Non-Monetary Motivation in the Nonprofit Sector

Brianna Gulchuk

A Senior Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for graduation
in the Honors Program
Liberty University
Spring 2019

Acceptance of Senior Honors Thesis

This Senior Honors Thesis is accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for graduation from the Honors Program of Liberty University.

_____

Colleen McLaughlin, Ph.D.
Thesis Chair

_____

Tammy Brown, DBA
Committee Member

_____

Ronnie Campbell, Ph.D.
Committee Member

_____

David Schweitzer, Ph.D.
Assistant Honors Director

_____

Date

Abstract

The nonprofit industry is currently in a state of flux. With the shifting dynamics of generations entering and leaving the workforce and the high turnover rates of volunteers, there is an increasing need for organizations to adjust current practices to hold on to skilled workers. This cannot be accomplished unless organizations make an effort toward sustainable motivational practices that train and retain their workers. This paper examines motivation strategies and how they can presently be seen in the nonprofit sector. There are also several practical applications of these motivational theories, referred to as motivational strategies, which will be presented. Special consideration is given to the importance of the human resource department in fostering a culture of motivation.

Keywords: nonprofit, motivation, volunteers, management

Non-Monetary Motivation in the Nonprofit Sector

The goal of any organization is to experience success. As there tends to be some variability in the way success is measured, the achievement of this goal may be seen in different ways. For some, success involves high profit margins and payments to shareholders. Others view success in terms of notoriety or recognition of a company name. Still others regard success in terms of the impact an organization makes on a community. Regardless of the definition or measure used, the success of an organization is dependent upon its workers. In recent years, many have named employee engagement and motivation as a key factor in performance improvement (Fearon, McLaughlin, & Morris, 2013). Therefore, if employers want to achieve organizational goals, they need to create structures that motivate employees to come to work every day and do their best.

There is a degree of complexity to this issue, however, when one considers the nonprofit industry. What are the motivating factors for a volunteer who does not receive a paycheck at the end of the week? What is a cost-effective way for a human resource department to integrate these factors into the workplace? How can a nonprofit create a motivating environment to sustainably retain a volunteer workforce? These questions take on greater significance when one considers the impact volunteer turnover has on an organization. Because nonprofits have specific missions and social services they seek to provide, high rates of turnover are especially damaging. More time and resources must be spent on recruiting, training, and replacing workers instead of achieving the mission of the organization (Jiang, Lepak, Hu, & Baer, 2012). While it is important to recognize the inevitability of turnover, the goal is to minimize it as much as possible through the proper

motivation of workers. This will ensure nonprofits can utilize the resources they have and will give them a better chance of succeeding in their overall purpose. Through an analysis of current motivational theories present in the industry, we can see what role management, specifically human resources, should play in implementing non-monetary motivational factors.

The Nonprofit Sector

The nonprofit sector is currently in a state of fluctuation. The industry as a whole is experiencing a shift as the largest generation to ever enter the workforce, baby boomers, are retiring at a rate of one every eight seconds, causing a dramatic loss of talent (Riley, 2015). This is problematic for many organizations as, historically, statistics show less than 1% of funding has gone toward supporting and maintaining talent resources (Maurer, 2017). This low rate of funding is reflected in the lack of formal retention strategies and budgets, which in turn leads to increased turnover and wasted resources.

Beyond the increasing rates of retirement, the nonprofit industry, as a whole, loses a staggering number of workers each year. According to one study, of the 61.2 million people who volunteered in a year, 21.7 million did not volunteer the following year. This amounts to approximately $38 billion lost in volunteer time (Eisner, Grimm, Maynard, & Washburn, 2009). In addition, the sector is experiencing the lowest volunteer rates it has had since 2002 (Hurst, Scherer, & Allen, 2016; Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019). This is contributing to an increasing deficit of skilled workers in the nonprofit sector (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). Many nonprofits have failed to adapt their strategies to account for this

and do not have a solid recruitment strategy to replace the workers that are being lost. In fact, a survey conducted by the leading nonprofit human resource firm showed 64% of nonprofits have no formal recruitment strategy at all ("2017 Nonprofit Employment Practices Survey," 2017). If an organization hopes to continue making progress to fulfill their original mission, then analyzing the problems they have within can be a useful place to begin.

A common thread among those who leave nonprofits is the lack of care and commitment shown to the volunteers. While great attention is given toward the goals and vision of an organization, often workers do not feel they are being effectively utilized or properly recognized for their work (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). This contributes to a sense of burnout - which is actually cited as one of the top reasons for volunteers leaving a nonprofit (Eisner et al., 2009). Another reason cited for dissatisfaction is when volunteers are thought of as non-essential. Traditionally, volunteers are considered helpful, but not all of those in management positions sufficiently train or value volunteers because they are viewed as an expendable workforce (Eisner et al., 2009). This mindset is a slippery slope and has brought the industry to the uphill battle it is facing today. A shift is necessary in the culture of nonprofits. Volunteers need to be effectively utilized, trained, and motivated in their respective positions if they are to successfully perform their jobs and return the following week to perform them again (Harp, Scherer, & Allen, 2016).

