SUMMARY

Governments around the world increasingly implement surveys of public servants to better understand—and to provide evidence to improve—public administration. As context for the subsequent chapters in *The Government Analytics Handbook* on surveys of public servants, this chapter reviews the existing landscape of governmentwide surveys of public servants. What concepts are measured in these surveys? How are these concepts measured? And what survey methodologies are used? Our review finds that while governments measure similar concepts across surveys, the precise questions asked to measure these concepts vary, as do survey methodologies—for instance, in terms of sampling approaches, survey weights, and survey modes. The chapter concludes, first, that discrepancies in survey questions for the same concepts put a premium on cross-country questionnaire harmonization, and it introduces the Global Survey of Public Servants (GSPS) as a tool to achieve harmonization. Second, the chapter concludes that methodological differences across surveys—despite similar survey objectives—underscore the need for stronger evidence to inform methodological choices in surveys of public servants. The remaining chapters in this part focus on providing such evidence.

ANALYTICS IN PRACTICE

- Surveys of public servants have been implemented by an increasing number of countries in the last two decades. They tend to measure similar concepts, focusing on a core set of employee attitudes (such as job satisfaction or engagement), on the one hand, and management practices (such as the quality of leadership), on the other.

- Despite measuring similar concepts, questionnaires across surveys of public servants are not harmonized: different governments use different measures for the same concepts.

Ayesha Khurshid is a consultant in the World Bank’s Development Impact Evaluation (DIME) Department. Christian Schuster is a professor at University College London.
Despite having similar aims, methodologies for surveys of public servants vary across countries—for instance, in terms of sampling approaches, survey weighting, survey populations, survey modes, and response rates achieved.

Differences in survey methodology underscore the importance of robust evidence to ensure good-practice methodologies in surveying public servants, the topic of the remainder of this part.

INTRODUCTION

Understanding government and providing actionable data and evidence to public sector managers to improve the machinery of government requires microdata about government institutions (chapter 2). Surveys of public servants are one such microdata source. Many key features of the environment of public servants cannot be measured efficiently through other (administrative data) mediums. For example, how public servants are managed, their motivations, and their behaviors are all phenomena internal to an official’s lived experience. Management quality is fundamentally an experienced interaction that can often only be measured by employees’ or managers’ reports of it. Public employees’ motivations are difficult to observe outside of their own expressions of them. Thus, self-reporting through surveys becomes the primary means of measurement for many aspects of officialdom and, as detailed elsewhere in The Government Analytics Handbook, of the public sector production function (see chapter 1).

This section of the Handbook provides frontier evidence on key choices in public servant surveys—from the appropriate survey mode (chapter 19), to determining sampling sizes (chapter 21), questionnaire design (chapters 20 and 22), and the effective reporting of survey results (chapter 25). To contextualize the chapters in this section, this introductory chapter provides an overview of the state of play in public servant surveys around the world.

To present the state of play in this field, we review the existing landscape of regular, governmentwide employee surveys—that is, surveys that are run on a regular (annual or biannual) basis with repeated measurements (on at least three previous occasions) for a central government. We thus focus this chapter on surveys that are institutionalized as measurement and management instruments in governments. This contrasts with other reviews—in particular, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD 2016)—which comprise ad hoc, non-central-governmentwide surveys with varying content and methodologies.1

The first introductory takeaway from this review is that surveys of public servants have recently become more popular with governments. As illustrated in figure 18.1, the number of countries undertaking governmentwide employee surveys has increased continuously over the last decade, reaching nine countries in 2021. (We might, of course, underestimate the number of institutionalized surveys of public servants outside the English-speaking world, so this number is a lower bound.)

As detailed in table 18.1, all countries for which we were able to review and validate the implementation of regular surveys of public servants belong to the OECD (though some, such as Colombia, are recent OECD joiners). While most of these countries have been implementing institutionalized surveys for over a decade, countries such as New Zealand have only begun the exercise in recent years. All countries implement their surveys annually except Ireland and Canada, which implement their surveys every two years.

