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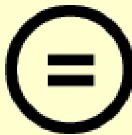
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Master's Thesis of Public Administration

**Motivational Bases of Mongolian
Public Servants:**

Between Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations

몽골 공무원의 동기에 관한 연구:

내재적, 외재적 동기를 중심으로

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Graduate School of Public Administration

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**Motivational Bases of Mongolian
Public Servants:
Between Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations**

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Table of Contents

1.	Introduction.....	1
1.1	Background.....	1
1.2	The Purpose of the Study and Research Question.....	3
1.3	The Significance of the Study.....	4
2.	Theories and the Hypotheses.....	6
2.1	Definitions of Motivation.....	6
2.2	Theories of Motivation.....	8
2.2.1	Need Theories	8
2.2.2	Cognitive Theories	10
2.1.1	PSM.....	11
2.3	The Hypotheses.....	12
2.3.1	Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations.....	12
2.3.2	Socialist and Capitalistic Values.....	15
2.3.3	PSM and Occupational Intention.....	17
2.3.4	Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intention and	21
2.3.5	Levels and PSM.....	23
3.	Contexts of Mongolian Development.....	25
3.1	Politics.....	25
3.2	Economy.....	26
3.3	Cultural Tradition.....	27
3.4	Brief Historical Background of the Administrative System of Mongolia.....	31
3.5	Public Service of Mongolia.....	33
4.	Methodology.....	37
4.1	Overview.....	37

4.2 Research Design.....	38
4.3 Participants.....	39
4.4 Instruments.....	41
4.5 Ethical Considerations.....	43
4.6 Limitations of the Study.....	43
5. Analysis and Discussion.....	45
5.1 Demography.....	45
5.2 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations.....	51
5.3 Socialist and Capitalist Values	55
5.4 PSM and Occupational Intention.....	57
5.5 Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intention and PSM.....	61
5.6 Levels, Motivations and PSM.....	65
5.7 Other Findings.....	67
6. Conclusion.....	69
Bibliography.....	75
Appendix A.....	94
Appendix B.....	101
국문초록.....	107
Acknowledgements.....	108

Abstract

Motivational Bases of Mongolian Public Servants:

Between Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations

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There is a general trend that exists to believe that public servants are motivated by a sense of service not common among private sector employees and that they are seen as motivated by a desire to serve the public interest and a concern for the community. However, major researches were conducted in the Western world, which differs from Mongolia in many dimensions. Because of these distinctions, it was questioned if motivating factors would be similar or not.

Five hypotheses were formulated based on some of the most repeated and accepted findings of work motivation literature. These hypotheses were tested on the data collected from the sample of 600 public employees in Mongolia.

Despite the differences between Mongolia and Western countries, the results of the present study were similar to those from Western literature. It has been found that Mongolian public employees are motivated more by intrinsic motivations and that PSM (Public Service Motivation) has positive effects which are consistent to Western literature of work

motivation in the public domain. Some suggestions on how to motivate public employees in Mongolia are presented in the conclusion.

Keywords: Extrinsic, intrinsic, Mongolia, motivation, PSM, public employees;

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1. Introduction

1.1 Background

Motivation is perhaps one of the most studied and discussed issues among public management scholars and practitioners, and still remains a hot issue. Why motivation is so essential? A short answer is “employee performance” which, in turn, affects organizational productivity. Finding proper tools to motivate employees is especially critical in a country where the public sector fails to efficiently deliver its services to its citizens. According to the study conducted in Mongolia among public servants and citizens toward their perception to the public sector effectiveness, a vast majority of the respondents were not satisfied and highly frustrated with the public sector service delivery (Danaasuren and Vandangombo, 2007).

As reward incentives are not typical among public sector employees of the general labor force (Crewson, 1997), motivating employees in the public service remains a challenging issue. Because of absenteeism of reward incentives, it is believed that public employees are motivated more by intrinsic type of motivations in contrast to extrinsic incentives (Frederickson and Hart, 1985; Perry and Porter, 1982; Perry and Wise, 1990).

Theories and approaches concerning work motivation are abundant in the Western literature. However, only limited research has explicitly studied motivation in cross-national settings. Most of them have focused on the US settings (Earley and Erez, 1997), and because “it is likely that people from different national cultures to be motivated by different factors” (Fey, 2005, p. 346), an empirical question arises whether it is possible to

study the motives of the public service in developing countries using developed countries' approaches in a meaningful way (Liu et al., 2008). Much of the motivation related theories (Maslow, 1943; Herzberg, 1968; McClelland, 1987) derived from the Western perspective, in countries which tremendously differ from Mongolia in a variety of factors such as the social-economic level of development, politics and national culture. Various scholars expressed their concerns (e.g. Kao and Sek-Hong, 1997) that theories of motivation, focusing on the goals and needs of individuals, are locked into Western ideology and even may be relevant only in mainstream America (Bond, 1988). Assumed to be universal, American motivational theories have failed to provide constantly useful explanations outside of the United States (Silverthorne, 2006).

For example, DeVoe and Iyengar (2004) examined cross-cultural differences in how managers perceive motivation among their subordinates. Examining samples from North America, Asia and Latin America, they found that North American managers think that their employees are motivated more by extrinsic incentives. The opposite was true in the case of Latin American managers: They saw their subordinates as more intrinsically rather than extrinsically motivated while Asian managers perceived their subordinates to be equally motivated by both types of motivation (Tsui, Nifadkar and Ou, 2007). These findings explicitly show how it is important to consider national characteristics in developing strategies to enhance employee performance through properly motivating them.

1.2 The Purpose of the Study and Research Question

Americans strongly emphasize individualism (Hofstede, 1980) which creates a potential conflict between the United States' way of thinking about organizations and the values predominant in some other cultures. This high level of individualism led motivational theories to be based on rational, individual thought. For example, the "Expectancy" or "Equity" theories are offered as the primary basis for human behavior (Silverthorne, 2006). Even though, Mongolia is not as collectivistic as China or Korea (both North and South), it is certainly a collective society where group interest and loyalty take precedence. Moreover, Mongolia is a developing country in transition with relatively young democracy, small population and is a former socialist country. The economy of Mongolia is still dependent on donors' aid, despite its high economic growth due to mining boom. Unemployment, poverty and corruption are the leading critical issues.

Looking at all these factors, Mongolia seems, in all aspects, dramatically differs from developed Western countries, where most researches were conducted. One may easily suspect that theories of work motivation will not simply fit into Mongolian environments. However, despite many differences it is not excluded that motivating factors of Mongolian public servants would be similar to their counterparts in Western countries. Thus, the thesis investigates whether or not and to what extent some of the most repeated and accepted findings of the Western (in particular North American) motivational literature in the public sector are applicable to the Mongolian context. For example Western literature of motivation in the public sector consistently demonstrates that public employees possess more value on intrinsic nonmonetary opportunities. So the main research question of this

study is whether Mongolian public employees are motivated more by intrinsic motivations as like their Western counterparts. As well, the thesis measures PSM level among Mongolian public employees and tests the degree how it effects on employee characteristics, i.e. job satisfaction, turnover intention.

Seeking an answer to this question a number of public organizations' employees representing national and local governments of Mongolia were surveyed, and then the data were analyzed, computed and interpreted.

1.3 The Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is that it provides information about values and preferences of Mongolian public employees, and may serve as a starting point on further studies aiming to find how to stimulate and motivate public employees in Mongolia. Secondly, as not many studies have been conducted in Mongolia so far, it contributes to the literature of work motivation within Mongolian context. Perhaps, the latest and most advanced study concerning motivation, which was conducted by the Academy of Management of Mongolia, studied motivation only as one sub topic along with public sector ethic and accountability issues, meaning not significant attention has been dedicated to the public employee motivation. Moreover, this study was conducted in 2006 and has become outdated, as since that time social-political, and particularly, economic conditions have changed significantly. Fernandez and his colleagues (1997) concluded that societal changes such as economic growth, education, and democracy may significantly affect work-related dimensions (Wu, 2006).

In 2012, Mongolia was recognized as the fastest economy in the world with 18 % of growth. Even though, public employee pay is still low, it has been raised meaningfully since 2006. The political power shifted to the Democratic Party first time since 1996. All these changes might have influenced public employees' values and preferences so far. Lastly, perhaps it is one of very few (if not the first) attempts to measure PSM level of Mongolian public employees and tests if PSM has all that positive affects as like the Western literature suggests.

2. Theories and the Hypotheses

2.1 Definitions of Motivation

The motivation means to move in Latin, thus in general motivation psychologists study what moves people to act and why people do what they do (Weiner, 1992). In the beginning of the 20th century, motivation was explained as an instinct. Later, Hull argued that the organism is moved to reduce needs. For example, food is the motivation for a hungry man. This theory is called the drive theory. Sigmund Freud also played a large role in the study of motivation. In his theories of human behavior Freud (1976) argued that most human behavior is driven by the results of unconscious repressed memories, impulses, and desires. More recently, scholars have tried to operationalize the concept of motivation in various ways. Campbell and Pritchard (1976) define motivation as a set of psychological processes that cause the initiation, direction, intensity, and persistence of behavior. McClelland (1988) argues that motivation refers to conscious intents or to such inner thoughts as: I wish I could...; I want to do that and this, and so on. On the other hand, motivation refers to inferences about conscious intents that people make from observing behaviors. While Mitchell (1982) defines motivation as psychological processes which cause the stimulation of, persistence and direction to the goal-oriented voluntary activities (Igbar and et.al, 2012, p, 693), Guay (2007) refers motivation to the reasons underlying behavior.

Because it is very hard to define, some scholars (e.g. Denhardt et al., 2008) try to capture the concept of motivation simply as a driving force that causes people to behave as they do.

However, this simple definition may hide the dynamic intricacies of the work motivation literature.

Work motivation is a crucial determinant of individual and organizational performance both in the private and public sector. Work motivation has been extensively studied in the private sector while the literature on motivation in the public sector has been often criticized to be theoretically and empirically less developed (Wright, 2010). Nevertheless, relatively small attention has been paid to work motivation within the context of the public sector, relevant research does exist (Wright, 2001).

There is a general trend exists to believe that public servants are motivated by a sense of service not common among private sector employees (Houston 2000; Perry and Wise, 1990) and that they are seen as motivated by a desire to serve the public interest and a concern for the community. Moreover, public employees are more likely to be characterized by an ethic that prioritizes intrinsic rewards over extrinsic rewards (Crewson, 1997). In turn, Baldwin (1984) and Blumenthal (1979) asserted that the motivational level of public employees is not something employees bring to the sector, but a reaction to the sector.

There might be a wide variety of reasons and motives to work in the public sector and the reasons influenced some body to seek public organization may differ widely from others' working in the same sector. Hence, we may speculate that individual's internal needs and motives play an important role in job choice and preference; working in public

organization may satisfy a variety of different needs of individuals (Brewer, Selden, and Facer, 2000; Perry and Wise, 1990).

2.2 Theories of Motivation

The majority of research related to work motivation in the public sector has been from the perspective of need-based or drive-based theories (Wright, 2001). However, no less so-called cognitive theories have been developed so far. While need theories are based on needs and motives that affect human's motives, cognitive theories concentrate on the psychological and behavioral processes behind motivation (Rainey, 2009). In this respect, some of the most controversial theories have been briefly reviewed. The first group includes three need theories and the second includes two cognitive theories. Lastly, the PSM (Public Service Motivation) theory which "solely deals with public employees' motivations" (Re'em, 2010, p. 20) is briefly discussed.

2.2.1 Need Theories of Motivation

One of the most famous and often cited theories of human motivation – the "Hierarchy of needs" was conceptualized by Abraham Maslow (1943) (Huitt, 2004). In his classical work "A theory of human motivation" Maslow argued that the main motivation would be the physiological needs (Maslow, 1943, p. 5) and that the higher order needs will be dominant only when lower order needs are satisfied. He distinguishes five levels of needs such as physiological (e.g. oxygen, food) and safety needs (e.g. desire for a secure environment) which are lower needs. Higher level needs include social needs (e.g. friendship), esteem

needs (recognition of achievement from others) and lastly self-actualization needs (personal growth, problem solving, life appreciation, and peak experiences for oneself) (Huitt, 2004). Thanks to its simplicity, Maslow's theory is highly attractive (Dunford, 1992). However, despite continues efforts, it was never been validated (Re'em, 2010).

Attempting to improve Maslow's needs hierarchy by allowing more flexibility of movement between needs Clayton Alderfer (1969) developed the ERG theory in his article "An Empirical Test of a New Theory of Human Need." This theory clusters Maslow's five levels of needs into three levels which are existence (both psychological and safety needs), relatedness (social relationships and external esteem) and growth (same as self-actualization) needs. Unlike Maslow's solid order of needs, Alderfer (1969) argued that these needs may be met simultaneously with no specific order (Alleydog, 1998), which is the main difference between two approaches. Another differentiating side of two theories is that Maslow's theory, as O'Connor and Yballe (2007) notice, interprets that satisfied needs are no longer a motivation while Alderfer's theory states that once satisfied the needs can become even more significant. Despite hard criticism, both Maslow's and Alderfer's theories are still valuable, because they provide specific ways to motivate employees (Greenberg and Baron, 2003).

Frederick Herzberg published the two-factor theory of work motivation which was highly controversial at that time, claims to be the most replicated study in this area providing the foundation for numerous other theories and frameworks in human resource development (Stello, 2011). According to his theory, people are influenced by two sets of factors, not five like Maslow's theory. First group, motivator factors, includes achievement,

recognition, work itself, responsibility and promotion growth. This group, as he asserts, promotes “satisfaction” and thus named “motivators factors”. The second group called “hygiene factors”, which only prevents job dissatisfaction, include company policy and administration, supervision—technical, salary, supervision—personal and finally working conditions. As well this theory was harshly criticized. For instance, Parsons and Broadbride (2006) have criticized Herzberg’s work that it largely ignored individual needs and values difference when attempting to explain work motivation.

