d/Collection

# Is Too Much of Anything Bad for You? Examining the Impact of Public Service Motivation on Burnout Among Public Employees in Indonesia

## 너무 많은 것이 해로운가? 인도네시아 공무원의 근무동기가 번아웃에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구

**February 2023**

**Graduate School of Public Administration**
**Seoul National University**
**Global Public Administration Major**

**Sheila Ananta Ully**

# Is Too Much of Anything Bad for You? Examining the Impact of Public Service Motivation on Burnout Among Public Employees in Indonesia

Academic Advisor     Jeon, So Hee

Submitting a master's thesis of Public Administration

October 2022

**Graduate School of Public Administration**
**Seoul National University**
Global Public Administration Major

**Sheila Ananta Ully**

Confirming the master's thesis written by
Sheila Ananta Ully

December 2022

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Chair | <u>Choi, Taehyon</u> | (Seal) |
| Vice Chair | <u>Kim, Byeong Jo</u> | (Seal) |
| Examiner | <u>Jeon, So Hee</u> | (Seal) |

# Abstract

# Is Too Much of Anything Bad for You? Examining the Impact of Public Service Motivation on Burnout Among Public Employees in Indonesia

**Sheila Ananta Ully**
**Global Public Administration Major**
**The Graduate School of Public Administration**
**Seoul National University**

PSM research mainly focused on its bright sides, while its dark sides have only started to receive scholars' attention in recent years. As there are always two sides of a coin, it is crucial to examine the potential adverse impact of PSM. Employee burnout is one of the potential adverse sides of it. Although it is found to have many positive effects on employees, a high level of PSM may lead employees to go above and beyond in their work which can result in them draining their resources (e.g. time and energy) to an extent that it makes them experience burnout.

Based on a sample of 128 Indonesian central government officials collected through a time-lagged survey and using a multiple regression model, this study examines whether PSM has a positive association with burnout. It finds that PSM is not significant in increasing burnout. Although it is insignificant, it provides a

consistent result with similar studies that have also been unable to find a direct relationship between the two. This can possibly be due to the country and cultural differences that are not taken into account. Another possible explanation is that not all individuals experience the same impact of going the extra mile at work such as low-PSM individuals may be more prone to burnout. The interesting finding is social support from supervisors can decrease employee burnout, while workload can increase employee burnout. This is consistent with a previous study that social support can be a buffer against burnout while working long hours lead to a higher risk of burnout. In addition, other control variables, however, are insignificant.

Theoretically, this study contributes stronger evidence than merely using cross-sectional data. Moreover, this study serves as the first that empirically investigate this topic using data from Indonesia. Practically, although this study implies that high-PSM individuals are somewhat unaffected by the possibility of burnout, it doesn't mean employees should be exploited by giving them more work. Instead, the supportive environment should be improved and managers should be equipped with skills that can reduce the likelihood of burnout to occur. Nevertheless, this study has several limitations such as the result may not be generalizable to all public employees in Indonesia and the study sample is relatively small and some variables may be underrepresented.

# Table of Contents

# Chapter 1. Introduction

The first chapter of this proposal will discuss the background of why it is needed to research how Public Service Motivation is associated with public employees' burnout. The research question and purpose of the study will be explained in detail as well.

## 1.1. Study Background

"Motivation to serve the society" or Public Service Motivation (PSM) has been extensively studied by many scholars over the past few decades (Behn, 1995; Bright, 2008; Liu et al., 2015; Mingus & Jing, 2017; Ritz et al. 2016; Wright, 2001). There has been a great interest to explore it because employees' motivation plays an important role in influencing their behavior at work (Camilleri, 2007; Perry & Porter, 1982) As this motivation refers to serving society, PSM is commonly found in public sector. People who have PSM have a higher likelihood to become public employees (Wright et al., 2012).

PSM literature has been mainly talking about how it improves employees' performance (Giauque et al. 2013; Schwarz et al., 2020), how it increases their work satisfaction (Hollósy-Vadász; 2018; Homberg et al., 2015), and how it makes them more committed to the organization (Perry et al., 2010; Stefurak et al., 2020) to name a few. Meanwhile, the negative impact of PSM on employee outcomes has started to

receive scholarly attention only in recent years (Giauque et al., 2012; Gould-Williams et al., 2015; Jensen et al., 2019; Koumenta, 2015; Liu et al. 2015; Quratulain & Kahn, 2015; van Loon et al. 2015). It is crucial not to diminish the possibility that there are always two sides of a coin, meaning there may be two or more sides to every argument. This applies also in this case. Acknowledging it, it is crucial to investigate more into the potential dark sides of PSM on the employee.

One of the possible negative outcomes of PSM being studied is related to employees' well-being, in particular the possibility of them getting a burnout (van Loon et al., 2015). Despite its impact on many positive employee outcomes, a high level of PSM can lead to burnout because employees who are too highly motivated to serve may overuse their resources and capabilities (van Loon et al., 2015). Employees with PSM sacrifice themselves by going 'extra miles' at their own expense (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Motivation to serve the public through working in the public sector then can lead to a adverse consequences where employees sacrifice themselves to a level that depletes their well-being (Giauque et al., 2013).

Moreover, there has been a rising expectation for public employees to go 'above and beyond' in providing high-quality public services to citizens (Potipiroon & Faerman, 2020). There is a growing demand for faster public service as well (Diefenbach, 2009). In addition to the increasing demand and expectation from citizens, public employees become subject to extra work with fewer resources such

as working overtime due to the lack of staff or a budget cut. This has become the trend in some countries from Brazil to Greece to several states in the United States to name a few (Esteve et al., 2017; Raudla et al., 2017). 'Doing more with less' then has become something common that is asked of public employees. As a result, this has pointed to a rising concern of them experiencing burnout (Patipiroon & Faerman, 2020; van Loon et al., 2015).

Finally, working in providing services, in general, is a very demanding and involving job that is prone to burnout. It is argued that this can occur due to the intense interaction with clients (Maslach et al., 2001). Many public employees are subject to it as they have a role in serving citizens. It is something that becomes prevalent among them as they try to meet citizens' needs (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2000). Public employees then have a likelihood to experience burnout in providing services to citizens. With the high expectation and demand combined with low resources and the nature of 'service' work, the possibility of burnout to occur among employees who have PSM becomes more certain to occur.

As mentioned previously, research on the negative impact of PSM on employee outcome has just received scholars' attention in the recent years and it is mostly focused on public organizations in the developed countries such as Switzerland (Giauque et al., 2012), Denmark (Jensen et al., 2019), and the United Kingdom (Koumenta, 2015) to name a few. Studies in developing countries have been so far about the public sector in Egypt (Gould-Williams et al., 2015) and Pakistan (Quratulain & Kahn, 2015). In regards to burnout, especially, the negative

impact of PSM on burnout has only been found in the public sector in a developed country, the Netherlands (van Loon et al., 2015). It is important to explore more to study the impact of PSM on public employees' burnout in the context of developing countries, for instance, Indonesia.

Taking the explanation above, PSM is considered to drain public employees (e.g. time and energy) to the point they will experience burnout. Examining the impact of PSM on public sector employees' burnout which then becomes compelling. It is indeed that one cannot diminish the possibility that there are two sides of a coin and that the "bad" side of PSM may also exist.

## 1.2. Research Question and the Purpose of the Study

As mentioned previously, PSM is not always a 'bright force' as this can result in a negative impact on employees. PSM, when it is too excessive, can lead to public employees' burnout due to the consideration of its draining their resources such as time and energy. Burnout–a situation where one feels exhausted, depersonalized, and lacking personal accomplishment (Maslach, et al., 1984)–will lead to many negative employee outcomes such as aggression, absenteeism, decreased performance of a previously productive public employee, and even turnover. Acknowledging this, examining the impact of PSM on burnout becomes important.

The purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between PSM and

public employee burnout and the research question is whether PSM has a positive association with employee burnout in the public sector. The result of this research is expected to give public organizations insights into how PSM may influence public employees' burnout in the workplace. It can be a lesson for public organizations to better manage job burnout among their workers as motivation to serve society may lead to a negative impact on employees. PSM itself is not a problem, but too much PSM can be detrimental to employees.

# Chapter 2. Theoretical Background and Literature Review

In this section, the theoretical background of PSM and emotional burnout will be explained in detail. Moreover, previous studies about the relationship between these two variables will also be discussed in this chapter.

## 2.1. PSM

PSM is "a concept, an attitude, a sense of duty, and a sense of public morality" (Staats, 1988, p.601). Perry & Wise (1990) defines PSM as a person's unique motive that is found mainly in public organizations. PSM is linked to a means to improve public service despite the lack of incentives (Perry et al., 2010). It is also considered a prosocial behavior which means one's desire to put effort into giving benefits to other people (Piatak & Holt, 2020). The definition of PSM revolves around serving society (Ritz et al., 2016). It is the action of a selfless person who has concerns for the betterment of people and society as a whole or the motivation to serve other people's needs.

PSM came from the idea that there is a unique and distinct motivation exhibited by public employees which is different from what employees in the private sector have (Perry et al, 2010). There are also different work values (Perry, 1997). PSM individuals then tend to become public employees because they share the same

values with its mission and policy (Wright et al., 2012).

According to Perry (1996), there are four dimensions of PSM namely an attraction to policy-making, a dedication to serving the public interest, self-sacrifice, and compassion for others. Attraction to policy-making refers to one's satisfaction with being involved in the formulation of public policy. Dedication to serving the public interest or 'civic duty' means one who has a moral sense to serve and be loyal to the organization they are working for (i.e. government) and the citizens. Self-sacrifice indicates one's willingness to sacrifice or prosocial tendency to contribute to society. It means even foregoing financial rewards for the intangible personal rewards received from serving society. Last but not least, compassion for others is one's commitment to concern for other people or society's welfare.

To measure PSM and its dimensions, there is a 24-item scale which was originally developed by a scholar (Perry, 1996). Afterward, there have been some attempts to modify Perry's (1996) measurement of PSM by Kim (2009) who came up with a 14-item scale. The purpose of the modification was because Perry's (1996) PSM measurement which is based in the United States is not a good fit for the Korean context. It was also to create valid and shorter scales which are commonly preferred over longer scales to be used in studies as they can reduce the respondents' workload.

The 5-item global measure is the one that is commonly used by many researchers to study PSM empirically (Alonso & Lewis, 2001; Kim 2005; Belle, 2013). This scale was created by transforming Perry's (1996) multidimensional scale

into a unidimensional one, composed of a single item representing each dimension of PSM. The global measure originated from the 1996 Merit System Protection Board Survey made for federal employees which included those single-item questions to measure PSM. Scholars started to research PSM from the available data generated from that survey (Alonso & Lewis, 2001). Researchers later begin utilizing this scale to gather data for their studies (Kim, 2005; Pandey & Stazyk, 2008; Wright & Christensen, 2010). This global measure is argued to be a more accurate measurement for the overall concept of PSM (Crossley et al, 2007; Wright et al., 2013).