This chapter will provide an overview of the key features of these surveys, in part to contextualize the remainder of this section of the Handbook, which will provide novel empirical evidence on the design, implementation, and dissemination of public servant surveys. The chapter will first review what established surveys of public servants measure. Subsequently, it will look at survey methodologies across countries: how are surveys implemented (for instance, in terms of sampling and response rates)?
To understand the key concepts for measurement when governments undertake surveys of their employees, we summarize a review by Meyer-Sahling et al. (2021) of the concepts measured in six of the government employee surveys outlined above. This review comprises the United States’ Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey, Canada’s Public Service Employee Survey, the United Kingdom’s Civil Service People Survey, the Australian Public Service (APS) Employee Census, Colombia’s Survey of the Institutional Environment and Performance in the Public Sector, and Ireland’s Civil Service Employee Engagement Survey. The focus

**FIGURE 18.1 Countries with Regular, Governmentwide Employee Surveys, Cumulative Count, 2002–21**

![Graph showing the cumulative count of countries with regular, governmentwide employee surveys from 2002 to 2021.](Source: Original figure for this publication.)

**TABLE 18.1 Countries with Regular, Governmentwide Employee Surveys, 2002–22**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Survey title</th>
<th>Undertaken since</th>
<th>Latest year</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Australian Public Service Employee Census</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>2022</td>
<td>Annual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Public Service Employee Survey</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>2020</td>
<td>Biannual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Survey of the Institutional Environment and Performance in the Public Sector</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>2021</td>
<td>Annual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Civil Service Employee Engagement Survey</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>2020</td>
<td>Biannual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea, Rep.</td>
<td>Public Service Life Survey</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>2021</td>
<td>Annual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>Te Taunaki Public Service Census</td>
<td>2021</td>
<td>2021</td>
<td>Annual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>Staff Survey of the Federal Administration [Enquête auprès du personnel de l’administration fédérale]</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>2021</td>
<td>Annual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>Civil Service People Survey</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>2021</td>
<td>Annual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>2021</td>
<td>Annual</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Original table for this publication.
of the review is on measurement in the last year before the COVID-19 pandemic, as the pandemic led to an exceptional focus on teleworking—rather than the implementation of the regular annual survey—in a number of countries.

Meyer-Sahling et al. (2021) frame their review within a production function of the public service (analogous to the production function presented in chapter 1 of the Handbook) that outlines how the productivity of public services depends on the quality and quantity of outputs relative to inputs. Inputs include staff (that is, public servants) and other resources. Inputs are converted to public sector outputs and outcomes by management practices and public or organizational policies. Whether inputs are effectively converted to outputs is moderated by exogenous factors (such as the political environment) and mediated by the attitudes and behaviors of public servants.

Surveys of public servants can be used to shed light on different components of this public service productivity chain. As detailed by Meyer-Sahling et al. (2021), surveys of public servants are particularly suitable for measuring management practices and complementary inputs, on the one hand (for example, employees’ perception of the quality of leadership in their organization), and public employees’ attitudes and behaviors, on the other (for example, their work motivation). These parts of the public sector production function often cannot be recorded through administrative data in a valid way. Thus, self-reporting through surveys becomes the primary measurement tool.

Which areas of management practice, on the one hand, and employee attitudes, on the other, do existing surveys of public servants primarily measure? By classifying topics in the six countries, seven broad areas of management practices are measured across all government employee surveys reviewed: leadership (by both the direct superior and senior management), performance management, pay, training and skills development, promotion and career development, and communication and information to employees. Three further areas—practices to foster work-life balance, teamwork, and the sufficiency of resources (for example, equipment)—were measured in all but one employee survey. As figure 18.2 shows, these 10 management areas are thus plausibly core to (almost) all government employee surveys.

Looking next at employee attitudes, the review finds that government employee surveys also measure an overlapping set of core employee attitudes and behaviors. As illustrated in figure 18.3, all reviewed government employee surveys measure the organizational commitment of public employees, their engagement with their jobs, and their perception of their workloads and work-life balance. Moreover, four additional concepts—job satisfaction, career/turnover intentions, integrity, and innovation attitudes—are measured in all but one of the government employee surveys. These six attitudes and behaviors are thus plausibly core to (almost) all government employee surveys.

Thus, governments measure similar concepts across many of their employee surveys. (Of course, governments also add idiosyncratic modules that are of particular interest to them in any given year, such as remote work during the COVID-19 pandemic.) This plausibly reflects an interest in a similar set of core management practices and employee attitudes and behaviors to improve public sector performance. At the same time, as outlined below, the exact wording of measures for the same concept frequently differs across countries (as does the precise coverage of a concept—for instance, whether pay is measured in relation to performance, satisfaction, fairness, or other pay-related factors), which is a core rationale for harmonizing this wording through the Global Survey of Public Servants (GSPS) (see below).