Although, the two factor theory has been heavily attacked it had major effect over generations of managers and perhaps “Need theories” are the best-known explanation for employee motivation (Robbins and Judge, 2008).

2.2.2 Cognitive Theories of Motivation

In 1985, Deci and Ryan developed the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) in which they distinguish between different types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. Intrinsic motivations are those which induce individuals to act based on the value that they find within the action itself. On the other hand, extrinsic motivations are those which refer to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome. Thus, intrinsically motivated employees work for the inherent satisfaction of the labor (Cameron and Pierce, 2002; Ryan and Deci, 2000) while extrinsically motivated employees act to obtain some goal that is apart from the work itself (Amabile, 1993).

Deci (1972) found that offering intrinsically motivated individuals extrinsic rewards actually may decrease their level of intrinsic motivations because it becomes controlled by external rewards, which undermines their autonomy. On the other hand, giving people unexpected positive feedback on a task increase people's intrinsic motivation and decreased extrinsic motivation for the task. The positive feedback fulfills individuals' need for competence.

Adam's Equity theory suggests that employees' motivation is largely influenced on perception of fairness in the organization (Dunford, 1992). Adam asserts that employees constantly seek to maintain equity calculating the inputs and outcomes ratio they invest and receive against the perceived inputs and outcomes of their coworkers (Adams, 1965), and if ratios show similar results, employees will be motivated to work (Landy and Coote, 2010). However, if individuals perceive themselves as either under-rewarded or over-rewarded they will experience distress, and this leads to efforts to readjust input-to-output ratio (Guerrero et al., 2007).

2.2.3 PSM

Taking into consideration question why some individuals have high attraction toward the public sector, Perry and Wise (1990) coined term PSM; a concept used to explain the difference between public and private sector employees. They defined PSM as “an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations” (p. 368). Two authors suggest that this attraction why some people inclined for public employment can be organized into three categories such as

rational, normative and affective. From a rational basis, individuals can be attracted to a public organization because of self-interest and utility maximization while normative motives caused by ethical reasons, such as maintaining social equity. As Downs (1964) argued, desire to serve the public interest is one of the most commonly identified normative foundations for public employment. From an affective point of view, individuals can be attracted to the public sector because of emotional attachments, such as a conviction about the importance of a program or service (Bright, 2005). Others like Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) have defined PSM as the altruistic sense to serve the society. More recently, Perry and Hondehem (2008) identified PSM to be identical with motives associated with serving public good. Furthermore, Perry and Wise (1990) argue that PSM level is a good predictor of career choice. That is to say, the higher an individual's PSM the more an individual is inclined for employment in public organization.

2.3 The Hypotheses

2.3.1 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations

Wright (2001) has underlined that a growing number of researchers emphasize that employees' characteristics and their work environments in the public sector are very different in contrast to the private sector while Schneider (1987) has argued that this differences between employees in two sectors is a result of attraction-selection-attrition process. Even though, it is still not clear whether the two sector's differences have a significant impact on the variables relevant to organizational effectiveness in the public

sector (Baldwin and Farley,2001), literature on motivational differences between public- and private-sector employees abounds (Frank and Lewis, 2004).

Based on the experimental studies on animal behavior, White (1959) first acknowledged the phenomenon of intrinsic motivation. During his experiments, he discovered that a majority of organisms engage in exploratory, playful, and curiosity-driven behaviors even in the absence of reinforcement or reward. That is to say, intrinsic motivations are those which induce individuals to act based on the value that they find within the action itself, and not to attain any particular outcome. On the other hand, extrinsic motivations are those which refer to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome (Ryan and Deci, 2000).

This distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation has played a central role in the public sector focused motivational studies. Numerous studies revealed that government employees place greater importance on job security than do private sector counterparts do (Baldwin, 1991; Bellante and Link, 1981; Kilpatrick et al., 1964; Lewis and Frank, 2002; Warner, Van Riper, Martin and Collins, 1963). The opportunity to serve society and the public interest matter more to public than private employees (Crewson, 1997; Kilpatrick et al., 1964; Rainey, 1982, 1983; Schuster, 1974) while high pay matters less to public than to private employees (Crewson, 1997; Wittmer, 1991) (cited on Frank and Lewis, 2004, p. 37). Overall, public employees are motivated more by intrinsic and less by extrinsic incentives.

On the other hand, the major part of studies that focus on motivation in the public sector also focused on economically developed countries, and as such, studies that target motivation by focusing on a developmental context may also be irrelevant in understanding motivation in the Mongolian public service. For example, Willis-Shattuck and colleagues (2008), in their systematic review about motivation and retention of health workers in developing countries, concluded

“While motivational factors are undoubtedly country specific, financial incentives, career development and management issues are core factors.”(Willis-Shattuck and et. al., 2008, p.1)

From the above statement, it can be seen that employees in developing countries place a good deal of importance on financial rewards. This evidence is a powerful support for Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs that lower needs should be satisfied before higher needs may be pleased. On the other hand, western approach to the motivational basis suggests that public employees matter high pay far less than their private sector counterparts (Crewson, 1997; Wittmer, 1991). This distinction makes intuitive sense because even though public employees in economically developed countries get lower wages compared to private sector employees, their salary is still enough to satisfy basic human needs; they are able to provide for their families adequate living conditions. For example, in 2011 public employees in the United Kingdom were paid on average between 7.7% - 8.7% even more than private sector employees (The Guardian, 2012).

Conversely, having meager wages people in developing countries should value economic incentives far higher than those in developed economies, and to seek any potential

opportunity for an extra profit, because too low pay in the public sector cannot even satisfy so called lower order needs, as Maslow (1943) conceptualized. This practice may belong to one of the main reasons for high corruption rate in third world countries. Moreover, Smith and Cowley (2011) in their study found that intrinsically and pro-socially motivated people are less likely to seek membership in highly corrupted public organizations either because they would be less likely to share a corrupt organization's mission or alternatively, because working in the public sector would no longer provide a signal of their intrinsic motivation.

Mongolia is a developing country facing many of the same issues as any other developing country in terms of low income, high unemployment and poverty. This country remains one of the most corrupted nations ranking at 120th out of 182 countries on the Transparency international corruption perception index of 2011. Hence, the first hypothesis is formulated as:

H1: Mongolian public servants will be motivated more by extrinsic and less by intrinsic motivations.

2.3.2 Socialist and Capitalistic Values

After the decline of Mongol Empire, Mongolia was ruled by Qing dynasty for more than 200 years and that period significantly weakened individual's self-regulation and autonomy. Just after declaring its independence from Qing state, Mongolia became the second communist country after the Soviet Union. Since that time, the employer-employee relation was one of exploitation, cultivated by Marxist ideology. In this environment,

people tended to behave as passive observers avoiding creativity and responsibility. To this day, hierarchical or authoritarian relations dominated in many Mongolian organizations between the manager and the employee.

In their study of trust and work ethic in post-socialist Lithuania, Pucetait and Lamsa (2008) realistically depicted the true nature of socialist countries' work environment:

“The period of the socialist reign, in particular, accustomed the society to imitating performance of various standards. The set five-year plans were so detached from the reality that people got used to manipulating with performance indicators, creative report-writing to make an impression that progress had been made” (p. 329).

Similar picture has been common in socialist Mongolia. During the Soviet times, good performance was not rewarded while poor performance was punished, and wages were paid disregarding performance. It has discouraged employees to work harder and simply do no more what was required to do.

Another factor that diminished work motivation among Mongolian employees was due to socialist ideology that prioritized the collective interest subduing private interest. In this society people were expected to work in the interest of the majority of society, not for their own sake. In a country where people have been motivated perhaps only to do what was best for the country (Jackson and Bak, 1998, p. 283), we may expect that employees in socialist Mongolia were motivated more by intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivators.

The collapse of the Soviet Union had become the bedrock of the democratic revolution in Mongolia. Since 1990, Mongolia has experienced rapid socio-economic and political transition which brought to Mongolia a completely new style of socio-political and economic lives forming new social values and a way of thinking (Danaasuren and Vandangombo, 2007).

In an interview, former prime minister D. Byambasuren who led Mongolia during the transition period from a socialist country with planned economy to a market oriented democratic state, precisely depicted the values and beliefs of Mongolian people:

“From ancient times Mongolians believed in Tengherism, the life in harmony with nature. After the fall of Mongol Empire, the Buddhism was introduced into Mongolia with the purpose to reunite Mongolians, and it became the major belief. Since early 20th century, left oriented Mongolian People’s Revolutionary Party not only served as a legislation body, a government but also as a religion. But the 1990’s market oriented economic transition completely changed people’s attitude toward their beliefs and values; now people worship money”.

With expanding private ownership, materialistic values have emerged. So, in overall, in a market oriented society people are expected to be motivated more by extrinsic than intrinsic motivations. Hence, the second hypothesis assumes:

H2: Public employees hired during socialism (before 1989) to be motivated more by intrinsic incentives, whereas public servants hired after 1990 to be motivated more by extrinsic incentives.

2.3.3 PSM and Occupational Intention

As one wise man said, “We are what we choose”, those paths led us where we are standing now are results of a tremendous number of choices and decisions we made throughout our lives. Perhaps, one of the most influential decisions people make is the job choice. Why some individuals make particular job choice and what leads them to make that decision has long been the core issue of academic debate. Much of the debate, however, has concentrated on the difference between public and private organizations as well as on the difference between two sectors’ employees. Many practitioners view public and private sectors as competing options varying in terms of advantages they offer for potential job seekers. Publications concerning job choice generally claim that those who strive to work in public organizations should have significantly higher degree of altruistic motivation and undermine economic rewards which might be compensated by the sense of importance they invest for the best interest of a society. Moreover, proponents (e.g. Frederickson and Hart 1985; Perry and Porter 1982; Perry and Wise 1990) of public sector motivation assure that public servants much higher value intrinsic motivations in contrast to external motivations. Opponents, on the other hand (e.g. Borins 2002; Argyriades 2003), are inclined to undermine sectorial distinctions claiming that public and para-public employees are no more altruistic and no less self-interested than employees in the private sector (Lyons, Duxbury and Higgins, 2006), rather they are rational decision makers. Krumboltz(2009) in his “Happenstance theory” even suggests that environment, mentor, parent, hobby, interest and simply a “chance” play important role in career choice decision making.

Facing the question of how much motivation one has for a certain task, almost everyone involved in work and play with others concerned with motivation while practitioners of all types face the eternal task of fostering more versus less motivation in those around them (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Indeed, what drives some individual to act in a particular way while having a variety of different ways? Graham and Renwick (1972) found that people choose their work places that, as they feel, may satisfy their most important needs.

Brewer and Selden (1998) describe the public service motivation as “the motivational force that induces individuals to perform meaningful public service” (p. 417) while Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) depicted PSM as a general altruistic motivation to serve for the best interest of society. More recently, Vandenabeele, Scheepers, and Hondeghem (2006) describe PSM as “the belief, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest or organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that induce, through public interaction, motivation for targeted action” (p. 15). Revising all these definitions Houston (2006) emphasized a commitment to the public interest, service to others, and self-sacrifice underlie an understanding of PSM, even though the definitions of PSM itself vary slightly by author (Kim,2009).

Kjeldsen (2012) reviewing PSM literature (e.g. LeisinkandSteijn, 2008; Perry and Wise, 1990; Wright, 2001) concluded that the most commonly presented argument concerning PSM is that individuals with altruistic preferences and a high sense to serve for public interest are likely to seek a membership in public organizations as these organizations are expected to constitute an environment in which these predisposed values and needs are satisfied in the best possible way.

On the other hand, some studies found only mixed support for the effects of PSM on sector choice (Crewson, 1997; Lewis and Frank 2002; Tschirhart et al. 2008). An increasing number of studies found that PSM does not precisely increase an individual's attraction to with public employment (Wright and Christensen, 2010). Wright and Christensen (2010) in their study of occupational intention concluded:

“Regardless of sector, individuals with stronger PSM are more likely to accept jobs that emphasize service to others whether that be pro bono work (private sector), client interaction (public sector), or client representation (nonprofit sector)”(p.18).

These findings are like a two-edged sword. On one hand, it has been repeatedly argued that PSM has a positive relationship to the public sector employment. On the other hand, many scholars found that PSM has no direct impact on the attraction to the public sector.

Hence, two sub hypotheses formulated as

H3A: Mongolian public employees with high level of PSM would have been looking for the public sector employment far before they joined public organization in contrast to those employees with low level of PSM.

H3B: There will be no difference among public employees with high and low level of PSM in terms of pre-occupational intention.

2.3.4 Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intention and PSM

Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as the “pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience” (p. 1300). It has been long assumed that job satisfaction has a strong influence on organizational productivity; the benefits that employees receive from their organization affect the effort, skill, and creativity that employees dedicate for their employer (Wright, 2001). Knowing what employees want in contrast to what they receive from their jobs reveals the need deficiencies that instigate goal directed behavior (Jurkiewicz, Massey, and Brown, 1998). That is why job satisfaction is a crucial element in motivating employees regardless of a sector of employment.

In 1959, Frederick Herzberg published the two-factor theory of work motivation which was highly controversial at that time, claims to be the most replicated study in this area, and provided the foundation for numerous other theories and frameworks in human resource development (Stello, 2011). According to Herzberg’s theory, people are influenced by two sets of factors. First group, motivator factors, includes achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and promotion growth. The second group called hygiene factors include company policy and administration, supervision—technical, salary, supervision—personnel and finally working conditions.

While Newstrom (1976) found that compensation and working conditions had high motivation potential, Khojasteh (1993) suggested that interpersonal relations, recognition, achievement, and advancement to have higher motivating potential in contrast to compensation and working conditions.

Attempting to link job satisfaction to work motivation, Emmert and Taher (1992) found that satisfaction with social relations at work was related to an employee intrinsic work motivation. But satisfaction with pay and job security were not related. Barnard (1938) suggested that both motivations to join and retain in the organization and to work hard related to the level of job satisfaction.