As mentioned previously, PSM can be found among people who work in the public sector; thus the study of PSM has been mainly conducted in the context of the public sector. Since 1990, PSM has received great interest from many scholars to be studied (Behn, 1995; Bright, 2008; Liu et al., 2015; Mingus & Jing, 2017; Perry & Porter, 1982; Ritz et al. 2016; Wright, 2001). It is due to the importance of employees' motivation to be studied as it may have an impact on their behavior in the workplace (Camilleri, 2007, Perry & Porter, 1982; Perry et al., 2010).

Many of the studies on PSM have shown that it has a relation to many positive employee outcomes. In detail, PSM had a positive relationship with one's performance at work (Giauque et al., 2013; Schwarz et al., 2020) and at the same time reduced worker absenteeism (Grant, 2008). It was positively related to employees' commitment to their organization  (Perry et al., 2010; Stefurak et al.

8

2020) and intention to stay (Bright, 2008). Scholars also found that PSM leads to Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) (Ingrams, 2020), which leads to an employee's voluntary behavior to go the extra mile even without being rewarded monetarily (Bies, 1989). Furthermore, PSM was examined to be positively associated with job satisfaction which is employees' positive emotion from their job appraisal and experience (Homberg et al., 2015).

However, research on PSM has been mainly talking about its bright sides and its positive influence on the well-being of public employees, such as job satisfaction. Studies about the potential adverse impacts of PSM are relatively more recent. Warning about its possible dark sides had been raised by Perry and Wise (1990) and the study about it has just started when it is found that PSM has a positive relationship with resigned satisfaction by Giauque et al. (2012). It is found later that it has a positive association with stress (Giauque et al., 2012; Gould-Williams et al., 2015), burnout (van Loon et al. 2015), absenteeism (Koumenta, 2015), and presenteeism–people still go to work even though they are sick (Jensen et al., 2019) as well. Finally, PSM has a negative relationship with one's physical well-being (Liu et al., 2015). Based on this literature review, it is needed to have more studies that investigate the potential dark sides of PSM.

## 2.2. Burnout

Freudenberger (1975) started research on burnout which was based on what workers in human or healthcare services experience, jobs that involve

providing services and aid to those in need. Freudenberger (1975) was the first one who introduced the term 'burnout'. When he studied people who work in human or health care services, the term burnout was used to define a situation in which one was physically and emotionally depleted as well as unproductive and uncommitted to their job and clients. A social psychologist named Maslach (1976) whose research focused on work-related emotions, later gave a contribution to burnout research, exploring this phenomenon in various professions (Lubbadeh, 2020; Valcour, 2016). Maslach and Jackson (1984, p. 134) then defined burnout as a "syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment, that can occur among individuals who work with people in some capacity". This definition has been commonly referred to by scholars studying burnout.

There are three dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach et al. (2001). Emotional exhaustion is the key component of burnout and is argued to be the necessary condition for burnout to occur (Maslach, 1986). It is the initial stage of burnout to occur (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Emotional exhaustion refers to one who feels emotional drainage and overextension due to one's work (Maslach, 1986). It occurs when people are faced with an overwhelming demand for their time and energy (Boonratana & Gharleghi, 2015).

Depersonalization indicates one who is negative, callous, and detached as a response to one's work. It emerges as one's response when one experiences

emotional exhaustion. Employee withdrawal and cynicism are characteristics of workers who experience depersonalization (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Workers are detached and they exhibit negative behaviors towards clients, employees, and management. It is considered the most problematic (Boonratana & Gharlegi, 2015).

Finally, reduced personal accomplishment occurs when one experiences both emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Sethi et al., 1999). According to Maslach et al. (2001), this represents one who feels incompetent and lacks job achievement and productivity. People start to negatively evaluate themselves to the point where they doubt their contribution and capabilities in their works (Sethi et al., 1999).

Maslach et al. (1997) came up with one of the measurements for burnout called the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). It was originally made for employees in the human service or healthcare and the assessment was named MBI-Human Services Survey. It was designed to focus on jobs that require intense interaction with people who are more prone to burnout. With the increasing interest to investigate burnout within other areas of work, a general version was developed which was called MBI-General Survey to be able to measure burnout and its dimensions across different occupations. It consists of 16-items, while the human services survey has 40-items (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). As the general survey is shorter and can be applied to various jobs, this measurement is preferred over the former one (Bria et al., 2014). Another way to measure burnout is through the Guy et al. (2008)'s Emotional Labour Questionnaire. It is way shorter, consisting of five

items. The scale access one's level of exhaustion at work. It consists of five items (Hsieh et al., 2012).

Work-related burnout has been associated with many negative employee outcomes. For example, Bakker et al. (2003) and Borritz et al. (2006) found that burnout can lead to absenteeism. It is also positively connected with turnover (Maslach & Leiter, 2016; Wright & Cropanzo, 1998). Furthermore, job burnout has a negative impact on job performance (Wright & Bonnett, 1997).

Job burnout harms employees' well-being as well (Burke & Deszca, 1986; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Maslach, 2001). Emotional exhaustion is argued to have the most influence on one's stress-related and mental health problems than other components of burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). This is because emotional exhaustion is more related to the traditional stress variables than other burnout components. Furthermore, in terms of physical well-being, job burnout can lead to headaches, exhaustion, cardiovascular problems, and even death–the ultimate outcome of burnout (Leiter et al., 2013; Maslach & Leiter, 2016).

## 2.3. Literature Review on the Relationship Between PSM and Burnout

Public employees work in a high-pressure environment. The public expects more from them (Diefenbach, 2009; Potipiroon & Faerman, 2020). The resources are often in shortage (Esteve et al., 2017; Raudla et al., 2017). The work is

demanding emotionally as well (Guy et al., 2008). 'Doing more with less' then becomes common for public employees (Esteve et al. 2017; Potipiroon & Faerman, 2020).

Those who go the extra mile in meeting these high job demands in the public sector are said to exhibit PSM (Potipiroon & Faerman, 2020). They may define their role more broadly in that they tend not to just comply with the minimum requirement but work beyond what is required instead (Butucescu et al., 2019). These employees put high expectations of their contributions to their work (Giauque et al., 2013; Koumenta, 2015; van Loon et al., 2015). As a result, Butucescu et al. (2019) argued that these people work longer hours, work on their day off, and are available outside office hours are several examples of extra-mile behaviors. This means employees with PSM engage in many extra-role behaviors. An example from Jensen et al. (2019)'s study indeed showed that even sick employees with high level of PSM still force themselves to come to work. This occurrence is called presenteeism.

High-PSM individuals then sacrifice themselves too much to serve society (van Loon et al., 2015). They feel obliged to serve the service beneficiaries (i.e. citizens). Engaging in those extra-role behaviors then gradually are perceived as a part of their normal job responsibilities. For example, a study conducted by Vigoda-Gadot (2007) found that more than 70% of school teachers in Israel–who participated in the study–indeed felt a strong pressure to take extra-role behaviors. As mentioned previously, public employees are pressured to 'do more with less' and it has become an accepted 'norm' (Esteve et al., 2017). These public employees who work beyond

what is required and engage in extra-role behaviors at work demand a great amount of energy.

In this study, PSM then is conceptualized as a potential source of the depletion of one's valuable resources (e.g. time and mental energy) based on Hobfoll's (1989) Conservation of Resources (COR) theory. This theory has been used to explain the stress spectrum, ranging from burnout to traumatic stress, within the organizational context (Hobfoll et al., 2018). This mainly argues that people will maintain, protect, and obtain resources and the threat for them is when there is a loss of their resources. Resources are anything valuable to them (e.g. time and energy). If these valued resources are drained, negative psychological and physical consequences can ensue.

As going above and beyond in high PSM-individuals' work require much time and energy, this can lead to adverse impacts on them. Moreover, one's time and energy are not infinite and therefore can be easily drained (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Thus, this can result in a stressful experience (Giauque et al., 2013) and a potential source of burnout (van Loon et al., 2015).

Giauque et al. (2013) conducted a study to examine whether PSM has a negative relation to stress. In contrast to the expectation, PSM had a positive relationship with public employees' work-related stress instead. It was due to the argument that PSM was positively linked with employees' expectations of their work. These workers raise the bar in regard to what was thought as satisfactory

performance in the workplace. Due to this, there was increased pressure put on themselves to perform.

Departing from the proof of the negative impact of PSM on employees, van Loon et al. (2015) later found that PSM was positively linked to burnout. The authors found that high-PSM employees may exhibit too much self-sacrifice to serve society through their work, leading to an adverse impact on themselves by going 'extra miles' to what is expected of them (van Loon et al., 2005) and thus overusing their resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Furthermore, employee burnout has been usually found in human service work which requires high emotional intensity (Maslach, 2003). Emotional work can make people more stressed, psychologically distressed, and even depressed (Pugliesi, 1999). Burnout can be found in public service works as public and nonprofit organizations are the ones that deliver them (Young & McGuire, 2018). Working in the public sector has a 'serving role' to citizens and it is a highly demanding job (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2000). With the nature of 'service' work, the possibility of burnout among public employees to occur becomes more certain. In accordance, based on the above literature review, PSM then is expected to lead to a higher level of burnout among employees in the public sector. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis: PSM is positively associated with burnout.**

# Chapter 3. Research Design

The research design of the study is elaborated in detail in this third chapter. The sub-chapters will consist of the analytical framework designed by the author, the research methodology, and the analytic techniques used in the study.