Two caveats regarding these conclusions about commonality are due. First, the review’s coverage extends to OECD countries. In countries of the Global South, other concepts, such as meritocracy, politicization, and corruption, are often central to the (non)functioning of the public sector and might thus deserve greater pride of place in surveys of public servants (Meyer-Sahling et al. 2021). Second, some recent surveys have shifted toward a greater focus on directly actionable survey questions—for instance, to check for good practice in performance evaluations or onboarding procedures and showcase where basic practices are not in place (see Fukuyama et al. 2022). That most existing governmentwide employee surveys are silent on these topics suggests that focusing on more actionable survey questions is one margin for improving many existing questionnaires.
FIGURE 18.2 Management Practices Measured in Government Employee Surveys

- Training and skill development: 100%
- Promotion and career development: 100%
- Performance management: 100%
- Pay: 100%
- Leadership (senior management): 100%
- Leadership (direct superior): 100%
- Communication and information: 100%
- Work-life balance policies: 83%
- Teamwork: 83%
- Resources (e.g., materials, equipment): 67%
- Integrity management: 67%
- Diversity management: 67%
- Change management: 67%
- Physical conditions (e.g., office space): 50%
- Job stability: 50%
- Health and safety: 50%

Note: Only concepts covered in at least half of the surveys reviewed are shown.

FIGURE 18.3 Employee Attitudes and Behaviors Measured in Government Employee Surveys

- Workload or work-life balance: 100%
- Organizational commitment: 100%
- Engagement: 100%
- Turnover and career intentions: 83%
- Job satisfaction: 83%
- Integrity: 83%
- Innovation and positive attitudes towards change: 83%
- Work motivation and effort: 67%
- Task and mission clarity and alignment: 67%
- Sense of empowerment and involvement: 67%
- Discrimination and harassment: 67%
- Competence and skills: 67%
- Unit/organizational performance (perception): 50%
- Trust: 50%
- Sense of recognition: 50%

Note: Only concepts covered in at least half of the surveys reviewed are shown.
METHODOLOGIES IN SURVEYS OF PUBLIC SERVANTS

Having reviewed the content of existing governmentwide employee surveys, in this section, we will review their methodologies. How are respondents sampled by governments? Are surveys conducted online, on paper, in person, or by phone? How long are public servant survey questionnaires? What response rates are achieved and how are survey weights constructed to enhance representativeness? The remaining chapters in the public servant survey section of the Handbook provide novel empirical evidence to enable governments and practitioners to make evidence-based choices in response to these and other methodological questions, along the decision tree in survey design, implementation, and reporting detailed in chapter 1. To contextualize these empirical and methodological chapters, the remainder of this section briefly reviews practices and methodological choices in existing governmentwide employee surveys. Table 18.2 summarizes the findings from this comparison.

Survey Mode

One of the first methodological choices in public servant surveys is the enumeration method, or survey mode. Different survey modes come with different response biases to questions and different overall response rates.

All nine government surveys reviewed in table 18.1 were implemented online, using an invitation link sent to public servants through email or shared through the administration’s intranet. Additionally, to enhance accessibility (for instance, for staff with difficulty accessing or completing an online survey), Colombia, Switzerland, the UK, and a few Australian agencies offered their surveys in a paper format, while New Zealand offered its survey through paper and telephone upon request.

Field experimental evidence from the Handbook suggests—albeit based on data from Romania only—that these diverging survey modes do not substantially impact aggregate estimates at the national level (see chapter 19). They do, however, affect the comparability of findings across organizations, among other things (see chapter 19). Governments that offer varying survey modes should thus be careful when comparing the scores of organizations if some implement the survey primarily online while others implement it primarily on pen and paper.

Survey Population

Across the nine surveys reviewed, the survey population generally consists of central-government civil servants, although the extent to which public sector organizations and employee contracts outside the (legally defined) civil service are covered varies—for instance, in other branches of government or frontline services.

For the UK government employee survey, all public servants from 101 agencies are eligible, excluding the Northern Ireland Civil Service, the NHS (which conducts its own survey), and frontline officials (for instance, police officers and teachers) (Cabinet Office 2020). The US survey invites all federal, nonseasonal, and permanent public servants (including all full- and part-time employees) in 82 executive branch agencies to participate (OPM 2020).