Limited Resources

The difficulty for nonprofits in addressing the challenges of recruitment and retention are that most are faced with very limited resources. Though organizations vary

in size, many do not have individual HR positions, let alone systems in place to assist with these functions (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). In situations like this, executive directors are placed in charge of human resource functions. While this may not necessarily be problematic in performing basic functions like payroll, studies have shown that managers in nonprofits can struggle with the creation of volunteer retention systems in an organization. This may include the development of formal volunteer job descriptions, programs to properly acclimate and onboard new volunteers, and training and development opportunities (Worth, 2017; Meehan & Jonker, 2017).

A specific problem for volunteers that can be compounded by poorly equipped management is known as the nonprofit paradox. In this paradox, new workers quickly become disillusioned by factors, such as long unpaid work hours and low prioritization of worker health and wellness, because they were not properly oriented to this environment (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). This is a very common issue because volunteers are typically under greater constraints than workers in other sectors due to the limited resources of nonprofits. While volunteers may understand their organization cannot offer competitive incentives and benefits, which are traditionally suggested methods for retention, they still experience frustrations which prevent them from serving effectively (Harp et al., 2016). Because of this, organizations must look toward emphasizing other intrinsic motivators, specifically those that attracted volunteers to the organization in the first place (Weisberg & Dent, 2016).

Motivational Theories

Motivation is described as the force which "energizes, directs, and sustains behavior" (Hauser, 2014, p. 241). As an essential aspect of productivity, employers are constantly seeking new ways to improve the motivation of their workers in the hopes of improving overall company performance and thereby increasing profits. In the context of nonprofits, motivation is the source of positive energy which serves as an inspiration to volunteers to push onward and achieve great work for their organization (Hauser, 2014). While the concept of motivation is fairly simple, the application of it can be more difficult. It would be a mistake to assume that motivation is only cultivated within an individual. While there is some degree to which it must be present within a volunteer, motivation can also be fostered extrinsically through workplace environments and practices (Xu & Thomas, 2011). Based on this, management has the opportunity, as well as the responsibility, to examine their organization and determine whether or not their workforce is being properly motivated.

One potentially effective method for managers to use is an analysis of motivational theories currently in existence. Reviewing theories relevant to nonprofit motivation in particular would allow management to gain an understanding of what perspectives are currently being utilized, as well as what principles should be applied to improve efficiency. This analysis would also provide an opportunity to learn strategies which may be helpful in resolving the recruitment and retention struggles faced by many nonprofits today (Harp et al., 2016). While each theory may have its respective positives

and negatives, management should keep an open mind and seek to review each one individually to gain as much as possible from each one.

Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg (as cited in Cinar, Bektas, & Aslan, 2011) created his Two-Factor theory in 1959. While considered simple, it has come to be one of the most common and well-known theories in psychology today. The theory has its roots in surveys Herzberg conducted with various white-collar employees to determine what aspects made them satisfied or dissatisfied with their positions. Herzberg, through studying these results, came to the conclusion that there was no continuum with satisfaction at one end and dissatisfaction at the other as was traditionally believed at the time; instead, Herzberg proposed that these were two separate entities and should be regarded as such (Furnham, Eracleous, & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2009). Condensing all of the surveyed factors down into two categories, Herzberg determined the two main factors that decide the attitudes and overall performance of workers are motivation and hygiene (Yusoff, Kian, & Idris, 2013).

Hygiene. Similar to the idea of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, hygiene factors are the extrinsic, lower-level needs that must be met in order to prevent employee dissatisfaction (Yusoff et al., 2013; Ghazi, Shahzada, & Khan, 2013). These basic factors are provided by a workplace and includes things like supervision, working conditions, and salary (Furnham et al., 2009). Nonprofit organizations, in an effort to create an efficient organization, obviously provide many of these same factors for volunteers. What many studies have found, however, is that these factors do not necessarily contribute to

motivation. According to Yusoff et al. (2013), while situational factors such as those listed above can certainly contribute to how satisfied a worker feels with their organization, they are not necessarily the factors which drive and motivate people. These factors simply provide a comfortable environment for workers that is free of unpleasant feelings. It essentially keeps them in a neutral state and does not necessarily increase their motivational feelings. In order to encourage employees to exert additional effort, opportunities to nurture and develop intrinsic factors must be provided (Ghazi et al., 2013; Cinar et al., 2011).

Motivation. Motivation factors are the intrinsic, higher-level needs directly linked to increasing satisfaction (Yusoff et al., 2013). Including things like recognition, development, and responsibility, these factors grow individuals in a psychological way, so the effects are more positive. They are also more long-lasting because, in theory, they have made a significant impact on the individual (Furnham et al., 2009; Yusoff et al., 2013). This is good news for nonprofits because, even with their highly limited resources, organizations can incorporate these positive factors. For example, creating opportunities for top-performing volunteers to obtain extra responsibilities can create an effect similar to job enrichment. In the for-profit sector, job enrichment is highly valued because it provides more autonomy to workers and gives them the sense that they can have a future at the organization. This is mainly because it gives the worker the impression that there is room for growth (Worth, 2017). Enrichment can also act as an incentive in the sense that it allows workers to gain portable skills which can be utilized to further their future careers (Word & Sowa, 2017). Recognition is another intrinsic need that plays a

significant role in energizing the workforce. This factor also has the added benefit of not requiring a great deal of financial investment. To satisfy this need for recognition, managers should seek to emphasize the accomplishments of volunteers (Worth, 2017).