What regards job satisfaction and productivity, Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) found no direct connection. However, Steel and Warner (1990) insist on the opposite, claiming that a strong correlation exists between job satisfaction and productivity.

Despite the contradicting each other findings, the main streamleads to a tendency to believe that individual performance and job satisfaction have a positive relation (Petty et al. 1984; Judge et al. 2001; Kim, 2005) while job satisfaction is considered as a mediator between PSM and individual performance (Vandenabeele, 2009). Furthermore, a vast majority of scholars and practitioners claim that employees with high levels of PSM are more likely to be more satisfied with their jobs and, as such, are less likely to leave an organization they work for (Bright, 2008; Naff and Crum, 1999; Scott and Pandey, 2005).

Andersen and Kjeldsen (2010) assumed that PSM has a stronger positive effect on job satisfaction only in the public sector, because it offers better opportunities for serving the public interest and therefore, state employees may be better able to donate efforts to the public rather than to a private residual claimant.

Consistent with the PSM literature the next sub divided hypothesis suggests that

H4A and H4B: Mongolian public servants with higher level of PSM will have higher job satisfaction and less intention to leave an organization compared to their counterparts with lower level of PSM.

2.3.5 Levels and PSM

Is there a different mix of values between individuals working for the best interest of the community and those who cherished by “egoistic career advancement” of the private sector? To answer this question, it is important to find out if there are significant relationships exist between public service motivation and the age, education level, gender, and minority status of public employees. Some researchers argue that minorities and women (Blank, 1985), older and highly educated (Perry, 1997), as well as those working at the highest levels within public organizations (Gabris and Simo, 1995) tend to have higher public service motivation. Moreover, they would be less attracted to monetary incentives (Perry and Wise, 1990) compared to their counterparts.

In general, scholars (e.g. Brewer et al, 2000; Crewson, 1997; Houston, 2000; Naffand Crum, 1998; Perry, 1996) assert that those working in the highest level are more likely infused with altruistic motives for public service work.

Bright (2005) argue that employees with higher PSM level are more likely to be found working at managerial levels and explains this from two different perspectives. Based on

Maslowian (1943) principles, he assumed that managers may have higher PSM level because their tangible needs are satisfied by their greater levels of salary. On the other hand, citing Schein (1968) and Van Maanen and Schein (1979), Bright (2005) asserts that managers have greater levels of PSM because of longer socialization into the public sector values and therefore the last hypothesis, led by these assumptions states that:

H5: Civil servants working at managerial levels will have higher PSM level in contrast to staff civil servants.

3. Contexts of Mongolian Developments

3.1 Politics

In 1924, Mongolia became the second communist country after the Soviet Union. During the period of the construction and foundation of socialism, under the combination of totalitarian and authoritarian rule, the country was ruled by the irrational, bureaucratic regime and command and recruit methods dominated in the country until 1990(Damba, 2006). At the time, people had relatively small degree of freedom for choosing their job. To be socially unproductive considered as a crime in the communist world. Work regarded as a duty, and it had to be work that accords with the requirements of the state. The individual was not able to freely choose work whatever his knowledge and experience would naturally qualify him for. Rather, he or she pushed to do the work deemed necessary by his government (Noah, 1986). The same practice used in the communist Mongolia during several decades up until 1990's. Everything was planned and controlled; so was the people's will. While people were attracted to different sectors by different reasons in capitalist countries, majority of people under communism were motivated to work harder by the belief of the universal socialism. Anecdotal evidence suggests that one of the leaders of "Democratic Revolution" and later assassinated (1998) politician, ZorigSanjaasuren, graduated from Moscow State University getting his degree in "scientific communism". As his younger sister, OyunSanjaasuren, current Minister of Nature, Environment and Green Development and twice-elected parliament member (2012) (Also former Minister of Foreign Affairs) remembered:

“He was brainwashed with all these communist ideas, and he was supposed to be coming back home to teach communism. And yet he actually came back with the idea that it was time to transform society" (www.speroforum.com, 2009).

In socialist countries, poor performance was punished, but good performance was not rewarded which, in turn, would have produced low achievement motivation, low aspiration, as well as diminished effort expenditure (Bures, 1992). In socialist society, any type of private property was prohibited, meaning that there were no private sector at all – all organizations ran under strong totalitarian regime. That is to say, a typical Mongolian public employee had no other choice but to become a public employee. Even though, Mongolia's democracy has over 20 years of history, there are still many people employed in public organizations who were born, grown up and were employed in socialist Mongolia. This makes public sectors' personnel far different from those in Western world (excluding Eastern Europe). That is why western approach to employee motivation might be inconsistent to the Mongolian context. However, there are as well middle age and younger employees share a big part of human resource pool of the public sector.

3.2 Economy

Mongolia is a developing country in transition which used to be a communist country for about seventeen years up until 1990. After the collapse of the Soviet Union, financial crisis fully enveloped Mongolia's economy. However, in the past decade, the economy of Mongolia has grown at a rapid rate. As such, opportunities in the private sector have greatly increased, as has the pay in private sector jobs. But the wages in the public sector

still remain very low (\$500 by 2012). Rainey (1982, 1997) concluded that public employees have a greater interest in altruistic or ideological goals and less interest in monetary rewards compared to their counterparts in the private sector. Perry and Wise (1990) argue that public employees with high PSM should less care financial rewards and high pay. Following Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943) those authors' suggestions, perhaps, would fit more in the Western developed countries environment where a pay in the public sector is at least able provide a decent life. For example, in 2011 public employees in the United Kingdom were paid on average between 7.7% and 8.7% even more than private sector employees (The Guardian, 2012). However, as above-mentioned, the public servants' pay in Mongolia is far low compared to, for example in the US, where most researches concerning work motivation conducted. Since the pay gap in Mongolia and the United States or the United Kingdom is huge, we may assume that public employees in Mongolia should give a good deal of importance on financial rewards, unlike in the United States, for instance.

3.3 Cultural tradition

While Hofstede (1994) defined culture as "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes one group or category of people from another" (p. 5), the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE, 2004) project sees culture as "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations". Obviously, common experiences and shared meaning are essential characteristics of a cultural group. Hence, most cross-cultural studies have focused on

shared cultural values as the main ingredient of differentiation among national groups (Tsui, Nifadkar and Ou, 2007).

Researchers studying difference of national and organizational culture often use Hofstede's framework. However, there are number of critiques (e.g. Lowe, 2001; Sondergaard, 2001; Tayeb, 2001; Yehand Lawrence, 1995) concerning the generalizability, since it's based only on the respondents from IBM that they cannot represent all people in a society. Moreover, the data gathered between 1960's to 1970's and cultures have now changed significantly. Nevertheless, it is the most frequently used framework.

Hofstede's model differs national cultures using four important dimensions: "Power distance (the extent to which power is distributed unequally), uncertainty avoidance (the extent to which society feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations), individualism (the extent to which an individual is primarily concerned with taking care of himself as opposed to the group), and masculinity (the members of a society are task oriented and feel they can influence their future as opposed to being deterministic and relationship-oriented)" (Fey, 2005, p. 347).

Hofstede did not include Mongolia in his original study made in 1980. However, the research team of the Academy of Management of Mongolia (2006) measured Mongolian cultural characteristics using Hofstede's cultural dimensions. These results are used in this study.

United States perceived as a very equal society focusing “on equal rights in all aspects of American society and government”(www.geert-hofstede.com) and thus belong a low power distance society (Wu, 2006). Organizational hierarchy is established for convenience; information is frequently shared between managers and employees and they freely consulted each other. In most situations, communication is informal and direct(www.geert-hofstede.com). In contrast, Mongolia is a mildly hierarchical society where people in high status are privileged having special treatment compared with ordinary citizens (O’Brien and Trotman, 1999). There is a big gap in Mongolian organizations between managers and subordinates while in the United States organizations tend to have a flat organizational structure (Wu, 2006).

It seems reasonable that the Americans focus on a more individualistic approach, (Silverstone, 2006) whereas Mongolians are expected to focus on the collective aspects of motivation. While “hiring and promotion decisions are based on merit or evidence of what one has done or can do” (www.geert-hofstede.com in America; Mongolians, in this respect, are strongly tied into nepotistic relations. The study findings of the Academy of Management of Mongolia (2006) supported this evidence: A vast major part of the respondents answered that having close connections at higher administrative body (36 %) and political party membership status (26.8 %) are related to successful career advancement.

High level of individualism translates into a loosely-knit society in which the expectation is that people look after themselves and their immediate families (www.geert-hofstede.com). On the other hand, Mongolia certainly will show many of the

characteristics of a collectivistic society. Mongolians are viewed by Western standards as collectivistic and experienced as individualistic by Asian standards. Historically Mongolians have nomadic style of living where keeping family members closely was the most effective way to survive in harsh nature.

Unlike Chinese and Koreans, Mongolians are not ready to sacrifice family and leisure priorities to work. This is maybe related with the small population which, in turn, leads to lesser competition. In this respect, Mongolia could be considered as a “feminine” society which values relationships, care for others. The United States, on the other hand, is a “masculine” society (Hofstede, 1984) where money, success, assertiveness and competition are predominant.

There are more written rules in high uncertainty avoidance societies, whereas in low uncertainty avoidance societies have fewer written rules and rituals (Wu, 2006). Certainly, Mongolia has a low preference for avoiding uncertainty. Low uncertainty avoidance societies maintain a more relaxed attitude in which practice counts more than principles and deviance from the norm is more easily tolerated (www.geert-hofstede.com). Mongolians think that more rules than are necessary are needless. The majority of the society is relaxed; work schedules seem to be tight, but in reality they are flexible. On the other hand, the United States is clearly high uncertainty avoidance country (Hofstede, 1984).

In summary, there is much dissimilarity observed looking at the above political, economic and cultural characteristics of Mongolians in contrast to those of the Americans'. At first glance, it seems that Western approach to motivation should not work in the Mongolian

context. However, we never know until we analyze the data gathered in Mongolia and compare these findings with well-known Western findings.

3.4 Brief Historical Background of the Administrative System of Mongolia

Mongolia is East and Central Asian landlocked country which borders with Russia to the north and China to the south, east and west. The country has an area of 1,565,560 square kilometers with the population of 2.8 million people (2010). Mongolia has a long lasting history which accounts thousands of years. Archeological evidence proves that the area what is now modern Mongolia has been inhabited for more than 500,000 years. The first state established on the land of Mongolia was the Xiongnu state, which is also known as Hun state. In 209 B. C. new shanyu (leader) Modun successfully unified Mongol tribes and created a vast kingdom covering most of Mongolia and some Central Asia (www.e-mongol.com). Based on two pillars, self-governance or tribal and central or royal system, which operated together, the administration system of Huns was very well-organized. It was as simple as the control of only one person. This system made possible to control a huge empire. Their lands were divided into regions and controlled by leaders. Also, Huns are the first introducers of passport which was called gerege (or paizi). It had an essential role in communication and diplomacy among tribes (Obrusanyszky, 2011).

In the 13th century, Genghis Khan established the Great Mongol Empire which is the biggest land empire ever known. It had a strict hierarchical structure. The great khan held

main power while the Great Khuralday (the Grand Assembly) served as the consultative organ consisting of generals and aristocracy, and the people were ruled by a single great law, the Yasa (Ikh Zasag). The expansion of the empire brought to the political stability in the region which allowed trade, technologies, commodities and ideologies to be disseminated and exchanged across Eurasia (Guzman, 1988).

During the 1368-1691, it was the time of the separation of unified Mongolia into western and eastern parts. The downfall of the Mongol empire caused to a serious struggle for power among Mongolian lords. The king lost his power and local governors showed active interest in self-governance which led to a rapid weakening of the state. Then Mongolia was ruled by Manchu (Qing) state for about 220 years. At the beginning of 20th century, the Qing state declined and was replaced by the Republic of China. Under Qing ruling, Mongolia was divided into Inner and Outer Mongolia which laid the ground for the separation of modern Mongolia and Inner Mongolian Autonomous Region of China.

In 1911, Mongolia declared its independence. However, in 1915 Russia and China forcefully granted to Mongolia an autonomous independence. In 1921, Mongolia restored its independence and formed a theocratic state. After three years, in 1924, it has been turned into a republic, adopting first Constitution and had become the only second communist country in the world, following the Soviet Union. In 1928, Mongolian politics took a sharp leftward turn: herds were forcibly collectivized, private property forbidden, and erasure of what had come before the red regime took its full turn. Mongolian People's Revolutionary party became a single political and social super power for the next

seventeen years. Up until the Democratic revolution of 1990, Mongolia served as a satellite state for the Soviet Union.

With the changes in world geopolitics, first free, multi-party elections for a bicameral parliament were held on July 29, 1990 (Amarsanaa, 2009). During that time, Mongolia experienced two significant changes – the end of economic and technical aid from socialist countries and the economic transition. The early and mid-1990s were marked by heavy economic recession, followed by the collapse in the banking system. The Constitution adopted in 1992 established a semi parliamentary system with a unicameral parliament in which the president has a symbolic role while a prime minister led government exercises executive power (Danaasuren and Vandangombo, 2007).

3.5 The Public Service of Mongolia

After seventy years under the communist regime, Mongolia chose the democratic way of development declaring human rights, freedom of speech and market oriented economy as fundamental principles of its development. Since the democratic revolution of 1990, Mongolia has experienced rapid socio-economic and political transition which brought to Mongolia a completely new style of sociopolitical and economic lives forming new social values and a way of thinking. In this environment, the public sector had to transform its appearance from its state-monopoly status over the public to the state-servant position to the public (Danaasuren and Vandangombo, 2007).

During this time, Mongolia's public administration and Civil Service has gone through three reform stages (Government Service Council of Mongolia 2008, hereafter GSC).

First stage: To create a new system for the state structure in Mongolia (1990-1993). During this stage, the new Constitution was adopted, and the party centered political system was dismantled and transferred to the state centered system.