## 3.1. Analytical Framework

**Figure 3.1. Analytical Framework of the Study**

| Independent Variable | Dependent Variable |
|---|---|
| PSM | Burnout |

**Control Variable**

Age
Gender
Education
Marital Status
Job Tenure
Job Status
Job Position
Monthly Pay
Workload
Social Support from Supervisors
Social Support from Co-Workers
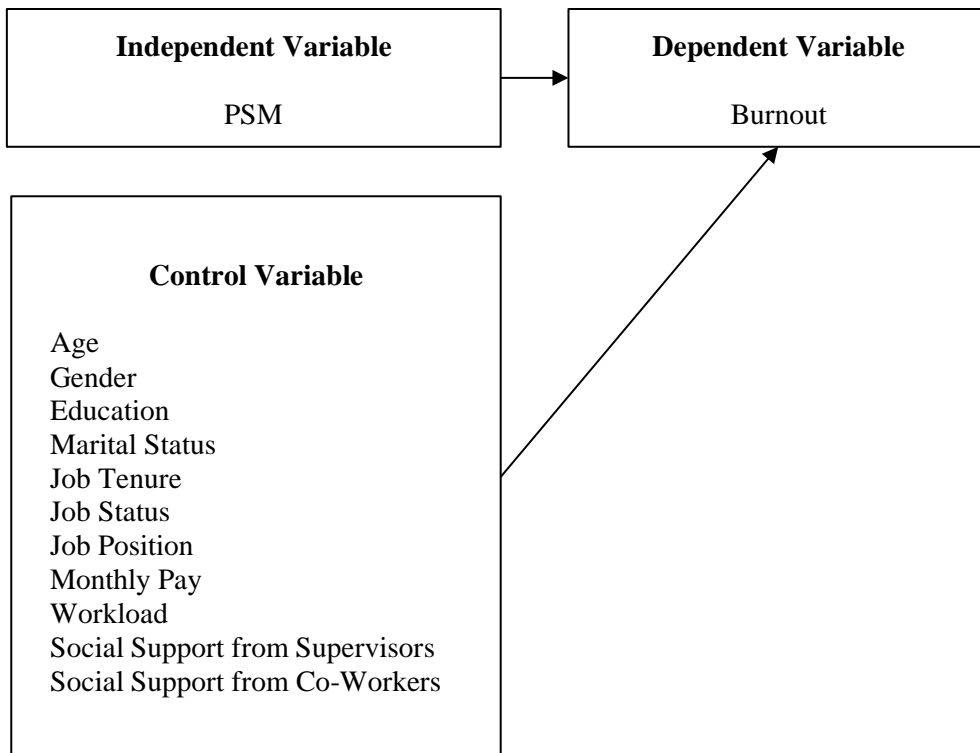
The author designed an analytical framework for the study as indicated in Figure 3.1 below. According to the figure, it is illustrated that PSM influences public employees' burnout.

## 3.2. Research Methodology

### 3.2.1. Data and Sample

The data used in this study is primary data collected from an online survey questionnaire sent to Indonesian central government officials. The survey combines the 5-item global measure of PSM and Guy et al.'s (2008) questionnaire as well as demographic questions to measure the control variables such as gender, age, and educational attainment to name a few. The survey instrument is administered in the Indonesian language which is translated from the original English version. Moreover, it was conducted anonymously and the questions were made not required to give the right to respondents not to answer.

The survey is administered two times with a one-month gap for reverse causality from cross-sectional data to be ruled out (Patipiroon & Faerman, 2020). The first questionnaire was distributed to the respondent in all central government institutions in Indonesia on September 2022 and the second was sent on October 2022. In the first phase, 228 respondents filled out the survey with 181 out of 228 respondents willing to participate in the second survey. Meanwhile, in the following survey, 177 respondents participated with 171 claiming to have taken the first survey.

The unit of analysis of this study is the same individual that takes both surveys. Accordingly, data were matched through respondents' self-generated identification codes–as both surveys were conducted anonymously–to get the same individuals' data who participated in both phases. After including the data on control variables and excluding missing values, there is a 128 final sample used for this study.

**Table 3.1. Data Collection Strategy**

| Steps | Description |
|-------|-------------|
| Step 1 | Conducting a pilot test survey with a small set of respondents similar to those in the final survey to check whether the questions asked are clear |
| Step 2 | Distributing the first survey on September 2022 |
| Step 3 | Distributing the second survey on October 2022 |
| Step 4 | Matching both surveys data through self-generated identification codes provided by the respondents as the unit of analysis in this study is the same individuals that take both surveys |
| Step 5 | Screening, cleaning, and coding the data prior to the data analysis |

## 3.2.2. Variable Measurement

## 3.2.2.1. The Independent Variable

The independent variable for this estimation is PSM. The 5-item global measure of PSM is used. This is argued to be a more accurate measurement for the overall concept of PSM (Wright et al., 2013) and has shorter scales which are

commonly preferred over longer scales to reduce respondents' workload (Kim, 2009). A 5-point Likert-type scale is used as a rating of one's level of agreement with each item of the questionnaire is used, with '1' implying one's strong disagreement and '5' implying one's strong agreement. Samples of the items include "I am prepared to make sacrifices for the good of society", "Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievement", and "Meaningful public service is very important to me".

### 3.2.2.2. The Dependent Variable

The dependent variable of this study is burnout in public employees. In this study, this variable is measured based on Guy et al.'s (2008) measurement of burnout. A 5-point Likert-type scale is used instead, with '1' referring to one's strong disagreement and '5' indicating the opposite. Samples of the items include "Working directly with people puts a lot of stress on me", "I leave work feeling emotionally exhausted", and "I felt 'used up' at the end of the day".

### 3.2.2.3. Control Variables

Gender, age, education, and marital status are the control variables in the study. The gender variable is a dichotomous variable that differentiates between female and male, while the marital status variable is categorical consisting of never married, married, divorced, and widowed based on the statistical term glossary of

Statistics Indonesia[1].

Gender and marital status are included because previous studies indicated that women (Purvanova & Muros, 2010) and unmarried people (Maslach & Jackson, 1985) are more prone to burnout. The age variable is included as well because it is more prevalent in younger people (Bolino et al. 2015). Furthermore, one's educational attainment is a part of the control variables as less-educated people tend to experience it (Koivula et al., 2000).

Then, job tenure–a continuous variable measured in one's time length in one's current job–is controlled as a traditional variable (Patipiroon & Faerman, 2020). Job position, a dichotomous variable, is controlled to differentiate employees with managerial and non-managerial responsibilities. Employees with managerial responsibilities, especially in senior-level positions, have a higher likelihood to be stressed and burned out due to the complexities of their jobs and the management of a turbulent environment which ultimately takes a toll on their well-being (Haar, 2021).

In addition, income and workload–measured in the average number of hours worked–are included as the control variables in this study (Spector & Jex, 1998; Wang & Wang, 2021). These two variables are included as they are traditionally

---

[1] De facto union and married but legally separated are not included to fit the Indonesian context.

used in burnout research (Hickey, 2014). Workload, in particular also serves as a 'quantitative demand' one's experience at work can influence one's well-being (van Vegchel et al., 2004.)

Finally, perceived social support is controlled as a buffer against burnout (Fong et al., 2018; van Vegchel et al., 2004). The social support measurement is adopted from Fong et al. (2018). The scale consists of 5-item about social support from supervisors and another 5-item about social support from coworkers. A 5-point Likert-type scale is used and samples of the items are "Your supervisor is helpful to you in getting your job done" or "Your co-worker(s) is willing to listen to your work-related problems". A detailed description of the variables used in this study is summarized in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2. Variable Description**

| Variable | Description |
| --- | --- |
| **Dependent Variable** | |
| Burnout | A latent variable explaining one's burnout |
| **Independent Variables** | |
| PSM | A latent variable explaining one's PSM |
| Age | A continuous variable explaining one's age |
| Gender | Dummy variable for gender, with 0=male; 1=female |

| | |
|---|---|
| Education | Categorical variable for public employees' educational attainment, with 0=below bachelors' degree; 1=bachelors' degree/diploma IV [2]; 2=postgraduate degree |
| Marital Status | Categorical variable for marital status, with 0=never married; 1=married; 2=divorced; 3=widowed |
| Job Tenure | A continuous variable of the length of time one has been in the current job |
| Job Status | Dichotomous variable for job status, with 0=permanent public employee; 1=contractual public employee |
| Job Position | Dichotomous variable for job position, with 0=non-managerial; 1=managerial |
| Monthly Income | Categorical variable for one's monthly income with 1=1 to 5 million IDR; 2=5 to 10 million IDR; 3=10-15 million IDR; 4=15 to 20 million IDR; 5=> 20 million IDR |
| Workload | A continuous variable of one's average number of hours worked per day |
| Social Support from Supervisor | A latent variable for social support from supervisor(s) at work |
| Social Support from Co-Worker | A latent variable for social support from co-worker(s) at work |

---

[2] Diploma IV is equivalent to a bachelor's degree in Indonesia.

### 3.2.3. Analytics Techniques

The method of this study is quantitative and descriptive analysis will also be elaborated on the findings. For the data analysis method, multiple linear regression will be used to explore the association between PSM and burnout and the data will be sourced from the primary dataset.

# Chapter 4. Results and Findings

The result and discussion of this study are presented in this chapter. The elaboration on the descriptive findings, estimation results, and discussion will also be included.

## 4.1. Descriptive Findings

Table 4.1. provides the detail of the respondents' demographic data. Among the study sample, the participants are mostly women employees, accounting for 54.7% of the total sample. This reflects the current population of public employees in Indonesia in which 54% of them are women (Indonesian National Civil Service Agency, 2022). Over half of the respondents are unmarried, 44.5% are married, 2.3% are divorced, and 0.8% are widowed. In terms of educational attainment, about 70% of the respondents hold a bachelor's degree or its equivalence, followed by about 28% with a master's degree or PhD, and only less than 1% below a bachelor's degree. This finding is also similar to the population in which 70% of public employees in Indonesia have at least a bachelor's degree. It is mainly due to the mass hiring of public employees conducted in 2017 which required a bachelor's degree for one to apply (Indonesian National Civil Service Agency, 2022).

Table 4.1. Demographic Characteristics of Sample

| | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| **Gender** | | |
| Male | 58 | 45.3 |
| Female | 70 | 54.7 |
| **Marital Status** | | |
| Never Married | 67 | 52.3 |
| Married | 57 | 44.5 |
| Divorced | 3 | 2.3 |
| Widowed | 1 | 0.8 |
| **Education** | | |
| Below Bachelor's Degree | 1 | 0.8 |
| Bachelor's Degree/Diploma IV | 91 | 71.1 |
| Postgraduate Degree | 36 | 28.1 |
| **Job Status** | | |
| Permanent Public Employee | 126 | 98.4 |
| Contractual Public Employee | 2 | 1.6 |
| **Position** | | |
| Non-Managerial | 113 | 88.3 |
| Managerial | 15 | 11.7 |
| **Monthly Income** | | |
| 1 million to 5 million IDR | 5 | 3.9 |
| More than 5 million to 10 million IDR | 95 | 74.2 |
| More than 10 million to 15 million IDR | 18 | 14.1 |
| More than 15 million to 20 million IDR | 7 | 5.5 |
| More than 20 million IDR | 3 | 2.3 |

Furthermore, almost all respondents are public employees who are permanent employees with only 1.6% of the respondents being contractual-based. As there is no significant variance between the two categories, job statuses will be

25

excluded from the correlation and regression analysis further discussed in Chapter 4. Among the permanent ones, only 11.7% hold a managerial position, meanwhile, most of them belong to functional positions with no managerial responsibilities. This is consistent with the population as functional positions[3] are the most common job positions in public organizations in Indonesia. It is partly due to the current government's delayering policy towards a bureaucracy simplification by eliminating Echelon III and IV and converting it into functional positions to shorten the bureaucracy process.

