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**Turnover Intentions of Nonprofit Fundraising Professionals:
The Roles of Perceived Fit, Exchange Relationships, and Job Satisfaction**

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Virginia Commonwealth University.

by

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ABSTRACT

TURNOVER INTENTIONS OF NONPROFIT FUNDRAISING PROFESSIONALS: THE ROLES OF PERCEIVED FIT, EXCHANGE RELATIONSHIPS, AND JOB SATISFACTION

By Abbi Leinwand Haggerty, Ph.D.

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Virginia Commonwealth University.

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This study explores the turnover intentions of fundraisers employed by 501(c)(3) public charities in the United States. Specifically, the study considers the effects of the following variables on fundraisers' intentions to leave their current position (in the short-term and long-term) and/or the profession of fundraising: perceptions of fit with organization and job; exchange relationships between employees and their organization and supervisor; overall job satisfaction; culture of philanthropy; salary; age; and organizational size. Through a secondary analysis of a national data set, multiple regression analysis identifies the variables that are statistically significant predictors of turnover intentions.

Perceived person-organization fit, job satisfaction, and age are supported as the significant predictors of long-term turnover intentions. Fundraisers who believe they fit well

with the culture of their organization, are highly satisfied with their job, and are older will likely stay in their position longer. Perceived person-organization fit and job satisfaction are supported as the significant predictors of short-term turnover intentions. Similar to long-term turnover intentions, but without the effect of age, fundraisers who perceive a high level of congruence with their organization's culture, and who are satisfied with their job, are less likely to have plans to give notice. Lastly, perceived person-job fit and job satisfaction are supported as the significant predictors of intentions to leave the field of fundraising. Fundraisers who report that their position is a good match for their abilities, and who are highly satisfied in their position, are more likely to remain committed to fundraising as a career.

The study also includes subgroup analyses based on fundraisers' gender and race/ethnicity as well as organizations' field of interest and regional location, revealing that differences exist among the subgroups in regards to the variables that are statistically significant predictors of turnover intentions. Implications for practical application of the findings are discussed, including: advocating for fundraising as a profession; enhanced training and education for those pursuing careers in fundraising; investments by nonprofits and private and public funders in fundraising staff development; awareness of organizational culture by nonprofit employers and those seeking fundraising positions; and a focus on diversity and inclusion within the profession.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Voluntary employee turnover is most often associated with the negative effects that it has on organizations. In response, calls for research on the causes of turnover, and employee retention strategies to combat it, led to a growing body of literature on the subject. Researchers found that among the three sectors of the U.S. economy, turnover is most prevalent in the nonprofit sector, with an annual turnover rate of 3.1%, compared to 2.7% in the for-profit sector and 1% in the public sector (Cappelli, 2005). Despite the higher turnover rate for the nonprofit sector, however, academic research largely focuses on the for-profit and public sectors.

Fields of interest in noted turnover studies include manufacturing (Armknrecht & Early, 1972); the military (Atchison & Lefferts, 1972; Miller, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979); hospitals (Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978; Price & Mueller, 1981; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Mowday, Koberg, & McArthur, 1984; Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Russell & Van Sell, 2012); insurance companies (Waters & Roach, 1973; Mitchel, 1981; Bluedorn, 1982); retail (Hom & Knicki, 2001); and public accounting (Lee, Mitchell, Holtom, McDaniel, & Hill, 1999). This literature focuses on the development of causal and conceptual models that explain how employees move through the turnover process and the internal and external factors that influence their decisions (March & Simon, 1958; Mobley, 1977; Price & Mueller, 1981; Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Hom & Knicki, 2001; Steel, 2002; Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007).

The small number of academic studies that do explore turnover in the U.S. nonprofit sector are limited in scope. Some studies use samples from a single organization (Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Kim & Lee, 2007); some are small-scale, exploratory studies (Ban Drahnak-Faller, & Towers, 2003); and others examine turnover among volunteers (Mesch, Tschirhart, Perry, & Lee, 1998; Jamison, 2003). Realizing the diversity of organizations that comprise the nonprofit sector, and the multitude of employees who make up the human capital of the field, there is a clear need for more quantitative studies to explore turnover rates of different nonprofit professions.

The focus of this study is to explore the turnover intentions of fundraisers at 501(c)(3) public charities in the United States. While turnover in the fundraising field is a top concern for practitioners (Carbone, 1987; Duronio & Tempel, 1997; Iarrobino, 2006; Bell & Cornelius, 2013; Burk, 2013), the academic literature available on turnover in the profession, like turnover in the nonprofit sector in general, is lacking. Recently, however, a report released by CompassPoint Nonprofit Services and the Evelyn and Walter Haas, Jr Fund, authored by Bell and Cornelius (2013), garnered national attention for its findings on this topic. The data set from this report, *UnderDeveloped: A National Study of Challenges Facing Nonprofit Fundraising*, provides the data source for this study, lending itself to a secondary data analysis exploring the theoretical underpinnings behind the turnover intentions of fundraising professionals.

Statement of the Problem

Bell and Cornelius (2013) stated that “the development director is commonly labeled a ‘revolving door’ position, and ‘the hardest to fill and retain’ by executives, board members, funders, and capacity builders alike” (p. 4). The term, “development director,” is a common title used within nonprofit organizations for fundraisers, defined as “people whose jobs involve the

acquisition of revenues from private sources for nonprofit organizations” (Duronio & Tempel, 1997, p. 1). Half of the development directors surveyed in the Bell and Cornelius (2013) report planned to leave their job within two years, and 40% were not even sure that they would remain in the field of fundraising at all. A related survey of executive directors of nonprofit organizations revealed that when a development director does vacate a position, the average length of the vacancy is six months (Bell & Cornelius, 2013). In the search to fill these vacancies, 53% of executive directors reported difficulty in finding enough qualified candidates to interview.

These findings are not unexpected. According to Iarrobino (2006), turnover in the fundraising profession is an “epidemic.” It is an epidemic not only because of the direct costs of turnover but because of the indirect costs of turnover in fundraising staff, which includes the loss of relationships with donors, potentially resulting in the loss of gifts for an organization (Duronio & Tempel, 1997; Bell & Cornelius, 2013). As fundraisers cultivate relationships with donors to secure gifts for organizations, a process which could be several years in the making, these relationships become critical in donors’ decisions about the timing and amount of their contributions. As a result, when a development officer leaves an organization, it is possible that established donor relationships may leave with them, decreasing the probability of significant gifts being made by those donors. With the understanding that fundraising is about relationship building, it is easy to see why turnover in this field is so detrimental to nonprofit organizations and why further research is needed to better understand the causes of turnover.

With more research available on turnover among fundraisers, it is possible that the turnover rate could be influenced through the intervention of human resource management strategies, and as a result, the vacancies caused by turnover could be prevented. Along with the data available

in the Bell and Cornelius (2013) report about the lengthy vacancies that nonprofits face in hiring fundraisers, there is also anecdotal evidence suggesting that larger nonprofit organizations with bigger budgets are better positioned to recruit the most qualified candidates by offering better salaries and benefit packages (Duronio & Tempel, 1997). Clearly, this scenario places organizations with fewer resources at a disadvantage in recruiting talented fundraising staff, sometimes removing them from the ability to hire altogether (Herbst, 2005). The Johns Hopkins Listening Post Project substantiated these claims, reporting that 56% of the nonprofit organizations in their study tried to recruit fundraising staff during the previous year, and within this group, 84% found it “challenging” to do so (Salamon & Geller, 2007). Participants listed these top reasons for why recruitment was difficult: 1) inability to offer competitive salaries; 2) limited job advancement opportunities; and 3) inability to offer competitive benefits.

Perhaps most importantly, however, turnover in fundraising positions not only impacts nonprofit organizations, it impacts the clients they serve. While existing research notes the effect of front line staff turnover in nonprofit human services agencies on the quality of services offered to program recipients (Kim & Lee, 2007), turnover among fundraising staff has similar consequences. Fundraisers are responsible for raising the funds necessary to keep these programs running, ensuring the quality of services offered, and with their departure comes the potential loss of program revenue and continuity. Considering that many of these programs and services are “public” in nature, having been contracted out through the public sector, the impact of lost revenue resulting from turnover crosses over the nonprofit sector into the public sector.

Why Fundraising Turnover is Important to Public Administration

While turnover is a problem for organizations in general, turnover in nonprofit organizations, and among fundraising professionals, plays an important role in public administration given the public and nonprofit sectors' close, interlocking relationships. Economic theories regarding the development and growth of the nonprofit sector largely center on the sector's ability to provide goods and services not provided by the public or for-profit sectors (Weisbrod, 1977). Tracing the history of the nonprofit sector, it is evident that the evolving role of government played a large role in its progression.

Many scholars quote De Tocqueville's (1835) *Democracy in America* to point to early observations of voluntary associations in the United States. Through these associations, Americans assisted their communities in meeting public needs, but as the country grew, many questioned the use of these associations performing functions that were under the purview of the government in other countries (Hall, 2010). Consequently, advocacy for more public sector participation began, particularly during the nation building efforts of the late 1800s.

These efforts followed the Civil War, which resulted in a larger federal government in the United States, and in turn created larger, public run organizations (Hall, 2010). Instead of voluntary associations being responsible for the funding of these organizations, wealthy families supplemented public efforts through philanthropic donations. Later, these families created foundations and hired professional managers to oversee their fundraising efforts. At the same time, organizations like the Community Chest (precursor to the United Way) were founded, and after World War I, the country saw a large increase in the number of nonprofit organizations as citizens found ways to help war victims and their families (Hall, 2010). Likewise, the American

middle class grew and more citizens were able to participate in philanthropic efforts (Sargeant and Shang, 2014).

Throughout the twentieth century, with an expanding population and higher demand for public services, the relationship between the public and nonprofit sectors changed. Smith (2008) traced the changing relationship between state and local governments and nonprofit organizations to the 1960s. Prior to this decade, the two sectors largely operated independently. However, with increased federal funding available for social welfare agencies, the government awarded many nonprofit organizations contracts to provide public services to their communities. This influx of government funds for nonprofit organizations largely continued until 1981 when Congress passed the Omnibus Reconciliation Act during the Reagan administration (Smith, 2008). At this time, cuts to federal funding occurred that had been available to social welfare organizations, and responsibility fell to the states to manage and fund these programs. Smith (2008) noted that nonprofits recovered many of these lost funds over time as state and local governments supplemented the programs with their own funding, and different federal programs, such as Medicaid and Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), grew.

Today, federal, state, and local governments continue to rely on nonprofit organizations to provide public services, and the size of the nonprofit sector continues to increase. As of 2012, 32% of all nonprofit revenue originated from government sources (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2013). Salamon (2002), in an examination of what he termed “third-party government,” found that only five percent of the activity of the U.S. government is dedicated to the direct provision of goods or services. This contracting out of public goods and services means that third-party actors, including nonprofit organizations and their boards and volunteers, increasingly gain influence and control over the use and designation of public funds (Salamon, 2002; Isett, Mergel,

LeRoux, Mischen, & Rethemeyer, 2001). One of the benefits accrued to the government by contracting out public services to nonprofit organizations, however, is the perceived legitimacy these organizations have in their communities (Smith, 2008).

The nonprofit sector, in providing these public services, does receive a substantial subsidy from the federal government. To spur philanthropy, charitable giving was incentivized through the income tax deduction, enacted in 1917. While a boon to the nonprofit sector, this deduction ultimately results in a loss of revenue for the federal government. According to Reich (2005), this subsidy to the nonprofit sector costs more than what the government spends on the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) program, which is the nation's largest welfare program. In 2015, these tax deductions are expected to total \$48.8 billion (Joint Committee on Taxation, 2014).

While enjoying a tax-exempt status, the receipt of government funding does typically require an investment in infrastructure for many nonprofits, which may need to hire additional staff, provide training for staff, and purchase updated technology, etc. In order to increase their capacity to manage government contracts and grants, many nonprofits providing public services bolster their efforts to raise private donations by hiring professional fundraising staff, recruiting board members with fundraising knowledge, and ensuring that executive directors incorporate fundraising into their positions (Smith, 2008). Smith (2008) stated that it is logical to assume that larger organizations with more resources are better positioned to secure public and private dollars. He also explained that some government organizations provide smaller size grants to nonprofits that they can then use to leverage private donations to fully fund their programs.

Thus, as many nonprofit organizations rely on a combination of public and private funding, the retention and stability of fundraisers in these organizations plays a large role in the

delivery of what have traditionally been seen as public goods and services. Ultimately, research that provides a better understanding of how the nonprofit sector operates, and who is employed by nonprofit organizations, improves our understanding of how effectively, efficiently, and equitably the public sector can indirectly provide public goods and services through the nonprofit sector. More specifically, research that leads to the improvement of retention strategies for nonprofit fundraisers ensures that the provision of goods and services critical to the welfare of our democracy, and often dependent on supplemental private revenue raised by fundraisers, is not disrupted by high rates of turnover in the profession.

Purpose of the Study

Given the current high rate of turnover in the fundraising field, and its implications for the provision of public goods and services, the purpose of this study is to develop a better understanding of the variables that are predictive of fundraisers' turnover intentions. The study specifically looks at fundraisers employed by 501(c)(3) public charities in the U.S. Through a secondary data analysis of the Bell and Cornelius (2013) data set, this study considers the impact that perceived person-organization fit, perceived person-job fit, exchange relationships (viewed through the lenses of perceived organizational support and perceived leader-member exchange), and overall job satisfaction have on turnover intentions—intentions to leave fundraising positions and intentions to leave the field of fundraising. This study fulfills a need for more research on the fundraising profession in general, and on turnover in the profession in particular.

One group calling for more research on this topic is the Association of Fundraising Professionals (AFP), whose 2014 research agenda stated a need for more “basic” research that will increase understanding of philanthropy and fundraising, as well as more “applied” research that will advance the practice and profession of fundraising (AFP, Research Agenda section,

para. 2). Understanding why certain fundraisers may leave a position or the profession after only a short amount of time will help 501(c)(3) public charities tailor strategic human resource strategies that may improve the recruitment and retention of fundraising staff. It will also inform the training of fundraisers through formal education programs and professional development opportunities that prepare them for entry into the field or career advancement.

In general, there have been calls for more research on the motivational factors of all nonprofit employees, as these employees are perceived to be motivated differently than employees of the for-profit sector. Recent research by Paul Light (2002) found that nonprofit employees felt high levels of stress and burnout and reported that their organizations did not provide them with appropriate training opportunities or the necessary staff to be successful. Another survey found that just 55% of U.S. nonprofit employees were planning to remain with their current organization, and those planning to leave said they would do so within two years (OpportunityKnocks, 2011). Of the nonprofit employees interviewed, 30% reported feelings of “burnout,” and another 30% said they were close to reaching this point. Only 37% of the employees interviewed felt that they could advance their career within their current organization; 45% reported receiving no job training at all; and 37% felt that their current employer took no interest in their career development. Research in this area continues and is applied in this study to better understand turnover specific to the fundraising profession (Borzaga & Tortia, 2006; Lee & Wilkins, 2011; Park & Word, 2012). While this study only offers insight into one specific nonprofit career path—fundraising—it may uncover variables significant in the turnover intentions of other nonprofit employees as well.

Additionally, given a lack of research on turnover among managerial and senior level positions in all types of organizations (Staw, 1980; Cohen, 1999), this study contributes to the

understanding of similarities and differences that exist among the variables that affect turnover intention decisions for employees at different levels of an organization. The Bell and Cornelius data set (2013) includes only the most senior-level development person in an organization, while most studies of nonprofit turnover to date focus on front line case workers or program workers, especially in human service organizations. Adding another nonprofit profession to the mix of professions studied in terms of turnover intentions will broaden our understanding of turnover specific to the nonprofit sector as well as variances that may exist in turnover intentions among the employees in different levels of an organization and in different sectors.

Lastly, this research promotes understanding of career commitment in the fundraising field. Hall (1971) defined career commitment as “the strength of one’s motivation to work in a chosen career role” and “is to be distinguished from commitment to the job or to one’s organization...the three forms of commitment are often correlated, but they are theoretically distinct and may have different causes and consequences” (p. 59). It is interesting to note that employees with high levels of career commitment should be less likely to have career withdrawal cognitions but more likely to leave a job if they feel that it will enhance their career (Blau, 1985). From the Bell and Cornelius (2013) research, it is known that 40% of the respondents did not know if they would remain in the field of fundraising, making it important to understand what variables may be impacting career commitment in this profession. Therefore, this study of turnover will include analysis of intentions to leave a position, as well as intentions to leave the field, contributing not only to the turnover intention literature but to the career commitment literature as well.

Significance of the Study

This study offers a deeper understanding of the variables that contribute to a fundraiser's decision to leave a position as well as the field of fundraising, and arms nonprofit organizations with knowledge they can use to improve the retention of their fundraising staff, and in doing so, improve their capacity to fulfill their missions. With such little research available on the employees who work in this dynamic sector, and who are responsible for raising the contributed revenue donated to these organizations, there is a need for more academic literature that will further develop an understanding of the nonprofit workforce. This understanding is just as important for academic scholars as it is for those working in the nonprofit sector. As those in academia seek to build and strengthen the theories applicable to nonprofit research, studies like this one that explore topics not often written about in the nonprofit sector help to expand the literature available to nonprofit scholars.

Existing studies show that many nonprofit organizations lack human resource (HR) management strategies (Ban, Drahnak-Faller, & Towers, 2003), which can improve the recruitment and retention of qualified staff. With only a small percentage of nonprofit organizations having formal HR staff, many organizations are ill-equipped to fully address high turnover rates, and there is evidence that this issue is more problematic for smaller organizations and older organizations that are less likely to have functional HR departments (Guo et al, 2011). In explaining why this missing HR function is so impactful in the sector, Ridder, Piening, & Baluch (2012) stated:

Nonprofit organizations (NPOs) face increasing expectations to transform themselves into flexible, more responsive units that make efficient use of their scarce resources, while serving the needs of their various stakeholders more effectively. NPOs are simultaneously confronted with the need to demonstrate accountability, comply with funders' priorities and provide more, high quality services against a background of

drastic financial cutbacks and increasing market-related competition. In light of these demands to improve performance, *Human Resource Management* (HRM) is claimed to play an increasingly important role in enhancing the effectiveness and efficiency of NPOs. As employees are viewed as an indispensable resource to achieve the organization's mission, investments in HR practices that enhance employee skills, participating in decisions, and motivation are seen as a means for coping with the aforementioned challenges (p. 607).

Some authors note that the very nature of the nonprofit sector resides in its human capital—those providing services and those receiving services (Watson & Abzug, 2010). Accordingly, among all sectors, attention to strategic HR practices may in fact be most important for the nonprofit sector. It may also, however, not be on the top list of priorities for many nonprofit organizations. For example, one overview of nonprofit HR begins with a list of the priorities that seem to come before this important function in many organizations: overcrowded schedules, underfunded programs, endless client needs, irregular financial cycles, and demands for reports of accountability (Watson & Abzug, 2010).

Noting the importance of human capital in public systems, McGregor (1988) stated that “human capital was defined not by the number of available workers, but by what the workers are capable of doing” (p. 942). In organizations where human capital is critical, turnover does not simply mean the loss of a body that is easily replaceable by another, but implies the loss of specific skills, knowledge, and abilities that may be difficult to replace. More recent research discusses the magnitude of this loss, finding that: 1) the personal services provided by nonprofits cannot simply be replaced by investing in physical capital, and 2) the need for the professional delivery of services and the accountability requirements of funding make employees critical stakeholders in nonprofit strategy (Akingbola, 2013).

While it is clear that the preservation of human capital is critical to the future of the nonprofit sector, the challenge for many nonprofits is in their ability to implement effective HR strategies.

Contributing to the lack of formalized HR structures and functions in the sector is the limitation that many funders have placed on the percentage of their grant awards that can be allocated to “overhead” costs, wanting most funding to go instead to direct services. This limitation is true of most government funding, as well as many corporate and foundation funders. Without money to invest in their infrastructure, nonprofits often have barebones operations and are unable to dedicate funding to proper HR management. In 2013, GuideStar, Charity Navigator, and the BBB Wise Giving Alliance started a conversation about the “overhead myth” to inform funders about why these restrictions are dangerous to the health of the nonprofit sector (para. 1). The results of these conversations are currently playing out in the fundraising landscape.

Historical and Contemporary Context for the Study

Understanding the external environment in which fundraisers operate is just as important as understanding the internal operations of the organizations for which they work. Today’s fundraisers operate within a nonprofit sector that has experienced tremendous growth in recent years. The sector now employs nearly 10% of the U.S. workforce, adds \$887.3 billion to the U.S. economy (5.4% of our GDP), earns \$2.16 trillion in revenue, and holds \$4.84 trillion in assets—an increase of 21.5% from 2002 to 2012 (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014). There are over 30 types of tax-exempt organizations in the U.S., with those having the 501(c)(3) tax designation comprising the largest category (approximately one million of the 1.44 million registered nonprofits). Within the 501(c)(3) tax designation, there are “public charities” and “private foundations.” Public charities raise most of their revenue from multiple public sources and typically provide a direct service to the community. Private foundations receive their funding from one donor, or a small number of donors, and most often are grantmaking organizations instead of service providers.

Public charities, the focus of this study, represent a number of fields of interest, with the majority being in the human service, education, or health fields. Most public charities tend to be small with 40% having less than \$100,000 in gross receipts and 31.5% having between \$100,000 and \$499,999 in annual expenditures (Pettijohn, 2013). The sources of revenue for the sector are diverse and vary by organizational type, but for the sector as a whole, 50% of revenues result from fees for services and goods from private sources while private contributions make up close to 13% of all revenue (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014). This 13% is the primary focus of the fundraisers' profession. A further breakdown of private contributions shows that the highest percentage of this funding goes towards religious organizations, followed by education, and human services (Pettijohn, 2013). Approximately 67% of all U.S. households make philanthropic contributions, which totaled over \$335 billion in 2013 (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014).

Professionalization of the Field. As the nonprofit sector has grown and become more professionalized, so too has the field of fundraising. Because many fundraising efforts were not well-documented in this country, it is difficult to know exactly how fundraising first came about in an organized fashion (Marion, 1997). Some scholars state that fundraising perhaps dates back to Harvard College in the 1600s when its President, Henry Dunster, wrote a fundraising appeal letter to the wealthy members of the community in 1643, and the University received its first gift of real estate from alumni in 1649 (Marion, 1997). Others, however, document the advent of fundraising in the early twentieth century at the same time that national nonprofit organizations were established and needed fundraising staff to help raise large sums of money for causes such as the cure for tuberculosis, heart disease, and cancer; endowments for institutes of higher education; and the building of hospitals (Duronio & Tempel, 1997). During this time, the

Community Chest was founded, in 1913, and is often times cited as the starting point for organized fundraising efforts in this country. Given this historical uncertainty of the profession, it is easier to document the more recent history of organized fundraising efforts.

Since the birth of the Association of Fundraising Professionals in 1960, the nonprofit sector has increasingly employed the use of professional fundraisers to bring in contributed revenue to organizations (Sargeant & Shang, 2014). While there is still debate as to whether fundraising is considered a true profession (some refer to it as an emerging profession), practitioners point to the characteristics of a profession seen in the fundraising field: a concrete body of knowledge; a professional association; education programs; and a code of ethics (Bell & Cornelius, 2013). However, some still view fundraising as simply begging for money for a cause (Bloland & Tempel, 2004), which may be attributed to its original voluntary nature and continued involvement of volunteers, including board members. Thus, fundraising often waffles between being viewed as a positive addition to an organization and as a necessary burden.

Training and Education. Until recently, on-the-job training was the most typical form of training for the fundraising profession, as well as most other nonprofit professions. In 1989, representatives from the Institute for Nonprofit Organization Management, Roosevelt University, and the Illinois Association of Graduate Programs of Public Administration came together to participate in Phase I of what was called the Clarion Conference to discuss the unique values that a nonprofit administration degree program would need to have to educate the next generation of leaders in the sector (Rubin, Adamski, & Block, 1989). Eighteen years later, Mirabella (2007) reported that there were 240 universities and colleges in the United States with nonprofit management courses, with a 33% increase in the number of schools offering nonprofit management education programs between 1996 and 2006.

Mesch (2010) suggested that the growth of nonprofit degree programs led to greater “organizational professionalism” in the nonprofit sector because managers now bring with them more knowledge about strategic thinking and decision making, management experience, financial management knowledge, technical skills, the ability to evaluate programs, and a more global view on change. However, many of the degrees in nonprofit studies do not focus specifically on fundraising, but rather on general nonprofit management. The specifics of fundraising are more typically addressed through professional development training programs offered through the professional associations in the field.

Professional Associations. For fundraisers, there are three main associations: Association of Fundraising Professionals (AFP); Council for Advancement and Support of Education (CASE); and Association for Healthcare Philanthropy (AHP). Rather than learning in the classroom, many fundraisers learn on the job or through conferences taught by fellow fundraisers. The AFP has more than 30,000 members representing 235 chapters worldwide. On its website, the association reports that it “fosters development and growth of fundraising professionals and promotes high ethical standard in the fundraising profession” (About AFP section, para. 1). CASE serves close to 74,000 fundraisers who work for member institutions, including 3,600 colleges and universities, primary and secondary independent and international schools, and nonprofit organizations, in 82 countries (About CASE section, para. 3). AHP has 5,000 members who represent over 2,200 health care facilities in the United States and Canada (About Us section, para. 2). The most popular credential for a fundraiser to earn is the CFRE, indicating that one is a certified fundraising executive. The CFRE was created in 1997 through a partnership between AHP and AFP.

Who are Fundraisers?

