizational pride among individuals in both the managerial and non-managerial models.

Ancillary Analysis: Two-Stage Least Squares Regression

The results of the OLS regressions demonstrate that perceived personnel red tape has a persistently negative impact on organizational pride. However, as in the OLS models estimating the effect of organizational red tape, the findings are considered to be potentially biased due to endogeneity. Omitted variable bias is of particular concern due to the possibility that an unobserved variable may be responsible for changes in organizational pride. Reverse causality is also a concern, as organizational pride may influence perceptions of personnel red tape just as these perceptions affect organizational pride. A supplemental 2SLS regression using *Organization size* (natural log) addresses these concerns.

As in the previous 2SLS regression estimating the effect of perceived organizational red tape on organizational pride, organization size appears to satisfy the exogeneity condition for an instrumental variable. Organization size is also correlated with perceived personnel red tape ($r = 0.58$, $p < 0.001$). A simple bivariate regression in which perceived personnel red tape is regressed on organization size further tests the correlation condition. The results ($\beta = 0.526$, $p < 0.001$)

indicate that organization size satisfies the second condition for an instrumental variable, making it an appropriate instrument for perceived personnel red tape.

The 2SLS regression results presented in table 8.14 are consistent with those of the OLS regressions, showing that perceived personnel red tape is associated with a significant reduction in organizational pride. Specifically, a one point increase on the PRT Scale results in a decrease of nearly two points on the organizational pride scale (-1.920, $p < 0.001$). These results lend

Table 8.14: 2SLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Personnel Red Tape on Organizational Pride

	First Stage†		Second Stage‡	
Personnel red tape			-1.920***	(0.518)
Organization size (log)	0.176***	(0.038)		
Nonprofit	-2.299***	(0.232)	-0.761	(1.612)
Georgia	-0.941***	(0.115)	0.597	(0.600)
Desire to serve public	-0.079	(0.070)	0.256	(0.160)
Salary motivation	0.023	(0.086)	-0.015	(0.209)
Security concerns	0.234***	(0.066)	0.117	(0.206)
Organizational environment	-0.074	(0.060)	0.564***	(0.162)
Career advancement	-0.090	(0.061)	0.750***	(0.160)
Practical concerns	0.141*	(0.057)	-0.453**	(0.159)
Promotion	-0.356**	(0.122)	0.371	(0.362)
Mentored	-0.205	(0.111)	0.427	(0.287)
Female	0.242*	(0.114)	0.519	(0.301)
Nonwhite	-0.390**	(0.149)	0.110	(0.408)
Age	-0.027***	(0.007)	0.048*	(0.022)
Education	-0.010	(0.048)	-0.149	(0.120)
Constant	10.410***	(0.597)	38.922***	(6.187)
Observations	957		957	
R^2	0.473		0.469	
Adjusted R^2	0.465		0.461	
F statistic / χ^2	58.410		701.926	
Prob > F / χ^2	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses; Instrumental variable: Organization size (log)
†Dependent variable: Personnel red tape
‡Dependent variable: Organizational pride
$^{*}p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, $^{***}p < 0.001$

additional support to *Hypothesis 5a*. However, post-estimation testing to determine whether the OLS or 2SLS estimator is more suitable demonstrates that the OLS model may not be particularly biased by endogeneity. A robust score test ($\chi^2 = 1.584$, $p = 0.208$) and robust regression test ($F = 1.557$, $p = 0.212$) each fail to reject the null hypothesis that perceived personnel red tape is exogenous.[18] These test results provide evidence that the OLS estimator is better suited to analyzing the effect of perceived personnel red tape on organizational pride.

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[18] The Durbin test ($\chi^2 = 1.583$, $p = 0.208$) and Wu-Hausman test ($F = 1.557$, $p = 0.212$) also failed to reject the null hypothesis that perceived organizational red tape is exogenous when using normal standard errors.

CHAPTER 9

WORK MOTIVATION: COMPARING PUBLIC AND NONPROFIT MANAGERS AND ESTIMATING THE EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED RED TAPE

This chapter examines the dissimilarities in general work motivation between public and nonprofit managers. It also investigates the extent to which work motivation is affected by managers' organizational and personnel red tape perceptions. Two-sample *t*-tests and OLS regressions are used to compare the work motivation of public and nonprofit managers, as well as the effects of organizational and personnel red tape on overall motivation. As in the previous chapter, endogeneity concerns are addressed using ancillary two-stage least squares regressions.

Work Motivation Comparison of Public and Nonprofit Managers

Work Motivation by Sector

An initial comparison of mean responses to the individual work motivation scale items and the scale average scale ratings suggests that there is generally a significant difference between public and nonprofit managers. As shown in table 9.1, the two groups differ significantly on three of the four scale items and on the overall work motivation scale, with nonprofit managers indicating that they are more highly motivated. However, there is no significant difference between public and nonprofit managers' mean levels of agreement with the item pertaining to exertion of effort ("I put forth my best effort to get the job done regardless of the difficulties."). The lack of a significant difference between the groups is likely indicative of

Table 9.1: Mean Comparisons of Work Motivation Items

	Public	Nonprofit	Difference	*t*	*df*
I put forth best effort to get the job done	3.868	3.891	-0.023	-1.124	1207
I do extra work not expected of me	3.288	3.457	-0.169***	-3.638	1206
Time drags while I am on the job (r)	3.309	3.629	-0.320***	-6.971	1204
Hard to get involved in my current job (r)	3.572	3.743	-0.171***	-3.969	1206
Work Motivation Scale	14.037	14.723	-0.686***	-6.266	1202

Note: (r) = reversed
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed)

the difficulty associated with attempts to gauge individual work effort by relying on self-assessment measures, as many respondents tend to report that they expend a great deal of effort (Rainey 2009). Indeed, the mean responses to this particular item indicate that both public and nonprofit managers strongly agree with the statement regarding effort.[19] This item notwithstanding, the results largely suggest that *Hypothesis 6* can be rejected.

Regressing work motivation on the sector dummy variable (*Nonprofit*) and other relevant controls further indicates that public and nonprofit managers differ significantly with respect to overall motivation. The OLS regression results presented in table 9.2 indicate that employment sector is a highly significant predictor of work motivation.[20] Specifically, working in the nonprofit sector is associated with significantly higher levels of work motivation, holding other factors constant (0.556, $p < 0.001$). These findings further suggest that *Hypothesis 6* is not supported.

[19] Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney rank sum tests also indicate that public and nonprofit managers do not differ significantly with respect to (a) putting forth one's best effort regardless of the difficulties: $z = -1.033$, $p = 0.302$; but are significantly different in terms of (b) performing extra work beyond expectations: $z = -4.338$, $p < 0.001$; (c) time dragging on the job: $z = -6.871$, $p < 0.001$; and (d) difficulty getting involved in one's current job: $z = -5.061$, $p < 0.001$. Where the two groups differ, nonprofit managers have significantly higher rank.

[20] The results of an ordinal logistic regression also indicate that working in the nonprofit sector is significantly and positively associated with work motivation (see table A.7 in Appendix A). Similarly, the results of a tobit regression analysis show that working in the nonprofit sector is associated with significantly higher work motivation (see table B.1 in Appendix B).

Table 9.2: OLS Model Estimating Work Motivation by Sector

	All Managers		Public		Nonprofit	
Nonprofit	0.556***	(0.137)				
Georgia	0.052	(0.115)	0.149	(0.140)	-0.208	(0.211)
Desire to serve public	0.249***	(0.064)	0.363***	(0.096)	0.089	(0.079)
Salary motivation	-0.091	(0.077)	-0.147	(0.103)	-0.057	(0.113)
Security concerns	-0.073	(0.059)	-0.078	(0.085)	0.005	(0.082)
Organizational environment	-0.104	(0.062)	-0.187*	(0.082)	-0.027	(0.098)
Career advancement	0.256***	(0.065)	0.338***	(0.086)	0.108	(0.096)
Practical concerns	-0.182**	(0.056)	-0.141*	(0.068)	-0.218*	(0.098)
Promotion	0.349**	(0.123)	0.413**	(0.158)	0.179	(0.191)
Civic engagement	0.128***	(0.036)	0.091*	(0.042)	0.215**	(0.069)
Amount of supervision	-0.126*	(0.050)	-0.149**	(0.056)	0.002	(0.096)
Female	0.331**	(0.105)	0.428**	(0.132)	0.263	(0.177)
Nonwhite	-0.163	(0.161)	-0.138	(0.172)	-0.752	(0.459)
Age	0.030***	(0.006)	0.030***	(0.008)	0.027**	(0.009)
Education	-0.030	(0.048)	-0.114*	(0.058)	0.177*	(0.089)
Constant	12.194***	(0.574)	12.467***	(0.720)	11.509***	(1.073)
Observations	1066		715		351	
R^2	0.145		0.146		0.122	
Adjusted R^2	0.133		0.128		0.085	
F statistic	10.799		6.862		3.520	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
$^{*}p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, $^{***}p < 0.001$

Employment sector also has the strongest effect on work motivation among the variables included in the full model. However, when *Nonprofit* is excluded from the restricted regressions, there is little change in the adjusted R^2 values. Whereas the full model explains 13.3 percent of the variation in work motivation, the public and nonprofit sector models explain 12.8 and 8.5 percent, respectively. (In fact, the unadjusted R^2 value in the public model increases to 14.6). This indicates that while sector has the largest impact on work motivation, it may not be a highly influential predictor of work motivation. It should be noted that the relatively small R^2 values potentially reflect the limited overall variance in work motivation due to its high degree of skewness. However, it is also possible that the regression models are simply a poor fit. The nonprofit model in particular is cause for concern, as evidenced by the few significant relationships within the model and its especially limited explanatory power.

Several job selection variables are significantly related to general work motivation. Accepting a position based on the desire to serve the public and public interest is significantly and positively associated with work motivation in the full and public models. Surprisingly, however, taking a job because of organizational environment considerations is negatively related to work motivation in the public sector model (-0.187, $p < 0.05$). This appears to suggest that public managers who accept a job because they desire less bureaucratic red tape and a low conflict work environment, in addition to the quality and reputation of the organization and its "family friendly" policies, are less motivated. While this finding is counterintuitive, it might be the case that these managers are less motivated as they ultimately find that their jobs do not meet their expectations.

Choosing a job based on the career advancement opportunities it affords is a significant and positive predictor of work motivation in the full and public sector models. This finding indicates that wanting opportunities for advancement, training, and career development, as well as the desire for increased responsibility, is associated with overall work motivation, at least among public managers. *Practical concerns* is negatively related to work motivation in all three models, indicating that overall work motivation suffers when managers are initially motivated by factors such as low cost of living, employment opportunities for their spouse of partner, or have few alternative job offers.

Three other substantive variables are significantly related to work motivation: *Promotion*, *Civic engagement*, and *Amount of supervision*. Being promoted is associated with significantly higher work motivation in the full and public models, while *Civic engagement* is related to higher work motivation in all three regressions. The amount of supervision perceived by public and nonprofit managers is associated with a reductions in overall motivation in the full and public sector models.

Among the included demographic variables, three are significantly related to general motivation: *Female*, *Age*, and *Education*. Relative to male managers, females on average have significantly higher work motivation in the full and public sector models. Age is also related to higher overall motivation in each of the models, though its impact is comparatively small. Interestingly, level of education is negatively related to work motivation in the public sector regression, but it is positively associated with work motivation in the nonprofit sector model. In other words, public managers are less motivated as they obtain higher levels of education, whereas more highly educated nonprofit managers are more motivated.

Work Motivation by State

Categorizing public and nonprofit managers by state reveals that whether the two groups differ significantly in their mean responses largely depends on the state in which the managers work. The mean comparisons presented in table 9.3 show that in Georgia, there is no significant difference between public and nonprofit managers' mean responses to three of the four scale items. In Illinois, however, the managers' responses to three of the questionnaire items differ significantly, though there is no statistically significant difference between public and nonprofit

Table 9.3: Mean Comparisons of Work Motivation Items by State

	Public	Nonprofit	Difference	*t*	*df*
I put forth best effort to get the job done					
Georgia	3.887	3.933	-0.046	-1.379	535
Illinois	3.846	3.877	-0.031	-1.145	670
I do extra work not expected of me					
Georgia	3.306	3.413	-0.107	-1.274	534
Illinois	3.267	3.472	-0.205***	-3.460	670
Time drags while I am on the job (r)					
Georgia	3.360	3.638	-0.278***	-3.287	534
Illinois	3.248	3.625	-0.377***	-6.589	668
Hard to get involved in my current job (r)					
Georgia	3.616	3.733	-0.117	-1.531	535
Illinois	3.518	3.747	-0.229***	-4.083	669
Work Motivation Scale					
Georgia	14.167	14.721	-0.554**	-2.839	533
Illinois	13.879	14.724	-0.845***	-5.981	667

Note: (r) = reversed
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed)

managers' mean responses to the item pertaining to exertion of effort ("I put forth my best effort to get the job done regardless of the difficulties."). Public and nonprofit managers in both states differ significantly with respect to the overall work motivation scale ratings, with nonprofit managers indicating that they have higher levels of overall motivation. These results provide some support for *Hypothesis 6*, particularly among managers in Georgia. In terms of overall work motivation, however, the findings offer no support for this hypothesis.

The OLS regression results are consistent with the findings of the two-sample *t*-tests. In the Georgia model, there is no significant difference between public and nonprofit managers in terms of work motivation, providing limited support for *Hypothesis 6* (see table 9.4). In Illinois, however, employment sector is a highly significant predictor of general motivation. Among managers in Illinois, working in the nonprofit sector is associated with significantly higher levels

Table 9.4: OLS Model Estimating Work Motivation by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Nonprofit	0.314	(0.227)	0.684***	(0.176)
Desire to serve public	0.341**	(0.108)	0.192*	(0.080)
Salary motivation	-0.209	(0.111)	0.047	(0.114)
Security concerns	-0.012	(0.091)	-0.129	(0.077)
Organizational environment	-0.035	(0.093)	-0.165*	(0.083)
Career advancement	0.237*	(0.102)	0.267**	(0.083)
Practical concerns	-0.221*	(0.088)	-0.130	(0.074)
Promotion	0.523**	(0.198)	0.169	(0.159)
Civic engagement	0.132*	(0.052)	0.124*	(0.050)
Amount of supervision	-0.111	(0.071)	-0.149*	(0.068)
Female	0.299	(0.152)	0.352*	(0.149)
Nonwhite	-0.057	(0.224)	-0.246	(0.238)
Age	0.026**	(0.009)	0.033***	(0.009)
Education	-0.063	(0.069)	-0.007	(0.066)
Constant	12.453***	(0.798)	11.840***	(0.830)
Observations	476		590	
R^2	0.149		0.161	
Adjusted R^2	0.123		0.140	
F statistic	6.385		6.361	
Prob > *F*	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

of work motivation (0.684, $p < 0.001$). *Nonprofit* is also the strongest predictor among the variables included in the Illinois model.[21]

Three job selection variables are again significantly related to work motivation in each of the states. A desire to serve the public (*Desire to serve public*) is associated with significantly higher levels of overall motivation in both Georgia and Illinois. Choosing a job based on

[21] Results of an ordered logit model are compatible with the findings of the OLS regressions, showing a significant and positive association between employment sector and work motivation in Illinois and no statistically significant relationship in the Georgia model (see table A.8 in Appendix A). Tobit regressions also indicate that working in the nonprofit is significantly related to higher levels of work motivation in the Illinois model, but there is no significant relationship in Georgia (see table B.2 in Appendix B).

organizational environment considerations is negatively related to work motivation in the Illinois model (-0.165, $p < 0.05$). *Career advancement* is associated with higher work motivation in both Georgia and Illinois. Finally, accepting a job based on practical concerns is associated with lower work motivation in the Georgia model (-0.221, $p < 0.05$).

