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Motivation in the Nonprofit Sector: How does Public Service Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Level of Commitment Explain Executive Directors' and Full-Time Employees' Motivation to Achieve the Mission of the Organization?

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By

Yolanda Jackson Cook

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2014

Motivation in the nonprofit sector: How does public service motivation, job satisfaction,

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By

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Candidate for Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

This present study aims to identify the relationships between public service motivation (PSM), job satisfaction, and level of commitment for the study population of 139 executive directors (N=42) and full-time employees (N=97) working with the YMCA in either Mississippi, Alabama, Arkansas, Louisiana, or Tennessee. The study was conducted using an online questionnaire, where executive directors or a representative were contacted to attain consent prior to their participation in the study.

For this study, the dependent variable (Global PSM) serves as a means to understand its influence on job satisfaction and level of commitment for the two-group (executive directors and full-time employees) sample population. Once considered to be applicable only to employees in the public sector, this study discusses the application of PSM to employees in the nonprofit sector using the research of Mann (2006) and Word and Carpenter (2013). The employment of PSM to the nonprofit sector guides this research to understand Global PSM's influence on job satisfaction and level of commitment for executive directors and full-time employees. Moreover, Pandey and

Stazyk (2008) posited job satisfaction and organizational commitment are viewed as correlates to PSM.

Using ordinary least-squares regression (OLS), the findings for this study indicated four of the nine job satisfaction facets (nature of work, pay, supervision, and coworkers) were significant to increase the Global PSM of executive directors. However, none of the commitment components (affective, continuance, and normative) or demographic variables were found to be significant for this group. Likewise, the findings for the full-time employee group revealed nature of work and operating conditions as the two significant job satisfaction facets. Although slightly significant, normative commitment was the only significant variable of the three-component model of commitment when regressed together or with the job satisfaction or demographic variables in the study.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband, Bryant, who loved me through this process even when I was not always a very lovable person. Words cannot truly express my gratitude to you for ensuring that I finally achieved this goal. You have been very supportive of me every step of the way while working on my dissertation. You are simply an amazing man! Your strength and patience surpasses all of my understanding, and I thank you for always going over and beyond in order to guarantee that our family was well taken care of while I pursued my dream.

This dissertation is also dedicated to my mother and father. To my mother, thank you for your love and support, not to mention the home-cooked meals that gave me nourishment to keep moving forward. Since I was a little child, you have always encouraged Buck and me to always keep God first and let him direct our paths. Thank you for reminding me during numerous conversations that "this too shall pass," and I would be just fine if I kept God first and let Him direct my path. To my father, thank you for your guidance and helping me early on to believe in myself and know that I can accomplish anything that I set my mind to. Throughout this process, you have continuously reminded me that it is not how you start, but how you finish. I held this advice very close to my heart and it has helped me to complete my dissertation.

Lastly, this dissertation is dedicated to my siblings. To my brother, Hansel II, you are an ambitious young man who continues to strive for greatness. I am proud of you and

what you are beginning to accomplish in life. I admire your persistence and tenacity to move through any situation. To Brickley and Briceley, please know that you can accomplish any dream you set your minds to. Always strive for excellence in all that you do. As your older sister, I want each of my siblings to know that I am always here for you.

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Wilma Rudolph commented, "The reward is not so great without the struggle." This quote accurately describes the dissertation process. This process has really been a journey with some incredible highs and some incredible lows, but I take none of my experiences during this time for granted. I found comfort in knowing that "God will make a way and bring me out." Additionally, pursuing my doctoral degree taught me a lot about myself and that I can endure and persevere to the finish line, with the prayers and help of others.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

As a concept, motivation consistently deals with that which "energizes, directs, and sustains behavior (Perry & Porter, 1982, p. 89). Motivation is the degree and type of effort that a person demonstrates in any behavioral situation. According to Perry and Porter there needs to be more attention given to ensuring that the idea of motivation is not just matched against the least amount of effort expended that will get the job done, but that the individual freely gives his all. This effort is described as motivation, which should ensure that every time individuals come to work they are ready to give their very best while at work.

The majority of the literature on motivation has focused heavily on motivating employees in the private sector; however, the work of Perry and Porter (1982) opened the door to the exploration of what elements motivate employees in the public sector and later employees in the nonprofit sector. Stemming from this earlier work along with many others to be discussed later, understanding the work motivation of employees in the nonprofit sector has also become an important area of research.

Motivation is defined in many ways. For instance, Atkinson (1964) defined the term as "the contemporary (immediate) influence on direction, vigor, and persistence of action" (p.2). In that same year, Vroom (1964) saw motivation as "a process governing choices made by persons…among alternative forms of voluntary activity" (p.6).

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Campbell and Pritchard (1976) viewed motivation as a set of independent/dependent variable relationships that explains the direction, amplitude, and persistence of an individual's behavior, holding constant the effects of aptitude, skill, understanding of task, and the constraints operating in the environment (Steers, Mowday & Shapiro, 2004, p.379). These authors' established that almost everyone who has to work or play with another person is concerned with motivation and must face the questions of how much motivation they have for the current task as well as for other work tasks. Although introduced at different times, the previously identified definitions are all principally concerned with factors or events that energize, channel, and sustain human behavior over time. Thus, the theoretical implications of work motivation have served as a means to explain why people behave the way they do while at work. Lawler (1973) explained that the principal task of any motivational theory should be to analyze the voluntary choices people make among different behaviors. With this explanation in mind, he made three observations: (1) organizations are different in how they espouse motivation among workers, (2) workers are different in what makes them motivated to work, and (3) what factors will impact the motivation of people and how they will react to such motivators (p.5).

In the early 1990s, Katzell and Thompson expressed that work motivation is due to the changing society and demands of workers. The early 20th century marked the onset of workers demanding more satisfaction from their jobs and from life itself. The late 1990s saw motivation emerge more as people's behavior and thoughts. This change is the focus of the work of Graham and Weiner, who described motivation as the study of why people think and behave as they do (p.63). Even with this emergence of studying the

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behavior and thoughts of people, it was important not to overlook the human element of such research, and this led Mesch (2010) to justify the significance of the human element to organizational performance. The human element is used to accomplish the organization's goals in all three sectors; therefore, it is the human element that must be protected and maintained to ensure heightened organizational performance and success.

Several theories exist regarding motivation that resonate to the point that it serves as an integral ingredient of the documented changes that may occur to an employee's intrinsic motivation. Such documented changes can vary from being very low to very high; however, Ryan and Deci (2000) argued that motivation seen as an integral experience regarding an employee's intrinsic motivation may fluctuate between the levels of motivation espoused to the orientation of the motivation. Furthermore, Ryan and Deci (2000) postulated that the orientation of motivation deals with underlying attitudes and goals that refer to actions which explains people's behavior, particularly at work.

Executives in the nonprofit, public, and private sectors regard employees as valuable assets to the organization; consequently, it is important for executives to have the best systems to attract, motivate, and manage employees in the organizational system. The research of Mirvis and Hackett (1983) spoke pointedly about work and work force characteristics in the nonprofit sector and noted that employment in the nonprofit sector was on the rise because such employment appealed to people based on the principles of selfless service and contentment at work as a way to avoid the competitive nature of the private sector. Additionally, these authors' spoke about their support of Porter and Lawler's work, two authors who challenged wages, working conditions, jobs, and work roles as a measure of motivation for employees when they are linked to job performance.

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Money, interesting work, influence, and other closely related mechanisms serve as rewards for employees to such a degree that rewards are depicted as those occurrences that are related to material gratification (extrinsic rewards) and to the work itself (intrinsic rewards) (p.9). Moving forward, intrinsic and extrinsic rewards became prominent. The research of Herzberg (2003) postulated that in order for employees to have a strong level of motivation, leaders can forget praise, forget punishment, and forget cash; they simply should strive to design jobs that are more interesting. Herzberg, one of the leading experts in the motivation literature commented, "I can charge a man's battery, then recharge it, and recharge it again. But it is only when he has his own generator that we can talk about motivation. He then needs no outside stimulation. He wants to do it (Hiam, 2003, p.12)." In the nonprofit sector, the executive director acts as Herzberg suggests by being the man or woman who charges and recharges the batteries of full-time employees and others affiliated with the organization.

When it comes to work effort, employees from all three sectors endorse the intrinsic rewards of their jobs as the primary motivators at all employment levels; however, public and nonprofit employees have been deemed as holding intrinsic rewards in a higher regard when compared to for-profit sector employees. The literature confirms that for-profit employees, based on the nature of their jobs, hold extrinsic rewards in higher regard. Holding intrinsic rewards in higher regard leads to greater satisfaction at work for nonprofit and public employees. The justification for work motivation from Matheson's (2011) examination stated there are factors that convince people to take, accept, and stay with a job. As well, individual's become enthralled in the work to the

point that work duties may vary day-to-day, but employees are still well-pleased with the job. In essence, this is what work motivation symbolizes.

Significance of the Study

The work of early social science researchers has influenced the structure of nonprofit organizations in many ways. To begin, German sociologist Max Weber (1924) focused on organizational development and saw the voluntary organization as a potentially unstable, but highly dynamic and adaptable form which tries to balance the "value-rationality" characteristic of religious or political organizations with the technocratic "means-rationality" of business or public agencies. Second, French sociologist Emile Durkheim (1933), in writing about the division of labor, suggested that voluntary associations serve as the "social glue" in societies with high degrees of professional specialization, economic competition, and social stratification. Third, the French writer Alexis de Tocqueville (1969), while traveling the United States in the 1830s, observed the highly decentralized nature of American government and society and noted the prominent role of voluntary associations in the daily lives of citizens. He also noted that voluntary associations encouraged social participation and inclusion of people from different backgrounds, with different preferences, in local societies (Anheier, 2005, p. 13).Thus, the writings of these early social science researchers highlighted the influence of the voluntary sector in society that has carried over today as being a way to explain the sector's influence on providing answers to many issues that individuals and communities still encounter in modern-day society.

Lewis (2005) stated that the civil society sector, also addressed as the nonprofit sector, the independent sector, the third sector or the nongovernmental sector, is a

growing worldwide phenomenon (p.239). Individuals drawn to the work they do in the nonprofit sector are motivated in more diverse ways than those drawn to the public and private sectors. This diversity is one of the many things that make the nonprofit sector so unique. Along these lines, research about the nonprofit sector revealed that nonprofit employees bring to their jobs a higher level of commitment, which is often said to correlate to the mission of the organization. Thus, pay is not a factor in the higher level of commitment described as the general nature of nonprofit employees. Despite the higher level of commitment nonprofit employees are said to exhibit, research has further shown that these employees do demand more in terms of job tasks and other responsibilities at work. As a result, the independence derived from their jobs gives them more authority in their work roles, and they are more likely to seek out more intrinsic versus extrinsic rewards at work.

This present study is significant in that it seeks to address not just motivation, but more specifically public service motivation (PSM) as well as job satisfaction, and level of commitment of executive directors and full-time employees. Research has proven that prior to joining an organization, individuals should possess an inherent level of motivation (or in this case PSM) in order to help the organization achieve its mission. Lawler (1973) premised the importance of leaders understanding the approach to motivation [PSM] inside the organization cannot be "one size fits all" because no one approach or reward will work the same with each employee every time. Each employee warrants and demands different things from their work role and from the organization as a whole. Kim et. al. (2013) hypothesized that the two independent variables – job satisfaction and commitment -- are both presented as recurring benchmarks in PSM

research. For the public and private sectors, PSM was examined; however, there still exists gaps in the literature when it comes to employing PSM to explain the public service values of executive directors and full-time employees in the nonprofit sector.

Background: Applicability of PSM to Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

According to Broedling (1977), the historical significance of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation goes back to the work of Lewin (1935) and Tolman (1932) who were cited as the first modern-day cognitive theorists. The research of these authors cautioned the field of psychology to move away from a totally behaviorist, stimulus response viewpoint to one that thought of motivation exclusively as extrinsic. Herzberg (1959) introduced his motivation-hygiene theory, or the two-factor theory, as a measure that would allow researchers to examine motivation from two aspects: intrinsic and extrinsic. For instance, extrinsic factors (hygiene) such as salary, working conditions, and job security, may all lead to a person's dissatisfaction; however, intrinsic factors (motivators) such as the work itself, achievement, and recognition are cited as motivators which help an individual grow in his or her job. Much later, Broedling's (1977) research examined intrinsic motivation and confirmed that there are many areas of human behavior that are not actually intrinsic, but are only extrinsic in nature. Thus, the extrinsic classification given to human behavior has been designated as an across-the-board designation for behaviors which cannot be openly explained by intrinsic motivation (p.269). Moreover, Broedling (1977) assumed the intrinsic-extrinsic designation came from motivation and described it thusly:

…a person is intrinsically motivated to perform some task if there is no apparent reward for the performance except the activity itself and the feeling of satisfaction

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or enjoyment from doing the activity. Alternatively, one is extrinsically motivated to perform the task if he does it primarily for some reward (p.269).

The prominence of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation grew in the late 1960s, particularly when it came to gaining a better understanding of the motivational elements of a job such as work attitudes and work satisfaction. The work of Saleh and Hyde (1969) investigated how intrinsic and extrinsic motivation related to job contentment factors. For instance, these authors explored the intrinsic orientation of motivation in terms of working conditions, salary, job security, and co-worker relations toward one or the other types of motivational factors pertained to fulfillment of growth and self-actualization needs. On the other hand, the extrinsic need orientations are related to Maslow's (1954) fulfillment of lower order needs such as physiological, security, and love (as cited in Saleh & Hyde, 1969, p.47). Additionally, Saleh and Hyde's (1969) research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation demonstrated that people who are intrinsically oriented would display higher levels of general satisfaction than those who were extrinsically oriented; however, the authors did not reveal if those people who are extrinsically oriented would be satisfied, but only that their level of satisfaction would be lower (p.48).

Ryan and Deci (2000) stated that "to be motivated means to be moved to do something" (p.54). These authors popularized the self-determination theory (SDT) as an avenue to analyze the characteristic approaches to motivation founded on the different explanations or ambitions that promote activity within the organization. SDT illustrates the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and describes intrinsic motivation as those activities that are satisfying to the individual and extrinsic motivation as those activities that prompt an individual to dissociate himself from the goals and

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mission of the organization. From this research, Ryan and Deci (2000) concluded that not every person is intrinsically-motivated to the point where he is willing to take part in activities caused by social and environmental factors that aid in increasing their intrinsic motivation. These authors also proposed that a person's extrinsic motivation can be so strong that it is independent of their actions and will motivate them to participate in activities that foster the organization's goal and mission. Thus, SDT offers an ingrained theoretical presence for comprehending a person's motivation to work in both the public and nonprofit sectors. In this manner, SDT hinges on "the degree to which human behaviors are volitional or self-determined—the degree to which people endorse their actions at the highest level of reflection and engage in the actions with a full sense of choice" (Word & Park, 2009, p.108).

Houston (2011) revealed that a common articulation of PSM is a valuing of intrinsic work motives more so than extrinsic motives (p.762). Behavior derived by being intrinsically motivated hinges on the internal satisfaction received from the task; in other words, the person simply likes to do these tasks. Thus, the motivation to behave in such a manner lives within the individual and, according to Houston (2011), can either be self-determined or autonomous.

When it comes to work, the most likely incentive for intrinsically-motivated behavior with regard to the content of work is that the behavior should be satisfying and fulfilling. However, extrinsic motivation manages tasks performed with the "intention of obtaining a desired consequence or avoiding an undesired one" (Houston, p.762). Therefore, extrinsically-motivated behavior is often thought to be controlled outside of the scope of factors the individual has control over and where the reward for such

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behavior comes from a provider external to the person and where the location of such causes are independent of one's self. For extrinsically-motivated individuals, work tasks are performed for meaningful reasons that are satisfying to the individual's own needs. For example, performance-related pay is the perfect incentive system for actions girded by extrinsically-motivated behavior. Placing greater value on an intrinsic reward versus an extrinsic reward is restricted for three reasons. First, it fails to appreciate the distinction between different types of intrinsic motives and their relevance to public-spirited behavior. And there are two types of behavior related to this realm of thinking: (1) enjoyment-based behavior is where satisfaction comes from merely engaging in a work activity and (2) obligation-based behavior sees meaningful work as "the obligations of personal and social identities." It is this second behavior type where intrinsic motives play an important role. These two motives are closely related to the tenets found in Perry's (1997) research. The commitment to the public interest, which is the dimension that is present in all PSM behavior as it relates to the intrinsic/extrinsic motive, does not take into consideration completing tasks individuals do not find satisfying. Delivery of public services may sometimes mean undertaking tasks that are not particularly satisfying, but are simply important for implementing the best service goals and achieving the mission of the organization. The third restriction deals with the common treatment of work motives in research on PSM, and this dynamic relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motives is regularly missed or overlooked. It is in this third restriction where it is inadvertently thought that an individual represented by PSM places high value on work that has considerable worth to society but does not hold

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compensation in high regard. Thus, Ryan and Deci's (2000) SDT raises the likelihood that PSM has both intrinsic and extrinsic qualities (Houston, 2011).

The intrinsic and extrinsic reasons as to why an individual joins an organization will continue to be an important area of research for a couple of reasons. The first reason looks at the many reasons people remain with the organization, and the second reasons looks at the retention of employees when it comes to keeping the "best and the brightest" in the nonprofit sector. What is important to note is that people become members of organizations with certain needs and motives, including security of income and job, better employment prospects in the future, and satisfaction in getting their personal and professional needs met. In this manner, every person has different needs at different times; hence, management must be able, within certain constraints, to attend to the needs of employees. Baghaei (2011) stated that management must be able to recognize these basic needs and provide opportunities and environments for people to work in order to satisfy their needs (p. 116).

Statement of the Problem and the Corresponding Literature

Research on employee motivation abounds in the for-profit and public sectors where research questions and discussions explore factors that motivate employees to work in either sector or move between the two sectors. However, research on employee motivation, specifically the applicability of PSM to the nonprofit sector, is limited. This stream of research is important enough that it should be further examined in order to disclose the application of PSM to the nonprofit sector. Today's literature on PSM of the nonprofit sector continues to evolve, and it is emerging to the point that it is now widely

held that PSM applies to work in the nonprofit sector as well. This study investigates the impact of PSM on executive directors and full-time employees.

Firstly, motivation must be internalized by the individual, and it is the leader's responsibility to establish working conditions that manifest the intrinsic motivations of employees (Baldoni, 2004, p.xiii). This simply means that motivation is a huge deal for all organizations no matter the sector. However, an organization with a large number of employees whose intrinsic motivation is not very high can be damaging to its ability to achieve the mission of the organization or to make a profit. Thus, part of the leader's responsibility can be to design jobs so that the motivation of full-time employees is enhanced. The research of Baldoni (2004) sets forth a couple of ideas regarding the impact of motivation in organizations: (1) motivation must be internalized by the individual and (2) the need for motivation is very real (p. xiii, 10). The greater part of an employee's motivation is based on his feelings and the impact that the employee feels his position adds to the success of the organization.

Motivation is a significant component of individuals working in the nonprofit sector (Anheier, 2005; Baldoni, 2004). As a sector, executive directors, along with the board of directors, work to devise plans to help employees to be more effective in their roles and to achieving the mission of the organization. What is important to understand is executive directors have a difficult job when it comes to knowing what elements motivate full-time employees individually to be able to work as a collective group to achieve the mission of the organization. Prior to the hiring stage, leaders look for employees to have a certain level of intrinsic motivation.

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Combining the right mix of passion and anxiety should encourage employees to bring to work daily their own source of motivation to complete work tasks and to work harder in their respective roles to achieve the mission of the organization. Similarly, when leaders possess a high level of intrinsic motivation, then they are able to attract, select, and retain members with high levels of intrinsic motivation. In the nonprofit sector, executive directors and full-time employees who are highly motivated to perform their jobs without focusing on time or willingness from others in the organization take on more responsibility when duty calls (Hiam, 2003). Hiam (2003) further stated that intrinsic motivation only flourishes in the right emotional climate, and withers in the wrong one (p.17).

Intrinsic motivation is a good foundational component to work on when trying to turn on employee's natural motivation to work. On the contrary, employees who are extrinsically motivated will need assistance from external factors (e.g., the executive director, co-workers or even pay and rewards) to be motivated to work. The executive director learns that as the leader of these types of employees, he or she must draw on more of their internal motivation in order to prompt these full-time employees to simply perform their regular job tasks. This often proves challenging for the highly motivated executive director and even other full-time employees. It is difficult during the recruitment process to learn all necessary aspects of the prospective full-time employee drive and motivation because most candidates exhibit only the proper behavior which will land them the job.

Schepers et.al. (2005) and Word and Carpenter (2013) investigated the need of nonprofit requirements in the current realm of theories of motivation. The research on the

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impact of motivation in the nonprofit sector employs many current and highly-regarded theories of motivation arising from the for-profit sector. Word and Carpenter (2013) reported that since nonprofit employees are considered very significant components of the new public service, then it is fair to understand that they are motivated in ways that closely resemble public employees. To further expound, Word and Park (2009) posited that the similarity to serving the public interest has been one of the major factors promoting stronger ties and relationships between the two sectors (p.104). The close resemblance to, as well as the differences between the public and nonprofit sectors, is due in part to the origins, purpose, history, culture, and legal structures of the two sectors, and the differences between the composition of each sector's work forces (Word & Park, p.104). However, the connection between the two sectors stems partly from what is thought to be their response to the market's economic failure to care for people's needs.

Research Questions

This research investigated the public service motivation (PSM) of executive director's and full-time employees to achieve the mission of the organization while exploring the impact that the mission statement has on such behaviors in the nonprofit organization. Additionally, this research investigated the impact of PSM on the job satisfaction and level of commitment of the executive director and full-time employee.

Organization of the Study

This study contains seven chapters. The first chapter introduces the study and explains its significance in the field of public administration and as well as in nonprofit management. This chapter also includes the statement of the problem, discussing how

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influential motivation is in nonprofit organizations, and it discusses what happens if that motivation is not continually developed or organizational leaders create relationships in the organization that will be difficult to manage. In the second chapter, the author examines PSM as the theoretical framework guiding this study. The research of Perry and Wise (1990) was used to explain motivation in the public sector; now is being applied to the nonprofit sector because that sector shares similar characteristics to the public sector. In chapter three, the author presents a detailed review of the literature showing how the two independent variables – job satisfaction and level of commitment - impact public service motivation. To understand PSM in the nonprofit sector, one must first understand the two basic types of motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and also understand how these two types relate to PSM. Chapter four of this dissertation examines positive youth development and looks at the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) model as it employs this theory in its programs and activities in the United States. Chapter five sets out research procedures, a description of the research design, methodology, data collection, methods of surveying, and other procedures used in the study. In chapter six, the author will discuss results from the analysis of the data reported in chapter five. Finally, chapter seven concludes the study and offers recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FROM THE PUBLIC TO THE NONPROFIT

SECTOR: UNDERSTANDING THE INFLUENCE OF PUBLIC SERVICE

MOTIVATION ON THE WORK MOTIVATIONS OF

NONPROFIT EMPLOYEES

Public Service Motivation: Prior to the 1990s

Elmer Staats (1988) theorized that employment in public administration is
regarded as a special calling, and those who answer the call are regarded as being
different. This difference has been thoroughly identified as public service motivation
(PSM) and discussed in the empirical literature since the early 1950s beginning with the
work of Paul Van Riper (1958). Van Riper traced the history of the civil service prior to
defining the true essence of PSM and how it was used to explain employment in the
public sector. In this model, PSM was based on commitment to the public interest,
service to others, and self-sacrifice. Earlier discussions on motivation, during the mid-
1960s, occurred during a time when the public's trust in government began to diminish,
and there was a strong disbelief that the sector was able to provide effective services that
best met the public's interest. Known as the "quiet crisis," this period of time warranted a
rebirth of the public service ethic, which transpired during the late 1980s as a time when
Americans were asked to recommit themselves to government. This period of rebirth led
the way for what was to be recognized as a period of time for rededication to the

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American government through the eyes of motivation, specifically termed public service motivation. Furthermore, the 1960s prompted public administration scholars like Herbert Kaufman (1960) to discuss how to cultivate and sustain a level of commitment among employees. Likewise, Frederick Mosher, in the late 1960s and early 1980s posited that people sought employment in the realm of public service as a means to satisfy their sense of civic duty or obligation to other people. Such appointments in the public sector were taken because people felt a sense of responsibility in these positions that would afford them the opportunity to show concern for the general welfare of others. This period of unrest renewed interest from scholars like Bruce Buchanan (1975) who found differences in public and private sector work. This difference was probably due to the bureaucratic red tape characteristic of the public sector. Additionally, Buchanan (1975) compared PSM to job involvement and found that job involvement of public sector managers was lower than that of private sector managers, which was probably due to bureaucratic red tape.

Contrary to Buchanan's (1975) findings, Rainey (1982) contended that public managers would have a much higher job involvement score if questionnaire wording was more direct. Secondly, the major issue with these studies is that individuals may have different ideas about the meaning of public service, which could have impacted their responses (p.297). According to Elmer Staats (1988), public service is defined as a concept, an attitude, a sense of duty, and a sense of public mortality (p.601). This definition helped Perry and Wise (1990) to develop and introduce their operational definition of the PSM construct. Likewise, Rainey (1982) concluded in his research that PSM was hard to define and measure due to the complex nature of the construct (p.299).

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Public service motivation is an individual-level construct that was first just recognized to define the motivations of public sector workers, but today can be used to help explain the work motivations of nonprofit employees. Based on the work of Houston (2005, 2008), PSM should be more noticeable in the activities that mandate significant levels of self-sacrifice from those who work to serve the public interest and that the theoretical significance of PSM is manifested in the connotations for behavior. Thus, the research of Moynihan and Pandey (2007) brings PSM research together with this statement, "PSM provide a theory of motivation that links the pursuit of the public interest with administrative behavior (p.41)." The theoretical significance of PSM lies in its implications for behavior in the public sector while hypothesizing that the levels of PSM influenced several variables such as job satisfaction, performance, organizational joining, commitment and effectiveness (Houston, 2008; Kim, 2005; Naff and Crum, 1999; and Perry and Wise, 1990).

Public Service Motivation: From the 1990s and Beyond

Perry and Wise (1990) defined public service motivation as an "individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations (p.390)." The very essence of this definition has opened doors for many public administration scholars and practitioners both domestically and internationally to continually study the PSM construct many years after its introduction.

No matter what sector the organization belongs to, motivation is critical to the effective functioning of organizations. The research of Behn (1995) investigated the three big questions being considered in the field of public administration, where motivation, as one of the three, has intrigued public managers and other employers to want to know

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what steps they could take to motivate people to work energetically and intelligently towards achieving public purposes (p.315). The simplicity of motivation and public service motivation from an organizational and leadership perspective can best be understood in that people are different; therefore, their expectations from work will also be different (Crewson, 1997). Perry (1997) took the definition of PSM and built a measurement scale that has been used time and time again to study PSM in many different ways across many disciplines. Moreover, Perry (1997) stated that the recent development of a PSM construct and an instrument to measure it opens the way for systematic and empirical research to take place (p.181). Naff and Crum (1999) revealed that employees with high PSM scores expressed a greater satisfaction with their jobs because these employees also show positive attitudes toward the government, which may stem from the fact that the public sector is regarded as the chosen employer by many people. With the introduction of the PSM scale, the impact of research on PSM has been experienced in public administration, but other academic fields as well, whereby sparking a continuation of research from both scholars and practitioners.

To go along with the PSM measurement scale, Perry (2000) devised a theory of motivation that he believed would be seen as an alternative to the rational choice theory that would likely empower the thinking about the force of motivation in organizations. To help society better understand the theoretical significance of PSM, Perry critiqued motivation theory. This critique explained much of the occurrences in the public and nonprofit sectors regarding motivation theories since of much of the earlier empirical literature focused heavily on motivation in the private sector. As a means to understand Perry's critique of the motivation theory, it is helpful to revert back to earlier research

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from Perry and Porter (1982) despite their application of applying motivation theory to the private sector they were able to pinpoint five themes worthy of study that is now called the Perry-Porter Critique.

Following Perry-Porter's critique, Shamir's analysis of motivation in organizations emerged in 1991 bearing close resemblance to the earlier work of Perry and Porter (1982). In this work, Shamir established five limitations of motivation research. The first of the five limitations stated that the theory of motivation contained individualistic bias, which viewed people as rational maximizers. In using the Perry-Porter critique, Shamir (1991) also identified "strong situations" to be portrayed by clear goals, abundant rewards, and reward-performance contingencies that are not likely to happen in public organizations. Limitation three was the failure to specify the behaviors to which it applies because there is no distinction made between categories of behavior. The fourth limitation posited Shamir's criticism on the motivation theory to encompass that intrinsic motivation derived from a place where a task would be motivating due to its meaning to the individual. The fifth limitation stated that values and moral obligations are left out of the ideas of intrinsic motivation in current theories of work motivation (Perry, 2000, p. 473-475).