The exact number of fundraisers in the United States is difficult to capture, as titles vary, and there is no set credential that one must earn to become a fundraiser. Kelly (1998) estimated the number of full-time fundraisers to be around 80,000, but Hager, Rooney, and Pollak (2002) suggested the number was closer to 296,000. It is widely noted that this number is elusive, however, and that only a fraction of the fundraisers employed in the country are counted in the membership numbers reported by the professional associations (Seiler, Aldrich, & Tempel, 2010). While numbers may vary, there are certain similarities among the profession in terms of the demographics of those employed in the field and their roles and responsibilities.

Demographics. Reports from the Association of Fundraising Professionals (AFP) and Council for the Advancement and Support of Education (CASE) provide some insight into who fundraisers are. Currently, AFP members ($N=24,253$) are predominantly Caucasian, middle-aged, and female; have been in the profession for 16 years or more; and on average earn \$75,483 (C. Griffin, personal communication, January 7, 2014). The 2013 demographics of CASE members ($N=4058$) reveal similar profiles, with 87.6% being White, the mean age being 43, 71% being female, and members on average earning \$79,000. However, their tenure in the profession is somewhat shorter, with only 23.3% having been in the profession for 16 years or more (Judith Kroll, personal communication, July 29, 2014). Likewise, the demographics of the Bell and Cornelius (2013) respondents ($N=1852$), analyzed in this study, show that 88% are White, 79% are female, the mean age is 47 years old, and the mean salary is \$70,453. 28.1% of these respondents have worked in fundraising for more than 15 years.

These descriptive statistics make clear that there is a lack of diversity in the field, particularly in terms of gender and race/ethnicity. While women make up the largest percentage

of fundraisers, they fall behind their male counterparts in terms of titles and wages (Taylor, 1998; Conry, 1998; Mesch & Rooney, 2008). In many ways, fundraising was the first profession that was open to women in the United States, but there are still gender-based differences in salary, management level positions, and the types of prospects that women are assigned (Taylor, 1998). These differences persist despite the growth of and development of the profession (Conry, 1998). Women and men working in fundraising typically begin with similar starting salaries, but men tend to earn more than women throughout their career even when education level is controlled (Sampson & Moore, 2008). One study found female Chief Development Officers received 11 percent less in pay than male Officers after controlling for organizational and individual variables (Mesch & Rooney, 2008). This report also found that female staff members earned a lower bonus. Similarly, female consultants received, on average, 36% less than male consultants. Perhaps not surprisingly, women in the study reported feeling less satisfied with their salary than men (Sampson & Moore, 2008).

With women being the predominant gender in the fundraising profession, it is important to note the body of research concerning women in the workforce and stress. A Harvard Women's Health Watch (2000) article over a decade ago stated that women reported more stress and stress-related sickness than men in regards to their occupation, and often left their positions to cope with this stress. Women's stress is often attributed to the roles (perceived and actual) that they have in regards to caregiving and household responsibilities, as well as their frequently lower status within organizations caused by the "glass ceiling" (Burke, 2002). Mastracci and Herring (2010) found that the nonprofit sector may actually provide women with the most supportive HR practices for remaining in their positions and creating a work-life balance. As the nonprofit sector has traditionally welcomed women in both paid and unpaid roles, research

shows that women often have positions considered “mission critical and central to nonprofits’ purpose” (Mastracci and Herring, 2010, p. 155). On the other hand, Gibelman (2000) found that while this may be true, men still were overrepresented in management positions within nonprofit organizations and earned higher salaries. While these findings about women in the workplace and workplace practices are important, Becker (2010) cautions that “the discourse of stress locates the origins of many societal problems inside individuals rather than in the larger society” (p. 37). By continuing to perceive women as having the primary role as caregivers, the pressure is placed on them to determine how best to balance a career and family. The women are considered to have the “choice” of staying at home or remaining in the workforce (Becker, 2010). As a result, focus is on how workplaces can accommodate women who choose to work rather than the societal pressure placed on them to be primary caregivers and household managers. Thus, the discussion on gender differences in the workplace must take into consideration the role of the employee and the organization as well as society as a whole.

In addition to the fundraising profession largely being a female profession, it is also largely a *White* female profession. The professional fundraising associations recently started addressing the issue of low racial diversity among their ranks after years of being criticized for not proactively taking action to recruit a diverse workforce (Wagner & Ryan, 2004). A 2005 AFP study found that there may actually be more African Americans involved in the fundraising profession than originally thought, but that these numbers are not often reported because many of these individuals work for smaller organizations where they may have more than one role, and their job titles are not indicative of being a fundraiser (AFP, Survey Rates, para. 10). Why these African American fundraisers are not better represented at larger organizations is presented as an area of focus that AFP planned to further explore. For example, an additional finding of the

survey was that the profession of fundraising may not be presented as a possible career path to many young African Americans, and as a result, the AFP has created new collegiate chapters to promote the field to the next generation. Likewise, CASE acknowledged that purposeful strategies need to be built around diversity in the profession. The Council created a Minority Advancement Institute, hosts a Conference of Diverse Philanthropy and Leadership, and now has the position of *Chair for Opportunity and Inclusion* in each of its eight districts. It is yet to be seen how effective, if at all, these strategies will be.

Roles and Responsibilities. Nonprofits incorporate fundraising into their organizations in various ways. They may: have a staff fundraiser; outsource fundraising to a third party; have volunteer board members or the Executive Director raise funds; or employ a combination of these approaches. The organizations that do employ fundraisers provide a variety of tasks for these development professionals to undertake. Respondents in the Bell and Cornelius (2013) survey, from which this study draws its data, reported responsibilities for relationship building (92.4%); securing the gift (91.5%); management of the organization (89.1%); current and prospective donor research (84.4%); accountability efforts (82.1%); and volunteer involvement (59.9%). In raising money for these organizations, fundraisers in the study reported the most popular fundraising methods to be foundation proposals (92.6%), direct mail (87.3%), special events (87.0%), online giving (85.4%), and board giving (85.1%). However, many of the duties of fundraisers fall outside of *just* raising money for their organizations.

Given the broad scope of work that fundraisers often take on within their organizations, the work is often referred to as “development” instead of “fundraising.” This distinction is seen in the professional titles of fundraisers, which typically will include the word “development,” such as “Director of Development.” However, this term is not always well understood outside of

the nonprofit sector. In an effort to explain to those not familiar with fundraising why the word “development” is important to unpack, Mark Drozdowski (2003) offered this overview:

The first is a matter of function. Most development offices employ professionals whose jobs do not directly involve raising money. Rather, they provide related services, including prospect research, database management, gift recording and processing, accounting, special-events planning and oversight, and donor relations. Complex development operations will often feature positions dedicated solely to the internal coordination of fund raising across offices and schools; these people may or may not have prospects assigned to them. In short, not everyone who works in "development" raises money. But the more meaningful distinction pertains to purpose. For the sake of simplicity, let's put it this way: The time we spend cultivating or soliciting donors is fund raising; that spent aligning fund-raising goals with institutional planning and maturation is development (para. 3).

Present Day Challenges. With the complexity of the roles that many fundraisers assume, problems often arise when their job is not well understood; when their role is seen as *just* to raise money for an organization; and when that responsibility falls solely to one person within an organization. Some of the pitfalls of this “compartmentalization” of fundraising are unrealistic expectations of the fundraising department and dissatisfaction—the organization is dissatisfied with the fundraisers’ performance, and the fundraiser is dissatisfied with her or his job and organization (Waters, Kelly, & Walker, 2012). Wagner (2002) termed this type of organizational behavior the, “tinkerbelle syndrome,” defined as, “others expect them [fundraisers] to perform something akin to a miracle. Fundraisers may discover that there are great expectations for their performance, that they are supposed to know everything about fundraising, and—because everyone else is busy, too—that they must function alone in the role of fundraiser” (p. 213).

Other challenges come from outside of organizational walls. Like the U.S. public sector, the nonprofit sector is held to higher standards for accountability and transparency and a demand for more businesslike operating practices. Bloland & Tempel (2004) noted a focus on

productivity, measurement, and assessment for fundraisers, and stated that one of the down sides to this focus is the potential to detract from the full skillset and knowledge of a fundraiser. By making the total amount of dollars raised the only measure of success, other external variables that contribute to the ability of a fundraiser or an organization to maximize contributed revenue are ignored. For example, other requirements of the job are being a good manager and leader; cultivating relationships within the community; and being an expert communicator (Waters, Kelly, & Walker, 2012). Some of these challenges are explored in this study by examining the fit between fundraisers and their jobs and organizations as well as the quality of relationships they have with their organizations and supervisors.

Theoretical Underpinnings of the Study

This study examines turnover intentions through the theories of perceived person-organization fit, perceived person-job fit, and exchange relationships (perceived organizational support and perceived leader-member exchange). The study also explores the role that job satisfaction may play in the turnover process. While original turnover research often focused on employee attitudes, more recent research delves into the relationships that employees have with their organizations and those with whom they work. After reviewing the history of traditional turnover literature, the study focuses on the relational aspects of turnover.

Perceived Person-Job and Person-Organization Fit. The literature on perceived fit explores how well an employee perceives they “match up” with their environment, which can be the organization for which they work, their job, their organizational culture, their work group, their supervisor, their career, etc. Theories of perceived fit often examine employee behaviors, such as turnover. In this study, the specific theories of perceived person-job fit (P-J fit) and perceived person-organization fit (P-O fit) are included. Research conceptualizes P-J fit

“narrowly as the relationship between a person’s characteristics and those of the job or tasks that are performed at work” (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005, p. 284). Studies characterize P-O fit generally as “the compatibility between individuals and organizations,” but it is often unpacked into the categories of supplementary fit, complementary fit, needs-supplies fit, and demands-abilities fit to more adequately describe the types of fit that an employee can have with an organization (Kristof, 1996).

The literature on P-O fit frequently views fit in terms of the values that an employee and an organization may or may not share as well as the match between an employee’s values and an organization’s culture (Chatman, 1991; O’Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). This value congruence correlates with employee turnover in multiple studies (Vandenberghe, 1999). There are also several studies of P-O fit specific to the nonprofit sector that examine fit through the lens of value congruence. (Stride & Higgs, 2014; De Cooman, De Gieter, Pepermans, & Jegers, 2011; Rycraft, 1994). To define the values of an organization, some scholars turn to an organization’s mission statement (Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Kim & Lee, 2007). As Brown and Yoshioka (2003) put forth, “a mission statement helps define an organization, expressing its values and envisioning its future” (p. 5). Thus, studies that explore employees’ thoughts and attitudes about their organizations’ mission statements are perceived to uncover the value congruence between employees and their organizations. Literature in the public sector also examines this idea through the construct of “identification commitment” as one form of organizational commitment. Identification commitment examines the degree to which an employee identifies with the purpose and mission of the organization for which they work (Balfour & Weschler, 1996). To date, the findings on the effects that value congruence, mission, and identification commitment have on turnover and turnover intentions are mixed.

Exchange Relationships. Studies often view the reciprocal relationships that employees and organizations have through the lenses of perceived organizational support (POS) and leader-member exchange (LMX). These theories are grounded in the work of Gouldner (1960) on the norm of reciprocity and in the research of Blau (1964) on social exchange. The idea behind this line of research is that employees make decisions and behave in ways that align with how they feel that they are treated by their organizations and/or supervisors. Accordingly, in turnover research, employees are more likely to remain with organizations if they feel they are treated well and more likely to leave organizations if they feel they are not.

POS is linked to withdrawal behaviors (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986) and organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991) in multiple studies. Results also show that POS creates feelings of obligation on behalf of employees to their organizations (Shore & Wayne, 1993). Other lines of research in this area explore the factors that precede POS and lead an employee to feel that they are, in fact, supported by their organizations. Studies show that these factors include supportive HR practices, supervisor support, growth opportunities, pay, and participation in decision making (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

In addition to POS, LMX is also a type of exchange relationship, which explores the association between employees and their supervisors. One of the main tenets of LMX is the extent to which working relationships between employees and leaders are effective (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). LMX research looks at the predictive value of these relationships on employee turnover beyond the relationships employees have with their organizations in general (Reichers, 1985; Becker, 1992). Research is still uncovering the exact relationship that LMX has with turnover and turnover intentions. For example, one meta-analysis found that LMX only related

to turnover intentions, not actual turnover (Gerstner & Day, 1997), while other research revealed that job satisfaction mediated the relationships between LMX and turnover (Han & Jekel, 2011). To further understand the unique contributions that LMX offers, research is ongoing in the field of exchange relationships and turnover.

Why Turnover Matters

While these theories promote understanding of why employees may decide to leave an organization, it is equally important to understand why their potential departure matters for them and for their organizations. Employee turnover has positive and negative effects for employers and employees. Whether an organization benefits from turnover, or faces serious costs, depends in large part on the nature of the turnover. Employee turnover is often categorized as voluntary (employee-initiated) or involuntary (not employee-initiated), but also as functional (beneficial to the organization) or dysfunctional (detrimental to the organization) as well as avoidable (organization can control) or unavoidable (organization cannot control). There are also different perspectives on whether turnover is beneficial or harmful for organizations. Three perspectives put forth by Dess and Shaw (2001) are: 1) cost-benefit: turnover costs are associated with the direct costs of the separation, replacement, and training of an employee, and the benefits of turnover result from payroll deductions, the loss of poor performers, and increased innovation; 2) human capital: turnover costs are associated with the lost productivity of an employee and a loss on return of investment in that employee; and 3) social capital: turnover costs are associated with employees' networks of relationships, access to information, ties to external stakeholders, and ability to attract other high-performing individuals to an organization. Given the various types of turnover, and the differing costs and benefits associated with it, it is important to note in each turnover study the type of turnover and approach taken.

With the costs that organizations incur due to employee turnover, it is easy to understand why negative perceptions prevail (Staw, 1980). The direct costs associated with turnover may be obvious (e.g., advertising, recruiting, hiring, and training), but the indirect costs are often less apparent. Just a few of the indirect costs noted in relevant research include lost production, reduced performance, overtime for employees who cover for someone who has left an organization, and the loss of morale of those who stay (Croucher, Wood, Brewster, & Brookes, 2012). Other studies of the consequences of turnover showed that the impact of turnover may vary among organizations given a number of individual and organizational variables, i.e. leaver proficiencies, time dispersion, positional distribution, remaining member proficiencies, and newcomer proficiencies (Hausknecht & Holwerda, 2013). Consequently, for each organization, the impact of turnover can largely depend on who leaves and who stays.

While research defines dysfunctional turnover as “the level that produces a divergence between the organization’s optimal balance of costs associated with turnover and the costs associated with retaining employees,” studies continue to examine whether there is an “optimal” level of turnover for organizations (Abelson & Baysinger, 1984, p. 331). The debate over the point at which turnover is dysfunctional or optimal resulted in several meta-analyses on the topic. One meta-analysis of 55 studies, and a total sample size of 15,138, found a negative relationship between performance and turnover that was not affected by unemployment rates or the length of time between the measurements of the two variables (Williams & Livingstone, 1994). Another study concluded from 300 total correlations that the relationship between total turnover rates and organizational performance was significant and negative, being more negative for voluntary and reduction-in-force turnover than for involuntary turnover (Park & Shaw, 2013). Additionally, a separate analysis of 694 effect sizes, drawn from 82 studies, discovered that

turnover was negatively related to several performance outcomes but found this relationship did not vary by turnover type (Heavey, Holwerda, & Hausknecht, 2013). Realizing a need for similar studies in the public sector, Meier and Hicklin (2007) found that turnover also negatively related to performance for public organizations in terms of the organizations' primary goals, but that there was a nonlinear relationship when task difficulty was included. They concluded that turnover might actually be positive for organizations if new personnel bring with them innovative ideas to address more difficult tasks when current personnel have become set in their ways (Meier & Hicklin, 2007).

On the positive side of turnover, scholars examined the benefits that an organization might accrue through a new employee or through the loss of an employee who brought conflict to the organization or was not productive. Dalton and Todor (1979) found that turnover may increase organizational effectiveness, reduce the income disparity of individuals, promote career progression for individuals, and help individuals cope with stressful situations. Other positive contributions included: increased performance of a new hire, reduction of conflict, increased mobility and morale of those who stayed with the organization, and innovation for the organization as a whole (Staw, 1980).

The positive and negative consequences of turnover are further delineated by categorizing them according to whether the organization, the leaver, or the stayers recognized the consequence (Mobley, 1982). For example, Mobley's (1982) list of positive consequences for the organization included infusion of new knowledge/technology and opportunities for cost reduction and consolidation, while the list of positive consequences for the leaver included career advancement and a better "person-organization" fit. For the stayers, positive consequences included increased internal mobility opportunities and increased cohesion of the work group. On

the negative side of turnover, listed among the consequences for the organization were the disruption of social and communication structures and negative PR from leavers. For leavers, these consequences included loss of seniority and transition related stress, while for stayers, the negative consequences included loss of valued coworkers and increased work load (Mobley, 1982). Given the complex nature of turnover, it is important for organizations to understand and analyze the various types of turnover they experience and how these turnover variations impact their organization positively and/or negatively.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

To further understand the turnover intentions of fundraisers employed at 501(c)(3) public charities in the U.S., this study explores the following research questions:

Research Question 1: What effect does perceived fit (person-job and person-organization) have on the turnover intentions of nonprofit fundraising professionals?

Research Question 2: What effect do exchange relationships (explored through the theories of perceived organizational support and perceived leader-member exchange) have on the turnover intentions of nonprofit fundraising professionals?

Research Question 3: What effect does job satisfaction have on the turnover intentions of nonprofit fundraising professionals?

To assess turnover intentions, the study includes three criterion variables: 1) the length of time a development director imagines s/he will stay in her/his current fundraising position; 2) whether a development director has given notice to her/his executive director; and 3) the length of time a development director imagines s/he will stay in the field of fundraising. These variables are drawn from the Bell & Cornelius (2013) survey as follows.

To measure *long-term* turnover intention, this study analyzes responses to the following survey question:

Question 23) Knowing that the future may be hard to predict, how much longer do you imagine that you'll stay in your current fund development position? (Answers: Less than 1 year; 1-2 Years; 3-4 Years; 5 or More Years)

To measure *short-term* turnover intention, this study analyzes responses to the following survey question:

Question 25) Have you given notice to your executive director that you are leaving your current position? (Answers: Yes, I have given notice; No, I have not given notice; No, but I am actively considering leaving)

To measure intention to leave the field of fundraising, this study analyzes responses to the following survey question:

Question 24) Knowing that the future may be hard to predict, how much longer do you imagine that you'll stay in the field of fund development? (Answers: Less than 1 year; 1-2 Years; 3-4 Years; 5 or More Years)

The corresponding survey questions for the predictor variables are provided in the literature review as each relevant theory is discussed. Based on the theories of perceived person-organization fit, perceived person-job fit, perceived organizational support, leader-member exchange, and job satisfaction, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Perceived person-job fit will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived person-organization fit will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 3: Passion about an organization's mission will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4: Perceived organizational support will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5: Perceived leader-member exchange will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 6: Overall job satisfaction will be predictive of turnover intentions.

An overview of each theory, along with corresponding hypotheses and survey questions, is included in Table 35 in Appendix A.

Outline of Study

The next chapter provides a review of the literature on turnover as well as on the theories of perceived person-organization fit, perceived person-job fit, and exchange relationships (perceived organizational support and perceived leader-member exchange). The literature review also examines the role that job satisfaction plays in the turnover process and why turnover intentions are often studied in turnover literature rather than actual turnover. The third chapter of the study introduces the methodology for the research, which consists of a secondary data analysis of the Bell and Cornelius (2013) data set using multiple regression analysis. Separate regression analyses will be employed to look at short-term intentions to leave a fundraising position, long-term intentions to leave a fundraising position, and intentions to leave the field of fundraising altogether. Subgroup analyses will also be performed to explore the effects of fundraisers' gender and race/ethnicity as well as organizational field of interest and regional location. The fourth chapter will present the results of these analyses, and the final chapter will present a discussion of the findings and their implications.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The study of organizational and employee behavior has a long history in the literature of public administration. Frederick Taylor's (1911) principles of scientific management was one of the first approaches that the field of public administration undertook to address personnel administration. According to Taylor (1911):

in the past the man has been first; in the future the system must be first. This in no sense, however, implies that the great men are not needed. On the contrary, the first objective of any good system must be that of developing first-class men; and under systemic management the best man rises to the top more certainly and more rapidly than ever before (p. 7).

Through a more active role for management in the organization, Taylor and others thought that productivity, efficiency, and effectiveness would become predictable organizational norms. In this light, the role of management was summed up by the acronym POSDCORB: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, reporting, and budgeting (Gulick, 1937). By regulating the relationships between managers and staff, scientific management aimed to control how employees would respond in different situations and create a management structure and environment in which their behavior could be known.

Towards the middle of the 20th century, however, other scholars began to study the motivations of humans and how these motivations could be used in personnel administration. Maslow's (1943) Theory of Human Motivation is well-known in public administration for its hierarchy of human needs, beginning with the fulfillment of psychological needs, moving to safety and love needs, and eventually reaching esteem needs and the need for self-actualization.

In the Theory of Human Motivation, humans aim to meet these needs in order and are not interested in higher level needs until their current level of need is met. At the self-actualization stage, people who are satisfied in these needs are called satisfied people (Maslow, 1943).

Building on this motivational theory, McGregor (1957) concluded that a carrot-and-stick approach to motivation only worked when basic needs had not been met (e.g., physiological and safety). Because employers were in a position to help meet basic needs through wages, benefits, and working conditions, they had more leverage over employees than when higher level needs were sought, i.e. respect and self-fulfillment (McGregor, 1957). Thus, it was not seen to be the role of management to create motivation in employees but rather to “arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts toward organizational objects” (McGregor, 1957, p. 157). Examples of these types of conditions and methods included decentralization and delegation; job enlargement; participation and consultative management; and performance appraisal. Similarly, the motivation-hygiene theory added that there were certain job content factors (motivators) that led to people being satisfied with their work (e.g., achievement, recognition, advancement) and certain job context factors (hygiene factors) that led to people being dissatisfied with their work (e.g., supervision, interpersonal relationships, salary) (Herzberg, 1974).

As a focus on exploring organizational behavior and human motivation grew, especially in the field of industrial psychology, studies tested many of these motivational and hygiene factors in models of the employee turnover process. The literature below explores how some of the findings from these studies appear in the examination of turnover in the fundraising profession. While some academic work is available in this area, many contemporary findings

come from practitioners. Earlier findings on turnover among fundraisers date back to the 1980s, and it appears that a renewed interest in the topic has emerged within the last couple of years.

Turnover in the Fundraising Profession

Frequent turnover in the fundraising profession occurs within the sector of our country that already experiences the highest level of turnover of any sector (Cappelli, 2005). However, high turnover in the nonprofit sector is not unique to the United States. Research in the UK showed that turnover in the not-for-profit sector there was at 20 % and rising (Alatrasta & Arrowsmith, 2004). Authors attributed this turnover to factors associated with nonprofit work such as job insecurity, lack of career development opportunities, and low pay. Adding another layer to these specific job-related factors were specific sector-related factors, such as small organization size, higher educational qualifications, a large percentage of female workers, and a huge proportion of part-time, temporary, and/or unpaid workers.

Some of the earliest studies on turnover in the fundraising field originated in the academic arena. Carbone (1987) found that 84% of educational fundraisers had been in their current position for five years or less and 70% had been in those positions for three years or less. Twenty percent of respondents reported seeking employment in a different position at the time of the study, with the reasons given including wanting a higher salary, seeking more responsibility, and desiring a greater challenge. In a second study, Carbone (1989) found that “fund raisers do not generally seem committed to fund raising as a career or to identify with it as a unique subculture” and that “fund raisers value giving service but also identify salary and material rewards as major incentives” (p. 22). Research by the Council for the Advancement and Support of Education (CASE) supported the earlier findings of Carbone (1987), concluding that the turnover rate for advancement professionals was 17.3%--about 50% higher than other areas of

educational administration (Thomas, 1987). Similarly, a survey of higher education fundraisers around this same time found that 22% of chief development officers and alumni directors left their job every year with an average tenure of 4.6 years (Mooney, 1993).

It was not until the mid-1990s that researchers conducted the first in-depth study on turnover in the fundraising field. Based on a 1996 mail survey of more than 1,700 individual fundraisers, and in-depth interviews with 82 of them, researchers found that most participants believed that the rate of turnover in their profession was a problem and that “high turnover is a reflection of fund raisers having more commitment to personal achievement than to their organizations” (Duronio and Tempel, 1997, p. 56). The authors concluded, however, that the data suggested turnover in the field appeared related to the rapid growth of the nonprofit sector in general, and the job openings that this had created for fundraisers, rather than the opportunistic nature of fundraisers. It was predicted that as growth stabilized in the sector so too would the turnover rate. The authors strongly urged fellow fundraisers to allow their colleagues opportunities to advance their career without the perception that changing jobs was necessarily self-serving.

Recently, other national surveys of fundraisers gained attention in the press for their findings. A survey in 2013 of more than 1,100 fundraisers found the average time someone stayed in a fundraising position was 16 months (Burk, 2013). The research estimated that the impact of replacing a senior level fundraising manager was over \$950,000 when taking into consideration the direct costs of advertising the position; salary increases and training for a new hire; support for those who remain with the organization; and a decrease in revenue raised during the transition period by the person leaving and the rest of the development staff (educational institutions accounted for over half of the organizations in which survey participants worked

during the time of the study, and therefore organizational size should be taken into consideration when analyzing the projected loss of revenue). For a non-management fundraising staff member, the study estimated turnover costs to be just under \$50,000. Results showed that 34% of respondents planned to leave their jobs, with one-third of those planning to leave the field of fundraising altogether. As for perceptions about turnover in the field, 90% of development directors responded that turnover was a problem for their organization (Burk, 2013).