Georgia managers who advanced into their current jobs through promotion on average have higher work motivation than those who were not promoted (0.523, $p < 0.01$), while greater civic engagement is associated with significantly higher overall motivation in both models. The amount of supervision perceived by public and nonprofit managers in Illinois is also associated with significantly lower work motivation (-0.149, $p < 0.05$).

With respect to the demographic variables, the gender dummy variable (*Female*) is positively related to work motivation in the Illinois model (0.352, $p < 0.05$). In other words, female managers on average have higher levels of general work motivation than their male peers. *Age* is also significantly and positively related to work motivation in both the Georgia and Illinois models.

Work Motivation by Primary Responsibility

A comparison of public and nonprofit managers' mean responses to the work motivation scale items indicates that there are fewer highly significant differences between the two groups when they are sorted by primary responsibility. The results of the two-sample *t*-tests presented in table 9.5 show that among individuals with primarily managerial duties, there is a highly significant difference between public and nonprofit managers' average responses to the item pertaining to time dragging on the job ("Time seems to drag while I am on the job"). There is

Table 9.5: Mean Comparisons of Work Motivation Items by Primary Responsibility

	Public	Nonprofit	Difference	*t*	*df*
I put forth best effort to get the job done					
Managerial	3.878	3.894	-0.015	-0.687	839
Non-managerial†	3.851	3.898	-0.047	-0.896	326
I do extra work not expected of me					
Managerial	3.331	3.455	-0.125*	-2.306	838
Non-managerial	3.223	3.424	-0.201	-1.814	326
Time drags while I am on the job (r)					
Managerial	3.354	3.660	-0.306***	-6.046	836
Non-managerial	3.193	3.458	-0.264*	-2.167	326
Hard to get involved in my current job (r)					
Managerial	3.634	3.750	-0.116*	-2.433	838
Non-managerial	3.439	3.678	-0.239*	-2.040	326
Work Motivation Scale					
Managerial	14.198	14.763	-0.565***	-4.633	834
Non-managerial	13.706	14.458	-0.751**	-2.605	326

Note: (r) = reversed
†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ (two-tailed)

again no significant difference between these managers in terms of the item pertaining to effort ("I put forth my best effort to get the job done regardless of the difficulties.") For the remaining scale items, the mean differences are significant at the 0.05 level. The mean responses of public and nonprofit managers with predominately professional, technical, or other responsibilities are significantly different for only two of the four scale items.

With respect to the overall work motivation scores, however, the average rating for nonprofit managers is significantly greater than the mean rating of public managers regardless of how the managers are classified. These ratings indicate that nonprofit managers on average are more highly motivated than managers in public organizations. Thus, while not all of the differences between the mean responses to the individual scale items are significant, the overall ratings indicate that there is a significant difference in work motivation between public and nonprofit managers. These findings further indicate that *Hypothesis 6* can be rejected.

The OLS regression results presented in table 9.6 indicate that there is a significant relationship between the employment sector dummy variable (*Nonprofit*) and general work motivation. In fact, employment sector is the strongest predictor of work motivation in each of the models. In the managerial model, working in the nonprofit sector is associated with significantly higher levels of work motivation (0.458, $p < 0.01$). That is, nonprofit managers on

Table 9.6: OLS Model Estimating Work Motivation by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial†	
Nonprofit	0.458**	(0.156)	0.855**	(0.302)
Georgia	0.105	(0.135)	0.004	(0.229)
Desire to serve public	0.140*	(0.067)	0.450**	(0.146)
Salary motivation	-0.102	(0.087)	-0.087	(0.166)
Security concerns	-0.046	(0.069)	-0.112	(0.124)
Organizational environment	-0.080	(0.071)	-0.209	(0.117)
Career advancement	0.221**	(0.074)	0.274*	(0.138)
Practical concerns	-0.127*	(0.063)	-0.305*	(0.127)
Promotion	0.218	(0.165)	0.416	(0.238)
Civic engagement	0.153***	(0.043)	0.062	(0.071)
Amount of supervision	-0.001	(0.051)	-0.357***	(0.094)
Female	0.305*	(0.122)	0.414	(0.213)
Nonwhite	-0.205	(0.186)	-0.102	(0.371)
Age	0.018*	(0.007)	0.042***	(0.012)
Education	0.046	(0.055)	-0.196*	(0.097)
Constant	12.257***	(0.641)	12.947***	(1.256)
Observations	750		288	
R^2	0.102		0.258	
Adjusted R^2	0.084		0.217	
F statistic	5.545		6.143	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

average are more highly motivated than public managers among those with primarily managerial responsibilities. Similarly, among managers whose primary responsibilities are professional, technical, or unspecified, nonprofit managers on average rate their level of work motivation nearly one point higher than managers in the public sector (0.855, $p < 0.01$). These results further suggest that *Hypothesis 6* is not supported.[22]

Three of the job selection variables are significantly associated with work motivation in each of the regressions. The desire to serve the public and public interest is related to significantly higher work motivation in both the managerial and non-managerial models. *Career advancement* is also significantly and positively associated with work motivation in both models. Choosing a job based on practical concerns, however, is related to significantly lower work motivation among individuals whose primary responsibilities are managerial and for managers with primarily professional, technical, or other duties.

There is a highly significant and positive relationship between *Civic engagement* and work motivation among individuals whose primary job responsibilities are managerial. For these managers, greater participation in civic activities is related to higher work motivation (0.153, $p < 0.001$). *Amount of supervision* is a highly significant and negative predictor of work motivation among managers with primarily professional, technical, or other obligations. Higher levels of perceived supervision are associated with lower overall work motivation among these managers (-0.357, $p < 0.001$). However, there is no significant relationship between the amount of perceived supervision and work motivation among individuals with primarily managerial

[22] Ordinal logistic regressions also show that working in the nonprofit sector is significantly and positively related to work motivation in both the managerial and non-managerial models (see table A.9 in Appendix A). Similarly, tobit regressions show that nonprofit managers have significantly higher work motivation than managers working in the public sector (see table B.3 in Appendix B).

responsibilities. As these managers may be more likely to manage other employees, the absence of a significant relationship may indicate some level of understanding for the role of supervisors, while those with non-managerial functions may be less amenable to close supervision.

Three of the demographic variables are associated with significantly higher work motivation: *Female*, *Age*, and *Education*. Women with principally managerial duties appear to be more highly motivated than their male counterparts (0.305, $p < 0.05$). *Age* is also positively associated with general motivation in both models. Finally, level of education is associated with significantly lower work motivation in the non-managerial model (-0.196, $p < 0.05$). This result suggests that managers with primarily professional, technical, and other responsibilities are less motivated as they attain higher levels of education.

The Effects of Perceived Organizational Red Tape

The Effects of Perceived Organizational Red Tape by Sector

The incorporation of the perceived organizational red tape variable (*Organizational red tape*) into the OLS regression models allows for determining whether organizational red tape perceptions affect the overall work motivation of public and nonprofit managers. The regression results presented in table 9.7 indicate that perceived organizational red tape has a significant and negative impact on general work motivation in the full and public sector models. However, the size of the effect in each of the models is relatively inappreciable, indicating that perceived organizational red tape is a relatively weak, if significant, predictor of work motivation. In addition, perceived organizational red tape has no statistically significant effect on the work motivation of managers in the nonprofit sector. Because the regression results indicate that the

Table 9.7: OLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Organizational Red Tape on Work Motivation by Sector

	All Managers		Public		Nonprofit	
Organizational red tape	-0.083**	(0.025)	-0.097**	(0.035)	-0.055	(0.040)
Nonprofit	0.327*	(0.149)				
Georgia	-0.049	(0.118)	0.026	(0.144)	-0.245	(0.214)
Desire to serve public	0.260***	(0.064)	0.367***	(0.096)	0.098	(0.080)
Salary motivation	-0.100	(0.078)	-0.164	(0.103)	-0.053	(0.113)
Security concerns	-0.044	(0.061)	-0.064	(0.086)	0.033	(0.088)
Organizational environment	-0.120	(0.061)	-0.200*	(0.081)	-0.043	(0.099)
Career advancement	0.256***	(0.065)	0.339***	(0.086)	0.110	(0.096)
Practical concerns	-0.156**	(0.056)	-0.102	(0.069)	-0.218*	(0.097)
Promotion	0.330**	(0.121)	0.410**	(0.156)	0.143	(0.191)
Civic engagement	0.120**	(0.037)	0.091*	(0.042)	0.198**	(0.073)
Amount of supervision	-0.100*	(0.049)	-0.119*	(0.056)	0.021	(0.095)
Female	0.342**	(0.105)	0.427**	(0.131)	0.277	(0.177)
Nonwhite	-0.238	(0.161)	-0.242	(0.176)	-0.707	(0.447)
Age	0.026***	(0.006)	0.026**	(0.008)	0.026**	(0.009)
Education	-0.024	(0.048)	-0.108	(0.058)	0.180*	(0.089)
Constant	12.852***	(0.611)	13.248***	(0.754)	11.750***	(1.137)
Observations	1060		709		351	
R^2	0.156		0.157		0.128	
Adjusted R^2	0.143		0.139		0.089	
F statistic	10.726		7.076		3.660	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

effect of perceived personnel red tape on work motivation does not hold in both the public and nonprofit sector models, *Hypothesis 7a* is not entirely supported. Although the evidence indicates that perceived organizational red tape negatively affects work motivation in the full sample of managers, it seems likely that the observed impact in the full model is largely attributable to the changes in the work motivation of public managers.[23]

As noted, the insubstantial coefficients and lack of a relationship in the nonprofit model suggest that there is a rather weak association between perceived organizational red tape and work motivation. In fact, comparisons of the adjusted R^2 values of these models to those of the regressions excluding *Organizational red tape* (i.e., the models estimating work motivation by sector; see table 9.2) demonstrate that the inclusion of the perceived organizational red tape variable results in only a slight increase in the explanatory power of each model. In the full model, the amount of explained variation in work motivation rose from 13.3 percent to 14.3 percent. A similar result was found in the public sector model, where the adjusted R^2 value improved from 0.128 to 0.139. Including perceived organizational red tape in the nonprofit sector model increased the amount of explained variation in work motivation even less substantially (from 8.5 percent to 8.9 percent). These minor changes suggest that perceived organizational red tape adds little to the explanatory power of the models.

Based on the comparable effect sizes in the sector models, there appears to be no significant difference between public and nonprofit managers in terms of the effect of perceived organizational red tape (notwithstanding the difference in statistical significance). In order to determine whether the two groups differed significantly, an additional variable representing the

[23] The ordinal logistic regression results are largely consistent with those of the OLS analysis, with two notable differences. First, the negative relationship between perceived organizational red tape and work motivation is highly significant in the full model. Second, there is a significant and negative relationship between perceived organizational red tape and work motivation among nonprofit managers in the ordered logit model (see table A.10 in Appendix A). These results provide some evidence in support of *Hypothesis 7a*. However, the tobit regression results are highly consonant with the OLS findings, suggesting that the hypothesis should be rejected (see table B.4 in Appendix B). Given the compatibility of the OLS and tobit regressions, there is greater evidence in favor of rejecting *Hypothesis 7a*.

interaction between sector and perceived organizational red tape (*Nonprofit* × *Organizational red tape*) was incorporated into the full model. The resulting t-statistic and corresponding p-value for the interaction term indicated that there is no statistically significant difference between public and nonprofit managers in terms of the effect of perceived organizational red tape on work motivation ($t = 1.10$, $p = 0.273$). This result suggests that *Hypothesis 7b* may be rejected.

The regression results indicate that working in the nonprofit sector is associated with higher levels of work motivation. In fact, the sector indicator is one of the strongest predictors of overall motivation in the full model. Nonprofit managers on average report that they are more motivated than managers in the public sector, holding organizational red tape perceptions constant (0.327, $p < 0.05$). This outcome is consistent with the results of the regression models discussed in the previous section and offers additional evidence that *Hypothesis 6* is not supported.

A number of job selection variables have an impact on work motivation when controlling for perceived organizational red tape. A desire to serve the public and public interest has a highly significant and positive effect on work motivation in the full and public sector models, but not among managers working in the nonprofit sector. Surprisingly, *Organizational environment* is negatively associated with general work motivation among public managers. This finding is especially unexpected given that such concerns are characterized by factors such as a desire for less bureaucratic red tape and reduced conflict. It may be the case—at least among public managers—that individuals who accept positions based on these particular wants ultimately find that the realities of the job are in conflict with their expectations. If one accepts a job because of a desire for reduced bureaucratic red tape or less conflict in the workplace but experiences (or perceives) more red tape and conflict than desired, overall work motivation may suffer.

Choosing a job based on career advancement opportunities (training, advancement, and increased responsibility) is positively related to general work motivation in the full and public sector models, but has no significant impact on the overall motivation of nonprofit managers. Relatedly, advancement through promotion is also associated with significantly higher levels of work motivation in the full model and among public managers. Managers who were promoted into their current positions on average indicate that they are more highly motivated relative to managers who were not promoted. However, there is no significant relationship between receiving a promotion and the work motivation of nonprofit managers. These findings seem to indicate that nonprofit managers' work motivation is affected neither by desires for career development opportunities nor promotion.

Practical concerns are negatively related to work motivation in the full and nonprofit models. However, there is no significant relationship between these concerns and work motivation among public managers. This may indicate that while nonprofit managers' overall work motivation is negatively affected by specific factors such as cost of living and opportunities for spouses or partners, such concerns are largely immaterial to the work motivation of public managers when organizational red tape perceptions are taken into account.

Civic engagement is also a significant predictor of work motivation. Greater participation in activities unrelated to work is associated with significantly higher work motivation in all three models. These relationships suggest that there is a link between the motivation necessary to engage in extramural pursuits and work motivation. It is possible that certain individuals possess an innate motivation that is manifest in their voluntary involvement in civic and political activities and in their work-related endeavors.

Managers who feel they have too much supervision indicate that they are less motivated in the full and public models, but there is not relationship between *Amount of supervision* and work motivation in the nonprofit model. Still, it is worth noting that public managers who perceive higher levels of supervision experience a decline in overall motivation. This may suggest that managers in the public sector are more acutely aware of being supervised than nonprofit managers. One plausible explanation for this greater sensitivity is that public managers may equate more supervision with further constraints on their managerial discretion. As public managers are more inclined to perceive higher levels of both organizational and personnel red tape, they may view closer scrutiny of their work as yet another restriction on their authority. Among nonprofit managers, however, greater supervision may be viewed more benignly. To the extent nonprofit managers perceive less red tape within their organizations, they may be less likely to associate supervision with increased managerial limitations. Instead, greater supervision may be viewed as constructive guidance or direction.

Several of the included demographic controls have significant and positive effects on work motivation. Gender (*Female*) is the strongest predictor of work motivation in both the full and public sector models (the relationship is insignificant in the nonprofit model). Relative to males, females on average are more highly motivated, particularly among public managers. *Age* is significantly but weakly associated with higher levels of work motivation in all three models, while level of education has a significant and positive effect on work motivation among nonprofit managers. In other words, as nonprofit managers achieve higher levels of education, they appear to be more highly motivated.