The above-mentioned limitations on motivation theory afforded Perry (2000) the opportunity to move forth and offered an alternative theory of motivation that prescribed four theoretical premises relating to motivation. The first premise – *Rational, Normative, and Affective Processes Motivate Humans* – surrounded the first thoughts on motivation that came from the rational choice model of behavior that described people as having the right to decide on a course of action using the principle of utility maximization. The

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second premise – *People are Motivated by their Self-Concepts* – followed March and Olsen's (1989) identification of two general models of motivation – the logic of consequence and the logic of appropriateness where both connoted a sequence of decisions based on four questions: (1) What kind of situation is this?; (2) Who am I?; (3) How appropriate are different actions for me in this situation? and (4) What is most appropriate? This sequence of questioning is significant to behaviors seen in both public and nonprofit organizations that logic of consequence just cannot seem to explain. The third premise – *Preferences of Values Should be Endogenous to Any Theory of Motivation* – evolved from the work of Aaron Wildavsky, who in 1987, inquired about the role of preferences in social and behavioral science where he mentioned that political scientists are likely to claim that preferences are resultant of what matters to people. The final premise – *Preferences are Learned in Social Processes* – is merely a sequel to premise three and examined the likelihood that if preferences are internal to motivation theory, then how are they made? (Perry, p.476-479). The answer to the above question can be answered with the implementation of Wildavsky's cultural identity theory (1987) as well as Bandura's social learning theory (1977, 1986), by which these two theories coupled together illustrate how preferences are made and how social processes are able to come together.

Thirteen years later, there are still some significant points to be gained from Perry's work toward constructing theoretical justifications for PSM: (1) four premises structured the direction for a work motivation theory that offered stronger reasoning for the way employees act in public and nonprofit organizations; (2) the four premises assume that work behavior is received from many sources in addition to the rational

choice theory, but could also come from a place of normative conformity and affective bonding (Perry, p.480); and (3) the way a person feels about him or herself permeates through the way the motivational process functions in the workplace. Either way, this earlier work of Perry (2000) postulated that the most important aspect of developing a theory of PSM is to outline the sources and nature of what motivates individuals. In the realm of public administration, the increase in research activity has produced a proliferation of methods used to measure PSM (Perry, Hondgehem & Wise, 2010, p. 683). As long as PSM continues to be studied, we will be presented with many different methods; therefore, the author must highlight the work of Wright (2008) who revealed that there were all types of methodological challenges in the research of PSM. In particular, any such endeavor sustaining PSM research will face numerous challenges in both measuring the existence or prevalence of the relevant construct as well as meeting the conditions necessary for making causal claims between them (Wright, 2008, p. 80). To overcome the methodological challenges relating to PSM research, Wright (2008) proposed that this research on PSM may be well served by increasing the diversity in research data collection methods and design while also working to minimize the diversity in the operational definitions of the construct (p.93).

Multiple Definitions for Public Service Motivation: The late 1990s to the late 2000s

Perry introduced the PSM measurement scale to understand the motivations of employees in the public sector and later those in the nonprofit sector. One year later, Lewis and Alonso (1999) took a shorter version of the PSM scale used in the 1996 Merit Principles Survey and concluded that there existed a positive correlation between PSM and performance, which Perry and Wise (1990) had forecasted in their conclusions. In the

same year, Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) offered a more global definition of PSM and associated the construct with altruism by defining PSM as a "general, altruistic motivation to serve the interest of a community of people, a state, a nation or humankind" (p.20). This definition closely resembles Brewer and Selden's (1998) definition of the construct.

The late 2000s saw the inception of Vandenabeele's (2007) meaning of PSM, which implied that the construct goes beyond a person's work activities and on into their non-work activities. Additionally, Houston (2008) stated that along with being committed to the public interest that the presence of both compassion and self-sacrifice brought forth an endorsement that PSM moves people in their activities with others outside of work. Hence, the continuation of PSM ideals included in non-work activities may very well increase the presence of PSM for work activities or as Houston (2008) stated those activities that take place in the public square. Vandenabeele (2008) reported that the advancement of new public management had a substantial influence on how motivation is viewed in the fields of public management and public administration leading him to call for an overarching definition of PSM that should not only cover PSM in a precise manner, but also other types of value-laden behavioral determinants such as ethics and roles and that the construct should be able to pull from a political entity such as nations or states; therefore, Vandenabeele (2008) defined PSM as 'the beliefs, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate' (p.547).

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Despite the generation of multiple definitions for PSM that has taken place and agreed with the earlier findings of Perry and Wise (1990) and Perry (1996, 1997, and 2000) as well as other public administration scholars, there has been one study in particular whose research did not find the PSM construct meaningful. Gabris and Simo (1995) were not favorable to the earlier attempts to learn more about PSM and concluded that the construct was just not meaningful when it came to explaining PSM. Gabris and Simo (1995) concluded that their research found no differences in the motivational bases of employees working in the three sectors and the PSM construct needed further study. Perry (2000) refuted the claims made by these authors and spelled out that their study fell short when they did not use a more precise measure of PSM like other studies at that time, but instead tested for differences in attributes across samples of individuals who were employed in different sectors (p.472). This earlier attempt to halt the furtherance of PSM was very much so overlooked by researchers. Both scholars and practitioners (like Pattakos, 2004) continued to use the PSM construct in the field of public administration to understand the motivation of public and nonprofit employees. This continuation marked the construct relevant from a scholarly and practical point of view. Public service motivation is of scholarly relevance for two reasons: (1) provided necessary advice to understand the distinctness between the three sectors relative to the motivation of employees and management and (2) employed as a tool to find individuals who fit well into public organizations. On the other hand, PSM is of relevant significance to practitioners from the stance that it aids in the recognition of employees who are competent plus fit for work in either sector public or nonprofit. Also, practitioners are

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interested in learning the impact that PSM has on pivotal human resource issues faced daily.

Public Service Motivation and the Nonprofit Sector

Brewer and Selden (1998) surmised that PSM is more than the motivational differences between the three sectors. It is the opportunity for many employees working in the nonprofit and private sectors to have strong motives to perform public service. This debate has sparked endless recommendations from PSM researchers due to the fact that there seems to be more studies on the relationship between PSM and work in the nonprofit sector. Hence, such research shows PSM influences nonprofit leaders and members in their work roles. For example, the Brookings Institution (2003) conducted an employee survey that revealed the nonprofit sector possesses a dedicated workforce (Light, 2003). Comparatively, nonprofit workers scored significantly higher than federal government and private sector workers on agreeing with the statement that they joined their organization for the chance to make a difference rather than for the salary and benefits. The study also revealed that nonprofit employees are very satisfied with the opportunity to accomplish something worthwhile, yet they are less likely to cite their paychecks as the reason they come to work (Mann 2006, p.40-41). Likewise, Light (2003) conducted a study with college seniors that reported similar findings as the 2003 survey released by the Brookings Institution.

Looking past the separation between the public and private sectors allows one to see that the behavior of individuals in nonprofit organizations are more likely to be described by PSM than individuals in the private sector. This is because nonprofits are likely to have a strong public service mission and to consist of environments that are

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more likely to look like the chaotic nature by which public organizations have sometimes been characterized. For instance, nonprofits must deal with outside principals and constraints, including many stakeholders who many times hold varying interests while offering services that are hard to explain the scope of and services that are hard to oversee. Therefore, the ideals of PSM are more likely to resemble employees in both public and nonprofit organizations more so than the private sector (Houston, 2005). Moreover, Steen (2008) stated that PSM is seen as a useful construct to account for behavior not only of public sector employees, but also of nonprofit sector staff and volunteers (p.205).

In regards to the PSM of nonprofit employees, Mann (2006) held that (1) recognizing and evaluating worker motivation to discern how PSM fits in with some basic motivation theories is a worthwhile goal and (2) human resource managers face the challenging task of recognizing and potentially influencing the public service ethic in order to positively affect the motivation levels of workers (p.35). The applicability of PSM to the nonprofit sector came from the research of Mann (2006) who realized there are many theories on motivation that will either support or oppose the other; however, none of these theories no matter how well-defined they are will be able to stand strong in every circumstance nor be applicable to employees in all organizations, but what has been found to work is that nonprofit employees and executives should depend more on instituting a contingency approach, which proceeded from the observation of different theories employed to address the myriad types of nonprofit organizations. Likewise, Mann (2006) concluded that the applicability of PSM to the nonprofit sector is also explored as a means of broadening the current public-private dichotomy and that

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motivation is at the core of the PSM construct and is a critical aspect of the development function in human resources management. Thus, the recruitment and selection of full-time employees plays a pivotal role in deciding how well or not nonprofit organizations perform job duties related to achieving the mission of the organization. Nonprofit management is a natural complement to public management and the two fields are so closely related that studying one area can hardly help but to enrich the other and nonprofit organizations provide excellent examples of the types of issues that public management research questions sought to examine (Steen, 2006). Moreover, Steen (2008) concluded that various environments are thought to have varying potentiality in multiplying or weakening PSM and behavior connected to the construct. The first step in being aware of the ramifications of PSM is to look at recent research on the psychology of motivation as a means to provide the foundation for a more sophisticated understanding of this facet (Houston, 2011, p.761). As detailed earlier in the section, PSM is not a sector-specific concept (Houston, 2011; Mann, 2006; Perry and Wise, 1990), and Jacobson (2011) viewed PSM as being a specific branch of motivational research and one type of motivation seen in public organizations. However, it can be used to describe motivation across sectors (Houston, 2011).

Public service motivation is a needs-based approach to motivation; people sate this need in different ways (Clerkin & Coggburn, 2012). The higher an employee's PSM level is, the more attractive working in either the nonprofit or public sectors becomes due to the fact that people have a certain desire to help others to make public sector employment attractive even before accepting employment in the nonprofit sector. In addition, Clerkin and Coggburn (2012) perceived that since PSM is related to an

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individual's desire to work in a particular sector then the leaders in those sectors can incorporate PSM-based tools to recruit and select future employees. This line of thinking proposed that PSM is a moderate indicator of which sector an individual will seek employment in.

The stronger PSM becomes, particularly the self-sacrifice dimension, the stronger the individual's possibility of finding employment in either the public or nonprofit sectors versus employment in the private sector. The attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) theory further explains the phenomenon of PSM holding that individuals are attracted to certain organizations that they deem there to be a good fit between their personal values and the values of the organization. Wright and Christensen (2010) presented that the theoretical essence of PSM is similar to what has been discussed in the field of industrial psychology, in terms of ASA and person-organization fit, which in many ways outlines people are drawn to organizations because they see a fit between themselves and the characteristics of the organization. Consistent with the theory of PSM, the goals of the organization are considered the core of the ASA model because an individual's preference for a particular organization, which is often based on their perception of the congruence between the organization's goals or values and their own goals and values (Wright & Christensen, 2010, p. 157).

Organizations who apply the ASA theory are likely to choose applicants who appear to be aligned with the organization's values. Similarly, the ASA is appropriate in setting forth employees with a high PSM level and who are interested in organizations where motives are thought to prevail and where employees will believe that they can actualize their personal career choices and needs explicitly in the public and nonprofit

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sectors compared to the private sector. On this subject, many authors (Horton & Hondeghem, 2006; Lee, 2012; Mann, 2006; & Perry, Hondgehem & Wise, 2010) have stated that PSM is characterized as a universal concept with its applicability first to public sector organizations and now to the nonprofit sector organizations. Among 'public service' jobs, the nonprofit sector is seen as providing the best opportunities to help people, make a difference, and gain the respect of family and friends. Unfortunately, the nonprofit literature does not institute the applicability of the PSM theory despite the acknowledgment that "nonprofit workers are much like public sector workers in having more prosocial motivations for doing their job (Lee, 2012, p. 105)."

The research of Word and Carpenter (2013) revealed that the motivation of employees in the workplace is a basic issue that has challenged managers regardless of organizational setting or job type (p.316). They further postulated that scant research has explored the unique aspects of motivation within the nonprofit sector (p. 316). Hinging on the work of Perry, the authors' present and test a theoretical model of nonprofit service motivation (NPSM) where they institute confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM) as a means to understand how the this sector's history and culture impact and in a different manner mold the work motivations of nonprofit employees. From their findings, Word and Carpenter (2013) indicated that we can learn that Perry's PSM scale proved to be a good empirical model for NPSM and that the existence of other individual factors could prompt the work motivation of nonprofit employees because many current nonprofit employees who work full-time may also have volunteered or served on a nonprofit board on a weekly basis for at least 3.6 hours. Likewise, one in six nonprofit employees' volunteer worldwide and listed attraction to

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the organization's mission as the reason they chose to work in a nonprofit organization (Word & Carpenter, p.321). Since the work of Mann (2006), this study is very significant to the application of PSM to the nonprofit sector. Three focal points can be evolved from this research. First, the more intense involvement in a nonprofit may signify higher levels of motivation or the more involved nonprofit employees are in the organization the more motivated they are. Secondly, being attracted to the mission was linked to having an increase in NPSM (Word & Carpenter, 2013, p. 329). An important takeaway for practitioners is that if they employ NPSM correctly that it could possibly minimize employee turnover, while augmenting the number of satisfied workers in the workplace. Likewise, the research findings of Word and Carpenter (2013) are also helpful for hiring personnel to ensure that they are hiring the right people.

Applying Public Service Motivation to Work Motivation

The public administration community has long maintained that some individuals have strong norms and emotions for performing public service. Accordingly, this "public service" ethic is thought to attract certain individuals to government service and foster work behaviors that are consistent with the public interest (Brewer, Selden & Facer, 2000, p. 254). Brewer et. al. grouped the design of PSM by describing individuals' motivations to work in public service in four ways: *Samaritan* (willing to help others) because they value many causes and programs and views government as a vehicle for making society fair, *Communitarian* (strong sense of civic duty and public service), *Patriot* (motivated to act as a protector or advocator for others before dealing with a personal cause, and *Humanitarians* are motivated by a strong sense of social justice and public service. Bright's (2005) inquiries into PSM indicated that the construct is not a

"whole cloth but varies by gender, age, and by level of managerial responsibility and also is related to monetary preferences" (p. 150). In addition, Bright (2008) affirmed that individuals with high levels of PSM will have greater satisfaction, performance, and commitment to the public organization where they work or would like to work. He further stated that the implementation of PSM is significant because it helps the public and nonprofit sectors to learn the impact that PSM has on critical human resource issues they are facing. Likewise, the dimensions of the PSM construct are a guide for recruiting, training, and socializing employees into the organization as a means to select the right applicant for the organization. Regardless of sector, the desire of every employee is to enter a work atmosphere that will satisfy their most important work need and that a person selects a career based on the needs and motives that are important to his or her personal self (Bright, 2005). For example, Christensen and Wright (2011) reported that a strong interest in social service and helping others was not an indicator of the employment sector a lawyer selected when choosing his first job nor did it increase the possibility of choosing additional employment in the public sector. Thus, Houston (2005) clarified that public sector employees indeed "talk the talk" of public service and the employment of public service motivation PSM allows them to also "walk the walk."

The PSM dimensions – commitment to the public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice uphold that PSM pushes individuals in their interactions with other people beyond the office doors. Even to the point that PSM is fostered by the workplace, 'the long arm of the job' advanced that this impact will roll over into other activities, most likely those done in the public square (Houston, 2008). Thus, the institution of high-performance management systems whose practices are to promote shared values not only

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attracted individuals to join an organization, but also motivated them to act on their values once they were employed with the organization (Paarlberg, Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). It is this type of socialization within the work environments that helps bring people together who would not normally communicate or disseminate information amongst each other. Mann (2006) posited that the current research regarding the application of PSM to the nonprofit sector did not impart an adequate collection of research at the time to convey recommendations on employing the necessary steps to manage public service values that will strengthen employees' job performance. So, the first thing that should happen when it comes to boosting public service values is to make sure that the right person for the job has been selected. Even though an employee may select employment in a public service environment it does not mean that the environment will continue to foster their public service values, hence the importance of placing the right person not only with the right organization, but in the right job in the organization. The basis on which individuals believe their job is meaningful may be contingent on how employees perceive their influence on the recipients of their work as far as redefining jobs as a collection of relationships as well as a collection of tasks (Grant, 2007). Prior to this work, Hackman and his colleagues (1976) proposed that organizations should devise work tasks in a manner that gives employees the chance to communicate and foster relationships with service recipients and to grant these recipients opportunities to express to service providers how they feel about the services being offered. Moreover, Wright and Grant (2010) contended that the PSM theory is oftentimes employed to suggest that people with higher levels of PSM are more likely to do a couple of things: (1) to be found working in government because it offers meaningful public service, and (2) to perform

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better in – and feel more satisfied with – their public sector jobs because they find this type of work intrinsically rewarding (p. 692).

The research of Jacobson (2011) emerged with this consensus that peoples' thoughts on PSM are dynamic over time and change as they move through organizational levels and positions and that human resource departments are interested in naming ways as to how they can play a direct or indirect role marketing the public service aspects of positions and/or helping to develop materials and training to help hiring representatives to market public service correctly (p.231). Additionally, Jacobson (2011) thought that a couple of points should be reiterated: (1) employers need to make sure that employees have a good understanding of performance goals and the right job description, which has been revealed to have a clear link to the positive impact of PSM levels and (2) orientation, training, and performance measures are all possible tools at the reach of organizations' fingertips who want to have a first-hand understanding in strengthening the motivational bases of employees wanting to provide services to the public. A strong level of intrinsic motivation is a critical factor in the motivation to work. Thus, the PSM construct has a strong regard for valuing intrinsic work motives more so than extrinsic work motives (Crewson, 1997; Houston, 2000 and 2011). Houston (2011) revealed that the focus of a job is vital to PSM; however, it is also apparent that the locus of a job is vital as well. In a time when outsourcing has become prevalent in terms of government service provision, the public interest must still be at the forefront of government organizations to meet the needs of citizens even though they may not actually be providing the service themselves. The nonprofit sector has been become a huge provider of government service. According to Stone and Ostrower (2007), nonprofit organizations

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"may be broadly public but their missions and goals are often far more particularistic and may or may not align with those in public authority" (p.427). This statement led Houston (2011) to argue that government matters even when nonprofit organizations are providing services on their behalf.

The Future of Public Service Motivation and What It Means For International Scholars

Public service motivation first evolved in 1982 as a channel to document the specific motivation connected with public service (Kim & Vandenabeele, 2010; Rainey, 1982); however, the mere nature of this construct and its significance has led to the study of PSM in international countries, but in order to move forward with this area of research internationally, there will need to be the development of a universal concept of PSM that can be used globally and to engender a cumulative knowledge of PSM (p.702). Kim (2009) created a 14-item scale of four factors, but the attraction to policy making dimension seemed doubtful when it came to extending Perry's scale to be used to measure PSM globally (p.149). Despite the popularity of government employment in the United States it may be more popular in international countries due to the greater number of people seeking such employment (Steen, 2008). Kim and Vandenabeele (2010) as well as Kim et. al. (2013) continually calls for more research to be done internationally on PSM despite its origination from the United States. These authors argued that in order to move forward with the production of more research on PSM in other countries such as Europe, Asia, Australia, and Korea (Kim, 2009) that there needs to be refinements made to the construct from both a conceptual and operational standpoint and that a construct of this nature warrants an extension of its definition that can be employed in other countries

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as well as the United States. In addition, Vandenabeele and de Walle (2008) published that despite the great deal of harmony in public values that occurs internationally that some of the PSM dimensions will be more significant in some international countries compared to others. From this research, two relevant conclusions emerged with the first being that PSM and its constituting dimensions are only to a certain extent universal which means that PSM will vary by region and scores are usually high in Southern European and American countries while lower scores were found in Central and Eastern Europe. The second relevant conclusion is the 'public' character of PSM, which was covered in this study as a means to reveal that the results for most regions showed the average composite PSM score was higher for public sector employees and not private sector employees. Stemming from the earlier research of Brewer et. al. (2000), it was hypothesized that individual patterns of PSM are based on the institutional and societal differences that align with different individual patterns for different countries (Vandenabeele & de Walle, p.225, 236). In addition, the authors' cited the United Kingdom as an example and reported that there was a solid focal point on values like impartiality and neutrality, while in France the center of attention was more so on the public provision of services. Likewise, the compassion dimension of PSM in France concentrated on the individual's compassion, yet in the Netherlands the target was on collective compassion (Vandenabeele & de Walle, p. 225).

The future of PSM continues to expand in the academic world. Survey results have shown that college students strongly associated nonprofit work with helping others (Rose, 2012, p. 6). Furthermore, Rose (2012) declared that the research on PSM has demonstrated the association of PSM with interest in government and nonprofit careers

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and that the implementation of Perry's PSM instrument shed light on a less studied aspect of career interest among college students which is the perception that it is the nonprofit sector and not the government sector that provided the better outlet for altruistic values (p.1). Thus, the intrinsic motivation of both public and nonprofit employees may be alike as well as unlike in many ways and the motivation behind nonprofit employment may overlap with several dimensions of PSM given that both organizational settings produce public goods and services (Lee & Wilkins, 2011). On the other hand, Houston (2008) confirmed earlier that workers in both of these sectors show conformity in their sequence of PSM. Research has recognized the trend that highlights that the effects of PSM may not depend so much on which sector an individual chooses to be employed in, more so the intensity to which an organization identifies with the individual's public service values and offers such opportunities for the employee to effectuate their public service motives (Bright, 2008; Pandey, Wright & Moynihan, 2008; Ritz & Waldner, 2011; Steijn, 2008; Taylor, 2008).

Still, further research on PSM has brought forth the fact that new college graduates believe that a career in the nonprofit sector can offer a better understanding on the construct of PSM. Following the conclusions of Perry (1996), the idea surrounding the world of nonprofits has a stronger propensity to administer to the altruistic needs of new college grads from employment in the nonprofit sector and not the public sector. According to Rose (2012), an examination of Census Bureau data shows that the lack of hiring in the private sector in 2009 increased the number of young, college-educated workers who currently work in government by 16% and by 11% in the nonprofit sector (p. 2). Millennials have acknowledged that they feel it is the nonprofit sector and not the

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government that is regarded as the avenue for those seeking employment that will let them help others and have an impact on society (Light, 2003; Rose, 2012). The work of Rose (2012) helps to move along our understanding of PSM and career attraction by showing how differences in students' preferences for nonprofit and government work relate to PSM while also showing the three PSM dimensions – compassion, commitment to public interest, and self-sacrifice – follows in line with an individual's desire to work in the nonprofit sector. The significance of Light's (2003) research is important here because his study results reported that some 66 percent of students viewed the nonprofit sector as "best" able to help people (Light, 2003, p. 12); however, a later study issued by Bilmes and Gould's (2008) revealed that nonprofits were a better place to "contribute to our country than government (Rose, 2012, p.8)."

Summary

Since Perry and Wise's 1990 article on PSM emerged as part of the empirical literature, there have been over 125 studies from over a dozen countries published with the majority of the studies being published after 2000. Before one can truly begin to encompass the many aspects of PSM, one must understand what the term motivation means and that PSM is a larger part of the present-day social and behavioral science research. Perry and Porter (1982) broadly defined motivation as the forces that energize, direct, and sustain behavior (Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010, p. 681). Given the blurring of boundaries between sectors and differences in the location of the functions of government, Wise (2000) contended that we do not assert that PSM is uniquely found in government organizations, but we maintain it is grounded in the tasks of public service

provision, and is more prevalent in government than other sectors (as cited in Perry et. al., 2010, p.682).

During the past 20 years, PSM research has crossed over into other disciplines such as management, anthropology, psychology, sociology, and economics (Word & Carpenter, 2013; Perry, Hondgehem, & Wise (2010) affording researchers' opportunities to see the construct in a different light than has been or currently being examined in public administration. PSM has been highly recognized in the field of public administration and many scholars and practitioners have used the construct over and over again to understand or question various research areas to see the construct through different lenses within public administration. Hence, Moynihan and Pandey (2007) argued that the concept of PSM symbolized a consummate standard in theory development in public administration (p. 40). In these terms, it is this theory that has significant proficiency as it entails the relationship between public service motivation and the public interest, by which the concept of public interest is a substantial element of organized scholarship in the field of public administration. Even though the research on PSM first started in the United States, it is now being conducted internationally by researchers from Europe, Asia, South America, and, Australia because employment in the government sector is still really sought after in these countries, whereby prompting an increase from international scholars to help the world understand the applicability of PSM in their country. This expansion of PSM internationally has created challenges in terms of how PSM is conceptualized and operationalized emanating from the fact that public service is defined differently around the world. Nevertheless, what the research on PSM continues to reveal is that PSM is not confined to the public sector, and yet it

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definitely remains pertinent to the nonprofit sector. Based on the work of nonprofit employees, PSM has made significant inroads and will continue to be addressed, which will only heightened its application to the nonprofit sector and its workers.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

In an earlier study, the research of Glisson and Durick (1988) predicated that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are each affected by an exclusive grouping of predictors. Hence, the results from their study showed that two job characteristics – skill variety and role ambiguity – are said to best indicate satisfaction of workers when joined with two organization characteristics - leadership and the organization's age – which are thought to best pinpoint commitment of workers (p. 61). Likewise, these authors' were able to indicate in their work that education was a strong indicator of commitment of workers to human service organizations. Many researchers communicated a relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, but there continued to be discord about the causal ordering of these constructs. For instance, Porter et al. (1974) discovered that satisfaction and commitment were in fact correlated, whereas three years later Marsh and Mannari (1977) as well as Williams and Hazer (1986) disclosed that satisfaction is a precursor of commitment, while Bateman and Strasser (1984) revealed just the opposite in that commitment is a precursor of satisfaction (as cited in Glisson and Durick, 1988, p.61).

Job Satisfaction and Level of Commitment

Years later, Vandenberg and Lance (1992) posited four hypotheses on the basis of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. These include: (1) satisfaction causes commitment, (2) commitment causes satisfaction, (3) satisfaction and commitment are reciprocally related, and (4) no causal relationship exists between the two constructs (p.153).With these four hypotheses, the authors' were not able to prove in their research that satisfaction causes commitment, yet their results did prove that commitment does in fact cause satisfaction (p.153). With a causal relationship existing between commitment and satisfaction, it is befitting to have knowledge of the level of commitment nonprofit employees bring to the job, thus making this study germane as a means to grasp the impact of both commitment and satisfaction of leaders and members in the human services subsector of the nonprofit sector. In turn, Glisson and Durick (1988) concluded that predictors of job satisfaction evolved from workers being less confused about their job responsibilities when they are allowed to use a variety of abilities to perform their jobs, thus making them more satisfied. When speaking about the human services sector, Morris and Sherman (1981) reported that older employees with less education as well as employees with a stronger sense of competence had higher levels of commitment to the organization while O'Reilly and Caldwell (1981) revealed that workers who perceived fewer alternative options for employment tended to have greater organizational commitment. Stevens et. al. (1978) outlined that several worker characteristics predicted organizational commitment: total number of years the worker had been in the organization and the extent of their ego involvement with the job were each positively related to commitment, while the number of years the worker had been in the same

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position and the more the worker was favorable disposed to change were each negatively associated with commitment (Glisson & Durick, p.66-67). On the other hand, Steers (1977) found that education of an employee is a weak variable to commitment; however, age and need for achievement were positive effects for commitment. The fact that Glisson and Durick (1988) noted that there were few studies highlighting the satisfaction and commitment of human service employees is what also makes this study significant and an important additive to the nonprofit empirical literature on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The augmentation of both commitment and satisfaction in nonprofit organizations demonstrated in particular by executive directors and full-time employees can help to minimize their willingness to either leave their current position in an organization or the sector completely. The empirical literature has spoke earnestly about the high turnover in the nonprofit sector among leaders and members, but lately a large discussion is occurring concerning the number of leaders leaving the sector which is in response to the number of baby boomers retiring or individuals just wanting to embark upon a new career. Either way, the sector is facing a new growth and having to create succession plans to replace leaders; however, the creation of such plans does not yield to the importance of human resource systems selecting the right leaders and members who fit the organization's culture and mission. Hence, Cho and Park (2011) remarked that satisfaction and commitment are two very important aspects within human resource management systems and the field of organizational behavior. Both variables are regarded as two viable influences on employee motivation, but capture different aspects of motivation as a work attitude. Furthermore, Cho and Park (2011) regarded that job

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satisfaction is a retrospective facet, in that it presents the total evaluation of workers based on what they receive, whereas organizational commitment is a prospective aspect of motivation, in that committed workers will expand effort for their organizations beyond their job descriptions (p.558). All things considered, employees must feel that their work efforts are respected and supported by their leader for either job satisfaction or commitment to occur in organizational settings.