Second stage: To create Mongolia's new public administration and civil service system (1993-2000). Within the framework of this stage, the Law on Government Service was approved which created a favorable legal environment for civil service reform.

Third stage: To strengthen the governance institutional capacity and its operational efficiency and effectiveness. (2000-present). This stage is aimed at institutional and staff capacity building to improve the quality of the performances (Danaasuren and Vandangombo, 2007).

The population of Mongolia is 2.8 million of which 1863.4 thousand people comprise working age population. The public sector comprises about 7.2% of the total population. However, if employees in the state owned enterprises are included the number will increase to 8.5%. It represents 19.2% of the total number of employees excluding and 22% including state owned enterprises' employees (GSC, 2011). Women compromise 59% of public servants and 47% of management and other administrative positions (GSC, 2008). They make up 11 of the 76 parliament members after the 2012 general election, and three are women among 19 ministers, which is a historic high.

Starting from 1996, to improve human capacity, the GSC has organized a qualification exam on public servants' skills throughout Mongolia. Since then 72,435 people sat the exam and 35,853 people who passed the exam are registered in the reserve list from which 15,369 people were employed. (GSC, 2011) However, this is not the first attempt to select the top talents. In the 13th century, when Mongolian Emperor Kublai khan ruled Yuan dynasty in China, the government was run by Chinese officials selected under the civil service examination which is better known as the "Imperial examination".

In summer 2012, Mongolia held general election after which political power shifted from ruling Mongolian People's Party (former Mongolian People's Revolutionary Party) to the opposing Democratic Party in the national level ever since 1996 and first time at the local level. 2012 election marked as innovative in terms of introducing automated vote calculating system which played a significant role in upgrading the rating for Mongolian political rights from 2 to 1 on a seven-point scale evaluated by the "Freedom house". Countries judged as same as Mongolia (1 on political rights and 2 on civil rights) include, for instance: Israel, Japan, Panama, South Korea and Taiwan (Freedom house, 2012).

Achieving a parliamentary majority, both Democratic Party (in 1996) and Mongolian People's Party (in 2000) attempted to assert their influence at all level of central and provincial governments (Mongolia Today, 2013). However, the newly established Government (2012) action plan for the next four years aims, in terms of civil service, to change the State service into the public service (the public service is called as the "State service" in Mongolia), to reduce number of licenses and permissions generally required

and simplify procedures, to combat corruption and red tape, and to introduce the e-government system. (Mongolian Government action plan 2012-2016)

A study conducted by the Academy of Management research team (2006) of Mongolia revealed that the public servant respondents (22.4%) assumed that the public admire the public servants' work while the remaining public servants thought their work either became a burden on the public (25.8%) or that the public were not satisfied with their work (46.6%). Furthermore, approximately one third of respondents think that the public see them as nepotists (4.5%), bureaucrats (10.8%), corrupted (4.9%) and selfish people (6.7%), and social climbers (9.7%). It is obvious that the general population is far from well thinking about public employees.

4. Methodology

4.1 Overview

This chapter provides information about the methodology and instruments used in the thesis along with the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The survey method has been chosen in order to determine what group of Mongolian public employees are motivated by which type of incentives, their level of job satisfaction level and other work related attitudes. The questionnaire has been designed using Likert categorical scale. Exactly 600 hard copies of questionnaire have been distributed in 12 public organizations which include five ministries and two central agencies which represent central governmental organizations while two local agencies along with three local governments represent local governmental organizations of Mongolia. 410 copies of questionnaires were received showing 68.3% of response rate. Moreover, 42 copies of electronic questionnaires were received. Then the data gathered from this research survey were computed for interpretation. Using both electronic and hard copy questionnaire aimed to increase response rate. However, electronic survey showed very low response rate and due to unknown reasons major part of these responses had many empty answers. That is why online survey responses were ignored.

Due to a limited time and resources, convenience sampling method has been chosen. Nevertheless, to widely diversify the sample it has been tried to survey employees from a variety of public organizations. Central organizations include the Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Road and Transportation, Ministry of Social Security, Ministry of Urban

Construction, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Administration of Land Affairs, Construction, Geodesy and Cartography and finally General Agency for Specialized Inspection. Local organizations represented by Ulaanbaatar City government, Bayanzurkh District government, Air Quality Agency of Ulaanbaatar city, Agency of Education of Ulaanbaatar City along with Bayanzurkh District court. The questionnaires have been distributed through personal and professional connections and were collected back as well through them.

4.2 Research Design

As the main research question of this thesis is to find out what types of motivations are more attractive for Mongolian public employees, an independent-samplest-test used to determine whether the means of two groups are statistically different from each other. Also, the thesis is aimed at finding what groups of employees favor what types of motivation, are more satisfied and have less intention to leave. In this respect the t-test is chosen as a more suitable tool.

As well descriptive method is employed to describe demographics of the respondents. Creswell (1994) described descriptive research method as the way to gather information about present existing condition. This method is suitable in describing phenomena, situation or condition as it is at the time of the study. As well, this type of research does not require much financial resources and could be done in relatively short time.

Both qualitative and quantitative data were used. Due to lack of updated data concerning public servants' motivational preferences, survey have been conducted in order to obtain first hand data and further to formulate the conclusion. The aim of this study is to understand what motivates public servants in Mongolia and to test some proposed hypotheses. During two weeks, 600 public servants in Mongolia have been distributed with questionnaires and 410 questionnaires were received out of which 330 used after ignoring some invalid questionnaires. These 330 employees then were divided into groups based on their demographic characteristics and tested to reveal statistically significant differences.

4.3 Research Participants

In total 600 employees from 12 different public organizations including the Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Road and Transportation, Ministry of Population Development and Social Welfare, Ministry of Construction and Urban Development, Ministry of Industry and Agriculture, Land Construction Agency and finally the State Professional Inspection Agency which are central governmental organizations and local organizations represented by Ulaanbaatar City government, Bayanzurkh District government, Air Quality Agency of Ulaanbaatar city, Agency of Education of Ulaanbaatar city along with Bayanzurkh District court participated in this study.

There are four general (policy making) ministries and 12 directional (implementing) in Mongolia out of 16 in total. In this study employees from one general (Ministry of Finance) and four directional (Ministry of Road and Transportation, Ministry of Population Development and Social Welfare, Ministry of Construction and Urban Development,

Ministry of Industry and Agriculture) were studied, which means one third of all ministries represented in the study.

Also, employees of four agencies out of 28 agencies were involved from which two have regulatory status (Administration of Land Affairs, Construction, Geodesy and Cartography; General Agency for Specialized Inspection) while other two exercise implementing role (Air Quality Agency of Ulaanbaatar city, Agency of Education of Ulaanbaatar).

Two local governments' (Ulaanbaatar city government, Bayanzurkh district government) employees surveyed along with Bayanzurkh district's main court employees.

Because the distribution of the questionnaire made mostly through personal connections and governmental organizations are highly secured, the convenience sampling method was employed. Perhaps it was the most efficient, as well the less time and resource consuming way to survey public employees.

To maintain the quality of the survey research, possible measures have been taken to involve as many public employees as possible. In doing so all workers of above mentioned organizations received a copy of questionnaire. Both electronic and hard copy of the questionnaire has been distributed.

In order to avoid duplication, an explanation of no need to fill out the questionnaire again if a respondent already completed either of two copies, was written on the cover letter. The process of providing questionnaires and collecting them lasted during 2 weeks between January, 20th of 2013 and February 4th, 2013.

4.4 Instruments

The survey method was chosen as the main data gathering instrument for his study. In total, 47 questions were asked in the questionnaire and they were placed into five sections: general information, work, skills and career, organization and finally pay and rewards. General information section asks respondents socio-demographic related questions such as age, gender, education level, the year they started working in the public sector, position and etc. Next four sections contain questions concerning respondents' work attitude, job satisfaction, and financial preference. This section is designed to reveal type and level of the motivations mostly valued by public servants in Mongolia. Likert five point scale used in formulating the questionnaire. The answers represent the extent of agreement a respondent has on each question.

The survey questions were mainly chosen from earlier conducted surveys concerning work related attitudes and have been translated into Mongolian language. Griffiee (2001) stated that we cannot assume that the translated items are valid simply because they were translated. Meaning and intention are part of what makes a questionnaire valid (Griffiee, 2001). In this extend, a small pilot study has been made involving three young Mongolian social researchers. The translated questionnaire has been sent to them and asked to check the translation validity. Some rational comments have been received and taken into consideration. As questions mostly were taken from North American surveys, comments generally concerned the possibility of misperceiving of the meaning and intention of some questions as a result of cultural differences. Each question's translation has been reviewed

with two researchers through “Skype” software. Suggestions were welcomed and corrections were made.

Moreover, concerns touched the length of the questionnaire; initially, it had 56 questions written on 12 pages draft questionnaire. After the discussion, it is been agreed to shorten the questionnaire. For this reason 14 questions that were less important, as we concluded, were excluded and the design of survey was restructured as to shorten number of pages. The questions that have the same Likert scale answers have been put together into same tables which significantly shortened the survey – from 12 pages to five pages. All these measures have been taken in order to induce participants to respond, and most importantly to not let respondents get exhausted and to induce them to answer questions honestly.

Table III.1. Five-point Likert Scale

Scale	Range	Interpretation
5	4.01 – 5.00	Strongly Agree
4	3.01 – 4.00	Agree
3	2.01 – 3.00	Neither agree nor disagree
2	1.01 – 2.00	Disagree
1	0.01 – 1.00	Strongly Disagree

4.5 Ethical Considerations

In order to ensure the privacy and the security of the respondents certain ethical issues were addressed. For the purpose of preventing problems that could have arisen during the study duration, the ethical issues were identified in advance. Among these ethical issues consent, confidentiality as well as data protection were paid significant attention.

The cover letter was enclosed with the questionnaire explaining the aim of the study and importance of their participation. It also explained that the participation is voluntary and there is no penalty if they do not participate. This was done in order to insure that the participants understood they were not forced. To ensure the confidentiality, the participants were also asked to not write their names and personal information. This was done in hope to induce participation.

4.6 Limitations of the Study

One of the primary limitations is that the study involved only public employees working in national and local governments that are in the capital city – Ulaanbaatar. The online questionnaire links were sent to the 18 local provincial governments out of total 21 using email; however, no responses were received. Further research should gather nationwide data, as employees working in rural areas might have significantly different work related values and preferences compared to the respondents from this study. The only fact that educational level of our respondents was far higher than national average supports our caveats.

There is general trend to believe that sectorial distinction plays significant role of variations of motivations. The second limitation of the study is that it does not compare the motivations of the public employees with their private sector counterparts. Hence, it was not possible to find whether Mongolian public employees in contrast to private sector employees more or less motivated either by intrinsic or extrinsic motivations.

Moreover, the present study used cross-sectional, self-reported data. Longitudinal studies are needed to yield more accurate results. The exclusive use of self-reported data may have created the potential for common-method bias. Finally, the measurement of the study variables, particularly job satisfaction and turnover intention, is constrained by the single-item measurement scales, which could be more rigorous.

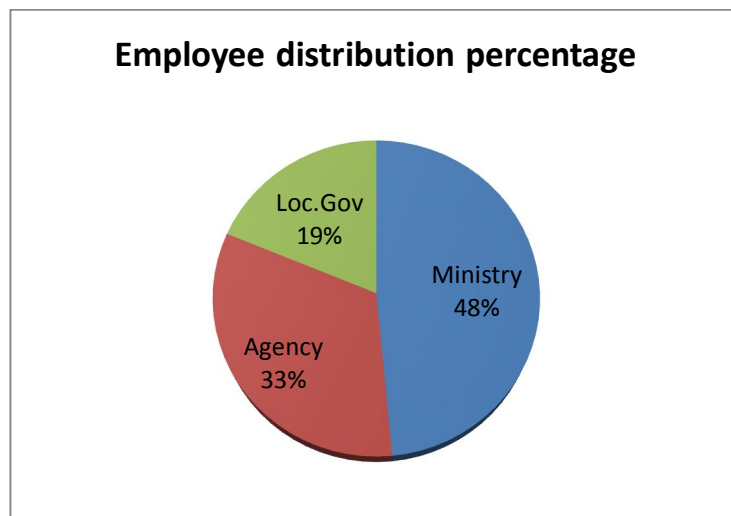
5. Analysis and Discussion

This chapter describes the sample's demographics, analyses types of incentives by which employees are motivated and tests five proposed hypotheses. Discussion is followed after each hypothesis testing.

5.1 Demography

In this study, 600 Mongolian public servants from 12 different public organizations have been requested to participate, 420 questionnaires were received and 330 useful questionnaires were analyzed. Participants were responded toward their perception of motivation, job satisfaction and other work related issues.

Figure V.1 Respondent's employed organizations



48 percent of the respondents were employed in five ministries, 33 percent were employed in four agencies while 19 percent worked for three different local governments.

There are in total 16 ministries in Mongolia; five ministries' employees participated in this study. These are the Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Road and Transportation, Ministry of Social Security, Ministry of Urban Construction and Ministry of Food and Agriculture. As mentioned in the methodology section, one of three directional ministries (Ministry of Finance) and four of 12 implementing ministries' employees were responded. Overall, one third of all ministries represent in this study.

Four agencies out of 28 in total were involved from which two have regulatory status (Administration of Land Affairs, Construction, Geodesy and Cartography; General Agency for Specialized Inspection) while other two exercise implementing role (Air Quality Agency of Ulaanbaatar city, Agency of Education of Ulaanbaatar). And two local governments' (Ulaanbaatar city government, Bayanzurkh district government) employees surveyed along with Bayanzurkh district's main court employees.

According to the data from the Government Service Council of Mongolia (2011) women comprise 59% while men comprise 41% of public employees. So was the gender distribution of this study – 59.1 % of the respondents were female and 40 % were male, demonstrating even distribution of gender representation.