The Effects of Perceived Organizational Red Tape by State

The negative effect of perceived organizational red tape on work motivation remains apparent when public and nonprofit managers are categorized by state. Managers in Illinois experience a significant reduction in work motivation as they perceive greater organizational red tape (see table 9.8). Georgia managers who perceive higher levels of organizational red tape are also less motivated.[24] These results offer support for *Hypothesis 7a*, as they indicate that perceived organizational red tape negatively affects the work motivation of managers in both states. However, as in the full and sector models, the magnitude of the effect in each model is relatively insubstantial. The comparatively small coefficients may be indicative of the lack of variation in work motivation due to its high degree of skewness. They may also suggest that perceived organizational red tape is a relatively weak predictor of general work motivation.

Contrasting the adjusted R^2 values of these regressions with those from the models estimating work motivation by state (see table 9.4) demonstrates that by including *Organizational red tape* in the state models, only small improvements in the explanatory power of the regressions are realized. In the Georgia model, the amount of explained variation in work motivation increased only slightly from 12.3 percent to 13.0 percent. Adding perceived

[24] Although the results of the ordinal logistic regressions are mostly congruous with the OLS analysis, they suggest that the negative relationship between perceived organizational red tape and work motivation among Illinois managers is highly significant. The ordered logit models also indicate that there is no significant relationship between perceived organizational red tape on work motivation in Georgia (see table A.11 in Appendix A). The tobit models also indicate that there is no statistically significant relationship between perceived organizational red tape and work motivation among Georgia managers, while there is a significant and negative relationship in the Illinois model (see table B.5 in Appendix B).

Table 9.8: OLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Organizational Red Tape on Work Motivation by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Organizational red tape	-0.081*	(0.041)	-0.090**	(0.032)
Nonprofit	0.109	(0.256)	0.425*	(0.190)
Desire to serve public	0.360***	(0.107)	0.196*	(0.081)
Salary motivation	-0.216	(0.112)	0.040	(0.114)
Security concerns	0.014	(0.090)	-0.096	(0.080)
Organizational environment	-0.053	(0.093)	-0.183*	(0.082)
Career advancement	0.228*	(0.103)	0.273**	(0.083)
Practical concerns	-0.182*	(0.091)	-0.112	(0.073)
Promotion	0.516**	(0.195)	0.135	(0.159)
Civic engagement	0.135*	(0.053)	0.109*	(0.050)
Amount of supervision	-0.088	(0.071)	-0.120	(0.068)
Female	0.298	(0.152)	0.372*	(0.148)
Nonwhite	-0.168	(0.232)	-0.280	(0.235)
Age	0.022*	(0.009)	0.030***	(0.009)
Education	-0.060	(0.070)	0.001	(0.065)
Constant	12.992***	(0.822)	12.552***	(0.891)
Observations	473		587	
R^2	0.158		0.171	
Adjusted R^2	0.130		0.149	
F statistic	6.040		6.644	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

organizational red tape to the Illinois model increased the amount of explained variation in work motivation from 14.0 percent to 14.9 percent. While the explanatory power of the models is increased by adding the perceived organizational red tape predictor, its inclusion results in less than a point increase in the respective coefficients of determination. The negligible increases in the adjusted R^2 values suggest that while perceived organizational red tape is a significant predictor of work motivation, it is not a particularly consequential explanatory variable in either the Georgia or Illinois model.

With respect to sector, nonprofit managers working in Illinois on average have greater overall motivation than their public sector counterparts in the state (0.425, $p < 0.05$). Based on the size of the regression coefficient, working in the nonprofit sector is also the strongest predictor of work motivation in the Illinois model. This finding offers additional evidence that nonprofit managers are more highly motivated than managers in the public sector. In the Georgia model, however, the relationship between employment sector and work motivation is insignificant. This finding indicates that *Hypothesis 6* cannot be completely rejected as some managerial categorizations may indeed show no statistically significant difference in work motivation between public and nonprofit managers.

Several job selection variables are significantly related to overall work motivation in the state models. A desire to serve the public and public interest remains associated with increased work motivation when the managers are categorized by state. However, *Organizational environment* is negatively associated with work motivation in the Illinois model (-0.183, $p < 0.05$). The impact of career advancement opportunities is also consistent with the finding of the full model. For managers in both Georgia and Illinois, accepting a job based on the potential for career advancement is associated with greater overall work motivation. Finally, *Practical concerns* are negatively related to work motivation in the Georgia model (-0.182, $p < 0.05$).

On average, Georgia managers who were promoted into their current positions have a higher level of work motivation than those who were not promoted (0.516, $p < 0.01$). Based on the size of the regression coefficient, advancement via promotion is the strongest predictor of overall work motivation among Georgia managers. Of course, highly motivated managers may exhibit other positive work-related behaviors that make a promotion more likely, so it is difficult to determine whether motivation is enhanced due to the promotion or if the promotion was realized due to a high level of motivation and associated actions. This relationship is not present in the Illinois model at any meaningful level of statistical significance. Consistent with the findings of the full and public sector models, engagement in civic activities is also associated with higher work motivation for managers in both Georgia and Illinois.

Among the demographic variables, gender and age are positively associated with work motivation. In the Illinois model, *Female* is related to significantly higher work motivation (0.372, $p < 0.05$). On average, female managers in Illinois are more highly motivated than their male peers in the state. There is no statistically significant relationship between gender and work motivation in the Georgia model, however. This result is consistent with the findings of the full and public sector models, where gender is the strongest predictor of work motivation. The relationship between *Age* and work motivation in each of the state models is significant but remains particularly weak in terms of impact.

<u>The Effects of Perceived Organizational Red Tape by Primary Responsibility</u>

When public and nonprofit managers are sorted by their primary responsibilities, the results are again somewhat equivocal. The OLS regression results presented in table 9.9 indicate that there is a moderately significant and negative relationship between perceived organizational red tape and overall work motivation among individuals whose principal responsibilities are managerial (-0.084, $p < 0.01$). As these managers perceive higher levels of organizational red tape, their overall motivation is somewhat diminished. However, the magnitude of the effect continues to be comparatively inappreciable. With respect to public and nonprofit managers whose principal duties are professional, technical, or unspecified, perceived organizational red tape has no significant impact on their overall work motivation. Thus, there is only limited support for *Hypothesis 7a* when the managers are categorized by their primary responsibilities.[25]

Table 9.9: OLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Organizational Red Tape on Work Motivation by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial†	
Organizational red tape	-0.084**	(0.030)	-0.097	(0.051)
Nonprofit	0.216	(0.173)	0.624	(0.326)
Georgia	-0.005	(0.138)	-0.101	(0.237)
Desire to serve public	0.158*	(0.067)	0.439**	(0.147)
Salary motivation	-0.118	(0.088)	-0.094	(0.166)
Security concerns	-0.009	(0.071)	-0.107	(0.125)
Organizational environment	-0.102	(0.070)	-0.207	(0.119)
Career advancement	0.222**	(0.074)	0.264	(0.139)
Practical concerns	-0.097	(0.062)	-0.285*	(0.129)
Promotion	0.195	(0.162)	0.395	(0.236)
Civic engagement	0.144***	(0.043)	0.061	(0.071)
Amount of supervision	0.029	(0.050)	-0.329***	(0.096)
Female	0.319**	(0.121)	0.408	(0.214)
Nonwhite	-0.301	(0.185)	-0.149	(0.379)
Age	0.015*	(0.007)	0.038**	(0.013)
Education	0.053	(0.055)	-0.203*	(0.096)
Constant	12.909***	(0.695)	13.816***	(1.262)
Observations	745		287	
R^2	0.114		0.268	
Adjusted R^2	0.095		0.224	
F statistic	6.135		6.163	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

[25] With respect to the effects of perceived organizational red tape on work motivation, the ordered logit results support the findings of the OLS models. The ordinal logistic regressions show that while perceived burdensome rules are negatively associated with the overall motivation of employees with primarily managerial responsibilities, there is no significant relationship between perceived organizational red tape and the work motivation of individuals whose principal duties are professional, technical, or undefined (see table A.12 in Appendix A). The results of the tobit regressions also indicate that while perceived organizational red tape is a significant and negative predictor of work motivation in the managerial model, there is no significant relationship between organizational red tape perceptions and work motivation in the non-managerial model (see table B.6 in Appendix B).

As in the previous analyses, perceived organizational red tape has a comparatively weak impact on work motivation. Comparing the adjusted R^2 values of these models with those of the regressions estimating work motivation by primary responsibility (see table 9.6) allows for determining the importance of *Organizational red tape* to each of the models. By accounting for perceived organizational red tape, the amount of variation in work motivation explained by the managerial model is improved from 8.4 percent to 9.5 percent. The amount of variation in work motivation explained by the non-managerial model also increases somewhat insubstantially, increasing from 21.7 percent to 22.4 percent. These minor changes in the goodness of fit measures, in addition to the relatively small effect sizes, suggest that perceived organizational red tape is a rather inconsequential predictor of work motivation in both models.

The *Nonprofit* binary variable is not a significant predictor of work motivation in either the managerial or non-managerial model, indicating that there is no statistically significant difference in work motivation between managers working in the nonprofit sector and public administrators. This result provides support for *Hypothesis 6*. It also suggests that the difference between public and nonprofit managers in terms of work motivation is sensitive to how the managers are categorized. Though the full model and Illinois model indicate that nonprofit managers on average have significantly higher work motivation relative to public managers (at the 0.05 level), the remaining models show no significant relationship between employment sector and overall motivation. And though the mean comparisons also indicate that the two groups differ significantly, the distinction is largely absent when controlling for the effects of perceived organizational red tape.

Three job selection factors are significantly related to work motivation when managers are categorized by their primary responsibilities: *Desire to serve public*, *Career advancement*, and *Practical concerns*. The desire to serve the public and public interest is associated with higher levels of work motivation among both groups of managers. In fact, interest in public service is the strongest significant predictor of overall motivation for managers with mainly non-managerial duties (0.439, $p < 0.01$). Career advancement opportunities are also associated with significantly higher work motivation among individuals whose duties are primarily managerial (0.222, $p < 0.01$), while *Practical concerns* are negatively related to work motivation among managers with professional, technical, or other primary functions (-0.285, $p < 0.05$).

Civic engagement is a highly significant and positive predictor of work motivation among individuals assuming predominantly managerial duties (0.144, $p < 0.001$). This finding again suggests that managers who are motivated to engage in extramural activities are also more highly motivated at work. However, the relationship between civic engagement and work motivation among individuals with non-managerial responsibilities is statistically insignificant. The amount of perceived supervision, however, has a highly significant and negative effect on work motivation among managers with mainly professional, technical, or other obligations (-0.329, $p < 0.001$). It is possible that this reflects some degree of indignation given the specialized training of the managers serving in these capacities—they may feel that their expertise obviates the need for strict oversight and may be resentful of close supervision. Individuals whose primary responsibilities are managerial may exhibit less sensitivity to supervision because they occupy positions of greater authority and are themselves responsible for supervising others.

Several demographic variables are significantly related to work motivation: *Female*, *Age*, and *Education*. Among individuals with predominately managerial responsibilities, women on average have higher levels of motivation relative to men serving in similar roles (0.319, $p < 0.01$). Gender is in fact the strongest predictor of work motivation in the managerial model. *Age* continues to have a positive influence on work motivation when the managers are categorized by primary responsibility, but the relationship remains relatively weak. Finally, *Education* is negatively related to the overall motivation of managers with professional, technical, or other primary responsibilities (-0.203, $p < 0.05$). This finding suggests that the more highly educated managers in this group are less motivated.

Ancillary Analysis: Two-Stage Least Squares Regression

Although the OLS regressions generally indicate that perceived organizational red tape has a limited negative impact on general work motivation (the nonprofit and non-managerial models excepted), the potential influence of an omitted variable on work motivation cannot be discounted. Additionally, bias due to reverse causality is again a potential problem—high levels of work motivation may have an impact on perceptions of organizational red tape just as perceived organizational red tape affects work motivation. A supplemental 2SLS regression using organization size as an instrument for perceived organizational red tape addresses these concerns (see table 9.10). As demonstrated in the previous chapter, organization size meets the two conditions for an instrumental variable: it is (1) exogenous and (2) correlated with the endogenous regressor.

Table 9.10: 2SLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Organizational Red Tape on Work Motivation

	First Stage†		Second Stage‡	
Organizational red tape			-0.021	(0.154)
Organization size (log)	0.258***	(0.049)		
Nonprofit	-1.661***	(0.296)	0.493	(0.453)
Georgia	-0.936***	(0.149)	0.007	(0.198)
Desire to serve public	0.073	(0.081)	0.252***	(0.069)
Salary motivation	0.072	(0.103)	-0.078	(0.081)
Security concerns	0.269***	(0.077)	-0.050	(0.084)
Organizational environment	-0.203**	(0.078)	-0.103	(0.074)
Career advancement	-0.074	(0.074)	0.237***	(0.069)
Practical concerns	0.252***	(0.072)	-0.157*	(0.072)
Promotion	-0.233	(0.150)	0.339*	(0.138)
Civic engagement	-0.072	(0.047)	0.127***	(0.039)
Amount of supervision	0.250***	(0.048)	-0.127	(0.068)
Female	0.034	(0.143)	0.357***	(0.111)
Nonwhite	-0.350	(0.206)	-0.250	(0.171)
Age	-0.036***	(0.008)	0.031***	(0.009)
Education	0.115	(0.061)	-0.061	(0.056)
Constant	5.278***	(0.784)	12.444***	(1.217)
Observations	976		976	
R^2	0.394		0.145	
Adjusted R^2	0.384		0.131	
F statistic / χ^2	50.802		145.650	
Prob > F / χ^2	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses; Instrumental variable: Organization size (log)
†Dependent variable: Organizational red tape
‡Dependent variable: Work motivation
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Contrary to most of the OLS regressions, the results of the 2SLS regression presented in table 9.10 suggest that perceived organizational red tape has no statistically significant impact on work motivation. This finding is, however, consistent with the results of the nonprofit and non-managerial OLS models, which also show no significant relationship. While the 2SLS model offers no support for *Hypothesis 7a*, post-estimation tests indicate that perceived organizational red tape can be treated as an exogenous regressor. A robust score test ($\chi^2 = 0.229$, $p = 0.632$) and a robust regression test ($F = 0.225$, $p = 0.636$) each fail to reject the null hypothesis that perceived organizational red tape is exogenous.[26] The results of these post-estimation tests endorse the use of the OLS estimator.

The Effects of Perceived Personnel Red Tape

The Effects of Perceived Personnel Red Tape by Sector

The regression model including all managers suggests that perceived personnel red tape has no significant effect on the general work motivation of public and nonprofit managers (see table 9.11). When examined by sector, however, the results are mixed. Perceived personnel red tape has no significant impact on the motivation of public managers, but there is a significant and negative effect among nonprofit managers (-0.078, $p < 0.05$). Given that public managers perceive significantly higher levels of personnel red tape within their organizations relative to managers in the nonprofit sector, this result is somewhat surprising. One might expect the perceived prevalence of personnel red tape in public organizations to be associated with a reduction in work motivation, but there appears to be no such relationship. Even though nonprofit managers report that they encounter significantly less personnel red tape compared to managers in the public sector, the personnel constraints they do perceive are associated with lower work motivation. As evidenced by the inappreciable size of the effect, however, the relationship is relatively weak. The results suggest that *Hypothesis 8a* is only partially supported.