The Australian survey includes all employees from 101 agencies. While agencies set their own eligibility requirements, it generally excludes public servants on leave during the survey and those with a short tenure in the agency (Australian Public Service Commission 2021). Similarly, in Colombia, all public servants working in Bogotá with a tenure of more than six months at the central level of the executive, legislative, and judicial powers and in the headquarters of the regional autonomous corporations and public universities (200 agencies) are eligible to participate in the survey (DANE 2020).
### TABLE 18.2   Methodological Choices in Public Servant Surveys

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Survey mode(s)</th>
<th>Survey population</th>
<th>Sampling</th>
<th>Response rate(^a) (%)</th>
<th>Survey weighting(^b)</th>
<th>Questionnaire length (number of questions)(^c)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Primarily online with some agencies offering a paper-based option</td>
<td>All regular employees from 101 agencies with sufficient tenure in their agency</td>
<td>Census</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>No weights applied</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Online</td>
<td>All paid employees in 90 core agencies</td>
<td>Census</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>Nonresponse weights applied</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Primarily online with a paper-based option</td>
<td>All employees in 200 agencies with a tenure of at least six months working in Bogotá and in the headquarters of regional autonomous corporations and public universities</td>
<td>Census for smaller agencies and stratified sampling for larger agencies</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>Nonresponse weights applied</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Online</td>
<td>All employees in 50 agencies in Ireland and those based abroad</td>
<td>Census</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea, Rep.</td>
<td>Online</td>
<td>All employees from central administrative agencies and metropolitan governments</td>
<td>Sampled survey using multistage stratification and probability-proportional-to-size sampling</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>Primarily online with a paper-based and telephone option</td>
<td>All employees in 36 agencies and those based abroad, excluding the NZCIS and the GSCB(^d)</td>
<td>Census</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>Primarily online with a paper-based option</td>
<td>All monthly paid employees (excluding parliamentary services and the Public Ministry of the Confederation and the courts)</td>
<td>Census every three years with a sampled survey in all other years</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>Primarily online with a paper-based option</td>
<td>All employees from 101 agencies (excluding the Northern Ireland Civil Service, the National Health Service, and frontline officials)</td>
<td>Census</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>No weights applied</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Online</td>
<td>All permanently employed and nonseasonal federal employees in 82 agencies</td>
<td>Census every few years (2012, 2018, 2019, and 2020) with a sampled survey using stratified sampling in other years</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>Nonresponse weights applied</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Original table for this publication.

Note: The table displays “—” wherever information was unavailable to the authors.

a. Response rates are presented for the latest year for which data and/or results were available. The response rate for the Korean survey was unavailable.

b. Information about nonresponse weights in Canada, Ireland, Republic of Korea, New Zealand, and Switzerland was, unfortunately, unavailable.

c. Questionnaire lengths were reviewed for the last year before the COVID-19 pandemic.

d. New Zealand Security Intelligence Service (NZCIS); Government Communications Security Bureau (GSCB).
The Irish survey targets all public servants from 50 agencies in Ireland and those based abroad (Department of Public Expenditure and Reform 2020). Similar to Ireland, the New Zealand survey includes all public servants working in 36 public service agencies and those based overseas, apart from the New Zealand Security Intelligence Service (NZSIS) and the Government Communications Security Bureau (GSCB) (both of which conduct their own surveys) (Research New Zealand 2021). While limited information is available on the Korean survey, its target population includes all public servants from central administrative agencies and metropolitan governments (Korea Institute of Public Administration 2021).

The Canadian survey has the most flexible eligibility criteria: all indeterminate, term, seasonal, casual, and student employees in 90 core public administration agencies are eligible (excluding ministers’ exempt staff, private contractors and consultants, and employees on unpaid leave) (Government of Canada 2022). Similarly, the Swiss survey population consists of all permanent staff that are paid monthly but excludes public servants working in the parliamentary services, the Public Ministry of the Confederation, and the courts (OFPER 2022).

**Sampling Design**

Approaches to sampling across countries vary, ranging from census to random, ad hoc, and stratified sampling. Australia, New Zealand, and the UK adopt a census approach in which all eligible public sector employees are invited to participate in the survey (Australian Public Service Commission 2021; Cabinet Office 2020; Research New Zealand 2021). Canada’s Public Service Employee Survey and Ireland’s Civil Service Employee Engagement Survey are also based on a census approach, albeit one with an open link offering less control over who responds (Department of Public Expenditure and Reform 2020). In Canada, public sector organizations reach out to their staff to complete the survey, but the government also makes the survey available online for anyone who decides they fit the eligibility criteria (Government of Canada 2022).