Eisenberg and Eschenfelder (2009) posited that nonprofit and government employees offer less commitment to their jobs when these sectors are not able to offer competitive salaries and lucrative benefit packages like their for-profit counterpart. Another challenge to keeping nonprofit employees' committed to the sector is organizations' shrinking level of commitment to their workforce, as shown in their inability to provide health care, pensions, and related benefits with such benefits having a negative impact on employees' satisfaction and commitment (p. 370). Nonprofit leaders have repeatedly discussed the fact that commitment from full-time employees and volunteers (not discussed here) is essential for weighing worth from the standpoint of commitment and satisfaction. As stated in Eisenberg and Eschenfelder (2009), McAdoo and Pynes (1995) posited that "Nowhere is the task more difficult in determining employee satisfaction than in the human service field where people's roles are often blurred, where the parameters between jobs are not clearly defined, and where executives often have trouble setting clear and consistent policy across all levels of agency structure."

Extensive research remains on discerning the impact of public service motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment and how each variable as separate

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constructs or even together has been employed in traditional settings like public and private agencies and thus, the empirical literature can now be used to explain these constructs applicability to the nonprofit sector. This review of the literature is a succinct discussion of past and current research describing the interconnection among job satisfaction, level of commitment, and public service motivation of executive directors and full-time employees in a community-based nonprofit organization, namely the YMCA as a subset of the human services nonprofit sector that focuses on positive youth development.

Impact of Job Satisfaction on Work Motivation/Behaviors

Utilizing the research of Cranny et. al. (1992), we can better ascertain the significance of job satisfaction in work behaviors. Yet, 30 years prior to Cranny and his colleagues coming together to study job satisfaction, Smith (1957) noted in her writings that "the study of job satisfaction should be able to contribute to the general psychology of motivation, preferences, and attitudes" (Cranny et. al., p. xv). The foundation for explaining job satisfaction have stemmed from previous definitions such as (as cited in Cranny et.al., Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson & Capwell, 1957; Porter, Lawler & Hackman, 1975; and Locke, 1976.). Despite the variations with these earlier definitions as to how job satisfaction was defined, there still remains one consistent fact that the research of all of these authors agreed upon from the late 1950s to the late 1990s and this is that job satisfaction is defined as an employee's emotional state toward their job. For example, Locke (1976) stated that job satisfaction can be viewed as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1300). On the contrary, Spector (1997) believed that job satisfaction is the degree to

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which people just like their jobs (p.vii). Nevertheless, it is crucial to understand that a person coming into an organization should possess what Smith (1992) characterized as general job satisfaction that is derived from two elements: happiness (temperamental) and trust (in management). It is important to consider that both elements are symbolic in the causes, effects or quasi moderators that lead to general job satisfaction (Cranny et. al., 1992, p. 5). Likewise, Smith (1992) expressed that general job satisfaction involves components not caused by the immediate job situation (p.5). She adequately explained the force of general job satisfaction on human capital with her depiction of "The River of Satisfaction." This River figuratively depicts a "system of interrelated satisfactions" generating from both job and life satisfactions signifying a river with smaller outlets that assemble to form branches that will at some point become a lake or sea (See Figure 3.1).

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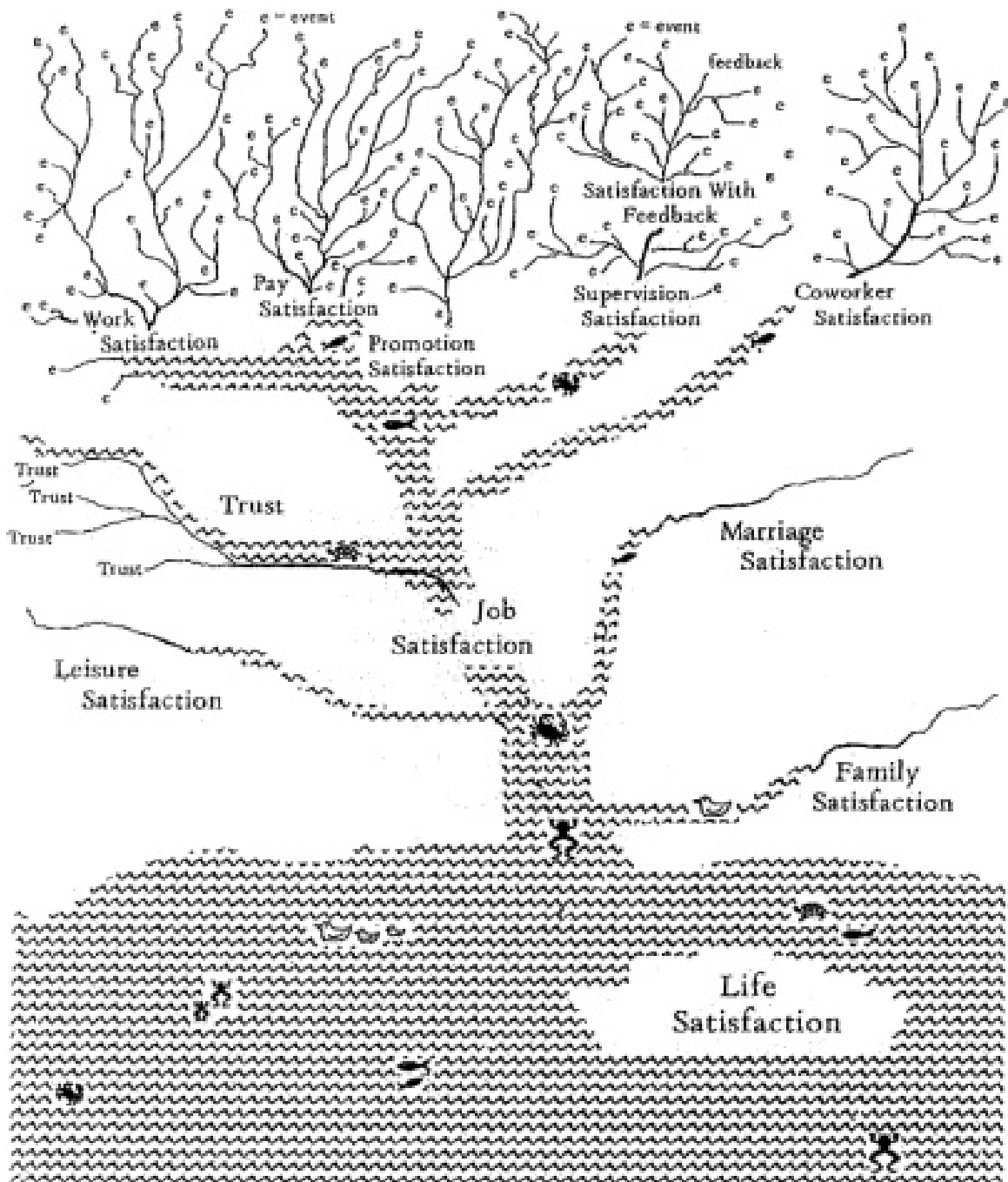
Figure 3.1   The River of Satisfaction

Figure 3.1 was reprinted with permission from the publisher on July 27, 2013. The "River of Satisfaction" can be found on page 8 in Job Satisfaction: How People Feel About Their Jobs and How It Affects Their Performance (1992) written by C.J. Cranny, Patricia Cain Smith, and Eugene F. Stone .

"The River of Satisfaction" communicated that the process of job satisfaction takes time (p.9). Employees must be patient with their leaders and co-workers while working through this process. Both groups are bringing to the organization a mix of different behaviors generated from their engagement in different branches of the tree (Figure 2.2) that will ultimately institute satisfaction in their jobs and organizational relationships (Smith, 1992).

The means to get to motivation and management style are seen as vital deciding factors in job satisfaction considering the fact that employees' well-established pattern of communicating with their supervisor is greatly associated with job satisfaction and can help to either strengthen or to curtail job satisfaction and other organizational objectives (Kim, 2002). Similarly, Saari and Judge (2004) made several declarations regarding employee attitudes and job satisfaction that delineated three major gaps between human resource practices and scientific research. The first gap, *The Causes of Employees Attitudes* is one of the most important areas of the work situation to influence job satisfaction because it stems from the work itself (Saari & Judge, 2004). According to Saari and Judge (2004), Staw and Ross (1985) wrote one of the first studies in this area, which established that a person's job satisfaction scores have stability over time, even when they change jobs or leave the company altogether (p.396). Along these same lines, job satisfaction is described as that satisfaction that a person receives from the work itself, which can be defined as the nature of work. Both Jurgensen (1978) and Judge and Church (2000) cited that the nature of the work itself causes prominence in respect to job satisfaction (Saari & Judge, p.396). Over the years, research studies on organizations and job types revealed that when employees are requested to examine the various components

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of their jobs like supervision, pay, promotion opportunities, coworkers, and etc., the nature of the work itself most often materialized as the most influential component of the job. The second gap, *The Results of Positive or Negative Job Satisfaction* looked at the consequences of job satisfaction and premised that the attitudes of employees are most often related to outcomes produced by the organization. On that account, Saari and Judge (2004) remarked that organizations can control only so much of an employee's job satisfaction, because for many people, their job satisfaction is a result, in part, or spillover of their life satisfaction (p.398-399). Lastly, the third gap, *How To Measure and Influence Employee Attitudes* discussed that job satisfaction can be measured in a variety of ways such as focus groups or either employee interviews or surveys. Of these two methods, Saari and Judge (2004) noted the most accurate measure is employee attitude surveys that are well-constructed (p.400).

Job satisfaction can be used as a diagnostic tool to explain the issues that may exist between employees, leaders or the job itself, whereby warranting the necessary changes to alleviate employee issues. Thus, changes within the organization are done so without communication between these groups. After all, organizations cannot precisely influence employee personality, yet the relevancy of sound selection methods and a favorable match between employees and jobs will confirm that individuals are selected and fit the job that is right for them, whereby such processes or selection methods strengthens overall job satisfaction in the organization and amongst leaders and employees. The work environment is important in regards to job satisfaction and organizational impact. Job satisfaction is, by far, the most frequently studied variable in organizational research, with more than 10,000 studies published to date (Wright, 2006;

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Ghazzawi,2008).One obvious reason for this continued interest in job satisfaction has been its long history and assumed role in the prediction of employee efficiency, which has certainly been well evidenced by the early 1950s when job satisfaction increasingly came to be the employee attitude of choice for researchers interested in how to better discern the "Holy Grail" of management research: the happy/productive worker thesis (Wright, 2006). Prior to this, Syptak, Marsland, and Ulmer (1999) explained the happy/productive worker thesis as satisfied employees are thought to be more productive, creative, and committed to their employers (p.1). Following this same thesis, Jones (2006) stated that researchers have examined the "happy worker is a productive worker" postulation for decades and concluded the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is not as strong as one would expect.

Bright (2008) reported that job satisfaction and turnover intentions (though not discussed here) are reflections of the visions that employees have towards their employment and that it is influenced by the degree to which employees salient needs are satisfied by their work. To put it simply, employees exhibit greater levels of satisfaction in their jobs and for the organization as a whole when they feel as if the organization is satisfying their needs. Numerous research reports emerged from the work of Light (2002), Borzaga and Tortia (2006), and Chen (2011) that documented nonprofit employees as being the type of employee who demonstrated greater levels of motivation and higher satisfaction. Hence, these greater levels of motivation and higher satisfaction were combined with a stronger meaningfulness to work in lieu of extremely high salaries when compared to employees in the for-profit sector. On the contrary, nonprofit employees most often have to work with limited personnel and resources compared to the

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private sector employees. Along the same lines, nonprofit employees have been described to illustrate such behavior in the midst of meeting hectic work demands and working beyond the normal work day pressures because they are described as being individuals who are willing to give freely of their time and experience. Such motives show loyalty to the organization. Thus, Borzaga and Tortia (2006) wrote that loyalty to the organization is strongly related to the satisfaction of the worker.

Job satisfaction seems to be the hallmark in nonprofit organizations (Hayden & Madsen, 2008). This statement is profound and likely reflects the policies designed to strengthen worker satisfaction and provide a mix of incentives that can only serve to increase motivation, productivity, efficiency, and competitive advantage for the nonprofit worker. Nonprofit executive directors and full-time employees who understand just how their job transforms the success of the organization will be more satisfied to perform such jobs to the best of their ability. In regards to recruitment, selection, and retention, nonprofit organizations that promote themselves on the tenets of being a satisfying place to work, from the purview of current employees, are thought to do well during the recruitment process. It is the assurance of such positive feedback of this nature from the employee's perspective that helps to increase the overall stance of job satisfaction in the organization. The positive, open flow of communication has a great deal to do with the overall stance of job satisfaction in an organization. It follows that such communication in the organization helps to safeguard organizational relationships as well as increase the satisfaction of employees with the organization. From this standpoint, employees are not merely satisfied or dissatisfied with communication in general, but they can express varying degrees of satisfaction relating to specified features of communication within the

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organization between the leader (executive director) and member (full-time employees) (Fix & Sias, 2006).

Organizational Communication as a Component of Job Satisfaction

There exist varying degrees of communication between organizational leaders and members. It is under this countenance that Smidts et. al., (2001) maintained that communications in the organization are a multidimensional construct. In other words, positive communication in the organization has been shown to increase job satisfaction and employee performance to produce or more importantly enhance organizational success. There are two appropriate elements along these lines of employee communication that should be mentioned. The first being organizational identification relating to the content of organizational messages as it concerns employees' satisfaction as to what is being communicated in the organization and the second being the communication climate or how information is communicated in the organization. The communication climate in the organization is very influential to the point that it encompasses the communicative parts of a work environment. Like so, a flourishing communication climate will renew the organization's identity and serve as a way to broaden the motivation of both the leaders and members.

Communication is the operative driver of the entire motivational process; it is the means by which leaders create conditions, and then reinforce them, in which people can feel motivated to achieve (Baldoni, 2004, p. ix). The techniques employed to distribute motivational communication are seen as powerful tools for energizing the natural feelings of motivation in order to get employees working towards achieving the mission of the organization. Healthy communication is important to the overall functioning of the

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organization, by which positive communication flow occurs by making sure that those within the organization are involved in establishing a communication climate that can strongly conceive of what the other is saying before the work day begins. Healthy and effective communication in nonprofit organizations is emanated from the role of the executive director, who holds responsibility for cultivating a culture that promotes healthy communications between themselves and full-time employees. To support this line of thinking, Madlock (2008) found a strong relationship between supervisors' communicator competence as a secure predictor of job and communication satisfaction for employees. Inasmuch, the ability of the executive director to effectively communicate with full-time employees is associated with job satisfaction and can either increase or decrease job satisfaction in the organization. Beale et. al. (2008) found most interesting in their study that working with "colleagues who share the goals" of executive directors contributes significantly more to their job satisfaction than working with "congenial colleagues" (p.112).

This next section serves to the highlight the relationship between job satisfaction and public service motivation. Earlier research from Naff and Crum (1999) revealed that job satisfaction serves as a correlate of public service motivation.

Job Satisfaction and Public Service Motivation

Practitioners and scholars of public administration for a very long time has identified public service to be a special calling with public service supporters believing that those who decide to enter into public service may possess different attributes than the person who does not answer the call to enter into a public service career. As previously mentioned, Elmer Staats's (1988) described public service as a "concept, an attitude, a

sense of duty-yes, even a sense of public morality" (Perry, 1996). The earlier version of public service was not well defined, yet many scholars argued that the theoretical implications of public service, which Perry (1996) formally identified as public service motivation (PSM) significant behavioral implications (p.6). Perry along with his colleagues believed that the level and type of an individual's PSM and the motivational composition of a public organization's workforce have been posited to influence a person's job choice, job performance, and organizational effectiveness (Perry and Wise, 1990; and Rainey, 1982).

A definition for PSM was given earlier in chapter two, but it is important to express what Perry and Wise (1990) called motives and there are three types – rational, norm-based, and affective and each dimension of the PSM scale falls within one of three motives. In addition, it is important to define each motive, which is defined by Perry and his associates to mean psychological deficiencies or needs that an individual feels some compulsion to eliminate and that the definition for each motive emanated from the research of Knoke and Wright-Isak (1982) (Perry & Wise, 1990). First, rational-based motives surrounds actions that are based in individual utility maximization and Kelman (1987) indicated that such motives moves people to participate in public policy making, which Perry called attraction to public policy making and has been described as being a special process in the American government. The second motive called norm-based motives deals with actions generated by efforts that conform to norms, while the third motive known as affective motives refer to those triggers of behavior that are grounded in emotional responses to various social contexts (Perry, 1996). Attraction to public policy making is not significant in this study, but it is important to mention as one of the public

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service motivation dimensions. The second dimension, commitment to the public interest, is often identified as a normative foundation for public service which led earlier researchers like Downs (1967) to contend that the desire to serve the public interest is primarily altruistic even when such interest is derived from what people think (Perry, p.6). The third dimension, compassion warranted Perry (1996) to employ the research of Frederickson and Hart (1985) who posited that the central motive for civil servants should be the "patriotism of benevolence" which they defined as "an extensive love for all people within our political boundaries and it is the imperative that they must be protected in all of the basic rights granted to them by the enabling documents (p.7)." Perry (1996) acknowledged the fourth dimension being self-sacrifice could actually stand apart from the other dimensions. Self-sacrifice, according to Perry (1996) is the willingness to substitute service to others for tangible personal rewards (p.7). A classic example that has been used time and time again as well as by Perry (1996) to truly explain the nature of self-sacrifice given by those in public service is the infamous quote by President Kennedy of "*Ask not what your country can do for you; ask what you can do for your country*"(p.7). Kennedy's civil service director, John Macy, disclosed after his service, that self-sacrifice is the willingness of public servants to go just one step farther and offer their service without the financial rewards and to receive their just rewards from just serving the public (Perry, 1996, p.7). Kim and Vandenabeele (2010) agreed with the conclusions of Perry (1996) that self-sacrifice is the essence of the other three PSM dimensions. Additionally, these authors' stated that the self-sacrifice dimension can be seen as the apex from which the other three dimensions were assembled since doing good

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towards other people and society in general many times mandates unselfishness and the consent to use the embodiment of serving others to be representative of financial rewards.

Lastly, Camilleri (2007) acknowledged that issues comprising public service motivation as well as work motivation have conceived a kind of interest because they are regarded as a positive impact on job satisfaction and seem to have a positive influence on the job behavior of individuals and their corresponding level of performance. Moreover, Camilleri (2007) upheld that for employees to build up their PSM level that they must be given clear-cut goals in regards to priority despite employees having to take direction from more than one source at times. In a manner to continually grow and strengthen PSM it is recommended that leaders should: allow their employees to influence the decisions being made by being more approachable and inviting them to provide their input; take a facilitator role by clarifying expectations, assigning unambiguous tasks and identifying procedures to be followed, thus minimizing the adverse effect of the role states, and providing employees with feedback regarding their performance and how well they are doing on the job (Camilleri, p. 373). In support of Camilleri's statements, Ritz and Waldner (2011) set forth that it is important to distinguish between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. First, individuals are intrinsically motivated when they seek enjoyment, interest, satisfaction of curiosity, self-expression, or personal challenge in their work (p.294). Secondly, individuals are extrinsically motivated when they participate in activities to get rewards different from simply enjoying the work they do or finding meaning in the activity itself or in response to commands (p.294). Hence, the cause of work-related behaviors are said to be external.

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Level of Commitment and Public Service Motivation

Kanter (1977) postulated that total commitment is equated to an employee working beyond the normal work hours. Similarly, Steers (1977) posited that employee commitment is of interest to organizations for these reasons: (1) commitment is often a better predictor of turnover than job satisfaction, (2) highly committed employees may perform better than less committed employee, and (3) it has been suggested by some that commitment may represent one useful indicator of the effectiveness of an organization characterized by three factors: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (Steers, p. 46). People seek employment in organizations for different reasons. For example, they want to become employed in organizations with the hope that the organization will be able to satisfy more than just the need to earn a living, but also their need to belong and, so when an organization provides such an atmosphere, commitment to the organization is maximized. In terms of needs, this follows Maslow's (1943) framework that needs are met in order and before one need is completely satisfied (met)[1], the prior need must be satisfied (met). When employees feel that their job tasks are not meaningful and they are given tasks to fill the hours of the day this could also possibly decrease the level of commitment expended from an employee. In turn, the longer members remain with their organization, the more likely their commitment to the organization is likely to decrease. To prove this statement, Carson and Carson (1997) postulated that the longer an

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[1] For the purposes of this study, the author stated that the need must be satisfied which is synonymous with met to describe Maslow (1943) theory of needs.

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employee remains with the organization, especially in the same position it has been concluded that career entrenchment ultimately leads to career dissatisfaction. With this being said, Frumkin (2002) exclaimed that by "committing to broad causes that are close to the heart or by giving to an effort that speaks directly to the needs of the community, nonprofit and voluntary action answers a powerful expressive urge" (p.166).

Meyer et. al. (2004)stated that commitment is one element of motivation and bringing together commitment and motivation theories leads to a better understanding of how these two constructs as separate entities can come together to guide organizations in better understanding commitment from leaders and employees and, secondly the fact that commitment can serve as a particularly powerful force of motivation while often leading to a persistent course of action, even in the face of opposing forces (p.991, 994). These authors cited as an example the fact that since commitment often concerns a psychological attachment to social foci that using commitment as a separate factor of motivation warrants stronger understanding of behaviors that have general social connections.

Much like motivation, commitment is a hard term to define. Commitment is said to be a force that binds an individual to a course of action that is of relevance to a particular target (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 301). Likewise, commitment is similar to motivation because it has been defined in many ways. Broadly speaking, organizational commitment can be conceived of as a pattern of behaviors, a set of behavioral intentions, a motivating force, or an attitude (Goulet & Frank, 2002). In defining commitment, the most widely used approach – the attitudinal approach – regards commitment as an attitude about the relationship between an employee and their place of

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employment. Commitment to the organization should be noted as those behaviors relating to or showing the willingness of the leader, in a nonprofit organization to utilize a reasonable effort in their work role to further the organization on a whole, which signals high levels of commitment. A second definition of commitment was contributed by Meyer, Becker, and Vandenberghe (2004) who used the work of Locke (1997) and Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) to introduce a new concept regarding motivation of goal regulation and stated that motivated behavior can be accompanied by different mindsets that have particularly important implications for the explanation and prediction of discretionary work behaviors (p.991). These authors argued that both commitment and motivation are related concepts (p.991). As Goulet and Frank (2002) confirmed earlier, both definitions are applicable to nonprofit employees who are considered to show the highest levels of commitment in the organization based on their motivation which factors in both extrinsic rewards (i.e., salary, benefits) and intrinsic rewards (i.e., job satisfaction). The level of commitment that leaders and employees showcase is evident in the smallest of tasks. For instance, employees who pitch in to help their co-workers with projects not directly related to their job or who work overtime or on the weekend are thought to embody a strong sense of commitment to the organization. When speaking about the relativity of extrinsic motivators to organizational types, public and nonprofit employees do not place much value on such motivators, whereas salary and benefits contribute significantly to the intrinsic motivation of private sector employees.

From a human resources management (HRM) perspective, securing the commitment of employees to their organization is in some respects the "holy grail" of HRM at least in its "softer" guises (Alatrista & Arrowsmith, 2003, p. 536; Cho & Park,

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2011, p. 552). Furthermore, securing the commitment of employees can evolve in many ways through team work, performance reviews related to employee development, and a well-established communication system that runs two ways: (1) the organization's stance on commitment to reduce turnover by committing itself to employment security and (2) employees who feel that the organization is committed to them are said to have a positive outlook on HRM methods, which works well under the guise of employee's level of commitment to the organization. Chalofsky and Krishna (2009) further specified that commitment encompasses the willingness of employees to put forth more effort on the organization's side, a strong will to stay in the organization, and to express a willingness to achieve prominent goals and values as set forth by the organization (p.190). The common assumption is that employees are motivated by values based on outcomes. Additionally, the primary drivers of commitment are identification with the organization's goals and values, congruence between individuals and organizational goals, and internalization of organizational values and mission (Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009). In the nonprofit sector, both career insecurity and hard to find career development opportunities coupled with low salaries culminates a sector that experiences high turnover, which has often been cited as a demotivator and leader of decreased employee commitment. Organizations who want to continue to be effective and achieve their missions should continually strive more towards materializing the right HRM practices that will attract, select, and retain the right employees who are committed to the mission. As well, commitment relates to several criteria including task and contextual performance, satisfaction, cognitive withdrawal, and turnover, respectively varying reasons why employees are committed (Johnson & Yang, 2010). These authors used as

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an example the fact that full-time employees may connect to goals embraced by the organization or they could value the job security that is bound to becoming a part of an organization (Johnson &Yang, 2010).

Several factors such as small size, more educated employees joining the workforce, an influx of part-time/temporary employees, and dependence on overtime work may attribute to the hardships that nonprofit executive director's experience in creating and sustaining organization commitment. In turn, the attraction, selection, and retention of staff is perhaps the most important processes leaders in organizations undertake and nonprofit organizations are not exempt from this process, which especially could be since people are the architects and agents of everything that ultimately gets accomplished in organizations (Watson & Azbug, 2005). Nevertheless, such HRM processes related to attraction, selection, and retention in nonprofits are extremely undermined because of the number of tasks available to complete at one time, decreased funding, countless requests from clients and numerous demands from the general public for this sector to be more accountable to their stakeholders.

Organizational commitment is said to be important to both scholars and practitioners and serves as the link to performance. Both Meyer and Allen (1997) and Vandenabeele (2007) constituted that employees who are committed to their membership in the organization are believed to treasure the goals and values set forth by the organization and demonstrate more energy towards their performance as well as being more apt to be punctual, absent from work less, and not at all likely to leave the organization. Seemingly, the commitment that employees have toward their organization and its constituents is a crucial work attitude (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007). In terms of

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working towards collective goals instead of personal goals, organizational commitment aids in compelling employees to exhibit higher levels of commitment. Moreover, Moynihan and Pandey (2007) found that PSM is a positive predictor of organizational commitment. Organizational action is often tied to the creation of an organizational climate that fosters and sustains an individual's PSM. Like so, organizational commitment is an important correlate of PSM, which emerged from Perry and Wise's (1990) original categorization of motives and dimensions, as well as a substantial body of literature on organizational commitment from the field of organizational behavior (Pandey & Stazyk, 2008). Employee commitment should be championed in work settings since commitment refers to what is thought of as a psychological bond that employees have stemming from some function connected to their job. Many times this function is deemed as a social presence where commitment to that social presence is generally visualized as a multidimensional concept having many forms (Becker et. al., 1996). The level of commitment that organizational members espouse imparts the relationships within the organization and how well members are able to work together. This next section highlights the quality of relationships based on level of commitment from both leaders and members.

Camilleri and Heijden (2007) stated that organizational commitment and public service motivation (PSM) have important implications for both employees as individuals and the organizations that employ them (p.242). First, prior research studies have designated that public service organizations are more likely to employ individuals whose ideals and desires are compatible with the mission of a public service organization (Crewson, 1997; Perry, 1996, 1997; Perry & Wise, 1990). Accordingly, PSM is viewed

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as a likely and essential component of performance. Likewise the research of Meyer and Allen (1991) has implied that organizations value organizational commitment because it has a positive impact on job performance and work motivation, whereby minimizing absenteeism and turnover. Like so, organizational commitment seems to have possible stern consequences for individual and overall organizational performance. Along these lines, Wise (1996) stated that "individual performance standards must focus on goals and objectives that are compatible with the overall organizational mission (p. 392-393). Besides, committed employees may be more likely to participate in extra behaviors that augment their productivity such as being creative or innovative, which is considered key components to sustaining an organization's proactive attitude (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

As it stands, organizational commitment is examined as the footing for the institution of human resource management policies in organizations. It is these policies mandated by human resources that have a large-scale purpose of multiplying the levels of commitment so that explicit end results can develop (Adler & Corson, 2003). The meanings of organizational communication tend to lack resemblance when it comes to notions surrounding the inquiry of how such a bond has been cultivated. Pandey and Stazyk (2008) stated that organizational action is joined to the institution of an organizational climate that fosters and sustains an individual's public service motivation (p. 110). Crewson (1997) published the first study that reviewed organizational commitment has being a correlate of public service motivation, by which he contended that 'preference for service over economic benefits' should lead to greater commitment to the organization because he was able to incorporate from many datasets such as the General Social Surveys, 1989, 1973-93; the 1979 Federal Employee Attitude Survey; and

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the 1997 Survey of Electrical Engineers which showed that PSM is consistently and positively correlated with organizational commitment. Likewise, Crewson thought about the fact that such a correlation has performance, recruitment, and retention implications that encouraged the basis for future research.

Employing structural equation modeling, Camilleri's (2006) study was able to demonstrate the relationship between certain antecedents, organizational commitment, and public service motivation within the Maltese Public Service. Hence, the most important finding with this model is the association between organizational commitment and PSM, in which he was able to detect PSM 'is reinforced and strengthened' by organizational commitment and that affective commitment seems to be a little more important than normative commitment, whereby this revelation lead Camilleri (2006) and Pandey and Stazyk (2008) to report that organizational commitment is a prevalent forecaster of public service motivation.