In addition, respondents' monthly income varies with most of them earning more than 5 to 10 million IDR per month. Then, it is followed by around 14% of the respondents earning more than 10 to 15 million IDR, about 5% of them earning 15 to 20 million IDR, only about 4% of them earning 1 to 5 million IDR, and 2.3% of the respondents earn more than 20 million IDR per month.

**Table 4.2. Statistical Summary of Age, Job Tenure, and Workload**

|                     | N   | Min. | Max. | Mean   | Std. Dev. |
| ------------------- | --- | ---- | ---- | ------ | --------- |
| Age                 | 128 | 25   | 60   | 31.344 | 6.6255    |
| Job Tenure (months) | 128 | 5    | 396  | 74.758 | 71.7477   |
| Workload            | 128 | 7    | 15   | 9.4648 | 1.56636   |

Other demographic characteristics of the respondents are shown in detail in

---

[3] A functional position is a job position in the Indonesian government with no managerial roles but requires certain skills and expertise to perform tasks related to the main duty of the public organization.

Table 4.2 above. The table presents the statistical summary of age, job tenure, and workload. First of all, respondents' age varies ranging from 25 to 60 years old, with an average age of 31 years old. This finding reflects the common age range of public officials in Indonesia. Additionally, according to the Indonesian National Civil Service Agency (2022), the composition of the age group in the Indonesian central government is dominated by the 30-40 age group with 24.14%, 40-50 with 30.53%, 50-60 with 30.62%, and the rest is filled by other age groups. Accordingly, the selected sample in this study is more concentrated in the younger but it is still a part of dominating age group of 30 to 40.

In terms of job tenure, there is a large variation in how long respondents have worked in their current organization with those who have worked only for 5 months to 396 months—which is approximately 30 years. Although there is a large variation in tenure, this study finds on average public officials in the study sample have worked for 72.19 months or around 6 years. The Indonesian Civil Service Agency (2022) reported that 11 to 15 years is the most common job tenure of public employees in Indonesia, then followed by 0 to 5 years. This is because the Indonesian government has been recently dominated by young public employees who have started their careers in the last 5 years due to the civil service recruitment conducted in 2017 previously mentioned. Accordingly, the study sample still reflects the most current population of public employees in Indonesia regarding job tenure.

Finally, from Table 4.2, it can be seen that respondents' average number of hours worked per day is almost 9.5 hours per day. The minimum work hours are

around 7 hours while some respondents in the study sample work for almost 15 hours per day. There is no available data yet on the working hours of public officials in Indonesia from the Indonesian National Civil Service Agency; however, the regulated working hours for public employees in Indonesia are 7.5 hours per day. The finding of this study implies that most respondents work extra two hours on average each day than the expected normal working hours in public organizations.

**Table 4.3. Statistical Summary of PSM, Burnout, and Social Support from Supervisors and Co-Workers**

|  | N | Min. | Max. | Mean | Std. Dev. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PSM | 128 | 2.6 | 5 | 4.016 | 0.5316 |
| Burnout | 128 | 1 | 5 | 3.153 | 0.8992 |
| Social Support from Supervisors | 128 | 1 | 5 | 3.692 | 0.9269 |
| Social Support from Co-Workers | 128 | 1.4 | 5 | 3.98 | 0.7351 |

In addition to the descriptive findings of the demographic characteristics of the study sample, Table 4.3 below presents the statistical summary of the dependent variable and the variable of interest of this study–which is burnout and PSM respectively—as well as the control variables. First of all, it can be seen that the respondents have a relatively high PSM as the score is above 4 on average. Meanwhile, they reported a lesser burnout score of 3.15 on average.

In addition, for both social support employees receive at work (either from supervisors or coworkers), it can be seen that respondents reported a relatively similar score of roughly more than 3.5 on average. This indicates that most

respondents receive at least adequate social support in the workplace. It is expected as Indonesia's work culture is collectivist where employees receive abundant social support and collaborate with each other (Artina et al., 2020).

**Table 4.4. Means of PSM and Burnout Mean Score by Demographic Characteristics**

|  | PSM | Burnout |
|---|---|---|
| **Gender** | | |
| Male | 4.04 | 3 |
| Female | 3.99 | 3.28 |
| **Marital Status** | | |
| Never Married | 3.95 | 3.3 |
| Married | 4.05 | 3.01 |
| Divorced | 4.8 | 3 |
| Widowed | 4.4 | 2 |
| **Education** | | |
| Below Bachelor's Degree | 3.6 | 3.6 |
| Bachelor's Degree/Diploma IV | 3.98 | 3.19 |
| Postgraduate Degree | 4.12 | 3.03 |
| **Job Status** | | |
| Permanent Public Employee | 4.02 | 3.14 |
| Contractual Public Employee | 4 | 3.7 |
| **Position** | | |
| Non-Managerial | 3.96 | 3.16 |
| Managerial | 4.4 | 3.08 |
| **Monthly Income** | | |
| 1 million to 5 million IDR | 3.32 | 3.08 |
| More than 5 million to 10 million IDR | 3.98 | 3.18 |
| More than 10 million to 15 million IDR | 4.22 | 3.17 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| More than 15 million to 20 million IDR | 4.46 | 3.11 |
| More than 20 million IDR | 4.13 | 2.33 |

Table 4.4 further presents the distribution of the PSM and burnout on average if compared by demographic categories. From the table, it can be seen that male employees have on average a higher PSM score than women employees. This finding is different from a previous study which shows that PSM tends to be higher in women (Purvanova & Muros, 2010). Meanwhile, in terms of burnout, they reported a lesser score compared to their women counterparts. This is consistent with previous studies.

If compared through the marital status of the respondents, unmarried employees have the least PSM score compared to the rest of the respondents whose scores are above 4 on average. They, in the opposite manner, reported the highest burnout score compared to the others. This is in line with Maslach and Jackson's (1985) study that shows that burnout is more prone to occur among unmarried individuals compared to people with other marital statuses.

Furthermore, if compared by educational attainment, the data shows an interesting pattern where the higher one's education, the higher their PSM score. It is supported by a study that more education is associated with more PSM due to the connection between access to education, abstract thought, and the awareness of the value public service brings to society (Bright, 2005). However, a similar thing doesn't occur in the case of burnout. It can be seen from the table that the one with

the highest education has the highest burnout score. Meanwhile, those with the lowest score have a master's degree.

In addition, there is not much of a difference in either PSM or burnout score for each job status or job position. All respondents have relatively similar scores for both PSM and burnout. Finally, in terms of monthly income, respondents who have higher income tend to have higher PSM scores and lower burnout scores compared to other respondents.

## 4.2. Reliability and Validity Test

**Table 4.5. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test**

**KMO and Bartlett's Test**

| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. | | 0.732 |
|---|---|---|
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 461.31 |
| | df | 55 |
| | Sig. | 0 |

A factor analyses is used to assess whether they key variables of this study which are burnout, PSM, social support from supervisors, and social support from co-workers are valid. First of all, The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test is used to determine how suited the data is for factor analysis as seen in Table 4.5. The result shows that the KMO value is 0.732 and Sig is 0.000. As the value of KMO is 0.732> 0.5 and sig 0.000 <0.05, all variables are suited to be included in the factor analysis and the analysis then can be executed.

In particular, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is used to examine the construct validity. CFA is used rather than exploratory factor analysis to test the measurement scale properties used for the four variables previously mentioned. CFA will also present the overall fit to assess the hypothesized model.

First of all, the goodness of fit of the hypothesized model is shown in Table 4.6. Based on the result, the hypothesized model provides a considerably acceptable fit to the data with SRMR value of 0.129 which can still be considered small, Chi-Square value of 468.285, and the NFI value of 0.709 which is close to 1.

**Table 4.6. The Goodness of Fit of the Hypothesized Model**

| Goodness of Fit | Result |
|---|---|
| SRMR | 0.129 |
| d_ULS | 3.473 |
| d_G | 0.697 |
| Chi-Square | 468.285 |
| NFI | 0.709 |

**Table 4.7. Factor Loadings for Burnout, PSM, Social Support from**

**Supervisors, and Social Support from Co-Workers Scale**

| Factors and Items | Factor Loading |
|---|---|
| **Burnout** | |
| Working directly with people puts a lot of stress on me. | 0.722 |
| I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally. | 0.863 |
| I leave work feeling tired and run down. | 0.825 |
| I leave work feeling emotionally exhausted. | 0.880 |
| I felt 'used up' at the end of the day. | 0.844 |
| **PSM** | |
| Meaningful public service is important to me. | 0.603 |
| I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on one another. | 0.580 |
| Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements. | 0.671 |
| I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society. | 0.741 |
| I am not afraid to go to bat for the rights of others even if it means I will be ridiculed. | 0.779 |
| **Social Support from Supervisors** | |
| Your supervisor is willing to listen to your work-related problems. | 0.902 |
| Your supervisor is willing to listen to your personal problems. | 0.795 |
| Your supervisor is helpful to you in getting your job done. | 0.881 |
| It is easy to talk to your supervisor. | 0.860 |
| Your supervisor can be relied on when things get tough at work. | 0.887 |
| **Social Support from Co-Workers** | |
| Your co-worker(s) is willing to listen to your work-related problems. | 0.745 |
| Your co-worker(s) is willing to listen to your personal problems. | 0.878 |

| | |
|---|---|
| Your co-worker(s) is helpful to you in getting your job done. | 0.684 |
| It is easy to talk to your co-worker(s). | 0.881 |
| Your co-worker(s) can be relied on when things get tough at work. | 0.745 |

All factor loadings are significant.

Furthermore, Table 4.7 provides the factor loading for the scale of each variable. Based on the result, it can be seen that all factors provide a good fit to the data. The factor loadings are also satisfactory, ranging from 0.580 to 0.902. There is no item that has a factor loading below 0.5.

The Cronbach's alpha was also used to determine whether the series of questions used to construct variables such as PSM, burnout, social support from supervisors and social support from co-workers are reliable in measuring such constructs or whether they have internal consistency. If the value of Cronbach's alpha of each variable is more than 0.7, it indicates a high internal consistency which means the construct assessed is reliable.

**Table 4.8. Assessment of Reliability of PSM, Burnout, and Social Support from Supervisors and Co-Workers**

| Variable | Cronbach's Alpha |
|---|---|
| PSM | 0.718 |
| Burnout | 0.888 |
| Social Support from Supervisors | 0.915 |
| Social Support from Co-Workers | 0.881 |

The above table shows the assessment of the reliability of the constructs. It can be seen that all of the four above-mentioned variables have Cronbach's alpha value of more than 0.7 which indicates a high internal consistency; thus, all items used to construct PSM, burnout, social support from supervisors, and social support from co-workers are reliable in measuring those variables.