Psychological Conditions of Engagement

Kahn first presented his theory on the psychological conditions of personal engagement in 1990. His work focused on analyzing what employee engagement versus disengagement looked like in the workplace, as well as what the antecedents for bringing about heightened levels of commitment were. According to Kahn, engagement is "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles" (p. 694). In this sense, an organization has provided a positive and safe environment for workers so that they can bring all aspects of themselves to their work. This is beneficial as it allows people to become connected to others in the service of the work they are doing as well as allowing them to demonstrate heightened levels of cognition, creativity, and empathy (Kahn, 1990).

Antecedents to engagement. In order to attain all of the benefits of engagement, however, one must first focus on the antecedents which help bring it about. According to Kahn (1990) there are three specific antecedents which must be met. The first is workers must feel psychologically safe in their environment. This primarily stems from the social systems within an organization and whether or not there are positive interactions between workers. A supportive environment which allows workers to feel free enough to speak their minds and develop ideas is ideal for greater engagement (Xu & Thomas, 2011). The second antecedent is psychological availability, which refers to the resources a worker

has to devote themselves to their role, to include psychological and physical resources (Kahn, 1990; Xu & Thomas, 2011). The third antecedent, psychological meaningfulness, refers to responsibilities and tasks which workers can find sufficiently meaningful for investment (Kahn, 1990).

Volunteer engagement. Kahn's theory, while originally focusing on employees, is particularly relevant to volunteers in the nonprofit sector. Studies have shown employees who are engaged in their work are less likely to leave the organization. Therefore, providing support to volunteers so they feel valued is key to motivating them to increase their commitment to the organization (Saks & Gruman, 2014). Studies have shown that one way to accomplish this is through portraying workers as essential. When workers believe that they can invest in a nonprofit, as they know the nonprofit will in turn invest in them, then they are more likely to experience motivation (Malinen & Harju, 2016). Another way to accomplish this is through actively matching volunteers' skills with assignments as well as providing training and clear instruction for all workers (Eisner et al., 2009).

Creating this kind of symbiotic relationship ensures a culture where people are motivated to give themselves whole-heartedly to the cause of the nonprofit without the risk of burnout. In fact, the core dimensions of engagement, to include vigor and dedication, are the exact opposite of those in burnout, which include exhaustion and cynicism (Saks & Gruman, 2014). This is of particular importance to nonprofits because burnout is cited as one of the top reasons for why volunteers choose to leave an organization (Eisner et al., 2009). Creating a safe and supportive environment, therefore,

can serve as a tool for removing the risk of burnout. It also provides management with one mechanism for keeping volunteers engaged for long periods of time (Reamon, 2016).

Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

The Self-Determination Theory (SDT) was proposed by Deci and Ryan in 2000. It suggests there are two primary kinds of motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic, which greatly influence each other. Intrinsically, individuals have three basic psychological needs – competence, autonomy and relatedness – which can help to motivate an individual (Deci & Ryan, 2000). There are also extrinsic conditions, however, which can crowd-in or crowd-out these specific intrinsic motivators (Park & Word, 2012). By emphasizing the relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic conditions, this theory posits an organization is directly responsible for the motivation of its workers. If they feel there is a lack of engagement, then they must restructure the organizational conditions to properly support the intrinsic needs.

Intrinsic volunteer motivation. Studies have shown the amount of competence and autonomy experienced by a volunteer can act as a significant predictor of their motivation, as well as their intentions to continue volunteering with an organization (Wu, Li, & Khoo, 2015). This is primarily based on the idea that satisfying the three intrinsic motivators leads to overall job satisfaction which strongly contributes to intention. Fulfilling these needs, however, requires significant extrinsic influence from the organization. Nonprofits must create opportunities for volunteers to experience choice and creativity in their tasks, which improves their interest in the work they are doing (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Competence must also be nurtured, as workers need to feel a sense

of efficacy in their work if they are going to successfully accomplish the mission of the nonprofit (Wu et al., 2015). While it is sometimes considered less significant than the other motivators, competence is a necessary and integral factor in sustaining motivation for the long term (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Donative labor hypothesis. With the added emphasis of intrinsic motivation present in this theory, we come across results which show that many nonprofit employees accept lower wages than their counterparts in the for-profit sector. It is believed that this acceptance is due to the intrinsic rewards employees receive from working with an organization they feel is making a difference (Word & Sowa, 2017). In many cases, employees of nonprofits, will even go so far as to volunteer and perform unpaid work for their own organization or for others (Knutsen & Chan, 2014). Researchers have often sought to analyze why volunteers like these are so committed to performing work for which they receive no extrinsic rewards. The conclusion many of them typically reach is these volunteers are choosing to look toward the importance of idealistic satisfaction as opposed to an extrinsic reward, like money (Park & Word, 2012). While this is something present in many volunteers already, nonprofit managers should make sure they are creating an environment that continues to nurture this satisfaction. Valuing volunteers and affirming the idealism they have is one way of accomplishing this.

Relationship Management Theory

The Relationship Management Theory was first proposed by Hon and Grunig (as cited in Waters & Bortree, 2011) in the context of public relations. Since then, the theory has grown and expanded to focus on the more general aspects of relationships between

organizations and individuals. The theory itself is based on four primary dimensions of relationship quality: trust, commitment, satisfaction, and control mutuality. It also emphasizes the essence of relationships and whether they were more communal or exchange in nature (Waters, 2008). This theory has particular significance in the context of volunteers because creating quality relationships has been shown to significantly predict future involvement with organizations (Waters & Bortree, 2011).