Understanding the Three-Component Model of Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1991) stated that their research went beyond the current research available at the time that distinguished between the behavioral and attitudinal components of the commitment construct to see commitment as being three components. First, affective attachment deals with an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization and employees with a strong affective commitment to continue employment with the organization because they *want* to. Secondly, continuance commitment is the awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization and employees whose primary link to the organization is based on this commitment remain because they *need* to. Thirdly, normative commitment

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reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment and employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they *ought* to remain with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p.67). Thus, each component in this three-component conceptual model is considered to develop as a function of different antecedents and to have different implications in terms of how employees are expected to behave while at work. Furthermore, organizational commitment early on was also difficult to define much like job satisfaction and motivation and Meyer and Allen (1991) symbolized that the difficulty in settling on a definition for organization commitment was only compounded by the fact of using measures of commitment that do not always relate to the definition being applied (p.61). Thus, it is hard to synthesize the results of commitment (Meyer and Allen, p.61). Thinking of affective, continuance, and normative as components and not types of commitment warranted that the psychological states depicting the three forms are mutually exclusive (p.66). On the other hand, these authors' stated that a single employee can experience all three components to varying degrees (Meyer & Allen, 1999; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer et al., 2002). For instance, one employee might feel a strong desire and a strong need to remain, but little obligation to do so; whereas, a second employee might feel little desire, a moderate need, and a strong obligation (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p.68). Yet, an important implication of seeing commitment in this way is that the various forms of commitment might be expected to interact to influence behaviors (p.68).

Commitment is imperative in terms of the relationships within the organization, and thus the author of this study believed that understanding the weight of the relationships between leader and member is essential to this review.

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Quality of Organizational Relationships and Commitment

Fix and Sias (2006) held that human relationships like those that take place between supervisors and employees in work environments are shaped and preserved through interaction. Hence, the quality of such relationships and the extent of communication will tend to deviate between each supervisor and employee pair. Commitment is strongly associated with high-quality exchange relationships, as well as low-quality exchange relationships (Fix & Sias, 2006) that prevails between the leader (executive director) and member (full-time employees). This is true to such an extent that commitment is a view of company loyalty indicated by an employee's integrated view that the goals, objectives, and values of the organization are harmonious with their personal goals, objectives, and values (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007). Prior to the work of these authors, Steinhaus and Perry (1996) reported that organizational commitment embraces loyalty to and how people see themselves within the organization. A low-quality exchange relationship that occurs between the leader and member prompts full-time employees to perform the formal requirements of their jobs, yet the leader does not give them any additional motivation to either maintain or increase their satisfaction and commitment. In this respect, commitment is a view in response to exchange relationships evolved slowly over time and is supported by the positive and negative behaviors of leaders (executive director) and members (full-time employees) (Beale et. al., 2008; Goulet & Frank, 2002; Kim, 2002). The executive director, as the leader of the organization, should work to create high-exchange relationships with as many full-time employees as possible. The literature does acknowledge that a healthy exchange between the leader (executive director) and members (full-time employees) has a positive

correlation relative to full-time employee performance, overall job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and role clarity.

The special role that executive directors in nonprofit organizations play has been shown to be central to the functioning of nonprofit agencies (Beale et. al., 2008). In an age of decreased funding going to the sector, the fact that many nonprofits rely heavily upon their executive director to find additional resources to achieve the organization's mission and to ensure the role of fit amongst staff members ultimately equates to both groups giving their best to the organization and each other. Like so, when the executive director gives his or her best to the organization, full-time employees in their roles are equipped to further guarantee that the organization profits from having such a high-functioning executive director. The payoff of having a high-functioning executive director has a direct impact on the satisfaction of both parties to satisfactorily perform their job duties. A satisfied and committed leader (executive director) sets the tone for the whole organization.

Summary

Together, job satisfaction and level of commitment as over-arching themes in this study are vital to sustaining the public service motivation of leaders and members, specifically, executive directors and full-time employees in human service nonprofit organizations. To aid in this process, the communication climate should be such that both executive directors and full-time employees feel good about the service delivery that they are able to provide to clients and other organizational stakeholders as is essential to mission achievement. Watson and Azbug (2005) posited that employees must be willing through its mission to dedicate time to "building an effective people-oriented culture is

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key to long-term success." In order for public service motivation, job satisfaction, and commitment of full-time employees to grow, executive directors must effectively apply human resource processes during the attraction stage to select and retain the right people in the right job. Hayden and Madsen (2008) summed it up best with these words, "People work with nonprofits to fulfill their expressive hunger for relatedness, rootedness, affection, approval, admittance, security, esteem, affiliation, and other expressive activities (p.33)." Nothing in nonprofit organizations can be accomplished without the right people. Moynihan and Pandey (2007) set forth that the personnel literature on employee motivation, commitment, and job satisfaction advanced that employee attitudes are, in essence, guided by both a person's characteristics as much as the work context or as Wright (2001) proposed that job satisfaction reflects the employee's reactions to what they receive (p.562). Wright's research hypothesized there to be two causes of work motivation that targets employee characteristics and organizational environment, which are employee motives and job satisfaction. Similarly, two features of work environments have been recommended to impact work motivation: job characteristics (parts of the job/task an employee performs) and work context (surrounds features of the organizational setting such as goals, reward systems, etc.) (.562). Employee commitment is an important factor because it moves forward organizational identification by offering the incentive for bringing together goals and values of the organization into an arrangement that identifies individual goals and values.

Job satisfaction and level of commitment at the organizational level are two of the work attitudes that are frequently discussed together in the literature and that work along with same continuum in terms of one usually cannot occur within employees without the

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other. For example, the findings have been consistent in terms of accounting for the job satisfaction of nonprofit executive directors. Hence, these findings are the correlation between the sense of challenge found in their work and the job satisfaction where they derive some other kind of utility from work other than the pay received for their work effort.

CHAPTER IV

AN EXAMINATION OF POSITIVE YOUTH DEVELOPMENT AND THE YMCA

Historical Overview of Positive Youth Development

The term youth development evolved from the literature on juvenile delinquency in the late 1940s. Federal agencies in the 1970s who handled issues of juvenile delinquency emerged from their earlier work to realize that the examination of juvenile delinquency needed to be seen from another perspective. Hence, Benson and Pittman (2001)explained that the Youth Development and Delinquency Prevention Administration that materialized in 1970 developed a delinquency prevention program based on what keeps "good kids on track" instead of establishing a program to address the one question that continued to be asked during this time "why do kids get into trouble"? To adequately explain the "what" aspect of this question was seen as taking a proactive step towards implementing the right measures towards positive youth development, whereas the "why" aspect of the question was regarded as focusing on the action as being problematic behavior instead of working to provide a solution to the problem.

Industrialization in America (1870 to 1916) introduced new patterns of work, education and family life, thus modifying the position of youth in society and establishing the stage of life that every young person goes through – adolescence. It was also during this time that rural families began moving to the city because of job opportunities and

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farm cities that once used children workers began to use adults to work the land instead of children. Furthermore, factory jobs were becoming more complex and warranted more skills and training than many workers possessed, which oftentimes proved difficult. The presence of industrialization in the United States, brought forth more laws that mandated youth needed to go to school and not work as farmers. This perspective also led to the notion that youth were in need of more structured guidance to augment their development; therefore, going to school and not working proved to be a better option in the mindset of child protection agents who wanted to protect children and keep them out of harm's way thought to be a better way to strengthen their adolescence (Halpern, 2002; Russell & Van Campken, 2011). In an effort to keep youth out of trouble, adults began forming youth organizations with structured activities to promote American citizenship (Larson, 2000; Strong & Posner, 2010). As times changed, youth organizations began to progress in terms of service delivery, cultural and family changes all in an effort to meet the changes of youth at this time. Likewise, the needs of youth and their families along with the culture began to change to match the atmosphere of the changing times, resulting in more and more programs being introduced to meet the needs of youth and their families during these changing times. Cultural and family changes, and the needs of youth began to change to match the atmosphere of the changing times, resulting in more and more programs being introduced to meet the needs of youth and their families during these times.

Youth organizations were established during the Progressive Era (1890-1920) to alleviate the mindset that "youth were becoming potential problems" that needed to be handled. For example, the YMCA (1844), YWCA (1858), Boy Scouts (1860) and 4-H

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Clubs (late 1890s) originated and to date are some of the oldest youth development organizations still thriving and providing various services to youth and their families. The role of these organizations is to encourage youth and others to participate in positive activities that will boost their development to foster positive experiences early in life. Being the focus of this study, the YMCA has worked to learn how to put a positive spin on various life events that impacts their development because for many youth beginning at an early age they are working and handling adult responsibilities, which causes them to often miss out on youth activities. Despite their increasing responsibility, these youth according to Russell and Van Campken (2011) still need guidance and to be taught how to handle the various situations they will encounter from adolescence into adulthood.

Dimensions of Positive Youth Development

According to Pittman (1991), youth development should be seen as an ongoing, inevitable process in which all youth should be engaged and invested (p.ii). Even in the absence of family support and formal or informal programs, all young people look for measures that will meet and exceed their simplest physical and social needs that allow them to build the necessary assets and competencies beneficial to their continued development from formative years into adulthood.

In its simplest form, the term positive youth development directs attention to the desired outcomes for our nation's youth (Roth et. al., 1998). The reason people in youth development sometimes add the word "positive" to development is to emphasize the goal of mobilizing these natural processes in youth (Witt & Caldwell, 2005, p. 132). Positive youth development embodies the eagerness of youth to want to grow and become flourishing members of society. Also, it reveals that keeping youth from taking part in

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improper behaviors does not mean that they will not face any problems as adolescences and are ready to move into adulthood, but it does mean that they are given a chance to learn positive behaviors and what it takes to be successful adults. Roth et. al. (1998) farther viewed positive youth development as the engagement of youth in prosocial behaviors and the avoidance of health-compromising and future-jeopardizing behaviors (p. 426). Being interdisciplinary in nature, positive youth development can be perceived by both researchers and practitioners as being a term that relates well in research, policy, philosophy, academics, and professionalism and also helps both parties to understand the complex nature of adolescents and what factors need to be in place to help them overcome any obstacles leading into adulthood. Moreover, positive youth development can be perceived by researchers and practitioners as interdisciplinary in nature and thus follows the resemblance of research, policy, philosophy, academics, and professionalism.

Youth need to develop along both the needs and assets angles to be successful adults. Focusing here more on the needs of youth and their families' helps to understand how their assets will be developed over time; therefore, needs and assets are the two axles of youth development. Equally, it is vital that youth engage in activities that afford them the chance to be problem free (e.g., abstaining from drugs, improper/early sexual activities, and other activities that stem from improper behavior).Maslow's theory of human motivation is rightfully so understood as being based on his hierarchy of needs theory and that needs must be met one at a time; however, Maslow (1954) wrote that the self-actualization need cannot be achieved by adolescents:

Self-actualization does not occur in young people. In our culture, at least, youngsters have not yet achieved identity or autonomy, nor have they had time

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enough to experience an enduring, loyal, post-romantic love relationship…Nor have they worked out their own system of values; nor have they experience enough (responsibility for others, tragedy, failure, achievement, success) to shed perfectionistic illusions and become realistic… (Pittman, 1991, p. 17).

Yet, Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is relevant to youth development when it comes to understanding a youth's need to feel safe and belong. Following his work, the early writings on adolescent behavior discussed the safety of youth from the stance of belonging either to a familial unit or formal or informal programs. In particular, safety and belonging are significant concerns for adolescents and their families during the after-school hours between 3-7 p.m. There exist a number of young people reared in single-parent households where the parent works a full-time job and possibly a part-time job to help stabilize the household's finances.

Second, safety and belonging are also problematic for youth from dual-working families because neither parent is available during the 3-7 p.m. time period. Either way, the advent of at least one parent working outside of the house is steadily increasing today or becoming much more of the norm compared to earlier times when women stayed home to care for the children. Simply, the hours between 3-7 p.m. are considered critical times for youth to engage in improper behaviors that can seriously impact a positive youth development and their one day becoming successful adults. Although adolescents with a full-time, year-round parent who works comprise almost half of the low-income population, they are less likely to be living in a low-income family, compared to adolescents with parents who work part-time or part-year or who do not work at all. The stats revealed that 27 percent of adolescents with at least one parent who works full-time,

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year round (4.9 million) live in low-income families; 72 percent of adolescents with at least one parent who works part-time or part-year (3 million) live in low-income families; and 89 percent of adolescents with no employed parents (2.1 million) live in low-income families (NCCP, p.5). See Chart 4.1 for a visual depiction of the aforementioned statistics on adolescent parents who are either employed or unemployed.
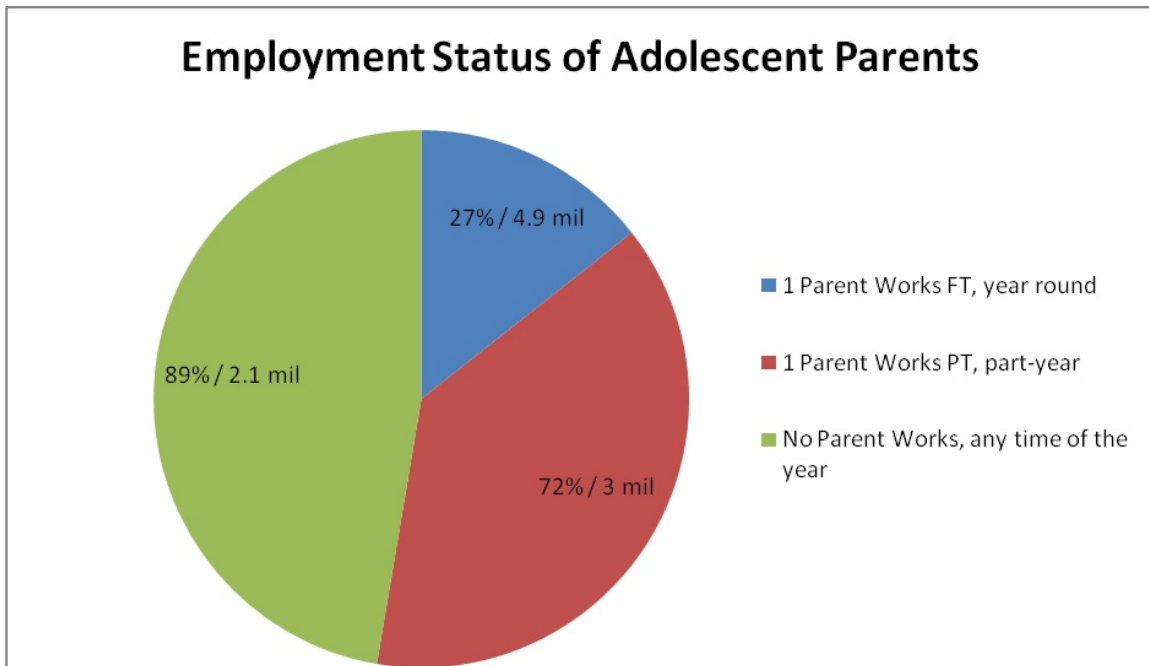
Figure 4.1   Employment Status of Adolescent Parents
Statistics attained from the National Center on Poverty (2013)

Youth development programs are gaining prominence as a means to help adolescents become competent, engaged and responsible adults. However, the definition of youth development programs is still ambiguous despite its emergence in the 1980s. Roth and Brooks-Gunn (2003) stated that a specific definition of what exactly constitutes a youth development program does not exist (p. 95). Ultimately, for many youth, these

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programs are seen as avenues to implement opportunities and supports for youth to gain the competence and knowledge needed to meet the mounting challenges associated with adolescence. Service delivery for youth development happens in many settings such as organizations, programs, socializing systems, and communities, but for purposes of this study, the author concentrates on community-based organizations, which is the design and home for of most youth development programs. These entities are able to go beyond the traditional prevention or intervention models, unlike school-based programs by stressing skill and competency to counter risk factors and enhance protective factors for youth ages 10 to 16 (Roth et al., 1998). Youth need to feel and believe that not only does their family care for them and provide refuge from many of the issues they face, but that there also exists other adults that they can trust and establish healthy relationships with such as YMCA personnel who want them to go forth and be productive. It is important for youth to join organizations that provide challenging activities in a variety of settings. Benson et. al. (2006) posited that people and activities foster development best when they equal in challenging programs, activities and, support. As a philosophical approach, youth development communicates a larger number of community initiatives from state and regional groups created to integrate efforts on the local level. According to Benson & Saito (2001), one of the driving forces behind community-based youth development initiatives is the relatively new thinking about the cumulative effect of exposure to multiple youth development resources and inputs.

Like adults, youth also need to be motivated to participate in the right activities that will encourage positive behaviors and development. According to Larson and Walker (2010), program leaders continually introduce new methods to motivate youth to

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participate in program activities and has been furthermore noted by Herrera and Arbreton (2003) that youth residing in a metropolitan area may need a little more motivating in order for them to make a decision to participate in a youth development program. Later, Dawes and Larson (2011) explained that youth do not join development programs already motivated by the program's activities, so it does take encouragement from parents, friends, youth development personnel, and sometimes incentives to get them engaged in such programs. This type of encouragement is characterized by what Dawes and Larson (2011) termed as being extrinsic incentives that will not lead to youth wanting to participate more in the organization's programmatic activities, but will lead to youth's psychological engagement. This happens when the program is able to link activities to the serious side of youth and what they enjoy.

Impact of Positive Youth Development

Over the years, the youth development approach has received more and more attention that involves expertise and services from numerous programs, agencies, foundations, federal grant programs, policy initiatives, researchers, and youth-serving professionals committed to endorsing healthy behaviors to immerse competent, active, and prosperous youth in positive behaviors from adolescence to adulthood. Positive youth development is an umbrella term that covers many streams of work stemming from many areas as a field of interdisciplinary research, a policy approach, a philosophy, an academic major, a program description, and a professional identity like being a youth development worker with community-based organizations like the YMCA, Boys and Girls Club, and numerous other organizations.

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[I]n hindsight, it is clear that positive youth development, as a philosophy of services and as a field of study was initiated and grounded in the expertise of practitioners, primarily those working in nonprofit, community-based, youth-serving organizations. Research was used primarily to offer "empirical justification" for exemplary practice that was already occurring in communities (Benson et. al., 2006, p. 902).

Youth development has periodically been thought of as the "other side of the coin" that will act in such a way that aids in the minimization of life's pitfalls such as poverty, family violence, abuse, negative relationships with friends and adults, whereby youth development as an approach moves in the direction of naming and promoting core positive development processes, opportunities, and experiences (Benson & Saito, 2001, p. 125). Moreover, the

approach to positive youth development is based on four assumptions: (1) helping youth achieve their full potential is the best way to prevent them from experiencing problems; (2) youth need to experience a set of supports and opportunities to succeed; (3) communities need to mobilize and build capacity to support the positive development of youth; and (4) youth should not be viewed as problems to be fixed, but as partners to be engaged and developed (Small & Memmo, 2004, p. 7). In addition to family and community-based organizations, there are many agents involved in this process - family, peers, schools, community groups, religious organizations and employers who are all significant motivators in the youth development approach that guides youth in the right direction to successfully transition into adulthood. These agents stem from organizations and people who take immediate action and accountability for their role to help youth

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learn how to transition successfully which is seen as a tremendous undertaking to work with youth at such a critical time in their life. Youth development agents that address multiple needs have a larger potential impact on youth development programming than those that address a single need (Pittman et.al, 2001). Every youth development agent that cultivates programs and activities to help youth and the multiple elements they will encounter while growing up is representative of the reasons programs and policymakers relating to youth development implement common goals shared by many stakeholders.

The Youth Committee of the Lilly Endowment made this suggestion:

Youth development ought not be viewed as a happenstance matter. While children can, and often do make the best of difficult circumstances, they cannot be sustained and helped to grow by chance arrangements or makeshift events. Something far more intentional is required: a place, a league, a form of association, a gathering of people where value is placed on continuity, predictability, history, tradition, and a chance to test out new behaviors (Pittman, June 1991, p. 39).

In the United States, the well-being of youth from adolescence to adulthood has received substantial attention from policymakers to implement policy initiatives with reference to youth development. Similarly, youth-serving organizations in the United States have a very long history and have battled time in the public policy arena beginning in the early 1960s until gaining prominence in the late 1980s. Due to its rising popularity, youth development has become a very popular word in the field of youth development (Larson, 2000; Urban, 2008). Adolescence has often been observed as an extremely trying time, yet over the years, new insights and terminology have arisen for dialogue on

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youth because they are no longer seen as a problem that needs to be managed, but more like resources that need to be developed (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003).

Youth development programs must operate under the guiding principle that teaches youth how to keep giving their best even during the worst of times. To ensure that youth develop the skills to maintain such an attitude offers the foundation for youth development programs.   Adults are positive components to youth developing positive behaviors beginning during adolescence that will carry them into adulthood. According to the research of Benson & Saito, (2001), seventy-percent of teens revealed that they would like to hold memberships to gyms and recreation centers, which are safe places for them to go and hang out with their friends (p.130). Likewise, Roth and Brooks-Gunn (2003) in conjunction with the YMCA of the USA (2001) stated that adults criticize teens for wasting time but adults don't realize there's not much for teens to do afterschool and over half of these teenagers wished for more after-school activities in their neighborhood or community (p. 94-95). For instance, Benson and Saito (2001) revealed other key findings in their study, such as 65 percent of youth said they would like to spend more time with an adult they can trust and who respects them and fifty-nine percent said they wanted to spend more time with a parent or guardian.(p.130).

According to Dawes and Larson (2011), America's youth programs are second only to public school in the number of young people they reach: 82 percent of 12- to 17-year olds participated in one or more organized youth development programs. Therefore, they have the potential to contribute to the development of many young people (p.259).

State Policy on Positive Youth Development: MS and Its Border States

An important aspect of state lawmakers' jobs regarding youth development policy is that lawmakers have the responsibility to ensure that youth and their families engage in healthy behaviors that will lead them into adulthood. In *The Power of Public Ideas*, Robert Reich (1988) writes:

> The core responsibility of those who deal in public policy – elected officials, administrators, policy analysts – is not simply to discover as objectively as possible what people want for themselves and then to determine and implement the best means of satisfying these wants. It is also to provide the public with alternative visions of what is desirable and possible, to stimulate deliberation about them, provoke a reexamination of premises and values, and thus to broaden the range of potential responses and deepen society's understanding of itself (Benson & Pittman, 2001, p. 12)

Previously, policymaker's talked about time spent trying to figure out separate problems to be solved while practitioners spent the necessary time trying to implement the activities that would help youth successfully navigate through their adolescent years. Prior to community-based organizations, schools were the only institutions that implemented policies that could strengthen the lives of youth. The National Governors Association's Youth Policy Network (2002) stated that one of the premises of youth development policy creates much of the context for local action (Ferber et.al., 2002). Although services are delivered at the local level and must be tailored to local circumstances and priorities, state policies and resources produce much of the policy parameters in which communities function. Moreover, local input and discretion is vital

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in customizing services to meet local needs. Of the five states surveyed in this study, only

two states have a state policy on positive youth development – Alabama (2008 SB 67,

ACT 2008-39) and Louisiana (2007 SB, Act 118); however, four of the five states –

Mississippi, Alabama, Louisiana, and Tennessee all have YMCA *Youth in Government*

programs that provide elementary, middle, and high school students the opportunity to

learn more about civic engagement and how the legislative process works at the state,

national and international levels. On the national level, the Younger American Act

(2001) introduced during the 107th Congress as a means to provide some type of leverage

in the field of positive youth development, but unfortunately the proposal never made it

out of committee (Hahn, 2002, p.17). If the Act (2001) would have passed it would have

been seen as an extraordinary feat for the progression of youth development.

Schwarz and Aretino (2011) stated that for policymakers, adolescence presents an

invaluable opportunity to ensure that all young people can access the high-quality

services and supports they need to improve their odds of becoming successful, healthy,

and productive adults (p.23). Hence, these programmatic services, based on data from the

Richard M. Lerner Institute for Applied Research in Youth Development at Tufts

University should be established based on three very significant components: (1) promote

caring youth-adult relationships, (2) highlight the development of life skills, and (3)

promote youth participation in every aspect of the program (Schwarz & Aratani, 2011).

The need for positive youth development programs that focus on these three components

and more is very much so warranted and states' still need to increase their efforts to

ensure that statewide programs on youth development are designed to meet each of the

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three components. As of a couple of years ago, state efforts on youth development was lacking, and there is still work to be done in this area at the state level.

Based on the work of Campbell et. al., (2013) who cited that for over 30 years, the research on positive youth development has seen a major change, yet prior to such a change researchers, scholars, and practitioners developed youth-serving programs and institutions primarily using a deficit model that regarded high-risk youth behaviors and problems to be the focus of their work (p.38). Moreover, there is strong evidence that high-quality youth programs can have positive and significant effects for states (not just California) and the nation in constructing state policies and frameworks that support youth development programming. Support for positive youth development in a young person's life is positively associated with three outcomes of particular public significance. First, the research of Meltzer (2006) found that length of time was a strong determinate in how well youth transitioned into adulthood, particularly if they took part in positive youth development activities during childhood and adolescence whereby strengthening the chances of those youth participants to not only graduate from high school, but to also go to college. Earlier, the results from Meltzer's study were also agreed by Catalano et. al. (2004) where he and his colleagues gathered from their review of 161 positive youth development programs that youth who participated in such programming were more likely than others to have greater school achievement and attachment. Secondly, extensive research has shown that there exists a correlation between positive youth development and prevention of negative behaviors that may detract youth from successfully transitioning from adolescence to adulthood. Lastly, along with the research of Campbell et. al. (2013), Anderson et. al. (2007), Catalano et.

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al.,(2004), Roth and Brooks-Gunn, (2003) disclosed that positive youth development programs aid in positive personal traits and relationships, built on both self-assertive and self-regulative efficacy and empathy. Campbell et. al. (2013) noted that more research is needed to help policymakers in their decisions regarding the costs and benefits of positive youth development programs. For instance, part of research in this area has looked at the costs associated with operating high-quality youth programs in order to determine the amount of investment needed to operate such programming, which Grossman et. al. (2009) stated that out-of-school time programs are vital components of children's academic and social development (p.ii).   On the other hand, research is needed to outline the cost associated with positive youth development programming if society decides to not invest in this needed outlet for today's youth. Campbell et. al. (2013) posited that "we need to build a data-gathering infrastructure to ensure that state policy-making is well informed (p. 43)." Also, the authors' stated that more and better data is needed; however, the current research recommends that if positive youth development programs and strategies were to take deeper root and every young person had access to high-quality opportunities, many economic and social benefits could accrue to society (Campbell et.al., p.43).

Role of the Nonprofit Sector in Positive Youth Development

There exist more than 36,000 nonprofit organizations who classify themselves as youth development organizations under the general classification of human service nonprofits (Guidestar's Directory of Charities and Nonprofits, 2013). These programs can be found in two settings: K-12 school institutions or community-based organizations

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(CBOs). For the purposes of this study, the author concentrated solely on CBOs like the YMCA operating as youth development organizations.

In general, nonprofit community-based organizations tend to have broader missions than school-based organizations making them more loosely structured than schools. The design of nonprofit organizations gives them access to varied funding sources and volunteers to aid full-time employees to carry out the missions of community-based organizations. Also, the ability to be flexible in their approach to service delivery of youth programs and activities is a plus in the design of nonprofits who administer youth development services. The sharpest distinctions between community-based nonprofit organizations and school-based organizations are translated in their programs, activities and practices. As a group, nonprofit organizations are conducive to offering a wider array of programs and supports than schools because they place a higher value on youth participation and the importance of non-formal educational teaching methods to magnify the field of positive youth development. Hence, the program and activities offered span all competency areas and include activities like sports and recreation programs, life skill courses, community service, homework monitoring and experiential science and math education (Benson & Saito, 2001).The practices and strategies used in delivering these services reflect a clear understanding of the importance of meeting the basic physical and social needs of youth in the interest that these organizations recognize the importance of structure, belonging, and group membership for adolescents. The most compelling offering provided by nonprofit programs is the strong emphasis on providing each adolescent with manageable challenges that encourage progress, rewards, and the construction of personal achievement.

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Like so, nonprofit foundations have played an extensive role in positive youth development. Several well-regarded foundations have embarked upon this journey to help youth agents and others to better comprehend what needs should be met by these programs. Along with the major youth development grant programs that the Kellogg Foundation offers, the Lilly Endowment, the Kauffman Foundation, the Carnegie Corporation of New York, and the William T. Grant Foundation funded and distributed essential reports on the aspects of the field of positive youth development. The reports distributed by the these foundations began documenting and revealing more and more of the issues that troubled youth faced during adolescence that impacted their well-being and health during the formative years. For instance, The Kauffman Foundation in 2002 coordinated with Andrew Hahn to publish the report titled "Youth Development Policy: What American Foundations Can Do to Promote Policy" that discussed that even as an emerging field in the early 2000s there existed few local, state or federal youth-focused, policy-centered groups, and secondly, most foundations grantmaking concentrated on service providers, programs, and other investment areas rather than on the policy environment.