The US government Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey uses stratified randomized sampling approaches for most years but conducts a census every few years (2012, 2018, 2019, and 2020), in order to update sampling frames, with the survey link sent to all eligible respondents (OPM 2020). Similarly, Switzerland conducts a census every three years (2014, 2017, and 2020) and a sampled survey in other years (OFPER 2022). Colombia’s public servant survey, in turn, uses a mixed approach: for larger organizations, a stratified sampling approach is used, while for smaller organizations (with fewer than 110 employees), a census is taken to protect anonymity. For larger organizations, the sampling frame is stratified by organization and hierarchy, and public servants are selected to participate using simple random sampling within strata (DANE 2020).

Meanwhile, the Republic of Korea adopts a sampling approach for all annual surveys. Approximately 4,000 respondents are sampled each year each using multistage stratification and probability-proportional-to-size sampling to ensure the representativeness of the sample (Korea Institute of Public Administration 2021). As detailed later in this section of the Handbook (chapter 25, census approaches offer the advantage of sufficient response numbers to provide unit-level management reports based on survey results, even at more disaggregated levels. The UK government, for instance, produces over 12,000 management diagnostics or reports based on its results. At the same time, census sampling approaches are costly in terms of the opportunity cost of staff time spent on completing the survey. As detailed in chapter 20, the appropriate sampling approach thus depends on the types of inference one seeks to draw from the data. Chapter 20 offers a sampling tool to allow governments to estimate appropriate sample sizes based on the types of inference and benchmarking exercises they wish to make with the data. Interestingly, existing government approaches to sampling respondents in public servant surveys do not seem to be (explicitly) based on such a data-driven approach to sampling, suggesting that the potential to optimize sampling in surveys of public servants remains.

**Response Rates and Nonresponse Weighting**

Beyond their sampling approaches, surveys of public servants across governments also differ in response rates and their approaches to correcting for nonresponse bias. As detailed in table 18.2, survey response rates
vary from 44 percent in the US to 96 percent in Colombia. In Colombia, the national statistical office (DANE) conducts the survey, and statistics legislation mandates that sampled respondents complete the survey. In the remaining countries, participation in the survey is voluntary, leading to relatively lower response rates.

To enhance the likelihood that the final sample is representative of the target population of public servants, Canada, Colombia, and the US apply nonresponse weights. Canada uses nonresponse weights to enhance the representativeness of occupational groups in each agency (Statistics Canada 2018). To construct nonresponse weights, the US survey uses subagency identifier, supervisory status, gender, minority status, age, tenure, full- or part-time status, and location from administrative data (OPM 2020). The Colombian survey, in turn, uses nonresponse weights based on the same variables as in its sampling approach—for example, hierarchical level or the institution a respondent works for (DANE 2020).

The Australian survey checks for the representativeness of respondents across age, gender, state or territory, and classification. As survey respondents do not significantly differ from the survey population in these characteristics in the Australian case, the Australian survey does not use nonresponse weights (Australian Public Service Commission 2021). Similarly, the UK does not apply nonresponse weights to the final set of respondents.

Evidence from elsewhere in the Handbook suggests that the effect of nonresponse weights (constructed from demographic information) on national-level averages in particular is relatively limited, at least in the country studied in the chapter (chapter 19). This is good news for cases, like the UK, where governmentwide demographic information to construct weights is in limited supply. At the same time, some nonresponse weights are straightforward to construct for all governments—for instance, weights to correct for differential response rates in institutions of differential size. They thus merit consideration where not currently applied.

**QUESTIONNAIRE LENGTH**

Beyond these differences in nonresponse weights, surveys of public servants also differ in questionnaire design, including length. In the last year before the COVID-19 pandemic, questionnaire lengths varied significantly. Ireland and Canada implemented the longest public servant survey, with 112 questions, followed by the Australian and US surveys (100 questions each). Switzerland implemented the shortest, with 24 questions. Colombia and New Zealand (each approximately 60 questions) and Republic of Korea (48 questions) sat in between.

Longer questionnaires can generate survey fatigue, with potentially greater item nonresponse and survey dropout (Liu and Wronski 2017). For instance—though this is merely suggestive—the correlation coefficient between response rates and questionnaire length in eight of the nine countries reviewed is $r = -0.29$. Question design can potentially mitigate such nonresponse. Chapter 22 of the Handbook assesses how to phrase questions so as to minimize item nonresponse.