Quality of relationship. In order to create solid relationships with their volunteers, organizations need to understand each of the four dimensions of quality relationships and how they relate to each other. The first indicator is trust. Trust refers to one party's confidence that they can be open and honest with another (Waters, 2008). In this situation, nonprofits need to demonstrate integrity to volunteers. They have to follow through with the promises they make and show they actually can accomplish what they have said they will do. This can be demonstrated by clearly aligning goals and objectives with the mission of the organization.

The second dimension is commitment. This aspect focuses on the beliefs of both parties that the relationship is worth maintaining (Waters & Bortree, 2011). This dimension is something that can be a struggle for nonprofits to demonstrate to their volunteers. For example, a common mistake made by management is not conveying a sense of long-term commitment through training and investment (Eisner et al., 2009). Even though a nonprofit may be demonstrating short term commitments by communicating how important volunteers are to the organization, volunteers do not see long-lasting effort being invested to support this claim. By devaluing volunteers in this

sense, individuals may not feel it is worth continuing with an organization who views them as expendable.

The third and fourth dimensions are satisfaction and control mutuality. These factors were adapted from other studies but still have significance to this theory as it exists today (Waters & Bortree, 2011). Satisfaction measures whether or not parties have positive feeling about one another. Control mutuality refers to the balance of power. These two dimensions are highly interdependent on each other. For example, if there is an excess of control, to the point where volunteers may feel they are being micromanaged, then their satisfaction will decrease and so will the quality of the relationship.

Nature of relationship. Both communal and exchange nature relationships require all four dimensions of relationship quality and can be seen in nonprofit organizations. The exchange nature can exist in situations where there is an equal give-and-take between the organization and its workers. The communal nature, however, applies better to the volunteer setting of nonprofits. This is because, in terms of volunteers, they are giving time and effort with very little expected in return, except for the satisfaction of knowing they have helped with the cause of the organization (Waters & Bortree, 2012). With this in mind, nonprofit managers and leaders should make sure they are showing volunteers how their efforts are contributing to the overall mission of the organization. Showing individuals that even their seemingly minute efforts are significant in the grand scheme of things can create a long-lasting impact and assist with retention (Harp et al., 2016).

Functional Theory

The Functional Theory is a widely studied psychological model which focuses on individual motivation with two primary features. The first proposes that individuals, in an effort to meet particular psychological needs, will engage in specific behaviors and attitudes that they believe will help them achieve those needs (Phillips & Phillips, 2010). The second feature says that, if volunteer motives match the rewards provided by an organization, then it will traditionally lead to superior outcomes, which is similar to the idea of a person-environment fit (Phillips & Phillips, 2010; Ghazi et al., 2015). Based on the reasoning of this theory, nonprofits should recognize the general needs most volunteers have and create a rewards structure accommodating to this, respective to their limited resources.

Volunteer needs. According to Clary et al. (1998) one of the originators of the Functional Theory, there are six primary functions which are served by volunteering. The first is values, which is the expression of a humanitarian concern. The second is understanding, which refers to practicing skills or abilities an individual has learned and wishes to apply in a learning context. The third function is career, in which volunteers are seeking job-related benefits or advancement. The fourth function is social, in that volunteers often seek to spend time with friends who are also volunteering. Fifth is protective, where individuals are trying to alleviate guilt they feel because they are more fortunate. The sixth and final function is enhancement. This is when volunteers gain a sense of satisfaction from personal growth caused by donating their time (Clary et al., 1998; Phillips & Phillips, 2010).

A thorough understanding of these functions is necessary for nonprofit leaders (Clary et al., 1998). When creating volunteer positions, management should design jobs in a way that can satisfy multiple needs. For example, positions can be created so volunteers have the opportunity to practice skills they can use in future jobs (Word & Sowa, 2017). They can also emphasize a social aspect, so volunteers feel a strong sense of inclusion within the organization. Creating a symbolic reward system is also a good way to apply this theory. Doing small things like sending thank-you letters to volunteers, hosting appreciation dinners, or giving small prizes is a way for management to show work has not gone unappreciated (Phillips & Phillips, 2011). It is also a cost-efficient way for organizations with limited resources to value their workers and still remain within budget.

Motivational Strategies

While there is a degree of similarity, motivational strategies are uniquely different from motivational theories. Motivational theories tend to focus more on overarching principles and ideas. There is a greater emphasis on the underlying causes to behavior rather than suggestions for actions. They are also typically generalized so they can be more widely applicable (Hauser, 2014). Motivational strategies, on the other hand, are the practical application of the theories which can be seen in organizations already in existence. This can be beneficial to managers because they can easily adapt strategies to fit the needs of their organization, as well as integrate them into current processes which are already being used (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). Another added advantage is that strategies have demonstrable benefits, like higher recruitment and retention rates, which

can be used in justifying their implementation to upper management (Park & Word, 2012; Weisberg & Dent, 2016). This can be helpful for managers who are seeking to make a change in their organization but are unsure of how to convince leaders of the necessity for such an investment. While there are many strategies currently used to reduce turnover and improve retention, most of them can be divided into three primary categories: environmental-focused, organizational-focused, and individual-focused.