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[26] When a 2SLS regression using normal standard errors is run, a Durbin test ($\chi^2 = 0.276$, $p = 0.600$) and Wu-Hausman test ($F = 0.271$, $p = 0.603$) also fails to reject the null hypothesis that perceived organizational red tape is exogenous.

Table 9.11: OLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Personnel Red Tape on Work Motivation by Sector

	All Managers		Public		Nonprofit	
Personnel red tape	-0.057	(0.031)	-0.026	(0.047)	-0.078*	(0.039)
Nonprofit	0.389*	(0.170)				
Georgia	-0.012	(0.120)	0.116	(0.152)	-0.279	(0.216)
Desire to serve public	0.250***	(0.064)	0.369***	(0.097)	0.081	(0.080)
Salary motivation	-0.097	(0.078)	-0.149	(0.103)	-0.056	(0.115)
Security concerns	-0.050	(0.061)	-0.077	(0.085)	0.054	(0.090)
Organizational environment	-0.113	(0.062)	-0.189*	(0.082)	-0.038	(0.099)
Career advancement	0.253***	(0.066)	0.336***	(0.086)	0.095	(0.098)
Practical concerns	-0.167**	(0.057)	-0.135*	(0.068)	-0.186	(0.098)
Promotion	0.333**	(0.124)	0.399*	(0.157)	0.164	(0.200)
Civic engagement	0.123***	(0.037)	0.090*	(0.043)	0.199**	(0.070)
Amount of supervision	-0.131**	(0.050)	-0.151**	(0.056)	-0.018	(0.103)
Female	0.337**	(0.106)	0.435**	(0.132)	0.266	(0.182)
Nonwhite	-0.176	(0.161)	-0.147	(0.174)	-0.715	(0.457)
Age	0.028***	(0.006)	0.029***	(0.008)	0.026**	(0.009)
Education	-0.026	(0.048)	-0.109	(0.058)	0.175	(0.090)
Constant	12.882***	(0.654)	12.745***	(0.892)	12.337***	(1.153)
Observations	1056		714		342	
R^2	0.148		0.147		0.128	
Adjusted R^2	0.135		0.129		0.088	
F statistic	10.057		6.453		3.426	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Even though there is significant and negative relationship between *Personnel red tape* and work motivation among nonprofit managers, the hypothesis does not hold in the public sector model.[27]

As noted, perceived personnel red tape has a relatively inappreciable effect on work motivation. Indeed, incorporating *Personnel red tape* into each of the models has little effect on

[27] The supplemental analyses largely corroborate the OLS regression results, though there are important differences. In the ordinal logistic regressions, the relationship between perceived personnel red tape and work motivation is significant in the full model, but it remains an insignificant predictor of work motivation among public managers (see table A.13 in Appendix A). The results of the tobit analysis also indicate that perceived constraints on personnel decision making have a significant and negative impact on work motivation in the full model (see table B.7 in Appendix B).

the goodness of fit measures. A comparison of the adjusted R^2 values from these regressions with those of the models estimating work motivation by sector (see table 9.2) shows only insubstantial increases in the models' explanatory power when accounting for perceived personnel red tape. The amount of variation in work motivation explained by the full model improves to 13.5 percent from 13.3 percent. The explanatory power of the public sector model increases inappreciably to 12.9 percent from 12.8 percent, while the amount of variation in work motivation explained by the nonprofit model increases to 8.8 percent from 8.5 percent. These particularly minor changes suggest that perceived personnel red tape is rather inconsequential in terms of explaining changes in work motivation among public and nonprofit managers.

Although there is a significant association between perceived personnel red tape and work motivation among nonprofit managers, there appears to be little difference between the two groups in terms of the magnitude of the effect based on the restricted models. Indeed, adding an interaction between sector and perceived personnel red tape (*Nonprofit* × *Personnel red tape*) to the full model indicates that there is no significant difference between public and nonprofit managers in terms of the effect of perceived personnel red tape on work motivation ($t = -0.32$, $p = 0.750$), even though the relationship is significant in the nonprofit model. This result suggests that *Hypothesis 8b* can be rejected.

The employment sector binary variable (*Nonprofit*) is the strongest predictor of work motivation in the full model. Working in the nonprofit sector is associated with significantly higher motivation in the full model when perceived personnel red tape is held constant (0.389, $p < 0.05$). This indicates that nonprofit managers on average are more highly motivated than managers in the public sector. Thus, this relationship provides some evidence in favor of rejecting *Hypothesis 6*.

Several job selection variables are significantly associated with work motivation in the full and public sector models, although none of these factors have a significant effect on the work motivation of nonprofit managers. The desire to serve the public and public interest is a highly significant and positive predictor of work motivation in both the full and public models. *Career advancement* is also associated with significantly higher overall work motivation in both models. *Practical concerns*, however, are associated with significantly lower work motivation in the full and public models. Finally, job selection decisions based on organizational environment considerations are related to significantly decreased work motivation in the public model.

Receiving a promotion is associated with significantly higher work motivation in both the full and public models. *Civic engagement* is a significant and positive predictor of general motivation in all three models—as managers participate in more activities outside of work, they have higher levels of work motivation. *Amount of supervision*, however, is associated with a significant reduction in overall work motivation in the full and public models.

Among the demographic variables included in the regression models, *Female* and *Age* are positively associated with work motivation. Female managers are on average more highly motivated than their male counterparts in both the full and public models (gender has the largest impact on work motivation among public managers). There is a significant relationship between *Age* and work motivation in each of the three models. Though the effect sizes are particularly small, the relationships suggest that as managers advance in age, they become more motivated.

The Effects of Perceived Personnel Red Tape by State

When managers are sorted by state, the relationship between perceived personnel red tape and work motivation is insignificant regardless of the state in which the managers are employed. The OLS regression results presented in table 9.12 indicate that personnel red tape perceptions have no impact on the overall work motivation of public and nonprofit managers in either

Table 9.12: OLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Personnel Red Tape on Work Motivation by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Personnel red tape	-0.072	(0.053)	-0.043	(0.039)
Nonprofit	0.100	(0.276)	0.563**	(0.217)
Desire to serve public	0.351**	(0.108)	0.189*	(0.081)
Salary motivation	-0.222*	(0.112)	0.043	(0.114)
Security concerns	0.012	(0.092)	-0.106	(0.080)
Organizational environment	-0.053	(0.093)	-0.171*	(0.083)
Career advancement	0.228*	(0.105)	0.268**	(0.084)
Practical concerns	-0.200*	(0.090)	-0.120	(0.074)
Promotion	0.484*	(0.200)	0.167	(0.161)
Civic engagement	0.124*	(0.053)	0.121*	(0.050)
Amount of supervision	-0.111	(0.072)	-0.155*	(0.069)
Female	0.300	(0.153)	0.354*	(0.150)
Nonwhite	-0.064	(0.224)	-0.258	(0.238)
Age	0.024*	(0.009)	0.032***	(0.009)
Education	-0.061	(0.070)	-0.007	(0.066)
Constant	13.249***	(0.933)	12.359***	(0.907)
Observations	471		585	
R^2	0.152		0.162	
Adjusted R^2	0.124		0.140	
F statistic	5.949		5.933	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Georgia or Illinois. These findings are consistent with the results of the full and public sector models, and further suggest that *Hypothesis 8a* should be rejected.[28]

The results also indicate that perceived personnel red tape is a relatively poor predictor of work motivation. Including *Personnel red tape* in each of the models results in only negligible increases in the explained variation in work motivation (see table 9.4 for a comparison). In the Georgia model, the adjusted R^2 value improved insubstantially to 0.124 from 0.123. Incorporating perceived personnel red tape into the Illinois model has no impact on the adjusted R^2 value—the model explains 14.0 percent of the variation in work motivation with or without *Personnel red tape*. These comparisons once again indicate that perceived personnel red tape is an inconsequential factor in terms of explaining work motivation within the context of the constructed models.

The sector dummy variable (*Nonprofit*) is associated with significantly higher work motivation in Illinois (0.563, $p < 0.01$), suggesting that nonprofit managers on average are significantly more motivated relative to public managers in the state. Sector also has the largest impact on work motivation among all of the variables included in the Illinois model. *Nonprofit*, however, is not a significant predictor of work motivation in the Georgia model. The absence of a significant relationship between sector and work motivation among Georgia managers suggests that there is little difference in work motivation between the public and nonprofit sectors in the state.

[28] The results from the ordinal logistic regressions are consistent with the OLS findings. The relationship between perceived personnel red tape and work motivation remains insignificant among both Georgia and Illinois managers (see table A.14 in Appendix A). In addition, the tobit regressions show no significant relationship between perceived personnel red tape and work motivation in either state (see table B.8 in Appendix B).

Among the factors influencing job selection decisions, several are again associated with general work motivation. A desire to serve the public has a significant and positive effect on the overall work motivation of public and nonprofit managers in both Georgia and Illinois. Accepting a job based on salary considerations (*Salary motivation*) is significantly and negatively associated with general work motivation in the Georgia model (-0.222, $p < 0.05$), while *Organizational environment* is related to a significant decrease in general motivation among Illinois managers (-0.171, $p < 0.05$). Career advancement opportunities continue to be significantly and positively related to overall work motivation among both Georgia and Illinois managers, while *Practical concerns* are associated with lower work motivation among public and nonprofit managers in Georgia (-0.200, $p < 0.05$).

Attaining a position through promotion is positively related to work motivation for Georgia managers (0.484, $p < 0.05$). Managers who were promoted into their current positions on average are more highly motivated than managers who were not promoted. The relationship between *Promotion* and work motivation is also comparatively strong based on the size of the regression coefficient. Again, however, it is difficult to determine whether the Georgia managers who were promoted are more highly motivated because of their advancement or if they were promoted because of work-related actions that reflect their high levels of motivation.

Civic engagement continues to be a significant predictor of work motivation when the managers are segmented by state. Among both Georgia and Illinois managers, increased participation in external civic activities is positively related to work motivation. *Amount of supervision*, however, is associated with a decrease in work motivation in the Illinois model

(-0.155, $p < 0.05$). This relationship again suggests that there is a connection between close supervision (as perceived by managers) and reduced overall work motivation.

With respect to the demographic variables included in the models, *Female* and *Age* are again linked to work motivation. In Illinois, female managers on average are more highly motivated than their male peers (0.354, $p < 0.05$). However, there is no significant relationship between gender and work motivation in the Georgia model. *Age* continues to be a significant and positive predictor of work motivation when managers are categorized by state. As in the previous models, the size of the effect is comparatively negligible. It is still worth noting, however, that managers appear to be more motivated as they get older.

The Effects of Perceived Personnel Red Tape by Primary Responsibility

The OLS regression results presented in table 9.13 show that perceived personnel rule constraints have no effect on the overall work motivation of public and nonprofit managers, regardless of primary responsibilities. These results are congruous with the findings of the previous models (excepting the nonprofit sector regression) and provide additional evidence of a generally insignificant relationship between perceived personnel red tape and work motivation among public and nonprofit managers.[29] The primary responsibility regressions again indicate that *Hypothesis 8a* is not supported.

The models also further suggest that perceived personnel red tape is a poor predictor of general work motivation. Incorporating *Personnel red tape* into the models has no appreciable

[29] The results of the ordinal logistic regressions are highly consistent with the findings of the OLS models. There is no signifiant relationship between perceived personnel red tape and work motivation among managers in either grouping (see table A.15 in Appendix A). The results of the tobit regressions also suggest that perceived personnel red tape is not significantly related to overall work motivation in either the managerial or non-managerial model (see table B.9 in Appendix B).

Table 9.13: OLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Personnel Red Tape on Work Motivation by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial†	
Personnel red tape	-0.046	(0.035)	-0.095	(0.072)
Nonprofit	0.329	(0.197)	0.587	(0.356)
Georgia	0.056	(0.140)	-0.118	(0.245)
Desire to serve public	0.137*	(0.068)	0.467**	(0.144)
Salary motivation	-0.104	(0.088)	-0.106	(0.166)
Security concerns	-0.026	(0.070)	-0.086	(0.128)
Organizational environment	-0.085	(0.072)	-0.235*	(0.117)
Career advancement	0.221**	(0.075)	0.262	(0.141)
Practical concerns	-0.114	(0.063)	-0.292*	(0.127)
Promotion	0.209	(0.167)	0.363	(0.237)
Civic engagement	0.149***	(0.043)	0.059	(0.072)
Amount of supervision	-0.004	(0.053)	-0.369***	(0.094)
Female	0.308*	(0.123)	0.443*	(0.215)
Nonwhite	-0.217	(0.185)	-0.104	(0.373)
Age	0.017*	(0.007)	0.037**	(0.012)
Education	0.047	(0.056)	-0.187	(0.098)
Constant	12.792***	(0.732)	14.182***	(1.484)
Observations	744		285	
R^2	0.104		0.266	
Adjusted R^2	0.084		0.222	
F statistic	5.344		5.850	
Prob > *F*	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

impact on the adjusted R^2 values of the models—the regressions estimating work motivation by primary responsibility explain similar amounts of variation in work motivation (see table 9.6). Accounting for perceived personnel red tape in the managerial model has no impact on the adjusted R^2 value—the model still explains 8.4 percent of the variation in work motivation. Including *Personnel red tape* in the non-managerial regression results in only a modest improvement in goodness of fit, as the amount of explained variation in work motivation increases slightly to 22.2 percent from 21.7 percent. These insubstantial changes again suggest that perceived personnel red tape adds little explanatory power to the models as constructed.

The sector indicator variable (*Nonprofit*) is not significantly associated with work motivation in either the managerial or non-managerial model. This suggests that when public and nonprofit managers are sorted by their primary responsibilities, there is no significant distinction between the two groups with respect to work motivation. The absence of significant relationship between *Nonprofit* and work motivation is compatible with the result of the Georgia model, suggesting that *Hypothesis 6* is supported in some managerial segments when personnel red tape perceptions is held constant.

In terms of job selection motivations, the desire to serve the public and public interest remains significantly and positively associated with overall work motivation in both models. In fact, *Desire to serve public* has the largest effect on work motivation among managers with mainly professional, technical, or other duties (0.467, $p < 0.01$). *Organizational environment* is significantly and negatively associated with work motivation among individuals primarily serving in non-managerial roles (-0.235, $p < 0.05$). *Career advancement* is associated with significantly higher work motivation among individuals whose functions are primarily managerial (0.221, $p < 0.01$). Finally, *Practical concerns* are significantly and negatively related to work motivation in the non-managerial model (-0.292, $p < 0.05$).

Civic engagement is a highly significant and positive predictor of work motivation among individuals whose main responsibilities are managerial (0.149, $p < 0.001$). The amount of supervision perceived by managers, however, is associated with significantly reduced work motivation among managers with predominately professional, technical, or other designations

(-0.369, $p < 0.001$). This is not the case for individuals in primarily managerial positions, however. The lack of a relationship in the managerial model may again suggest that these managers are subject to less supervision due to their predominantly managerial roles, or are simply more understanding of supervisory roles because they also occupy positions requiring them to manage other employees.

Among the demographic controls included in the models, *Female* and *Age* are significantly and positively associated with work motivation in both models. Female managers serving in all capacities (i.e., managerial and non-managerial) on average have higher levels of motivation relative to males with similar primary responsibilities. The positive association between age and work motivation remains significant in each of the models.