**THE GLOBAL SURVEY OF PUBLIC SERVANTS AS AN INSTRUMENT FOR CROSS-COUNTRY SURVEY HARMONIZATION**

As this chapter has illustrated, governments often use dissimilar questions and methodologies to measure similar concepts. As a result, even though governments measure similar concepts, they cannot benchmark themselves against other governments on these concepts. This puts a premium on evidence-based, cross-country harmonization of survey questionnaires and methodologies to further the degree of consistency in measurement across surveys of public servants.
The GSPS was created with this objective in mind and, more broadly, to encourage the adoption of surveys of public servants by governments, good practice in public servant survey design and implementation, and the collection of cross-country and cross-institution data on public servants in governments around the world (Fukuyama et al. 2022). The aim is to increase the volume, quality, and coherence of survey data on public administration over time. The GSPS is the product of a consortium of researchers and practitioners from Stanford University, University College London (UCL), the University of Nottingham, and the World Bank.

To facilitate the harmonization of survey questions and methodologies for surveys of public servants, the GSPS presents existing questions and methods in an accessible form and provides methodological evidence on the efficacy of these questions and methods. It presents a core module of questions as a proposal for inclusion in independent surveys of public servants and publishes detailed guidance on the implementation of the core module to ease the comparison of any individual survey results with other surveys (Meyer-Sahling et al. 2021). This ensures that the data collected on public servants are comparable across independent data collection exercises.

Figure 18.4 provides an example of the type of comparison possible through the GSPS initiative, benchmarking governments on the percentage of public servants satisfied with their pay and/or total benefits. The GSPS enables governments to understand strengths and areas for development for their civil service in global comparative terms, although, as chapter 24 shows empirically, care needs to be taken when comparing responses across countries for culturally contingent concepts in particular. In figure 18.4, for instance, it is striking how differentially satisfied public servants are with their pay in countries at roughly similar levels of development, such as in the US federal government (63 percent satisfied with their pay) and the UK civil service (36 percent satisfied with their pay). This kind of comparison can help governments understand strengths and areas for development.

**CONCLUSION**

The number of governments implementing governmentwide surveys of public servants has increased continuously in the last two decades, though many countries have yet to implement or institutionalize the implementation of employee surveys. Our review has shown that surveys of public servants in governments
are similar: they tend to measure similar concepts, focusing on a core set of employee attitudes (such as job satisfaction or engagement), on the one hand, and on management practices (such as the quality of leadership), on the other. They are thus implemented with a comparable set of measurement objectives.

At the same time, surveys across governments differ in the methodologies used and the precise measures applied to measure concepts. In terms of methodology, the review has found that surveys differ in key aspects: sampling approaches, survey weighting, survey populations, survey modes, questionnaire length, and response rates achieved. Some of these differences may stem from differences in practical or legal constraints. For instance, the civil service agency (or other entity) in charge of conducting the survey may not have a mandate for personnel management beyond the core civil service, complicating extending the survey coverage beyond the core civil service. And a central human resources management information system with demographic data about civil servants to construct survey weights may or may not be available, as detailed elsewhere in the Handbook (chapter 9). Some of the differences, however—for example, in sampling approaches and survey modes—are arguably due to limited methodological evidence on governmentwide surveys of public servants. The remaining chapters of this section of the Handbook address part of this void and can help governments make more evidence-based methodological choices in surveys of public servants. The GSPS builds on this evidence to offer governments a globally comparable set of survey questions and methodologies.

In short, the global landscape of surveys of public servants holds much promise for the future. An ever-increasing number of governments are implementing surveys, better evidence for methodological choices in surveys of public servants is becoming available, and the GSPS amplifies opportunities for global benchmarking.

NOTES

1. In line with the varying terminology used by different governments conducting such surveys, we use the terms “public servant surveys” and “government employee surveys” interchangeably.
2. Information about nonresponse weights in Ireland, Republic of Korea, New Zealand, and Switzerland was, unfortunately, unavailable.
3. The pandemic led to a number of additional pandemic and remote-work-related questions in the surveys that would ordinarily not be asked, thus reducing the generalizability of comparisons of questionnaire length during the pandemic.
4. Response rates were unavailable for the Korean survey.

REFERENCES