## 4.3. Estimation Results

Several statistical tests were conducted to check whether the primary dataset meets the classical assumption underlying Ordinary Least Square. First of all, the residuals are normally distributed from the value of Asymptotic Sig.(2-sided test) which is larger than 0.05 as seen indicated in Table 4.9. There is no multicollinearity because all Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values are below 10 as seen in Table 4.10. According to Table 4.11, heteroscedasticity is also not found in the dataset as the value of Sig. (1-tailed) of all variables are more than 0.05. These results imply that a linear regression model can be used in this study.

**Table 4.9. One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Normal Test Summary**

| Total N | | 126 |
|---|---|---|
| Most Extreme Differences | Absolute | 0.05 |
| | Positive | 0.05 |
| | Negative | -0.045 |
| Test Statistic | | 0.05 |
| Asymptotic Sig.(2-sided test)[a] | | .200[b] |
| | Sig. | 0.626 |

| | | Lower Bound | 0.614 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Monte Carlo Sig.(2-sided test)$^c$ | 99% Confidence Interval | Upper Bound | 0.638 |

a. Lilliefors Corrected

b. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

c. Lilliefors' method based on 10000 Monte Carlo samples with starting seed 221623948.

**Table 4.10. Multicollinearity Test Summary**

| Model | | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Tolerance | VIF |
| 1 | PSM | 0.79329 | 1.26058 |
| | Social Support from Supervisors | 0.8823 | 1.1334 |
| | Social Support from Co-Workers | 0.84158 | 1.18825 |
| | Age | 0.13225 | 7.56168 |
| | Job Tenure | 0.14221 | 7.03177 |
| | Workload | 0.93843 | 1.06561 |
| | Gender | 0.88244 | 1.13322 |
| | Marital Status | 0.5243 | 1.90729 |
| | Education | 0.73277 | 1.36469 |
| | Job Position | 0.64941 | 1.53985 |
| | Monthly Income | 0.68199 | 1.466 |

a. Dependent Variable: Burnout (Y)

**Table 4.11. Heteroscedasticity Test Summary**

| | | Variable | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | PSM | Social Support from Supervisors | Social Support from Co-Workers | Age | Gender | Marital Status | Education | Job Tenure | Monthly Income | Workload |
| Unstandardized Residual | Correlation Coefficient | 0.03 | 0.067 | 0.069 | 0.022 | 0.026 | -0.014 | -0.049 | -0.034 | 0.02 | 0.065 |
| | Sig. (1-tailed) | 0.37 | 0.229 | 0.221 | 0.404 | 0.385 | 0.437 | 0.293 | 0.355 | 0.412 | 0.234 |
| | N | 126 | 126 | 126 | 126 | 126 | 126 | 126 | 126 | 126 | 126 |

**Table 4.12. The Bivariate Correlations of Study Variables**

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1. Burnout** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| **2. PSM** | -0.07 | | | | | | | | | | |
| **3. Social Support from Supervisors** | -0.2* | 0.22* | | | | | | | | | |
| **4. Social Support from Co-Workers** | 0.08 | 0.26** | 0.23* | | | | | | | | |
| **5. Age** | -0.12 | 0.21* | 0.04 | -0.05 | | | | | | | |
| **6. Job Tenure** | -0.13 | 0.23** | 0.01 | -0.11 | 0.91** | | | | | | |
| **7. Workload** | 0.25** | 0.09 | 0.06 | 0.05 | -0.12 | -0.12 | | | | | |
| **8. Gender** | 0.15*** | -0.05 | -0.09 | -0.05 | -0.06 | -0.03 | 0.00 | | | | |
| **9. Marital Status** | -0.18* | 0.20* | 0.13 | -0.04 | 0.65** | 0.59** | -0.12 | -0.14 | | | |
| **10. Education** | -0.09 | 0.14 | -0.01 | -0.08 | 0.41** | 0.35** | 0.08 | -0.21 | 0.37** | | |
| **11. Job Position** | -0.03 | 0.26** | 0.12 | 0.07 | 0.40** | 0.45** | 0.02 | -0.25** | 0.38** | 0.31** | |
| **12. Monthly Income** | -0.09 | 0.29** | 0.14 | 0.07 | 0.46** | 0.45** | -0.04 | -0.17* | 0.26** | 0.28** | 0.39** |

* Significant at 5%; ** at 1%; ***at 10%.

Prior to examining the result of the regression, bivariate correlations are conducted to explore the linear relationship between the dependent and independent variables as seen in Table 4.12. The finding shows there is no correlation between PSM and burnout. In terms of social support in the workplace, only support from supervisors is positively and significantly related to burnout. Other variables that have a positive correlation with the dependent variable are workload and gender, in which working for extra hours and being a woman increase one's burnout. Meanwhile, a negative correlation is found between marital status and burnout but the size of the relation is relatively weak as the correlation coefficient is close to zero.

In addition, most of the variables are not highly correlated except age and job tenure. One of these two variables will be dropped in the regression analysis. Two models are compared and the one where job tenure is included is superior to the one which includes age. The value of Sig. in ANOVA is less than 0.01 and the adjusted R-square value is also higher. Thus, the model which includes job tenure and excludes age is chosen.

The result of the multiple regression model chosen to explore the relationship between PSM and burnout is delivered in Table 4.13. From the table, the goodness-of-fit of the model can be assessed. It is shown that the value of Sig. in ANOVA is smaller than 0.01 which indicates that at least one variable in the model is statistically significant for explaining the dependent variable; hence, the model is fit and significant in predicting the dependent variable (i.e. burnout). Furthermore, in terms of the adjusted R-square, 10.45% of the variation is explained by the model.

Besides the model fit, Table 4.13 presents the relationship between PSM and public employees' burnout. With and without control variables, the estimation results show that PSM doesn't significantly increase one's burnout as a public employee. In this study, no significant link between the two variables is found.

**Table 4.13. The Multiple Regression Result of the Study Variables**

|  | Estimate | Std. Err. | VIF |
|---|---|---|---|
| PSM | -0.096 | 0.159 | 1.255 |
| Social Support from Supervisors | -0.241* | 0.087 | 1.133 |
| Social Support from Co-Workers | 0.155 | 0.111 | 1.161 |
| Job Tenure | -0.003 | 0.008 | 2.036 |
| Workload | 0.715* | 0.249 | 1.066 |
| Gender | 1.229 | 0.804 | 1.133 |
| Marital Status | -0.598 | 0.842 | 1.721 |
| Education | -0.513 | 0.931 | 1.313 |
| Job Position | 1.434 | 1.428 | 1.493 |
| Monthly Income | 0.027 | 0.619 | 1.437 |
| N | | 128 | |
| Adj. $R^2$ | | 0.1045 | |
| Sign. In ANOVA | | 0.0098 | |
| F | | 2.48 | |

* Significant at 1%.

Meanwhile, of the control variables, most of them have no significant effects on burnout. Only two variables–social support from supervisors and workload–are significant. Table 4.13 shows that social support from supervisors positively and

significantly decreases employee burnout by 0.241 points. This means the higher the social support employees receive from their supervisors at work, the lower their burnout.

Workload–which is measured by one's reported working hours per day–appears to have a significant impact as well. Table 4.11 reveals that if public employees spend one more hour at their workplace, it will increase their burnout by 0.715 points. Accordingly, if employees spend longer hours for work, they will experience higher burnout.

While social support from supervisors and workload appears to have predictable effects, the rest of the control variables show insignificance. As seen in Table 4.11, social support from co-workers is found to be statistically insignificant decreasing one's burnout in the workplace. The result also shows that one's age, gender, marital status, education, job status (i.e. whether employees are permanent civil servants or not), job tenure, job position, and monthly income have no significant effects on one's burnout.

## 4.4. Discussion

Based on the hypothesis of this study, it is expected that PSM is positively associated with public employees' burnout. It is because employees with PSM are likely to define their role broader, leading them to work beyond what is required. Working longer hours, on their day off, and outside office hours then become some

of the extra-role behaviors they are engaged in (Butucescu et al., 2019). They feel obliged to do these work behaviors as a part of their normal job responsibilities (van Loon et al, 2015). Going above and beyond and engaging in extra-role behaviors demand great time and energy. If these one's valuable resources–according to the COR theory–are drained, an adverse impact can ensue (Hobfoll et al., 2018). This can result in employee burnout (van Loon et al., 2015).

In this study, however, PSM is found to be statistically insignificant in increasing public employees' burnout. This finding doesn't support the hypothesis that burnout will occur because employees with PSM work too much to the extent it depletes their personal resources (e.g. time and energy). The result of this study then is not consistent with previous research finding that PSM had a positive relationship with work-related stress because employees raise the bar with what they thought was a satisfactory job performance, leading to increased pressure for them (Giauque et al., 2013). It also doesn't show a consistent result with the finding of van Loon et al. (2015)'s research that high-PSM individuals go the extra mile in their work and overuse their resources leading to higher burnout.

It is noteworthy these two constructs do not appear to be related directly as found by other studies such as by Bright 2007, Wright and Pandey (2008) as well as Rayner and Reimes (2017). Hence, this study adds to the body of research in this field through its finding that the relation between PSM and job burnout is not always a consistent one. Indeed, the literature on the relationship between the two is rather mixed—from positive (e.g. van Loon et al., 2015), negative (e.g. Palma & Septe,

2016), to even no significant link between the two variables (e.g. Rayner & Reimes, 2017).

The most plausible explanation for the insignificance of PSM on burnout is the context and country differences in which PSM is being studied may have been underestimated. As the data used in this study come from Indonesia, which is a developing country in Southeast Asia, it may have different results than previous research that focused on developed countries such as the Netherlands (van Loon et al., 2015). It is possible that going above and beyond in one's work could be more or less emotionally and physically draining in other countries if the cultural and country context is taken into consideration.

Indonesia has a highly collectivistic culture in the workplace where employees receive plenty of social support and collaborate with each other. This is due to the influence of the Indonesian culture of *'gotong royong'* which is embedded in the society, including the workforce (Artina et al., 2020). The previously mentioned extra-role behaviors (i.e. working outside office hours) then are likely to consume fewer resources (i.e. draining one's time and energy) than in a culture that is individualist as found by Bolino et al. (2015). This perhaps can be the possible explanation for why there is no significant relationship between PSM and burnout in the context of Indonesian society.

Another possible explanation contributing to the insignificance of PSM on burnout is not all individuals will experience the same impact due to going above

and beyond in their work. The majority of respondents in this study sample are high-PSM employees. These individuals are considered to have a high self-motivation (Perry & Wise, 1990), be fond of working for meaningful and impactful jobs (Belle, 2013), and see contributions as an essential part of their work (Potipiroon & Faerman, 2020). They are internally motivated, rather than externally motivated (Potipiroon & Faerman, 2020).