This same research showed that obtaining a higher salary was the number one reason fundraisers gave for leaving their last job, and of the respondents currently thinking about leaving their position at the time of the study, 64% listed better pay as one of their top reasons for wanting to leave (Burk, 2013). One of the interesting aspects of the salary conundrum is that 70% of the fundraisers who did participate in the survey reported that their current salary was “generous” or that they were being “adequately paid” (Burk, 2013, p. 135). In addition to pay, fundraisers cited the following reasons for leaving their last position: unrealistic timeframe for meeting fundraising goals; lack of direction on how funds would be used; the attitude of “having to have the money now;” insufficient fundraising budgets; additional responsibilities beyond fundraising; resistance to innovation in the organization; and resistance to adopting better fundraising strategies (Burk, 2013, p. 101). On the other hand, they provided these reasons for deciding to stay with an organization: an inclusive environment that allows them to participate in strategic decision-making; positive relationships with co-workers; positive relationships with their boss; positive attitude of management towards fundraising; and having the same cultural background as donors or co-workers (Burk, 2013, p. 103).

Another survey of Chief Development Officers and Chief Executive Officers that year found that unrealistic expectations from management were the primary reason for turnover, with other

factors cited as lack of sufficient resources and strained cooperation among development officers, their CEOs, and the Board (Campbell & Company, 2013). Of those surveyed, 28% reported that a lack of understanding of development was the reason for their most recent departure. During this period, a qualitative study of turnover in nonprofit organizations showed that development and information technology were the two departments in nonprofits with the most turnover (Ban, Drahnak-Faller, & Towers, 2013). According to one of the study's respondents, turnover in development was to be expected as development professionals "go from smaller nonprofits to larger nonprofits to foundations" (p. 141). What this respondent is alluding to is the need for those in the fundraising profession to change organizations in order to move up the career ladder. In other words, because many nonprofit organizations are small, employees must leave in order to obtain a higher level position.

Most recently, and serving as the data source for this study, is the Bell and Cornelius (2013) report, *UnderDeveloped*, that uncovered that over half of development directors surveyed had plans to leave their current position within two years. This study spoke about a "vicious cycle" of turnover in which development directors leave due to a culture that does not respect the profession; when the development director leaves, relationships must be rebuilt with donors; and because relationships must be rebuilt, it is harder to attract well-qualified candidates to take on this task (Bell & Cornelius, 2013). When *UnderDeveloped* was released, many in the field commented on its findings. Joyaux (2013) blogged that:

...the research *Underdeveloped* isn't a surprise to anyone that I've spoken with. The research isn't a surprise to the trade publications, to fundraisers, to consultants. So why haven't we fixed it yet? I'm not sure why. Seems too big a problem? Not really. Laziness? Maybe we're focused too much on getting quick money for mission rather than making changes required to raise money over time. I think one big problem is because too many people—in particular bosses and boards—don't believe there is a body of knowledge. Yet, there is. And being ignorant of it is a self-inflicted wound that slowly kills (p. 1).

In similar response, the blog, *The Agitator*, asked readers, after the release of *UnderDeveloped*, which statement best described how fundraising plans were incorporated into their organization, with 58% choosing the response, “here’s what we need...go raise it.” Responses such as these reflect a sense among fundraising professionals that they are not supported by their organizations. Ruth McCambridge (2013) wrote that the most important call to action in the report was “the need for nonprofits to shift their mental models on development.” She elaborated by explaining the challenge of executive directors and board members perhaps not enjoying the functions of fundraising, and as a result, placing the pressure for raising money for an entire organization on the shoulders of just one person. By doing so, they are ensuring failure for their fundraising operations, and McCambridge (2013) likened ignoring this problem to a business ignoring problems of pricing, marketing, and competition.

In sum, while just a few studies of turnover in the fundraising profession exist, numerous reasons are offered through this research for why fundraisers leave their jobs. Carbone (1987) found that fundraisers leave to obtain higher salaries, more responsibility, and greater challenge. He also noted a lack of career commitment among fundraising professionals and a sense that while they valued their service-oriented work, they also valued monetary rewards (Carbone, 1989). More recent practitioner research expanded the list of variables attributed to fundraising turnover. Burk (2013) differentiated the factors that influence a fundraiser’s decision to leave an organization (e.g., higher salary, unrealistic timeframe for meeting goals, insufficient budgets, resistance to better fundraising strategies) from a fundraiser’s decision to stay with an organization (e.g., inclusive environments that allow for participation in decision-making, positive relationships with coworkers and bosses, and a positive attitude of management towards fundraising). Campbell & Company (2013) also noted unrealistic expectations, lack of sufficient

resources, strained cooperation, and a lack of understanding of development among the reasons that fundraisers give for leaving their jobs.

It is clear that research using statistical analysis to explore the variables that may be predictive of turnover in the fundraising profession is needed to better understand the findings from these studies and perhaps narrow down the number of variables associated with turnover intentions. To ground and give context to the discussion on turnover in the fundraising profession, this study first turns to a broader look at turnover. Delving into the history of turnover literature and the development of turnover causal models provides a solid base from which to advance an approach to understanding turnover among fundraisers. Following this history is a closer look at particular theories relevant to understanding turnover in this field: person-organization and person-job fit as well as exchange relationships as explored through the theories of perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange. Given the role that job satisfaction plays in turnover research, it is also included as a variable to explore.

The History of Turnover Research and Modeling

During the scientific management movement, researchers thought employee behavior to be fairly predictable given certain controls (Taylor, 1911). This movement did, however, emphasize a need for dedicated staff within an organization to oversee personnel administration (Cornog, 1957). The 1917 Third Conference of Employment Managers in Philadelphia was in fact devoted entirely to the study of turnover, though conclusions were that there were a “bewildering list of variables” affecting the turnover process (Cornog, 1957, p. 249). Two years after this conference, Slichter (1919) published his work, *The Turnover of Factory Labor*, in Germany. This research focused mainly on the reduction in costs and increased efficiency for organizations that can be obtained through minimizing turnover.

While many scholars continued to write about the scientific management process, others during the early- to mid-1900s explored employee behaviors and attitudes. One of the most influential studies of human behavior was the Hawthorne experiments conducted by Mayo and Roethlisberger through the Harvard Business School. These professors studied employee behavior at Western Electric over a nine year period through observations, performance reviews, and interviews. Their work generated much interest in and study of the relationships between employees and their employers and how employees could be motivated (Anteby & Khurana, 2012). Other work, using employee attitude surveys, also appeared at this time. Research using an attitude scale to study over 4,400 employees in a manufacturing company concluded that organizations could modify employees' attitudes through organizational practices such as training programs and opportunities for employee representation (Uhrbrock, 1934). Studies of employee behaviors and attitudes contributed to the burgeoning field of industrial psychology, which Kornhauser (1947) viewed as both a management technique and a social science. While this approach to comprehending relationships between employees and organizations gained popularity, it really was not until World War II that studies fully incorporated this research into our understanding of the turnover process (Brayfield and Crockett, 1955).

Origins of Modern Day Turnover Studies. The seminal literature on employee turnover that many of today's studies are based on began with March and Simon's 1958 book, *Organizations*, in which the authors made an argument for why employee's attitudes towards their jobs should be a major factor in studying turnover. They also explored the idea of an employee's decision to continue working for an organization as an exchange between an employee's contributions and inducements, and stated that "equilibrium reflects the organization's success in arranging payments to its participants adequate to motivate their

continued participation” (March & Simon, 1958, p. 83). Furthermore, the research suggested that employee turnover was the result of an employee’s perceptions about the desirability and ease of movement gained from knowledge about other job alternatives.

Research on employee behavior and attitudes proved helpful in beginning to understand turnover in the workplace, but the vibrant field of research on turnover had just begun to take flight, and there were still many questions unanswered about the specific factors that could be significantly correlated with the turnover process. Thus, during the 1970s, researchers explored additional factors associated with turnover. One study illustrated just how many factors were associated with turnover during this time, finding significance in the turnover process for: organization-wide factors (e.g., pay, promotional opportunities); immediate work environment factors (e.g., supervision, coworker relationships); job-related factors (e.g., job requirements); and personal factors (e.g., age, tenure) (Porter & Steers, 1973). It was also at this time that researchers studied organizational commitment in the turnover process and found it to be a better predictor of turnover than components of job satisfaction (Porter, Steers, and Mowday, 1974; Marsh & Mannari, 1997). Other studies considered external forces, such as changes in the labor market (Woodward, 1975; Armknecht & Early, 1972) and financial and family obligations (Flower & Hughes, 1973) as well as company tenure and intent to remain (Waters, Roach, and Waters, 1976).

Causal Modeling. To better understand how these multitude of factors contributed to the employee turnover process, researchers popularized causal modeling of turnover in the academic literature. These models had, on average, job satisfaction variables only accounting for 16% of the variance observed (Mobley et al, 1979, p. 495). Therefore, models of employee turnover that included mediating variables became particularly prevalent in the field to further explore

intermediate linkages between job satisfaction and turnover as suggested by Mobley (1977) and Mobley et al. (1978). Mobley et al.'s (1978) model demonstrated that dissatisfaction and the likelihood of finding another job contributed to an employee's thoughts of quitting among hospital employees. These thoughts then led to an intention to search for an alternative job, with the intention being stronger when job satisfaction was low and when the employee was younger and had been in the position a fewer number of years. Further research reaffirmed this model through a study that cross-validated the results and found that job satisfaction and career mobility (age, tenure, and job opportunities) influenced turnover only through withdrawal cognitions (intentions to quit, search for a job, and thoughts of quitting) (Miller, Katerberg, and Hulin, 1979). Other research found that pay, integration, instrumental communication, and formal communication positively impacted satisfaction, and satisfaction then impacted turnover as a mediating variable (Price, 1977).

While these causal models (Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al. 1978; and Price, 1977) proposed a way to better understand the full process of turnover, they did very little to diminish the number of factors found to have an impact on turnover, leaving researchers to suggest that the number of variables studied was just as "bewildering" as the researchers in the early 1900s found them to be (Cornog, 1957). Hence, Mobley et al. (1979) continued to explore emerging turnover models, distinguishing between present-oriented satisfaction (regarding an employee's current job) and future-oriented satisfaction (regarding an employee's attraction and expected utility of an alternative job); including nonwork values and nonwork consequences of turnover, as well as contractual constraints; and calling for "integrative, multivariate longitudinal research" (p. 520). Researchers answered this call and continued their work exploring ways to enhance the predictive capabilities of these turnover models.

Testing and Refining Models. Much of the model testing of the late 1970s and early 1980s focused on the work of Mobley et al. (1977, 1978, 1979). Just a few of these studies are listed here chronologically as an overview of the extensive research being conducted on the turnover process at this time:

- An extension of the Mobley et al. (1978) model found that job satisfaction and career mobility only impacted turnover through withdrawal cognitions—turnover intention and thoughts of quitting—in a study of members of the National Guard (Miller, Katerberg & Hulin, 1979).
- A test of the Mobley et al. (1978) model found that intentions to quit were indeed significant, as was tenure, in predicting actual turnover (Mitchell, 1981). Having noted the lack of research on managerial level employees, this study incorporated managers and blue collar workers into the research, and found that withdrawal intentions were correlated with actual turnover for both populations.
- Path analysis was used to test the Mobley et al. (1979) model with results mostly consistent with prior research. One difference the study found is that alternative employment opportunities did not add value to the model as a direct cause of intention to quit or turnover or as a moderator (Michaels and Spector, 1982).
- A retest of the Mobley (1977) model with two samples of hospital and clerical employees found generally consistent results except for commitment to the organization, which was not cross-validated between samples. The research also found that the best predictor of turnover was intention to stay in the organization and that the influence of organizational commitment on turnover was indirect through its impact on withdrawal cognitions (Mowday, Koberg, and McArthur, 1984).

- A test of the Mobley et al. (1978) model, using the same sample as the original study, found support for the following hypotheses: 1) age has an indirect effect on turnover through job satisfaction; 2) job satisfaction has an indirect effect on turnover through withdrawal cognitions; and 3) intention to quit is the immediate precursor of turnover (Dalessio, Silverman, & Schuck, 1986).

Turnover Models in the 1990s. As evidenced in the literature listed above, by the mid-1980s, there still was no research that could point to a *limited* number of variables influential in the turnover process. By the time that Cotton and Tuttle (1986) conducted a meta-analysis of the turnover literature, the research uncovered that almost all of the 26 variables studied were in some way related to turnover. With no firm conclusions about employee turnover, a recommendation for further research involving model testing was put forth.

One suggestion for a new model originated from Mueller and Price (1990), who advocated for an integrated explanatory model that incorporated perspectives from economists, psychologists, and sociologists. The authors suggested building on the strengths of each body of knowledge: economic models view turnover as the result of a rational cost-benefit analysis and take into consideration variables such as pay, the job market, and training; psychology models focus on employee orientations and the expectations employee have about how their employer should treat them, taking into consideration the commitment literature; and sociology models concentrate on the structural conditions of the work environment, inclusive of the nature of the work and distribution of power within an organization (Mueller & Price, 1990). This study stressed that turnover models that did not include each of these three perspectives were incomplete.

Another new model—Lee and Mitchell’s (1994) unfolding model of turnover—became one of the most well-known and tested models developed in the 1990s. The authors proposed that the process of turnover was modeled through four decision paths—shock to the system and a memory probe resulting in a match (script-driven decision); a shock to the system, no match, and no specific job alternative (push decision); a shock to the system, no match and presence of specific job alternatives (pull decision); or no shock to the system (affect initiated). The study defined a shock as “a very distinguishable event that jars employees toward deliberate judgments about their jobs and, perhaps, to voluntarily quit their job. A shock is an event that generates information or has meaning about a person's job” (p. 60). Each of the decision paths incorporated a distinctive foci, psychological processes, and external events. Pull decisions tend to be based on job alternatives while push decisions focus more on job-related attitudes. This research led to new paths of analysis in turnover, outside of employee behaviors and attitudes and work and job conditions.

21st Century Turnover Models. Realizing that while the literature had taken a turn from simple job satisfaction models to the nonattitudinal causes of turnover, causal mechanisms remained ambiguous at the turn of the 21st century. Researchers continued to propose additional models, including Steel (2002), who based his model on the search process being a series of decision stages. To understand turnover, the study stated, one must know where an employee is in the decision process. This study found that current turnover models had a problem of fit between research practices and the actual decision stages employees go through in the turnover process. Maertz and Griffeth (2004) and Maertz and Campion (2004) also contributed new models to the literature. Maertz and Griffeth (2004) proposed a framework that included eight motives or forces behind turnover decisions: affective, calculative, contractual, behavioral,

alternative, normative, moral/ethical, and constituent. Maertz and Campion (2004), including in their sample employees from a multitude of organizations from different sectors, added to this framework by incorporating into these eight motives a classification of leavers based on whether they were impulsive quitters, comparison quitters, preplanned quitters, or conditional quitters. This research brought together the literature of content models that focused on *why* people quit and the literature of process models that focused on *how* people quit.

The idea of job embeddedness was also introduced at this time (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001; Mitchell and Lee, 2002), furthering prior research on the unfolding model of voluntary turnover. Job embeddedness has three dimensions that can lead to an employee deciding to remain with an organization: their relationships with other people; their fit with their job and within their community; and the sacrifices they feel they would have to make if they left their job (Mitchell and Lee, 2002). In testing the job embeddedness construct, Crossley, Bennett, Jex, and Burnfield (2007) found that job embeddedness predicted the turnover of employees at an assisted living organization better than the job attitude variables found in earlier models of turnover. The research also discovered that job embeddedness interacted with job satisfaction in its prediction of turnover and proposed that the job embeddedness construct was more powerful than the predictive value it was given in the unfolding model of turnover in which it originated.

The Future of Turnover Research. With these new models continuing to emerge, Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, and Eberly (2008) took the opportunity to review and uncover the following trends from the past decade of turnover research: 1) new individual difference predictions of turnover (e.g. personality, motivating forces); 2) increased emphasis on contextual variables with an emphasis on interpersonal relationships (e.g., leader-member exchange,

interpersonal citizenship behaviors); 3) enhanced focus on factors looking specifically at staying (e.g., organizational commitment and job embeddedness); and 4) dynamic modeling of turnover processes with the consideration of time (e.g., changes in job satisfaction). Based on these trends, Holtom et al.'s (2008) review concluded that the next decade of turnover research would include studies of how social networks influence turnover, the differences across cultures, the temporal aspects of the turnover process, the consequences of turnover for organizations, multi-level investigations of turnover, and other types of withdrawal, such as retirement. They also stated that "future scholarship may be well advised to focus more attention on *what* it is that people are in fact leaving and *what* people are choosing to stay with" (p. 264).

Accordingly, the research proposed here further explores some of the newer facets of turnover, specifically looking at the relationships that employees form with people inside their organization as well as the organization itself. Examining perceived person-organization fit (P-O fit), perceived person-job fit (P-J fit), and exchange relationships, the variables that may be predictive of the turnover intentions of nonprofit fundraising professionals will be tested using multiple regression analysis. To incorporate research from earlier work on turnover, job satisfaction will also be included. A further look at these variables is now provided.

Relational Aspects of Turnover. Maertz and Griffeth (2004) stated,

Over the last half century, turnover researchers have identified a dizzying array of antecedent variables that are scattered throughout the turnover and work attitude literatures...unfortunately though, there is no overarching framework available for researchers and practitioners hoping to comprehensively grasp the motivations for staying and leaving an organization. Although predictive models abound, gaps in theory remain. (p. 667)

Recent turnover literature considers antecedents of turnover beyond the typical job attitudes and job alternative models that proved fruitful, but not concise. Specifically, the relationships that

employees develop with their coworkers, supervisors, and the organization itself are increasingly taken into consideration. The Maertz & Griffeth (2004) framework of turnover utilizing eight motivational forces included constituent forces as a way to understand the attachments that employees formed with their coworkers, or other groups within the organization, and affective forces described the emotional attachments that the employee had with the organization. As noted in the review of turnover models, much of the newer research on the relational aspects of turnover stems from Lee and Mitchell's (1994) unfolding model of voluntary turnover, in which paths to turnover were not necessarily caused by job dissatisfaction. Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, and Erez's (2001) and Mitchell and Lee's (2002) construct of job embeddedness also plays a large role in this research as embeddedness considers the links that employees have with others, the fit between the employee and the organization, and the sacrifices that will be made upon leaving.

The attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework provides context for exploring the relational aspects of employment as well, emphasizing that "people make the place" (Schneider's, 1987). In other words, the way that organizations operate is a direct result of the characteristics of the employees they attract and hire. This framework highlights the importance of goals, as it is goals that people are attracted to, and goals that cause people to leave if they find they do not fit in the organization (Schneider, 1987). In an update on the ASA framework, Schneider, Goldstein, and Smith (1995) emphasized the ASA framework, alongside person-organization fit, (Chatman, 1989, 1991; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991) as a way for researchers to explore the interaction of individual and organizational theories. As Schneider et al. (1995) noted, however, the ASA framework focuses on organizational behavior, while the person-organization fit model is based on individual behavior in which employees are less likely

to leave an organization if their values match the values of an organization (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991).

In the public sector, the ASA framework contributed to the understanding of a public service motivation, first defined as “an individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations” (Perry and Wise, 1990). Within the ASA framework, public organizations attract, and often select, individuals motivated by characteristics associated with public service, which are assumed to include “civic duty and compassion” as well as “the purpose of doing good for others and society” (Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010, p. 682). Once hired, those individuals make decisions about continued commitment to the organization based on its ability to uphold these characteristics. The study of public service motivation is also applied to the nonprofit sector, specifically through the idea of mission attachment. Wright (2007) found that employees’ attachment to an organization’s mission positively influenced their work motivation as they attached increasing importance to their assigned tasks. Public service motivation may not be limited to these two sectors, however. In a study of person-organization and person-job fit, Christensen and Wright (2011) found that it may, in fact, be person-job fit that is more applicable to public service motivation than person-organization fit as it is service to others that is most important in this construct. Service can be provided in the for-profit sector through pro bono work in addition to the non-profit and public sectors where individuals are working directly with clients every day. Rose (2012) also found that with Millennials, public service motivation may be more applicable to the nonprofit sector as the younger generation most often sees this sector as providing employment that is of service to others rather than the public sector for which many have lost trust. Thus, in a modified version of Perry’s Public Service Motivation Scale, Word and Carpenter (2013) showed that

those working in the nonprofit sector, often seen as part of the “new public service,” are motivated through intrinsic rewards similar to those in the public sector. With both the ASA Framework and the theory of Public Service Motivation based on the fit that employees have with their jobs and their organizations, the discussion now turns to these constructs.

Perceived Person-Job and Person-Organization Fit

A review of the person-environment fit (P-E fit) literature defines the concept as the “congruence, match, or similarity between the person and environment” (Edwards, 2008, p. 168). Under this broad concept, there are studies of fit between people and vocations (person-vocation fit); people and organizations (person-organization fit); people and jobs (person-job fit), people and groups (person-group fit), and people and supervisors (person-supervisor fit). The history of studies on various person-environment fit constructs typically dates back to Parsons (1909) and his work on the fit between people and vocations. Subsequent studies included the need-press model (Murray, 1938, 1951) and Lewin’s (1935, 1951) theory that behavior is a function of the person and environment. In the present study, the theories of P-J fit and P-O fit are considered.

In a literature review of person-job fit (P-J fit), Edwards (1991) explored studies where person-job fit impacted job satisfaction, motivation, job stress, and vocational choice. The review identified two constructs within these relationships—an organization’s ability to meet the desires of employees (e.g., needs, goals, values) and an employee’s abilities to meet the demands of the organization (e.g. work load, job performance). To define P-J fit, a popular definition conceptualizes it “narrowly as the relationship between a person’s characteristics and those of the job or tasks that are performed at work” (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005, p. 284). In terms of the study of turnover, one review of P-J fit found a .56 correlation with job

satisfaction, .47 with organizational commitment, and -.46 with intent to quit (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005).

As for perceived person-organization fit (P-O fit), Kristof (1996) explained that “most researchers broadly define P-O fit as the compatibility between individuals and organizations” (p. 3). However, P-O fit has multiple conceptualizations: supplementary fit (employee is similar to others in organization); complementary fit (employee adds to what others at organization have); needs-supplies fit (organization able meet the needs of employees); and demands-abilities fit (individual able to meet the needs of the employer). Hence, a revised definition of P-O fit put is “the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both” (Kristof, 1996, p. 4). In the present study, supplementary fit is the focus as it most often is defined by the value congruence between the employee and the organization (Chatman, 1989).

Research found that new employees whose values match those of their organization adjust to organizational life quickly, feel more satisfied at work, and intend to remain with the organization longer than employees whose values do not match those of the organization upon hire (Chatman, 1991). Further studies expanded this idea by exploring the role that culture plays directly on employees’ relationships with organizations (O’Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). Focusing on the idea of values in organizational culture, one study found that high P-O fit when an employee was hired by an organization was associated with a lower intent to leave the organization a year later (O’Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). Furthermore, P-O fit was predictive of actual turnover two years later. Other research found evidence for the validity of assessing P-O fit based on value congruency (O’Reilly et al., 1991). In a replication of this study, findings revealed that value congruence between employees’ preferred values and those of

the organization were predictive of employees remaining with the organization one year after the measurement was taken (Vandenberghe, 1999).

As for the measurement of P-O fit, there are noted difference between direct and indirect measures. In direct measurements, employees are asked if they perceive there to be a good fit between themselves and the organization. In indirect measures, assessments of the individual and organization determine whether fit exists. Consequently, unlike actual fit, perceived fit is an attitude, and should have significant correlations with other attitudes, such as satisfaction, commitment, and intent to leave (Kristof, 1996). Kristof, Zimmerman, and Johnson (2005) stated that “perceived fit allows the greatest level of cognitive manipulation because the assessment is all done in the head of the respondents, allowing them to apply their own weighting scheme to various aspects of the environment” (p. 291).

Accordingly, one study found that P-O fit perceptions predicted job choice decisions and work attitudes and stated a need for more research on subjective P-O fit as there was a clear lack of research available on the construct (Cable & Judge, 1996). The study referenced Schneider’s (1987) ASA framework in the explanation of job seekers basing perceptions of P-O fit on organizational values and making their decisions about employment in regards to these perceptions. This particular research on P-O fit and P-J fit used single items measures. The perceived P-O fit measure resulted from the question: to what degree do you feel your values match or fit this organization and the current employees in this organization? The perceived P-J fit measure resulted from the question: to what degree do you believe your skills and abilities match those required by the job? The study showed perceived P-O fit related to work attitudes while perceived P-J fit significantly predicted job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The

authors asserted that their work provided evidence of P-O and P-J as separate constructs (Cable and Judge, 1996).

Another study of perceived fit explored the longitudinal relationships between perceived fit, job information sources, and work outcomes. It found perceptions of P-J fit positively correlated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational identification while they negatively correlated with stress and intentions to quit (Saks and Ashfort, 1997). Perceptions of P-O fit negatively correlated with intentions to quit and turnover in the study (Saks and Ashfort, 1997). The study assessed perceptions of both P-O fit and P-J fit by asking one question for each type of fit as the authors did not want to bias the participants' definitions of fit with a multiple item scale. To test the validity of these single item measures, they conducted a second questionnaire with a different group, offering two 4-item scales. Confirmatory factor analysis resulted in acceptable levels of fit for the 2-factor model; the two items loaded highly on their respective scales; and the two items were highly correlated with their respective scales. As in the Cable and Judge (1996) study, the authors presented their findings as evidence of P-O fit and P-J fit being separate constructs.