Ancillary Analysis: Two-Stage Least Squares Regression

An additional 2SLS regression is necessary in order to address potential omitted variable and simultaneity biases. As in previous 2SLS regressions, organization size is instrumented for the perceptual personnel red tape variable. The results presented in table 9.14 indicate that perceived personnel red tape has no significant effect on general work motivation. This finding is consistent with the OLS regression results presented in this section (the nonprofit model showing that perceived personnel rule constraints have a significant effect on work motivation is the only exception). It also offers additional evidence in favor of rejecting *Hypothesis 8a.* Post-estimation tests following the 2SLS regression, however, suggest that *Personnel red tape* could be treated as an exogenous regressor, minimizing concerns regarding biased estimates. A robust-test score ($\chi^2 = 0.017$, $p = 0.896$) and a robust regression test ($F = 0.017$, $p = 0.897$) each failed to reject the null hypothesis that perceived personnel red tape is exogenous.[30] These test results indicate that the OLS estimates may not be unbiased.

Table 9.14: 2SLS Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Personnel Red Tape on Work Motivation

	First Stage†		Second Stage‡	
Personnel red tape			-0.023	(0.251)
Organization size (log)	0.161***	(0.037)		
Nonprofit	-2.382***	(0.229)	0.489	(0.789)
Georgia	-0.977***	(0.113)	0.016	(0.286)
Desire to serve public	-0.077	(0.069)	0.249***	(0.069)
Salary motivation	0.017	(0.083)	-0.074	(0.081)
Security concerns	0.207***	(0.064)	-0.046	(0.091)
Organizational environment	-0.065	(0.059)	-0.106	(0.068)
Career advancement	-0.087	(0.060)	0.233***	(0.072)
Practical concerns	0.140*	(0.057)	-0.158*	(0.070)
Promotion	-0.364**	(0.121)	0.335*	(0.169)
Civic engagement	-0.071	(0.038)	0.127**	(0.041)
Amount of supervision	0.062	(0.037)	-0.145*	(0.057)
Female	0.188	(0.113)	0.353**	(0.126)
Nonwhite	-0.380**	(0.147)	-0.194	(0.179)
Age	-0.026***	(0.007)	0.031***	(0.009)
Education	0.012	(0.048)	-0.056	(0.051)
Constant	10.201***	(0.620)	12.552***	(2.876)
Observations	972		972	
R^2	0.477		0.140	
Adjusted R^2	0.468		0.126	
F statistic / χ^2	55.204		141.390	
Prob > F / χ^2	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses; Instrumental variable: Organization size (log)
†Dependent variable: Personnel red tape
‡Dependent variable: Work motivation
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

[30] Post-Estimation tests following a 2SLS regression using normal standard errors produce similar results. A Durbin test ($\chi^2 = 0.020$, $p = 0.887$) and Wu-Hausman test ($F = 0.020$, $p = 0.889$) also fail to reject the null hypothesis that perceived personnel red tape is exogenous.

CHAPTER 10

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The analyses detailed in the previous chapters indicate that nonprofit managers perceive less organizational and personnel red tape, have greater pride in their organizations, and are more motivated than managers in the public sector. To a large extent, they also suggest that perceived red tape is detrimental to the organizational pride and work motivation of public and nonprofit managers. Contrary to the hypothesized sectoral differences, however, perceived red tape generally does not have a significantly greater negative impact on the organizational pride and work motivation of public managers. Of course, there are important exceptions to these broad findings. The sections below summarize and discuss the results of the analyses concerning perceived red tape, organizational pride, and work motivation.

Red Tape Summary

The results presented in chapter 7 are highly supportive of the hypotheses concerning sectoral differences in red tape perceptions (*Hypothesis 1* and *Hypothesis 2*). They strongly indicate that nonprofit managers perceive significantly less organizational and personnel red tape than managers in the public sector. The negative relationships between nonprofit management and perceived organizational and personnel red tape persisted and remained highly significant even when the managers were categorized by state and primary responsibility, indicating that the relationships are particularly robust. Managing in the nonprofit sector is also the strongest predictor of organizational and personnel red tape perceptions in each of the models, as evidenced by the comparatively large effect sizes. These results corroborate those previously reported by Feeney and Rainey (2010).

These findings are likely indicative of important organizational and sectoral distinctions. Nonprofit managers my be subjected to fewer bureaucratic requirements than managers in public organizations due to a lack of direct political accountability, resulting in fewer negative experiences with rules and procedural requirements that might be regarded as red tape. Public managers, on the other hand, are likely exposed to a greater number of regulations and requirements, some of which are undoubtedly viewed as unnecessary, inefficacious, or even pernicious. To the extent that public and nonprofit organizations seek to attract and retain managers with similar skills and competencies, the differences between the sectors in terms of organizational and personnel red tape—real or perceived—may have serious implications for the public sector (Feeney and Rainey 2010).

Although there are myriad considerations on which job selection decisions are based, broadly held beliefs that public managers experience greater interference in the form of excessive red tape may compel potential managerial candidates to seek alternative employment opportunities. For individuals who are inclined to seek careers in public service, nonprofit organizations may prove to be an attractive option, particularly as they are increasingly involved in the provision of vital public services. The commonly held belief that all levels of government are best by red tape represents a real concern for both current and prospective public managers. With respect to personnel red tape, however, such concerns presuppose that public managers are widely averse to strict limitations on personnel decision making. This is not necessarily the case.

While the evidence presented in chapter 7 suggests that public managers generally perceive higher levels of personnel red tape within their organizations, it says nothing about their opinions regarding these constraints or their capacities for adapting to such rules and procedures. Public managers may very well express some disapproval of any imposed restrictions on their managerial authority while simultaneously acknowledging the need for such limitations. It is certainly possible that public managers might bemoan the existence of some personnel regulations while also recognizing their role in preserving due process or safeguarding against undue political influence. It is perhaps the case that managers in public organizations are fully cognizant of the potential for personnel red tape when accepting their positions and are somewhat prepared for the challenges it might present. That is not to say, however, that higher levels of perceived personnel red tape cannot also be detrimental.

Organizational and personnel red tape may be harmful to public organizations in ways that are indirectly related to the attraction and retention of talented managers. For instance, higher levels of perceived red tape may reduce motivation among organizational members and hinder individual performance, in addition to negatively affecting the organizational pride, commitment, and job satisfaction of public managers and subordinate employees. There may also be negative consequences for overall organizational performance and efficiency as public managers face impediments to expeditious decision making (e.g., rewarding good employees with higher pay or promotions and dismissing poor performers), which may ultimately frustrate attempts to effectively implement public policy. Although several studies have addressed the effects of organizational and personnel red tape on a range of variables, researchers should continue to explore the ways in which red tape affect organizations and individual attitudes.

Organizational Pride Summary

The findings presented in chapter 8 demonstrate that nonprofit managers generally have significantly higher levels of organizational pride than managers in public sector organizations. The results persist in the vast majority of the models, providing substantial support for *Hypothesis 3*. There are a few exceptions, however. When taking into account the effect of perceived personnel tape on organizational pride, the Georgia and non-managerial models show that there is no statistically significant relationship between the employment sector indicator variable (*Nonprofit*) and organizational pride. These models indicate that, when holding perceived personnel red tape constant, there is no significant difference in organizational pride between public and nonprofit managers working in Georgia or among those with primarily professional, technical, or other non-managerial responsibilities. These results notwithstanding, the evidence largely suggests that nonprofit managers on average possess greater organizational pride relative to public managers.

With regard to the effect of perceived organizational red tape on organizational pride, the results clearly indicate that pride in the organization is significantly diminished among public and nonprofit managers as they discern higher levels of organizational red tape. The negative relationship between perceived organizational red tape and organizational pride persisted in each of the regression models. Thus, there is considerable support for *Hypothesis 4a*. There is no support, however, for *Hypothesis 4b*. The effect of perceived organizational red tape on organizational pride is not significantly greater for public managers relative to managers in the nonprofit sector.

In terms of the effect of perceived personnel red tape on organizational pride, the results of the OLS regression models demonstrate that as managers perceive higher levels of personnel red tape, they have less pride in their organizations. These findings persist in all of the sector, state, and primary responsibility models, indicating that *Hypothesis 5a* is confirmed. There is also evidence that the effect of perceived personnel red tape on organizational pride is greater for public managers relative to managers in nonprofit organizations. Therefore, *Hypothesis 5b* is also confirmed.

Because nonprofit managers perceive less organizational and personnel red tape within their organizations (as demonstrated in chapter 7), and generally have more organizational pride than public managers, public agencies may have some cause for concern. To the extent that these sectors compete for competent managers to implement increasingly similar policies, nonprofit organizations may find it easier to attract and retain managers who are inclined to seek employment opportunities in organizations that engender pride. The analyses detailed in chapter 8 indicate that such opportunities are more likely to be found in the nonprofit sector. There is, however, some indication that while public managers experience higher levels of red tape and have less organizational pride than nonprofit managers, the negative effects of perceived red tape on organizational pride is not limited to the public sector.

The negative impact of personnel red tape appears to be rather consistent across the two sectors. That is, managers in both public and nonprofit organizations have less pride in their organizations when they perceive higher levels of personnel red tape. The results also indicate that there is no significant difference between the two groups with respect to the effect of perceived organizational red tape on organizational pride. These findings can be interpreted as being somewhat encouraging for public organizations. Although the disparities in perceived red tape and organizational pride might be disconcerting to public organizations, this study offers only minimal evidence that organizational pride among public managers is affected to a significantly greater extent by the higher levels of red tape that they perceive. The results of this study suggest that the detrimental effects of perceived red tape on organizational pride are problems that exist in both public and nonprofit organizations.

Work Motivation Summary

The results presented in chapter 9 generally indicate that support for *Hypothesis 6* is mixed. The results of the work motivation analyses suggest that there is indeed a significant difference in general work motivation between public and nonprofit managers. Specifically, nonprofit managers on average are more highly motivated relative to managers in public organizations. Although the mean comparisons indicate that there is no significant difference between the two groups with respect to some of the individual work motivation scale items, the difference in the overall scale ratings are significant in each of the managerial categories. In most of the OLS regressions, the positive relationship between the sector indicator variable (*Nonprofit*) and overall work motivation is significant and comparatively strong. The only exception is the Georgia model, which indicates that there is no statistically significant difference in work motivation between public and nonprofit managers. This model notwithstanding, the main regression results do not support *Hypothesis 6*.

However, the models estimating the effects of organizational and personnel red tape perceptions on work motivation do provide limited support for *Hypothesis 6*. When perceived organizational red tape is held constant, the association between *Nonprofit* and work motivation is insignificant in the Georgia, managerial, and non-managerial models. Similarly, the sector indicator is no longer a significant predictor of work motivation in the Georgia, managerial, and non-managerial regressions when controlling for perceived personnel red tape. Additionally, *Nonprofit* is not a significant predictor in either of the two-stage least squares (2SLS) models. These analyses indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between public and nonprofit managers when perceived organizational and personnel red tape are held constant. The results offer some support for *Hypothesis 6*. Overall, however, the findings are inconclusive.

With the exception of the nonprofit and non-managerial models, the results suggest that perceived organizational red tape has a limited negative impact on work motivation. While each of the regressions demonstrate that the magnitude of the effect is comparatively modest, the negative association is significant in most the models. The relationship between perceived organizational red tape and overall work motivation is significant at the 0.01 level in four of the seven regressions (including the full model), while it is significant at the 0.05 level in the Georgia model. Although the negative effect of perceived organizational red tape on work motivation is relatively minor, the findings nevertheless indicate that work motivation among the full sample of managers is generally adversely affected by higher levels of perceived organizational red tape. The absence of a statistically significant relationship in the nonprofit model, however, suggests that *Hypothesis 7a* is only partially supported, as it does not hold for both groups.

Although the regression results generally indicate that perceived organizational red tape negatively affects work motivation in the full sample and among managers in the public sector, there is no discernible effect on the overall work motivation of nonprofit managers. This appears to indicate that the negative effect observed among all managers is largely driven by the significant negative effect of perceived organizational red tape on the work motivation of public managers.

The results also indicate that *Hypothesis 7b* can be rejected. By including a variable representing the interaction between sector and perceived organizational red tape (*Nonprofit* × *Organizational red tape*) in the full model, it is possible to determine if perceived organizational red tape has a greater negative impact on the work motivation of public managers,. The insignificant *t*-statistic for the interaction term indicates that there is no statistically significant difference between public and nonprofit managers in terms of the effects of perceived organizational red tape on work motivation.

The analyses concerning the impact of perceived personnel red tape on work motivation mostly indicate that the effect is insignificant. The results suggest that *Hypothesis 8a* can be rejected. However, perceived personnel red tape has a significant and negative effect on work motivation in the nonprofit model. This result is somewhat surprising as the results presented in chapter 7 indicate that nonprofit managers perceive less personnel red tape relative to public managers. The insignificant relationship between perceived personnel red tape and work motivation in the public model is also unexpected. Because public managers perceive higher levels of personnel red tape within their organizations, one might reasonably expect these perceptions to have a negative effect on motivation within this group. While the ordered logit model indicates a negative effect, the OLS and tobit regression results suggest that work motivation among public managers is not significantly influenced by perceived personnel red tape. These results may indicate that nonprofit managers are more sensitive to personnel red tape, or that public managers are more adept at coping with restrictive personnel rules.

There is no evidence that perceived personnel red tape has a greater negative effect on the work motivation of public managers relative to managers in the nonprofit sector. Incorporating the *Nonprofit* × *Personnel red tape* interaction term into the full model shows that there is not statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of the magnitude of the effect on work motivation. Thus, *Hypothesis 8b* can be rejected.

Conclusions

This research indicates that there are significant and consequential differences between public and nonprofit managers in terms of red tape perceptions, organizational pride, and work motivation. The analyses concerning red tape perceptions strongly suggest that nonprofit managers perceive less organizational and personnel red tape than public managers. As noted, this disparity may have serious implications for public organizations seeking to attract and retain talented managers. But what do the sectoral differences in organizational and personnel red tape perceptions mean for work-related attitudes, emotions, and behaviors? This study addresses this question by investigating the effects of red tape on two distinct constructs: organizational pride and work motivation.

The analyses regarding organizational pride suggest that nonprofit managers have significantly more pride in their organizations relative to public managers. In terms of the effects of perceived red tape, this research demonstrates that organizational and personnel red tape are associated with decreased organizational pride among both public and nonprofit managers. As public managers perceive more organizational and personnel red tape within their organizations, one might expect the effects of these perceptions on the organizational pride of public managers to be significantly greater. The results of this study, however, indicate that this is not necessarily the case. While the effects of perceived personnel red tape on organizational pride are significantly greater for public managers, there is no significant difference between the two groups in terms of the effects of organizational red tape.

The results of the work motivation models are somewhat more complex. However, they do largely indicate that nonprofit managers are more highly motivated than public managers and that organizational red tape is associated with a significant decrease in work motivation. With the exception of the nonprofit model, the effect of personnel red tape is mostly insignificant. Comparisons of the effects of red tape reveal that there is no difference between public and nonprofit managers in terms of the effects on work motivation. Again, one might assume that organizational and personnel red tape would have a greater negative impact on the work motivation of public sector managers since these managers perceive higher levels of red tape. This is not the case, however.