Having a work ethic and being committed to serving society as their strengths, these employees who have a high level of PSM may be suited for the job demand of public service works which requires individuals to go above and beyond in their work. These high-PSM employees are more likely to define their roles more broadly which leads them not just to comply with a bare minimum and could view this extra-role behavior as a contribution to their organizations (Karolid & Vouzas, 2019), and society as a whole (Jensen & Vestergaard, 2017) instead of a work pressure. Accordingly, time-demanding jobs such as working extra hours at work can be fitted for them. Moreover, these work behaviors are viewed to be a good match with their identity and considered to be their ways of acting on their prosocial values. These employees who find their jobs to be important and meaningful are more likely to view the time-demanding jobs as an acceptable in-role difficulty and prospect to be grown and accomplished as an individual, rather than an overwhelming task (Potipiroon & Faerman, 2020).

The supporting empirical evidence of these propositions is provided by some studies (e.g. Lu et al., 2015; Shim et al., 2017). For instance, PSM is found to work

as a buffer against the adverse effect of job stressors on the well-being of police in China—either physically or mentally—in which only low-PSM officers experience a more intense impact (Lu et al., 2015). Similarly, a high level of PSM is able to weaken the adverse effect of job demands on one's emotional exhaustion and emotional exhaustion and turnover among Korean public officials (Shim et al., 2017). It can be the reason why PSM–when it is high–is found to be insignificant to employee burnout. Moreover, based on the estimation result, the effect of PSM on burnout showed somewhat of a negative sign, although the effect was insignificant. This may suggest that PSM does serve as a buffer against one's burnout, however, it should be interpreted with caution.

Furthermore, the estimation results show that some control variables deliver statistically significant results. First of all, social support supervisors is negatively associated with public employees' burnout. This is as expected and in line with a previous study that shows social support from supervisors worked as a buffer against burnout (van Vegchel et al, 2004). Help from a supervisor in the case of having too much work, for instance, could indeed significantly decrease employees' burnout. Accordingly, the finding of this study supports the argument that public employees who receive social support from their supervisors experience less burnout.

Although the Indonesian workforce values collectivism where collaboration is encouraged, this country also has a high power distance culture. This means seniority plays an important role in society. In the workplace, all of the decisions depend on the supervisors or managers, and employees are expected to be told what

to do and when. The work culture is less participatory as workers tend to be afraid to express opinions due to their dependence on and respect for their supervisors (Artina et al., 2020). In addition, transactional leadership is commonly found in an environment with high power distance. It is found that this type of leadership is positively related to stress (Rowold & Scholtz, 2009).  As public employees in Indonesia may be influenced by this circumstance, social support from supervisors becomes highly important. If social support from supervisors at work is abundant, it will make a meaningful difference in the workplace. Hence, this is perhaps one of the reasons why there is a positive and significant effect of receiving support from supervisors on public employees in Indonesia as found in this study.

In addition, the result shows that a high workload can increase burnout. This finding is consistent with Hickey (2014)'s study which indicated that workload– measured by one's working hours–remains central to work stress and emotional exhaustion, leading to employee burnout. Supported by the finding of this study, employees who have a higher workload (i.e. working longer hours) indeed suffer higher burnout.

# Chapter 5. Discussion and Conclusion

This final chapter presents some final discussion and conclusion of the study. The summary of findings, the contribution of the study, the limitation of the study, and the direction for future research are explained in detail below.

## 5.1. Summary of Findings

There have been extensive studies on PSM over the past decades. Its literature mainly points out its bright sides for public employees, while its potential dark sides have only started to receive scholars' attention in recent years. As there are always two sides of a coin, it is crucial to investigate the potential negative impact of PSM on employees.

Employee burnout is one of the possible dark sides of PSM. Although it is found to have many positive effects on employees, a high level of PSM may lead to burnout as workers go above and beyond in their work and drain their personal resources such as their time or energy to an extent that depletes their well-being and increase their burnout.

In light of the above, the purpose of this study is to examine whether PSM is positively related to employee burnout in public organizations. Based on a sample of 128 public employees working in the Indonesian central government, the result

shows that PSM is insignificant in increasing employee burnout. The hypothesis of this study then is not supported.

Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that previous studies have also been incapable to connect these two constructs directly. Despite that, this study still adds to the existing literature by empirically investigating the inconsistent relationship between PSM and employee burnout. Indeed, the literature on the relationship between the two shows mixed results.

One plausible explanation for the insignificance is the context and country differences in which PSM is being studied may have been underestimated. As the data used in this study come from a single and developing country, the result may differ from other studies in other settings. It is possible that going above and beyond in one's work could be more or less emotionally and physically draining in other countries if the cultural and country context is taken into consideration.

In fact, Indonesia values collectivism in the workplace where employees receive plenty of social support and where they collaborate with each other. Extra-role behaviors such as working outside office hours then are more likely to be less consuming of one's time and energy, for instance, than in more individualistic cultures. Hence, the insignificant direct effect of PSM on burnout in the context of Indonesian society may also be explained by this.

The other possible explanation is not all individuals will experience the same

impact from the demands of going above and beyond at work. Most respondents in this study are high-PSM employees who have high self-motivation, care for meaningful work that has a societal impact, and regard their public service works as suitable to their identity. Burnout is less likely to occur among these individuals. It is because they have a work ethic and are highly committed to serving society that makes them fit well with the inherent demand of public service works which requires individuals to go beyond and above. They view time-demanding jobs and extra-role work behaviors as acceptable difficulties in their jobs rather than hindrances as well as a contribution to their organizations and citizens at large.

Another finding of this study points out that social support supervisors can decrease public employees' burnout. It is in line with a previous study that shows social support from supervisors worked as a buffer against burnout as help from a supervisor when one has too much to do at work, for instance, could indeed significantly decrease employees' burnout.

Besides a highly collectivistic culture, it is important to take note that this country also has a high power distance culture. Seniority plays an important role in society, all of the decisions depend on the supervisors or managers, and employees are expected to be told what to do and when are some of the examples. The work culture is less participatory as workers tend to be afraid to express opinions due to their dependence on and respect for their supervisors. Accordingly, transactional leadership is commonly found in this work environment. Employees are more prone

to stress under this leadership.

As public employees in Indonesia may be influenced by this circumstance, social support from supervisors becomes highly important. If social support from supervisors at work is abundant, it will make a meaningful difference in the workplace. Thus, this is perhaps one of the reasons why this study finds that social support from supervisors has a positive effect on reducing burnout among Indonesian public employees.

Finally, a high workload—measured by one's daily working hours—is found to be positively related to burnout. This finding is consistent with a previous study. Indeed, workload remains central to work stress and emotional exhaustion which results in employee burnout.

## 5.2. Contribution of the Study

## 5.2.1. Theoretical Implications

Most of the existing literature between PSM and burnout has used cross-sectional data; thus, those studies were not able to prevent the possibility of reversed causation between the two variables. Meanwhile, in this study, the variables were separated in time. It was to ensure that the independent variable (i.e. PSM) precedes the dependent variable (i.e. burnout) in time. In this study, the same set of variables was measured at two different points by conducting the survey two times with a time lag. Methodologically, the association between the initial values of variables and

their changes over time provides stronger evidence than the association from measuring those variables simultaneously. Thus, this is one of the contributions of the study to the existing body of research and it is also the main strength of this study.

In addition, the finding of this study will add knowledge to the growing number of studies on the adverse effect of PSM on employee burnout which has just received scholars' attention in recent years. Moreover, this study will add knowledge to the existing literature in a different setting and context than previous studies which mainly focused on public organizations or employees in developed countries. To the author's knowledge, this is the first study that empirically investigates the possible negative impact of PSM on burnout in the Indonesian context. This research then can be a meaningful contribution to future research in this area which considers the context of Indonesian society or developing country.

## 5.2.2. Practical Implications

This study gives public organizations insights into the influence of employees' motivation to serve society—or known as PSM—on their burnout in the workplace. The result of this study may imply that high-PSM individuals are somewhat unaffected by the potential negative impact (i.e. burnout) of going the extra mile in their work. This suggests that working in the public sector is likely to fit these individuals. In light of this, the finding of this study points out that it is highly important to select PSM individuals and put them in jobs that are congruent with PSM values.

The result of this research is expected to give public organizations insights into how employees' motivation in the public sector may influence their burnout in the workplace. It can be a lesson for public organizations to better manage job burnout among their workers as motivation to serve society may lead to a negative impact on employees. PSM itself is not a problem, but too much PSM can be detrimental to employees.

However, this is not a suggestion for public managers to start exploiting the goodwill of these highly-motivated employees by giving extra work to them. Instead, it is important for public managers to provide a supporting system that meets the needs of these employees. As found in the study, social support from supervisors—particularly—positively and significantly decreases public employees' burnout. This implies that is crucial for public organizations to maintain or even improve a supportive environment and equip managers with essential skills to minimize the possibility of job burnout.

Furthermore, such efforts shall be extended to employees with a relatively lower level of PSM. Public managers may need to look out for the vulnerable ones at higher risk of burnout, such as those who work late as found in this study.

## 5.3. Limitation of Study

This study has several limitations. First of all, this study was centered on the

Indonesian central government officials, thus; the results may not be generalizable to all public employees that also include local government officers which made up most of the population. Thus, future research may benefit from testing with this study sample as well.

Secondly, the sample used in this study is relatively small due to the time constraint in the data collection some variables may not have a sufficient representation of their population. For instance, most of the respondents belong to the age group of 30 to 40 years old. Meanwhile, older public employees are slightly under-represented. Although around 24% of the Indonesian central government officials are in their 30s to 40s, those in their 50s to 60s still account for 30.62% of the total public employees. Hence, future studies shall include a larger sample size to better represent the population.

## 5.4. Direction for Future Research

The body of research on the relationship between PSM and burnout has shown inconsistent results—from positive, negative, to no significant link between the two variables. Moreover, as discussed previously, it is recognized that the context in which PSM exists and being studied may be relevant to be considered as previous studies has shown different results which were due to the institutional and international differences. In light of this, scholars may consider contextual factors such as the cultural or institutional context in their future studies when examining PSM and its outcomes.