Several studies of P-O fit exist within the literature on the nonprofit sector. To assess fit, researchers often study value congruence in the nonprofit sector through the concept of "mission." In Brown & Yoshioka's (2003) study they stated that "increasingly, mission statements are recognized as a strong management tool that can motivate employees and keep them focused on the organization's purpose...a mission statement helps define an organization, expressing its values and envisioning its future" (p. 5). Taking into consideration prior research on the fit between employees and organizational values being able to predict commitment and satisfaction, these authors hypothesized that employees who had positive attitudes towards their

organization's mission statement would be more likely to have plans to remain with that organization. The study found that while nonprofit employees did express positive attitudes towards their organization's mission, and these attitudes were correlated with intentions to remain with the organization, dissatisfaction with pay moderated this relationship. Thus, while mission may play a role in retaining employees, mission attachment may not be strong enough to prevent intentions to leave. In a follow-up study, Kim and Lee (2007) retested these findings and found consistent results—the nonprofit employees in their study showed positive attitudes towards their organizations' missions but dissatisfaction with pay and career advancement moderated the relationship between mission attachment and retention. Other studies (e.g., Light, 2002; Mesch, Tschirhart, Perry, & Lee, 1998) document the relationship between low pay and intention to leave in the nonprofit sector, describing why mission alone might not be enough to retain a qualified workforce.

Research by Moynihan & Pandey (2007) also assessed the importance of value congruence on turnover intentions as a measure of person-organization fit. The authors posited that employees may be intrinsically motivated to work for an organization that aligns with their values, and given that their study included nonprofit and public organizations, they took into consideration public service motivation (focusing on individual values) and the mission and goals of the organization (focusing on organizational values). The study found support for P-O fit and job satisfaction having a negative effect on turnover (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007). In the UK charity sector, research examining values and commitment found that perceptions of organizational values impacted commitment the most (Stride & Higgs, 2014). Actual staff values and organizational values only had a degree of effect in one of the organizations studied. Stride and Higgins (2014) noted a lack of research overall on the role that values play in

nonprofit employee commitment even though values are assumed to be one of the motivating factors for nonprofit employees. They also stated that their findings challenged the traditional notions of actual fit impacting commitment as it is perceived fit in this study that had the most impact. While mission statements are perceived then to represent the values of an organization, and values are thought to play a large role in employee retention (Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979; Chatman, 1991; Vandenberghe, 1999), it is clear that more research is needed to fully unpack this relationship.

Based on the theories of perceived P-J and P-O fit, I propose that:

Hypothesis 1: Perceived person-job fit will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Corresponding survey question: 22) to what extent do you agree with the following statements? (Scale is strongly disagree to strongly agree)

My position is a good match for me in terms of my abilities

Hypothesis 2: Perceived person-organization fit will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Corresponding survey question: 22) to what extent do you agree with the following statements? (Scale is strongly disagree to strongly agree)

My organization is a good match for me in terms of its organizational culture (individuals' collective behavior, values, beliefs, norms, working language, systems)

Hypothesis 3: Passion about an organization's mission will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Corresponding survey question: 22) to what extent do you agree with the following statements? (Scale is strongly disagree to strongly agree)

I am passionate about my organization's mission and field of work

Exchange Relationships

This study also explores exchange relationships, through the theories of perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived leader-member exchange (LMX). This line of research originates from Gouldner's (1960) work on the norm of reciprocity and Blau's (1964)

theory of social exchange. Both theories appear in the literature on organizational commitment and turnover (i.e. Hom, Tsui, Wu, Lee, Zhang, Fu, & Li, 2009) to explain employees' relationships with those they work with and the organizations for which they work. According to Gouldner (1960), "(1) people should help those who have helped them, and (2) people should not injure those who have helped them" (p. 171). Likewise, Blau (1964) stated, "a person for whom another has done a service is expected to express his gratitude and return a service when the occasion rises" (p. 4). Therefore, in a work setting, it is theorized that employees make decisions about their commitment to an organization based on how they feel they are treated by their supervisors and/or the organization itself. Settoon, Bennett, and Liden (1996) examined these exchanges between employees and supervisors and employees and the organization and found that POS more strongly correlated with organizational commitment than LMX, but that LMX more strongly correlated with citizenship than POS. The sections below further discuss the theories of POS and LMX.

Perceived Organizational Support. In 1965, Levinson wrote that, "the concept of reciprocation, which focuses attention on the relationship between a man and the organization for which he works...explains the psychological meaning of the organization to the man and vice versa, an area so far almost untouched by psychological investigation in industry" (p. 370). The study of POS led to a more developed understanding of this relationship, and research is now readily available about POS and its effects on employee commitment and turnover. Based in organizational support theory, POS finds that employees develop global beliefs about how their organizations value and care about them and this perception influences withdrawal behaviors (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa, 1986). Recent arguments suggest that employees distinguish between support offered by their organization and support received from

their supervisor, and for this reason, a separate construct, perceived supervisor support (PSS), should be used to analyze the effects of the employee-supervisor relationship while POS should be used to analyze the employee-organization relationship (Kotke & Sharafinski, 1988).

In a three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment, researchers considered the desire, need, and obligation that an employee felt to remain with his/her current place of employment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Through exchange relationships and POS, these desires, needs, and obligations originate from employees' feelings about how they are valued and treated by their organizations. In one study comparing POS and organizational commitment, authors found POS as the best predictor of organizational citizenship, providing further evidence for the theory that positive levels of POS cause employees to feel obligated to remain with their organization (Shore & Wayne, 1993). A more recent study, testing the POS construct, found a mean corrected correlation of $-.51$ between POS and turnover intention and a mean corrected correlation of $-.11$ between POS and turnover behavior (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

As for the differentiation between POS and PSS, Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, and Allen (2007) reported their study as the first to show that POS and PSS significantly related to turnover with the inclusion of perceived desirability and ease of movement included as antecedents in the model. Additionally, they found the POS-turnover relationship stronger when PSS was low. Thus, when PSS was high, POS was less predictive of turnover. When PSS was low, employees relied more on organizational support (Maertz et al., 2007). Their study contributed to the separation of the POS and PSS constructs, having found that these constructs played different roles in employee commitment to organizations as employees differentiated between support received from their supervisor and support from the organization itself. The authors suggested that because turnover research had yet to reveal variables that could account for great variance in

turnover, additional variables such as POS and PSS were necessary to better understand the turnover process.

Other research focused on the factors that could lead to high or low levels of POS. In a study of supportive HR practices in the turnover process, results showed that participation in decision making, fairness of rewards, and growth opportunities all contributed to the development of POS, which then mediated the relationships between HR practices and organizational commitment as well as HR and job satisfaction (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003). POS was also negatively correlated with withdrawal in the study. In a review of the POS literature, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found the antecedents of POS to be fairness, supervisor support, and organizational rewards and job conditions, such as pay, autonomy, training, etc. As for consequences of POS, the list included organizational commitment, desire to remain with the organization, and withdrawal behavior.

Based on the factors that contribute to POS and factors that may signal to an employee that their organization values and cares about them, I propose that:

Hypothesis 4: Perceived organizational support will be predictive of turnover intentions.

To measure POS, a six-item scale ($\alpha = .81$) was created using the following survey questions:

Corresponding survey question: 22) to what extent do you agree with the following statements? (Scale is strongly disagree to strongly agree)

I am included in organization-wide decisions including strategy and goal setting.

I am generally satisfied with my compensation.

My organization provides me access to opportunities for professional growth.

There is an adequate fund development infrastructure (facilities, technology, systems, etc.) in place for me to be successful.

There are realistic performance goals set for me in my position.

Corresponding survey question: 34) to what extent do you agree with the following statements about your organization generally/as a whole? (Scale is strongly disagree to strongly agree)

My organization values me for my fund development skills, knowledge and expertise.

Perceived Leader-Member Exchange. Another exchange relationship explored in the literature is the theory of leader-member exchange (LMX), which is an approach to understanding leadership through the relationships that leaders have with their subordinates. According to Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995), “the centroid concept of the theory is that effective leadership processes occur when leaders and followers are able to develop mature leadership relationships (partnerships) and gain access to the many benefits these relationships bring” (p. 225). While the measure that they recommended using to analyze LMX was composed of 7 items, the focus item was the question, “how effective is your working relationship with your leader?” Studies consistently find that relationships with people in an organization predict turnover beyond the relationships that people have with the organization itself, and therefore some studies argue for a multiple commitments perspective that takes into consideration the fact that employees are able to process more than one commitment to and within an organization (Reichers, 1985). In a study of the foci of commitment, research found that in addition to commitment to an organization, commitment to top management, supervisor, and work group are related to job satisfaction, intent to quit, and prosocial organizational behaviors (Becker, 1992). This idea is also reinforced through work on job embeddedness, which takes into consideration the links that employees have with other people, teams, and groups in their organization (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001). It builds on the research of Maertz and Griffeth (2005) as well, who identified the role that constituent forces (relationships with coworkers and groups) played in the turnover process, and the research of Maertz, Griffeth,

Campbell, and Allen (2007), which showed that perceived supervisor support (PSS) had separate effects on turnover from perceived organizational support (POS).

Specifically, studies using LMX as a variable in turnover find that it is more accurate in explaining turnover than simply examining leadership style (Graen, Liden, and Hoel, 1982; Ferris, 1985). In a meta-analysis of LMX, however, research showed that LMX had a significant relationship with turnover intentions but not actual turnover (Gerstner & Day, 1997). In other work, authors found that LMX had a nonlinear relationship with turnover, indicating that turnover would be lowest when LMX was moderate (Morrow, Suzuki, Crum, Ruben, & Pautsch, 2005). Additionally, other studies explored job satisfaction as a mediator between LMX and turnover. DeConinck (2009) reported that LMX did influence turnover indirectly through specific types of job satisfaction, specifically supervisor and pay raise satisfaction, while Han and Jekel (2011) found that when LMX and job satisfaction were controlled for, the relationship between LMX and turnover intentions went from being significant to not significant, indicating that job satisfaction did indeed mediate the relationship.

Currently, LMX research incorporates various definitions and measures of the concept that are advocated by different scholars. As a result, research on LMX is ongoing as the concept continues to be refined, and our understanding of how LMX contributes to organizational research also continues (Schriesheim, Castro, and Coglistter, 1999). Work by Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997) and Wayne, Shore, Bomner, and Tetrick (2002) aimed to bolster this understanding of LMX by exploring how it differed from the other component of social exchange, POS. For instance, although both concepts are used to study exchange relationships, Wayne et al. (1997, 2002) found that each construct had separate antecedents and different relationships with employee attitudes and behaviors.

To test for the influences of the exchange relationships between employees and leaders in this study, I propose that:

Hypothesis 5: Perceived leader-member exchange will be predictive of turnover intentions.

To measure perceived LMX, a two-item scale ($\alpha = .86$) was created using the following survey questions:

Corresponding survey question: 16) which of the following statements best describes how you feel about your relationship with the executive director of your organization? (Scale is difficult; functional; exceptional)

Corresponding survey question: 17) which of the following statements best describes how you and the executive director partner in fund development work within the organization? (Scale is no partnership; weak; fair; strong)

Job Satisfaction

Much of the literature on turnover includes job satisfaction as a variable in the turnover process. The employee attitude surveys of the early 20th century began to measure levels of worker satisfaction to analyze how organizations could improve the satisfaction levels of their employees. Hoppock (1935) was one of the earliest researchers of this line of study. Job satisfaction consistently appeared in studies as having a negative relationship with turnover (Vroom, 1964; Porter & Steers, 1973; Waters & Roach, 1973). Employees satisfied in their positions, however, were more likely to be motivated to stay with their organizations longer and have lower rates of absenteeism. A study of air force pilots found that job satisfaction's inverse relationship to turnover and absenteeism rates was one of the only consistent findings of the research (Atchison & Lefferts, 1972).

While research has long considered job satisfaction to be an important factor in the turnover process, it has not accounted for a large effect on turnover decisions (Mobley et al., 1979). Job satisfaction is a consistent predictor of turnover (Porter & Steers, 1973; Waters &

Roach, 1973), but the Mobley (1977) and Mobley et al. (1978) models revealed the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover to be weak to moderate. These models instead suggested intermediate linkages between the two variables, and showed that job satisfaction impacted thoughts of quitting and intentions to search for a new position, but not actual turnover. Further evaluations of the Mobley et al. models confirmed these findings (Miller, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979; Dalessio, Silverman, & Schuck, 1986).

Bannister and Griffeth (1986) also agreed that job satisfaction impacted thoughts of quitting and intentions to search and quit, but they reported that the Mobley et al. (1978) model understated this impact. A meta-analysis confirmed that job satisfaction and commitment both independently contributed to turnover intentions/cognitions and that satisfaction, rather than commitment, more accurately predicted intentions/cognitions (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Relevant to this study, although half of all development directors surveyed by Bell and Cornelius (2013) indicated that they thought they would be in their position for two years or less, almost 72% reported that they were satisfied or very satisfied in their current position. To further explore the impact that job satisfaction may have on the turnover intentions of this population, it will be included in this study along with the relational aspects of fit and exchange relationships.

I propose that:

Hypothesis 6: Overall job satisfaction will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Corresponding survey question: 14) which of the following statements best describes your level of satisfaction in your current fund development position?
(Scale is very satisfied to very dissatisfied)

Turnover Intention as a Dependent Variable

Much of the turnover literature explores the intention to turnover as the dependent variable rather than actual turnover. One reason for the use of intentions is practicality—it is

easier to ask employees of a given organization about their intentions to quit than it is to track down employees who have already left an organization and ask them why they left. Secondly, and perhaps more importantly, research consistently finds turnover intentions to be a reliable, and oftentimes the best, predictor of actual turnover (Waters, Roach, and Waters, 1976; Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978; Price & Mueller, 1981). The Mobley (1977) model firmly established this finding in proposing that after an employee experiences dissatisfaction on the job, the next step in the turnover process is thoughts of quitting, which then lead to an intention to leave the organization, followed by the exploration of alternatives, and then actual departure. A year later, an additional study by Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978) found that intention to quit was the only variable proven to be a significant coefficient with actual turnover. Also, a revised version of the Price (1977) model of turnover, based on the Porters, Steers, and Mowday (1974) research, added “intent to stay” as an intervening variable between job satisfaction and turnover, and found that intent to stay, opportunity, general training, and job satisfaction had the greatest effects on turnover (Price and Mueller, 1981). More recent research confirms that intention to quit is the strongest predictor of actual turnover (Alexander, Lichtenstein, Oh, & Ullman, 1998; Hom and Knicki, 2001), and a meta-analysis uncovered that quit intentions remained the best predictor of actual turnover, except for job search methods (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000).

It is also important to note that there are differences between measuring turnover intention (an attitude/cognition) versus actual turnover (a behavior). The turnover literature makes distinctions between withdrawal cognitions and turnover behavior, which this study will do as well so as to not infer that the research here aims to uncover variables correlated with actual turnover. The aim of the research instead is to better understand why fundraising professionals

may develop intentions to leave their current organizations of employment and/or the field of fundraising.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This study explores the turnover intentions of fundraising professionals at 501(c)(3) public charities in the United States through a secondary data analysis of the Bell & Cornelius (2013) data set used in the report, *UnderDeveloped*. Based on the body of knowledge on turnover intentions and nonprofit employees, multiple regression analysis will examine the variables that may be predictive of turnover intentions to leave a current fundraising position, in the short-term and long-term, as well as intentions to leave the field of fundraising altogether. Subgroup analyses will further explore this topic by looking at results according to fundraisers' gender and race/ethnicity as well as organizational field of interest and regional location.

Data Source

Data for this study comes from survey responses collected for the report, *UnderDeveloped: A National Study of Challenges Facing Nonprofit Fundraising* (Bell & Cornelius, 2013). The study was conducted by CompassPoint Nonprofit Services, located in Oakland, California, which works to build social equity in communities by providing resources to nonprofit leaders, organizations, and networks. The Evelyn & Walter Haas, Jr. Fund in San Francisco, California, was also a partner in this research. This Fund focuses its grantmaking activities in the following areas: expanding opportunities for immigrants to become citizens; equal marriage rights and other protections for gays and lesbians; closing achievement gaps for children and young adults; helping nonprofit leaders gain the skills, knowledge, and abilities needed to lead organizations;

and supporting community partnerships that create opportunities for people from all backgrounds to participate in and enjoy the civic and cultural life of the Bay Area.

A national advisory committee assisted with the development of the survey. Organizations on the advisory committee included the Foundation Center, the Center on Philanthropy at Indiana University, ACLU of Northern California, and the Global Fund for Women. CompassPoint and the Haas, Jr. Fund then worked with 23 partner organizations to administer the survey from May through July 2012 using email, social media, and website placement. The partner organizations were identified based on a mutual concern with CompassPoint and the Haas, Jr. Fund regarding nonprofit leadership and organizational sustainability (Bell & Cornelius, 2013). Partner organizations included the Annenberg Foundation, the Association of Fundraising Professionals, the Annie E. Casey Foundation, the Cameron Foundation (which is in Petersburg, VA), and the David and Lucile Packard Foundation. Given that this is a sample of convenience, the organizations in the data set are under representative of both small nonprofit organizations as well as hospitals, universities, and large national organizations (Bell and Cornelius, 2013). There were 1,852 survey responses, and as the survey was not sent directly to the resulting participants, the response rate of the survey is unknown.

Sample

The participants ($N=1852$) in the Bell & Cornelius (2013) survey do appear representative of the field of fundraisers for which we have data (AFP and CASE members). Most of the participants identified themselves as White (88%) women (79%) between the ages of 35 and 54 years old (55%) who had been in the fundraising profession for ten years or less (51%) and earned a mean salary of \$70,452. To qualify as a survey participant, the fundraiser had to hold the top paid fund development position in the organization. The participants largely

represented organizations with budgets under \$5 million (61%) with 50 employees or less (62%). The locations of these organizations were well represented throughout the country (Midwest—29%; Northeast—15%; South—28%; and West—28%) with the regional breakdown based on the Census Regions defined by the U.S. Census Bureau (see Figure 1). Reported organizational size and sources of revenue for each region are shown in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. The top fields of interest (62%) represented were human services; education; art, culture, and humanities; health; youth development; and environment. Reported organizational size and sources of revenue for each field of interest listed here are shown in Tables 3 and 4, respectively. For reference, public charities, on average, receive 21% of their revenue from contributions and government grants, 73% from program service revenue, and 6% from other sources (NCCS, para 4). A breakdown of the sources of the 21% of public charity revenue that comprises contributions reveals that 72% come from individuals, 16% from foundations, 8% from bequests, and 4% from corporations (NCCS, para 6). The average total organizational revenue of registered public charities is \$5.8 million (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014).

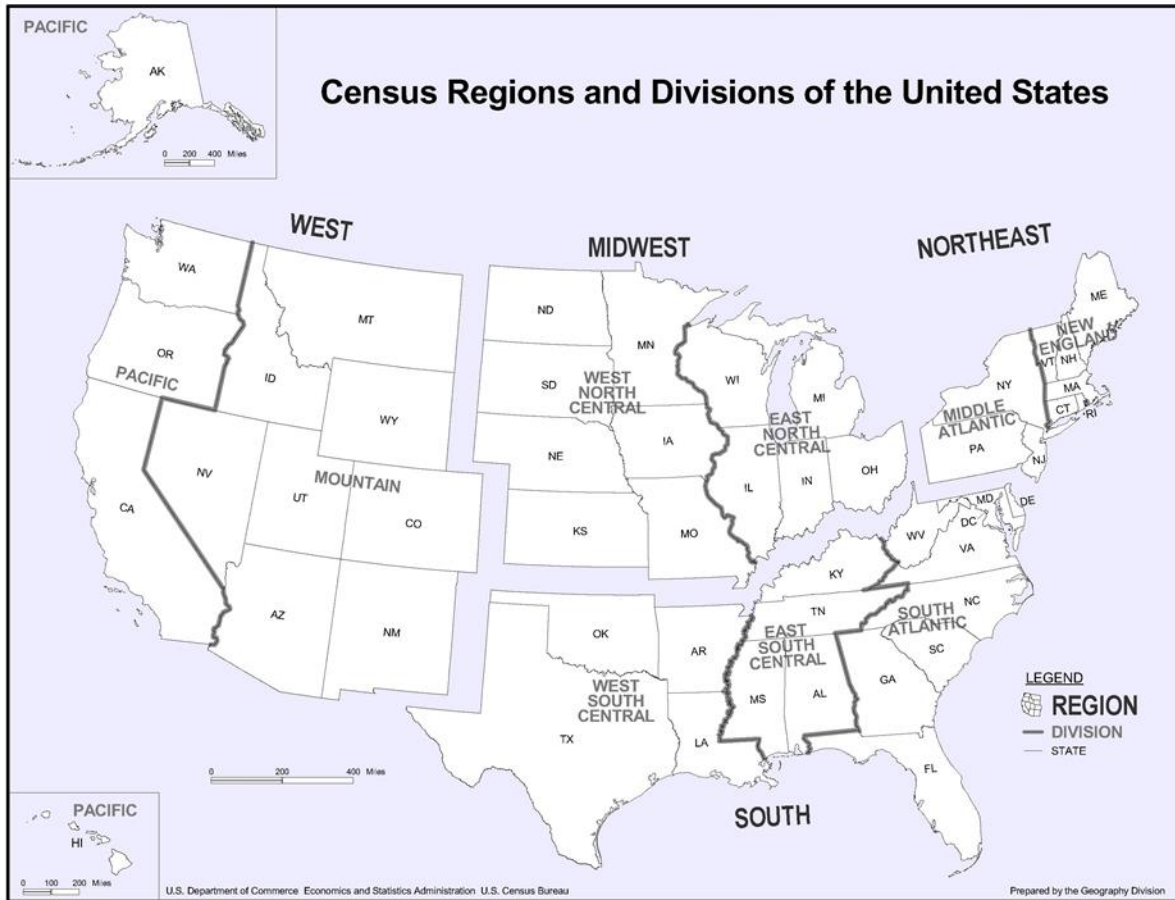


Figure 1. U.S. Census Bureau Census Regions. This map illustrates the states included in each of the four defined Census Regions. Source: U.S. Census Bureau. (2010). Retrieved from https://www.census.gov/geo/reference/gtc/gtc_census_divreg.html.

Table 1

Reported Organizational Size by Region

Variable	Region				All
	Midwest	Northeast	South	West	
Mean Budget Size (dollars in millions)	10.2	12.6	10.0	27.9	15.3
Median Budget Size (dollars in millions)	2.2	3.3	2.2	2.4	2.4
Mean Number FTE	2495	153	83	1655	1187
Median Number FTE	28.0	34.5	20.0	23.0	25.0
Mean Number Fundraisers	3.2	3.2	3.6	3.4	3.4
Median Number Fundraisers	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0

Table 2

Reported Sources of Revenue by Region (Mean % Reported)

Revenue Source	Region				
	Midwest	Northeast	South	West	All
Earned Income (fees, sales/service/program contracts, investment interest, etc.)	32.6	33.8	29.7	29.8	31.4
Membership Specific Earned Income	19.1	15.1	15.1	14.8	15.7
Corporate Donations or Sponsorships	11.9	10.2	14.5	9.4	11.8
Government Contracts	37.1	37.9	35.9	36.3	37.0
Foundation Grants	18.4	20.5	21.7	24.1	21.2
Contributions from Individuals	21.2	18.4	23.0	21.1	21.3
In-Kind Donations	7.2	8.0	7.5	8.7	7.8

Table 3

Reported Organizational Size by Field of Interest

Variable	Field of Interest						All
	Arts/Culture	Education Environment	Health	Youth	Hum. Svs.		
Mean Budget Size (dollars in millions)	5.3	21.2	3.8	24.1	3.5	33.4	15.3
Median Budget Size (dollars in millions)	1.7	4.0	1.4	6.9	1.4	3.0	2.4
Mean Number FTE	39.5	5633	23.8	358.1	41.1	138.4	1189
Median Number FTE	12.8	52.5	12.0	100.0	15.3	42.5	25.0
Mean Number Fundraisers	4.0	4.3	3.3	2.9	2.5	3.2	3.4
Median Number Fundraisers	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0

Table 4

Reported Sources of Revenue by Field of Interest (Mean % Reported)

Revenue Source	Field of Interest						
	Arts/Culture	Education	Environment	Health	Youth	Hum. Svs.	All
Earned Income (fees, sales/service/program contracts, investment interest, etc.)	38.2	54.9	21.7	52.0	23.1	23.8	31.2
Membership Specific Earned Income	13.6	24.6	13.8	17.2	25.8	11.2	15.7
Corporate Donations or Sponsorships	10.5	11.4	8.0	9.9	15.4	9.4	11.7
Government Contracts	14.3	34.1	24.7	23.4	27.9	47.3	36.7
Foundation Grants	17.1	19.2	32.6	13.1	28.5	14.3	21.2
Contributions from Individuals	22.2	19.4	25.7	23.4	20.7	18.5	21.4
In-Kind Donations	5.9	3.9	4.5	8.2	7.6	10.9	7.8

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and hypotheses guide the study:

Research Question 1: What effect does perceived fit (person-job and person-organization) have on the turnover intentions of nonprofit fundraising professionals?

Hypothesis 1: Perceived person-job fit will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived person-organization fit will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 3: Passion about an organization's mission will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Research Question 2: What effect do exchange relationships (explored through the theories of perceived organizational support and perceived leader-member exchange) have on the turnover intentions of nonprofit fundraising professionals?

Hypothesis 4: Perceived organizational support will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 5: Perceived leader-member exchange will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Research Question 3: What effect does job satisfaction have on the turnover intentions of nonprofit fundraising professionals?