Environmental-Focused Strategies

According to Xu and Thomas (2011), creating a positive and welcoming environment for workers is a primary strategy to help improve retention. The idea behind this methodology is volunteers will be less likely to leave a place where they feel heard, accepted, and empowered. Even if there are no traditional incentives like compensation and benefits, volunteers will be willing to remain with a nonprofit that created an environment where they feel they can thrive (Park & Word, 2012). Organizations can accomplish this through a number of methods, including emphasizing participation and creating a community environment focusing on inclusion. Prior to analyzing the various strategies, however, it is first important to understand the demographics of the workplace and what they are looking for.

Volunteer demographics.

Baby Boomers. While they are gradually leaving, there are still many baby boomers currently volunteering in the nonprofit sector. According to recent surveys by the Corporation for National and Community Service, approximately 30.7% of baby boomers still volunteer, amounting to service worth $54.3 billion (“Demographics,” n.d.).

Imbued with a wealth of knowledge and experience, failing to capitalize on older Americans as a resource would be a costly mistake for nonprofits (Kase, Saksida, & Mihelic, 2018). Creating an environment where they can continue to thrive can help organizations retain valuable human capital and reduce some of their recruitment efforts. This can be done by maintaining high ethical standards and demonstrating strong leadership within the organization since these are shown to be important to baby boomers (Weisberg & Dent, 2016).

Millennials. While ethics and leadership are also valued by millennials, this fresh workforce has greater priorities. They are looking for organizations with high possibilities for learning, career advancement and a great deal of flexibility (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). As a generation known for their constant search for betterment opportunities, millennials want an environment they feel is supportive to future career growth. They are also creative and self-organized (Saratovsky & Feldmann, 2013). Because of this, they prefer flexibility in positions to express these traits. With this in mind, nonprofits can give millennial volunteers a degree of freedom within their jobs to make creative choices and govern themselves in small groups (Saratovsky & Feldmann, 2013). This will also give them the understanding that they are developing valuable life skills which they can apply in their future careers (Word & Sowa, 2017).

Emphasis on community. A key aspect of satisfaction is creating a sense of community within an organization (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). Emphasizing this kind of environment allows individuals to feel included and can eventually lead to them associating their social identity with the organization. This is especially important when

working with volunteers, as their feelings of acceptance within a nonprofit are directly correlated with their continued involvement (Waters & Bortree, 2011). While this may seem like an obvious strategy, it is something that can easily be overlooked. It is not enough for organizations to hope volunteers will create this environment on their own. Leadership must take an active role in onboarding new members into the existing pool of workers as well as helping them foster new connections (Word & Sowa, 2017). Paying specific attention to volunteers and demonstrating care also helps reduce turnover as people no longer feel they are just another number within the organization's structure, but rather are valued team members (Reamon, 2016).

Emphasis on participation. Part of a community-inspired organizational culture is the understanding that everyone must be involved. It is particularly important to have active engagement, as this is one of the top contributors to volunteer motivation (Saks & Gruman, 2014). Typically, nonprofits are able to successfully motivate people to participate in the mission of the organization. Since they are with the organization voluntarily, most volunteers are already willing and excited to participate. This excitement, while useful in accomplishing the overall goals of the organization, can also end up creating disillusioned workers (Reamon, 2016).

Many people in the nonprofit industry struggle with feeling like the organization pays more attention to the community it is seeking to help than the workers providing the services. This is known as the nonprofit paradox (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). Without even the consideration of a salary to fall back on, individuals caught in this paradox quickly become burnt out and leave the organization with no intent to return. This paradox serves

to reinforce the characterization of volunteers as a type of renewable resource. If volunteers are neglected or overused, then the pool of energy will be depleted and there is a higher risk they will burnout (Reamon, 2016). It is, therefore, critical for nonprofit leaders to ensure all volunteers are participating in the community emphasis and creating connections with one another. Not only will this potentially reduce turnover, it will also increase productivity as workers will feel more motivated to invest in an organization that is investing in them (Malinen & Harju, 2016).

Organizational-Focused Strategies

Creating an environment in which volunteers feel supported and cared for by an organization will make them more committed to the cause (Weisberg & Dent, 2016; Worth, 2017). This is especially important for nonprofits since they cannot use money as a motivating factor to accomplish this. Nonprofit organizations need volunteers who are willing to invest extra time and resources into accomplishing the social goals of the nonprofit without necessarily being compensated for all of their contributions. They also need the volunteers to keep coming back and continually investing. One of the most important and powerful methods of retention, therefore, is emphasizing the mission and organization.

Missional attachment. Based on a study of 991 employees working for a nonprofit organization, missional attachment was cited as the greatest contribution to retention (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). The sentiments in this survey continue to be repeated across many organizations today. This is something management should take advantage of. People understand the challenges that come with nonprofits. They are aware of the

high amounts of thankless labor and the many unpaid hours required of them. They commit to volunteering for nonprofits, however, because they are passionate about the mission and want to be a part of achieving it; and so, choose idealistic satisfaction over extrinsic factors like money (Park & Word, 2012). Organizations should capitalize on this desire by educating every volunteer on the full extent of its mission. Management should also periodically inform volunteers about how the jobs they are doing are directly contributing to the achievements of the organizations to serve as a source of motivation (Harp et al., 2016).