# Bibliography

Alonso, P., & Lewis, G. B. (2001). Public Service Motivation and Job Performance: Evidence From the Federal Sector. *The American Review of Public Administration*, *31*(4), 363-380. https://doi.org/10.1177/02750740122064992

Artina, B. S., Fitriyah, F., & Rizkita, R. G. (2020). The Workforce in Indonesian Organizations: An Analysis Based Upon the Cultural Dimensions of Hofstede's Model. *Journal of International Conference Proceedings*, *30*(1), 56-64. https://ejournal.aibpm.org/index.php/JICP/article/view/780

Bakker, A. B. (2015). A Job Demands–Resources Approach to Public Service Motivation. *Public Administration Review*, *75*(5), 723-732. https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12388

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The Job Demands-Resources model: state of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *22*(3), 309-328. https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940710733115

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2017). Job demands–resources theory: Taking stock and looking forward. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *22*(3), 273-285. http://doi.org/10.1037/ocp0000056

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., de Boer, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2003). Job demands and job resources as predictors of absence duration and frequency. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *62*(2), 341–356. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-8791(02)00030-1

Behn, R. D. (1995). The Big Questions of Public Management. *Public Administration Review*, *55*(4), 313-324. https://doi.org/10.2307/977122

Bellé, N. (2013). Experimental Evidence on the Relationship between Public Service Motivation and Job Performance. *Public Administration Review*, *73*(1), 143-153. https://www.jstor.org/stable/23355447

Bies, R. J. (1989). Reviewed Work: Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Good Soldier Syndrome by Dennis W. Organ. *The Academy of Management Review*, *14*(2), 294-297. https://www.jstor.org/stable/258426

Bolino, M. C., Hsiung, H.-H., Harvey, J., & LePine, J. A. (2015). "Well, I'm tired of tryin'!" Organizational citizenship behavior and citizenship fatigue. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(1), 56–74. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0037583

Boonratana, V., & Gharleghi, B. (2015). Determinants of the Job Burnout in Public Sector Employees in Malaysia. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *10*(6). http://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v10n6p208

Bria, M., Spânu, F., Băban, A., & Dumitraşcu, D. L. (2014). Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey: Factorial validity and invariance among Romanian healthcare professionals. *Burnout Research*, *1*(3), 103-111. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.burn.2014.09.001

Bright, L. (2005). Public Employees With High Levels of Public Service Motivation: Who Are They, Where Are They, and What do They Want? *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *25*(2), 138–154. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X04272360

Bright, L. (2008). Does Public Service Motivation Really Make a Difference on the Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions of Public Employees? *The*

*American Review of Public Administration*, *38*(2), 149-166.
https://doi.org/10.1177/0275074008317248

Burke, R. J., & Deszca, E. (1986). Correlates of Psychological Burnout Phases among Police Officers. *Human Relations*, *39*(6), 487-501. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872678603900601

Butucescu, A., Zanfirescu, A. Ș., & Iliescu, D. (2020). The whys and wherefores of going the extra-mile as public health workers. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *153*, 1-6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2019.109646

Camilleri, E. (2007). Antecedents affecting public service motivation. *Personnel Review*, *36*(3), 356-377. https://doi.org/10.1108/00483480710731329

Cordes, C. L., & Dougherty, T. W. (1993). A review and an integration of research on job burnout. *Academy of Management Review*, *18*(4), 621-656. https://doi.org/10.2307/258593

Crossley, C. D., Bennett, R. J., Jex, S. M., & Burnfield, J. L. (2007). Development of a global measure of job embeddedness and integration into a traditional model of voluntary turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(4), 1031–1042. http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.4.1031

Denhardt, R. B., & Denhardt, J. V. (2000). The New Public Service: Serving Rather Than Steering. *Public Administration Review*, *60*(6), 549-559. http://www.jstor.org/stable/977437

Diefenbach, T. (2009). New Public Management in Public Sector Organizations: The Dark Side of Managerialistic 'Enlightenment'. *Public Administration*, *87*(4), 892-909. 10.1111/j.1467-9299.2009.01766.x

Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (1982). Inferred sex differences in status as a determinant of gender stereotypes about social influence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *43*(5), 915–928. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.43.5.915

Esteve, M., Schuster, C., Albareda, A., & Losada, C. (2017). The Effects of Doing More with Less in the Public Sector: Evidence from a Large-Scale Survey. *Public Administration Review*, *77*(4), 544-553. https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12766

Fong, L. H. N., Chui, P. M. W., Cheong, I. S. C., & Fong, D. K. C. (2018). Moderating effects of social support on job stress and turnover intentions. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, *27*(7), 795–810. https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2018.1446862

Freudenberger, H. J. (1975). The staff burn-out syndrome in alternative institutions. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research & Practice*, *12*(1), 73-82. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0086411

Giauque, D., Anderfuhren-Biget, S., & Varone, F. (2013). Stress Perception in Public Organisations: Expanding the Job Demands–Job Resources Model by Including Public Service Motivation. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *33*(1), 58-83. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X12443264

Giauque, D., Ritz, A., Frédéric, & Anderfuhren-Biget, S. (2012). Resigned But Satisfied: The Negative Impact of Public Service Motivation and Red Tape on Work Satisfaction. *Public Administration*, *90*(1), 175-193. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9299.2011.01953.x

Gould-Williams, J. S., Mostafa, A. M. S., & Bottomley, P. (2015). Public Service Motivation and Employee Outcomes in the Egyptian Public Sector: Testing the Mediating Effect of Person-Organization Fit. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, *25*(2), 597–622. https://doi.org/10.1093/jopart/mut053

Grant, A. M. (2008). Employees without a Cause: The Motivational Effects of Prosocial Impact in Public Service. *International Public Management Journal*, *11*(1), 48-66. https://doi.org/10.1080/10967490801887905

Guy, M. E., Newman, M. A., & Mastracci, S. H. (2008). *Emotional Labor: Putting the Service in Public Service*. M.E. Sharpe.

Haar, J. (2021). The State of Job Burnout Amongst New Zealand Managers: Implications for Employment Relations. *New Zealand Journal of Employment Relations, 46(1): 36-50*, *46*(1), 36-50. https://doi.org/10.24135/nzjer.v46i1.49

Hickey, R. (2014). Prosocial Motivation, Stress and Burnout Among Direct Support Workers. *Journal of Applied Research in Intellectual Disabilities*, *27*(2), 134-144. Prosocial Motivation, Stress and Burnout Among Direct Support Workers

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, *44*(3), 513–524. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.44.3.513

Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The Influence of Culture, Community, and the Nested-Self in the Stress Process: Advancing Conservation of Resources Theory. *Applied Psychology*, *50*(3), 337-421. https://doi.org/10.1111/1464-0597.00062

Hobfoll, S. E., Halbesleben, J., Neveu, J.-P., & Westman, M. (2018). Conservation of Resources in the Organizational Context: The Reality of Resources and Their Consequences. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *5*, 103–128. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032117-104640

Homberg, F., McCarthy, D., & Tabvuma, V. (2015). A Meta-Analysis of the Relationship between Public Service Motivation and Job Satisfaction. *Public Administration Review*, *75*(5), 711-722. https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12423

Hsieh, C.-W., Jin, M. H., & Guy, M. E. (2012). Consequences of Work-Related Emotions: Analysis of a Cross-Section of Public Service Workers. *The American Review of Public Administration*, *42*(1), 39-53. https://doi.org/10.1177/0275074010396078

The Indonesian National Civil Service Agency. (2022). *Buku Statistik Aparatur Sipil Negara Juni 2022*. https://www.bkn.go.id/unggahan/2022/08/STATISTIK-ASN-Jun-2022.pdf

Ingrams, A. (2020). Organizational Citizenship Behavior in the Public and Private Sectors: A Multilevel Test of Public Service Motivation and Traditional Antecedents. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *40*(2), 222-244. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X18800372

Jeffrey R., E., & Rothbard, N. P. (2000). Mechanisms Linking Work and Family: Clarifying the Relationship Between Work and Family Constructs. *Academy of Management Review*, *25*(1), 178–199. https://doi.org/10.2307/259269

Jensen, U. T., Andersen, L. B., & Holten, A.-L. (2019). Explaining a Dark Side: Public Service Motivation, Presenteeism, and Absenteeism. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *39*(4), 487-510. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X17744865

Jensen, U. T., & Vestergaard, C. F. (2017). Public Service Motivation and Public Service Behaviors: Testing the Moderating Effect of Tenure. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, *27*(1), 52-67. https://doi.org/10.1093/jopart/muw045

Karolidis, D., & Vouzas, F. (2019). From PSM to Helping Behavior in the Contemporary Greek Public Sector: The Roles of Organizational Identification and Job Satisfaction. *Public Performance & Management Review*, *42*(6), 1418-1447. https://doi.org/10.1080/15309576.2019.1592762

Kim, S. (2005). Individual-Level Factors and Organizational Performance in Government Organizations. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, *15*(2), 245-261. https://www.jstor.org/stable/3525699

Kim, S. (2009). Revising Perry's Measurement Scale of Public Service Motivation. *The American Review of Public Administration*, *39*(2), 149-163. https://doi.org/10.1177/0275074008317681

Koivula, M., Paunonen, M., & Laippala, P. (2000). Burnout among nursing staff in two Finnish hospitals. *Journal of Nursing Management*, *8*(3), 149-158. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2834.2000.00167.x

Koumenta, M. (2015). Public service motivation and organizational citizenship. *Public Money & Management*, *35*(5), 341-348. https://doi.org/10.1080/09540962.2015.1061169

Leiter, M. P., Hakanen, J. J., Ahola, K., Toppinen-Tanner, S., Koskinen, A., & Väänänen, A. (2013). Organizational predictors and health consequences of changes in burnout: A 12-year cohort study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *34*(7), 959-973. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1830

Liu, B., & Perry, J. L. (2016). The Psychological Mechanisms of Public Service Motivation: A Two-Wave Examination. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, *36*(1), 4-30. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X14549672

Liu, B., Tang, N., & Zhu, X. (2008). Public Service Motivation and Job Satisfaction in China: An Investigation of Generalisability and Instrumentality. *International Journal of Manpower*, *29*(8), 684-699. https://doi.org/10.1108/01437720810919297.

Liu, B., Yang, K., & Yu, W. (2015). Work-related stressors and health-related outcomes in public service: Examining the role of public service motivation. *The American Review of Public Administration*, *45*(6), 653-673. https://doi.org/10.1177/027507401452429

Liu, B., Zhang, X., Du, L., & Hu, Q. (2015). Validating the Construct of Public Service Motivation in For-profit Organizations: A preliminary study. *Public Management Review*, *17*(2), 262-287. https://doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2013.798023

Lubbadeh, T. (2020). Job Burnout: A General Literature Review. *International Review of Management and Marketing*, *10*(3), 7-15. https://doi.org/10.32479/irmm.9398

Maslach, C. (1976). Burned-out. *Human Behavior*, *5*(9), 16-22.

Maslach, C. (1986). Stress, burnout, and workaholism. In R. W. Thoreson, P. E. Nathan, & R. R. Kilburg (Eds.), *Professionals in Distress: Issues, Syndromes, and Solutions in Psychology* (pp. 53-75). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/10056-004

Maslach, C. (2001). What have we learned about burnout and health? *Psychology & Health*, *16*(5), 607-611. https://doi.org/10.1080/08870440108405530

Maslach, C. (2003). Job Burnout: New Directions in Research and Intervention. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *12*(5), 189-192. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.01258

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, *2*(2), 99-113. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030020205

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1984). Burnout in Organizational Settings. In S. Oskamp (Ed.), *Applied Social Psychology Annual: Applications in Organizational Settings* (pp. 133-153). SAGE Publications.