Hypothesis 6: Overall job satisfaction will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Data Analysis

UnderDeveloped prompted a national conversation about the rate of turnover among fundraising professionals as it is the first survey of this magnitude to provide insight into the challenges facing the profession. The report provided informative descriptive statistics about the data collected from participants, such as the percentage intending to leave their position or the field of fundraising; the length of vacancies in development positions; the fundraising capacity of organizations; engagement of board members and executive directors in fundraising; and whether a culture of philanthropy exists in nonprofits. The research proposed here furthers our understanding of the data set collected for this survey through a secondary data analysis using multiple regression to test the variables predictive of turnover intentions of fundraisers.

Overview of Secondary Data Analysis. Secondary data are “data that have been made available for use by people other than the original investigators” (Pienta, O’Rourke, & Franks, 2011) and which were “collected for a purpose other than the given research study” (O’Sullivan, Russel, & Burner, 2003). When researchers make their data accessible to others, especially when data have been collected on a large scale, it reduces the barriers others often faced during data collection, i.e. access, cost, and time. These barriers are particularly relevant for students who typically work with restricted budgets and limited timeframes. Additionally, secondary data are important to all researchers because the data allow for the results of studies to be retested (Pienta, O’Rourke, & Franks, 2011). Access to large scale data sets also bolsters the generalizability of study results as the data become more representative of the general population under study. While there are limitations to using secondary data, which are discussed below, in this particular case the benefits accrued to the study through the use of the *UnderDeveloped* data set far outweigh the limitations.

The *UnderDeveloped* data set offers access to fundraisers at 501(c)(3) public charities across the United States. Therefore, the results of this study are relevant to a much larger population of fundraisers than would a data set that had been collected from a specific geographical region, which is what the parameters of this study would have allowed if original data had been required. The original researchers (Bell & Cornelius) partnered with 23 organizations to disseminate the survey, which would otherwise not have been possible for this study. As demonstrated in the description of the sample, the fundraisers who participated in the survey do in fact reflect the general demographics of fundraisers who are members of two of the largest professional associations in this field—AFP and CASE. This data set is also particularly useful because it contains a large sample size and contains data that were collected recently (2012). The original use of the data set was to explore general challenges facing the fundraising profession and analysis resulted in descriptive statistics included in the *UnderDeveloped* report. The collection and storing of the data, however, make it easy to use for correlational research as well. Lastly, the data set includes the variables required to address the research questions of this study regarding the perceived person-job and person-organization fit of fundraisers, the exchange relationships between fundraisers and their organizations and supervisors, and the job satisfaction of fundraisers.

Criterion Variables. As this study assesses three criterion variables—long-term turnover intentions to leave a position, short-term turnover intentions to leave a position, and turnover intentions to leave the field of fundraising—separate multiple regression analyses were run for each to test how the predictor variables differently affect, or do not affect, each criterion variable. The criterion variables included in this study are as follows:

- 1) the number of years that a Development Director thinks s/he will remain in her or his current fundraising position (long-term turnover intentions);
- 2) whether or not a Development Director has given notice or intends to give notice (short-term turnover intentions); and
- 3) the number of years that a Development Director thinks s/he will remain in the field of fundraising (career turnover intentions).

Thus, this research specifically explores turnover intentions as the criterion variables in both position and field of work. As noted by earlier turnover research, turnover intentions are the best predictor of actual turnover (Waters, Roach, and Waters, 1976; Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth, 1978).

Predictor Variables. Based on the research questions and hypotheses, the predictor variables in the study reflect perceived person-job fit (P-J fit), perceived person-organization fit (P-O fit), the exchanges between employees and their organization (perceived organizational support—POS) and employees and their supervisor (perceived leader-member exchange—LMX), and job satisfaction. Four additional variables are also included in the study as predictor variables given their importance to research on fundraising, the nonprofit sector, and turnover: culture of philanthropy, salary, age, and organizational size. Additional information regarding the predictor variables, including the survey measure used, follows:

Perceived Person-Job Fit

- 1) The extent to which the respondents feel that their position is a good match for their abilities.

Perceived Person-Organization Fit

- 2) The extent to which respondents feel that their organization is a good match for them in terms of organizational culture.
- 3) The extent to which respondents are passionate about the mission of their organization.

Perceived Organizational Support

Six-item scale ($\alpha = .81$) consisting of the following items:

- 4) The extent to which the respondents feel that they are included in organizational decision-making.

The extent to which respondents are satisfied with their compensation.

The extent to which respondents feel that they have access to opportunities for professional growth.

The extent to which respondents feel that there is an adequate fund development infrastructure in place to be successful.

The extent to which respondents feel that there are realistic performance goals set for their position.

The extent to which respondents feel that the organization values their fund development skills, knowledge, and expertise.

Perceived Leader-Member Exchange

Two-item scale ($\alpha = .86$) consisting of the following items:

- 5) The respondents' feelings about their relationship with the executive director.

The respondents' feelings about how they partner with the executive director in fund development work.

Job Satisfaction

- 6) The respondents' overall level of satisfaction in their current fund development position.

Culture of Philanthropy

- 7) The extent to which respondents feel that there is a culture of philanthropy at their organization.

In the Bell & Cornelius (2013) report, “culture of philanthropy” is featured prominently as a factor that lends itself to fundraising success, but is often reported to be lacking in many nonprofits (41% of respondents cited having no culture of philanthropy at their organization). Given the importance of the concept of “culture of philanthropy” in the report, it is included as a predictor variable. The report defines a “culture of philanthropy” as existing when:

most people in the organization (across positions) act as ambassadors and engage in relationship building. Everyone promotes philanthropy and can articulate a case for giving. Fund development is viewed and valued as a mission aligned program of the organization. Organizational systems are established to support donors. The executive director is committed and personally involved in fundraising (Bell & Cornelius, 2013, p. 17).

As the theoretical framework for this study speaks to the relational aspects of turnover, examining the influence that a “culture of philanthropy” may have on turnover intentions is an extension of this analysis. By taking into consideration the support that fundraisers may receive from coworkers and their supervisor in regards to specific fundraising responsibilities, the integration of fundraising into the organization’s mission, and the systems that support donors, exploring the impact that a “culture of philanthropy” may have on the turnover intentions of fundraisers brings together the perceived leader-member exchange, perceived person-organization fit, and perceived organizational support literature.

Salary

8) What is your annual salary (not including benefits)?

In Burk's (2013) study of fundraisers, obtaining a higher salary was the number one reason that participants in her survey provided as the reason they left their previous position. Also, for those surveyed who were currently considering leaving their current position, 64% listed better pay as a top reason for wanting to leave although 70% reported that they felt their current pay was adequate or generous. The desire for a better salary was also prominent in earlier research on the fundraising profession and turnover in the field (Carbone, 1987; 1989). Determining if salary levels play a role in turnover intentions may help nonprofits better understand the barriers to retention that are present when resources are limited. Additionally, literature continues to show gender-based differences in salary for fundraisers that lead to women being less satisfied with their salaries than men (Taylor, 1998; Sampson & Moore, 2008). The subgroup analysis for gender then may uncover implications that salary has for women versus men.

Age

9) What is your age?

The most common demographic profile of a fundraiser is a middle-aged, White female. With a focus on professionalizing the field of fundraising, encouraging early career professionals to enter the field is important to practitioners. Research that can shed light on correlations between age and turnover intentions will benefit those organizations trying to recruit younger fundraisers as well as those trying to retain fundraisers currently in the field. Additionally, age has been included in well-known turnover studies throughout the literature and is largely seen as an indicator of career mobility (Miller, Katterberg, & Hulin, 1979).

Organizational Size

10) What is the annual operating budget of your organization this fiscal year?

The Bell and Cornelius (2013) report makes clear the distinctions between smaller and larger nonprofit organizations by breaking out results according to budget size (under \$1 million; between \$1-5 million; between \$5-10 million; and over \$10 million). Knowing that smaller organizations are less likely to have functional HR departments, as well as the infrastructure required to support fundraising efforts, it is important in this study to note any differences among the turnover intentions of those employed by smaller and larger nonprofit organizations (Guo et al., 2011).

Subgroup Analyses. The variables identified in the study as potentially being predictive of turnover intentions may have different effects on certain groups of participants. To analyze where differences may exist, subgroup analyses are conducted using multiple regression analysis. For the respondents, separate analyses for each criterion variable are performed by gender and race/ethnicity using all predictor variables. Given that the profile of a typical fundraiser is so skewed towards White females, it is important to understand if the variables leading to a fundraiser's decision to leave an organization differs for those who fall outside of this profile. Awareness of the variables that may contribute to turnover intentions for different populations of fundraisers may help increase the diversity of the field by leading to the recruitment and retention of fundraisers not fitting this typical profile. For the organizations that employ the respondents, analyses are provided for field of interest and region. The subgroup analyses for field of interest and region further allow the results of this study to be applied across the nonprofit sector by highlighting how different types of organizations may encounter the variables that contribute to the turnover intentions of fundraising staff, i.e. fundraisers employed

by arts organizations on the West Coast may have different reasons for deciding to leave an organization than those employed by similar organizations on the East coast. Each subgroup analysis delves deeper into the predictive nature of the variables that lead to turnover intentions so that the results of the study can inform those working in nonprofit organizations, making the information as applicable to their specific work in the sector as possible.

Effect Size. This study is interested in variables that rise to at least a small effect size ($f^2=.02$). Understanding effect size in the social sciences is important because it informs the reader about the size of the difference between two groups rather than simply stating that something is statistically significant. Variables are oftentimes found to be statistically significant in large samples, so noting effect size, in addition to statistical significance, can verify the size of a variable's effect in the study. Coe (2002) also noted that effect size is helpful in analyzing effects that are measured with "unfamiliar or arbitrary scales," which is an issue that often arises in many secondary data analyses. Cohen (1988) put forth parameters when using regression-based approaches for what researchers should consider to be small ($f^2=.02$), medium ($f^2=.15$), and large ($f^2=.35$) effects, which is used in this study.

Limitations

As with any research, there are limitations to this study. In particular, secondary data analysis often presents several obstacles relating to missing data that must be addressed. As McKnight and McKnight (2011) stated,

one disadvantage is that those who collected the data may not share your interests and may not have collected all of the data you need to address your research questions. Even if their interests are the same as yours, those who collected the data still may have overlooked key variables, designed or used poor measures, or failed to ensure the integrity of all records. In short, the data you need may be incomplete or completely missing (p. 83).

Consequently, in conducting a secondary data analysis, it is often necessary to create scales from the variables available that represent the concepts being studied and that answer the research questions at hand. Wideman, Little, Preacher, and Sawalani (2011) suggested that the creation of one's own "short forms" to measure a construct can be established through such methods as factor analysis that determine if the variables chosen for a scale do indeed align with one another. In this study, scales for perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived leader-member exchange (LMX) are created. Cronbach's alpha is used to measure the internal consistency of the scales. The POS scale is a six-item scale ($\alpha = .81$), and the LMX scale is a two-item scale ($\alpha = .86$). While the scales have an acceptable alpha level, they have not been tested or validated in other studies.

The other main limitation with this data set is that participants self-selected to take the survey, which can lead to bias. Rather than a random sample of fundraisers, this data set contains answers from individuals who chose to participate in the survey. One of the benefits to opening the survey up to anyone who was in a top paid fund development position is that CompassPoint and the Haas, Jr. Fund were able to work with national partners to spread the word about participating in the research and to gain participants within a fairly short time frame. As a result, they obtained a large, national response from individuals who were interested in, and committed to taking, the survey. As shown in the overview of the sample, it does appear that the participants are reflective of the general population of fundraisers and the typical organizations that comprise the nonprofit sector, with the exception that small and large nonprofits are underrepresented. Due to potential self-selection bias, however, the generalizability of the results must take into consideration this sampling technique.

Summary of Methodology

This secondary data analysis extends the work of Bell and Cornelius (2013) to provide a deeper understanding of the causes of turnover intentions in the fundraising profession. Through multiple regression analysis, this study highlights the variables predictive of the short-term and long-term turnover intentions of fundraisers to leave their current jobs as well as their intentions to leave the field of fundraising. Subgroup analyses takes the study one step further by exploring how these variables may have different impacts on certain groups of fundraisers and/or within certain organizational constraints.

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Three models were tested to determine the variables that are predictive of fundraisers' plans to stay in their current position (long-term turnover intentions); their intent to give notice (short-term turnover intentions); and their plans to stay in the field of fundraising (career commitment). Table 5 provides an overview of the three criterion variables included in the analyses. Fifty percent of the participants reported that they planned to stay in their current position for two or less years ($M=2.53$, $SD=1.00$) with 22% reporting that they had already given notice or were actively considering giving notice ($M=1.27$, $SD=.55$). As for staying in the field of fundraising, 43% stated that they thought they would stay in the profession for less than five years ($M=3.35$, $SD=.87$). Each of the three models contained the same set of predictor variables: perceived organizational support, perceived leader-member exchange, culture of philanthropy, passion about an organization's mission, perceived person-organization fit, perceived person-job fit, job satisfaction, salary, age, and organizational size (see Table 6).

Table 5

Criterion Variables

Variables	<i>N</i>	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Plans to Stay in Position	1823	1.0	4.0	2.53	1.00	0.001	-1.068
Intent to Give Notice	1824	1.0	3.0	1.27	0.55	1.883	2.556
Plans to Stay in Field	1834	1.0	4.0	3.35	0.87	-1.090	0.130

Note. Samples sizes range from 1823 to 1834 due to missing values

Table 6

Predictor Variables

Variables	<i>N</i>	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
POS	1745	1.0	4.0	2.87	0.60	-0.511	0.015
LMX	1812	1.0	3.5	2.76	0.71	-0.557	-0.765
Culture of Philanthropy	1800	1.0	4.0	2.57	0.82	-0.120	-0.504
Mission Passion	1831	1.0	4.0	3.55	0.63	-1.316	1.622
P-O Fit	1832	1.0	4.0	3.20	0.84	-0.892	0.195
P-J Fit	1833	1.0	4.0	3.33	0.64	-0.749	0.979
Job Satisfaction	1840	1.0	5.0	3.81	1.10	-0.878	0.002
Salary	1750	1.0	7.0	3.16	1.15	0.388	0.296
Age	1780	2.0	6.0	3.72	1.13	0.041	-0.906
Org Size	1687	1.0	9.0	5.55	1.90	0.107	-0.386

Note. Samples sizes range from 1687 to 1840 due to missing values

Multiple Regression Analyses of Criterion Variables

A Pearson's correlation coefficient matrix was produced to explore the associations among the variables included in the models (Table 7). While some of the variables showed a moderate level of correlation ($r = .30$ to $.68$), the strength of the correlations did not rise to a level that required consolidating variables into single items or dropping any of the variables from the equation due to multicollinearity (Lewis-Beck, 1980).

Plans to Stay in Current Position. The set of variables entered for the model predicting fundraisers' plans to stay in their current position was statistically significant and had a large effect on the criterion variable ($R^2 = .384$, $f^2 = .62$, $p < .001$). Given the study's large sample size, criterion were set such that only variables in the model that rise to at least a small effect size ($f^2 = .02$), or in other words account for at least two percent of the variance in the model, are of interest. In this model (Table 8), perceived person-organization fit ($\beta = .179$, $f^2 = .02$, $p < .001$), job

Table 7

Pearson Correlation Matrix

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Plans to Stay in Position	1												
2. Intent to Give Notice	-.561**	1											
3. Plans to Stay in Field	.461**	-.284**	1										
4. POS ($\alpha = .81$)	.496**	-.387**	.227**	1									
5. LMX ($\alpha = .86$)	.426**	-.363**	.185**	.608**	1								
6. Culture of Philanthropy	.210**	-.141**	.091**	.430**	.368**	1							
7. Mission Passion	.268**	-.145**	.139**	.338**	.232**	.169**	1						
8. P-O Fit	.483**	-.380**	.167**	.611**	.558**	.351**	.457**	1					
9. P-J Fit	.303**	-.174**	.278**	.406**	.271**	.175**	.308**	.359**	1				
10. Job Satisfaction	.577**	-.478**	.304**	.678**	.607**	.330**	.302**	.598**	.391**	1			
11. Salary	.098**	-.071**	.114**	.189**	.045	.013	.017	.027	.112**	.097**	1		
12. Age	.121**	-.014	-.018	.018	-.027	.007	.046	.006	.084**	.044	.170**	1	
13. Org Size	.123**	-.090**	.156**	.133**	-.004	-.085**	.034	.027	.079**	.094**	.558**	.069**	1

Note . **p < .01

satisfaction ($\beta=.318, f^2=.09, p < .001$), and age ($\beta=.095, f^2=.02, p < .001$) were statistically significant predictors of longer plans to stay in a current position. Thus, this model lends support for hypotheses two (perceived person-organization fit) and six (job satisfaction).

Table 8

Plans to Stay in Position Model (N=1478)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.165	0.055	0.098	0.01
LMX	0.090	0.040	0.064	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.038	0.028	-0.031	0.00
Mission Passion	0.068	0.038	0.043	0.00
P-O Fit	0.179	0.035	0.150	0.02 ***
P-J Fit	0.060	0.036	0.039	0.00
Job Satisfaction	0.318	0.028	0.350	0.09 ***
Salary	-0.010	0.022	-0.012	0.00
Age	0.095	0.019	0.107	0.02 ***
Org Size	0.037	0.013	0.070	0.01
R ²	.384			
F	91.39***			

Note. *** $p < .001$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Intent to Give Notice. The set of variables entered for the model predicting fundraisers' intent to give notice to their current employer was also statistically significant, having a large effect on the criterion variable ($R^2=.272, f^2=.37, p < .001$). In this model, as noted in Table 9, perceived person-organization fit ($\beta=-.105, f^2=.02, p < .001$) and job satisfaction ($\beta=-.171, f^2=.07, p < .001$) were statistically significant predictors of a fundraiser's intent to give notice to her/his current employer. The *Intent to Give Notice* model therefore offers support for hypotheses two (perceived person-organization fit) and six (job satisfaction) as well.

Table 9

Intent to Give Notice Model (N=1482)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.058	0.033	-0.063	0.00
LMX	-0.073	0.024	-0.094	0.01
Culture of Philanthropy	0.058	0.017	0.087	0.01
Mission Passion	0.035	0.022	0.040	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.105	0.021	-0.161	0.02 ***
P-J Fit	0.024	0.021	0.029	0.00
Job Satisfaction	-0.171	0.016	-0.344	0.07 ***
Salary	-0.003	0.013	-0.006	0.00
Age	-0.004	0.011	-0.008	0.00
Org Size	-0.008	0.008	-0.028	0.00
R ²	.272			
F	54.97***			

Note . *** $p < .001$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in the Field. In the model predicting fundraisers' plans to remain in the field of fundraising, the set of variables entered was statistically significant and had a medium effect on the criterion variable ($R^2=.144$, $f^2=.17$, $p < .001$). The results of the regression analysis, as noted in Table 10, revealed that perceived person-job fit ($\beta=.257$, $f^2=.03$, $p < .001$) and job satisfaction ($\beta=.201$, $f^2=.03$, $p < .001$) were statistically significant predictors of longer plans to stay in the field of fundraising. Accordingly, hypotheses one (perceived person-job fit) and six (job satisfaction) were supported by this model.

Table 10

Plans to Stay in Field Model (N=1487)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.052	0.056	-0.035	0.00
LMX	0.049	0.041	0.040	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.002	0.029	0.002	0.00
Mission Passion	0.069	0.039	0.049	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.083	0.036	-0.080	0.00
P-J Fit	0.257	0.037	0.191	0.03 ***
Job Satisfaction	0.201	0.028	0.254	0.03 ***
Salary	0.011	0.023	0.014	0.00
Age	-0.036	0.019	-0.046	0.00
Org Size	0.053	0.014	0.114	0.01
R ²	.144			
F	24.86***			

Note. *** $p < .001$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Multiple Regression Analyses of Subgroups

Multiple regression analysis of the three criterion variables (plans to stay in position, intent to give notice, and plans to stay in the field) was also performed for subgroups of the participants based on characteristics of the fundraisers (Table 11): gender and race/ethnicity, as well as characteristics of the organizations for which they worked (Table 12): field of interest and region. The models for each subgroup can be found in Appendix B (Tables 36-39). A comparison of the variables that were statistically significant in each subgroup model are presented below. In reviewing these findings, it is important to note the varying sizes of the subgroups, as the sizes do widely vary between some groups, which influences the levels of statistical significance found in the models.

Table 11

Subgroups: Fundraisers

Variable	<i>n</i>	%
Gender		
Female	1418	79.0
Male	368	20.5
Transgender	1	0.1
Decline to State	7	0.4
Race/Ethnicity		
African American	48	2.7
Asian Pacific Islander	43	2.4
Latino/a	50	2.8
Middle Eastern	3	0.2
Native American	3	0.2
White/Anglo	1581	88.2
Multi-Racial	45	2.5
Other	19	1.1

Table 12

Subgroups: Organizations

Variable	<i>n</i>	%
Regional Location		
Midwest	494	29.0
Northeast	260	15.3
South	474	27.9
West	474	27.9
Field of Interest		
Human Services	372	20.7
Educational	225	12.5
Arts, Culture, Humanities	196	10.9
Health-General/Rehab	116	6.5
Youth Development	111	6.2
Environmental	93	5.2
Housing Shelter	81	4.5
Mental Health	70	3.9
Civil Rights/Social Action	67	3.7
Community/Capacity Bldg	43	2.4
Disease/Medical	38	2.1
Religion/Spiritual	36	2.0
Other	349	19.4

Gender. There were two subgroups for gender: female (79%) and male (21%). For the *Plans to Stay in Position* model (Table 13), perceived-person organization fit and job satisfaction were both statistically significant predictors of turnover intentions for females and males. For females, age was also a statistically significant predictor. In the *Intent to Give Notice* model (Table 14), the statistically significant predictors of turnover intentions for females and males were the same: perceived person-organization fit and job satisfaction. The *Plans to Stay in the Field* model (Table 15) for females showed that perceived person-job fit and job satisfaction were statistically significant while only perceived-person job fit was for males.

Table 13

Gender Subgroups: Plans to Stay in Position

Long-Term Turnover Intentions		
<u>Predictor Variable</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Males</u>
P-O Fit	$\beta=.180$ $f^2=.02^{***}$	$\beta=.178$ $f^2=.02^*$
Job Satisfaction	$\beta=.337$ $f^2=.10^{***}$	$\beta=.240$ $f^2=.05^{***}$
Age	$\beta=.099$ $f^2=.02^{***}$	
<i>n</i>	1152	306
R^2	.420	.269
f^2	.72	.38

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 14

Gender Subgroups: Intent to Give Notice

Short-Term Turnover Intentions		
<u>Predictor Variable</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Males</u>
P-O Fit	$\beta=-.106$ $f^2=.02^{***}$	$\beta=-.124$ $f^2=.03^{**}$
Job Satisfaction	$\beta=-.179$ $f^2=.08^{***}$	$\beta=-.134$ $f^2=.05^{***}$
<i>n</i>	1156	306
R^2	.286	.230
f^2	.40	.30

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 15

Gender Subgroups: Plans to Stay in Field

Career Commitment		
<u>Predictor Variable</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Males</u>
P-J Fit	$\beta=.243$ $f^2=.03^{***}$	$\beta=.327$ $f^2=.06^{***}$
Job Satisfaction	$\beta=.245$ $f^2=.05^{***}$	
<i>n</i>	1159	308
R^2	.175	.092
f^2	.21	.19

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Race/Ethnicity. Given that the overwhelming majority of participants were White (88%), just two subgroups were created for race/ethnicity: White and Minority. In the set of variables entered for the *Plans to Stay in Position* model (Table 16), the variables that were significant with at least a small effect were the same for both the White and Minority subgroups: perceived person-organization fit, job satisfaction, and age. For those whose race/ethnicity was White, there were two variables in the *Intent to Give Notice* model (Table 17) that were significant predictors: perceived person-organization fit and job satisfaction. Perceived person-organization fit was also statistically significant for those in the Minority subgroup along with age. In the *Plans to Stay in the Field* model (Table 18), perceived person-job fit and job satisfaction were the two significant variables with a small effect for those whose race/ethnicity was White. These were also statistically significant for those in the Minority subgroup, in addition to perceived person-organization fit.

Table 16

Race/Ethnicity Subgroups: Plans to Stay in Position

Long-Term Turnover Intentions		
<u>Predictor Variable</u>	<u>White</u>	<u>Minority</u>
P-O Fit	$\beta=.165$ $f^2=.02^{***}$	$\beta=.283$ $f^2=.04^{**}$
Job Satisfaction	$\beta=.324$ $f^2=.10^{***}$	$\beta=.247$ $f^2=.04^{**}$
Age	$\beta=.091$ $f^2=.02^{***}$	$\beta=.161$ $f^2=.04^*$
<i>n</i>	1295	170
R^2	.382	.417
f^2	.62	.72

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 17

Race/Ethnicity Subgroups: Intent to Give Notice

Short-Term Turnover Intentions		
<u>Predictor Variable</u>	<u>White</u>	<u>Minority</u>
P-O Fit	$\beta=-.103$ $f^2=.02^{***}$	$\beta=-.145$ $f^2=.03^*$
Job Satisfaction	$\beta=-.178$ $f^2=.08^{***}$	
Age		$\beta=-.088$ $f^2=.03^*$
<i>n</i>	1298	171
R^2	.275	.296
f^2	.38	.42

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 18

Race/Ethnicity Subgroups: Plans to Stay in Field

Career Commitment		
<u>Predictor Variable</u>	<u>White</u>	<u>Minority</u>
P-O Fit		$\beta=-.300$ $f^2=.05^{**}$
P-J Fit	$\beta=.253$ $f^2=.03^{***}$	$\beta=.231$ $f^2=.04^*$
Job Satisfaction	$\beta=.191$ $f^2=.03^{***}$	$\beta=.284$ $f^2=.05^{**}$
<i>n</i>	1303	111
R^2	.137	.238
f^2	.16	.31

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Field of Interest. The subgroups included in the analyses for field of interest were the fields that represented at least 5% of the total number of organizations included in the survey: human services (20.7%), education (12.5%), arts/culture/humanities (10.9%), health (6.5%), youth development (6.2%), and environment (5.2%). In the *Plans to Stay in Position* model (Table 19), job satisfaction was a statistically significant predictor of turnover intentions for all fields of interest included. Perceived person-organization fit was a statistically significant predictor for the human services, education, and art/culture/humanities subgroups. The models also showed that perceived leader-member exchange was significant for fundraisers at education-related organizations; passion about an organization's mission was significant for fundraisers at environment-related organizations; and organizational size was significant for fundraisers at human services-related organizations.