Over 90 percent of respondents hold bachelor's and above level degree indicating on high education level of Mongolian public servants. Only 1.5 % has a secondary or high school

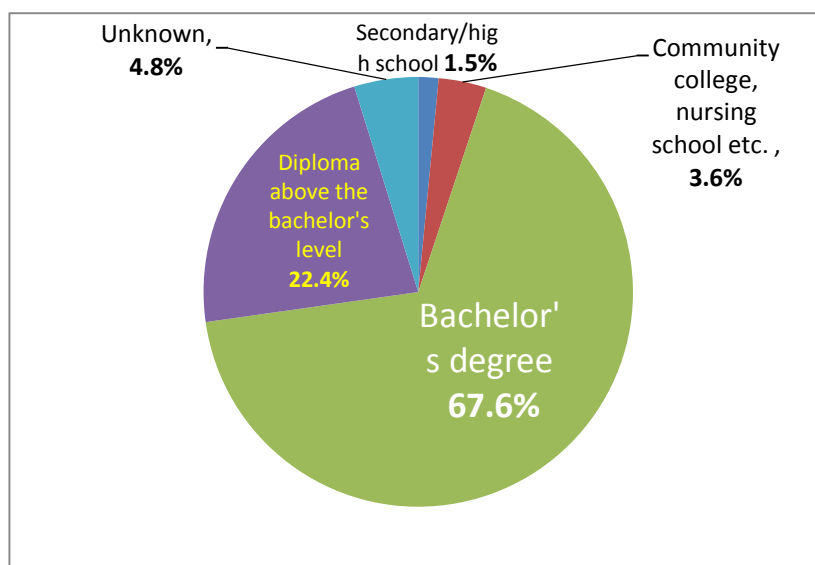
certificate while 3.6 % have a community, technical college or equivalent diploma. 4.8 % of the respondents did not indicate their education level.

According to the 2010 census in Mongolia, around 20 % of general population holds bachelors or above level degree, 9.2 % have a community, technical or equivalent diploma while 35% graduated from a high school. Those having only secondary school certificate make up 20 %.

Unfortunately, because of absence of information about private sector employees, it was not possible to see if public employees have higher or lower education level in contrast to their private sector counterparts.

While mean age of the respondents is placed in the 40-44 age group, over 70 % of all respondents found in this age category. Employees up to 34 years old alone comprise entire half (52.1 %) of total number of respondents.

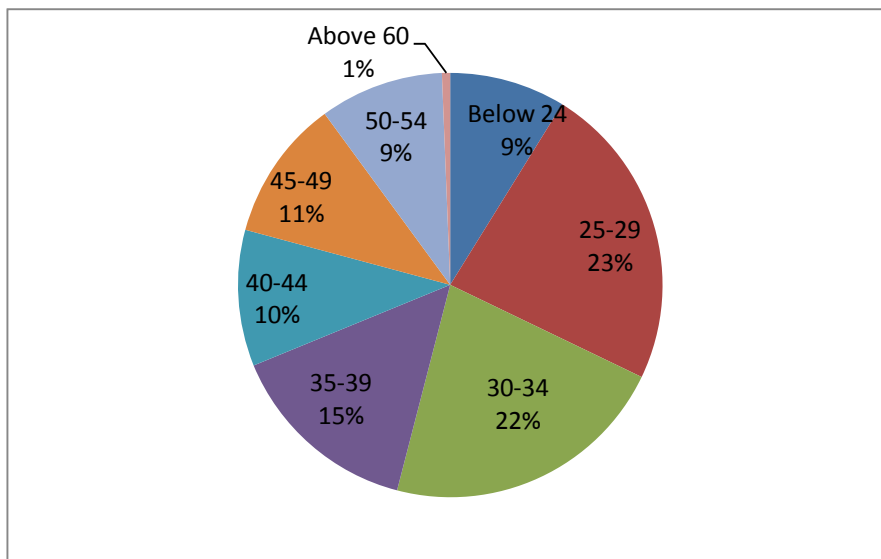
Figure V.2 Respondents' education level



10 % of employees hold executive positions, 84.8 % were staff and other 5.2 % did not indicate their position level. Executives in the public sector comprise of heads, directors and vice directors of organizations and departments. As well secretaries of state and advisors to ministers fall in this category of employees. The rest employees are staff.

According to the Government Administrative Service Law of 1994, Mongolia's civil servants classified as political, administrative, special, and support civil servants.

Figure V.3 Respondents' age distribution



Political civil servants are usually top decision makers and they are either appointees or elected officials. 4.5 % of the respondents of this study hold political positions.

Administrative positions have five ranks and each rank is further divided into smaller ranks. In this study, 51.8 % of respondents reported that their position fall in this category.

9.4% of civil servants participated in the survey are special civil servants. This category of employees may consist of, for example, judges, state prosecutors, police administrators, officers in the Ministry of Defense and National Tax administration employees.

Support or service civil servants comprise 29.7 % of respondents. Personnel of this category likely to be grassroots or technicians working in the government. Also, some of the civil servants working in mass media and information agencies, education, health and science, as well as employees of state-owned enterprises fall in this category. The rest 4.5 % did not indicate their position classification. 7.1% of all respondents were male working at managerial level while only 3.2% of female respondents hold managerial positions.

Table V.1 Demographic characteristics

Gender	Percentage
<i>Male</i>	<i>40</i>
<i>Female</i>	<i>59.1</i>
<i>Unknown</i>	<i>0.9</i>
Age	
<i>Below 24</i>	<i>8.5</i>
<i>25-29</i>	<i>22.4</i>
<i>30-34</i>	<i>21.1</i>
<i>35-39</i>	<i>14.2</i>
<i>40-44</i>	<i>10</i>
<i>45-49</i>	<i>10.3</i>
<i>50-54</i>	<i>9.1</i>
<i>Above 60</i>	<i>0.6</i>
<i>Unknown</i>	<i>0.3</i>
Education level	
<i>Secondary/High school graduate</i>	<i>1.5</i>
<i>Diploma or certificate of community college, nursing school etc.</i>	<i>3.6</i>
<i>Bachelor's degree</i>	<i>67.6</i>
<i>Degree above bachelor's level</i>	<i>22.4</i>
<i>Unknown</i>	<i>4.8</i>
Classification	
<i>Political</i>	<i>4.5</i>
<i>Administrative</i>	<i>51.8</i>
<i>Special</i>	<i>9.4</i>
<i>Support</i>	<i>29.7</i>
<i>Unknown</i>	<i>4.5</i>
Position	
<i>Executive</i>	<i>10.0</i>
<i>Staff</i>	<i>84.8</i>

Unknown

5.2

Position by gender

<i>Male executive</i>	<i>7.1</i>
<i>Male staff</i>	<i>33.5</i>
<i>Female executive</i>	<i>3.2</i>
<i>Female staff</i>	<i>56.1</i>

7.1% of all respondents were male working at managerial level while only 3.2% of female respondents hold managerial positions. In order to insure gender equality at the highest political level, the parliament of Mongolia passed a new election law in 2011 which specified that a minimum of 20 percent of the candidates nominated and approved must be women. As a result the number of female parliamentarians tripled the number of women elected just four years ago (Asian foundation, 2012). Nevertheless, women make up only 14 % percent of parliament members, which is still below world average of 18.5 %. However, this is a big step forward as the significant change will not happen overnight, especially in much complicated pattern as like gender issues.

5.2 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations

The main research question of this thesis is to find out what types of incentives motivate Mongolia's civil servants the most. Seeking an answer for this question, respondents were asked "How important are each of the following in motivating you to do a good job?" and were given 8 variants. Among these 8 answers, "wage size", "recognition" and "promotion chance" are considered to be extrinsic types of motivation while others belong to intrinsic

motivations. However, what are intrinsic and extrinsic motivations mean? As Ryan and Deci (2000) argue, intrinsic motivations are those which induce individuals to act based on the value that they find within the action itself, and not to attain any particular outcome, whereas extrinsic motivations are those which refer to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome. Thus, intrinsically motivated employees work for the inherent satisfaction of the labor (Cameron and Pierce, 2002; Ryan and Deci, 2000) while extrinsically motivated employees act to obtain some goal that is apart from the work itself (Amabile, 1993).

Considering the following facts and findings led us to assume that Mongolian public employees will be motivated more by extrinsic in contrast to intrinsic motivations:

1. Following Maslowian (1943) needs hierarchy, it has been suspected that employees' lower materialistic needs are still not met because of very low wage in the Mongolian public sector;
2. Willis-Shattuck and colleagues' (2008) argued that employees in developing countries place a good deal of importance on financial rewards;
3. and Smith and Cowley's (2011) argument that more extrinsically motivated people tend to work in highly corrupted countries' public sectors;
4. As well supporting argument was an interesting enough finding from the study conducted by Research team of the Academy of Management in Mongolia (2006) that 46% of respondents answered that one of the main reasons to work in the public sector was to "increase their income and improve living conditions".

Table V.2 Factors that motivate employees to do a good job

Intrinsic motivators	(Cronbach's alpha=.70)	Mean (1 to 5)
<i>My duty as a public employee</i>		4.56
<i>Personal pride of satisfaction in my work</i>		4.51
<i>Desire to make a contribution</i>		4.43
<i>Desire to help my work unit meets its goal</i>		4.35
Extrinsic motivators	(Cronbach's alpha=.67)	
<i>Recognition</i>		3.85
<i>Increased chance for promotion</i>		3.83
<i>Non-cash recognition</i>		3.38

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare intrinsic and extrinsic motivations in order to understand which type of motivation is favored more by public employees in Mongolia. Statistically significant differences identified in the score for intrinsic (M=4.4; SD=0.47) and extrinsic (M=4.0; SD=0.65) motivations; $t(8) = 9.2$, $p < .001$. These results suggest that Mongolian public employees are likely to be motivated more by intrinsic and less by extrinsic motivations.

Statements such as: “personal pride or satisfaction in my work,” “desire to make a contribution”, “my duty as a public employee” and “desire to help my work unit meet its goals” to be clearly intrinsic motivators while “monetary reward” and “increased chances

for promotion,” “recognition” along with “non-cash recognition” to be extrinsic (Kim, 2012; Kim and Rubianty, 2011; Oh and Lewis, 2009).

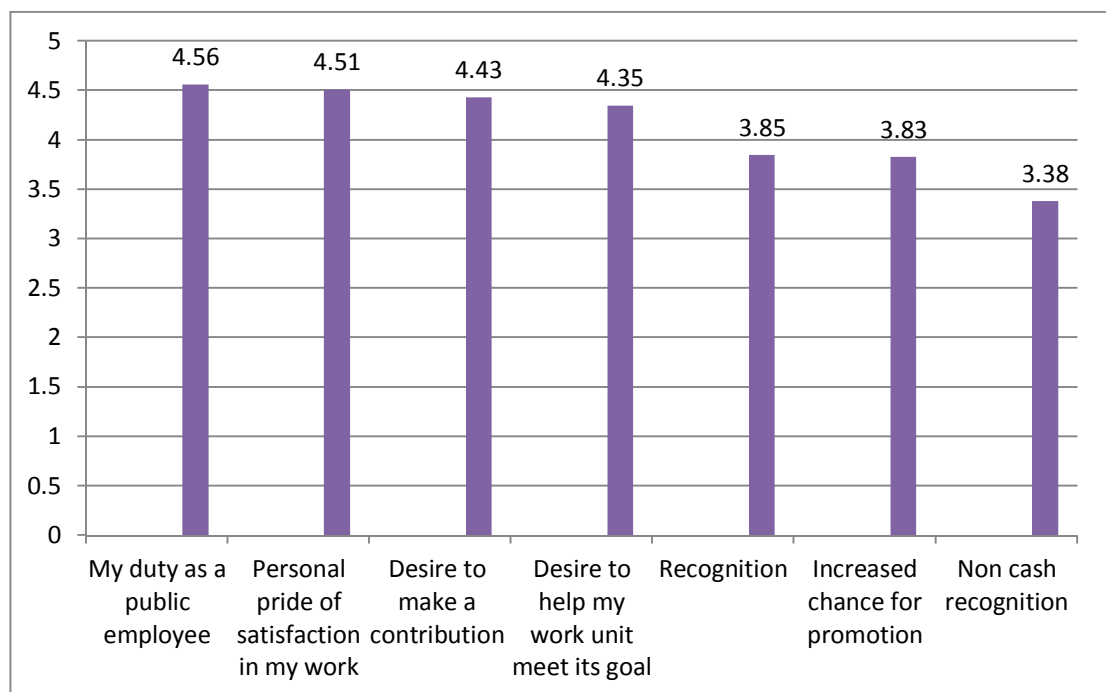
If we list these 8 types of motivators by order from a survey conducted in Mongolia from the highest to the lowest, we can see that “public employee duty”, “personal pride of satisfaction”, “desire to make a contribution” and “desire to help my work unit meet its goals” (Cronbach’s $\alpha=.70$) scored top points while “wage size”, “recognition”, “promotion chance” and “non-cash recognition” were less important in motivating respondents (Cronbach’s $\alpha=.67$). However, after running a factor analysis, it’s been found that wage size (rotated component matrix = .402) does not really fit neither group of motivation. Initially, “wage size” intended to be interpreted as a “monetary reward” (from English into Mongolian). But because of absence of financial reward system in the public sector of Mongolia it has been changed into “wage size”. However, because this study responded employees in the post-employment period, we realized that the “wage size” could not become a motivator as their salary is already fixed. No matter how much or less their work their salary will remain stable. The “wage size”, as a motivator, could work in a survey that aims to study factors which influence job choice decision making. However, our study responded in a post-employment environment. This might have caused a bias perception and, hence, the “wage size” was dropped out from the analysis.

Because, the results from this analysis show that civil servant respondents are more likely to favor intrinsic motives in contrast to extrinsic ones, hypothesis one which assumed that:

H1: Mongolian public servants will be motivated more by extrinsic motivations and less by intrinsic motivations

could be rejected. Looking at the first four motivators scored the highest, it can be argued that majority of public servants highly realize their public servant's duty, they feel proud to be a member of their organizations and strongly desire to help others. Hence, public employees in Mongolia are more highly motivated by emotional outcomes in contrast to the more materialistic cash or nonmonetary rewards.