Organizational attachment. In educating workers, nonprofits also need to typify how their organization specifically lives up to the goals outlined in the mission; otherwise, they run the risk of inspiring workers to accomplish a social goal while pushing them to achieve it with another nonprofit. Creating organizational attachment, therefore, is key to ensure long term retention. The prime antecedents for attachment to an organization are empowerment, feedback, recognition, and autonomy (Fornes, Rocco, & Wollard, 2008). These factors can help characterize an organization as supportive which, in turn, makes it more appealing to volunteers. This is especially true in the case of millennial volunteers, as these are the same factors they, as a generation, often look for (Weisberg & Dent, 2016).

Individual Job-Focused Strategies

After creating an overall environment conducive to helping workers feel included and emphasizing organizational commitment, it is important for nonprofits to look to individual-focused methods of retention. This involves recognizing the desires of the

specific demographics present in the workplace and applying them through effective and clear policies. For example, millennials are looking for opportunities to attain increased responsibility and develop skills which can be applied in future career paths (Word & Sowa, 2017). Many baby boomers are retiring and looking for opportunities to give back to their communities or younger generations (Kase et al., 2018). Because of this, organizations should be intentional with the structures they are creating. They should seek to have as much awareness as possible of what volunteers are looking for so they can craft opportunities that will be enticing to those applying. Nonprofits should also seek to individualize their retention efforts, which may help volunteers feel a sense of value and appreciation. This can serve as a mechanism for improving satisfaction and reducing overall turnover (Akinlade & Shalack, 2017).

Mentoring opportunities. Various analyses conducted of volunteer demographics have determined older adult volunteers have many skills and abilities which they have gained over the years in the workforce (Kase et al., 2018). Meanwhile, young adult volunteers are often just entering the workforce and are seeking to gain new skills and abilities (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). This creates the perfect opportunity for nonprofits to pair the two generations together in mentoring programs, allowing for an exchange of knowledge. Younger volunteers can gain insight into business operations as well as develop an increasingly positive attitude about working with older people. Older volunteers can also expand their social network and gain a newfound respect for younger people (Kase et al., 2018). This helps develop a strong team dynamic among volunteers and re-emphasizes the community aspect of nonprofits.

The use of mentorship is also beneficial because it impacts both parties. Those who are mentoring often feel a sense of fulfillment and satisfaction because they believe they are making a difference. Mentoring also meets the need for autonomy and self-organization many millennials desire within their jobs (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). In addition, those who are being mentored are often more willing to mentor others and typically report being more satisfied with their volunteering experience (Shields, 2009). With this in mind, managers should ensure they are proactively creating these mentorships by getting to know their volunteers and matching them up in ways which truly benefit both parties. Doing this will remind volunteers the organizations they are serving with truly value them as individuals. This investment into volunteer training and development will certainly act as an important factor in the overall desire of many to remain with the organization (Reamon, 2016).

Human Resource Application

The human resource department plays a critical role in improving the non-monetary motivations of the nonprofit workforce. For example, through the utilization of training and general education of organizational policies, HR can establish clear communication channels that help workers at all levels feel confident in their understanding of the organization's goals (Shuck & Wollard, 2013). HR hiring practices are also key in creating a change. Taking on retired baby boomers as volunteers to serve as mentors to young nonprofit professionals can improve morale and build strong interpersonal relationships among workers (Eisner et al., 2009). The role of human resources in cooperation with management, therefore, is essential to providing a basis for

the motivational strategies often performed by various levels of management. While managers are the ones who will be performing most of the direct application of the motivational theories discussed, it is necessary for HR to guide the organization as a whole and ensure all efforts are legal and conducive to worker well-being overall (Akinlade & Shalack, 2017).

Strategic Human Resource Management

The field of strategic human resource management (SHRM) is based on the idea that HR is critical to the success of an organization. SHRM also emphasizes there are specific practices which can be applied to improve worker satisfaction and overall commitment (Akinlade & Shalack, 2017). These practices are of particular importance to nonprofits who need to create environments that motivate volunteers to perform good work for the organization and continue coming back over long periods of time (Reamon, 2016). There is some difficulty for nonprofits, however, as approximately 47% relegate human resource functions to an executive director (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). Because of this, it is important to clearly understand what SHRM practices can be applied to an organization so any manager can implement them, regardless of whether or not they have a background in HR. The most common practices fall into two main categories: mission-driven and engagement.

Mission-driven practices. As the name suggests, mission-driven practices are designed to continuously reinforce the mission of an organization (Akinlade & Shalack, 2017). This aspect is key because missional attachment is continuously cited as a reason for volunteer retention (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). Because of this, HR managers should

apply what is called the contingency approach. This theory says the relation between HR and organizational performance is contingent on the organizational context (Akinlade & Shalack, 2017). This may seem obvious, but many who work for nonprofits are exposed to the mission of their organization so often they may forget the constant flood of new volunteers are not as experienced as they are.