Job satisfaction was also statistically significant in all of the field of interest subgroups for the *Intent to Give Notice* model (Table 20). For fundraisers at human services-related and health-related organizations, perceived person-organization fit was an additional statistically significant predictor of turnover intentions. The following variables were only statistically significant in one of the field of interest subgroups: perceived leader-member exchange (education) and passion about an organization's mission (youth development).

As for the *Plans to Stay in the Field* model (Table 21), job satisfaction was statistically significant for all field of interest subgroups except for fundraisers at arts/culture/humanities and health organizations. Perceived P-J fit was a statistically significant predictor in this model for all field of interest subgroups except for fundraisers at health organizations. For fundraisers at human services-related and health-related organizations, organizational size was also a statistically significant predictor. The subgroup for fundraisers at education-related

organizations was the only one in which perceived organizational support and culture of philanthropy were statistically significant.

Region. All four of the regions identified in the *UnderDeveloped* study were included in the subgroup analyses: Midwest, Northeast, South, and West. In the *Plans to Stay in Position* model (Table 22), job satisfaction was a statistically significant predictor of turnover intentions for each of the region subgroups. Perceived person-organization fit was statistically significant for fundraisers living in the Northeast or West while age was significant for those living in the Midwest or South. For fundraisers in the South, perceived organizational support was statistically significant while for those in the Midwest, organizational size was.

The *Intent to Give Notice* model (Table 23) showed that job satisfaction was statistically significant for all region subgroups while perceived person-organization fit was only significant for fundraisers in the Northeast or West. The *Plans to Stay in the Field* model (Table 24) revealed that job satisfaction was also statistically significant for all region subgroups. Additionally, perceived person-job fit was a statistically significant predictor for all region subgroups except for fundraisers in the South. Only the subgroup for fundraisers in the Midwest had organizational size as a significant predictor of turnover intentions.

Table 19

Field of Interest Subgroups: Plans to Stay in Position

Long-Term Turnover Intentions						
Predictor Variable	Human Services	Education	Arts/Culture	Health	Youth	Environment
LMX		$\beta=.271$ $f^2=.04^*$				
Mission Passion						$\beta=.360$ $f^2=.08^*$
P-O Fit	$\beta=.204$ $f^2=.02^{**}$	$\beta=.249$ $f^2=.04^*$	$\beta=.370$ $f^2=.06^{**}$			
Job Satisfaction	$\beta=.293$ $f^2=.06^{***}$	$\beta=.259$ $f^2=.06^{**}$	$\beta=.241$ $f^2=.06^{**}$	$\beta=.457$ $f^2=.19^{***}$	$\beta=.293$ $f^2=.08^*$	$\beta=.364$ $f^2=.19^{**}$
Org Size	$\beta=.070$ $f^2=.02^*$					
<i>n</i>	322	157	165	96	97	80
R^2	.410	.406	.412	.438	.465	.438
f^2	.69	.68	.70	.78	.87	.78

Note . * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 20

Field of Interest Subgroups: Intent to Give Notice

Short-Term Turnover Intentions						
Predictor Variable	Human Services	Education	Arts/Culture	Health	Youth	Environment
LMX		$\beta=-.172$ $f^2=.04^*$				
Mission Passion					$\beta=.260$ $f^2=.08^*$	
P-O Fit	$\beta=-.126$ $f^2=.02^{**}$			$\beta=-.158$ $f^2=.06^*$		
Job Satisfaction	$\beta=-.159$ $f^2=.05^{***}$	$\beta=-.201$ $f^2=.08^{**}$	$\beta=-.153$ $f^2=.07^{**}$	$\beta=-.181$ $f^2=.12^{**}$	$\beta=-.177$ $f^2=.10^{**}$	$\beta=-.269$ $f^2=.19^{***}$
<i>n</i>	325	158	163	97	97	83
R^2	.246	.326	.323	.369	.410	.290
f^2	.33	.48	.48	.58	.69	.41

Note . * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 21

Field of Interest Subgroups: Plans to Stay in Field

Career Commitment						
Predictor Variable	Human Services	Education	Arts/Culture	Health	Youth	Environment
POS		$\beta = -.327$ $f^2 = .03^*$				
Culture of Philanthropy		$\beta = .197$ $f^2 = .04^*$				
P-J Fit	$\beta = .350$ $f^2 = .07^{***}$	$\beta = .241$ $f^2 = .04^*$	$\beta = .216$ $f^2 = .03^*$		$\beta = -.460$ $f^2 = .15^{**}$	$\beta = -.459$ $f^2 = .07^*$
Job Satisfaction	$\beta = .166$ $f^2 = .02^*$	$\beta = .214$ $f^2 = .05^{**}$			$\beta = .261$ $f^2 = .06^*$	$\beta = .372$ $f^2 = .10^{**}$
Org Size	$\beta = .103$ $f^2 = .04^{***}$			$\beta = .143$ $f^2 = .12^{**}$		
<i>n</i>	325	159	165	96	97	83
R^2	.158	.209	.208	.226	.294	.226
f^2	.19	.26	.26	.29	.42	.29

Note . * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 22

Region Subgroups: Plans to Stay in Position

Long-Term Turnover Intentions				
Predictor Variable	Midwest	Northeast	South	West
POS			$\beta = .307$ $f^2 = .02^{**}$	
P-O Fit		$\beta = .238$ $f^2 = .04^{**}$		$\beta = .276$ $f^2 = .04^{***}$
Job Satisfaction	$\beta = .310$ $f^2 = .07^{***}$	$\beta = .299$ $f^2 = .10^{***}$	$\beta = .274$ $f^2 = .06^{***}$	$\beta = .334$ $f^2 = .08^{***}$
Age	$\beta = .145$ $f^2 = .04^{***}$		$\beta = .118$ $f^2 = .03^{**}$	
Org Size	$\beta = .076$ $f^2 = .02^{**}$			
<i>n</i>	417	221	392	399
R^2	.351	.448	.400	.381
f^2	.54	.81	.67	.62

Note . * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 23

Region Subgroups: Intent to Give Notice

Short-Term Turnover Intentions				
<u>Predictor Variable</u>	<u>Midwest</u>	<u>Northeast</u>	<u>South</u>	<u>West</u>
P-O Fit		$\beta = -.125$ $f^2 = .02^*$		$\beta = .162$ $f^2 = .04^{***}$
Job Satisfaction	$\beta = -.123$ $f^2 = .04^{***}$	$\beta = -.201$ $f^2 = .09^{***}$	$\beta = -.156$ $f^2 = .06^{***}$	$\beta = -.196$ $f^2 = .08^{***}$
<i>n</i>	419	220	393	400
R^2	.246	.317	.274	.311
f^2	.33	.46	.38	.45

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 24

Region Subgroups: Plans to Stay in Field

Career Commitment				
<u>Predictor Variable</u>	<u>Midwest</u>	<u>Northeast</u>	<u>South</u>	<u>West</u>
P-J Fit	$\beta = .296$ $f^2 = .04^{***}$	$\beta = .311$ $f^2 = .05^*$		$\beta = .348$ $f^2 = .06^{***}$
Job Satisfaction	$\beta = .224$ $f^2 = .04^{***}$	$\beta = .170$ $f^2 = .03^*$	$\beta = .174$ $f^2 = .02^{**}$	$\beta = .244$ $f^2 = .05^{***}$
Org Size	$\beta = .086$ $f^2 = .03^{***}$			
<i>n</i>	420	221	396	400
R^2	.180	.144	.113	.190
f^2	.22	.17	.13	.23

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Summary of Results

To tie together the findings from the overall sample and the subgroups, the three research questions and six corresponding hypotheses explored in this study are reviewed below in Tables 25 through 30.

Research Question 1: What effect does perceived fit (person-job and person-organization) have on the turnover intentions of nonprofit fundraising professionals?

Hypothesis 1: Perceived person-job fit will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Table 25

Support for Hypothesis 1

	Plans to Stay in Position	Intent to Give Notice	Plans to Stay in Field
All			X
Male			X
Female			X
White			X
Minority			X
Human Services			X
Education			X
Arts/Culture/Humanities			X
Health			
Youth Development			
Environment			X
Midwest			X
Northeast			X
South			
West			X

Note . X denotes Hypothesis was supported by model

Hypothesis 2: Perceived person-organization fit will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Table 26

Support for Hypothesis 2

	Plans to Stay in Position	Intent to Give Notice	Plans to Stay in Field
All	X	X	
Male	X	X	
Female	X	X	
White	X	X	
Minority	X	X	X
Human Services	X	X	
Education	X		
Arts/Culture/Humanities	X		
Health		X	
Youth Development			X
Environment			
Midwest			
Northeast	X	X	
South			
West	X	X	

Note . X denotes Hypothesis was supported by model

Hypothesis 3: Passion about an organization's mission will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Table 27

Support for Hypothesis 3

	Plans to Stay in Position	Intent to Give Notice	Plans to Stay in Field
All			
Male			
Female			
White			
Minority			
Human Services			
Education			
Arts/Culture/Humanities			
Health			
Youth Development		X	
Environment	X		
Midwest			
Northeast			
South			
West			

Note . X denotes Hypothesis was supported by model

Research Question 2: What effect do exchange relationships (explored through the theories of perceived organizational support and perceived leader-member exchange) have on the turnover intentions of nonprofit fundraising professionals?

Hypothesis 4: Perceived organizational support will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Table 28

Support for Hypothesis 4

	Plans to Stay in Position	Intent to Give Notice	Plans to Stay in Field
All			
Male		X	
Female			
White			
Minority			
Human Services			
Education			
Arts/Culture/Humanities			
Health			
Youth Development			
Environment			
Midwest			
Northeast			
South	X		
West			

Note . X denotes Hypothesis was supported by model

Hypothesis 5: Perceived leader-member exchange will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Table 29

Support for Hypothesis 5

	Plans to Stay in Position	Intent to Give Notice	Plans to Stay in Field
All			
Male			
Female			
White			
Minority			
Human Services			
Education	X	X	
Arts/Culture/Humanities			
Health			
Youth Development			
Environment			
Midwest			
Northeast			
South			
West			

Note . X denotes Hypothesis was supported by model

Research Question 3: What effect does job satisfaction have on the turnover intentions of nonprofit fundraising professionals?

Hypothesis 6: Overall job satisfaction will be predictive of turnover intentions.

Table 30

Support for Hypothesis 6

	Plans to Stay in Position	Intent to Give Notice	Plans to Stay in Field
All	X	X	X
Male	X	X	
Female	X	X	X
White	X	X	X
Minority	X		X
Human Services	X	X	X
Education	X	X	X
Arts/Culture/Humanities	X	X	
Health	X	X	
Youth Development	X	X	X
Environment	X	X	X
Midwest	X	X	X
Northeast	X	X	X
South	X	X	X
West	X	X	X

Note. X denotes Hypothesis was supported by model

Four other predictor variables were included in the models in addition to those for which a hypothesis was formulated: culture of philanthropy, salary, age, and organizational size. Salary was not a predictor in any of the models. Below is a summary of the effects of the other three predictor variables on the criterion variables.

Table 31

Effect of Culture of Philanthropy

	Plans to Stay in Position	Intent to Give Notice	Plans to Stay in Field
All			
Male			
Female			
White			
Minority			
Human Services			
Education			X
Arts/Culture/Humanities			
Health			
Youth Development			
Environment			
Midwest			
Northeast		X	
South			
West		X	

Note . X denotes variable was a statistically significant predictor in the model

Table 32

Effect of Age

	Plans to Stay in Position	Intent to Give Notice	Plans to Stay in Field
All	X		
Male			
Female	X		
White	X		
Minority	X	X	
Human Services			
Education			X
Arts/Culture/Humanities			
Health			
Youth Development			
Environment			
Midwest	X		
Northeast			
South	X		
West			

Note . X denotes variable was a statistically significant predictor in the model

Table 33

Effect of Organizational Size

	Plans to Stay in Position	Intent to Give Notice	Plans to Stay in Field
All			
Male			
Female			
White			
Minority			
Human Services	X		X
Education			
Arts/Culture/Humanities			
Health			X
Youth Development			
Environment			
Midwest	X		X
Northeast			
South			
West			

Note . X denotes variable was a statistically significant predictor in the model

Conclusion

As noted in Tables 25 through 33, the regression analyses for the three criterion variables—fundraisers’ plans to stay in their current position, intent to give notice to their current employer, and plans to stay in the field of fundraising—revealed that just four predictor variables were significant with at least a small effect in the three main models that included all participants. In the *Plans to Stay in Position* model, perceived person-organization fit, job satisfaction, and age are statistically significant predictors of turnover intentions. The *Intent to Give Notice* model is similar, but is only significantly predicted by perceived person-organization fit and job satisfaction. Age is not a statistically significant predictor in this model. Lastly, in the *Plans to Stay in the Field* model, it is perceived person-job fit and job satisfaction that are the statistically significant predictors of turnover intentions. The subgroup analyses did result in different predictor variables being statistically significant, with a small effect, based on the group for which the regression analysis was performed. While comparison between groups

is difficult given the wide variations in the sizes of the subgroups, important information can be gleaned from these findings. The discussion of the findings in the next section will offer an interpretation of these results as well as implications for using this information within the context of nonprofit management and leadership practices and training and education for fundraisers at 501(c)(3) public charities in the United States. The conclusion also puts forth the main limitations of the study and suggestions for future research on this topic that could enhance understanding of turnover intentions in the field.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, LIMITATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

For decades, managers in the nonprofit sector have noted a high level of turnover among fundraising staff and questioned why they face challenges when recruiting for new fundraising positions (Carbone, 1987; Duronio & Tempel, 1997; Iarrobino, 2006; Burk, 2013). A simple Google internet search on “fundraising turnover” now yields about 461,000 results, with many bloggers writing their own “top ten” lists for curbing turnover in the field. As Hurst (2014) frames:

You can hardly pick up a newspaper these days without reading how wonderful it is to work for a charity. How it gives people a sense of purpose and that you just can't compare marketing soap powder with raising money to save the planet. I'm sure that many of you reading this will agree with the sentiment, but if working in the voluntary sector provides the dream jobs we are all looking for, then why is it that staff turnover among fundraisers is so high? (Hurst, 2014)

While most of these lists are based on the intuition and experiences of their authors, the release of the *UnderDeveloped* report in 2013, based on a survey of 1,852 fundraisers, renewed focus on turnover in the field and attracted the attention of practitioners, consultants, writers, and scholars alike. The *UnderDeveloped* report sounded the alarm on the high percentage of fundraisers in the survey who indicated that they planned to leave their current position, or the field of fundraising, within the next two years. This study further explores these turnover intentions through a secondary analysis of the data collected for the *UnderDeveloped* report in order to determine the variables that help predict why such a large percentage of fundraisers have these intentions to leave the profession and/or the field.

Through multiple regression analysis, the results of this study reveal that perceived person-job fit (P-J fit), perceived person-organization fit (P-O fit), job satisfaction, and age are the variables that answer this question for fundraisers at 501(c)(3) public charities in the United States. Perceived P-J fit (Hypothesis 1) is a predictor of how long fundraisers believe they will remain in the field of fundraising and is also the strongest predictor in the model; perceived P-O fit (Hypothesis 2) is a predictor of how long fundraisers plan to stay in their current position and a predictor of their intent to give notice to their current employer; job satisfaction (Hypothesis 3) is a predictor of each of the three criterion variables and the strongest predictor in the model for short-term and long-term turnover intentions; and age is a predictor of only how long a fundraiser plans to stay in a current position.

These findings, and the purpose of this study, are intended to:

- 1) expand the literature on the variables correlated with turnover intentions in the nonprofit sector and within the field of fundraising;
- 2) educate nonprofit leaders about the predictors of turnover intentions in the profession so they can develop strategies to address it within their own organizations and for the sector as a whole; and
- 3) inform the education, training, and professional development opportunities available to those who wish to enter, or advance, a career in fundraising.

This chapter further explores how the findings of this study contribute to these goals. An interpretation of the findings, based on the three research questions, offers insight into the specific predictors of short-term and long-term turnover intentions, as well as commitment to the field of fundraising. These findings are then discussed within the context of the existing turnover literature, the current understanding of turnover in the field, and the state of nonprofit human

resource management. Following, the implications for the theoretical framework of the study, the practice of fundraising, and the field of public administration and public policy are put forth. Before concluding, the limitations of this study are reviewed, followed by suggestions for future research, including suggestions for how limitations can be addressed in later studies.

Interpretation of Findings

This study was guided by three primary research questions:

Research Question 1: What effect does perceived fit (person-job and person-organization) have on the turnover intentions of nonprofit fundraising professionals?

Research Question 2: What effect do exchange relationships (explored through the theories of perceived organizational support and perceived leader-member exchange) have on the turnover intentions of nonprofit fundraising professionals?

Research Question 3: What effect does job satisfaction have on the turnover intentions of nonprofit fundraising professionals?

To assess turnover intentions, the study included three criterion variables: 1) the length of time a development director imagines s/he will stay in her/his current fundraising position (long-term turnover intentions); 2) whether a development director has given notice to her/his executive director (short-term turnover intentions); and 3) the length of time a development director imagines s/he will stay in the field of fundraising (career commitment). The study tested three models to determine the predictor variables that are statistically significant in their correlations with each of the three criterion variables and have at least a small effect on each criterion variable. Following is an interpretation of the study's findings according to the research question and criterion variable addressed (summarized in Table 34). As noted in the previous

chapter, findings pertaining to the subgroups are stated but should be considered within the limitation that subgroup sizes may impede interpretation of the findings.

Table 34

Hypothesis Testing Summary for Overall Sample

	Long-Term Turnover Intentions	Short-Term Turnover Intentions	Career Commitment
Hypothesis 1: <i>Perceived person-job fit</i> will be predictive of turnover intentions.			X
Hypothesis 2: <i>Perceived person-organization fit</i> will be predictive of turnover intentions.	X	X	
Hypothesis 3: <i>Passion about an organization's mission</i> will be predictive of turnover intentions.			
Hypothesis 4: <i>Perceived organizational support</i> will be predictive of turnover intentions.			
Hypothesis 5: <i>Perceived leader-member exchange</i> will be predictive of turnover intentions.			
Hypothesis 6: <i>Overall job satisfaction</i> will be predictive of turnover intentions.	X	X	X

Note. X indicates support for hypothesis.

Research Question 1 (Perceived Fit). Perceived fit does have a significant, small effect on the turnover intentions of nonprofit fundraising professionals. Perceived fit between the fundraiser and the job affects how long that fundraiser will remain in the field of fundraising, and perceived fit between the fundraiser and the organization affects how long that fundraiser will remain in the job itself, both in the short-term and long-term. In the concept of perceived P-J fit, the focus is on the congruence between a person's characteristics and the work tasks assigned (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Here, perceived P-J fit was based on the extent to which respondents felt that their position was a good match for them in terms of their abilities. Perceived P-O fit is understood in its simplest form as the compatibility between an individual and an organization (Kristof, 1996). When viewed through the lens of value congruence, P-O fit is the alignment of an employee's values with the organizational culture of the employer (Chatman, 1991). In this study, perceived P-O fit was measured based on the extent to which

respondents felt that their organization was a good match for them in terms of organizational culture (culture was defined in the survey as individuals' collective behavior, values, beliefs, norms, working language, and systems).

In the nonprofit sector, mission attachment is often employed as a “stand-in” for value congruence in studies of turnover (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007) and accordingly is used as another way to measure perceived P-O fit. Another alternative measure for perceived P-O fit that appears in some studies is the concept of identification commitment, or the degree to which employees identify with the mission and purpose of the organization for which they work (Balfour & Weschler, 1996). Since mission attachment, or more generally the concept of mission, has been a common variable in previous turnover studies in the nonprofit sector (Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Kim & Lee, 2007), and is thought to be an acceptable way to measure organizational values in the sector, it was included as a predictor variable here to further explore the concept of perceived P-O fit in the models of turnover intention. This study measured mission attachment based on respondents' answers regarding the extent to which they were passionate about the mission of their organization. While perceived P-O fit was a significant predictor of short-term and long-term turnover intentions in the two models tested, passion about an organization's mission was not. It also was not a statistically significant predictor of career commitment for the full group of respondents. This finding is in line with prior research involving nonprofit employees that has explored the effect of mission on turnover and found that other variables, including salary and opportunities for advancement, mitigated the relationships between mission attachment and turnover intentions (Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Kim & Lee, 2007).

As for the role that perceived fit played among the subgroups, there was lack of support for perceived person-organization fit as a predictor of long-term turnover intentions for fundraisers at health, youth development, and environment-related organizations as well as fundraisers who lived in the Midwest or South. Findings were similar for short-term turnover intentions, except that health organizations were not among the differences noted but arts/culture/humanities and education-related organizations were. It is possible that the fundraisers who participated in the survey from these subgroups shared similar characteristics that differed from the participants in the other subgroups. For example, while organizational size in terms of operating budget was taken into consideration in the model, the number of employees that an organization had was not. The Midwest subgroup had the largest reported mean number of full-time employees, and the South had the smallest. For the field of interest subgroups, the education-related and health organizations reported the largest mean full-time staff size while the youth development, environment-related, and arts/culture/humanities organizations reported the smallest. Therefore, it could be that the findings of this study are more relevant to mid-sized nonprofit organizations in terms of staffing. The researchers that collected the original data did report that the sample underrepresented very small and very large organizations (Bell & Cornelius, 2013).

An additional consideration for the Midwest and South regions is that these two regions reported larger percentages of their budgets coming from corporate donations and individual contributions than the other two subgroups. A heavier reliance on fundraising from corporate and individual donors then could impact these findings as the organizations are more beholden to the funding requirements attached to these sources of revenue. As Bloland and Tempel (2004) noted, there is now an increased focus on productivity, measurement, and assessment for

fundraisers, and these pressures often vary based on where the funding originates. Accordingly, funding obligations and accountability efforts that result from individual and corporate donations could impact the overall culture of the organization in terms of how it behaves to meet the demands of its key stakeholders. For the differences found among the field of interest subgroups, an alternative explanation could be that the types of fundraisers attracted to these mission areas differ in terms of the type of organizational culture that they value or in their perceptions about the culture that their organization has. It could also be that the organizations in these fields of interest do have organizational cultures that fundamentally differ from the other fields of interest or in the ways that they incorporate their employees into their culture.

There was also a difference among some subgroups regarding the role that passion about an organization's mission plays in short-term and long-term turnover intentions. While passion about an organization's mission was not significant in any of the models for the overall sample, it was a significant predictor of the long-term turnover intentions of fundraisers at environment-related organizations and of the short-term turnover intentions of fundraisers at youth-development organizations. For fundraisers at environment-related organizations, it appears that passion about the organization's mission is positively correlated with staying in a position longer. This passion could be related to the reasons that they were initially drawn to employment at an organization with a focus on the environment. Environment-related organizations also represent one of the smaller fields of interest in the nonprofit sector nationally, which could mean that there are fewer fundraising jobs available for those who wish to stay in an organization with this focus (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014). On the other hand, fundraisers at youth-development organizations were actually more likely to have intentions to give notice to their employer if they were passionate about their organization's mission, which is not in the

predicted direction. A possible explanation for this relationship is that the fundraisers are leaving their organizations for other youth development organizations that allow them to move up in their career while still remaining committed to the general mission work associated with youth development. Overall, these findings would suggest that there could be a relationship between the passion a fundraiser has for the mission of an organization and turnover intentions that is moderated by the field of interest in which the fundraiser works. However, more research is needed on this subject to fully understand why these relationships may differ.

In terms of perceived person-job fit, the subgroups that differed from the overall sample for career commitment, in that perceived P-J fit was not supported as a predictor, were fundraisers at health and youth development organizations and fundraisers living in the South. Fundraisers in these two fields of interest may have job responsibilities that differ from fundraisers in the other field of interest subgroups that lead to a better fit between their abilities and job tasks. For example, health organizations had budgets largely funded through earned income while youth development organizations reported high levels of foundation support. As for fundraisers in the South, they represented organizations with the smallest mean number of full-time employees, but the highest mean number of paid fundraising staff. Having an overall smaller organization with a higher percentage of fundraisers could alleviate some of the issues associated with low perceived-job fit, such as job tasks that do not align and the burden for raising all of an organization's contributed revenue falling to just one person.

While perceived P-O fit was not a statistically significant predictor of career commitment for fundraisers in general, it was supported as a predictor for those who were in the Minority subgroup and who worked at youth development organizations. However, in these models, the direction of the relationship was not in the assumed direction. Perceived P-O fit was negatively

correlated with plans to stay in the field of fundraising. Given that this relationship is not in the predicted direction, and that perceived P-O fit was not supported as a predictor of career commitment in any of the other models, further research is needed to validate these findings. These were two of the smallest subgroups analyzed, which could impact the levels of statistical significance detected in the models.