Figure V.4 Motivators by order



5.3 Socialist and Capitalist Values

Fernandez and his colleagues (1997) concluded that societal changes such as economic growth, education, and democracy could affect work-related cultural dimensions, in their study of Hofstede's work-related cultural dimensions in 9 countries (Wu, 2006). Almost for 70 years Mongolia was a communist, one party state until 1990, when communist regime was crowded out by people's movement for democratic changes. This entire time, people were manipulated with the cattle prods of collectivist morals. Private ownership and business were prohibited. People in Mongolia used to dedicate themselves for the well-being of entire society. However, 20 years ago peaceful demonstrations led ruling Communist Party to step toward democratic elections. Once prohibited things like freedom and money, now represent person's main values of the life. Once were the most valuable things, now become worthless (Danaasuren and Vandangombo, 2007) Taking into consideration these facts, it was assumed that with social ideologies cultivated deep in their mind, people hired during socialist times and working in the public organizations nowadays should be more intrinsically motivated in contrast to employees hired after the breakdown of communist regime, in a country that has a market oriented economy. There was a fairly good distribution of observations from 1973 until 2013. To test hypothesis 3 which states that

H2: Public employees hired during socialism (before 1989) to be motivated more by intrinsic motivations, whereas public servants hired after 1990 to be motivated more by extrinsic motivations",

the sample has been divided into two groups:

1. Employees hired before 1989
2. Employees hired after 1990

and have been compared in terms of motivational preferences each group gave relatively more value.

No statistically significant differences, however, were observed. The first explanation to this evidence might be that, in length of time, employees hired in socialist country may have adapted to the environments of a “capitalistic” market economy and new social values and as such, the two groups of employees hired in different times may showed no statistically significant difference. Indeed, it is been more than 20 years since Mongolia shifted from a communist regime to a democratic society. The second and perhaps is a key explanation might be hidden in the fact that employees hired before 1989 were highly under sampled – there were only 27 people out of 330 respondents.

No direct support was found for this hypothesis and more research should be conducted involving more equal number of representatives from these two completely different periods of time to more deliberately test this assumption.

5.4 PSM and Occupational Intention

Brewer and Selden (1998) describe the public service motivation as “the motivational force that induces individuals to perform meaningful public service” (p. 417) while Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) depicted PSM as a general altruistic motivation to serve for the best interest of society. More recently, Vandenabeele, Scheepers, and Hondeghem (2006)

describe PSM as “the belief, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest or organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that induce, through public interaction, motivation for targeted action” (p. 15). Revising all these definitions Houston (2006) emphasized a commitment to the public interest, service to others, and self-sacrifice underlie an understanding of PSM, even though the definitions of PSM itself vary slightly by author (Kim 2009).

Kjeldsen (2010) reviewing PSM literature (Leisink and Steijn, 2008; Perry and Wise, 1990; Wright, 2001) concluded that the most commonly presented argument concerning PSM is that: Individuals with altruistic preferences and a high sense to serve for public interest are likely to seek a membership in public organizations as these organizations are expected to constitute an environment in which these predisposed values and needs are satisfied in the best possible way. However, a meaningful number of studies found only mixed (Crewson’s 1997; Lewis and Frank 2002; Tschirhart et al. 2008; Wright and Christensen 2010), or even no direct relationship (Wright and Christensen 2010) between PSM and occupational intention.

Hence, two sub divided hypotheses have been formulated as:

H3A: Mongolian public employees with high level of PSM would have been looking for the public sector employment far before they joined public organization in contrast to those employees with low level of PSM.

H3B: There will be no difference among public employees with high and low level of PSM in terms of pre-occupational intention.

In order to test these assumptions, respondents were asked whether they considered working in the public sector before they actually took civil service examination. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare occupational intention of public employees before an employment between employees with high PSM and low PSM level.

PSM is measured using five items from Perry's (1996, 1997) original research which also have been used in the 1996 Merit Principles Survey and several scholarly works including Kim (2006), Alonso and Lewis (2001) and Naff and Crum (1999) (Stazyk, 2007). The measurement includes the following items:

Table V. 3 Survey items to measure PSM level (Cronbach's alpha = .70)

	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Meaningful public service is very important to me</i>	4.69	.618
<i>I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on one another</i>	4.49	.774
<i>Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievement</i>	4.44	.750
<i>I am prepared to make sacrifices for the good of society</i>	4.38	.732
<i>I am not afraid to go to bat for the rights of others even if it means I will be reticulated</i>	4.26	.865

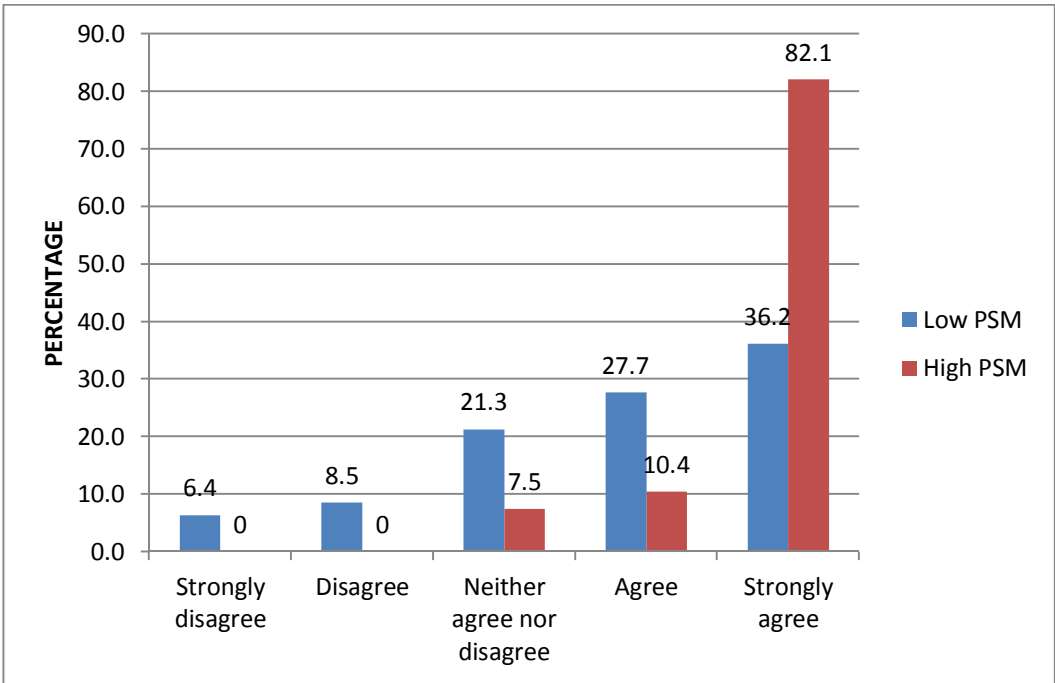
Statistically significant difference in the scores for employees with high PSM level ($M=4.7$, $SD=0.6$) and employees with low level of PSM ($M=3.8$, $SD=1.2$) were found, $t(8) = -5.6$, $p<.001$. (PSM divided into 3 groups at 1 standard deviation below the mean, 1 standard deviation above the mean and mean values). This result suggests that the higher an individual's PSM the more consciously he or she sought for a membership in the public sector of Mongolia.

From the below column (see Figure V.5) we can see that agreement level is far higher among employees with high PSM level compared to low PSM employees. While 82.1 % of respondents with high PSM strongly agree that they considered working in a public organization, only 36.2 % of low level of PSM respondents were strongly agree. None of the high PSM respondents disagreed with this question. As Perry and Wise (1990) formulated, PSM is the "predisposition" to respond to the motives that inherent in public organizations. Hence, this result may suggest that this "predisposition" is quite strongly and deeply fostered in minds of a vast majority of Mongolian public employees. Perhaps the decision to work in the public sector was not spontaneously made; rather it was a conscious decision among majority of the respondents with high level of PSM.

Nevertheless, this study as well has a weakness as like many other studies that it have tested the attraction effect using cross-sectional survey in a post-employment environment (Lewis and Frank 2002; Steijn 2008; Tschirhart et al. 2008), and, as such, we can never be sure neither if individual PSM influences employment decisions nor the extent to which

individual PSM is influenced by employment sector (Wright 2008). (cited on Kjeldsen and Jacobsen, 2012, p, 2)

Figure V.5 Agreement level to the question if they considered working in the public sector far before taking entry examination.



5.5 Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intention and PSM

Naff and Crum (1999), using data collected from federal government employees concluded that strong connections between PSM, job satisfaction and turnover intentions exist in the public sector context. In other words, public servants having high levels of PSM were more satisfied with their jobs and less likely to switch their jobs than their

counterparts with lower PSM level. These findings are also similar to Scott and Pandey's (2005) and Taylor's (2007). Taking into consideration these findings, the fourth subdivided hypothesis was formulated as:

H4A and H4B: Mongolian public servants with higher level of PSM will have higher job satisfaction and less intention to leave an organization compared to their counterparts with lower level of PSM.

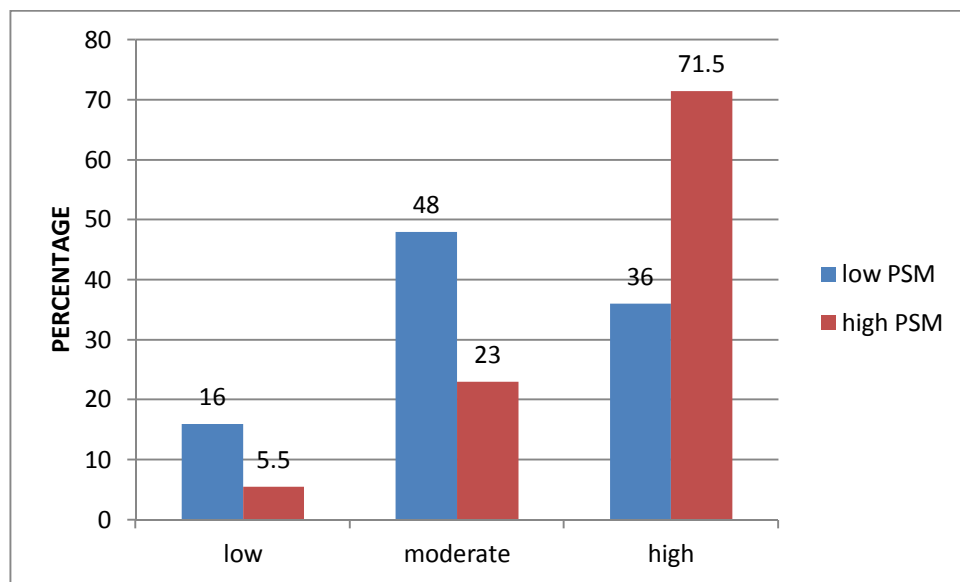
In order to verify the hypothesis, respondents were divided by their level of PSM into three groups and compared in terms of job satisfaction and intention to leave an organization. Employees with highest PSM were coded as 3, and those with lowest scores coded as 1. (PSM divided into 3 groups at 1 standard deviation below the mean, 1 standard deviation above the mean, and mean values) Then employees with highest PSM level (coded 3) were compared with their counterparts having lowest PSM scores (coded 1).

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to test whether employees with high level of PSM have higher job satisfaction and less turnover intention compared to with their counterparts with lower level of PSM. To determine the level of job satisfaction, the respondents were asked a question "in overall, how satisfied are you with your job" and asked to express their satisfaction level on the one to ten point scale.

There was a statistically significant difference in the scores of employees with high PSM level ($M=8.0$, $SD=2.1$) and employees with low level of PSM ($M=6.5$, $SD=1.9$), $t(8) = -$

3.8, $p < .001$. The ten point scale has been divided into low (1-4), moderate (5-7) and high (8-10) satisfaction levels to more precisely depict the difference on the above column. From the above column we can see that PSM level is closely related to the job satisfaction among Mongolian public employees. Those having high PSM are in overall much more satisfied with their jobs compared to those with low level of PSM.

Figure V.6 Job satisfaction level

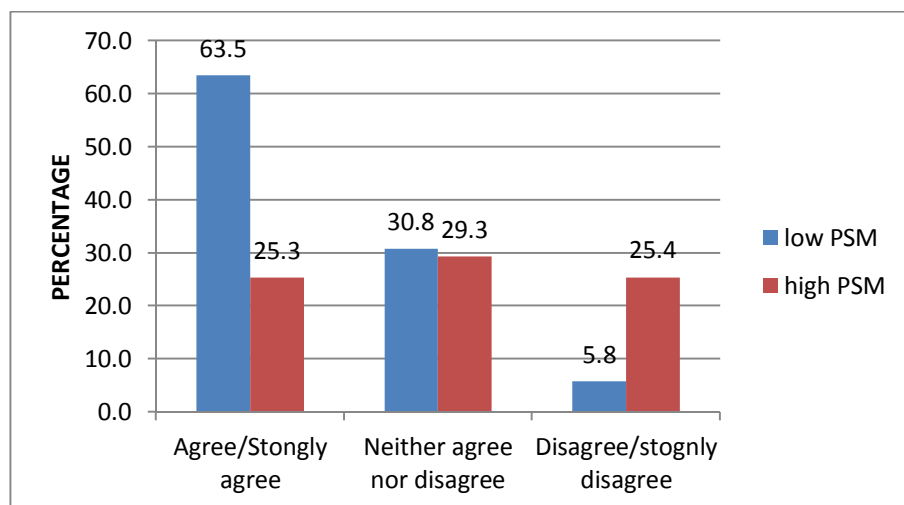


Then respondents were given a question, to determine their turnover intention, whether they are ready to leave an organization they currently work for if they proposed a higher paid job outside the public sector. As well, statistically significant difference were observed between high PSM level employees ($M=3.2$, $SD=1.4$) and low PSM level employees ($M=3.9$, $SD=1.1$), $t(8)=2.9$, $p=0.005$.