The findings presented in the dissertation suggest that the degree of red tape perceived by public and nonprofit managers does not necessarily determine the sizes of the effects on organizational pride and work motivation. Of the red tape effects examined in this study, only the effects of perceived personnel red tape on organizational pride are greater for public managers (the managers who perceive more personnel red tape). The findings in this specific case are problematic for public organizations, as they suggest that while organizational pride among both public and nonprofit managers is negatively affected by perceived personnel red tape, public organizations are still disadvantaged relative to nonprofits because the effect of these perceptions on organizational pride is greater. However, the examinations of the other three effect sizes that indicate no significant sectoral disparity should be encouraging for public sector organizations. These analyses suggest that higher levels of perceived red tape in the public sector do not necessarily result in greater negative effects.

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APPENDIX A

ORDINAL LOGISTIC REGRESSION RESULTS

Table A.1: Ordered Logit Model Estimating Perceptions of Organizational Red Tape by Sector

	All Managers		Public		Nonprofit	
Nonprofit	-1.374***	(0.258)				
Georgia	-0.784***	(0.130)	-0.811***	(0.154)	-0.576*	(0.283)
Desire to serve public	0.046	(0.071)	-0.082	(0.097)	0.176	(0.102)
Salary motivation	0.070	(0.087)	0.100	(0.105)	0.008	(0.167)
Security concerns	0.205**	(0.067)	0.015	(0.085)	0.372**	(0.114)
Organizational environment	-0.159*	(0.068)	-0.139	(0.091)	-0.093	(0.105)
Career advancement	-0.090	(0.066)	-0.115	(0.086)	0.002	(0.106)
Practical concerns	0.216***	(0.064)	0.280***	(0.075)	0.078	(0.132)
Organization size (log)	0.206***	(0.043)	0.132*	(0.053)	0.373***	(0.094)
Amount of supervision	0.232***	(0.049)	0.241***	(0.055)	0.250*	(0.106)
Female	0.070	(0.122)	-0.047	(0.152)	0.303	(0.215)
Nonwhite	-0.332*	(0.168)	-0.475*	(0.185)	0.898*	(0.452)
Age	-0.026***	(0.007)	-0.022*	(0.009)	-0.013	(0.012)
Education	0.110*	(0.052)	0.143*	(0.063)	0.000	(0.102)
Cut 1	-3.616	(0.727)	-4.563	(1.034)	-1.248	(1.296)
Cut 2	-2.217	(0.681)	-3.157	(0.859)	0.210	(1.234)
Cut 3	-1.247	(0.660)	-2.263	(0.774)	1.273	(1.224)
Cut 4	-0.305	(0.660)	-1.217	(0.770)	2.277	(1.227)
Cut 5	0.246	(0.660)	-0.514	(0.766)	2.763	(1.230)
Cut 6	0.840	(0.661)	0.152	(0.765)	3.304	(1.237)
Cut 7	1.246	(0.662)	0.587	(0.765)	3.673	(1.248)
Cut 8	2.090	(0.667)	1.449	(0.768)	4.508	(1.269)
Cut 9	3.282	(0.675)	2.711	(0.775)	5.300	(1.291)
Cut 10	4.331	(0.679)	3.789	(0.780)	6.127	(1.279)
Observations	983		676		307	
Pseudo R^2	0.101		0.042		0.067	
χ^2	452.321		109.323		106.930	
Prob > χ^2	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table A.2: Ordered Logit Model Estimating Perceptions of Organizational Red Tape by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Nonprofit	-1.794***	(0.470)	-1.014**	(0.333)
Desire to serve public	0.054	(0.122)	0.047	(0.088)
Salary motivation	0.094	(0.124)	0.039	(0.125)
Security concerns	0.248*	(0.101)	0.148	(0.091)
Organizational environment	-0.205*	(0.104)	-0.122	(0.093)
Career advancement	-0.125	(0.105)	-0.089	(0.085)
Practical concerns	0.264**	(0.098)	0.212*	(0.086)
Organization size (log)	0.123	(0.063)	0.296***	(0.063)
Amount of supervision	0.180*	(0.086)	0.275***	(0.060)
Female	-0.139	(0.189)	0.255	(0.165)
Nonwhite	-0.355	(0.258)	-0.280	(0.227)
Age	-0.019	(0.010)	-0.034***	(0.010)
Education	0.072	(0.080)	0.155*	(0.070)
Cut 1	-3.768	(1.052)	-2.824	(1.020)
Cut 2	-2.358	(0.982)	-1.436	(0.951)
Cut 3	-1.244	(0.958)	-0.558	(0.921)
Cut 4	-0.325	(0.971)	0.412	(0.916)
Cut 5	0.227	(0.973)	0.969	(0.915)
Cut 6	0.796	(0.969)	1.594	(0.920)
Cut 7	1.237	(0.968)	1.975	(0.925)
Cut 8	2.142	(0.975)	2.770	(0.931)
Cut 9	3.462	(0.988)	3.882	(0.941)
Cut 10	4.677	(1.003)	4.878	(0.941)
Observations	430		553	
Pseudo R^2	0.085		0.113	
χ^2	148.648		300.772	
Prob > χ^2	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table A.3: Ordered Logit Model Estimating Perceptions of Organizational Red Tape by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial†	
Nonprofit	-1.148***	(0.306)	-1.819***	(0.533)
Georgia	-0.757***	(0.153)	-1.059***	(0.261)
Desire to serve public	0.113	(0.085)	-0.151	(0.162)
Salary motivation	0.036	(0.101)	0.130	(0.182)
Security concerns	0.295***	(0.081)	-0.072	(0.124)
Organizational environment	-0.221**	(0.079)	-0.047	(0.142)
Career advancement	-0.048	(0.080)	-0.220	(0.143)
Practical concerns	0.254***	(0.076)	0.149	(0.140)
Organization size (log)	0.250***	(0.050)	0.117	(0.092)
Amount of supervision	0.236***	(0.057)	0.244**	(0.095)
Female	-0.031	(0.144)	0.179	(0.256)
Nonwhite	-0.441*	(0.185)	-0.226	(0.404)
Age	-0.022*	(0.009)	-0.033**	(0.013)
Education	0.130*	(0.064)	-0.028	(0.100)
Cut 1	-3.004	(0.850)	-5.471	(1.591)
Cut 2	-1.517	(0.806)	-4.440	(1.447)
Cut 3	-0.554	(0.784)	-3.500	(1.392)
Cut 4	0.403	(0.786)	-2.497	(1.381)
Cut 5	0.989	(0.787)	-1.985	(1.385)
Cut 6	1.584	(0.793)	-1.425	(1.372)
Cut 7	2.031	(0.794)	-1.059	(1.375)
Cut 8	2.880	(0.800)	-0.124	(1.379)
Cut 9	4.063	(0.813)	1.106	(1.380)
Cut 10	5.123	(0.820)	2.208	(1.364)
Observations	692		264	
Pseudo R^2	0.115		0.075	
χ^2	375.376		90.485	
Prob > χ^2	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table A.4: Ordered Logit Model Estimating Perceptions of Personnel Red Tape by Sector

	All Managers		Public		Nonprofit	
Nonprofit	-2.485***	(0.264)				
Georgia	-1.050***	(0.127)	-1.147***	(0.151)	-0.594*	(0.265)
Desire to serve public	-0.095	(0.074)	-0.119	(0.093)	-0.044	(0.114)
Salary motivation	0.008	(0.092)	-0.032	(0.110)	0.083	(0.183)
Security concerns	0.191**	(0.070)	0.090	(0.086)	0.280*	(0.129)
Organizational environment	-0.067	(0.067)	-0.079	(0.083)	0.062	(0.113)
Career advancement	-0.135*	(0.067)	-0.154	(0.079)	-0.077	(0.112)
Practical concerns	0.162*	(0.066)	0.130	(0.079)	0.360**	(0.131)
Organization size (log)	0.164***	(0.042)	0.082	(0.051)	0.376***	(0.082)
Amount of supervision	0.080	(0.043)	0.090	(0.048)	0.050	(0.097)
Female	0.200	(0.125)	0.119	(0.151)	0.333	(0.227)
Nonwhite	-0.387*	(0.168)	-0.473*	(0.187)	0.475	(0.410)
Age	-0.024***	(0.007)	-0.022**	(0.009)	-0.017	(0.013)
Education	0.016	(0.053)	0.035	(0.064)	-0.080	(0.103)
Cut 1	-6.013	(0.721)	-6.266	(0.934)	-2.530	(1.103)
Cut 2	-5.053	(0.704)	-4.337	(0.842)	-1.530	(1.088)
Cut 3	-4.065	(0.697)	-3.074	(0.844)	-0.504	(1.092)
Cut 4	-3.189	(0.690)	-1.980	(0.849)	0.298	(1.088)
Cut 5	-2.251	(0.689)	-0.906	(0.848)	1.119	(1.092)
Cut 6	-1.221	(0.689)	0.037	(0.850)	2.097	(1.094)
Cut 7	-0.197	(0.690)	1.200	(0.852)	2.862	(1.112)
Cut 8	0.743	(0.692)			3.704	(1.116)
Cut 9	1.888	(0.695)			4.525	(1.141)
Observations	978		681		297	
Pseudo R^2	0.132		0.042		0.058	
χ^2	512.656		107.680		77.513	
Prob > χ^2	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table A.5: Ordered Logit Model Estimating Perceptions of Personnel Red Tape by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Nonprofit	-3.415***	(0.558)	-1.996***	(0.351)
Desire to serve public	-0.170	(0.132)	-0.060	(0.089)
Salary motivation	0.012	(0.134)	0.023	(0.128)
Security concerns	0.168	(0.110)	0.194*	(0.094)
Organizational environment	-0.125	(0.101)	-0.017	(0.090)
Career advancement	-0.243*	(0.097)	-0.080	(0.087)
Practical concerns	0.128	(0.100)	0.201*	(0.090)
Organization size (log)	0.063	(0.065)	0.268***	(0.059)
Amount of supervision	0.107	(0.072)	0.069	(0.057)
Female	0.014	(0.195)	0.296	(0.163)
Nonwhite	-0.292	(0.257)	-0.424	(0.224)
Age	-0.034**	(0.010)	-0.018	(0.010)
Education	0.036	(0.082)	0.001	(0.072)
Cut 1	-6.883	(1.046)	-4.631	(0.989)
Cut 2	-6.146	(1.028)	-3.553	(0.962)
Cut 3	-4.996	(1.001)	-2.620	(0.961)
Cut 4	-3.579	(0.977)	-1.950	(0.958)
Cut 5	-2.465	(0.982)	-1.107	(0.956)
Cut 6	-1.501	(0.980)	0.006	(0.955)
Cut 7	-0.418	(0.982)	0.983	(0.955)
Cut 8	0.579	(0.989)	1.894	(0.958)
Cut 9	1.844	(1.007)	3.007	(0.962)
Observations	427		551	
Pseudo R^2	0.116		0.147	
χ^2	164.689		318.004	
Prob > χ^2	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table A.6: Ordered Logit Model Estimating Perceptions of Personnel Red Tape by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial†	
Nonprofit	-2.246***	(0.328)	-2.714***	(0.505)
Georgia	-1.167***	(0.158)	-1.138***	(0.249)
Desire to serve public	-0.082	(0.086)	-0.076	(0.153)
Salary motivation	0.088	(0.111)	-0.186	(0.176)
Security concerns	0.139	(0.083)	0.240	(0.135)
Organizational environment	-0.018	(0.082)	-0.253*	(0.129)
Career advancement	-0.061	(0.079)	-0.143	(0.131)
Practical concerns	0.223**	(0.079)	0.027	(0.136)
Organization size (log)	0.230***	(0.050)	0.080	(0.081)
Amount of supervision	0.070	(0.052)	0.032	(0.087)
Female	0.209	(0.149)	0.256	(0.264)
Nonwhite	-0.397*	(0.198)	-0.322	(0.341)
Age	-0.013	(0.009)	-0.040**	(0.013)
Education	0.020	(0.064)	-0.036	(0.108)
Cut 1	-4.744	(0.803)	-9.176	(1.710)
Cut 2	-3.713	(0.784)	-7.710	(1.513)
Cut 3	-2.690	(0.778)	-5.903	(1.453)
Cut 4	-1.900	(0.771)	-5.018	(1.440)
Cut 5	-0.914	(0.774)	-3.981	(1.426)
Cut 6	0.147	(0.778)	-3.025	(1.426)
Cut 7	1.238	(0.779)	-2.039	(1.422)
Cut 8	2.195	(0.782)	-0.928	(1.408)
Cut 9	3.427	(0.788)		
Observations	690		262	
Pseudo R^2	0.145		0.097	
χ^2	376.314		119.300	
Prob > χ^2	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table A.7: Ordered Logit Model Estimating Work Motivation by Sector