Research Question 2 (Exchange Relationships). In this study, support was not found for exchange relationships being significantly predictive of turnover intentions in any of the three main models. Exchange relationships are based on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) and social exchange (Blau, 1964). In other words, employees are expected to behave (reciprocate/exchange) according to how they perceive they are treated by their organization. They are expected to stay at an organization where they feel valued and leave an organization where they do not feel appreciated. This concept also extends to the relationships and partnerships they have with their supervisors. Two types of exchange relationships were included in this study: perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived leader-member exchange (LMX). The scale measuring POS in the study was composed of the following items: inclusion in organizational-decision-making, access to opportunities for professional growth, realistic performance goals, satisfaction with compensation, adequate fund development infrastructure, and being valued for fund development skills, knowledge, and expertise. The scale measuring perceived LMX included two items: feelings about the relationship a fundraiser had with her/his executive director and feelings about how the fundraiser partnered with the executive director in fund development work. Both of these scales were created based on the data available that best captured their theoretical meanings, and while both scales had acceptable alpha levels, the findings may have been different if validated scales had been used. Given the

scales that were included in this study, however, neither POS nor perceived LMX met the criteria for being predictors of turnover intentions in the three models tested for all fundraisers in the sample. It appears that for fundraisers overall, fit with their organization and their job trumps the relationships that they have with their supervisors and the organization itself (in terms of support received). Without a good fit between the fundraiser's abilities and those of the job tasks assigned and/or fit between the fundraiser's values and the organization's culture, the role of other variables is minimized.

While exchange relationships were not statistically significant for the overall sample, there were a few subgroups for which they were significant. For long-term turnover intentions, exchange relationships were statistically significant for fundraisers in the South (POS) and fundraisers working for education-related organizations (perceived LMX). Again, organizations in the South had the smallest reported average number of full-time employees, but largest reported average number of full-time fundraisers, which could influence the perceptions the fundraisers have about the support that they receive from their organizations. Since perceived P-O fit and perceived P-J fit were not significant predictors of long-term turnover intentions for fundraisers in the South, but POS was, there could be implications for staff size and number of paid fundraising staff on the overall turnover intentions of fundraisers. On the other hand, fundraisers at education-related organizations reported the largest number of full-time staff, which could explain why perceived LMX was supported as a predictor of long-term turnover intentions for these fundraisers. Relationships with supervisors could become more important the larger an organization becomes as fundraisers form more direct bonds within their areas of focus rather than with the organization as a whole or with employees with different roles.

As for short-term turnover intentions, exchange relationships were supported as statistically significant predictors for fundraisers who were male (POS) and fundraisers at education-related organizations (perceived LMX). As discussed in relation to the bonds that fundraisers at education-related organizations may form with their supervisors, being in a larger organization could again explain why exchange relationships play a role in their turnover intentions but not in the intentions of fundraisers in the other field of interest subgroups. As for males, the POS finding is an interesting one to further explore in other studies of turnover in the field to examine why POS might be important to men but not women, and exactly which components of POS are the main factors influencing its role (i.e., satisfaction with compensation, opportunities for professional development, and being included in organization-wide decisions). As POS was measured in this study using a scale created from the secondary data available that were reflective of the construct, other studies are needed to validate these results.

Research Question 3 (Job Satisfaction). Job satisfaction had a significant, small effect on short-term and long-term turnover intentions as well as career commitment (each of the three criterion variables). This finding is in line with prior studies that found job satisfaction to be a consistent predictor of turnover intentions (Vroom, 1964; Porter & Steers, 1973; Waters & Roach, 1973). In keeping with the overall sample, job satisfaction was a statistically significant predictor of all three criterion variables in each of the subgroup models except for: the short-term turnover intentions of fundraisers who were in the Minority Subgroup and the career commitment of fundraisers who were male, worked for an arts/culture/ humanities-related organization, or worked for a health-related organization. For fundraisers in the Minority subgroup, perceived P-O fit and age were more important in the model than job satisfaction. This distinction in findings between the Minority subgroup and overall sample may be attributed

to the fact that the fundraising field is largely composed of fundraisers who are White, which has implications for organizational culture in terms of creating inclusive and diverse workplaces. If organizations are hiring solely based on fit, there could be potential discriminatory hiring practices occurring, knowingly or unknowingly, as well as a lack of commitment to inclusion and diversity within the field. As such, perceived P-O fit may become a much more relevant concept for the subgroups of fundraisers who are currently underrepresented in the profession as they determine whether they fit into the cultures of these organizations.

As for the career commitment of males and fundraisers at arts/culture/humanities-related organizations, perceived P-J fit was the most important predictor in the model, which suggests that job satisfaction is less important to fundraisers in these two groups than the perceived match between their abilities and the job tasks they are assigned. For males, this finding could be attributed to gender differences in which they place a higher value on their perceived fit with their job. Women, on the other hand, are more influenced by job satisfaction than men, according to the results of this study, which could be related to the higher levels of job-related stress they report (Harvard Women's Health Watch, 2000). For fundraisers at arts/culture/humanities-related organizations, this finding could be related to the job tasks assigned, as the largest reported sources of revenue for this field of interest were earned income and contributions from individuals. Depending on whether fundraisers are responsible for both of these sources of revenue, which require quite different skills sets to secure, perceived P-J fit could be a larger issue for these organizations. Arts/culture/humanities-related organizations tend to have special events, such as exhibit openings and sponsored performances, which earn revenue for the organization through ticket sales while also earning donations from individuals who help bring the exhibit or performance to the organization. For fundraisers at health-related

organizations, organizational size played the largest role, which is addressed in the following section regarding the other predictor variables included in the models.

Other Predictor Variables Tested. In addition to the predictor variables listed above, for which a hypothesis was formulated, four additional variables were included in the models: culture of philanthropy, salary, age, and organizational size. Among these four variables, only age was significantly predictive of turnover intentions in the main models, and this was true only for the long-term turnover intentions of the full group of participants. Older fundraisers were more likely to think they would remain in their position for a longer period of time. This finding is in line with prior research that suggests older employees change jobs less frequently than younger employees. The subgroups that differed from this finding were fundraisers who were male; fundraisers who worked within any of the fields of interest included in the analysis; and fundraisers who lived in the Northeast or West. As age was not significant in any of the field of interest subgroups, this finding could be due to the sizes of the subgroups, which because they contain smaller samples of the survey participants, have findings that are not as reliable as the overall sample. Sample size could also be the influential factor in this finding for males and those in the Northeast (smallest region subgroup) and West (which had the second smallest subgroup size along with the South). Future studies that are able to obtain larger sample sizes for these groups of fundraisers could determine whether these findings are supported in similar research on turnover intentions in the field.

In continuing to explore long-term turnover intentions, the subgroup analyses also revealed a second statistically significant variable—organizational size—for fundraisers who worked at human services organizations and fundraisers who lived in the Midwest. For these two groups, a larger annual operating budget was positively correlated with intentions to remain in a position.

Fundraisers at human services organizations worked for the field of interest subgroup that reported the largest mean budget size and a much larger percentage (47.3%) of budgets coming from government contracts, which could impact the job responsibilities that these fundraisers have. They could either be responsible for securing this government support, or if that is not part of their job description, they could have less pressure on them to raise contributed revenue since the organization is more heavily government-funded. Receiving a larger percentage of government funds could also impact the culture of the organization as the resource focus shifts from private sources of revenue to public sources of revenue, and this revenue focus could interact with organizational size in the role it plays in regards to turnover intentions. Fundraisers in the Midwest also reported that a large percentage of their budgets came from government contracts, although organizations in the Northeast reported slightly more. Organizations in the Midwest did represent the highest reported mean number of full-time employees, however, while also boasting one of the lowest reported mean numbers of fundraising staff. It is possible then that organizational size would play a larger role here than for the other regions that reported much smaller staff sizes and higher fundraiser-to-other employee ratios.

As for short-term turnover intentions, culture of philanthropy was a significant predictor in the subgroups of fundraisers living in the Northeast and West. However, this relationship was not in the predicted direction as agreement with the organization having a culture of philanthropy was positively correlated with intent to give notice. Further research is needed to understand this finding as the meaning of the term, “culture of philanthropy,” has not been explored in the academic literature and people may have different interpretations of what it implies. An interesting angle to explore in formulating a hypothesis for this relationships is whether a fundraiser who has successfully created a culture of philanthropy at one organization is

interested in then leaving that organization to replicate this success and create a culture of philanthropy for another organization. The other variable that was significant for short-term turnover intentions was age for those fundraisers in the Minority subgroup. For this subgroup, age seems to have a more immediate impact on turnover intentions than it does for the overall sample, which is just influenced by age in the long-term.

Lastly, for career commitment, the subgroups revealed that culture of philanthropy and age were statistically significant for fundraisers at education-related organizations while organizational size was significant for fundraisers who worked at human services and health-related organizations and fundraisers who lived in the Midwest. Fundraisers at education-related organizations were positively influenced by culture of philanthropy and predicted they would remain in the field of fundraising longer if they felt their organization had a culture of philanthropy. Given that education-related organizations were by far the largest in the sample in terms of full-time staff, this could imply a role that organizational size plays in whether a culture of philanthropy is perceived to exist in an organization, and as a result, has an impact on the turnover intentions of fundraisers. Since this subgroup was the only group for which age was a determining factor of career commitment, additional studies are needed to determine whether the support found for this variable is validated in future research. For the findings regarding organizational size, the human services and health-related organizations were fairly large in terms of their average annual operating budgets, while the Midwest subgroup reported one of the smallest average annual operating budgets. Each of these subgroups contained some of the largest organizations in terms of reported mean staff size, however, and some of the lowest fundraiser-to-other staff ratios. Accordingly, organizational size and the ratio of fundraisers

employed by an organization could have implications for career commitment as these fundraisers may have a heavier burden placed on them to raise money for their organization.

Discussion of Findings

The findings from this study are relevant to three strands of literature: general turnover, turnover in the nonprofit sector, specifically, and most importantly, turnover among fundraisers at 501(c)(3) public charities within the United States. The findings contribute to the scant literature available on turnover in the fundraising profession and inform nonprofit managers and leaders about the variables that might be related to high rates of turnover intentions. In turn, the findings can be used to inform the education, training, and professional development opportunities available to fundraisers so that the variables supported as predictors of turnover intentions can be addressed for those entering or advancing their career in this field. As Maertz and Griffeth (2004) stated over a decade ago, “there is no overarching framework available for researchers and practitioners hoping to comprehensively grasp the motivations for staying and leaving an organization” (p. 667). In the turnover literature today, it is still true that the desire among researchers to narrow down the field of variables that contribute to turnover has not been met. There also continues to be a lack of turnover studies conducted within the nonprofit sector. Studies such as this one, however, that are able to quantitatively analyze a large, national population sample, are part of the quest to better understand the turnover phenomenon that plagues so many organizations, especially in the nonprofit sector, and in the fundraising profession.

General Turnover Studies. While the findings from this study revealed that perceived person-organization fit (P-O fit), perceived person-job fit (P-J fit), and job satisfaction are the statistically significant predictors of turnover intentions for the overall sample of fundraisers, these results are best understood within the context of other studies that have explored similar

concepts and within the long history of studies on turnover in general. Some of the early scholars of management in the public administration field still lend valuable insights to understanding these findings today. Taylor's (1911) scientific management theory revelation that "the first objective of any good system must be that of developing first-class men" is one example (p. 7). Although it is now widely agreed that management is not simply a scientific process, understanding that no system can work without "working parts" is critical to exploring why low perceptions of P-J fit are predictive of fundraisers' desire to leave their career. If fundraisers feel that their skill sets are not a good match for the requirements of the job, and assuming that little to no training is provided to develop or build the required skills (OpportunityKnocks, 2011), finding a new career is likely to be the best alternative to staying in a field where their talents and abilities do not align with job tasks. This sentiment would especially be felt if all fundraising jobs are perceived to be the same across the nonprofit sector. The POSDCORB acronym (Gulick, 1973) might therefore be better positioned to add another "R" for recruiting and "T" for training in order to address the findings in this study and expand upon the acronym's emphasis on planning, organizing, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, reporting, and budgeting. Recruiting people with the right skill sets for fundraising jobs from the beginning would enhance perceived P-J fit, and if a person is hired and finds that their skills are not matching up with the job requirements, an investment in training by the organization may alleviate some of the low perceptions of fit with the job. For better recruitment to be possible, however, both fundraisers and nonprofit leaders must be aware of what fundraising positions require and what skill sets are needed to perform the job tasks. This general awareness about careers in fundraising may contribute to better matches between job abilities and job duties. However, until fundraising is fully accepted as a profession, and formal education opportunities

expand for people who want to pursue a career in fundraising, a lack of awareness about fundraising jobs will likely persist.

In addition to management and training, previous literature has also recognized that motivation of employees in an organization is important (Maslow, 1943; Herzberg, 1974). In March and Simon's (1958) work, they spoke to the "contributions and inducements" that employers must provide to keep employees committed to the organization. The findings of the present study, however, suggest that these contributions and inducements become less important when employees do not perceive there to be a good fit between them and the organization. When modeling the impact of perceived P-O fit, it appears that other variables in the turnover process for fundraisers are not significant predictors of turnover. Thus, without a certain level of perceived P-O fit, fundraisers will not remain committed to the organization even if they are induced to do so. The one variable that is still significant along with perceived fit is job satisfaction. This finding does align with the long history of research on job satisfaction's role in the turnover process (Mobley, 1979). As in prior studies (Porter & Steers, 1973; Waters & Roach, 1973), job satisfaction was the most consistent predictor of turnover intentions in the models included in this study.

More recently in the literature, relationships within an organization, and the fit between an organization and an employee, are included in turnover research, opening the door for studies like the present one. From Mitchell et al.'s (2011) construct of job embeddedness that included the importance of relationships and fit with job and community to Maertz and Griffeth's (2004) eight motivational factors that included constituent (attachment to coworkers) and affective (attachment to organization) forces, research has shed light on why fit and relationships must be considered in turnover literature. While relationships, in the form of perceived organizational

support and perceived leader-member exchange, were not statistically significant predictors of turnover intentions in the majority of the models tested in this study, these variables do find support in other turnover studies that have helped practitioners better understand why relationships matter (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). For this reason, the influence of relationships in fundraising positions should be further explored.

This study does, however, support the inclusion of perceived fit in the turnover process. A match between a fundraiser and an organization can reduce turnover intentions while a match between a fundraiser and a job can bolster commitment to the field of fundraising. P-J fit is both the employer's ability to meet the desires of its employees and the employee's ability to meet the demands of the employer (Edwards, 1991). In this study, when perceived P-J fit is lower, employees are actually more likely to leave the field of fundraising rather than a particular position within the field. On the other hand, as P-O fit considers supplementary (employee is similar to others in the organization) and complementary (person adds to what others at the organization have) fit (Kristof, 1996), employees who perceive there to be a lower level of P-O fit are more likely to leave the position they are currently in, both in the short-term and long-term, but not the field itself. This finding supports other studies that have shown that employees who believe that their values match those of the organization are more likely to be satisfied at work and to stay with the organization longer (Chatman, 1991; Vandenberghe, 1999).

When considering perceived P-O fit, it is important to note that "people" in the organization are central to understanding organizational culture. In the attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework, Schneider (1987) stated that "people make the place." In other words, an organizational culture arises from the way that the people who make up the

organization operate and the values and goals that they advance for their organization. Thus, if an employee does not fit into this culture, they leave it. This framework contributed to understanding the importance of organizational culture to the public sector and the construct of public service motivation (Perry & Wise, 1990). In public service motivation, organizations often attract and select individuals who are motivated by their desire to serve the public and will retain these employees as long as they can uphold their commitment to the values associated with public service (Perry, Hondeghem, & Wise, 2010). This idea has been applied to the nonprofit sector as well, which has been named the “new public service” (Word & Carpenter, 2003). In other words, if employees in the nonprofit sector feel that their organizations uphold the values that they care about, and for which they were attracted to the organization in the first place, they are more likely to remain employed by that organization in the long-term. This study highlighted, however, the fact that for fundraisers in this sample, organizational culture is a distinct construct from the mission of the organization and the organization’s culture of philanthropy, as it was perceived fit with culture that impacted turnover intentions rather than passion about an organization’s mission or the existence of a culture of philanthropy.

Studies of Turnover in the Fundraising Profession. While this study does contribute to the literature on turnover for all sectors, its most applicable findings are to the fundraising profession, as it was fundraisers who were the participants in the original study from which the data was collected. As noted, most turnover studies do not address turnover in the nonprofit sector, and those that do often are not looking at the fundraising profession and often are not large-scale, quantitative studies (Mesch, Tschirhart, Perry, & Lee, 1998; Ban, Drahanak-Faller, & Towers, 2003; Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Jamison, 2003; and Kim & Lee, 2007). Therefore, this study extends previous research on turnover intentions in the nonprofit sector, and

specifically within the fundraising profession. Knowing that turnover has been a top concern of practitioners in the field for years (Carbone, 1987; Duronio & Tempel, 1997; and Iarrobino, 2006), studies like this one build upon more recent work on the causes of turnover among fundraisers (Bell & Cornelius, 2013; Burk, 2013) that specifically aim to arm nonprofit managers and organizations with information they can use to better recruit and retain top fundraising staff. As nonprofits compete with one another for private donations, organizations that are able to keep talented development professionals in place are able to maintain long-term relationships with donors that they hope will lead to a higher probability of receiving contributions from these supporters. In turn, with stable fundraising staff in place, and relationships with donors maintained, nonprofits are better able to deliver the programs and services upon which their communities rely.

This study also, in part, addresses the Association of Fundraising Professionals' (AFP's) call for more "applied" research that advances the practice and profession of fundraising (AFP, Research Agenda section, para. 2). Knowing that fundraisers in top-level development positions might often feel that their abilities are not a good fit for their position, there may be clear steps that those advocating for the profession can take to improve P-J fit. For example, it may be that organizations recruiting for fundraisers are unclear up front about the expectations of the job, which creates low levels of perceived fit once the fundraiser is actually in the position and trying to perform in the role. It may also be that once the person begins in the role, their supervisor adds additional responsibilities to the position or sets goals that are not likely achievable. Or, the person entering the fundraising role may not be educated, in general, about what fundraising entails. Likewise, for perceived P-O fit, it may be that more effort could be placed on educating candidates about, or exposing them to, organizational culture during the recruitment process so

that people seeking fundraising positions are more aware of the type of environment in which they would be working. This education about organizational culture also implies that leaders of the organization are aware of their organizational culture and are able to articulate it.

Additionally, data from other studies, revealing the reasons fundraisers themselves give for leaving a position, or wanting to leave a position, support the importance of fit: wanting more responsibility; seeking a greater challenge; not being able to meet unrealistic expectations from management; having insufficient budgets/resources; a resistance from others in the organization to better strategies; a lack of understanding of development from coworkers; and being given additional responsibilities beyond fundraising (Carbone, 1987; Burk, 2013; Campbell & Company, 2013). Many of the conditions listed here can lead fundraisers to feel that their abilities to perform their position as the top fundraiser in an organization are not a good fit for the requirements that are placed upon them to perform in this role. Wanting more responsibility, seeking a greater challenge, unrealistic expectations, and responsibilities that go beyond fundraising could each contribute to perceptions of low fit between a fundraiser and the position they assumed. If these conditions persist, fundraisers may be likely to seek alternative career paths where they feel their abilities are a better match for the tasks they are asked to perform. Also, insufficient budgets and a lack of resources to perform the job, as well as resistance from others regarding better fundraising strategies and a general lack of understanding of development from coworkers, could lead to low levels of perceived P-O fit, resulting in intentions to leave the organization. Fundraisers under these conditions will likely seek out employers that are able to provide a better culture in which they can perform their job.

Human Resource Management in the Nonprofit Sector. Effective human resource (HR) management strategies can address some of the above listed issues. A look at general HR

management issues in the nonprofit sector can also offer insight into why perceived P-J fit may be low, and consequently driving fundraisers away from the field. For instance, surveys of nonprofit workers revealed that many reported receiving no job training and felt that their organizations did not care about their career development (OpportunityKnocks, 2011; Light, 2002). If fundraisers are recruited for positions and find that their skill sets are not a good match for the actual job tasks, there may be little help offered to them to develop within the position or have the opportunity to improve upon their skills to make the job a better fit. Unfortunately, while training, or other professional development opportunities, could bolster an employee's skill sets, and lead to more effective and efficient operations for the organization itself, it seems that many nonprofit organizations do not invest properly in their human capital (Ridder, Piening, & Baluch, 2012). This lack of investment could also impact perceived P-O fit as fundraisers realize that the culture of the organization may not be supportive of their position.

While previous studies confirmed that many organizations in the nonprofit sector lack basic human resource management strategies that can improve the conditions of employment for their staff (Ban, Drahnak-Faller, & Towers, 2003), this finding seems to be especially true for smaller organizations and older organizations that are not likely to have actual HR departments (Guo et al, 2011). With general consensus that the people that make up organizations in the nonprofit sector are often the organization's largest asset, they are often the most neglected. Scarce resources (money, time, and capacity) in the sector often lead to this neglect (Watson & Abzug, 201). In turn, neglecting human capital in nonprofit organizations can lead to turnover, which in turn leads to skills, knowledge, and abilities leaving the organization as well, and potentially leaving the nonprofit sector. These forms of capital are difficult to replace.

Investment in human capital, while sometimes costly up front, can pay off in the long-run through a reduction in the direct and indirect costs associated with turnover.

Finally, prior research has confirmed that nonprofit organizations cannot rely on mission alone to retain their employees. While public service motivation and mission attachment have been assumed to be strong motivators of organizational commitment in the nonprofit sector, this study builds upon prior research that suggests mission alone is not enough to motivate employees in the nonprofit sector to reduce turnover. Other studies have found that variables such as dissatisfaction with pay and a lack of career advancement opportunities moderate the relationship between turnover and positive attitudes towards mission (Mesch, Tschirhart, Perry, & Lee, 1998; Light, 2002; Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Kim & Lee, 2007). Thus, it appears that mission attachment is only one component of employee motivation and commitment in the nonprofit sector. Nonprofit managers must also address how well their employees fit into their organization and with the job duties assigned.

Implications

Positioned within the context of prior knowledge regarding turnover intentions and the fundraising profession, the implications of the findings in this study are relevant to the theories that govern turnover studies, the practice of fundraising within the nonprofit sector, and the field of public administration and public policy. Turnover is often a costly process for organizations, which is one reason that the literature on turnover is as expansive as it is, as scholars seek ways to inform practitioners about strategies they can undertake to reduce turnover within their organizations. While many turnover studies are limited to a certain organization, a certain profession (as this study), and/or a certain point in time (also true for this study), many of the results that appear in the turnover literature are generalized to larger populations as findings are aggregated to seek meaning among the many predictors of turnover that exist in the literature.

While few studies exist on turnover specific to the fundraising profession, those working in the nonprofit sector have recognized turnover as a prominent issue for years (Joyaux, 2013), which contributed to the great amount of attention that the *UnderDeveloped* report received upon its release (Bell & Cornelius, 2013). Employees in the nonprofit sector, and especially in the fundraising profession, have long sought recognition and solutions for this perceived “problem.”

Turnover in nonprofit fundraising careers is of importance to the field of public administration and public policy, as well, as government scholars continue to explore the ways in which the public and nonprofit sectors work together in the provision of public goods and services. As the government continues to outsource services to nonprofit and for-profit organizations, these cross-sector relationships will continue to impact employees in each of the sectors, and more importantly, the people they serve. Pettijohn, Boris, De Vita, and Fuffe (2013) found that in 2013, there were about 350,000 government contracts and grants awarded to approximately 56,000 nonprofit organizations with a nonprofit, on average, having six government contracts or grants. These contracts and grants totaled \$137 billion. Private philanthropy often supplements this public funding, and with the assumption that turnover in the fundraising profession impacts an organization’s ability to seek and secure private donations, there are implications for nonprofits’ ability to consistently serve clients that rely on their provision of these goods and services.

Implications for Theory. When modeling the impact of perceived fit, exchange relationships, and job satisfaction, there is evidence to support perceived fit and job satisfaction as the statistically significant predictors of turnover intentions in the models studied here. Just two of the subgroup models offered support for perceived organizational support (POS) as a significant predictor of turnover intentions—for males, it was a predictor of short-term turnover

intentions and for those working at organizations in the South, it was a predictor of long-term turnover intentions. Similarly, for perceived leader-member exchange (LMX), there were only two subgroup models where this variable was a significant predictor of turnover intentions—for fundraisers at educational institutions, it was a predictor of short-term and long-term turnover intentions. Further research is needed to determine if these subgroup findings are meaningful, and if so, why exchange relationships may play a role in turnover intentions for these particular populations and not others. A better understanding of why some employees may be more affected by their beliefs about how they are treated by their organization and by the relationships they have with their supervisor, while others are not, could offer insight into whether these constructs are only applicable to certain populations, certain careers, or certain sectors.

For most fundraisers, however, this study was not able to offer support for POS (measured here as: included in organizational-wide decisions; access to opportunities for professional growth; adequate fund development infrastructure; realistic performance goals; generally satisfied with compensation; and organization values employee for fund development skills, knowledge, and expertise) or perceived LMX (measured here as the nature of the relationship with the executive director and the partnership with the executive director in fund development work) being a statistically significant predictor of turnover intentions in any of the three measures tested—short-term turnover intentions, long-term turnover intentions, and career commitment.