Role of the YMCA in Positive Youth Development

Brief History of the YMCA ("the Y")

The YMCA or just simply the "Y" was founded by George Williams along with 11 of his friends who were discouraged by the current situation in London during the 1800s and decided to come together to do something about the devastation taking place. The outgrowth of the efforts of Williams and his friends was the formation of the YMCA, which acted as a safe haven for young men where they held Bible study and prayer to

discuss the unrest happening in London at the time. An association for young men was not uncommon; however, the YMCA was able to offer these men something different compared to what was already available. Since the early beginnings of the Y, it has evolved over the years into a highly-regarded and well-respected organization. The YMCA has a vast history that is briefly outlined below:

- **1851**: First YMCA in the United States was founded by Thomas Sullivan in Boston.

- **1853**: First YMCA for blacks was founded by Anthony Bowen, a freed slave.

- **1891**: Dr. Luther Gulick (a public administration scholar) while attending the International Y

- MCA Training School in Springfield, MA sought assistance from physical education instructor James Naismith (created basketball) to create an indoor winter game for a class of future YMCA directors.

- **1900-1950**: Sponsored by the New York State YMCA, the YMCA Youth & Government program began in Albany, NY in 1936 to encourage high school students to understand the processes of government and to prepare them to participate in government.

- **1960s -1990s**: YMCA of the USA first began work on public policy issues in the 1970s, forming the Government Relations and Public Policy Office in the nation's capital in 1991.

- **2000-present**: The YMCA responded to several world crises—Sept. 11 (2001), Pacific Rim tsunami (2004), Hurricane Katrina (2005) and the

earthquake in Haiti (2010)—through fundraising, rebuilding efforts and programs designed to rekindle hope in the affected communities, particularly among children and young people. Positioning the YMCA as an important partner in preventing chronic diseases throughout the nation, Y-USA garners the support of high-ranking government officials (www.ymca.net/history).

The Influence of the YMCA on Positive Youth Development

In the field of youth development there has been some discussion on hiring more youth workers who are educated. In this movement, the YMCA of Metropolitan Milwaukee has led the way by hiring more workers with degrees, but others have debated this factor by saying that the hiring of more degreed workers is not necessary to enhance the value of the field and service delivery, especially with the two percent retention rate of youth workers there may just not be enough to change in the hiring requirements by selecting more degreed workers. The occurrence of having a degree, does not necessarily agree or disagree with this area of work in which many believe that to be a youth worker one must simply be capable in their roles as youth agents. In addition to capabilities, the youth worker must be energetic to handle their roles. Together, the capability and energy of youth workers must enhance the programs and services that these organizations offer to youth and their families; however, it must be added that there needs to be more. According to Astroth et. al. (2004), the three main reasons for the failure of youth organizations are (1) the absence of a leader, (2) lack of commitment, and (3) lack of leader support. Success often depends on dedicated, skilled and creative people – people who can manage and implement high-quality programs – to lead organizations to success.

Nonetheless, it does not matter if the leadership positions in youth-serving organizations are paid or unpaid because leadership continues to be the focus of what it takes to better youth development programs. As an evolving profession, the youth development field needs to define and describe the core competencies vital for the executive director and full-time employees to possess in order to lead to positive outcomes for youth participants. Still, the question remains what core competencies should youth workers bear to be more capable and trusting as a positive adult role model in the lives of today's young people who participate in youth development programs and activities. Research persists in the area of adequate core competencies for youth development workers. For example, Shay Bilcheck, executive director of the Child Welfare League of America and National Collaboration for Youth (NCY) stated that the NCY organized baseline core competencies under the countenance that youth workers would be inspired to remain in the field and advance themselves as youth professionals. This group along with youth workers that included the YMCA, the Boys and Girls Club, and the 4-H Club came together to develop a list of ten core competencies with the final list being approved in January 2004. These competencies were distributed to the above-mentioned youth organizations as a tool to be used during the recruitment and selection of youth workers; however, the YMCA went one step farther and included these ten competencies in their program design and its manual for youth workers titled "*Working with Youth Five to Twelve and Working with Teens Twelve to Seventeen*." Wheeler (2000) discussed the essence of youth-adult partnerships, which views youth as equal partners with adults in decision making, planning, and implementing actions (p.50). Such partnerships are described as a connection based on mutual respect and trust, and grants that adults and

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youth bring special ideas and solutions to problems. Lastly, the youth-adult partnership approach eschews age-based hierarchy and acknowledges that young people have much to contribute, much like how new management practices recognize that all workers are equally responsible for – and capable of – contributing to the success of the organization (Wheeler, 2000, p.50). Additionally, Wheeler (2000) stated that today's youth development organizations must truly "walk the talk" of their values and principles, taking into consideration – and even celebrating and supporting – the full context of the lives of their staff and volunteers in their systems and structures and that the new model of organizational structure and alignment for youth development organizations is a community of interest. Secondly, effective organizations focus on their strengths and tap into the resources of individuals, organizations, and communities beyond their walls where "inside" and "outside" the organization are defined by reference to core values and purpose, not by traditional boundaries (Wheeler, 2000, p.51). From the sample population, the Arkansas YMCA Association is a good example of YMCA's who are taking their services into the community by using one of its branch locations to go out into the community, which the organization calls it "Operating without Walls."

Along with youth development, the Y^2 focuses on two other areas: healthy living and social responsibility. It is a leading nonprofit organization in the United States with more than 2,600 associations that employs approximately 20,000 full-time employees in 10,000 communities across the country that provides services to 9 million youth across the United States. The YMCA affirms that the organization upholds those building blocks

[2] Facts and figures on the YMCA were retrieved from http://www.ymca.net/organizational-profile on June 23, 2013.

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that will help to make youth productive members of society through their participation in many programs offered by the organization. For example, the organization offers what is known as the *Youth & Government p*rogram in all of the survey states participating in this study except for Arkansas. The Y prides itself on being a positive fixture throughout communities and being able to influence children and teens through their participation in programs and activities that will help to guide them in the right direction. At the Y, youth participants take part in activities that allow them to develop and enhance the Y values of caring, honesty, respect, and responsibility through various activities that promote positive behaviors and relationships with others. Likewise, they are given opportunities to look farther into their talents and interests so that they can be all they can be within their respective communities. The Y believes that makes for confident kids today and contributing and engaged adults tomorrow (http://www.ymca.net/youth-development).

The executive director and full-time employees of youth development organizations are paramount in disseminating programs and services to ensure that the mission of the organization is achieved. In addition, it is the responsibility of the executive director as the leader of nonprofit, community-based organizations like the Y along with full-time employees under their direction to create and nourish an atmosphere of hope for youth who come to organizations to participate in the variety of youth development programs being offered. The atmosphere that youth-serving organizations like the YMCA exhibits closely features that of a family where youth can through many teachings find support that legitimizes their abilities beginning as adolescences on into adulthood. Furthermore, like successful families, these programs create physically and psychologically safe places with a strong sense of membership, commitment, explicit

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rules, responsibilities and expectations for adolescents' success (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). Continued involvement with youth development programs like the YMCA for long periods of time also demonstrates a commitment in a setting that nourishes the likelihood of youth to become engaged in positive development through organizational membership. The appearance of formal and informal opportunities presented to youth through various types of opportunities introduces youth to new people, ideas, cultures, and experiences. "The world belongs to the energetic" is a quote by Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803-1882) that sufficiently describes the role of the executive director and full-time employees of the YMCA to provide the right activities that will help youth to become positive members of society.

Summary

Albert Einstein (1879 – 1955) stated that "All that is valuable in human society depends upon the opportunity for development accorded the individual." This quote satisfactorily sums up the field of positive youth development and the influence that the YMCA has in this field. Despite all the good programs and services being offered by programs like the YMCA, it has yet to find itself as a fully developed and defined field, but this has not stopped community-based organizations like the YMCA, Boys and Girls Club or 4-H from continuing to make their mark in the lives of youth and their families. Summing up, Catalano et.al. (2004) stated:

> Youth development practitioners, the policy community, and prevention scientists have reached the same conclusions about promoting better outcomes for youth. They call for expanding programs beyond a single-problem-behavior focus and

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for considering program effects on a range of positive and problem behaviors (p.104).

Such expansions are significant for the continued interest of youth development programs in the communities.

CHAPTER V

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study used ordinary least squares regression to understand the relationships between public service motivation (PSM), job satisfaction, and level of commitment for executive directors and full-time employees employed with a YMCA in five states (Alabama, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Tennessee). The research on PSM continues to grow and be validated within the United States and abroad. Therefore, Taylor (2010) expressed that research on the public service ethic or PSM in the past decade or so advocated that PSM is a valid and useful construct for predicting important attitudes and outcomes (p.1038). Likewise, Taylor's findings still follows Perry's instructions and insights on the introduction of the PSM construct as well as the PSM scale. The motivation of those who seek careers in the public service are said to differ tremendously from those individuals who seek careers outside of public service. Previous research indicated that PSM has been linked to work attitudes like job satisfaction (Crewson, 1997; Kim 2005; Taylor 2007) as well as commitment (Horton & Hondeghem, 2006).

Like PSM, both job satisfaction and commitment have received extensive review in public administration literature as well as many disciplines outside of public administration. To begin, Spector (1997) posited that more studies have been conducted

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to understand job satisfaction than any other variable that relates to the organization, which is due to management's interest in the physical and psychological well-being of employees in the organization (p.vii). In this manner, job satisfaction is of interest to employees and researchers where job design links to supervision as the most fundamental variable guiding research and theory (Spector, 1997, p.1). For this study, Spector introduced his research on job satisfaction in 1985 when he began research which explored understanding the job satisfaction of human service employees in either the nonprofit or public sectors. In this particular research, Spector (1985) realized that there was a need for a measurement that would accurately measure satisfaction within these populations, which differed from the current job satisfaction scales of the time. Along these lines, Meyer and Allen (1997) began their research on commitment in the early 1980s looking at volunteerism as a component of the nonprofit sector and why some volunteers held high levels of commitment while some did not. The last phase of this research looked to understand how high commitment could be communicated and shared with volunteers. In the late 1990s, Meyer and Allen supported the idea that relationships between organizations and their employees were changing and believed that people developed from one form of commitment or another, which influenced their work role in the organization. By understanding when and how commitments are developed and how they help shape attitudes and behaviors, organizations will be in a better position to anticipate the impact that changes in employee attitudes and behaviors will have on the effective management of these individuals (Meyer and Allen, 1997, p.ix).

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Research Questions and Hypotheses

Extensive research persists on discovering the factors that motivates public and private sector employees; however, the same cannot be said for nonprofit employees. Word and Park (2009) remarked that research has also shown the importance of nonprofit organizations and their management in the fields of nonprofit management and public administration (p.103).

Employing this line of thinking, the PSM of public and nonprofit sector leaders and employees has been studied and found to be similar. Specifically, Mann (2006) found that PSM can be applied to understand the PSM of nonprofit employees. Based on the relevant literature, the author of this study developed one research question that guides this project along with the four hypotheses. The research question is:

- What impact does the mission statement have on executive directors' and full-time employees' public service motivation, job satisfaction, and level of commitment to achieve the mission of the organization?

Likewise, four hypotheses were formulated for this research:

- **H1:** As job satisfaction increases, the public service motivation of the executive director increases to achieve the mission of the organization.

- **H 2:** As job satisfaction increases, the public service motivation of full-time employees increases to achieve the mission of the organization.

- **H 3:** As the level of commitment from the executive director increases, the more likely his or her public service motivation increases to achieve the mission of the organization.

www.manaraa.com

- **H 4:** As the level of commitment from full-time employees increase, the more likely his or her public service motivation increases to achieve the mission of the organization.

Definition of Terms

This section serves as a means to help explain the important terms that have been used in this dissertation many times over. These terms have been defined with the intended purposes of helping to operationalize and bring understanding to key terms as outlined in this study. Lastly, these definitions of terms have been explained according to how they have been used operationally in this study.

- **Nonprofit Sector**: consists of different types of organizations that do not exist to generate profits for their owners or directors (Salamon, 1996, p.9). According to the National Center for Charitable Statistics (December, 2013), there exist 1, 409,430 tax-exempt organizations that take an active part in the lives of people both domestically and internationally (http://nccs.urban.org).

- **Human Services Nonprofits**: Human service nonprofit organizations are classified as the organizations that most people think of when they hear the word nonprofit. These organizations offer many types of services ranging from feeding the hungry, helping crime victims and offenders, administering job training, providing housing for the homeless, acting as advocates for children, and offering programs that help youth to mature into adults (http://www.guidestar.org/nonprofit-directory/human-services/youth-development/1.aspx).

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- **Community-based youth-serving organizations:** A community-based organization is an organization that provides services within or on behalf of young people within the community where they reside in a non-classroom environment (http://www.careerswithyouth.org/career_center/sectors/sectors_of_youth_work.htm).

- **Executive directors:** The person in charge of the operations of a nonprofit organization has many unique responsibilities. Executive directors are charged with establishing and enforcing the vision of the organization; recruiting and supervising office staff; maintaining a productive relationship with the board of directors; creating a fundraising plan that will ensure sustainability; and managing organizational finances (Compassion Capital Fund National Resource Center, 2008)

- **Full-time employees**: Employees provide services for compensation (as opposed to volunteers who are not compensated) and are under the "control" of the employer (National Council of Nonprofits, 2013).

Survey Respondents

Executive directors and full-time employees working with a YMCA organization in one of the five states (Alabama, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Tennessee) were selected as the sample population for this study. These five states were selected to participate in the survey due to their relative closeness to the state of Mississippi, which is reflected in the name of the survey – "Motivation in the Nonprofit Sector: Surveying Mississippi and Its Border States" (Figure 5.1). The executive leadership structure varied

from organization to organization with smaller YMCA organizations (less than 10 full-time employees) leadership structure only consisting of an executive director; however, larger YMCA organizations in the study (more than 10 full-time employees) leadership structure consisted of one executive director as well as an assistant/associate director, operations manager/director, and a human resources manager/director. In the larger YMCA organizations, the titles operations manager/director and human resources manager/director were used interchangeably; however, the job duties were closely related.

How the Study was Conducted

The author attained consent to conduct the survey with each individual YMCA by calling and speaking directly to either the executive director or his/her representative (assistant/associate director, operations manager/director, or human resources director). For the larger YMCA associations, consent had to also be attained from each branch director in addition to the association's executive director or representative.

In the second phase of conducting this study, the author pre-tested the survey with a YMCA in the state of Florida; hence this organization was not part of the survey population. Survey researchers have shown remarkable confidence in the pre-testing approach (Presser et. al., 2004, p.110). During this stage, the executive director was sent an anonymous survey link generated by Qualtrics, specifically for the purpose of pre-testing and asked to forward the link to all full-time employees within the organization. Once all surveys were returned, the author emailed the executive director a short questionnaire to understand the importance of pre-testing using a web-based system (Qualtrics) and the experience respondents gained from participating in an online survey.

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From pre-testing, the author of this study learned that the respondents preferred taking the questionnaire online versus receiving a paper-based version of the questionnaire. Dillman et. al. (2009) stated that not doing a pilot study can be disastrous for web surveys in particular despite the fact that most surveys now appear to be implemented without the conduct of pilot studies (p.229). Thus, conducting the pre-testing of the survey prior to implementation was useful.

Survey Design and Instrument

The survey instrument consisted of 55 open-ended questions on PSM (15 questions), job satisfaction (22 questions), and commitment (18 questions). In addition, questions pertaining to both personal and professional demographics were asked, but respondents were not forced to give a response to these questions unlike for the questions of PSM, JSS, and TCM. From the 55 questions, a survey questionnaire (Appendix B) was compiled and entered into Qualtrics.

One common approach geared toward comparing the same information for a larger number of cases is the survey research method (p.252)[3]. Archer (2003) stated that a web-based survey is the collection of data through a self-administered electronic set of questions on the web (p.1). Furthermore, Gray (2009) affirmed that online (web-based) questionnaires are relatively new, but are an increasingly popular way of conducting surveys (p.230). Despite the ease of using this mode to deliver the questionnaire, there are negative points associated with using online surveys.

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[3] The MSU Office of Research Compliance approved this study (IRB Study #12-391) on March 30, 2013.

Dillman and his colleagues (2009) ascertained that in less than a decade, the survey world has been turned upside down by the introduction of web surveys; however, now more than ever surveys are being conducted due to the low cost of this method (p.195). Likewise, the beauty of a web survey is that once it is launched, it can be completed by large numbers of people at low cost (p. 195). He rationalized that although the web helps to reach more people without a lot of expense placed on the surveyor, it must be acknowledged that there still exist problems with this mode of delivery. For instance, regardless of the technical advances that continue to be made with enhancing the web, the web is still seen as not being a safe mechanism to deliver and collect survey data. Secondly, the anonymity of the Internet gives people the opportunity to pretend to represent other legitimate organizations, such as banking and credit card companies or government entities, to try to gain access to financial or other sensitive information, to send bogus offers of rewards for going to certain web sites, and to encourage people to purchase products that are never sent and sometimes do not exist (p.195). Additionally, surveyors have to be cautious when sending out survey invitations to make sure that respondents do not delete your invitation fearing that it may contain information that could hurt their computers. To offset this problem, the author of this study called each YMCA and attained consent from either the executive director or his/her representative to conduct the study with the organization.

Consent to participate was received either via email or over the telephone from the executive director or his/her representative. Contacting organizations prior to the start of the survey gave the author the opportunity to make a connection with organizational leaders in the hope of reducing uncertainty associated with receiving an unsolicited email

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invitation. This approach follows Dillman et. al. (2009) instructions on how to contact potential respondents to get them to accept survey invitations by sending out the survey URL in advanced.

The advantages and disadvantages of using a web-based survey depend heavily on the survey population. Utilizing advice from Dillman et. al. (2009), it is important to design the web survey with the survey population in mind because survey populations vary in their access to the necessary technology to complete a web survey and their understanding of how the technology and the process work (p.200).

Many advantages and disadvantages exist for using a web-based survey instead of a mailed questionnaire. However, Lin and Van Ryzin (2012) stated that when taking into account the diverse survey modes that currently exist, for the nonprofit sector, mail and web surveys are considered to be the most commonly used mode of survey data collection for this sector. Archer (2003) explained the six advantages of utilizing a web-based survey instead of a paper-based questionnaire. These include: (1) paper, postage, mail out, and data entry costs are almost completely eliminated; (2) time required for implantation can be reduced; (3) once the electronic data collection system is developed, cost of surveying additional respondents is much lower; (4) display of response data can be simultaneous with completion of surveys. Often, data from web-based surveys are available in real time in graphic and numerical format; (5) reminders and follow-up on non-respondents are relatively easy; and (6) data from web-based surveys can be easily imported into data analysis programs (Archer, 2003, p. 1-2). Conversely, five disadvantages are cited for this survey mode. These include: (1) not everyone is connected to the Internet, so this survey method will not work with all populations; (2)

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even if connected, not all potential respondents are equally computer literate; (3) screen configurations may appear significantly different from one respondent to another, depending on settings of individual computers; (4) sampling of e-mail addresses is difficult. There are no directories. Sometimes there is more than one email address per respondent. Addresses are not standardized; and (5) the decision not to respond is likely to be made more quickly (Archer, 2003, p.2).

For the PSM, JSS, and TCM questions on the survey, a 5-point Likert scale was used to maintain uniformity between question types. The original scales used different point systems; however, to maintain uniformity for this survey the 5-point Likert scale was used. According to Bernard (2013), the Likert scale is the most common among scale types and was introduced in 1932 by Rensis Likert. With the Likert scale being so common, researchers have changed the point system to 3, 6 or even 7 points to fit their needs and the agree-disagree scale may change to approve-disapprove, favor-oppose, or excellent-bad. However, the infrastructure is still the same (Bernard, p.289). The respective scales were reversed-scored according to the original authors' instructions as to the specific statements from each scale that were reversed-scored. As previously mentioned, all questions were scored using the 5-point Likert scale where 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly Agree. The reversed-scored items were scored as 1=Strongly Agree, 2-Agree, 3=Neutral, 4=Disagree, and 5=Strongly Disagree. Consent to use the TCM and JSS scale was attained from the original authors.

According to Hager et. al. (2003), researchers who study nonprofit organizations draw on a wide range of empirical research methods (p.252). The selection of cases generally entails the researcher to make a list of cases, which is known as the sampling

frame. From the sampling frame, a random sample of those cases is chosen allowing the

research to collect data from those sampled cases (Hager et. al. 2003). Hence, researchers

who follow this method of choosing their study population believe that the chosen cases

are representative of the entire study population; therefore, giving researchers the

opportunity to honestly draw conclusions from the traits of the larger population based on

the traits of using a smaller portion of the larger population. As a nationally and

internationally-recognized organization, the author of this study selected a smaller sample

from a larger pool of potential participants employed with the YMCA to understand the

relationships between public service motivation, job satisfaction, and level of

commitment.

Data Collection

Questionnaires are important tools in the data collection process and used for

many research methodologies (Gray, 2009, p.337). The data collected with a

questionnaire must be reliable and valid to be of use to the researcher. Hence, the author

of this study chose to implement existing scales that have been previously tested and

proved to be both reliable and valid.

The five-state survey was conducted from July 8, 2013 to September 30, 2013 by

the author (see Table 5.1). Figure 5.1 shows graphically where each of the four states

border Mississippi.

Table 5.2   Mississippi and Its Border States

State	Borders MS
Mississippi (MS)	N/A
Alabama (AL)	East
Arkansas (AR)	West
Louisiana (LA)	South
Tennessee (TN)	North

Figure 5.1   Map of Mississippi and Its Border States

The survey was opened for a relatively long period of time to allow enough opportunity for the study population to complete the questionnaire. As many respondents told the author, summer is a very busy time for employees in youth development organizations due to personal and professional schedules changing during this time of the year. The first contact with the organization involved calling and obtaining consent to include the organization in the study population. Once consent was given, the author then

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sent an email titled "Permission to Conduct the Study" (Appendix C) with the specific name of the organization to the representative and asked that consent be made by replying back to that email. The majority of the representatives gave their consent over the phone. The "Permission to Conduct the Study" email also contained the informed consent (Appendix B). Once consent was given, the survey link was emailed to the representative asking them to forward the link to all full-time staff members by the designated date. A couple of weeks later the author sent out reminder emails to those in the first group who had consented to participate in the study. Due to the nature of the survey population's summer demands, the researcher had to vary her contact with the organization and sent reminder emails (Appendix D) and postcard remainders (Appendix E) to the representatives as well as made phone calls to encourage them to remind their full-time staff members to complete the survey (Appendix B).

Data Analysis Procedure

The author attained the survey results from Qualtrics, which were then exported into an excel spreadsheet. Once the results were in excel, the author cleaned the data only deleting two respondents for not completing the survey at all by the survey close date set in the settings. In Qualtrics, there is an option that may be selected to allow respondents only a certain amount of time to complete the survey and after that date surveys are closed and partial responses are saved. Based on Gray (2009), data analysis will only be reliable if it is built upon the foundations of 'clean' data, that is, data that have been entered into the computer accurately (p.454). After the data was cleaned, there were 139 surveys that could be used in the analysis process. The response rate for this survey was 31 percent, which was attained by dividing the total number of respondents who

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completed the survey and the total number of employees employed in the five-state population (139/455). The author would have liked for more participation from the survey group, but according to Fricker (2006),

> Conducting surveys, as in all forms of data collection, requires making compromises. We can never collect all the data we would like with perfect accuracy. Hence, it is thus critical for researchers to have a firm grasp of the trade-offs they implicitly or explicitly make when choosing a sampling method for collecting their data (p.3).

Gray (2009) stated that there is conflicting evidence as to whether making use of web-based surveys increases response rates, leads to lower response rates or makes no difference (p.231). Furthermore, Lin and Van Ryzin (2012) stated that web surveys have a lower rate of item non-response than paper surveys (p.1016).

Summary

Lin and Van Ryzin (2012) described survey methods as being a widely used approach to collecting data on nonprofit organizations and the people who run them (p. 1014). Survey research is a credible survey mode to use to help understand the attitudes and behaviors of nonprofit employees. Moreover, the advantages of using a web-based mode of data collection outweigh the disadvantages of using a mailed questionnaire for the author. In chapter six, the author will discuss the results from the regression analysis. Chapter seven concludes the study and offers recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER VI

FINDINGS

Demographic and Descriptive Statistics

The purpose of this study has been to investigate the public service motivation (PSM) of executive directors and full-time employees in the human services subsector of the nonprofit sector. To examine PSM, executive directors, and full-time employees working with YMCA organizations comprised the population for this study. Thirty-three (33) YMCA organizations were contacted who employ a total of 455 executive directors and full-time employees. Of the 455 total employees in these 33 organizations, 139 - respondents completed the online questionnaire. The 139 completed surveys yielded a response rate of 31 percent. According to SurveyMonkey.com, a response rate between 20-30% is thought to be highly successful for an online survey in which there was no prior relationship with the respondents (https://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/sample-size/). Table 6.1 details the demographics and descriptive statistics of survey respondents for this study.

From the survey, respondents were asked to indicate their salary range. In the first salary range, 4% of the sample population indicated that their salary was less than $20,000. The second salary range is $20,000 - $39,999 where 44% respondents indicated their salary to be in this range. This salary range held the largest number of responses. The salary range of $40,000 - $59,000 consisted of 24% respondents who indicated their

salary between these two amounts. The sample population was composed 17% who indicated their salaries between the amounts of $60,000 - $79,000 while 6% of respondent from the sample population indicated their salaries are between the amounts of $80,000 - $99,000. Five percent (5%) indicated that their salary is $100,000 or more. The six categories for the variable salary were not operationalized. The sample population was composed of 61% of respondents being female and 39% of respondents identifying as males (Table 6.1). In terms of age, respondents could select from six categories on the survey (24 or younger, 25 to 34, 35 to 44, 45 to 54, 55 to 64 or 65 or older), but during the operationalization process the six age categories were reduced to four categories. After recoding age, the four categories are 18 to 34 and 31% of the respondents indicated that their age is in this category, 35 to 44 is the second category with 26% of the respondents indicating that their age was in this category, the third age category is from 45 to 54 with 27% of respondents selecting this category, and the last age category is 55 and older and 16% of the population selected this category (Table 6.1).

The six initial categories for race (Caucasian/White; African American/Black; Hispanic/Latino/Mexican; Asian; Native American and Other) were reduced to three categories (White, Black, and Other). 82% of respondents indicated themselves as White, 16% indicated that they were Black, and 3% of respondents indicated themselves as other (Table 6.1).

In the original survey, the education category consisted of seven categories (less than high school diploma, high school diploma, 2-year college degree, 4-year college degree, Master's degree, Doctorate degree (Ph.D., Ed.D., etc.), and Professional degree (M.D., J.D., etc.). These seven categories were reduced to four categories (high school

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diploma or less, 2-year college degree, 4-year college degree, and graduate/professional degree). The reduction of categories decreased the range from 1-7 to 1 -4. The responses for the education categories are: 16% of respondents indicated they had a high school diploma or less while 7% of respondents indicated they held a 2-year college degree, whereas 55% of respondents held a 4-year college degree. Lastly, 22% of respondents indicated that they held a graduate or professional degree (Table 6.1).Regarding program type, the majority of respondents (90%) indicated that their YMCA was a community-based organization and the remaining 10% of respondents indicated that their YMCA operated within a K-12 institution. In the sample population, 44% of respondents indicated the location of their YMCA was in Tennessee followed by 23% of respondents from Alabama (Table 6.1). These two states are the largest YMCA associations in the southeastern region of the United States. Likewise, 18% of respondents resided in Louisiana, 11% in Mississippi and 3% in Arkansas (Table 6.1) with Arkansas having the smallest number of YMCA organizations in the five-state sample population.

Table 6.1   Descriptive Statistics of Respondents

Variable	**Characteristic**	**N**	**Percent**
Gender	Female	85	61%
	Male	54	39%
Salary	<$20,000	6	4%
	$20,000 - $39,999	61	44%
	$40,000 - $59,000	33	24%
	$60,000 - $79,000	24	17%
	80,000 - $99,000	8	6%
	$100,000 or more	7	5%
Age	18 to 34	43	31%
	35 to 44	37	26%
	45 to 54	38	27%
	55 and older	23	16%
Education	HS Diploma	23	16%
	2-year college	10	7%
	4-year college	78	55%
	Grad/Prof	31	22%
Race	Caucasian	115	82%
	African American	22	16%
	Other	4	3%
Program Type	Community-based organization	126	90%
	K-12 institution	14	10%
Location	AL	33	23%
	AR	4	3%
	LA	26	18%
	MS	16	11%
	TN	62	44%
Position in organization	Executive Director	42	30%
	Full-time employee	97	70%
Number of years in current position	Less than 1 year	10	7%
	1-5 years	50	35%
	5-10 years	36	25%
	10-15 years	22	15%
	15-20 years	11	8%
	20+ years	13	9%
Number of times changed positions in organization	1 time	53	42%
	2 times	29	23%
	3 times	22	17%
	4+ times	23	18%
Number of Full-time people in organization	1-5 people	30	21%
	6-10 people	31	22%
	10-15 people	10	7%
	15-20 people	3	2%
	20+ people	67	48%

In general, adding demographic questions to a survey allows survey analysts to

detect what aspects may control how a respondent answers a question or statement on a

questionnaire. When it comes to professional demographics, 70% of respondents

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indicated themselves as full-time employees (N=97) and 30% indicated themselves as executive directors (N=42) (Table 6.1). The second question on professional demographics asked respondents to indicate the number of years employed in current position. In the original survey, there were six categories (less than 1 year, 1-5 years, 5-10 years, 10-15 years, 15-20 years, and 20+ years) relating to the number of years employed in current position. Thus, during the operationalization process, these six categories were reduced to four categories (1 to 5 years, 5 to 10 years, 10 to 15 years, and 20+ years). The majority of respondents (35%) indicated being in their current position between 1 to 5 years, 25% of respondents indicated being in their current position 5 to 10 years, 15% indicated being in their current position 10 to 15 years, while 9% of respondents had been in their current position for over 20 years (Table 6.1). Additionally, 8% of respondents indicated that they had been with their organization from 15 to 20 years while 7% indicated being in their current position a year or less (Table 6.1).