With this in mind, HR should contextualize their practices to the specifics of the organization (Akinlade & Shalack, 2017). For example, in terms of recruitment, part of the hiring process may include questioning volunteers on their understanding of the nonprofit's mission statement. This may also involve a written portion in the application which asks volunteers to do research on the organization and demonstrate their knowledge in a series of questions. In another example, HR can provide training materials to new volunteers which clearly outline how their specific work will be contributing to the achievement of the overall goals and values of the organization (Harp et al., 2016). This is especially useful for drawing connections volunteers may be struggling to find between their own contributions and the overall work of a nonprofit. In another aspect, training may need to be provided to craft volunteers into ambassadors for the organization (Worth, 2017). This is something that cannot simply be assumed. While volunteers may have a good experience during their time and choose to communicate these positive feelings to others, it does not necessarily mean they will bring others to the organization. If they receive training which can hone their enthusiasm and give them the resources they need to reach out to others, then they may be able to become

organizational recruiters themselves, even long after they have left the organization (Worth, 2017).

Volunteer engagement. Engagement is an important aspect in motivation because it is what energizes volunteers to continue working for the organization. The first aspect of engagement is job clarity. Volunteers should have a very clear understanding of the work they are going to be completing. Confusion in their responsibilities or expectations from management can contribute to disenchantment with the position which can eventually lead to burnout (Reamon, 2016). SHRM engagement practices should involve orienting new volunteers when they join an organization, so they better understand the organization and their place in it (Shuck & Wollard, 2013). One way to do this is by providing job descriptions and handbooks that clearly articulate tasks and overall expectations for volunteers (Harp et al., 2016).

A second aspect of engagement is adding value to a job. Volunteers are typically doing small, monotonous tasks that may appear to be insignificant in the grand scheme of the organization. This can lead to a sense of frustration with why they are spending so much of their time doing busy work, when they could be out doing what they believe is more productive work that would make more of a difference (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). To combat this, HR practices should ensure that they are designing jobs for volunteers in a way that gives them opportunities to experience creativity and problem-solving which can enhance productivity and overall commitment (Weisberg & Dent, 2016; Saratovsky & Feldmann, 2013).

Conclusion

The nonprofit industry is in need of a shift. With the rapid decline in skilled workers and the continual turnover rates of volunteers, new approaches should be implemented by management to address these issues (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). The study of motivational theories and strategies are a particularly useful approach for managers because they can resolve many of the problems currently faced by nonprofits (Worth, 2017). Issues like volunteer burnout are directly tied to the principles outlined in motivational theories, including manager-to-worker and organization-to-worker relationships. By addressing these problems at the root, organizations can implement long-term solutions which can help save time and resources down the line (Reamon, 2016).

While there are a multitude of motivational theories in existence, ultimately, the only good theory is one which will work for an organization. Determining the right fit can be based on anything from the primary demographic of an organization to the current systems in place. Regardless of what theory or strategy is chosen, the key is working together in an organization-wide approach to properly implement it. According to Worth (2017), all levels of management should clearly articulate that they are on board with changes being made to ensure that those down the line remain consistent in their application and enforcement. If possible, special emphasis should be given to the human resource department, as they are already equipped with many of the programs and policies necessary to properly implement a new strategy or motivational theory.

Ultimately, it is important to remember that motivating volunteers is not simply about improving the quantity of work performed. It is about creating a culture of quality where people feel valued in the workplace and are invested in the organization they are working with (Reamon, 2016). Utilizing strategies like community emphasis, organizational commitment, and mentoring opportunities can help to create an environment that is constructive and supportive to workers (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). This should be the goal for nonprofits. To take care of workers is to make an investment with the intention that these workers will help achieve the overarching missions of their respective organizations and make the world a better place.

References

2017 Nonprofit Employment Practices Survey - Interactive Data Portal. (2018). Retrieved from https://www.nonprofithr.com/2017-nep-survey-new/

Akinlade, D., & Shalack, R. (2017). Strategic human resource management in nonprofit organizations: A case for mission-driven human resource practices. *Global Journal of Management and Marketing, 1*(1).

Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2019). *Volunteering in the United States, 2015*. Retrieved from https://www.bls.gov/news.release/volun.nr0.htm

Clary, E. G., Ridge, R. D., Stukas, A. A., Snyder, M., Copeland, J., Haugen, J., & Miene, P. (1998). Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: A functional approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*(6), 1516-1530.

Cinar, O., Bektas, C., & Aslan, I. (2011). A motivation study on the effectiveness of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. *Economics And Management*, *16*, 690-695.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The “what” and “why” of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry, 11*, 227–268. doi: 10.1207/S15327965PLI1104_01.

Demographics. (n.d.). Retrieved from https://www.nationalservice.gov/serve/via/demographics

Eisner, D., Grimm, R. T., Jr., Maynard, S., & Washburn, S. (2009). The new volunteer workforce. *Stanford Social Innovation Review, 7*, 32-37.

Fearon, C., McLaughlin, H., & Morris, L. (2013). Conceptualising work engagement. An individual, collective and organisational efficacy perspective. *European Journal of Training and Development, 37*(3), 244-256. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/03090591311312723

Fornes, S. L., Rocco, T. S., & Wollard, K. K. (2008). Workplace commitment: A conceptual model developed from integrative review of the research. *Human Resource Development Review, 7*(3), 339.

Furnham, A., Eracleous, A., & Chamorro-Premuzic, T. (2009). Personality, motivation and job satisfaction: Hertzberg meets the big five. *Journal Of Managerial Psychology*, *24*(8), 765-779. doi: 10.1108/02683940910996789

Ghazi, S., Shahzada, G., & Khan, M. (2013). Resurrecting Herzberg's two factor theory: An implication to the university teachers. *Journal Of Educational And Social Research*, *3*(2).