	All Managers		Public		Nonprofit	
Nonprofit	0.685***	(0.156)				
Georgia	0.099	(0.126)	0.184	(0.147)	-0.155	(0.268)
Desire to serve public	0.298***	(0.068)	0.404***	(0.095)	0.180	(0.100)
Salary motivation	-0.093	(0.086)	-0.122	(0.107)	-0.106	(0.161)
Security concerns	-0.090	(0.064)	-0.056	(0.087)	-0.062	(0.101)
Organizational environment	-0.140*	(0.069)	-0.231**	(0.088)	-0.080	(0.122)
Career advancement	0.209**	(0.069)	0.318***	(0.089)	0.023	(0.120)
Practical concerns	-0.234***	(0.061)	-0.169*	(0.071)	-0.346**	(0.120)
Promotion	0.268*	(0.129)	0.277	(0.158)	0.257	(0.235)
Civic engagement	0.142***	(0.040)	0.109*	(0.046)	0.230**	(0.082)
Amount of supervision	-0.085	(0.049)	-0.105	(0.055)	0.019	(0.107)
Female	0.328**	(0.118)	0.462**	(0.143)	0.246	(0.236)
Nonwhite	-0.212	(0.168)	-0.183	(0.179)	-0.941	(0.494)
Age	0.034***	(0.007)	0.034***	(0.008)	0.030**	(0.012)
Education	-0.027	(0.050)	-0.113	(0.059)	0.174	(0.101)
Cut 1	-4.593	(1.208)	-4.677	(1.301)	-2.402	(1.662)
Cut 2	-3.491	(0.886)	-3.979	(1.078)	-1.296	(1.367)
Cut 3	-2.977	(0.757)	-3.279	(0.883)	-0.284	(1.260)
Cut 4	-2.173	(0.664)	-2.335	(0.781)	0.451	(1.198)
Cut 5	-1.405	(0.624)	-1.594	(0.745)	1.352	(1.203)
Cut 6	-0.711	(0.609)	-0.947	(0.732)	2.082	(1.197)
Cut 7	0.098	(0.598)	-0.108	(0.723)	2.922	(1.194)
Cut 8	0.884	(0.603)	0.659	(0.728)	3.961	(1.196)
Cut 9	1.612	(0.603)	1.402	(0.730)		
Cut 10	2.435	(0.604)	2.237	(0.733)		
Cut 11	3.528	(0.607)	3.386	(0.736)		
Observations	1066		715		351	
Pseudo R^2	0.045		0.040		0.042	
χ^2	149.733		94.062		47.157	
Prob > χ^2	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table A.8: Ordered Logit Model Estimating Work Motivation by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Nonprofit	0.444	(0.274)	0.801***	(0.194)
Desire to serve public	0.448***	(0.112)	0.213*	(0.085)
Salary motivation	-0.174	(0.127)	-0.024	(0.121)
Security concerns	-0.036	(0.099)	-0.128	(0.084)
Organizational environment	-0.075	(0.104)	-0.205*	(0.093)
Career advancement	0.193	(0.108)	0.225*	(0.088)
Practical concerns	-0.301**	(0.095)	-0.162*	(0.080)
Promotion	0.376*	(0.190)	0.137	(0.182)
Civic engagement	0.159**	(0.058)	0.129*	(0.055)
Amount of supervision	-0.101	(0.072)	-0.084	(0.066)
Female	0.258	(0.172)	0.376*	(0.169)
Nonwhite	-0.036	(0.220)	-0.386	(0.256)
Age	0.034***	(0.010)	0.033***	(0.010)
Education	-0.078	(0.072)	0.016	(0.070)
Cut 1	-4.003	(1.357)	-3.849	(1.399)
Cut 2	-3.309	(1.091)	-3.152	(1.203)
Cut 3	-2.901	(1.030)	-2.743	(1.071)
Cut 4	-1.667	(0.865)	-1.734	(0.925)
Cut 5	-0.814	(0.856)	-1.222	(0.909)
Cut 6	0.031	(0.820)	-0.659	(0.877)
Cut 7	0.715	(0.834)	0.133	(0.877)
Cut 8	1.564	(0.835)	1.023	(0.875)
Cut 9	2.270	(0.835)	1.664	(0.876)
Cut 10	3.447	(0.840)	2.598	(0.878)
Cut 11			3.640	(0.879)
Observations	476		590	
Pseudo R^2	0.051		0.046	
χ^2	83.882		81.837	
Prob > χ^2	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table A.9: Ordered Logit Model Estimating Work Motivation by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial†	
Nonprofit	0.572**	(0.180)	0.920**	(0.341)
Georgia	0.157	(0.153)	0.013	(0.242)
Desire to serve public	0.208**	(0.077)	0.477***	(0.142)
Salary motivation	-0.089	(0.103)	-0.075	(0.173)
Security concerns	-0.069	(0.078)	-0.105	(0.121)
Organizational environment	-0.092	(0.082)	-0.309*	(0.134)
Career advancement	0.192*	(0.081)	0.162	(0.144)
Practical concerns	-0.186**	(0.071)	-0.381**	(0.132)
Promotion	0.120	(0.182)	0.283	(0.225)
Civic engagement	0.180***	(0.048)	0.044	(0.075)
Amount of supervision	0.027	(0.057)	-0.350***	(0.100)
Female	0.302*	(0.142)	0.442	(0.241)
Nonwhite	-0.242	(0.207)	-0.071	(0.314)
Age	0.023**	(0.008)	0.045***	(0.012)
Education	0.046	(0.060)	-0.207*	(0.099)
Cut 1	-3.943	(1.290)	-5.320	(1.828)
Cut 2	-3.249	(1.022)	-4.614	(1.692)
Cut 3	-2.549	(0.871)	-4.199	(1.544)
Cut 4	-1.516	(0.784)	-3.287	(1.430)
Cut 5	-0.847	(0.742)	-2.665	(1.373)
Cut 6	0.080	(0.728)	-1.875	(1.365)
Cut 7	0.986	(0.732)	-1.171	(1.330)
Cut 8	1.668	(0.730)	-0.508	(1.327)
Cut 9	2.429	(0.730)	0.369	(1.328)
Cut 10	3.524	(0.734)	1.344	(1.328)
Cut 11			2.534	(1.321)
Observations	750		288	
Pseudo R^2	0.036		0.073	
χ^2	85.384		73.598	
Prob > χ^2	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table A.10: Ordered Logit Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Organizational Red Tape on Work Motivation by Sector

	All Managers		Public		Nonprofit	
Organizational red tape	-0.099***	(0.027)	-0.089*	(0.037)	-0.101*	(0.045)
Nonprofit	0.430**	(0.167)				
Georgia	-0.025	(0.128)	0.061	(0.151)	-0.225	(0.269)
Desire to serve public	0.316***	(0.069)	0.411***	(0.095)	0.200	(0.104)
Salary motivation	-0.103	(0.086)	-0.140	(0.107)	-0.107	(0.160)
Security concerns	-0.056	(0.065)	-0.047	(0.087)	-0.002	(0.108)
Organizational environment	-0.161*	(0.069)	-0.240**	(0.087)	-0.115	(0.125)
Career advancement	0.204**	(0.069)	0.319***	(0.090)	0.017	(0.121)
Practical concerns	-0.204***	(0.061)	-0.132	(0.072)	-0.345**	(0.117)
Promotion	0.248	(0.129)	0.278	(0.158)	0.194	(0.239)
Civic engagement	0.134***	(0.040)	0.108*	(0.046)	0.204*	(0.082)
Amount of supervision	-0.055	(0.048)	-0.075	(0.055)	0.054	(0.110)
Female	0.346**	(0.118)	0.470**	(0.144)	0.286	(0.236)
Nonwhite	-0.298	(0.168)	-0.293	(0.181)	-0.862	(0.488)
Age	0.030***	(0.007)	0.030***	(0.009)	0.027*	(0.012)
Education	-0.022	(0.050)	-0.111	(0.060)	0.181	(0.102)
Cut 1	-5.381	(1.225)	-5.427	(1.337)	-2.868	(1.712)
Cut 2	-4.278	(0.919)	-4.729	(1.112)	-1.763	(1.404)
Cut 3	-3.764	(0.792)	-4.029	(0.924)	-0.747	(1.284)
Cut 4	-2.960	(0.706)	-3.086	(0.842)	-0.008	(1.228)
Cut 5	-2.192	(0.667)	-2.345	(0.809)	0.893	(1.232)
Cut 6	-1.497	(0.652)	-1.697	(0.800)	1.627	(1.223)
Cut 7	-0.686	(0.643)	-0.856	(0.793)	2.479	(1.217)
Cut 8	0.087	(0.646)	-0.104	(0.794)	3.534	(1.218)
Cut 9	0.827	(0.646)	0.654	(0.796)		
Cut 10	1.665	(0.645)	1.506	(0.797)		
Cut 11	2.769	(0.646)	2.660	(0.797)		
Observations	1060		709		351	
Pseudo R^2	0.049		0.043		0.047	
χ^2	159.181		103.498		53.118	
Prob > χ^2	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table A.11: Ordered Logit Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Organizational Red Tape on Work Motivation by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Organizational red tape	-0.074	(0.042)	-0.121***	(0.037)
Nonprofit	0.265	(0.290)	0.474*	(0.212)
Desire to serve public	0.470***	(0.112)	0.223*	(0.088)
Salary motivation	-0.180	(0.128)	-0.033	(0.120)
Security concerns	-0.013	(0.099)	-0.082	(0.089)
Organizational environment	-0.090	(0.104)	-0.231*	(0.093)
Career advancement	0.183	(0.108)	0.226*	(0.089)
Practical concerns	-0.261**	(0.097)	-0.141	(0.079)
Promotion	0.376*	(0.188)	0.087	(0.185)
Civic engagement	0.163**	(0.060)	0.114*	(0.055)
Amount of supervision	-0.079	(0.072)	-0.048	(0.065)
Female	0.270	(0.171)	0.413*	(0.169)
Nonwhite	-0.162	(0.226)	-0.411	(0.253)
Age	0.029**	(0.010)	0.030**	(0.010)
Education	-0.075	(0.073)	0.023	(0.069)
Cut 1	-4.515	(1.371)	-4.804	(1.430)
Cut 2	-3.820	(1.108)	-4.106	(1.263)
Cut 3	-3.412	(1.047)	-3.697	(1.135)
Cut 4	-2.174	(0.905)	-2.691	(0.997)
Cut 5	-1.321	(0.905)	-2.181	(0.976)
Cut 6	-0.477	(0.872)	-1.616	(0.935)
Cut 7	0.209	(0.884)	-0.821	(0.940)
Cut 8	1.063	(0.883)	0.044	(0.937)
Cut 9	1.779	(0.881)	0.700	(0.938)
Cut 10	2.961	(0.884)	1.656	(0.936)
Cut 11			2.714	(0.935)
Observations	473		587	
Pseudo R^2	0.053		0.051	
χ^2	85.772		90.324	
Prob > χ^2	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table A.12: Ordered Logit Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Organizational Red Tape on Work Motivation by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial†	
Organizational red tape	-0.096**	(0.033)	-0.094	(0.054)
Nonprofit	0.314	(0.196)	0.701	(0.363)
Georgia	0.027	(0.156)	-0.079	(0.246)
Desire to serve public	0.234**	(0.079)	0.469**	(0.144)
Salary motivation	-0.106	(0.104)	-0.084	(0.174)
Security concerns	-0.025	(0.081)	-0.098	(0.121)
Organizational environment	-0.117	(0.083)	-0.306*	(0.135)
Career advancement	0.190*	(0.082)	0.155	(0.147)
Practical concerns	-0.153*	(0.071)	-0.363**	(0.134)
Promotion	0.099	(0.182)	0.269	(0.231)
Civic engagement	0.169***	(0.049)	0.043	(0.075)
Amount of supervision	0.059	(0.056)	-0.317**	(0.101)
Female	0.318*	(0.141)	0.453	(0.242)
Nonwhite	-0.343	(0.205)	-0.136	(0.329)
Age	0.019*	(0.009)	0.041**	(0.013)
Education	0.050	(0.060)	-0.203*	(0.099)
Cut 1	-4.708	(1.347)	-6.061	(1.809)
Cut 2	-4.013	(1.069)	-5.355	(1.656)
Cut 3	-3.314	(0.927)	-4.938	(1.511)
Cut 4	-2.282	(0.837)	-4.029	(1.407)
Cut 5	-1.612	(0.793)	-3.408	(1.353)
Cut 6	-0.682	(0.782)	-2.616	(1.350)
Cut 7	0.208	(0.782)	-1.913	(1.324)
Cut 8	0.905	(0.779)	-1.252	(1.322)
Cut 9	1.682	(0.779)	-0.372	(1.326)
Cut 10	2.788	(0.781)	0.616	(1.324)
Cut 11			1.804	(1.315)
Observations	745		287	
Pseudo R^2	0.040		0.076	
χ^2	96.866		79.879	
Prob > χ^2	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table A.13: Ordered Logit Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Personnel Red Tape on Work Motivation by Sector

	All Managers		Public		Nonprofit	
Personnel red tape	-0.069*	(0.035)	0.001	(0.048)	-0.130*	(0.053)
Nonprofit	0.491**	(0.184)				
Georgia	0.025	(0.130)	0.181	(0.156)	-0.251	(0.272)
Desire to serve public	0.299***	(0.068)	0.412***	(0.095)	0.173	(0.102)
Salary motivation	-0.099	(0.086)	-0.121	(0.107)	-0.102	(0.159)
Security concerns	-0.064	(0.065)	-0.058	(0.086)	0.015	(0.106)
Organizational environment	-0.147*	(0.069)	-0.230**	(0.088)	-0.095	(0.123)
Career advancement	0.199**	(0.070)	0.319***	(0.089)	-0.013	(0.121)
Practical concerns	-0.218***	(0.061)	-0.167*	(0.071)	-0.299*	(0.120)
Promotion	0.246	(0.131)	0.274	(0.160)	0.232	(0.243)
Civic engagement	0.135***	(0.040)	0.109*	(0.046)	0.208*	(0.082)
Amount of supervision	-0.091	(0.049)	-0.109*	(0.056)	-0.009	(0.111)
Female	0.334**	(0.119)	0.466**	(0.144)	0.264	(0.240)
Nonwhite	-0.220	(0.167)	-0.183	(0.179)	-0.840	(0.482)
Age	0.032***	(0.007)	0.034***	(0.008)	0.027*	(0.012)
Education	-0.024	(0.050)	-0.109	(0.059)	0.178	(0.103)
Cut 1	-5.433	(1.265)	-4.648	(1.439)	-3.691	(1.723)
Cut 2	-4.331	(0.957)	-3.950	(1.206)	-2.585	(1.429)
Cut 3	-3.816	(0.838)	-3.251	(1.034)	-1.571	(1.310)
Cut 4	-3.011	(0.768)	-2.306	(0.976)	-0.831	(1.252)
Cut 5	-2.243	(0.736)	-1.564	(0.951)	0.074	(1.259)
Cut 6	-1.549	(0.722)	-0.917	(0.942)	0.793	(1.252)
Cut 7	-0.738	(0.715)	-0.076	(0.937)	1.626	(1.247)
Cut 8	0.049	(0.719)	0.691	(0.940)	2.676	(1.244)
Cut 9	0.774	(0.718)	1.436	(0.943)		
Cut 10	1.596	(0.718)	2.273	(0.946)		
Cut 11	2.689	(0.719)	3.417	(0.949)		
Observations	1056		714		342	
Pseudo R^2	0.045		0.040		0.047	
χ^2	147.565		94.723		48.703	
Prob > χ^2	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table A.14: Ordered Logit Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Personnel Red Tape on Work Motivation by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Personnel red tape	-0.083	(0.055)	-0.053	(0.045)
Nonprofit	0.205	(0.302)	0.661**	(0.235)
Desire to serve public	0.453***	(0.113)	0.213*	(0.086)
Salary motivation	-0.183	(0.128)	-0.028	(0.120)
Security concerns	-0.015	(0.100)	-0.098	(0.086)
Organizational environment	-0.087	(0.104)	-0.211*	(0.094)
Career advancement	0.174	(0.111)	0.221*	(0.089)
Practical concerns	-0.281**	(0.095)	-0.149	(0.080)
Promotion	0.324	(0.197)	0.134	(0.184)
Civic engagement	0.147*	(0.060)	0.125*	(0.055)
Amount of supervision	-0.098	(0.073)	-0.094	(0.066)
Female	0.261	(0.172)	0.380*	(0.170)
Nonwhite	-0.038	(0.219)	-0.393	(0.252)
Age	0.031**	(0.010)	0.032***	(0.010)
Education	-0.075	(0.072)	0.016	(0.070)
Cut 1	-4.910	(1.421)	-4.511	(1.462)
Cut 2	-4.215	(1.179)	-3.813	(1.290)
Cut 3	-3.807	(1.133)	-3.404	(1.167)
Cut 4	-2.574	(1.039)	-2.394	(1.048)
Cut 5	-1.721	(1.037)	-1.882	(1.027)
Cut 6	-0.875	(1.000)	-1.316	(0.992)
Cut 7	-0.188	(1.009)	-0.524	(1.001)
Cut 8	0.664	(1.010)	0.366	(1.003)
Cut 9	1.375	(1.010)	1.000	(1.001)
Cut 10	2.538	(1.013)	1.927	(1.001)
Cut 11			2.980	(0.999)
Observations	471		585	
Pseudo R^2	0.051		0.046	
χ^2	82.593		81.603	
Prob > χ^2	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table A.15: Ordered Logit Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Personnel Red Tape on Work Motivation by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial†	
Personnel red tape	-0.060	(0.040)	-0.099	(0.079)
Nonprofit	0.415	(0.214)	0.633	(0.386)
Georgia	0.100	(0.156)	-0.123	(0.259)
Desire to serve public	0.204**	(0.078)	0.494***	(0.141)
Salary motivation	-0.091	(0.103)	-0.101	(0.174)
Security concerns	-0.043	(0.079)	-0.071	(0.125)
Organizational environment	-0.092	(0.082)	-0.337*	(0.136)
Career advancement	0.188*	(0.082)	0.140	(0.152)
Practical concerns	-0.170*	(0.071)	-0.378**	(0.134)
Promotion	0.110	(0.185)	0.215	(0.230)
Civic engagement	0.172***	(0.048)	0.041	(0.076)
Amount of supervision	0.021	(0.057)	-0.361***	(0.100)
Female	0.304*	(0.142)	0.470	(0.242)
Nonwhite	-0.249	(0.205)	-0.060	(0.312)
Age	0.021*	(0.009)	0.041**	(0.013)
Education	0.049	(0.060)	-0.207*	(0.100)
Cut 1	-4.644	(1.359)	-6.665	(2.047)
Cut 2	-3.949	(1.092)	-5.960	(1.894)
Cut 3	-3.250	(0.982)	-5.544	(1.766)
Cut 4	-2.218	(0.900)	-4.630	(1.673)
Cut 5	-1.550	(0.858)	-4.001	(1.635)
Cut 6	-0.622	(0.846)	-3.200	(1.628)
Cut 7	0.286	(0.847)	-2.488	(1.604)
Cut 8	0.962	(0.846)	-1.821	(1.596)
Cut 9	1.716	(0.846)	-0.936	(1.592)
Cut 10	2.815	(0.848)	0.058	(1.585)
Cut 11			1.235	(1.570)
Observations	744		285	
Pseudo R^2	0.036		0.075	
χ^2	86.078		75.509	
Prob > χ^2	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