The last professional demographic question asked survey respondents to disclose the number of full-time people in the organization and 21% of respondents indicated 1 – 5 full-time employees, 22% indicated 6-10 full-time employees, 7% indicated 10-15 full-time employees, and 2% indicated that 15-20 full-time employees in the organization (Table 6.1). The largest category of respondents, 48%, indicated that there were 20 or more employees in their organization (Table 6.1).

Missing data were dealt with in a variety of fashions. First, none of the 139 surveys contained missing data on the forced-response questions, which were questions on PSM, job satisfaction (JSS), and three-component model (TCM); however, there was missing data for the demographic questions because respondents were not forced to

answer these questions. Because of the large number of missing responses to the "times changed position in the organization" question, this variable was dropped from the analysis. Secondly, the mode substitution was performed for the salary demographic variable because salaries are specific ranges and differ for each respondent. After calculating the mode on the responses, the number two was used to replace the missing categories for two cases. Thirdly, as for the gender dummy variable (full-time employee dataset), the missing data was replaced for all respondents who identified themselves as female with the number two for three cases.

The decision to treat the sample as two separate datasets (executive director dataset and full-time employee dataset) came from running multiple regression analyses and the author of this study realized that together there were not significant results seen from the regression analysis as one dataset and it was established that PSM was different based on position in the organization. Thus, the PSM, job satisfaction, and level of commitment varied for executive directors and full-time employees for this sample. Once the sample was separated into two groups, significant results were attained for the regression analysis for the executive director dataset and full-time employee dataset.

Recoding of the Executive Director Group

Because of the low counts in several of the demographic categories for both the Executive Directors and the Full-Time Employees it was necessary to recode many of the variables into fewer categories. These categories are then turned into dummy variables which were used in the statistical analysis. In all cases the number of dummy variables created equaled the number of new categories; however, one of these dummy variables was left out of the analysis. This process prevented perfect multicollinearity and also

means that the missing dummy variable represents the category that is treated as the control group.

The demographic variable, 'number of years in position' was recoded into three categories. The first category was named 'number of years position short time' (NYPST) to reflect respondents in the executive director group who indicated on the survey questionnaire that they have been employed with the organization for either (1) less than 1 year or (2) between 1-5 years. This first category was coded as 1 and respondents who indicated otherwise were coded as 0. The second category 'number of years position medium time' (NYPMT) reflects respondents from the executive director group who have been employed with the organization between 1-5 years. This category was coded as 1. If respondents indicated otherwise for this second category their responses were coded as 0. The third category 'number of years in position long time' (NYPLT) consists of respondents from the executive director group who indicated long-time employment either as (1) 10-15 years, (2) 15 -20 years, or (3) 20+ years. This category was coded as 1 and 0 if respondents indicated otherwise.

The demographic variable 'number of full-time people small organization' (NFTPOSM) was also recoded into three categories. This first category is coded as 1 if respondents in the executive director group indicated number of full-time employees in the organization either as (1) 1-5 or (2) 6-10. If respondents indicated that the 'number of full-time people small organization" fell outside of above-mentioned classes, then the responses were coded as 0. The second category 'number of full-time people medium organization' (NFTPOMD) is coded as 1 if the organization contained between 10-15 full-time people in the organization. Respondents who indicated a different response from

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the 10-15 full-time people in the organization were coded as 0. The third category was named 'number of full-time people large organization' (NFTPOLG) was coded as 1 if respondents indicated number of full-time people either as (1) 15-20 or (2) 20+ full-time people in the organization. Responses falling outside of the above-mentioned classes were coded as 0.

The demographic variable salary was recoded into three categories. The first category named 'lowsal' includes respondents from the executive director group who indicated that their salary was either (1) <$20,000 or (2) between $20,000 -$39,999. This category was coded as 1 and respondents who selected a choice outside of these categories were coded as 0. The second category named 'medsal' is indicative of salaries in the $40,000 - $59,000 range and coded as 1 and if respondents selected a salary outside of this range they were coded as 0. The third category named 'hisal' includes three classes of salaries: (1) $60,000-$79,000, (2) $80,000 - $99,000, and (3) $100,000 or more. This category was coded as 1 and other salaries outside of these ranges were coded as 0.

For the demographic variable, 'young/age' was recoded as 1 for all who had selected the age categories of: (1) 24 or younger, (2) 25 to 34, or (3) 35 to 44. All who answered outside of the above-mentioned age classes were coded as 0.

Secondly, the gender demographic variable was recoded and named 'gender/female'. This category was coded as 1 and respondents who indicated themselves as male was coded 0. The race variable was recoded into a dummy variable with one category named 'race/white' (coded as 1). If respondents indicated that they were white, they were coded as 1and if they indicated their race to be black or other, and the

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responses were coded as 0. The last demographic variable for the executive director

dataset was education, which was recoded and named 'education/advanced' because

respondents held either a master's degree, doctorate degree, or a professional degree.

Education/advanced was coded as 1 and responses below this level of education were

coded as 0.

Recoding of Demographic Variables for Full-time Employee Dataset

The demographic variable, 'number of years in position' (NYPST) was recoded

into a dummy variable with three categories. This first category was coded as 1 for those

with 5 years or fewer of service and respondents who indicated otherwise were coded as

0. The second category 'number of years position medium time' (NYPMT) reflects

respondents from the full-time employee group who have been employed with the

organization between 5-10 years. This category was coded as 1. If respondents indicated

otherwise for this second category their responses were coded as 0. The third category

'number of years in position long time' (NYPLT) consists of respondents from the full-

time employee group who indicated long-time employment either as (1) 10-15 years, (2)

15 -20 years, or (3) 20+ years. This category was coded as 1 and coded as 0 if

respondents indicated otherwise.

The demographic variable 'number of full-time people in small organization' was

also reduced to three categories. The first category (NFTPOSM) is coded as 1 if

respondents in the full-time employee group indicated number of full-time employees in

the organization either as (1) 1-5 or (2) 6-10. If respondents indicated that the 'number of

full-time people small organization" were outside of the above-mentioned classes, then

the responses were coded as 0. The second category 'number of full-time people medium

organization' (NFTPOMD) is coded as 1 if the organization contained between 10-15 full-time people. Respondents who indicated a different response from the 10-15 full-time people in the organization were coded as 0. The third category was named 'number of full-time people large organization' (NFTPOLG) and coded as 1 if respondents indicated number of full-time people in their organization between (1)15-20 or (2) 20+ full-time people in the organization. Responses falling outside of the above-mentioned classes were coded as 0.

Three categories were also used for the recoding of the variable salary. The first category named 'lowsal' includes respondents from the full-time employee group who indicated their salary was either (1) <$20,000 or (2) between $20,000 -$39,999. This category was coded as 1 and respondents who selected a choice outside of these two classes were coded as 0. The second category named 'medsal' is indicative of salaries from $40,000 - $59,000 and coded as 1. If respondents selected a salary outside of this range, they were coded as 0. The third category is named 'hisal' and includes three classes of salaries: (1) $60,000-$79,000, (2) $80,000 - $99,000, and (3) $100,000 or more. This category was coded as 1 and salaries outside of these classes were coded as 0.

For the demographic variable, 'young/age' ages were selected from three classes: (1) 24 or younger, (2) 25 to 34, or (3) 35 to 44. This category was coded as 1 and respondents who answered outside of the above-mentioned age classes were coded as 0. Secondly, the gender demographic variable was recoded and named 'gender/female'. This category was coded as 1 and respondents who indicated themselves as male were coded as 0. The race variable was recoded into a dummy variable with one category named 'race/white'. If respondents indicated their race as white, they were coded as 1and

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if they indicated their race to be black or other; the responses were coded as 0. The last demographic variable for the full-time employee group was education, which was recoded and named 'education/advanced' to indicate respondents having either a master's degree, doctorate degree, or a professional degree. Education/advanced was coded as 1 and responses below this level of education were coded as 0.

Discussion of Research Questions

According to Stazyk (2011), no subject matter has been given as much attention in a short amount of time as that of public service motivation (PSM). Thus, Wright (2008) stated that PSM has been found to only increase public employee commitment and job satisfaction when employees feel that they are making important contributions to an organizational mission with which they identify (p.90). The research question for the study discusses the importance of mission statements in understanding PSM, job satisfaction, and level of commitment for executive directors and full-time employees.

The guidance of organizational leaders in relation to PSM stems from a number of factors such as creating meaningful jobs and acknowledging employees for encompassing public service values supported by the organization and closely tied to its mission statement. Hence, the goal of this study is to provide an understanding of how PSM impacts the job satisfaction and level of commitment for executive directors and full-time employees. There is one research question relevant to this study. It is:

- What impact does the mission statement have on executive directors' and full-time employees' public service motivation, job satisfaction, and level of commitment to achieve the mission of the organization?

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Specifically, Wright and Pandey (2011) stated that an organization's mission statement can be a powerful and positive force acting as a critical component of any formal system of cooperation which allows an organization's purpose to direct, evaluate, and drive the activities of its members (p. 22). In earlier research, Chester Barnard (1938) posited that a mission statement serves as part of the formal system of cooperation in organizations and are used to "satisfy personal ideals relating to nonmaterial, future or altruistic relations" while serving as one of "the most powerful and most neglected" ways to induce cooperation. Other public administration scholars like Luther Gulick, James Wilson, and Wright and Pandey agreed with Barnard's research and also believed that the benefits of a strong mission statement were significant to the success of an organization (Wright & Pandey, 2011).

Mission statements can be viewed as a communication instrument because they are written with a view not only to the expression of something fundamental about the organization, but with the perspective to achieving that fundamental aspect as well. The core of every nonprofit organization is its mission statement, thus it represents everything about the organization and its people because every detail of the organization is emanated through this statement (Brown & Yoshioka, 2003, p. 5). The work of Brown and Yoshioka (2003) established that the mission statement is the bottom line for nonprofits to create clear and attainable financial goals and is salient to the nonprofit sector in terms of understanding the impact that a concise mission statement has on the success of the organization. These authors recognized three principal factors regarding the significance of the mission statement (1) different types of employees hold different attitudes toward their work and the organization; (2) satisfaction and commitment are positively related to

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each other; and (3) value congruence should contribute to both (p. 8). Lastly, Desmidt and Prinzie (2009) predicated that a mission statement can only be deemed effective if it stimulates organizational members to process the information embedded in the statement. What this simply means is that the attraction, selection, and retention of employees is very salient to the productivity of any organization, particularly nonprofits because these organizations are thought to have harder times than their public and private sector counterparts when it comes to retaining the right mix of employees.

Together, job satisfaction and level of commitment from leaders and members in the organization should be such that it encourages them to want to remain with their organization to work towards achieving the mission. However, when leaders and members are not satisfied and committed to their organizational roles, then "career entrenchment" sets in and fosters what is called career dissatisfaction, which could be to the point that employees feel that a poor fit exists between the organization's aspirations and their own personal aspirations. Thus, Carson and Carson (1997) stated that even though employees may want to leave their organization, they still stay with the organization despite their dissatisfaction and minimum engagement, yet the result of remaining with the organization even when dissatisfied employees become indifferent to the organizational politics (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007).

Discussion of Variables

To adequately explain the two research questions, four hypotheses were selected and tested using ordinary least squares regression. Ordinary least squares (OLS) multiple regression is described as a statistical technique that allows us to predict someone's score on one variable on the basis of their scores on several other variables (Acton and Miller,

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2009, p. 206). Additionally, Berger (2011) defined OLS as a flexible method of data analysis that may be appropriate whenever a quantitative (the dependent or criterion variable) is to be examined in relationship to any other factors expressed as the independent or predictor variables (p.1).

The research question was answered using all four hypotheses in the study. In addition, all of the survey questions on PSM, job satisfaction, and commitment answered this research question as well. A copy of the survey has been included in Appendix B. The next section describes specifically how the scales for PSM, job satisfaction, and level of commitment were constructed as well as the response for each scale.

Dependent Variable

Global PSM

The dependent variable for the study is public service motivation (PSM). During the regression analysis process, the three separate dimensions of PSM (commitment to the public interest, self-sacrifice, and compassion) were combined and renamed Global PSM to reflect a more holistic approach to using PSM as the dependent variable in the study[4]. Perry (1996) integrated the PSM construct as a way to measure the variation in the types of motivation that persists among government, business, and nonprofit samples, whereby attaining entrance to data that is both reliable and valid when it comes to addressing numerous questions in public administration. For this study, Global PSM is an interval-level variable. The specific statements for Global PSM are listed below (Table 6.2).

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[4] The PSM dimensions social justice and attraction to policy making were not included in this study because the author believed these dimensions were not relevant to the mission and goals of the YMCA.

As the dependent variable, Global PSM is used to analyze all hypotheses in this study and employs 12 statements from Perry's 24-item scale. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each statement where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree. Negatively-keyed survey items were reversed-scored where the low level of agreement was measured as 1 and the highest level of agreed was measured by 5.

Although three dimensions of PSM were combined into one global aspect of the construct, it is still important to note how respondents agreed with each individual dimension. Public administration literature has discussed extensively how the three dimensions of PSM were once only applicable to the government, but is now applicable to the nonprofit sector. Commitment to the public interest is the first dimension in this study. Regarding the first statement – "I unselfishly contribute to my community" the results from the survey found that .704% strongly disagreed, 2.11% disagreed, 8.45% neither agreed nor disagreed, 59.86% agreed, and 28.87% strongly agreed that they unselfishly contribute to their community. Results for the second commitment to the public interest statement – "Meaningful public service is very important to me" found that .704% strongly disagreed, 0% disagreed, 7.74% of respondents neither agreed nor disagreed, 50.70% agreed, and 40.85% of respondents strongly agreed that meaningful public service is important to them. Results for the third statement under the commitment to the public interest dimension – "It is hard for me to get intensely interested in what is going on in my community" found that 26.06% strongly disagreed, 47.89% disagreed, 11.97% agreed, 11.97% neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement while 2.11% of

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respondents strongly agreed that "It is hard for me to get intensely interested in what is going on in my community."

Compassion is the second dimension measured via the survey. The first compassion statement states – "I am rarely moved by the plight of the underprivileged" and survey results found that 1.41% strongly disagreed, 14.08% disagreed, 16.20% neither agreed nor disagreed, 46.48% agreed, and 21.83% strongly agreed with this statement. The second compassion statement – "It is difficult for me to contain my feelings when I see people in distress" the survey results indicated that 0% strongly disagreed, 28.17% disagreed, 19.72% neither agreed nor disagreed, 57.08% agreed, and 18.31% strongly agreed. Results from the third compassion statement – "I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on each other" found that 0% strongly disagreed, 9.94% disagreed, 39.76% neither agreed nor disagreed, 115.02% agreed, and 36.92% strongly agreed. The fourth compassion statement – "I have little compassion for people in need who are unwilling to take the first step to help themselves" found that .704% strongly disagreed, 7.74% disagreed, 21.83% neither agreed nor disagreed, 47.89% agreed, and 21.83% strongly agreed with the statement. Lastly, compassion is hypothesized to be a significant factor associated with employment in the nonprofit sector.

The fourth dimension of the PSM dimension included in the study is self-sacrifice. Results from the first self-sacrifice statement – "Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements" results found that 0% strongly disagreed, 2.11% disagreed, 8.45% neither agreed nor disagreed, 52.82% agreed, and 35.92% strongly agreed with this statement. Results from the second self-sacrifice statement –

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"Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself" found that 0% strongly disagreed, 2.11% disagreed, 16.20% neither agreed nor disagreed, 30.28% agreed, and 51.41% strongly agreed with this statement. The third self-sacrifice statement states – "I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society" results from the survey found that 0% strongly disagreed, 9.15% disagreed, 42.96% neither agreed nor disagreed, 40.85% agreed, and 7.04% strongly agreed with this third self-sacrifice statement. Results from the fourth self-sacrifice statement – "I am one of those rare people who would risk personal loss to help someone else" found that .704% strongly disagreed, 12.68% disagreed, 40.14% neither agreed nor disagreed, 36.62% agreed, and 9.86% strongly agreed with this statement. The descriptive statistics for Global PSM (dependent variable), the meaning of each component from Perry's 24-item scale (1996), the total number of respondents who responded to each question and the means and standard deviations for each dimension of PSM are below (Table 6.2). The means and standard deviations for each PSM dimension were attained from the survey responses in Qualtrics.

Table 6.2   Descriptive Statistics for Global PSM (Dependent Variable)

Dimensions	Meaning of PSM Dimensions	Corresponding Statement From Survey	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Commitment to the Public Interest	Desire to serve the public interest	I unselfishly contribute to my community.	142	4.14	0.71
		Meaningful public service is very important to me.	142	4.31	0.68
		It is hard for me to get intensely interested in what is going on in my community. **(R)	142	2.16	1.02
Compassion	"Patriotism of benevolence"	I am rarely moved by the plight of the under privileged. **(R)	142	1.73	0.74
		It is difficult for one to contain my feelings when I see people in distress.	142	3.73	1.00
		I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on each other.	142	3.89	0.75
		I have little compassion for people in need who are unwilling to take the first step to help themselves. **(R)	142	3.04	1.09
Self-Sacrifice	Willingness to substitute service to others for tangible personal rewards.	Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievement.	142	3.82	0.89
		Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself.	142	4.22	0.72
		I feel people should give back to society more than they get from it.	142	4.10	0.74
		I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society.	142	3.46	0.76
		I am one of those people who risk personal loss to help someone else.	142	3.42	0.86

(R) indicates reversed-scored statements and no statements were reversed for self-sacrifice (Perry, 1996).

In terms of the three dimensions used in this study, the author's use of

commitment to the public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice are aligned with other

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studies such as Word and Carpenter (2013) that have also used the same three dimensions in their study to discuss the connection between working in the nonprofit sector and the principles of public service. From their study, Word and Carpenter introduced what is called nonprofit public service motivation (NPSM), but used the three dimensions separated and noted combined to form one new PSM construct. The statements for the dependent variable, Global PSM are from the survey found in Appendix B.

Table 6.3   Executive Director Means, Standard Deviations, Min-Max, and Correlations

Dependent Variable	Observation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Min	Max	Correlation
Global PSM	42	46.61	4.75	37	58	1.0000

Table 6.4   Full-time Employees Means, Standard Deviations, Min-Max, and Correlations

Dependent Variable	Observation	Mean	Standard Deviation	Min	Max	Correlation
Global PSM	97	46.11	5.98	30	57	1.00000

To generate the Global PSM variable used in this study the author summed the results of these 12 statements on the survey. This produced a variable with a range between 37-58, a mean of 46.6, and a standard deviation of 4.75 for executive directors (Table 6.3). Likewise, the range for Global PSM for full-time employees was between 30-57 with a mean of 46.11 and a standard deviation of 5.98 (Table 6.4).

Independent Variables

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs (Spector, 1997, p.2). The concept of job satisfaction, in its simplest form, is bound

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by the fact of how much a person likes their job (satisfaction) or how much they dislike

their job (dissatisfaction). To determine views on satisfaction and dissatisfaction for both

executive directors and full-time employees, questions four, five, and six from the survey

asked respondents to indicate their level of agreement with statements from the job

satisfaction scale.

Table 6.5   Descriptive Statistics for Job Satisfaction (Independent Variable)

Facets	Facet Meanings	Corresponding Statement from Survey	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pay	Pay and remuneration	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	142	3.35	1.13
		Raises are too few and far between. **(R)	142	3.46	1.17
		I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me. **(R)	142	2.23	1.05
Promotion	Promotion Opportunities	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places. **(R)	142	3.04	0.89
		I am satisfied with my chances for promotion. **(R)	142	3.39	1.02
Supervision	Immediate Supervisor	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	142	4.15	0.86
		My supervisor is unfair to me. **(R)	142	1.73	0.92
		My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates. **(R)	142	1.98	0.98
Contingent Rewards	Appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	142	3.59	0.96
		There are few rewards for those who work here.	142	2.65	1.06

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Table 6.5 (Continued)

Facets	Facet Meanings	Corresponding Statement from Survey	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Operating Conditions	Operating policies and procedures	Many of the rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	142	2.39	1.05
		I have too much paperwork. **(R)	142	2.78	1.07
Coworkers	People you work with	I like the people I work with.	142	4.36	0.74
		I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with. **(R)	142	2.51	1.06
Nature of work	Job tasks themselves	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	142	1.89	0.95
		I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	142	4.42	0.70
Communication	Communication within the organization	Communications seem good within this organization.	142	3.35	1.11
		The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	142	1.86	0.91
		I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization. **(R)	142	2.41	0.99
		Work assignments are not fully explained. **(R)	142	2.15	0.87
Fringe Benefits	Monetary and nonmonetary benefits	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	142	3.91	1.00
		There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	142	2.65	1.06

Note: Reversed-scored statements notated as **(R)

Table 6.5 outlines the nine job satisfaction facets, meanings of each facet, the number of observations, the means and standard deviations for each job satisfaction facet used in the survey. To understand the satisfaction of survey respondents on each facet, they were asked to indicate their level of agreement where 1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree unless otherwise stated as a reversed-

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keyed item by the original author. For each category of job satisfaction the responses were summed to produce interval level variables.

Survey Results for Each Job Satisfaction Facet

There were three statements for pay asking respondents to indicate their level of agreement based on a 5-point Likert scale. Results for the first statement – "I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do" found that 7.04% strongly disagreed, 19.01% disagreed, 18.31% neither agreed nor disagreed, 43.66% agreed, and 11.97% strongly agreed. Results from the second statement on pay – "Raises are too few and far between" found that 4.23% strongly disagreed, 19.01% disagreed, 26.76% neither agreed nor disagreed, 26.06% agreed, and 23.94% strongly agreed. The third statement on pay – "I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay" results from the survey found that 26.62% strongly disagreed, 45.77% disagreed, 16.20% neither agreed nor disagreed, 9.15% agreed, and 4.23% strongly agreed.

Promotion is the second job satisfaction facet. The first promotion statement – "People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places" the survey results found that 19.01% strongly disagreed, 4.93% disagreed, 46.48% neither agreed nor disagreed, 26.06% agreed, and 3.52% strongly agreed. The second promotion statement states – "I am satisfied with my chances for promotion" the survey results found that 43.66% strongly disagreed, 10.56% disagreed, 20.43% neither agreed nor disagreed, 21.13% agreed, and 4.23% strongly agreed with this statement.

The third job satisfaction facet is supervision. Hence, results from the first statement on supervision – "My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job" found that 1.41% strongly disagreed, 2.82% disagreed, 13.38% neither agreed nor disagreed,

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38.03% agreed, and 44.37% strongly agreed with this statement. The second statement on supervision – "My supervisor is unfair to me" results from the survey found that 50.70% strongly disagreed, 33.80% disagreed, 9.15% neither agreed nor disagreed, 4.93% agreed, and 1.41% strongly agreed. The last statement on supervision - "My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates" survey results found that 49% strongly disagreed, 62% disagreed, 14.79% neither agreed nor disagreed, and both 5% of respondents agreed as well as 5% strongly agreed with this statement.

The fourth job satisfaction facet is contingent rewards. The first statement on contingent rewards – "When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive" results from the survey found that 2.82% strongly disagreed, 12.68% disagreed, 19.72% neither agreed nor disagreed, 44.73% agreed, and 38.03% strongly agreed with this statement. The second contingent rewards statement - There are few rewards for those who work here" found that 18.31% strongly disagreed, 41.55% disagreed, 17.61% neither agreed nor disagreed, 16.20% agreed, and 6.34% strongly agreed with this statement.

Operating conditions is the fifth job satisfaction facet. The first statement on operating conditions – "Many of the rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult" results from the survey found that 16.20% strongly disagreed, 50% disagreed, 16.90% neither agreed nor disagreed, 11.97% agreed, and 4.93% strongly agreed. The second statement – "I have too much paperwork" results from the survey found that 14.08% strongly disagreed, 51.41% disagreed, 16.20% neither agreed nor disagreed, 17.61% agreed, and 2.11% strongly agreed that they have too much paperwork with this statement.

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The sixth job satisfaction facet is coworkers. As previously mentioned, the quality of the relationship between coworkers is important when it comes to achieving the mission of the organization. Hence, results from the first statement on coworkers – "I like the people I work with" found that .704% strongly disagreed, 1.41% disagreed, 7.04% neither agreed nor disagreed, 43% agreed, and 48% strongly agreed. The second coworker statement – "I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with" results found that 14.09% strongly disagreed, 45.77% disagreed, 29% neither agreed nor disagreed, 21% agreed, and 4.93% strongly agreed with this statement.

Nature of work is the seventh job satisfaction facet. Results from the first nature of work statement "I sometimes feel my job is meaningless" found that 38.02% strongly disagreed, 47.18% disagreed, 4.22% neither agreed nor disagreed, 9.15% agreed, and 1.48% strongly agreed with this statement. The second statement on nature of work – "I feel a sense of pride in my job" found that .704% strongly disagreed, .704% disagreed, 5.6% neither agreed nor disagreed, 42.25% agreed, and 50.70% strongly agreed with this second statement on nature of work.

Communication is the eight job satisfaction category. The first statement – "Communications seem good within this organization" the survey results found that 9.15% strongly disagreed, 12.67% agreed, 21.12% neither agreed nor disagreed, 47.88% agreed, and 9.15% strongly agreed with this statement that communications seem good within this organization. . The results for the second communication statement – "The goals of this organization are not clear to me" found that 39.44% strongly disagreed, 55.37% disagreed, 7.74% neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement, 7.74% agreed,

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and .704% strongly agreed with this statement. The third communication statement – "I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization" results from the survey found that 6.34% strongly disagreed, 10.56% disagreed, 31% neither agreed nor disagreed, 42.25% agreed, and 9.86% strongly agreed with this statement. The fourth statement on communication – "Work assignments are not fully explained" found that 19.71% strongly disagreed, 55.63% disagreed, 14.79% neither agreed nor disagreed, 9.15% agreed, and .704% strongly agreed.

The final job satisfaction facet is fringe benefits. The first statement – "The benefits we receive here are as good as most other organizations offer" survey results found that 2.11% strongly disagreed, 9.15% disagreed, 14.09% neither agreed nor disagreed, 29.58% agreed, and 45.07% strongly agreed with this statement. Results from the second statement – "There are benefits we do not have which we should have" found that 7.74% strongly disagreed, 39.44% disagreed, 27.46% neither agreed nor disagreed, 17.61% agreed, and 7.74% strongly agreed with the statement that there are benefits that they believe that should have. Tables 6.6 and 6.7 list the meaning of each the job satisfaction facets as well as the means and standard deviations for each statement that was asked on the questionnaire.

Finally, the sum of the 22 job satisfaction facets produced different ranges for executive directors and full-time employees due to the number of observations for each group as well as the number of statements from each facet that were used to make-up the survey for this area. Tables 6.5 and 6.6 contain the basic descriptive statistics for the summed categories of job satisfaction along with the bivariate correlation between that category and the Global PSM variable.