Over 64 % of the respondents with low level of PSM agreed or strongly agreed that they are ready to switch an organization and sector they work in if they proposed higher pay than they get now, in contrast to 25.3 % agreement of the respondents with high PSM level. Only 5.8 % of those with low PSM level disagreed while 25.4 % disagreed among the respondents with PSM level. Almost equal (low psm-30.8%, high psm-29.3%) number of respondents did not agree with either way.

On one hand positive relationship found between PSM level and job satisfaction. On the other hand negative relationship found between PSM and turnover intention. In order words, higher the PSM higher was job satisfaction and lesser turnover intention. PSM was strong predictor in both cases. Thus hypotheses 4A and 4B are fully supported. These findings are similar to those of Naff and Crum's (1999) and Scott and Pandey's (2005) that the higher the PSM level the more satisfied are employees.

Figure V.7 Agreement level to switch sector with a pay raise.



Moreover, this evidence supports Perry and Wise's (1990) argument that employees having greater level of PSM are less attracted to monetary rewards, as it has been found by this study that high PSM employees in Mongolia were less likely to switch jobs with pay raise.

5.6 Levels, Motivations and PSM

Many scholars (Brewer et al, 2000; Crewson, 1997; Houston, 2000; Naffand Crum, 1998; Perry, 1996) assert that those working in the highest level are more likely infused with altruistic motives for public service work.

Working in public organizations longer, it is possible for managers to have greater level of intrinsic motivations, as well as higher PSM level. The first reason is that longer experience should mean longer exposure to public sector values. Secondly, it may take a greater level of dedication to reach the higher levels of the civil service. Bright (2005) argue that employees with higher PSM level are more likely to be found working at managerial levels. The last hypothesis, led by these assumptions states that

H5: Civil servants working at managerial levels will have higher PSM level in contrast to staff civil servants.

No differences, however, found between managers and non-managers, after running series of t-test. Bright (2008) found a significant positive relation between PSM and managerial status and assumed that:

“From one perspective, managers may have high levels of public service motivation because their tangible needs are satisfied by their greater levels of salary. This perspective is based on Maslowian principles, which argue that the higher level psychic needs of individuals cannot be satisfied unless lower level physiological needs are first met (Maslow, 1943). Following this logic, it may be the case that public service motivation may be a psychic need within individuals that cannot be satisfied unless their lower level material needs are met.” (p, 148)

However, once again, the public sector pay is still very meager, even at the managerial level. And, if we follow Maslowian needs hierarchy, even at the highest level of public sector these tangible needs are still not satisfied in many cases. That is why corrupt behavior is especially common at the highest level of public organizations.

Secondly, Bright (2008) argued:

“Another explanation for the differences that have been found between managers and non-managers is organizational socialization. Managers could have higher levels of public service motivation because they are socialized through their years of public sector experience to highly value public service work (Schein, 1968; Van Maanen and Schein, 1979). The socialization mechanisms that are present in public organizations may weed out employees who are less attracted to public service

work while inculcating a value for public service work into those who remain for years” (p. 148)

Conversely in Mongolia, there is a wide room for nepotistic behaviors plus strong political intervention into public service appointment procedure. Appointees at highest levels usually come from completely different sectors and thus they crowd out those “socialized” and skilled professionals who exposed far longer to public sector values. The findings from the study conducted among Mongolian civil servants show that 36 % of respondents answered that having close connections in the higher administration bodies strongly associated with career advancement. 26.8% agreed that the successful social climbing related to political parties’ membership status. Only 14% answered that well educated while 9% think hard-working people are usually promoted (Danaasuren and Vandangombo, 2007). Overall, distrust in government promotion system was widely spread among employees.

5.7 Other Findings

Some other interesting findings have been observed. After running series of independent samples t-test, it’s been found that there are statistically significant differences among employees with high PSM level and low level of PSM in terms of goal clarity, organizational performance and valued output. Employees with high PSM ($M=4.7$, $SD=0.66$) were more aware about organizational goals compared to employees with low PSM ($M=3.8$, $SD=.87$), $t(8)= -6.7$, $p<.001$, high PSM employees ($M=4.5$, $SD=.77$) reported higher satisfaction with organizational performance and outcomes in contrast to

employees with low level of PSM ($M=3.8$, $SD=.84$), $t(8) = -4.6$, $p < .001$. That is to say, employees with higher level of PSM were more optimistic toward their organizations.

Public organizations are harshly criticized having multiple or conflicting goals because of the absence of market information and incentives, and the presence of stronger external forces (Wright, 2001). This ambiguity declines the goal-performance relationship because of the higher chance for off-task behavior (Locke and Latham, 1990). On the other hand, higher levels of self-efficacy often associated with better performance, because employees who are confident in accomplishing a goal are more likely to expend necessary effort and overcome obstacles (Bandura 1988; Bandura and Cervone, 1983, 1986). Then who can be self-efficient and believe that he or she is capable to successfully achieve a goal? Only those who have a clear vision toward organizational goals.

This study revealed that Mongolian public servants who have greater level of PSM perceived greater clarity of organizational goals. Thus, those employees who exercise greater level of PSM might be more self-efficient which, in turn, may positively relate to employee performance. This may have positive effect on decreasing organizational cost, as Frayne and Latham (1989) asserted, enhancing employee self-efficacy increases employee job attendance.

6. Conclusion

The “New Government for Changes” of Mongolia formed after the 2012 general election aims, according the Government action plan of 2012-2016, to restructure civil service into public service and to alienate state services from excessive bureaucracy and corruption. In this respect, as Wittmer (1991) suggests, it is crucial to understand the values and reward preferences of civil servants to structure organizational environments and incentive system to satisfy those preference.

Changing public sector pay systems into a performance pay appraisal system has been long at core of political debate in Mongolia. However, it has been repeatedly argued in the Western literature that extrinsic rewards may crowd out intrinsic motivation when a majority of employees are intrinsically motivated (Canton, 2005; James, 2005; Ryan and Deci, 2000b). Performance appraisal systems (hereafter PAS) are used to provide extrinsic rewards to employees who perform well and because intrinsically motivated employees matter less or even may be discouraged by those extrinsic rewards, this appraisal systems should be less effective for them. Thus, PAS may not be as effective as designed with the largest and most productive public employees (Re'em, 2010). Many studies similarly suggest that PAS rarely motivates employees to do a better job (Berman et al., 2006; Kellough and Lu, 1993; Kellough and Selden, 1997; Lawler, 1994; Pearce and Perry, 1983; Oh and Lewis, 2009). Even though PAS systems had worked so well in the private sector, these systems failed in the federal government. These failures mainly explained by the fact that most of the research on PAS had been done in the private rather than public sector (Perry and et. al., 2009)

This study shows that civil servants in Mongolia are likely to be motivated more by intrinsic motivations than by extrinsic ones, thus introducing PAS system in the Mongolian public sector will less likely to improve or even may hinder employee performance, and the explanations for this are the failures of these systems in the federal government PAS systems. Nevertheless, some studies assert that pay is an important motivator (Lawler, 1971; Locke, Feren, McCaleb, Shaw, and Denny, 1980) and that extrinsic rewards do not negatively affect intrinsic motivation (Cameron, Banko, and Pierce, 2001; Eisenberger and Cameron, 1996) (cited on Oh and Lewis, 2009). Moreover, even among individuals with high public service motivation, higher earnings are still preferred to lower earnings (Rainey 1982; Wittmer 1991; Alonso and Lewis, 2001; Wright 2007; Vandanabee 2008; Wright and Pandey 2008; Christensen and Wright 2009). (cited on Re'em, 2010). In this respect, as Bright (2009) asserted that not all employees desire only nonmonetary incentives, it is highly demanded to increase public employee pay at all levels, at least to the level that may satisfy their "lower order needs". However, shifting contemporary pay systems into performance pay systems probably will not bring desirable effects in Mongolia.

In order to improve performance and moral of public employees in Mongolia, it is important, on a regular base, to show them how their efforts positively contribute to an organization they work for and particularly, to the well-being of the society and development of the country. Indeed, enhancing employees' knowledge of results will increase their intrinsic motivation (Hackman and Oldham, 1980) while helping them feel as if they are meaningfully contributing to organizational goals will strengthen commitment and reduce employee frustration (Romzek and Hendricks, 1982). Similarly,

Angelo Azar, the business manager in the IAG argues that intrinsically motivated employees derive their satisfaction from the value of their work. The element common in these suggestions is the importance of encouraging them in feeling that they are personally contributing to an organization that performs a valuable service, without unnecessary restrictions or controls on their efforts (Moynihan and Pandey, 2007).

High PSM employees, appear to contribute in positive ways: They are more willing to protect the public interest by engaging in whistle-blowing to (Brewer and Selden, 1998); they are more committed to an organization (Crewson, 1997); more likely to be high performers and more satisfied; and less likely to leave (Naff and Crum, 1999) (cited on Moynihan and Pandey, 2007).

Very identical findings were found in our study: High public service motivators enjoyed higher job satisfaction which in turn may lead to a higher productivity, and less turnover intention, which positively invests to public organizations by decreasing organizational costs associated with employee absenteeism and turnover. Bright (2008) argued that organizations capable of leveraging PSM will be better prepared to recruit, train, and socialize employees.

As well, employees with high PSM were more familiar with organizational goals and had more optimistic views about their organizational performance compared to those with lower PSM level. Overall, this may suggest that recruiting individuals with high level of PSM may in fact enhance whole organizational performance. In this regard, it may

besuggested that PSM should be considered in selecting among potential job applicants in Mongolia.

U.S Merit Systems Protection Board (1987) study found that perceived lack of promotion opportunities was the strongest reason for leaving the public sector. The study conducted by the Academy of Management of Mongolia (2006) revealed that there is a huge distrust in the governmental promotion system among public employees.

Adam's (1963) equity theory suggests that one of the demotivating factors for employees to put effort on the job is to see a promotion of his/her equal to him colleagues over them. That is, employees seek equity and fairness not only when it comes to their outcomes but also on-the-way to get there. Inversely, people are motivated when decision-making procedures are done in a fair manner (Greenberg and Baron, 2003). Moreover, Herzberg's studies repeatedly showed that unfairness feelings cause job dissatisfaction. (Miner, 2005).(cited on Re'em, 2010).Managing and improving perceived procedural fairness may help improve employees' intrinsic motivation (Kim and Rubianty, 2011). As it's been revealed by this study that public employees in Mongolia are more intrinsically motivateda special attention, in this regard, should be paid at improving government recruitment system and reducing political intervention, as well as nepotistic behavior in Mongolia to at least not to demotivate employees. Furthermore, punishment and promotion have to be transparent as these promote positive motives of public servants and reduce negative motivations which exist in the status quo (Danaasuren and Vandangombo 2007). However, it is easier said than done.

Future studies should involve public employees working in rural areas, as we expect them to be dissimilar in any variety of ways from those working in the capital city. For example they might have lower education because of lesser ability to compete and survive in big crowded cities. Most universities in Mongolia are located in the capital city Ulaanbaatar and major part of employees working in rural areas should have been graduated in Ulaanbaatar, and moved back because of many reasons among which is inability to compete for desirable jobs one reason of which might be lower education level. As well, rural area public employees' values and preferences might be very different from public employees working in the capital city. Few years ago the Government provided extra incentives system for doctors and teachers to work in countryside and still many of them are still working there. Thus, these people motivated by additional profits should have more extrinsic motivations.

On the other hand, these employees may have more intrinsically motivated in contrast to employees working in the central organizations, because remote areas are not abundant for career advancement opportunities. They might have been attracted by their altruistic motives to invest their home towns, disregarding all the selfish advantages that central organizations may present. As such, it is very important for further studies to involve rural area public employees.

As well, further research should emphasize impact of sector differences as an independent variable and to find whether public employees more or less motivated by intrinsic motivations compared to their private sector counterparts. This study found that public

employees are more intrinsically inclined. However we do not know yet in what extent these motives are different from private sector employees; if they are different at all.

To conclude, despite the social, political, economic and traditional dissimilarities, in general the western approach to the motivational basis of public employees may well suit in the Mongolian context. Thus, it is possible to argue that “western” techniques used to motivate public employees may well work in the Mongolian public service environment.

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Appendix A. English Version of the Questionnaire

1. What is your age group?

1. Below 24
2. 25-29
3. 30-34
4. 35-39
5. 40-44
6. 45-49
7. 50-54
8. 55-60
9. Above 60

2. What is your gender?

1. Male
2. Female

3. What is the highest level of education you have ever completed?

1. Secondary/high school graduation certificate or equivalent or less
2. Diploma or certificate from a community college, CEGEP, institute of technology, nursing school, etc.
3. Bachelor's degree (e.g., BA, BSc)
4. University certificate or diploma above the bachelor's level including Master's degree (e.g., MA, MSc, MEd) or professional degree (e.g., LLB, degree in medicine, dentistry, veterinary medicine or optometry [MD, DDS, DMD, DVM, OD]) or earned doctorate (e.g., PhD, DSc, DEd)

4. What year did you take the public servant's examination? Please write the year in the space below.

1. _____

5. What year did you start working in the public service? Please write the year in the space below.

1. _____

6. *With which area of work do you most closely identify in relation to your current job (Mark one only)*

1. Legal service
2. Foreign affairs
3. Finance
4. Military
5. Food, agriculture
6. Culture, sports
7. Health
8. Tourism
9. Science
10. Communication, technology
11. Mining
12. Local government
13. Others

7. *Are you an executive or staff position?*

1. executive
2. staff

8. *What is your position grade?*

1. Political
2. Administrative
3. Special
4. Service
5. AA

“Skills and career”

		strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree nor disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree
9.	<i>My job is a good fit with my skills</i>	1	2	3	4	5

10.	<i>I believe I have opportunities for promotion within my department or agency, given my education, skills and experience</i>	1	2	3	4	5

“Work”

		strongly agree	somewhat agree	neither agree nor disagree	somewhat disagree	strongly disagree
11.	<i>My organization's/ agency's mission is important for me</i>	1	2	3	4	5
12.	<i>My agency produces high quality products and services</i>	1	2	3	4	5
13.	<i>I would recommend Government as a good place to work</i>	1	2	3	4	5
14.	<i>This organization provides valuable public services.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
15.	<i>This organization's mission is clear to almost everyone who works here.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
16.	<i>It is easy to explain the goals of this organization to outsiders.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
17.	<i>This organization has clearly defined goals.</i>	1	2	3	4	5

“Organization”

18. Do you intend to leave your current position in the next 1 year or so?

1. Yes
2. No
3. Do not know

19. Please indicate reason for leaving.

1. To retire
2. To pursue another position within my department or agency
3. To pursue another position in another department or agency
4. To pursue another position in another public organization
5. To pursue a position outside the Public service
6. Other

20. I am ready to switch my job if somebody proposes me a higher paying job outside the Public sector.

1. Strongly agree
2. Somewhat agree
3. Neither agree nor disagree
4. Somewhat disagree
5. Strongly disagree

21. All things considered, how satisfied are you with your job?

1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____ 5 _____ 6 _____ 7 _____ 8 _____ 9 _____ 10 _____

“Pay and Reward”

How important are each of the following in motivating you to do a good job?