APPENDIX B

TOBIT REGRESSION RESULTS

Table B.1: Tobit Model Estimating Work Motivation by Sector

	All Managers		Public		Nonprofit	
Nonprofit	0.860***	(0.199)				
Georgia	0.100	(0.160)	0.213	(0.182)	-0.226	(0.338)
Desire to serve public	0.379***	(0.087)	0.486***	(0.117)	0.213	(0.130)
Salary motivation	-0.113	(0.112)	-0.146	(0.132)	-0.146	(0.214)
Security concerns	-0.113	(0.085)	-0.087	(0.108)	-0.059	(0.143)
Organizational environment	-0.153	(0.086)	-0.251*	(0.106)	-0.084	(0.157)
Career advancement	0.301***	(0.089)	0.407***	(0.107)	0.087	(0.160)
Practical concerns	-0.296***	(0.078)	-0.217*	(0.089)	-0.438**	(0.158)
Promotion	0.442**	(0.168)	0.457*	(0.200)	0.356	(0.310)
Civic engagement	0.206***	(0.053)	0.151*	(0.059)	0.351**	(0.115)
Amount of supervision	-0.132*	(0.061)	-0.161*	(0.067)	0.049	(0.137)
Female	0.460**	(0.152)	0.594***	(0.176)	0.384	(0.301)
Nonwhite	-0.268	(0.215)	-0.217	(0.226)	-1.281*	(0.629)
Age	0.044***	(0.009)	0.043***	(0.011)	0.039**	(0.015)
Education	-0.013	(0.066)	-0.127	(0.074)	0.296*	(0.142)
Constant	11.177***	(0.794)	11.607***	(0.922)	10.171***	(1.617)
Sigma	2.271***	(0.072)	2.206***	(0.081)	2.331***	(0.144)
Observations	1066		715		351	
Pseudo R^2	0.044		0.040		0.041	
F statistic	11.068		7.315		3.377	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table B.2: Tobit Model Estimating Work Motivation by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Nonprofit	0.547	(0.336)	1.015***	(0.251)
Desire to serve public	0.516***	(0.138)	0.287*	(0.112)
Salary motivation	-0.234	(0.158)	0.024	(0.163)
Security concerns	-0.040	(0.128)	-0.172	(0.112)
Organizational environment	-0.049	(0.128)	-0.250*	(0.117)
Career advancement	0.259	(0.137)	0.328**	(0.114)
Practical concerns	-0.352**	(0.117)	-0.225*	(0.105)
Promotion	0.624*	(0.254)	0.235	(0.228)
Civic engagement	0.211**	(0.077)	0.204**	(0.072)
Amount of supervision	-0.132	(0.088)	-0.144	(0.083)
Female	0.375	(0.217)	0.520*	(0.213)
Nonwhite	-0.075	(0.299)	-0.427	(0.310)
Age	0.041**	(0.013)	0.046***	(0.012)
Education	-0.048	(0.093)	0.006	(0.092)
Constant	11.406***	(1.070)	10.932***	(1.148)
Sigma	2.244***	(0.107)	2.269***	(0.096)
Observations	476		590	
Pseudo R^2	0.047		0.047	
F statistic	6.710		6.479	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table B.3: Tobit Model Estimating Work Motivation by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial†	
Nonprofit	0.738**	(0.235)	1.115**	(0.391)
Georgia	0.168	(0.200)	0.025	(0.274)
Desire to serve public	0.256*	(0.101)	0.591***	(0.164)
Salary motivation	-0.133	(0.135)	-0.055	(0.198)
Security concerns	-0.085	(0.103)	-0.105	(0.150)
Organizational environment	-0.108	(0.105)	-0.323*	(0.146)
Career advancement	0.264*	(0.106)	0.258	(0.165)
Practical concerns	-0.248**	(0.092)	-0.401**	(0.152)
Promotion	0.287	(0.237)	0.463	(0.282)
Civic engagement	0.252***	(0.066)	0.086	(0.087)
Amount of supervision	0.031	(0.072)	-0.421***	(0.103)
Female	0.420*	(0.185)	0.586*	(0.269)
Nonwhite	-0.301	(0.260)	-0.208	(0.434)
Age	0.030**	(0.011)	0.054***	(0.015)
Education	0.080	(0.080)	-0.206	(0.117)
Constant	11.120***	(0.969)	12.321***	(1.453)
Sigma	2.290***	(0.088)	2.125***	(0.125)
Observations	750		288	
Pseudo R^2	0.034		0.073	
F statistic	6.153		5.961	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table B.4: Tobit Model Estimating the Effect of Organizational Red Tape on Work Motivation by Sector

	All Managers		Public		Nonprofit	
Organizational red tape	-0.119**	(0.036)	-0.115*	(0.047)	-0.110	(0.061)
Nonprofit	0.538*	(0.214)				
Georgia	-0.048	(0.164)	0.057	(0.187)	-0.303	(0.340)
Desire to serve public	0.394***	(0.088)	0.494***	(0.117)	0.229	(0.131)
Salary motivation	-0.124	(0.112)	-0.168	(0.132)	-0.135	(0.213)
Security concerns	-0.070	(0.086)	-0.068	(0.108)	0.006	(0.151)
Organizational environment	-0.178*	(0.086)	-0.268*	(0.105)	-0.118	(0.158)
Career advancement	0.299***	(0.089)	0.406***	(0.108)	0.093	(0.161)
Practical concerns	-0.257**	(0.078)	-0.170	(0.090)	-0.437**	(0.156)
Promotion	0.408*	(0.166)	0.445*	(0.197)	0.287	(0.311)
Civic engagement	0.197***	(0.054)	0.149*	(0.058)	0.323**	(0.119)
Amount of supervision	-0.095	(0.060)	-0.124	(0.066)	0.087	(0.139)
Female	0.480**	(0.151)	0.604***	(0.175)	0.411	(0.298)
Nonwhite	-0.368	(0.214)	-0.347	(0.228)	-1.183	(0.611)
Age	0.039***	(0.009)	0.039***	(0.011)	0.036*	(0.015)
Education	-0.005	(0.066)	-0.121	(0.074)	0.304*	(0.144)
Constant	12.125***	(0.848)	12.561***	(0.978)	10.649***	(1.688)
Sigma	2.256***	(0.072)	2.190***	(0.080)	2.320***	(0.148)
Observations	1060		709		351	
Pseudo R^2	0.048		0.043		0.044	
F statistic	10.860		7.270		3.584	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table B.5: Tobit Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Organizational Red Tape on Work Motivation by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Organizational red tape	-0.097	(0.055)	-0.142**	(0.048)
Nonprofit	0.314	(0.364)	0.609*	(0.273)
Desire to serve public	0.541***	(0.136)	0.293*	(0.113)
Salary motivation	-0.242	(0.158)	0.018	(0.162)
Security concerns	-0.002	(0.127)	-0.123	(0.116)
Organizational environment	-0.072	(0.127)	-0.280*	(0.117)
Career advancement	0.247	(0.137)	0.335**	(0.115)
Practical concerns	-0.299*	(0.119)	-0.196	(0.104)
Promotion	0.612*	(0.250)	0.174	(0.230)
Civic engagement	0.213**	(0.078)	0.186*	(0.072)
Amount of supervision	-0.102	(0.088)	-0.101	(0.082)
Female	0.386	(0.216)	0.559**	(0.212)
Nonwhite	-0.228	(0.304)	-0.458	(0.305)
Age	0.036**	(0.013)	0.040***	(0.012)
Education	-0.044	(0.093)	0.020	(0.091)
Constant	12.060***	(1.103)	12.057***	(1.239)
Sigma	2.227***	(0.105)	2.255***	(0.099)
Observations	473		587	
Pseudo R^2	0.049		0.051	
F statistic	6.338		6.596	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table B.6: Tobit Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Organizational Red Tape on Work Motivation by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial†	
Organizational red tape	-0.119**	(0.045)	-0.124	(0.065)
Nonprofit	0.406	(0.257)	0.809	(0.420)
Georgia	0.009	(0.204)	-0.116	(0.284)
Desire to serve public	0.282**	(0.101)	0.577***	(0.166)
Salary motivation	-0.154	(0.135)	-0.062	(0.199)
Security concerns	-0.028	(0.105)	-0.104	(0.151)
Organizational environment	-0.139	(0.105)	-0.325*	(0.149)
Career advancement	0.263*	(0.106)	0.249	(0.167)
Practical concerns	-0.203*	(0.092)	-0.376*	(0.154)
Promotion	0.253	(0.233)	0.420	(0.281)
Civic engagement	0.239***	(0.066)	0.085	(0.087)
Amount of supervision	0.073	(0.071)	-0.386***	(0.105)
Female	0.443*	(0.183)	0.587*	(0.271)
Nonwhite	-0.433	(0.255)	-0.255	(0.444)
Age	0.025*	(0.011)	0.049***	(0.015)
Education	0.091	(0.079)	-0.215	(0.116)
Constant	12.052***	(1.045)	13.433***	(1.462)
Sigma	2.270***	(0.089)	2.114***	(0.121)
Observations	745		287	
Pseudo R^2	0.038		0.076	
F statistic	6.518		5.956	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
†Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table B.7: Tobit Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Personnel Red Tape on Work Motivation by Sector

	All Managers		Public		Nonprofit	
Personnel red tape	-0.091*	(0.045)	-0.013	(0.061)	-0.165*	(0.069)
Nonprofit	0.600*	(0.238)				
Georgia	0.004	(0.166)	0.195	(0.194)	-0.345	(0.344)
Desire to serve public	0.377***	(0.088)	0.493***	(0.118)	0.193	(0.131)
Salary motivation	-0.121	(0.112)	-0.147	(0.133)	-0.132	(0.215)
Security concerns	-0.077	(0.086)	-0.087	(0.108)	0.038	(0.151)
Organizational environment	-0.164	(0.087)	-0.251*	(0.106)	-0.102	(0.160)
Career advancement	0.291**	(0.090)	0.406***	(0.108)	0.052	(0.164)
Practical concerns	-0.274***	(0.079)	-0.214*	(0.089)	-0.372*	(0.160)
Promotion	0.414*	(0.170)	0.448*	(0.201)	0.331	(0.322)
Civic engagement	0.198***	(0.054)	0.150*	(0.059)	0.322**	(0.117)
Amount of supervision	-0.139*	(0.062)	-0.164*	(0.067)	0.006	(0.142)
Female	0.465**	(0.153)	0.599***	(0.176)	0.402	(0.306)
Nonwhite	-0.284	(0.214)	-0.220	(0.228)	-1.201	(0.625)
Age	0.041***	(0.009)	0.043***	(0.011)	0.035*	(0.015)
Education	-0.008	(0.066)	-0.122	(0.074)	0.305*	(0.145)
Constant	12.299***	(0.937)	11.730***	(1.173)	11.853***	(1.725)
Sigma	2.272***	(0.072)	2.206***	(0.080)	2.335***	(0.149)
Observations	1056		714		342	
Pseudo R^2	0.045		0.041		0.044	
F statistic	10.249		6.873		3.381	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table B.8: Tobit Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Personnel Red Tape on Work Motivation by State

	Georgia		Illinois	
Personnel red tape	-0.120	(0.072)	-0.067	(0.057)
Nonprofit	0.211	(0.381)	0.827**	(0.305)
Desire to serve public	0.522***	(0.138)	0.281*	(0.112)
Salary motivation	-0.247	(0.160)	0.016	(0.162)
Security concerns	-0.006	(0.130)	-0.133	(0.114)
Organizational environment	-0.071	(0.128)	-0.257*	(0.118)
Career advancement	0.235	(0.141)	0.327**	(0.115)
Practical concerns	-0.325**	(0.118)	-0.207	(0.106)
Promotion	0.557*	(0.259)	0.233	(0.231)
Civic engagement	0.197*	(0.078)	0.199**	(0.072)
Amount of supervision	-0.128	(0.088)	-0.155	(0.084)
Female	0.371	(0.218)	0.524*	(0.214)
Nonwhite	-0.080	(0.298)	-0.446	(0.309)
Age	0.037**	(0.013)	0.044***	(0.012)
Education	-0.043	(0.094)	0.009	(0.092)
Constant	12.732***	(1.294)	11.794***	(1.297)
Sigma	2.243***	(0.106)	2.269***	(0.097)
Observations	471		585	
Pseudo R^2	0.048		0.047	
F statistic	6.256		5.983	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table B.9: Tobit Model Estimating the Effect of Perceived Personnel Red Tape on Work Motivation by Primary Responsibility

	Managerial		Non-managerial[†]	
Personnel red tape	-0.082	(0.053)	-0.102	(0.089)
Nonprofit	0.522	(0.282)	0.810	(0.454)
Georgia	0.088	(0.206)	-0.112	(0.290)
Desire to serve public	0.251*	(0.102)	0.601***	(0.163)
Salary motivation	-0.136	(0.135)	-0.076	(0.200)
Security concerns	-0.049	(0.104)	-0.076	(0.155)
Organizational environment	-0.112	(0.106)	-0.349*	(0.146)
Career advancement	0.263*	(0.107)	0.235	(0.168)
Practical concerns	-0.227*	(0.093)	-0.390*	(0.153)
Promotion	0.273	(0.239)	0.388	(0.283)
Civic engagement	0.242***	(0.066)	0.082	(0.088)
Amount of supervision	0.024	(0.073)	-0.437***	(0.102)
Female	0.422*	(0.186)	0.615*	(0.271)
Nonwhite	-0.318	(0.259)	-0.195	(0.434)
Age	0.029*	(0.011)	0.050***	(0.014)
Education	0.085	(0.080)	-0.198	(0.117)
Constant	12.085***	(1.130)	13.689***	(1.768)
Sigma	2.293***	(0.088)	2.117***	(0.125)
Observations	744		285	
Pseudo R^2	0.035		0.074	
F statistic	5.795		5.702	
Prob > F	0.000		0.000	

Note: Robust standard errors in parentheses
[†]Includes managers with professional, technical, and other primary responsibilities
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$