Table 6.6 Executive Director Observations, Mean, Standard Deviation, Min-Max, Correlations

Job Satisfaction	Observations	Mean	Standard Deviation	Min	Max	Correlations
Pay	42	10.64	2.45	4	15	0.199
Promotion	42	6.59	1.19	4	9	-.084
Supervision	42	12.35	2.08	9	15	-0.220
Contingent Rewards	42	7	1.80	3	10	-0.06
Operating Conditions	42	7	1.46	2	9	0.080
Coworker	42	7.80	1.50	4	10	.222
Nature of Work	42	8.88	1.15	6	10	.298
Communication	42	15.28	2.46	8	20	-.0.30
Fringe Benefits	42	6.85	1.98	2	10	.136

Table 6.7 Full-time Employees Observations, Mean, Standard Deviation, Range, Correlations

Job Satisfaction	Observations	Mean	Standard Deviation	Min	Max	Correlations
Pay	97	9.19	2.93	3	15	0.091
Promotion	97	6.34	1.79	2	10	0.175
Supervision	97	12.49	2.50	4	15	0.1697
Contingent Rewards	97	7.12	1.86	3	10	0.116
Operating Conditions	97	6.74	1.73	2	10	-0.045
Coworker	97	7.91	1.46	4	10	0.146
Nature of work	97	8.40	1.49	4	10	0.2774
Communication	97	14.81	3.21	6	20	0.108
Fringe Benefit	97	7.43	1.74	3	10	0.0841

Level of Commitment

The second independent variable, level of commitment was adapted from Meyer and Allen's Three-Component Model of Total Commitment. They began their research on commitment in the early 1980s and their interest derived from an operative review that focused on the commitment of volunteers in the nonprofit sector and the elements that led them to be highly committed to their work. Meyer and Allen (1997) commented that workers, as human beings, inevitably develop commitments of one form or another that

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have an influence on their behavior at work (p. ix). Table 6.8 details each component of

commitment and the corresponding statements asked on the survey questionnaire.

Table 6.8   Descriptive Statistics for Level of Commitment (Independent Variable

Commitment Components	Meaning of Commitment Components	Corresponding Statement from Survey	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Affective	A desire to remain with the organization.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	142	4.15	1.02
		I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	142	3.41	1.04
		I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. ♦♦(R)	142	1.84	0.86
		I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. ♦♦(R)	142	1.73	0.76
		I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. ♦♦(R)	142	1.80	0.89
		This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	142	4.24	0.74
Continuance	A need to remain with the organization.	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	142	3.06	1.28
		It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	142	3.74	1.08
		Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now.	142	3.85	1.10
		I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	142	2.85	1.13
		If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.	142	2.25	1.03
		One of the few negative consequences of this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	142	2.85	1.19

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Table 6.8 (Continued)

Commitment Components	Meaning of Commitment Components	Corresponding Statement from Survey	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Normative	An obligation to remain with the organization.	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. ♦♦(R)	142	2.02	0.98
		Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	142	3.48	1.11
		I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	142	3.58	1.13
		This organization deserves my loyalty.	142	4.04	0.84
		I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	142	3.87	0.98
		I owe a great deal to my organization.	142	3.82	0.93

Note: Meanings of variables from Meyer and Allen (1990).
Note: Reversed-scored items and no items were reversed for continuance commitment

Research to date has noted the application of Meyer and Allen's three-component commitment model to volunteers in the nonprofit sector. Preston and Brown (2004) found the strongest relationship is between affective commitment and board member behavior and this is because committed board members were thought to be more involved while executive directors thought the board provided valuable insights. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with six statements regarding affective commitment. The results on the first affective commitment statement – "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization" found that 2.11% strongly disagreed, 7.74% disagreed, 9.15% neither agreed nor disagreed, 34.51% agreed, and 46.48% strongly agreed with this statement. The second affective commitment statement - "I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own" the results from the survey found that 4.23% strongly disagreed, 16.90% disagreed, 24.65% neither agreed nor

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disagreed, 42.25% agreed, and 11.97% strongly agreed with this statement. Results from the third affective commitment statement – "I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization" found that 37.32% strongly disagreed, 50% disagreed, 4.93% neither agreed nor disagreed, 7.04% agreed, and .704% strongly agreed with this statement. The fourth statement on affective commitment – "I do not feel "emotionally attached" the survey results found that 42.25% strongly disagreed, 45.77% disagreed, 8.45% neither agreed nor disagreed, 3.52% agreed, and 0% strongly agreed with this statement. The fifth affective commitment statement – "I do not feel like part of the family" survey results found that 40.84% strongly disagreed, 46.48% disagreed, 6.34% neither agreed nor disagreed, 4.23% agreed, and 2.11% strongly agreed with this statement. Results for the sixth affective commitment statement "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me" the results from the survey found that   .704% strongly disagreed, 1.41% disagreed, 9.86% neither agreed nor disagreed, 49.30% agreed, and 2.11% strongly agreed.

There are six statements on continuance commitment from the survey where respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with these statements. Results from the first statement on continuance commitment – "Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire" found that 11.97% strongly disagreed, 27.46% disagreed, 18.31% neither agreed nor disagreed, 27.46 % agreed, and 18.31% strongly agreed with this statement. Likewise, the second continuance commitment statement – "It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to" survey results found that 3.53% strongly disagreed, 16.90% disagreed, 17.66% neither agreed nor disagreed, 41.55% agreed, and 20.43% strongly

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agreed with this statement. The third continuance commitment statement – "Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now" the results from the survey found that 8.45% strongly disagreed, 38.73 % disagreed, 19.72% neither agreed nor disagreed, 25.35% agreed, and 7.74% strongly agreed. For the fourth continuance statement – "I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization" survey results found that 23.24% strongly disagreed, 45.77% disagreed, 15.49% neither agreed nor disagreed, 13.38% agreed, and 2.11% strongly agreed with this statement. The fifth continuance commitment statement – "If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization I might consider working elsewhere" found that 23.24% strongly disagreed, 45.77% disagreed, 15.49% neither agreed nor disagreed, 13.38% agreed, and 2.11% strongly agreed with this statement. Results for the sixth continuance commitment statement - "One of the few negative consequences of this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives" found that 15.49% strongly disagreed, 25.35% disagreed, 7.04% neither agreed nor disagreed, 26.76% agreed, and 7.04% strongly agreed with this statement.

Normative commitment is the last of the three commitment components. Results for the first statement – "I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer" found that 33.09% strongly disagreed, 43.66% disagreed, 12.68% neither agreed nor disagreed, 9.15% agreed, and 1.41% strongly agreed with this statement. The second normative commitment statement – "Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization" results from the survey found that 5.63% strongly disagreed, 16.90% disagreed, and 16.20% neither agreed nor disagreed, 46.48% agreed, and 14.79% strongly agreed. The third normative commitment statement "I

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would feel guilty if I left my organization now" found that 5.63% strongly disagreed, 14.79% disagreed, 14.79% neither agreed nor disagreed , 45.77% agreed, and 19.01% strongly agreed. The fourth normative commitment statement – "This organization deserves my loyalty" results from the survey found that 1.41% strongly disagreed, 3.52% disagreed, 14.08% neither agreed nor disagreed, 52.11% agreed, and 28.87% strongly agreed. Results for the fifth normative statement – "I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it" found that 1.41% strongly disagreed, 11.27% disagreed, 12.68 % neither agreed nor disagreed, 47.89% agreed, and 26.77% strongly agreed. The sixth normative commitment statement – "I owe a great deal to my organization" survey results found that 1.41% strongly disagreed, 8.45% disagreed, 20.43% neither agreed nor disagreed, 46.48% agreed, and 23.24% strongly agreed.

The sum of these 18 statements on the survey produced varied ranges, means, and standard deviations for the executive directors and full-time employees. These statistics along with the bivariate correlation with Global PSM are found in Tables 6.9 and 6.10.

Table 6.9   Executive Director Observations, Mean, Standard Deviation, Min-Max, Correlations

Commitment Variables	Observations	Mean	Standard Deviation	Min	Max	Correlations
Affective	42	25.80	2.78	18	30	.237
Continuance	42	17.21	4.56	6	26	-.067
Normative	42	23.61	3.88	15	30	.121

Table 6.10   Full-time Employees Observations, Mean, Standard Deviation, Min-Max, Correlations

Commitment Variables	Observations	Mean	Standard Deviation	Min	Max	Correlations
Affective	97	23.82	4.42	10	30	0.128
Continuance	97	18.77	4.02	7	28	-0.125
Normative	97	22.41	4.77	9	30	0.168

Reliability and Validity

Prior to performing the regression analysis, the dependent and independent variables were tested using Cronbach alpha to ensure that the pre-existing scales were in fact reliable and valid. Thus, Cronbach alpha was introduced by Lee J. Cronbach in 1951 as a statistical diagnostic tool that has become a highly definitive test in determining scale reliability. Later, Gliem and Gliem (2003) defined this test of reliability as a reliability technique that requires only a single test administration to provide a unique estimate of the reliability for a given test and is the average value of the reliability coefficients one would obtain for all possible combinations of items when split into two half-tests (p.84).

The alpha scores specific to this study were validated using George and Mallery's (2002) rule of thumb to ensure the scores fell within an acceptable range (Table 6.11). It is important to additionally note that George and Mallery (2002) as well as Nunnally (1978) stated that the researcher has to use his/her judgment when assessing alpha scores because the alpha value is inflated by a large number of variables, so there is no set interpretation as to what an acceptable alpha score can be. Nunnally (1978) established that an alpha greater than .7 is acceptable.

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Table 6.11   Assessing Cronbach's Alpha Scores

Alpha	Score Assessment for Cronbach's Alpha
α >.9	Excellent
α>.8	Good
α>.7	Acceptable
α>.6	Questionable
α>.5	Poor
α<.5	Unacceptable

George & Mallery (2002)

Global PSM was measured as a combination of commitment to the public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice. The coefficient for this combination of variables was .844 (Table 6.12). According to George and Mallery (2002), this alpha is said to be good (Table 6.11). The alpha coefficient for the three-component model of commitment is .857 (Table 6.12). Based on the specifications of alpha scores provided by George and Mallery's (2002) rule of thumb, this alpha is good (Table 6.11). Lastly, the coefficient alpha for job satisfaction was .900 (Table 6.12). George and Mallery (2002) stated that this alpha is excellent (Table 6.11).

Table 6.12   Cronbach Alpha for Survey Scales

Variable	Avg. Interitem Correlation	Number of Items in Scale	Alpha
Global PSM	0.2660	12	0.8446
Job Satisfaction	0.2905	22	0.9001
Level of Commitment	0.2498	18	0.8570

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The use of existing scales proved helpful to the author of this study. According to Spector (1994), there are many advantages to using an existing job satisfaction survey scale. These include: (1) many of the available scales cover the major facets of satisfaction, (2) most existing scales have been used a sufficient number of times to provide norms, (3) many existing scales have been shown to exhibit acceptable levels of reliability, (4) their use in research provides good evidence for construct validity, thus one can have confidence that the scale will consistently measure the satisfaction facets of interests, and (5) the use of an existing scale saves the considerable cost and time necessary to develop a scale from scratch (p. 6-7).

With the advantages of implementing an existing and well-established scale, there is one comprehensive disadvantage to the institution of an existing scale for use in a questionnaire – the scale is limited to only those facets that the developers chose to place in their instruments. Still, the positive side of this disadvantage is that the features of most scales tend to be generalized making them applicable to most organizations, which means that they will not include more specific areas of satisfaction or dissatisfaction just only those areas that are issues for certain types of organizations or one organization in particular (Spector, 1994, p.6-7). Similarly, Perry (1996) revealed that the more concise the measurement instrument is, the more easily and frequently it could be used (p. 8).

When considering validity, Gray (2009) stated that a research instrument must measure what it was intended to measure and to achieve validity the subject area of the research instrument should be operationally defined (p.155).

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Findings

Executive Directors

Forty-two (42) executive directors participated in this study. The role of the executive director in the nonprofit sector can vary based on size and budget of the organization, but the general duties of this position as stated by the Center for Nonprofit Management (2013) lends to these individuals ensuring that the goals and objectives of the organization are being properly met in accordance with the mission. Likewise, the executive director works with the Board of Directors to execute governance for the organization. As the literature has indicated, the relationship between the executive director and the board of directors can either be positive or negative depending on how involved the board of directors is in guiding the executive director and governing the organization.

The author of this study will present three tables of regression analysis for the executive director group. In the first table, the job satisfaction of executive directors will be examined. The full model presents all of the job satisfaction variables used in this study while the reduced model displays a lesser set of variables that better reveal the important variables in the full model (Table 6.13). Second, the full demographic variables model is presented. Since none of these variables were significant there is no reduced model to report (Table 6.15). The final model for this group is level of commitment (Table 6.16). Despite Moynihan and Pandey's (2007) conclusions that organizational commitment is a positive predictor of PSM, none of the three commitment components were significant for the executive director group.

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Lastly, the results for the executive director group were presented one at a time because the literature offered three somewhat different and competing explanations for public service motivation (PSM). By presenting the models one at a time allows a better opportunity for each theoretical model to reveal its ability to explain the variation in PSM.

For all the models reported below for both executive directors and full-time employees, multicollinearity tests were conducted. In some instance for the job satisfaction and demographic models, small levels of multicollinearity were detected but its levels were never strong enough to be a major deterrent to the results. The reduced models are employed as a way of alleviating some of the small effects of this multicollinearity. So, in these reduced models, we are able to identify relationships that get lost in the larger models.

Additionally, tests for heteroskedasticity for all models presented revealed no significant issues regarding this model assumption.

Job Satisfaction of the Executive Director

This section discusses the significant variables for the executive director group from the two job satisfaction models (Tables 6.10). Nature of work appears as the only significant variable for the full job satisfaction model (Table 6.13). In the reduced job satisfaction model (Table 6.13), three job satisfaction variables are seen as significant: pay, supervision, and coworkers.

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Table 6.13   Executive Director Full and Reduced Models for Job Satisfaction

	Full JSS Model		Reduced JSS Model	
	Coefficient	**Std. Error**	**Coefficient**	**Std. Error**
Pay	.543	.377	.510**	.254
Promotion	-.541	.685		
Supervision	-.799	.503	-1.06***	.311
Contingent Rewards	-.417	.572		
Operating Conditions	.265	.538		
Coworkers	.903	.561	.892**	.411
Nature of Work	1.27 *	.667		
Communication	-.163	.392		
Fringe Benefits	.353	.422		
Constant	37.08	7.26	38.75	5.51
N	42		42	
Adjusted R^2	.153		.287	

Note: *p<.10, **p<.05, ***p<.01
Significant Variables for the Full and Reduced Job Satisfaction Models

Nature of Work

Nature of work is significant in the full job satisfaction model (Table 6.13). Based on the coefficient (1.27) the direction of the relationship is positive, so for each one unit increase in the satisfaction with the nature of work in the organization there is a 1.27 point increase in the Global PSM to achieve the mission of the organization.

Baghaei (2011) stated that nature of work determines job satisfaction, varied job tasks foster a higher level of job satisfaction when compared to repetitive tasks, and most employees warrant more intellectual challenges from their job while welcoming the opportunity to implement their skills and abilities through varied tasks, freedom, and feedback from leaders (p.150). In the case of nonprofit executive directors, the board of directors is considered their leaders. Likewise, researchers and practitioners have all cited nonprofit organizations as being exciting places to work, but also that these organizations place high demands on its workers. Hence, the nature of work associated with nonprofit employment can be rewarding and exciting, but often times due to the low salaries for

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both executive directors and full-time employees there exist very little opportunity for career advancement (Busse & Joiner, 2008).

Pay

Pay is shown as significant in the reduced job satisfaction model (Table 6.13). Based on the coefficient (5.10), the direction of the relationship is positive and it signifies that for each one point increase in the satisfaction of pay which leads to a 5.10 increase in the satisfaction of pay to increase the Global PSM of executive directors to achieve the mission of the organization.

According to the nonprofit literature, executive level pay in the nonprofit sector continues to be a topic of discussion, especially for those subsectors that are able to pay their executives better than average salaries. Oster (1998) mentioned that when it comes to creating guidelines surrounding the pay of nonprofit executives, which is an especially difficult task for the board of directors because while they are wanting to attract the "best and brightest," external stakeholders are working to ensure that the board is not wanting to pay excessive salaries outside the realm of the organization's mission. Thus, executive pay in the nonprofit sector is determined by factors such as size of the organization or location of the organization. Carroll et.al. (2005) stated,

> Excessive executive compensation or excessive benefits will detract from the provision of program services. Instead of easily measured profits, the goal of the nonprofit organization is more nebulous, such as entertainment, education, or health. Because social benefits are more difficult to measure than profits, the ability to determine excessive compensation or inadequate performance is more complex in the nonprofit sector than in the for-profit sector (p.21).

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Supervision

Supervision is shown as significant in the reduced job satisfaction model (Table 6.13). Based on the coefficient (-1.06), the direction of the relationship is negative. This coefficient indicates that for each one unit increase in the satisfaction with supervision from the board of directors there is a -1.06 decrease in the Global PSM and vice versa. In other words, despite dissatisfaction with supervision from the board of directors, executive directors are in fact more motivated to work to achieve the mission of the organization.

Nonprofit executive directors are supervised by the board of directors. The relationship between the two can either be a positive or negative relationship. Overall, the effectiveness of the organization stems from the quality of the relationship that exists between the board and the executive director. According to Hiland (2008), the efficiency of the organization is under question when such a relationship is weak, or worse, dysfunctional (p.1). Thus, it is important for this leadership pair to cultivate their relationship to ensure that the organization is functioning properly.

Lewis (2005) stated that the primary role of governance and decision-making for nonprofit organizations is held by the executive director and the board of directors. The board can be inclusive of the executive director in the governance and decision-making process or chose to exclude them. Both parties can determine this relationship. Lewis (2005) stated,

An inclusive board demonstrates awareness of the community and constituents who benefit from and contribute to the services of the organization…seeks

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information from multiple sources…and establishes policies and structures …to foster stakeholder involvement (p.257).

Specifically, these authors found that the uncertainty of a board of directors' positions comes from the lack of communication between the board of directors and the executive director. Executive directors with the worse relationships with their supervisors have higher levels of PSM, which it is this higher level of PSM that sustains them and keeps them coming to work each day and working with full-time employees to achieve the mission of the organization.

Coworkers

Coworker is shown as significant in the reduced job satisfaction model (Table 6.13). Based on the coefficient (.892) the direction of the relationship is positive and each one point increase in satisfaction leads to a .892 increase in the Global PSM to achieve the mission of the organization.

Guidestar (2008) revealed that the relationship between the executive director and full-time employees is impacted by how the executive director treats staff members as valued employees of the organization and that if both groups work together then the result is a positive working relationship between executive directors and full-time employees.

Overall, the JSS full and reduced models revealed that four variables are important to executive directors in this population: nature of work, pay, supervision, and coworkers; however, these five job satisfaction facets (promotion, contingent rewards, operating conditions, communication, and fringe benefits) are found not significant.

DeVaro and Brookshire (2007) stated that the empirical literature in the nonprofit sector talks extensively about the effects of pay on workers in the sector, but not so much about promotions and so, their research is a comparison study that found that workers are less likely to receive promotions in nonprofit organization when compared to the for-profit sector (p.311). Additionally, the authors revealed that wage increases related to promotions were similar in the two sectors and nonprofits were less likely to have promotions based on performance or merit and that the difference in promotion rates were more explicit at higher levels of employment versus lower level of employment for both sectors. Contingent rewards are the second job satisfaction facet found not significant for this group. According to Burke and Cooper (2012), different types of rewards may hold varied meanings and differing degrees of value and motivational impact for employees (p.213). Hence, reward preferences are determined by what an individual needs, values, and expects and if such rewards are effective it is largely contingent on how the receiver of the rewards believe that having rewards impacts their professional and personal well-being. Operating conditions in the nonprofit sector have often been regarded as stressful because of the long hours, increase demand for services, and limited funding. In a 2012 study, Gassman et al. (2012) posited that from 2009 to 2011 it was consistently shown that the demand for nonprofit services has increased and that the sector is strained which has a very discerning impact on what is considered to be adequate service provision (p.2). The issue with not being able to adequately provide services is problematic for those in need. The next non-significant variable for the executive director is communication, which Positive communication is a significant component of quality relationships in nonprofit organizations and helps when it comes to

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achieving the mission of the organization. Baldoni (2004) held that the leader's most powerful tool in the motivation process is communication (p. xiii). Lastly, fringe benefits are the fifth job satisfaction facet indicated as non-significant in the job satisfaction tables. Emanuele and Higgins (2000) discussed three significant findings regarding this job satisfaction facet and applicable to the nonprofit sector. First, the financial constraints and public concern with how money is spent in the nonprofit sector is indicative of why some organizations may not provide fringe benefits. Second, employment in the nonprofit sector may be seen as a "resume builder" and the individual is not concerned with benefits. Third, with the sector employing a large number of women they may be able to receive benefits through their husband and not warrant benefits from their job.

Executive Director Demographic Models

Based on the research of Pandey and Stazyk (2008), socio-demographic characteristics are commonly included in PSM studies as control variables in multivariate models and have been limited in number with recent studies have examined the effects of socio-demographic factors as antecedents in a more systemic manner (p. 102). Additionally, some of the more robust socio-demographic antecedents include age, education, and gender (p.102). However, for the executive director group none of the demographic variables were found to be significant. In PSM research, age has a limited positive relationship to PSM as well as a higher level of education has a positive relationship to PSM; women continuously have shown a higher score on the compassion dimension of PSM (p.102). The observations, percentages, and correlations for the demographic variables are presented in Table 6.14.

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Table 6.14 Executive Director Observations, Percentages, Standard Deviation, Min-Max, and Correlations

Demographic Variables	Observations	Percentages	Min	Max	Correlations
NYPST	42	.38	0	1	-.082
NYPMT	42	.31	0	1	.230
NYPLT	42	.31	0	1	-.143
NFTPOSM	42	.50	0	1	.050
NFTPOMED	42	.02	0	1	.079
NFTPOLG	42	.48	0	1	-.074
LowSal	42	.1	0	1	-.146
MedSal	42	.21	0	1	-.044
HISal	42	.69	0	1	.132
Age	42	1.0	0	1	.172
Gender	42	1.0	0	1	.152
Race	42	1.0	0	1	.073
Education	42	1.0	0	1	-.041

Furthermore, the following section highlights the full demographic model for the executive director group.

Table 6.15 Executive Director Full Demographic Variables Model

	Coefficient	Std. Error
NYPST	1.48	4.45
NYPMT	1.61	2.42
NYPLT		
NFTPOSM	1.49	3.14
NFTPOMED	.253	5.77
NFTPOLG		
LowSal	-4.17	4.16
MedSal	-2.73	3.56
HISal		
Age	2.27	1.95
Gender	.560	1.76
Race	1.16	2.53
Education	-.029	2.00
Constant	43.69	2.82
N	42	
Adjusted R^2	-0.137	

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Level of Commitment for the Executive Director

Goulet and Frank (2002) stated that organizationally committed employees were more likely to demonstrate organization-serving behaviors that directly or indirectly impact the organization (p.3). Hence, the results for the commitment model and the non-significance between the three-components of commitment and Global PSM at the executive level were surprising. In their conceptual model on commitment, Meyer and his colleagues (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer, Becker &Vandenberghe, 2004) spoke directly about the fact that commitment and their three-component model has guided the examination of the construct primarily due to how easy it is to relate their way of looking at commitment that is applicable to many dimensions and foci (van Vuureen, 2008).

Table 6.16   Level of Commitment Model for the Executive Director

	Full Model	
	Coefficient	Std. Error
Affective Commitment	.386	.306
Continuance Commitment	-.046	.164
Normative Commitment	.0169	.218
Constant	37.04	7.91
N	42	
Adjusted R^2	-0.058	

Although the three-component model of commitment is not significant in this study for the executive director group, the conceptual model from other studies on the three-component model of commitment has not examined the commitment of salaried employees in the nonprofit sector. Rather those studies have focused on the commitment of volunteers in the nonprofit sector. Thus, there exist a number of articles employing

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affective, normative, and continuance commitment of nonprofit boards and their volunteer efforts along with just understanding the commitment of volunteers in the sector. For instance, nonprofit boards are responsible to look after and make sure that the organization is not only operating smoothly, but are holding true to their mission, adhering to both state and federal laws, and are using their funds and donations responsibly This responsibility of boards is crucial to the overall functioning of the nonprofit organization which they oversee. Hence, this oversight function is carried out by volunteer board members who feel a sense of connection to the organization.

van Vuurren et al. (2008) did a comparison study on volunteers in the nonprofit sector and compared their commitments to those of paid workers in the sector and found that the normative commitment of volunteers is higher than that of paid staff members. The authors' reported that managers have an interest when it comes to the loyalty of volunteers and that managing this group correlated well to the normative component of commitment. Lastly, normative commitment as defined by Meyer and Allen (1990) theorized that people stay with their organization because they feel they ought to remain with the organization.

Findings

Full-time Employees

Like their employees in the public sector, full-time employees in the nonprofit sector carry through the daily activities to achieve the mission of the organization. Thus, ninety-seven (97) full-time employees participated in this study. In turn, full-time employees work with the executive director to ensure that the mission of the organization is being actualized through service provision. The author of this study will present four

sets of models for this group – the full and reduced job satisfaction models (Table 6.17), a full and reduced demographic variable model (Table 6.19), and the full and reduced level of commitment models (Tables 6.17). Table 6.21 then displays the last model which is a combination of the most important explanations from the three previous sets of models.

Explanation of Significant Variables for Full-time Employees

The job satisfaction variables: operating conditions and nature of work were significant in the full, reduced, and combined models for job satisfaction.

Table 6.17   Full-time Employee Job Satisfaction Full and Reduced Models

	Full Model		Reduced Model	
	Coefficient	**Std. Error**	**Coefficient**	**Std. Error**
Pay	-.134	.301		
Promotion	.581	.435		
Supervision	.485	.303		
Contingent Rewards	-.311	.527		
Operating Conditions	-.707 *	.424	-.857 **	.383
Coworker	.349	.505		
Nature of Work	1.44***	.517	1.20***	.438
Communication	-.245	.283		
Fringe Benefits	.085	.383		
Constant	32.66	4.56	35.05	3.98
N	97		97	
Adjusted R^2	.070		.100	

Note: *$p<.10$, **$p<.05$, ***.$p<.01$

Nature of Work

Nature of work is shown as a significant variable for full-time employees (Table 6.18). Based on the coefficient in the full model (1.44) the direction of the relationship is positive and indicates that each one point increase in the satisfaction of nature of work leads to a 1.44 point increase in Global PSM to achieve the mission of the organization.

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Based on the type of work performed by full-time employees from the fact that they have been described as putting so much of themselves into their work, emotional labor can be deemed as a by-product of the nature of work performed by nonprofit full-time employees. Eschenfelder (2012) revealed that both emotional labor and emotions have been noted as essential to the nature of work in the nonprofit sector; however, when the two are realized and accepted, they lessen the likelihood that the custom of emotional labor and emotions can have a very severe impact on the employee's job satisfaction. Moreover, Eschenfelder (2012) stated that emotional labor encompasses the efforts of workers being able to sympathize with other people and what situations they are encountering. Emotional labor and emotions are especially significant for worker identity, work relationships, and overall job satisfaction because it is these service requirements that makes emotional labor so commonplace in nonprofit organizations and makes work in the sector challenging and sometimes, discouraging (p. 177).

Operating Conditions

The operating conditions variable is shown as significant for full-time employees in the full and reduced models (Table 6.17). Based on the negative coefficient (-.707), for every one point decrease in operating conditions, Global PSM increases .707 points. In other words, the less full-time employees like the operating conditions, the more motivated they are to achieve the mission of the organization. Along these lines, operating conditions can be tough in the nonprofit sector from working long hours to trying to meet demands of clients as well as other stakeholders.

Many factors exist that may have a straightforward impact on the development of programs and services in the nonprofit sector. As a sector that comprises thousands of

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organizations that vary in size and scope, the general composition of the sector is one where organizations operate in environments that can be characterized as constrained (Lynn, 2003, p. 92). Moreover, nonprofit organizations are often thought of as organizations that are operating without the right number of people to provide services and are often noted as being a work environment where employees work long hours. The organizations that comprise the sector have also been known to work with constrained budgets as they seek to accomplish profound missions. In addition to long hours, the sector has also been noted as paying lower salaries than their public sector counterparts at the frontline level and private-sector employers at the managerial level as well as decreased educational benefits for paid staff members.

In this next section, demographic variables are examined to see how they can be used as explanations of Global PSM. The author of the study will present the demographic variables beginning with the full model, which contains all demographic variables for the full-time employee group (Table 6.19). Likewise, the reduced model for the demographic variables is presented to show only the significant variables from the full model (Table 6.19).