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1985). The role of sex and family variables in burnout. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, *12*, 837–851. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00287876

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1997). Maslach Burnout Inventory: Third edition. In C. P. Zalaquett & R. J. Wood (Eds.), *Evaluating stress: A book of resources* (pp. 191–218). Scarecrow Education.

Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (2008). Early predictors of job burnout and engagement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(3), 498-512. http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.3.498

Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (2016). Understanding the burnout experience: recent research and its implications for psychiatry. *World Psychiatry*, *15*(2), 103-111. https://doi.org/10.1002/wps.20311

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job Burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *52*, 397-422. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.397

Mingus, M. S., & Jing, Z. (2017). The Big Questions of Chinese Public Management Research. *Administration & Society*, *46*(6), 775-797. https://doi.org/10.1177/0095399716636926

Moore, J. E. (2000). Why is This Happening? A Causal Attribution Approach to Work Exhaustion Consequences. *The Academy of Management Review*, *25*(2), 335-349. https://doi.org/10.2307/259017

Pandey, S., & Stazyk, E. (2008). Antecedents and Correlates of Public Service Motivation. In A. Hondeghem & J. L. Perry (Eds.), *Motivation in Public Management: The Call of Public Service*. OUP Oxford.

Perry, J. L. (1996). Measuring Public Service Motivation: An Assessment of Construct Reliability and Validity. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, *6*(1), 5-22. https://www.jstor.org/stable/1181620

Perry, J. L. (1997). Antecedents of Public Service Motivation. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, *7*(2), 181-197. https://www.jstor.org/stable/1181709

Perry, J. L., Hondeghem, A., & Wise, L. R. (2010). Revisiting the Motivational Bases of Public Service: Twenty Years of Research and an Agenda for the

Future. *Public Administration Review*, *70*(5), 681-690. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2010.02196.x

Perry, J. L., & Porter, L. W. (1982). Factors affecting the context for motivation in public organization. *Academy of Management.the Academy of Management Review (Pre-1986)*, *7*(000001), 89-98. https://www.proquest.com/scholarly-journals/factors-affecting-context-motivation-public/docview/230061632/se-2?accountid=6802

Perry, J. L., & Wise, L. R. (1990). *The Motivational Bases of Public Service*, *50*(3), 367-373. https://doi.org/10.2307/976618

Potipiroon, W., & Faerman, S. (2020). Tired from Working Hard? Examining the Effect of Organizational Citizenship Behavior on Emotional Exhaustion and the Buffering Roles of Public Service Motivation and Perceived Supervisor Support. *Public Performance & Management Review*, *43*(6), 1260-1291. https://doi.org/10.1080/15309576.2020.1742168

Pugliesi, K. (1999). The Consequences of Emotional Labor: Effects on Work Stress, Job Satisfaction, and Well-Being. *Motivation and Emotion*, *23*, 125–154. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1021329112679

Purvanova, R. K., & Muros, J. P. (2010). Gender differences in burnout: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *77*(2), 168–185. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2010.04.006

Quratulain, S., & Khan, A. K. (2015). Red Tape, Resigned Satisfaction, Public Service Motivation, and Negative Employee Attitudes and Behaviors: Testing a Model of Moderated Mediation. *Review of Public Personnel*

*Administration*, *35*(4), 307- 332. https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X13511646

Raudla, R., Douglas, J. W., Savi, R., & Randma-Liiv, T. (2017). Fiscal Crisis and Expenditure Cuts: The Influence of Public Management Practices on Cutback Strategies in Europe. *The American Review of Public Administration*, *47*(3), 376-394. https://doi.org/10.1177/0275074016661029

Ritz, A., & Brewer, G. A. (2016). Public Service Motivation: A Systematic Literature Review and Outlook. *Public Administration Review*, *76*(3), 414-426. https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12505

Rowold, J., & Schlotz, W. (2009). Transformational and Transactional Leadership and Followers' Chronic Stress. *Leadership Review*, *9*, 35-48. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/254378228_Transformational_and_Transactional_Leadership_and_Followers'_Chronic_Stress

Schwarz, G., Eva, N., & Newman, A. (2020). Can Public Leadership Increase Public Service Motivation and Job Performance? *Public Administration Review*, *80*(4), 543-554. https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.13182

Sethi, V., Barrier, T., & King, R. C. (1999). An Examination of the Correlates of Burnout in Information Systems Professionals. *Information Resources Management Journal*, *12*(3), 5-13. http://doi.org/10.4018/irmj.1999070101

Shim, C. D., Park,, H. H., & Eom, H. T. (2017). treet-level bureaucrats' turnover intention: Does public service motivation matter? *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, *83*(3), 563–582. https://doi.org/10.1177/0020852315582137

Spector, P. E., & Jex, S. M. (1998). Development of four self-report measures of job stressors and strain: Interpersonal Conflict at Work Scale, Organizational Constraints Scale, Quantitative Workload Inventory, and Physical Symptoms Inventory. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *3*(4), 356–367. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.3.4.356

Staats, E. (1988). Public Service and the Public Interest. *Public Administration Review*, *48*, 601-605.

Valcour, M. (2016). *4 Steps to Beating Burnout*. Harvard Business Review. Retrieved May 16, 2022, from https://hbr.org/2016/11/beating-burnout

van Loon, N. M., Vandenabeele, W., & Leisink, P. (2015). On the bright and dark side of public service motivation: the relationship between PSM and employee wellbeing. *Public Money & Management*, *35*(5), 349-356. https://doi.org/10.1080/09540962.2015.1061171

van Vegchel, N., Jonge, J. d., Söderfeldt, M., Dormann, C., & Schauefli, W. (2004). Quantitative Versus Emotional Demands Among Swedish Human Service Employees: Moderating Effects of Job Control and Social Support. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *11*(1), 21-40. http://doi.org/10.1037/1072-5245.11.1.21

Vigoda-Gadot, E. (2007). Redrawing the Boundaries of OCB? An Empirical Examination of Compulsory Extra-Role Behavior in the Workplace. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *21*(3), 377-405. https://www.jstor.org/stable/30221744

Wang, B., & Wang, Y. (2021). Job Burnout among Safety Professionals: A Chinese Survey. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *18*(16). https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18168343

Wright, B. E. (2001). Public-Sector Work Motivation: A Review of the Current Literature and a Revised Conceptual Model. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, *11*(4), 559-586. https://www.jstor.org/stable/3525723

Wright, B. E., & Christensen, R. K. (2010). Public Service Motivation: A Test of the Job Attraction–Selection–Attrition Model. *International Public Management Journal*, *13*(2), 155-176. https://doi.org/10.1080/10967491003752012

Wright, B. E., Christensen, R. K., & Pandey, S. K. (2013). Measuring Public Service Motivation: Exploring the Equivalence of Existing Global Measures. *International Public Management Journal*, *16*(2), 197-223. http://doi.org/10.1080/10967494.2013.817242

Wright, B. E., Moynihan, D. P., & Pandey, S. K. (2012). Pulling the Levers: Transformational Leadership, Public Service Motivation, and Mission Valence. *Public Administration Review*, *72*(2), 206-215. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2011.02496.x

Wright, T. A., & Bonett, D. G. (1997). The contribution of burnout to work performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *18*(5), 491-499. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(199709)18:5<491::AID-JOB804>3.0.CO;2-I

Wright, T. A., & Cropanzano, R. (1998). Emotional exhaustion as a predictor of job

   performance and voluntary turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *83*(3),

   486–493. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.83.3.486

Young, B. F., & McGuire, J. (2018). *The Non-profit Human Services Sector:*

   *A     Brief     Primer*.     Health     Resources     in     Action.

   https://humanservicesandhealthcare.org/wp-

   content/uploads/2019/12/Human-Services-Primer.pdf

# 국문초록

# 너무 많은 것이 해로운가? 인도네시아 공무원의 근무동기가 번아웃에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구

**Sheila Ananta Ully**
서울대학교 행정대학원
글로벌행정전공

PSM 연구는 주로 긍정적인 면에 초점을 맞춘 반면 부정적인 면은 최근 몇 년 동안 학자들의 관심을 받기 시작했다. 동전에는 항상 양면이 있기 때문에 PSM 의 잠재적인 악영향을 검토하는 것이 중요하다. 근로자의 번아웃은 PSM 연구의 잠재적인 단점 중 하나이다. 비록 근로자들에게 많은 긍정적인 영향을 미치는 것으로 밝혀졌지만, 높은 수준의 PSM 은 직원들로 하여금 그들의 업무를 넘어서서 그들의 자원(예: 시간과 에너지)을 소진하게 할 수 있다.

본 연구는 시계열 분석을 통해 수집된 인도네시아 중앙정부 공무원 128 명을 대상으로 다중회귀모형을 이용하여 PSM 이 공무원 번아웃과 긍정적인 연관성이 있는지를 분석하였다. 분석결과 PSM 이 번아웃을 증가시키는 데 유의미하지 않는 것으로 나타났다. 비록 이 발견은 중요하지는

않지만, 이 둘 사이의 직접적인 관계를 찾을 수 없었던 이전의 연구들과도 일치한다. 이 무의미한 결과는 아마도 분석에 고려되지 않은 국가와 문화적 차이 때문일 것이다. 또 다른 가능한 설명은 모든 개인이 직장에서 추가적인 마일을 가는 것과 동일한 영향을 경험하지는 않는다는 것이다. PSM이 낮은 개인은 더 쉽게 탈진할 수 있다. 흥미롭고 중요한 발견은 관리자의 사회적 지원이 직원의 소진을 감소시키는 반면 업무량은 직원의 소진을 증가시킬 수 있다는 것이다. 이는 장시간 근무 시 사회적 지원이 소진에 대한 완충제가 될 수 있다는 기존 연구 결과와 일치한다. 또한 다른 통제 변수는 중요성이 떨어진다.

이론적으로, 본 연구는 단순히 단면 데이터를 사용하는 것보다 더 강력한 증거를 제공한다. 이는 인도네시아 맥락에서 이 주제에 대한 최초의 경험적 연구이기도 하다. 실질적으로, 이 연구는 고 PSM 개인들이 번아웃 가능성에 다소 영향을 받지 않는다는 것을 암시하지만, 이것은 직원들에게 더 많은 일을 줌으로써 그들을 착취해야 한다는 것을 의미하지는 않는다. 대신, 지원 환경을 개선하고 관리자들은 번아웃이 발생할 가능성을 줄일 수 있는 기술을 갖추어야 한다. 그럼에도 불구하고 본 연구는 인도네시아의 모든 공무원에게 결과가 일반화될 수 없고 연구 샘플이 비교적 작고 일부 변수가 과소 표현될 수 있다는 등의 몇 가지 한계를 가지고 있다.