Harp, E., Scherer, L., & Allen, J. (2016). Volunteer engagement and retention. *Nonprofit And Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *46*(2), 442-458. doi: 10.1177/0899764016651335

Hauser, L. (2014). Work motivation in organizational behavior. *Economics, Management and Financial Markets, 9*(4), 239-246.

Hurst, C., Scherer, L., & Allen, J. (2016). Distributive justice for volunteers. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership, 27*(3), 411-421. doi:10.1002/nml.21251

Jiang, K., Lepak, D. P., Hu, J., & Baer, J. C. (2012). How does human resource management influence organizational outcomes? A meta-analytic investigation of mediating mechanisms. *Academy of Management Journal, 55*(6), 1264-1294.

Kahn, W. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at Work. *Academy Of Management Journal*, *33*(4), 692-724. doi: 10.5465/256287

Kase, R., Saksida, T., & Mihelic, K.K. (2018). Skill development in reverse mentoring: Motivational processes of mentors and learners. *Human Resource Management, 58*(1).

Knutsen, W., & Chan, Y. (2014). The phenomenon of staff volunteering: How far can you stretch the psychological contract in a nonprofit organization? *VOLUNTAS: International Journal Of Voluntary And Nonprofit Organizations*, *26*(3), 962-983. doi: 10.1007/s11266-014-9476-8

Malinen, S., & Harju, L. (2016). Volunteer engagement: Exploring the distinction between job and organizational engagement. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal Of Voluntary And Nonprofit Organizations*, *28*(1), 69-89. doi: 10.1007/s11266-016-9823-z

Maurer, R. (2017). Nonprofits should emulate corporate recruiting to compete for talent. Retrieved from https://www.shrm.org/resourcesandtools/hr-topics/talent-acquisition/pages/nonprofits-corporate-recruiting-compete-for-talent.aspx

Meehan, W. F. & Jonker, K. S. (2017). Stanford survey on leadership and management in the nonprofit sector. Retrieved from http://www.engineofimpact.org/survey

Park, S., & Word, J. (2012). Driven to service: Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for public and nonprofit managers. *Public Personnel Management*, *41*(4), 705-734.

Phillips, L. C., & Phillips, M. H. (2010). Volunteer motivation and reward preference: An empirical study of volunteerism in a large, not-for-profit organization. *SAM Advanced Management Journal. 75*(4), 12-39

Phillips, L., & Phillips, M. (2011). Altruism, egoism, or something else: Rewarding volunteers effectively and affordably. *Southern Business Review, 36*(1), 23-35. Retrieved from http://ezproxy.liberty.edu/login?url=https://search.proquest.com/docview/883862483?accountid=12085

Reamon, S. (2016). Managing volunteers: Recruitment, retention, and relationship building. *SPNHA Review, 12*(1), 74-95.

Riley, K. G. (2015). *Strategies for transitioning workforces from baby-boomer to millennial majorities* (Order No. 3746363). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (1755875371). Retrieved from http://ezproxy.liberty.edu/login?url=https://search.proquest.com/docview/1755875371?accountid=12085

Saks, A., & Gruman, J. (2014). What do we really know about employee engagement? *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *25*(2), 155-182. doi: 10.1002/hrdq.21187

Saratovsky, K. D., & Feldmann, D. (2013). *Cause for change: The why and how of nonprofit millennial engagement.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Shields, P. O. (2009). Young adult volunteers: Recruitment appeals and other marketing considerations. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing, 21*, 139-159. DOI: 10.1080/10495140802528658

Shuck, M. B., & Wollard, K. K. (2013). Employee engagement: Motivating and retaining tomorrow's workforce. *New Horizons in Adult Education & Human Resource Development, 22*(1), 48-53.

Waters, R. (2008). Applying relationship management theory to the fundraising process for individual donors. *Journal Of Communication Management*, *12*(1), 73-87. doi: 10.1108/13632540810854244

Waters, R., & Bortree, D. (2011). Improving volunteer retention efforts in public library systems: How communication and inclusion impact female and male volunteers differently. *International Journal Of Nonprofit And Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *17*(2), 92-107. doi: 10.1002/nvsm.438

Waters, R., & Bortree, D. (2012). Advancing relationship management theory: Mapping the continuum of relationship types. *Public Relations Review*, *38*(1), 123-127. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2011.08.018

Weisberg, M., & Dent, E. (2016). Meaning or money? Non-profit employee satisfaction. *Voluntary Sector Review, 7*(3), 293-313. http://dx.doi.org/10.1332/096278916X14767760873899

Word, J., & Sowa, J. (2017). *The nonprofit human resource management handbook: From theory to practice*. New York: Routledge.

Worth, M. J. (2017). *Nonprofit management: Principles and practice* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Wu, Y., Li, C., & Khoo, S. (2015). Predicting future volunteering intentions through a self-determination theory perspective. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal Of Voluntary And Nonprofit Organizations*, *27*(3), 1266-1279. doi: 10.1007/s11266-015-9570-6

Xu, J., & Thomas, H. C. (2011). How can leaders achieve high employee engagement? *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 32*(4), 399-416. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/01437731111134661

Yusoff, W., Kian, T., & Idris, M. (2013). Herzberg's two factors theory on work motivation: Does it work for today's environment. *Global Journal of Commerce & Management Perspective*, *2*(5), 18-22.