Table 6.18 Means, Observations, Percentages, Min-Max, and Correlations for Full-time Employees

Demographic Variables	Observations	Percentages	Min	Max	Correlations
NYPST	97	0.43	0	1	-.065
NYPMT	97	0.24	0	1	-.124
NYPLT	97	0.33	0	1	-.181
NFTPOSM	97	0.40	0	1	-.005
NFTPOMED	97	0.09	0	1	-.215
NFTPOLG	97	0.51	0	1	.129
LowSal	97	0.67	0	1	.086
MedSal	97	0.32	0	1	.050
HISal	97	0.010	0	1	.169
Age/Young	97	1.0	0	1	.042
Age/Old	97	1.0	0	1	-.036
Gender	97	1.0	0	1	.099
Race	97	1.0	0	1	.046
Education/College	97	1.0	0	1	.149
Education/Advanced	97	1.0	0	1	.091

Table 6.19 Full-Time Employees Demographic Full and Reduced Models

	Full Demographic Models		Reduced Demographic Models	
	Coefficient	Std. Errors	Coefficient	Std. Errors
NYPST				
NYPMT	2.84	4.48		
NYPLT	6.10	4.83		
NFTPOSM	5.14	3.60		
NFTPOMED				
NFTPOLG	.758	2.97		
LowSal	-.799	1.43		
MedSal				
HISal	10.84*	6.33	11.06*	5.93
Age/Young	588	1.69		
Age/Old	-.705	1.62		
Gender	.805	1.51		
Race	1.31	1.74		
Education/College	2.67*	1.48	2.02 **	1.21
Education/Advanced	1.63	1.91		
Constant	38.57	4.47	56	5.78
N	97		97	
Adjusted R^2	0.038		0.037	

Note: *p<.10, **p<.05, ***.p<.01

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Higher Education (Education /College)

Higher education (Education /College) is shown as significant for full-time employees in the full and reduced models (Table 6.19). Based on the coefficient (2.67), the relationship is positive and indicates that for each one point increase in full-time employees having a higher level of education to increase the Global PSM to achieve the mission of the organization. Thus, Pandey and Stazyk (2008) posited a similar finding throughout their study that higher level of education is associated with a higher level of public service motivation. Furthermore, Hwang and Powell (2009) stated "the growth of higher education has paved the way for "professionalized work environments…through the credential system," in which "high levels of education and an orientation to formal knowledge are typical among staff and management (p.268)."

Hwang and Powell (2009) stated that "some analysts contend that the nonprofit sector is undergoing greater professionalization and fear that this may lead to the dominance of instrumental orientations, at the expense of expressive goals (p.270)." The impact of professionalization on the nonprofit sector may have meaningful conclusions for its primary uniqueness as a sector where individuals can come to volunteer and participate in many activities that will get them engaged or their role in the overall impact of the sector on society. The nonprofit sector has managed to transition into a sector known for performing informal activities to one that is known for performing more directed activities by energetic employees. The fact that nonprofit organizations attain more funds from outside sources has changed many of the organizations in this sector who are seen as being more instrumental, purposive organizations (p.271).Educational

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pursuits will continue to grow in the nonprofit sector with the advent of more individuals wanting to attain degrees in this area to augment their work.

High Salary

Based on the coefficient (10.84), high salary for the FTE group indicates that employees who fall in this third category of salaries ranging ($60,000 - $79,000; $80,000 - $99,000; or $100,000 or more) that for each one point increase in the salary for employees in this category leads to a 10.84 point increase in the Global PSM to achieve the mission of the organization.

Nonprofit organizations depend on the efforts of paid staff and professionals to achieve the mission of the organization. Thus, Hwang and Powell (2009) posited that the sector accounted for 8.3 percent of the wages and salaries and 6 percent of the organizations in the United States (p.270).

Demographic Variables Reduced Model

Higher Education

Higher education (Education /College) is shown as significant for full-time employees in the full and reduced models (Table 6.19). Based on the coefficient (2.02), the relationship is positive and indicates that for each one point increase in full-time employees having a higher level of education to increase the Global PSM to achieve the mission of the organization.

High Salary

High salary is shown as significant for the full-time employees in the reduced model. Based on the coefficient (11.06), high salary for the FTE group indicates that

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employees who fall in this third category of salaries ranging ($60,000 - $79,000; $80,000 - $99,000; or $100,000 or more) that for each one point increase in the salary for employees in this category leads to a 11.06 point increase in the Global PSM to achieve the mission of the organization.

Level of Commitment Model

Of the three commitment components, normative commitment is found to be significant for full-time employees when regressed against Global PSM by itself, but not significant when used in models with either the other two commitment variables or with significant job satisfaction and demographic variables (Table 6.20). The coefficient of .190 indicates that for each one point increase in commitment leading to a .190 increase in the commitment of full-time employees being obligated to remain with the organization to increase the Global PSM.

Table 6.20   Level of Commitment Full and Reduced Models for Full-time Employees

	Full Model		Reduced Model	
	Coefficient	**Std. Error**	**Coefficient**	**Std. Error**
Affective	.061	.160		
Continuance	-.195	.151		
Normative	.190	.149	.211*	.126
Constant	44.10	4.54	41.37	2.90
N	97		97	
Adjusted R^2	.017		.018	

Note: *p<.10, **p<.05, ***.p<.01

Based on this result, we can only conclude that normative commitment plays a very weak role, at best, in PSM levels for full-time employees and that other types of commitment play no role.

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Table 6.21 Full-Time Employees Combined Model with Significant Job Satisfaction, Level of Commitment, and Demographic Variables

	Combined Model	
	Coefficient	Std. Error
Job Satisfaction Variables:		
Operating Conditions	-.717**	.362
Nature of Work	1.30 ***	.459
Level of Commitment Variable:		
Normative	.043	.136
Demographic Variables:		
HISal	10.29*	5.80
College	2.09*	1.15
Constant	37.80	3.77
N	97	
Adjusted R^2	0.115	

*Note: *p<.10, **p<.05, ***.p<.01

Overall, the findings from the job satisfaction full and reduced models revealed that tough operating conditions can impact full-time employees Global PSM. However, despite the tough operating conditions that full-time employees may experience, the nature of the work with the YMCA has a positive impact on their Global PSM in the full, reduced, and combined job satisfaction models.

In terms of the demographic variables, full-time employees in this study that have a 4-year college degree, which follows with the literature in that there has been a stronger push towards a more professionalized nonprofit sector. Finally, the three components of commitment, normative commitment is the only component found significant and marginally just. What this significance tells us is that full-time employees feel a sense of loyalty to the organization and remain because of the organization.

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Results of Hypothesis Testing

This section discusses the results of the hypothesis testing. The first hypothesis states, "As job satisfaction increases, the public service motivation of the executive director increases to achieve the mission of the organization." The regression analysis indicated from the full and reduced models for the executive director group that the following job satisfaction variables are significant: pay, nature of work, supervision, and coworker. Nature of work is significant in both full and reduced models. Thus, hypothesis one is confirmed because the four significant job satisfaction variables were found to increase the Global PSM of executive directors to achieve the mission of the organization. However, there were five job satisfaction variables found to not be significant (promotion, contingent rewards, operating conditions, communication, and fringe benefits). These variables have no impact on the executive director's Global PSM and do not support the literature described earlier in the chapter.

The second hypothesis states that "As job satisfaction increases, the public service motivation of the full-time employees' increases to achieve the mission of the organization." The regression analysis from the combined full-time employee model indicated that the job satisfaction variables: nature of work and operating conditions were found significant. Thus, hypothesis two is confirmed based on two job satisfaction variables being significant in both the full and reduced models: nature of work and operating conditions. However, there were seven job satisfaction variables that had no impact on job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision, contingent rewards, coworkers, communication, and fringe benefits).

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The third hypothesis for this study is "As the level of commitment from the executive director increases, the more likely his or her public service motivation increases to achieve the mission of the organization." The regression analysis for the commitment model indicated that none of the three-components of commitment are significant for the executive director group. None of these variables are significant for this group despite research that says as PSM increases, organizational commitment also increases. Thus, hypothesis three is rejected since none of the commitment components were found significant for this group.

The fourth hypothesis for this study states "As the level of commitment from full-time employees increase, the more likely their public service motivation increases to achieve the mission of the organization." The regression analysis for the commitment model for the full-time employee group revealed that normative commitment was the only component of the three-component model found to be significant and only marginally so. Thus, there is only minimum evidence linking commitment to PSM among full-time employees. Because of this marginal finding hypothesis four should be rejected as well.

Summary

The findings of this study revealed interesting results. From the job satisfaction variables, nature of work is the only variable significant for executive directors and full-time employees. From the literature, it can be understood why this variable is significant from the standpoint that it is the nature of work being the reason why these individuals are working in the nonprofit sector and not for the money. Secondly, it was interesting to find that the commitment variables were not significant at all for executive directors, and

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for full-time employees normative commitment was only marginally significant. This means that, based on this study of non-profit employees of the YMCA in the South, commitment has little or no role to play in PSM.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS

The idea of public service has been around for many years. It is a term that has several definitions. According to Horton (2008), public service was first defined to include only the work or the public services that government employees were performing, which leads into the second definition of public service being inclusive of this public service ideal was still only relating to the government because they mandated and paid for many public services. Still, the third definition of public service can lie in any service that is being performed by the public and the fourth definition specifies that public service encompasses the motivation of people who feel a sense of duty or responsibility for contributing to the welfare of others and to the common good of the community or society (p.18). Hence, it is this final definition of public service that began the thoughts of public service not being exclusive to other sectors and that the government was not the only provider of public services, but that public service can be performed by other sectors as well, specifically, the nonprofit sector.

The application of public service and public service motivation (Global PSM) to the nonprofit sector and its role in providing many public services through the more than 1.5 million registered nonprofits in the United States (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2014) is one reason why this study is important. According to Anheier (2005), the role of the nonprofit sector is one that steps in to compensate for governmental

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undersupply, whereby marking the relationship between the nonprofit sector and government as being complex and multifaceted and varying by organizational type and size (p. 283). Additionally, the construct of Global PSM is used in this study to understand its impact on job satisfaction and level of commitment from the perspective of forty-two (42) executive directors and ninety-seven (97) full-time employees working with the YMCA in five states.

Generally speaking, the heart of public service motivation differs throughout many disciplines and fields of study, yet the meaning of this construct does not differ no matter the discipline or field of study. This is primarily due to the fact that the meaning of the construct is fairly straightforward in that it deals with a familiar target on motives and work activities that are set to help others in need and according to Perry and Hondeghem (2008) to "shape the well-being of society (p.3)." Like so, public service motivation has been defined in many ways by both domestic and international scholars working separately as well as collectively. For instance, Perry and Hondeghem (2008) defined the construct as a specific expression of proscoical, other-oriented motives, goals, and values or to be understood either as institutionally unique motives associated with public organizational interests on behalf of a larger political entity (p. 295). As the theoretical framework pointed out, the application of public service motivation to public service work internationally continues to grow. It is necessary to mention that the foundation for later works regarding public service motivation has still employs the earlier work of Perry and Wise (1990) as their starting point to cultivate their research on public service motivation. Moreover, Perry and Wise (1990) defined public service

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motivation as an "individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations (p.368).

The purpose of this study has been to investigate the relationship between public service motivation, job satisfaction, and level of commitment for executive directors and full-time employees working with YMCA in five states. Extensive research has been conducted employing public service motivation, job satisfaction, and commitment; however, this study appears to be the first study that uses Meyer and Allen's (1990) three-component model to understand the level of commitment of paid (executive directors and full-time employees) to achieve the mission of the organization. To date, there are several articles referenced in this study that examines the relationship between volunteers, specifically, the board of directors and the nonprofit sector. Secondly, a recent study conducted by Word and Carpenter (2013) further legitimatized the association of public service motivation to the nonprofit sector. These authors used each dimension of PSM – commitment to the public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice to investigate the relationship between the nonprofit sector and PSM to form NPSM. This study differs slightly in the fact that the author used the same three dimensions – commitment to the public interest, compassion, and self-sacrifice, but combined these three dimensions into a single variable that she calls Global PSM as a means to take a more holistically approach to understanding its impact on the independent variables .

Commitment to the public service is very important when working with organizations that foster the principle of public service not only in their work, but also in the organization's mission statement. Along these lines, it is important to note that 50.70% of the sample population agreed with the commitment to the public interest

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statement that meaningful public service is very important to me. Likewise, a relatively high number of respondents (40.85%) of respondents strongly agreed with this same statement, which is evidenced by the more than 2,600 YMCA's in 10,000 communities where 9 million youth and 12 million adults across the United States receive services (http://www.ymca.net/organizational-profile).

The second dimension of Global PSM is compassion. Compassion is a strong attribute for working in and fostering the principles of public service. In addition, compassion is a strong attribute for working in and achieving the mission of a nonprofit organization. For instance, 57.08% of survey respondents indicated that it is difficult for them to contain their feelings when they see people in distress. Although compassion is a very large part of work in public service and the nonprofit sector overall, it can also be seen as a negative component of such employment to demonstrate what is known as compassion fatigue (Joslyn, 2002) or as what Eschenfelder (2012) discussed that both emotional labor and emotions have been noted as vital factors of the nature of work in the nonprofit sector, but can have a negative effect on how well nonprofit employees are able to perform their jobs or experience satisfaction from the work they do as well as being committed to the work.

The third dimension, self-sacrifice makes up the final component of Global PSM and its importance to this study. 52.82 percent of respondents agreed that making a difference in society means more to them than personal achievement. This is over half of the sample population for this study that they found their work with the YMCA to be more about the mission statement and that their work is more about giving selfless service than their own personal well-being. This result is significant to report because it is

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important to mention that these individuals are not seeking satisfaction from other factors such as pay, which it has been cited many times that in the nonprofit sector that pay is not a significant factor in why individuals work in this sector. Survey results revealed that 43.66 percent of respondents agreed that they were being paid a fair amount for the work that they do in the sector.

Level of commitment is the second independent variable for this study, which was created by Meyer and Allen in 1990. These authors began their research on commitment in the 1980s as a means to understand the factors that led volunteers to be committed to their work. The literature review has defined commitment as being a significant part of the general characteristics of work. For instance, an earlier study on commitment from Steers (1977) concluded three things: (1) commitment is often a better predictor of turnover than job satisfaction, (2) highly committed employees may perform better than less committed employees, and (3) it has been suggested by some that commitment represented one useful indictor of the effectiveness of an organization. In turn, this third point is based on three factors: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (p.46).

Following Steers (1977) conclusions on commitment, it is relevant to mention that individuals look for employment with an organization because they not only believe that their knowledge, skills, and abilities will be enhanced by working here, but also because they believe wholeheartedly in the organization's mission. However, the results of the level of commitment portion of this study were a little unexpected. From the survey results, it was reported that the three components of commitment (affective, continuance,

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and normative) are not significant for executive directors in this study. For the full-time employee group, it was found that only normative commitment is marginally significant. According to Meyer and Allen (1990), normative commitment is defined as an obligation to remain with the organization. 46.48 percent of the 142 respondents agreed with the statement that even if it were to their advantage that they do not feel it would be right to leave their organization.

The nonprofit literature discusses the professionalization of employees in the sector. Thus, it is important to note that over half of the sample population (55%) has at least a 4-year college degree and that the sample was representative of a large number of younger people (18 to 34) seeking employment with a subsector of human services nonprofit organizations. Furthermore, 48 percent of the sample population was worked in YMCAs with 20 or more people and 35 percent of them have been employed with their organization between one to five years.

Limitations of this Research and Future Research

This research is exploratory. Some of the results from the survey may not be generalizable across the nonprofit sector as a whole. This study is important and will help others to understand from a smaller subsector of the nonprofit sector, the impact that Global PSM, job satisfaction, and level of commitment has on the work that executive directors and full-time employees complete as part of the mission statement and their role in the organization.

 A second limitation of this study was the time of year in which it was conducted. The summer is just not a good time to contact youth development organizations due to extremely busy professional and personal schedules.

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Future research entails reorganizing the study and using the same three variables to study the Global PSM, job satisfaction, and level of commitment of volunteers. Secondly, the author would like to do further study on executive directors possibly in different regions of the United States to understand why the three-component model of component was not significant despite what the research says.

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APPENDIX A

IRB APPROVAL LETTER TO CONDUCT STUDY

BULLY MAIL
powered by Google

Yolanda Cook <yjc16@msstate.edu>

Study 12-391: Motivation in the Nonprofit Sector: Employing Public Service Motivation Theory to Understand the Motivation of Executive Directors and Full-time Employees Ability to Acheive the Mission of the Organization
1 message

cwilliams@research.msstate.edu <cwilliams@research.msstate.edu>

Tue, Mar 26, 2013 at 8:32 AM

To: yjc16@msstate.edu
Cc: cwilliams@research.msstate.edu

March 26, 2013

Yolanda Cook

RE: HRPP Study #12-391: Motivation in the Nonprofit Sector: Employing Public Service Motivation Theory to Understand the Motivation of Executive Directors and Full-time Employees Ability to Acheive the Mission of the Organization

Dear Ms. Cook:

This email serves as official documentation that the above referenced project was reviewed and approved via administrative review on 3/26/2013 in accordance with 45 CFR 46.101(b)(2). Continuing review is not necessary for this project. However, in accordance with SOP 01-03 Administrative Review of Applications, a new application must be submitted if the study is ongoing after 5 years from the date of approval. Additionally, any modification to the project must be reviewed and approved by the HRPP prior to implementation. Any failure to adhere to the approved protocol could result in suspension or termination of your project. The HRPP reserves the right, at anytime! during the project period, to observe you and the additional researchers on this project.

Please note that the MSU HRPP is in the process of seeking accreditation for our human subjects protection program. One of these changes is the implementation of an approval stamp for consent forms. The approval stamp will assist in ensuring the HRPP approved version of the consent wording is used in the actual conduct of research. Your stamped consent wording will be attached in a separate email.

Please refer to your HRPP number (#12-391) when contacting our office regarding this application.

Thank you for your cooperation and good luck to you in conducting this research project. If you have questions or concerns, please contact me at cwilliams@research.msstate.edu or call 662-325-5220.

Finally, we would greatly appreciate your feedback on the HRPP approval process. Please take a few minutes to complete our survey at http://www.surveymonkey.com! /s/YZC7QQD.

Sincerely,

Christine Williams, MPPA, CIP
IRB Compliance Administrator

cc: Edward French (advisor)

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www.manaraa.com

APPENDIX B

SURVEY AND INFORMED CONSENT

SURVEY TITLE: Motivation in the Nonprofit Sector: Surveying Mississippi and Its Border States

DEAR PARTICIPANT: Thank you for agreeing to complete this survey that serves as an integral part of the requirements for my doctoral dissertation. Please answer the following questions as completely and accurately as possible. All responses are strictly confidential and will be used only for my dissertation research. Thank you in advance for your valued time and participation.

INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

PURPOSE: The purpose of this research is to study the impact of motivation in the nonprofit sector. Specifically, this research will examine the role of the executive director and full-time employees working in nonprofit, community-based youth development programs.

PROCEDURES: Your name has been selected because of your role in a nonprofit, community-based youth development program. If you agree to participate in this research you will be asked to complete a web- based survey. Only the primary investigator (Yolanda Cook) and the primary advisor (Dr. P. Edward French) will have access to the survey results. If you so desire and indicate in writing to the researchers, a summary of the survey results will be provided to you. By clicking on the first question you acknowledge your consent to participate in this survey.

DURATION: Your time commitment to participate in this survey should take between 8 to 15 minutes to complete.

CONFIDENTIALITY: Your responses will be confidential and I will not collect identifying information such as your name, email address or IP address. All data is stored in a password protected electronic format. To help protect your confidentiality, the surveys will be used for scholarly purposes only.

RISKS: There are no foreseeable risks to you or your organization for participating in this research.

BENEFITS: There is no financial compensation or gifts given for participating in this research; however, your participation in this research does contribute to the scholarly literature on understanding what motivates executive directors and full-time employees employed with youth-serving nonprofit organizations. The final version of this study will become available for all who wish to view it in 2014. Please note that all or parts of the final study will be used for publication in its entirety or in parts in scholarly and professional journals.

WITHDRAWAL: Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary and refusal to participate will involve no penalty. If you agree to participate, you may refuse to answer any question on the survey at your discretion. You may withdraw from the study at any time by informing the researcher of your wish to do so either verbally or in writing.

QUESTIONS: If you have any further questions regarding this research, please contact Yolanda Cook via email at yjcl6@msstate.edu or you may contact Dr. P. Edward French (dissertation chair) at efrench@pspa.msstate.edu.For information regarding your rights as a research subject, please contact the Office of Regulatory Compliance at Mississippi State University at (662) 325-5220 or via email irb@research.msstate.edu.

Q1 Indicate your level of agreement with each statement. Please only select one answer per statement.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I unselfishly contribute to my community. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Meaningful public service is very important to me. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
It is hard for me to get intensely interested in what is going on in my community. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
I am willing to use every ounce of my energy to make the world a more just place. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
If any group does not share in the prosperity of our society, then we are all worse off. (5)	○	○	○	○	○
I am not afraid to go to bat for the rights of others even if it means I will be ridiculed. (6)	○	○	○	○	○
I am rarely moved by the plight of the underprivileged. (7)	○	○	○	○	○

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Q2 Indicate your level of agreement with each statement. Please only select one answer per statement.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
It is difficult for me to contain my feelings when I see people in distress. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we are on each other. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
I have little compassion for people in need who are unwilling to take the first step to help themselves. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
Much of what I do is for a cause bigger than myself. (5)	○	○	○	○	○
I feel people should give back to society more than they get from it. (6)	○	○	○	○	○

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I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society. (7)	○	○	○	○	○
I am one of those rare people who would risk personal loss to help someone else. (8)	○	○	○	○	○

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Q3 Indicate your level of agreement with each statement. Please only select one answer per statement.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
I like the people I work with. (5)	○	○	○	○	○
I sometimes feel my job is meaningless. (6)	○	○	○	○	○
Communications seem good within this organization. (7)	○	○	○	○	○
Raises are too few and far between. (8)	○	○	○	○	○

Q4 Indicate your level of agreement with each statement. Please only select one answer per statement.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
My supervisor is unfair to me. (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer. (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with. (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
The goals of this organization are not clear to me. (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me. (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places. (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

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subordinates. (7)					
There are few rewards for those who work here. (8)	○	○	○	○	○

Q5 Indicate your level of agreement with each statement. Please only select one answer per statement.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
I feel a sense of pride in doing my job. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
There are benefits we do not have which we should have. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
I have too much paperwork. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
I am satisfied with my chances for promotion. (5)	○	○	○	○	○
Work assignments are not fully explained. (6)	○	○	○	○	○

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Q6 Indicate your level of agreement with each statement. Please only select one answer per statement.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (5)	○	○	○	○	○
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. (6)	○	○	○	○	○

Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire. (7)	○	○	○	○	○

Q7 Indicate your level of agreement with each statement. Please only select one answer per statement.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of	○	○	○	○	○

available alternatives. (5)					
I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (6)	○	○	○	○	○
Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now. (7)	○	○	○	○	○

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Q8 Indicate your level of agreement with each statement. Please only select one answer per statement.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I would feel guilty if I left my organization now. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
This organization deserves my loyalty. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
I owe a great deal to my organization. (4)	○	○	○	○	○

Q9 Do you know if there is a mission statement for your organization?
- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No
- ◯ Not Sure

Q10 Have you read the mission statement for your organization?
- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No
- ◯ Not Sure

Q11 Do you understand the mission for your organization?
- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No
- ◯ Not Sure

Q12 Do you believe that your executive director is implementing the necessary activities to make the organization successful?
- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No
- ◯ Not Sure

Q13 Please indicate the primary type of your youth development program.
- ◯ Community-based organization
- ◯ K-12 Institution _____

Q14 Please indicate the location of your organization.
- ◯ Alabama
- ◯ Arkansas
- ◯ Louisiana
- ◯ Mississippi
- ◯ Tennessee

Q15 Please indicate your position in the organization.
- ◯ Executive Director
- ◯ Full-time Employee

Q16 Please indicate the number of years you have been employed in your current position.
- ◯ Less than 1 year
- ◯ 1-5 years
- ◯ 5-10 years
- ◯ 10-15 years
- ◯ 15-20 years
- ◯ 20+ years

Q17 Please indicate how many times you have changed positions in the organization.
- ○ 1 time
- ○ 2 times
- ○ 3 times
- ○ 4+ times

Q18 Please indicate the number of full-time people in your organization.
- ○ 1-5
- ○ 6-10
- ○ 10-15
- ○ 15-20
- ○ 20+

Q19 Please indicate your salary level.
- ○ <$20,000
- ○ $20,000-$39,999
- ○ $40,000-$59,000
- ○ $60,000-$79,000
- ○ $80,000-$99,000
- ○ $100,000 or more

Q20 Please indicate your age.
- ○ 24 or younger
- ○ 25 to 34
- ○ 35 to 44
- ○ 45 to 54
- ○ 55 to 64
- ○ 65 or older

Q21 Please indicate your gender.
- ○ Male
- ○ Female

Q22 Please indicate your race.
- ○ Caucasian/White
- ○ African American/Black
- ○ Hispanic/Latino/Mexican
- ○ Asian
- ○ Native American
- ○ Other (Please specify: _____)

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Q23 Please indicate your highest level of education attained.

- ⭕ Less than high school diploma
- ⭕ High school diploma
- ⭕ 2 Year college degree
- ⭕ 4 Year college
- ⭕ Master's degree
- ⭕ Doctorate degree (Ph.D., Ed.D., etc.)
- ⭕ Professional degree (M.D., J.D., etc)

APPENDIX C

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT STUDY

Post Office Box 462
Columbus, MS 39703

July 2, 2013

Name of Contact
Position Title
City, State Zip

Re: Permission to Conduct Survey - "Motivation in the Nonprofit Sector: Surveying Mississippi and Its Border States"

Dear Mr./Ms.:

Thank you for speaking with me today about conducting my web-based questionnaire with the YMCA of _____, which includes these locations: _____. I am seeking your help to conduct this study with the executive director and full-time employees of YMCA's in five states – Mississippi, Alabama, Arkansans, Louisiana and Tennessee. This dissertation study is not only a major part of the requirements to complete my Ph.D., in Public Policy and Administration, but it will also serve as a contributor to the current literature on motivation in the nonprofit sector through the eyes of youth-serving organizations like the YMCA.

The goal of this study is to better understand the correlation of job satisfaction and commitment to the motivation of both the executive director and full-time employees to achieve the mission of the organization. The researcher selected YMCA organizations as the survey population due to her interest in youth development.

This study has been approved by the MSU Institutional Review Board. This group looks at all studies involving human subjects to insure that participants are not harmed or misguided by any researcher representing Mississippi State University. If you agree to participate, I will send an email with an anonymous link to the executive director or his/her selected representative that they may directly send to participants in the organization. Before this study, I will need your consent of participation by replying to this email and stating that you consent to the participation of full-time employees, including the executive director to participate in this study. According to the results of the survey pre-test, participation in this survey research should take participants between 8 to 15 minutes to complete. This study is set to begin on _____ and conclude on_____.

Thank you for your interest in this study. I believe that it will benefit all three sectors to understand the motivation, job satisfaction and commitment of

nonprofit employees. You may call me at (662) 719-8522 or email me at yjc16@msstate.edu. Also, you may contact my dissertation committee chair, Dr. P. Edward French via email at efrench@pspa.msstate.edu if you have further questions about this research.

I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Sincerely,

Yolanda J. Cook
Doctoral Candidate
Mississippi State University
Department of Political Science and Public Administration
http://www.pspa.msstate.edu/about/students/

Attachment: Informed Consent

APPENDIX D

EMAIL REMINDER TO SURVEY PARTICIPANTS

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Good Morning/Afternoon_____:

Recently, you received a link to take the "Motivation in the Nonprofit Sector: Surveying Mississippi and Its Border States" survey. This web-survey serves as an integral step to better understand the significance of motivation in the nonprofit sector from the standpoint of being an executive director or full-time employee. Your anonymous survey link will remain open for your organization until _____. If you have taken the survey, thank you!

If you have not had a chance to take the survey yet, I would appreciate your completing the survey by _____. Please be sure to forward the survey link to all directors and full-time employees with your organization, including branches (if applicable). It should take participants between 8-15 minutes to complete. As an executive director or full-time employee with a valued and respected organization, only you can tell me about the impact of motivation in the nonprofit sector. Thank you for your time and feedback!

The survey link has been sent to everyone in the selected sample population. Since no personal data is retained with the surveys for reasons of confidentiality and anonymity, I am unable to identify whether or not you have already completed the survey.

Again, thank you for your participation in this study. Please do not hesitate to contact me via email at yjc16@msstate.edu or by calling 662.719.8522 if you have any questions.

Thank you,

Yolanda J. Cook
Doctoral Candidate
Mississippi State University
Department of Political Science and Public Administration

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APPENDIX E

POSTCARD REMINDER TO SURVEY PARTICIPANTS

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Motivation in the Nonprofit Sector: Surveying Mississippi and its Border States

SURVEY REMINDER

Deadline to complete survey is

● ● ● ➜ start! now

Yolanda J. Cook
Doctoral Candidate
Mississippi State University
Department of Political Science and Public Administration
P.O. Box 6837
Mississippi State, MS 39762

Place
Stamp
Here

Hello! I would like to remind you that the deadline to
complete the "Motivation in the Nonprofit Sector:
Surveying Mississippi and its Border States" is quickly
approaching and the survey will be closing soon. If your
organization has taken the survey, THANK YOU! If not, I
invite your organization to complete it before the
deadline. Please do not forget to forward the survey link
to all full-time employees, including directors at all of
your locations (if applicable).

I understand that summer is an extremely busy time for
your organization and the fact that you took time to help
me in the midst of all that you have going on means a
great deal to me and I will always remember your
generosity! Again, thank you for your feedback and time.

Kindest regards,

Yolanda
yjc18@msstate.edu

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