		Very important	Important	Neither important	Unimportant	Very unimportant
--	--	-------------------	-----------	----------------------	-------------	---------------------

				nor unimportant		
22.	<i>Wage size</i>	1	2	3	4	5
23.	<i>Desire to not let coworkers down</i>	1	2	3	4	5
24.	<i>Recognition</i>	1	2	3	4	5
25.	<i>My duty as a public employee</i>	1	2	3	4	5
26.	<i>Increased chance for promotion</i>	1	2	3	4	5
27.	<i>Desire to help my work unit meet its goal</i>	1	2	3	4	5
28.	<i>Personal pride of satisfaction in my work</i>	1	2	3	4	5
29.	<i>Non-cash recognition</i>	1	2	3	4	5

In my opinion, basing pay on performance:

		Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
30.	<i>Motivates employees to work harder</i>	1	2	3	4	5
31.	<i>Would increase my pay</i>	1	2	3	4	5
32.	<i>Would help the agency retain high performance</i>	1	2	3	4	5
33.	<i>Encourages teamwork</i>	1	2	3	4	5

34.	<i>Results in unfair treatment of employees</i>	1	2	3	4	5
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“Outlook”

		Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
35.	<i>Working at my agency is important to the way that I think of myself as a person</i>	1	2	3	4	5
36.	<i>When someone praises the accomplishments of my agency, it feels like a personal compliment to me.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
37.	<i>When talking about the organization to others, I usually say “we” rather than “I.”</i>	1	2	3	4	5
38.	<i>Meaningful public service is very important to me</i>	1	2	3	4	5
39.	<i>I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on one another.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
40.	<i>Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
41.	<i>I am prepared to make sacrifices for the good of society.</i>	1	2	3	4	5
42.	<i>I am not afraid to go to bat for the rights of others even if it means I</i>	1	2	3	4	5

	<i>will be ridiculed.</i>					
43.	<i>I considered joining government long before taking the civil service examination.</i>	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B. Mongolian Version of the Questionnaire

1. Та хэдэн настай вэ?

1. 24 нас ба түүнээс доош
2. 25-29 нас
3. 30-34 нас
4. 35-39 нас
5. 40-44 нас
6. 45-49 нас
7. 50-54 нас
8. 55-59 нас
9. 60 нас ба түүнээс дээш

2. Таны хүйс?

1. Эрэгтэй
2. Эмэгтэй

3. Таны боловсролын түвшин?

5. Дунд сургууль ба түүнээс доош
6. Тусгай дунд
7. Дээд боловсрол (Бакалаврын диплом)
8. Эрдмийн зэрэг, цол (Магистр, Доктор, түүнээс дээш)

4. Та хэдэн онд Төрийн албаны мэргэшлийн шалтгалт (хамгийн сүүлд) өгсөн бэ? Доорхи хоосон зайд оныг бичнэ үү

1. _____

5. Та хэдэн оноос Төрийн албанд ажиллаж байгаа вэ? Доорхи хоосон зайд оныг бичнэ үү

1. _____

6. Та ямар салбарт ажил эрхэлдэг вэ? (зөвхөн нэгийг дугуйлна уу)

1. Хууль, эрх зүй
2. Гадаа харилцаа
3. Санхүү, эдийн засаг
4. Батлан хамгаалах

5. Хүнс, хөдөө аж ахуй
6. Соёл урлаг, спорт
7. Эрүүл мэнд
8. Аялал, жуулчлал
9. Шинжлэх ухаан
10. Харилцаа холбоо, технологи
11. Уул уурхай
12. Нутгийн өөрөө удирдах байгууллага
13. Бусад _____ (Хоосон
зайд салбараа бичнэ үү)

7. Таны хашдаг албан тушаал?

1. Удирдах албан тушаал
2. Гүйцэтгэх албан тушаал

8. Таны албан тушаалын ангилал?

1. Төрийн улс төрийн
2. Төрийн захиргааны
3. Төрийн тусгай
4. Төрийн үйлчилгээний
5. Ажлын алба

“Ур чадвар ба ажил” (Зөв гэж үзэж байгаа хариултынхаа доорх тоог дугуйлна уу)

		Бүрэн санал нийлж байна	Зарим талаараа санал нийлж байна	Хэлж мэдэхгүй	Зарим талаараа санал нийлэхгүй байна	Бүрэн санал нийлэхгүй байна
9.	Би энэ ажлаа сайн гүйцэтгэх хангалттай чадвартай гэж бодож байна	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Миний хувьд эзэмшсэн боловсрол, ур чадвар ба ажлын туршлагадаа тулгуурлан байгууллага дотроо албан тушаал дэвших боломж нээлттэй гэж үздэг	1	2	3	4	5

“Ажил” (Зөв гэж үзэж байгаа хариултынхаа доорх тоог дугуйлна уу)

	Бүрэн	Зарим	Хэлж	Зарим	Бүрэн
--	-------	-------	------	-------	-------

		санал нийлж байна	талаараа санал нийлж байна	мэдэхгүй	талаараа санал нийлэхгүй байна	санал нийлэхгүй байна
11.	Миний ажиллаж буй байгууллага, газар хэлтсийн ажлын эрхэм зорилго надад чухал	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Миний ажиллаж буй газар,хэлтэс чиг үүргээ сайн хэрэгжүүлдэг	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Би Төрийн албыг ажиллахад тохиромжтой газар гэж бусдад зөвлөж чадна	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Манай байгууллагын иргэдэд үзүүлдэг үйлчилгээ хүртээмжтэй байж чаддаг	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Байгууллагын эрхэм зорилго нийт ажилчдад тодорхой байдаг	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Тус байгууллагын эрхэм зорилгыг бусдад тайлбарлахад хялбар бөгөөд ойлгомжтой байдаг	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Тус байгууллага зорилгоо ойлгомжтой тодорхойлсон	1	2	3	4	5

Байгууллага

18. Ойрын нэг жилийн хугацаанд ажил, албан тушаалаа солих төлөвлөгөө бий юу?

4. Тийм
5. Үгүй
6. Хэлж мэдэхгүй байна

19. Хэрэв та 18 дугаар асуултанд “Тийм” гэж хариулсан бол шалтгааныг тодруулна уу

1. Тэтгэвэрт гарах
2. Газар/хэлтэс дотроо өөр албан тушаалд ажиллахаар
3. Байгууллага дотроо өөр газар/хэлтэст ажиллахаар
4. Төрийн бусад байгууллагад ажиллахаар
5. Төрийн албанаас бусад салбарт ажиллахаар
6. Бусад

(шалтгааныг бичнэ үү)

20. Төрийн албанаас бусад салбарт илүү цалинтай ажил санал болговол би ажлаа солиход бэлэн

1. Бүрэн санал нийлж байна
2. Зарим талаараа санал нийлж байна
3. Хэлж мэдэхгүй
4. Зарим талаараа санал нийлэхгүй байна
5. Бүрэн санал нийлэхгүй байна

21. Ерөнхийд нь авч үзвэл, та ажилдаа хэр сэтгэл хангалуун байдаг вэ?

Харгалзах тоог дугуйлна уу.

(Жишээ нь: Хэдий чинээ сэтгэл ханамж өндөр байна төдий чинээ өндөр оноог дугуйлна)

Огт сэтгэл

Маш сэтгэл

хангалуун бус

хангалуун

1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____ 5 _____ 6 _____ 7 _____ 8 _____ 9 _____
 _____ 10 _____

Цалин урамшуулал

Дараах зүйлс таныг сайн ажиллахад хэр их нөлөөтэй вэ? (Зөв гэж үзэж байгаа хариултынхаа доорх тоог дугуйлна уу)

		Маш чухал	Чухал	Дунд зэрэг	Төдийлөн чухал бус	Огт чухал биш
22.	Цалингийн хэмжээ	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Хамтран ажиллагсдынхаа урмыг хугалахгүйг хичээх эрмэлзлэл	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Нэр хүндээ өсгөх боломж	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Төрийн албан хаагчийн хувьд хүлээсэн үүрэг, өргөсөн тангарагтаа үнэнч байх	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Албан тушаал дэвших боломж	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Байгууллагынхаа эрхэм зорилгод хүрэхэд нь хувь нэмрээ оруулах хүсэл	1	2	3	4	5

28.	Ажилдаа сэтгэл ханамжтай байх	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Мөнгөн бус урамшуулал (Жишээ нь : талархлын бичиг, дурсгалын зүйлс г.м)	1	2	3	4	5

Миний бодлоор Төрийн байгууллагууд “хийснээрээ цалинждаг” систем рүү шилжвэл:

		Бүрэн санал нийлж байна	Зарим талаараа санал нийлж байна	Хэлж мэдэхгүй	Зарим талаараа санал нийлэхгүй байна	Бүрэн санал нийлэхгүй байна
30.	Ажилчдад илүү шаргуу ажиллах эрмэлзлэл төрүүлнэ	1	2	3	4	5
31.	Миний цалин нэмэгдэнэ	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Нийт байгууллагыг өндөр бүтээмжтэй ажиллахад эерэгээр нөлөөлнө	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Багаар ажиллах эрмэлзлэлийг нэмэгдүүлнэ	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Ажилчдыг шударга бусаар үнэлэхэд хүргэнэ	1	2	3	4	5

**“Гадаад байдал”
дугуйлна уу)**

(Зөв гэж үзэж байгаа хариултынхаа доорх тоог

		Бүрэн санал нийлж байна	Зарим талаараа санал нийлж байна	Хэлж мэдэхгүй	Зарим талаараа санал нийлэхгүй байна	Бүрэн санал нийлэхгүй байна
35.	Өөрийгөө үнэлэх үнэлэмжийн хувьд энэхүү байгууллагад ажиллах нь надад чухал ач холбогдолтой	1	2	3	4	5
36.	Хэн нэгэн манай байгууллагын ололт амжилтыг сайшаах нь надад сайхан сэтгэгдэл төрүүлдэг	1	2	3	4	5
37.	Хамт олныхоо талаар хэн нэгэнтэй ярилцаж байхдаа “би” гэхээс илүүтэй “бид” гэж	1	2	3	4	5

	ярьдаг					
38.	Би иргэдэд чанартай үйлчилгээ үзүүлэхийг чухалчилж үздэг	1	2	3	4	5
39.	Хүмүүс бид бие биенээсээ ихээхэн харилцан хамааралтай гэдгийг өдөр тутам мэдэрдэг	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Нийгэмд шинэчлэл авч ирэх нь миний хувьд хувийн ашиг сонирхлоос илүү ач холбогдолтой	1	2	3	4	5
41.	Би нийгмийн сайн сайхны төлөөх аливаа асуудлыг өөрийнхөө ашиг сонирхлоос дээгүүрт тавьдаг	1	2	3	4	5
42.	Зөв гэж үзвэл хэн нэгэнд чичлүүлэхээс үл айн бусдын эрх ашгийн төлөө зүтгэхэд бэлэн	1	2	3	4	5
43.	Төрийн албаны мэргэшлийн шалгалтыг өгөхөөсөө ч өмнө төрийн албанд зүтгэх бодолтой байсан	1	2	3	4	5

몽골 공무원의 동기에 관한 연구:

내재적, 외재적 동기를 중심으로.

BOLOR Tsenguun

행정대학원 행정학 전공

서울대학교

일반적으로 공무원들은 민간영역에 종사하는 사람들과는 달리 공직에 봉사하고자 하는 동기를 가지고 있다고 생각되며, 공무원들은 공익에 봉사하거나 사회에 대한 고민으로 동기부여 된다고 본다. 그러나 선행연구들은 주로 서구사회를 중심으로 해서 논의가 이뤄졌는데 반해서 몽골의 실정은 여러 가지 측면에서 차이가 있다. 이러한 차이에도 불구하고 공직봉사동기에 대한 영향요인이 유사한지 그렇지 않은지에 대해 연구해보고자 하였다.

공직봉사동기에 관한 선행연구에 기반하여 다섯 가지의 가설을 수립하였다. 이러한 가설을 몽골 공무원 600 명을 표본으로 수집된 자료를 통해서 검증하였다.

몽골과 서구사회의 차이에도 불구하고, 본 연구에서 확인한 결과 기존 선행연구의 전통적인 가설이 몽골에서도 입증되었다. 몽골의 공무원들은 내재적 동기에 의해서 더욱 동기부여가 되며, 공직봉사동기(PSM)는 긍정적인 영향을 미치는 것으로 나타났다. 끝으로 결론에서는 이러한 연구결과를 바탕으로 어떻게 몽골의 공무원들에게 동기를 부여할 것인지에 대한 정책을 제안하였다.

주요어: 공직봉사동기, 내재적 동기, 외재적 동기, 몽골, 공무원

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