What is clear from this study, however, is that perceived fit and job satisfaction are more universally present as predictors of turnover intentions for those in the profession of fundraising. In Saks and Ashfort's (1997) research on perceived fit, they found that perceived P-J fit was positively correlated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational

identification while negatively correlated with stress and intentions to quit. On the other hand, perceived P-O fit was negatively correlated with intentions to quit and actual turnover. The present study lends additional support to these findings, indicating that perceived P-O fit is indeed correlated with intentions to quit while perceived P-J fit may be a more complex construct that actually leads to fundraisers leaving their profession altogether (perhaps because of its correlation with job satisfaction and stress). Additionally, previous longitudinal studies of fit have confirmed that P-O fit is predictive of actual turnover up to two years after original measurements were taken (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Vandenberghe, 1999) while a meta-analysis of P-J fit confirmed its predictive value, finding a -.46 correlation with intent to quit (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Fundraisers in the original *UnderDeveloped* survey did report longer intentions to remain in their position when their perceived levels of P-O fit were high and longer intentions to remain in the field of fundraising when their perceived levels of P-J were stronger.

Specific to the nonprofit sector, research in the UK found that perceptions of organizational values in charitable organizations had the largest effect on commitment among all of the variables tested, which included actual value congruence as well (Stride & Higgins, 2014). As this study shows, while mission may not be the leading force behind turnover intentions, values do play a role in turnover in the nonprofit sector, but through general organizational values rather than the mission of the organization, which can oftentimes be very specific to a particular field of interest. Values, when viewed through the lens of organizational culture, affect fundraisers' turnover intentions, in the short-term and long-term, even though their passion for their organization's mission does not. A fundraiser can be passionate about the mission of an organization, but if they perceive that there is a misaligned fit with actual organizational

behavior, beliefs, norms, language, and systems, then mission alone will not keep them in the position. Similarly, culture of philanthropy, while an important concept to consider in nonprofit organizations, did not play the significant role that general organizational culture did in predicting turnover intentions. Without a basic perception of fit existing between a fundraiser and an organization, turnover intentions are difficult to minimize.

Implications for Practice—Retaining Fundraisers in the Profession. The *UnderDeveloped* survey offers insight into what fundraisers are responsible for on the job: relationship building (92.4%), securing the gift (91.5%), management of the organization (89.1%), current and prospective donor research (84.4%), accountability efforts (82.1%); and volunteer involvement (59.5%). For those who are responsible for securing gifts, the most popular methods to do so include: foundation proposals (92.6%), direct mail (87.3%), special events (87.0%), online giving (85.4%), and board giving (85.1%). Taking a high level look at these responsibilities and job tasks, it becomes clear that being able to “ask for money” is not the only job skill that a fundraiser needs to master in order to be successful in a top-level development position. From the perspective of P-J fit, as an example, fundraisers who are highly skilled in donor research may not be as highly skilled in volunteer engagement. However, if those fundraisers are asked to take responsibility for both functions of the organization, they might struggle with determining if the job is really a good fit even if one of these functions is highly aligned with their abilities. Likewise, for those fundraisers who are responsible for securing gifts, raising money by writing a grant proposal might be a highly aligned fit with their skills while coordinating a special event is not a good fit at all.

If fundraisers across the sector are tasked with multiple responsibilities like these that may not naturally align under the skill sets of one person, it is not difficult to see why low levels

of perceived P-J fit might lead to fundraisers leaving the career altogether. These multiple responsibilities and assigned tasks speak to Drozdowski's (2003) conceptualization of why the position of top fundraiser is often referred to as "Director of Development," rather than a more straightforward word like "Director of Fundraising." Fundraisers spend much of their time outside of the "direct asks" they make in raising money for their organizations. The assignment of such varying responsibilities and tasks also speaks to the limited resources, including human resources, with which many nonprofits have to accomplish their missions.

The data in this study revealed that among those fundraisers surveyed, the organizations for which they worked had, on average, 3.4 full-time employees dedicated to fundraising, while the median number of fundraising employees was two, and the most commonly given response was one. For perspective, the average annual operating budget for organizations in the survey was \$15,284,627, while the median budget was \$2,400,000 and the most commonly given response was \$2,000,000. On average, according to respondents, contributions (including individual, corporate, foundation, and in-kind support) accounted for 42% of the organizations' budgets. If these organizations require their fundraiser(s) to employ multiple methods to secure the private philanthropy that supports these budgets, but have just several fundraising employees (or only one) on staff, then the pressure is placed on these few fundraisers to excel at multiple tasks that may not require the same skill sets or skills that would naturally align. When a fundraiser's role is only appreciated from the perspective of raising money, Wagner's (2002), "tinkerbelle syndrome," comes into play. Other employees in the organization perhaps may not appreciate the various ways that fundraisers are being asked to raise money for their programs and services and may not realize the other tasks they are assigned in addition to raising money. The implications of perceived P-J fit affecting commitment to the field of fundraising should

encourage nonprofit leaders to take more notice of exactly how fundraisers are tasked with raising money and what other responsibilities they may have on their plate in addition to fundraising. A review of the fundraising role in nonprofit organizations, and across the nonprofit sector, needs to be reconsidered in regards to reasonable job expectations.

Implications for Practice—Retaining Fundraisers in their Positions. Fundraisers are often “compartmentalized” in their organization; their job is not well understood; and their role is seen as just to raise money for the organization. These findings were a result of a study on the organizational roles that fundraisers enact (Waters, Kelly, & Walker, 2012), and these conditions led to dissatisfaction on behalf of the fundraiser and the organization. When perceived P-O fit is viewed as the supplementary fit between an employee and the organization, or in other words how similar an employee is to others in the organization, it is clear that fundraisers facing these isolating conditions may struggle to perceive themselves as fitting into the organizational culture. A large part of organizational culture is based on value congruence (Chatman, 1989; Kristof, 1996), and employees whose values match those of their organization remain more committed to the organization (Chatman, 1991; O’Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Vandenberghe, 1999). If fundraisers are not incorporated into the larger team of employees in the organization, and do not feel that their responsibilities align with others in the organization, then this isolation may be what results in fundraisers not perceiving a high level of fit between the organizational culture and their own values.

One reason that perceived P-O fit is important to understand in the nonprofit sector is because, as Moynihan & Pandey (2007) state, “unlike PSM [public service motivation] style measurements of intrinsic commitment, the P-O fit approach attempts to reflect how the organizational context interacts with values” (p. 215). Likewise, in the nonprofit sector, and as

demonstrated in this study, perceived P-O fit is a different construct than culture of philanthropy and mission attachment. The data from this study revealed that the larger organizational culture is predictive of turnover intentions among fundraisers rather than the specific culture of philanthropy that an organization may or may not have. Fundraisers may perceive that without high perceptions of fit with their organizations, in general, a culture of philanthropy is secondary to overall value congruence. Likewise, an organization's mission statement is not always reflective of an organization's values. So, while an employee might be passionate about a certain mission, or field of work, they may find that an organization, other than their own, with a similar mission and purpose, has a better organizational culture for them. Thus, fundraisers may need to make more of an effort to learn about an organizational culture before accepting a position, and organizations may need to put forth more effort during the interview process to educate applicants about their organizational culture.

There may also be preconceived notions about nonprofit culture that result from the theories of why nonprofits exist. These theories typically speak to nonprofits roles in providing goods and services needed by the public that are not produced by the government or market (Weisbrod, 1977); representing diverse interests and voices (Salamon & Anheir, 1998); and as a place for democracy and inclusion of marginalized populations (Valentinov, 2012). As Teegarden, Hinden, and Sturm (2010) note, nonprofit organizations are often thought of as places that value equity and fairness; transparency and accountability; citizen inclusion and participation; and innovation and flexibility. When these assumptions are made about an organization simply because it is a nonprofit organization, and without proof that they exist, expectations might not be realistically set or met once a fundraiser is on the job and sees firsthand how the organization operates. Awareness of organizational culture by those already

employed by the organization, and of candidates seeking positions, as well as the sharing of this awareness, are critical to the implications of P-O fit on turnover intentions.

Implications for Practice—Increasing Diversity in Fundraising Positions

With a focus on organizational culture and P-O fit, nonprofit organizations do need to be aware of potentially discriminatory hiring practices that can result from hiring people based on cultural fit. Or, as Cullison (2012) asks, “when are [recruiters] being discriminatory and when are we just looking out for the best interests of our company?” (para 9). While some organizations hire to “reinforce fit,” others hire to “extend fit.” Powell (1998) argues for a hiring strategy that takes organizational cohesiveness and diversity into consideration, called the “organizational effectiveness perspective.” An awareness that hiring for fit could lead to discrimination, and a commitment to cohesiveness and diversity, could prevent hiring decisions that are based on the fact that a candidate is different from others in the organization, and a fear that those currently employed may not know how to work with the candidate (Edmond, 2012). One study showed that employees involved in hiring decisions do take cultural fit into consideration during interviews, finding that immigrant job seekers were perceived as having lower cultural fit than non-immigrant job seekers (Bye, Horverak, Sandal, Sam, & van de Vijver, 2014). Therefore, those in positions of power to hire in nonprofit organizations must maintain a consciousness that these biases can and do exist.

Discriminating based on fit can also lead to nonprofit organizations missing out on the chance to hire well-qualified candidates. Researchers studying P-O fit found that women and ethnic minorities factored in an organization’s diversity management policies when making decisions about what job offers to accept, especially job seekers considered to be “high achievers” (Ng & Burke, 2005). Another study found that 57% of employees surveyed,

regardless of race, tried to assess an organization's commitment to diversity during interviews, and that employees of color were 71% likely to do so. As a result, 16% of those surveyed had withdrawn their application or declined a job offer because of a lack of commitment to diversity, with 35% of people of color having done so (Schwartz, Weinberg, Hagenbuch & Scott, 2011). These statistics are particularly troubling for nonprofit organizations based on responses that nonprofit employees give about their employers' commitment to diversity. In a 2013 survey of nonprofit organizations, most participants reported that diversity was important to their organization, but only 37% reported that their organization had a formal diversity strategy (Nonprofit HR Solutions, 2013). As a result, these nonprofits may perpetuate their homogenous cultures by not appearing as attractive workplace environments to minority candidates.

Diversity cannot be something that an organization touts but does not back up with practice, as it is obvious to employees and potential employees that the organization is then not actually committed to a diverse workforce. More specifically for nonprofit organizations, being inclusive cannot just be something that is part of a written mission statement if it is not evident in the way that the organization treats employees (Hayes, 2014). As nonprofit employees continue to demonstrate that being part of an inclusive and diverse workplace is important to them, those nonprofits that are unable to embody these ideals will potentially lose valuable employees. To ensure that organizations are practicing what they have written about their commitment to diversity, Bohonos (2013) suggests that organizations have a "Culture and Values" statement that is used as a tool when new employees are recruited so that it is clear to everyone involved in the hiring process what the organization does to evaluate fit and also uphold their goal to attract diverse candidates. He also recommends that job seekers have open conversations during their interview process about how the organization defines fit and discuss the possible cultural

implications associated with fit. As a result, both job seekers and interviewers can have a shared understanding of the factors that are driving evaluation of fit for that organization.

To support organizations committed to hiring diverse workforces, McMillan-Capehart and Lopez (2007) propose that organizations focus on socialization activities as part of the new employee onboarding process that highlight inclusion and acceptance, which can in turn increase perceived fit even with dissimilar employees. For the nonprofit sector, in particular, Le (2015) points out that the sector has both a demand and supply problem when it comes to promoting diversity in nonprofit leadership. To support minorities as nonprofit leaders, Le suggests that funders focus on investing in communities-of-color led nonprofits; supporting leadership pipeline programs that bring leaders of color into the nonprofit sector and that promote emerging leaders; and that the power dynamics between funders and nonprofits change to reduce existing inequities. As for the fundraising profession specifically, the Association of Fundraising Professionals has suggested that their members should consider the following: acknowledging that lack of diversity in the profession is a problem; redefining what the profession looks like and the vocabulary it uses (“move outside the white frame of reference”); talking to recruiters about diversity as a key priority for the profession; and incorporating diversity strategies wholly into the organization rather than creating them as stand-alone initiatives (AFP Diversity Summit). In sum, there are many players that have a role in preventing discriminatory hiring practices and promoting diversity within the field of fundraising, including nonprofit managers, funders, and those currently in the fundraising profession. Increasing perceived P-O fit for fundraisers in order to reduce turnover intentions should not be considered without simultaneously addressing the issues of diversity that plague the profession. As nonprofit organizations focus on ways they

can increase P-O fit, they must also take their commitment to workplace diversity and inclusion seriously.

Implications for Public Administration and Public Policy. In addition to the implications that perceived fit has for the profession of fundraising, and to particular fundraising positions, low levels of perceived fit among fundraising staff that lead to turnover intentions also impact the field of public administration and public policy. Many nonprofit organizations partner with government agencies to deliver programs and services to the public. When there is turnover in the fundraising role of these organizations, and that turnover results in long vacancies in the position, the continuity of the nonprofit's programs and services are jeopardized as there is a gap in securing private donations, and possibly government support as well, to fund the mission critical work of the organization. As Smith (2008) noted, the government views these nonprofit partnerships as adding legitimacy to the goods and services provided, as many nonprofit organizations are perceived as being well-integrated in their communities. If high rates of turnover continue in the fundraising field, and do impact the government services provided through nonprofit partners, government agencies may begin to think that this sense of legitimacy is compromised. As a result, for-profit organizations, providing similar services, may see an increase in the government contracts they are awarded as the government shifts its partnerships away from the nonprofit sector to the for-profit sector.

Besides the consequences that turnover in this field has for the provision of public goods and services, findings on turnover in nonprofit organizations are also important to public administration given the many similarities noted in the research between the motivations of those working in the public and nonprofit sectors. Thus, findings on turnover in either sector are quite possibly relevant to the other. For example, public service motivation has been applied to the

nonprofit sector, with the idea that employees of both sectors are intrinsically motivated. However, some research has suggested that it might be P-J fit, rather than P-O fit, that matters for public service motivation as employees can seek out positions in any sector to be in service-oriented roles and can find ways to “do good” in any sector as well (Christensen & Wright, 2011). While perceived P-O fit was found to be the predictor of turnover intentions for fundraisers when making a decision about leaving a position, it was perceived P-J fit that was a predictor of their intention to remain in the field of fundraising. As a result, while perceived P-O fit is important to an organization retaining fundraising staff, perceived P-J fit is more relevant to the entire sector in the retention of development professionals, and perhaps more relevant to the public sector as well.

One way that government agencies funding nonprofit organizations to provide services could potentially play a role in improving perceived P-J fit is by changing the policies that govern the percentage of government grants and contracts that can be used for overhead and administrative expenses. Ensuring that the funding offered supports staff and staff development, in addition to direct programs and services, would benefit those in fundraising positions who need additional training. According to research by the Urban Institute, close to 25% of people they surveyed reported that the government would not pay any overhead costs, and 75% reported that the maximum amount of funding that could be used for administrative costs was 10% (Pettijohn, Boris, De Vita, and Fuffe, 2013). While these figures cover state and federal government grant support, 10% is the rate that nonprofit organizations are allowed to spend on so-called indirect costs when receiving federal funding unless they negotiate their own indirect cost rate. To do so requires a certain level of financial acumen that many smaller nonprofit organizations may not have the staff capacity to fulfill. Additionally, the expenses that are to be

considered as overhead and administrative are not always easily defined, and some nonprofit organizations, in an effort to prove they are spending the majority of their funding on direct program expenses, may categorize expenses incorrectly on their tax returns (Winger, Hager, Rooney, and Pollak, 2005).

On the other hand, nonprofits may actually reduce these expenses to the detriment of their mission. The Government Accountability Office reports that as a result of underfunding for indirect costs, nonprofits:

may reduce the population served or the scope of services offered, and may forgo or delay physical infrastructure and technology improvements and staffing needs. Because many nonprofits view cuts in clients served or services offered as unpalatable, they reported that they often compromise vital “backoffice” functions, which over time can affect their ability to meet their missions. Further, nonprofits’ strained resources limit their ability to build a financial safety net, which can create a precarious financial situation for them. Absent a sufficient safety net, nonprofits that experience delays in receiving their federal funding may be inhibited in their ability to bridge funding gaps. When funding is delayed, some nonprofits said they either borrow funds on a line of credit or use cash reserves to provide services and pay bills until their grant awards are received. Collectively, these issues place stress on the nonprofit sector, diminishing its ability to continue to effectively partner with the federal government to provide services to vulnerable populations (Czerwinski, 2010, Abstract).

Foundation and corporate funders have also traditionally limited the amount of funding their grantees are allowed to spend on overhead and administrative costs, playing a role in the investments that nonprofits have been able to make in their human capital and infrastructure, which make program and service delivery possible. With GuideStar, the BBB Wise Giving Alliance, and Charity Navigator now advocating to end the overhead myth, or “the false conception that financial ratios are the sole indicator of nonprofit performance,” many in the nonprofit sector hope that private funders will move away from their strict limits on supporting overhead costs, which could persuade government funders to do the same (www.overheadmyth.com).

Policy changes that lead to increased support for overhead and administrative costs could improve upon the “nonprofit starvation cycle,” in which nonprofits hold back from making critical investments in their operations to please funders (Gregory & Howard, 2009). In turn, an increased investment in these costs could impact the training and support that fundraisers need to develop the skills required to perform well in their positions. It could also increase the number of fundraising staff that nonprofits can afford to hire so that job tasks can be shared and the organizations can best meet their resource demands.

Limitations

There are three main limitations applicable to this study: the nature of secondary data analysis; the lack of gender and race/ethnicity diversity among the participants (in line with the lack of diversity in the field of fundraising nationwide); and the need for additional studies to fully address the variables that did not appear in the predicted direction in several of the subgroup analyses. These limitations are further addressed below in reviewing the internal validity, external validity, measurement, and statistical analysis concerns of the research. These limitations are also addressed in the next section of the paper through suggestions for future research on this topic that would minimize the stated limitations of the study.

Internal and External Validity. In terms of internal validity, while the results of this study offer support for the hypotheses related to perceived P-J fit, perceived P-O fit, and job satisfaction, the nature of the study prevents these findings from implying that these variables actually cause turnover intentions among fundraisers. The findings support the suggestion that these variables can help predict the turnover intentions of fundraisers, but without a true experimental design to test these findings, the study can only speak to correlations among the variables rather than actual causation. As for external validity, the results of this study can be generalized to fundraisers at public charities throughout the United States with two cautions

regarding organizational size and sources of revenue. The original researchers who collected this data found that the sample does not include as many small or large nonprofits as would be anticipated based on national statistics. Additionally, the average percentage of contributed revenue (42%) does differ from the reported national average of nonprofit organizations, which is 22% of an organization's budget (Salamon & Geller, 2012). As a result, the findings of this study may be more applicable to mid-sized nonprofits and those that rely more heavily on private contributions. Caution should also be taken in applying these findings to other careers in the nonprofit sector and/or to other sectors of the economy as perceived fit and job satisfaction could have different predictive significance in various settings. Finally, only the top paid fundraiser of an organization could participate in the original survey from which this data was drawn. Therefore, findings could differ for fundraisers at lower paid levels of nonprofit organizations.

Measurement and Statistical Analysis. The nature of secondary data analysis lends itself to a natural limitation in that the researchers who initially collected the data oftentimes did not have the same use for it in mind as the researchers using it in the secondary data analysis. Some questions that the secondary data analysis might wish to address might not have been asked on the original survey. In this instance, to assess perceived organizational support and perceive leader-member exchange, two scales were created using a combination of questions asked on the survey relevant to each construct. While each scale had an acceptable alpha level (.81 and .86, respectively), it should still be noted that these scales were created without the full scope of information that would ideally be required to measure these concepts. Additionally, the term, "culture of philanthropy," while defined in the original survey, has not been tested in other academic research, and thus the results of this study regarding "culture of philanthropy" cannot

be compared to other scholarly literature. Further analysis is needed to fully understand the implications of “culture of philanthropy” in regards to the turnover intentions of fundraisers.

Another statistical limitation of this study is that the size of the subgroups, especially for gender and race/ethnicity, made interpretations of findings difficult. With 79% of the participants being female and 88% being White, the uneven subgroup sizes created a barrier for being able to compare statistical significance among subgroups as larger sample sizes provide more reliable results. Additionally, some of the subgroup findings showed certain variables as statistically significant predictors of turnover intentions, but not in the predicted direction. While tests for multicollinearity and normal distribution of the data were performed, future research is needed to explore these findings as suggested in the next section. For example, the two findings for perceived P-O fit that were in the “wrong direction” were in the *Plans to Stay in Field* model for fundraisers who were in the Minority subgroup ($n=171$) and for fundraisers who worked at youth development organizations ($n=97$). Comparing these subgroups to the other ones in their category, the White subgroup for this model contained 1,303 participants while the largest subgroup for the fields of interest contained 325. The large variations in these subgroup sizes could cause a variable to be statistically significant for one subgroup but not the other, where as if the groups were of a similar size, this might not be the case. Thus, it is not advisable to draw conclusions about statistical significance from these groups when the sample sizes are so different. Ways that this limitation and others can be addressed through future research are provided below.

Recommendations for Future Research

One of the well-known benefits of secondary data analysis is that studies can be retested and/or extended using the same data. With this data set, future research could include the testing of additional variables available through the survey results that might also be predictors of

turnover intentions in the short-term and long-term and of career commitment. The testing of the same variables chosen in this study as predictor variables, but through the use of different statistical methods, could also be pursued. The continued use of this data set to explore the question of turnover intentions among fundraisers would lend credibility to the generalizability of the study's results. However, this same study could also be replicated using another data set altogether. New studies could look at the same population—the top level fundraisers of nonprofit organizations—or could look at different populations—such as fundraisers at lower levels of the organization or other nonprofit career fields. With comparisons between nonprofit and public sector employees often made throughout the literature, the study could be replicated with employees at government agencies as well.

Future research may also consider the replication of this study with different measures of perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived leader-member exchange (LMX). Since scales were created to measure these concepts specifically for this study, given the data available, other research using different measurements of these concepts might find that results differ in the multiple regression analysis. Also, in terms of fit, other studies might consider testing actual person-organization fit (P-O fit) and actual person-job fit (P-J fit) rather than perceived fit measures for these concepts. Actual fit has been shown in other studies of turnover to have different effects on turnover than perceived fit.

Another suggestion for future research would be to conduct a longitudinal study of the fundraisers who participated in the survey used to obtain the data set for this study. For those fundraisers who predicted how long they believed they would remain in their position and/or the field of fundraising, a follow-up study could determine whether these turnover intentions actually led to turnover, and if so, if it occurred within the predicted timeframe given by the

participants. It may also be interesting to note why the fundraisers gave the length of time they did when they were making the predictions about how long they would be in their position or the field to see if they perhaps identified perceived fit and job satisfaction as issues related to turnover themselves.

From the employer's perspective, the impact of turnover among fundraisers on the organization could be explored. For instance, do the employers perceive this turnover to be functional or dysfunctional for their organization? In other words, do they perceive it as beneficial for someone to leave who is not a good fit for the organization or for the job, or was it more of a detriment to the organization's overall performance, i.e. ability to raise money, that this turnover occurred? Likewise, do they view the turnover as avoidable or unavoidable? Are there tools and resources they could have used to improve the satisfaction of these employees or was it out of their control? Could better recruitment mechanisms have been used to select a better person for the position or could training have prevented turnover from occurring? The resulting consequences of turnover would form a solid basis for exploration in a new study on turnover in the fundraising field.

Lastly, further research would add value, and perhaps validation, to the subgroup findings. Additional studies could sort out some of the findings among the subgroups that showed certain predictor variables in the "wrong" direction, according to extant theory, in various models. This would include further exploration of perceived P-O fit, mission attachment, and culture of philanthropy. One way that these findings could be further explored is through studies that purposefully seek out fundraisers in the subgroups where these findings were present. Larger samples would allow for the interpretation of findings to be more comparable to fundraisers overall. For example, only male fundraisers could be the focus of a study or only

fundraisers who were included in the Minority subgroup. Larger samples of these specific populations of fundraisers would also address issues of diversity within the field, and with a better understanding of turnover intentions among these specific groups, better recruitment and training options could be offered. Another way to extend these findings is through a mixed methods research approach and/or qualitative study, which would not be bound by the sample size restrictions accompanying multiple regression analysis and the interpretation of findings. These types of research designs would contribute to the understanding of this study's subgroup findings and provide a richer perspective on the findings, when considered together.

Conclusion

One common perception that fundraisers hold about their profession is that it is not actually respected as a true profession. As Joyaux (2013) noted in response to the *UnderDeveloped* report, “too many people—in particular bosses and boards—don’t believe there is a body of knowledge.” Similarly, when the blog, *The Agitator*, asked fundraisers what best described their organization’s philosophy on fundraising, it was “here’s what we need...go raise it” that was the most popular response. While the position of “Director of Development” encompasses many more tasks than solely raising money for the organization, and while this task alone can be accomplished through multiple methods, many outside of the profession of fundraising may not fully appreciate the roles that fundraising professionals play within their organization. If these roles are not well understood within the walls of fundraisers’ own organizations, and fundraisers are isolated within the organization, then it is likely difficult for fundraisers to be successful in their positions and within the field. The results of this study, showing that perceived P-J fit, perceived P-O fit, and job satisfaction are the most significant predictors of turnover intentions, can be applied by nonprofit leaders, educators, and scholars to change the current state of flux in the fundraising profession.

In terms of job satisfaction, employers need to be clear up front about what the job entails and what resources the organization is able to offer to support the position. They may also need to do an audit of their job description(s) for their fundraiser(s) to see if it is reasonable to expect to find the skills they seek in one person. Are the expectations for the job realistic? Can others in the organization help? How can the organization best recognize and appreciate the other roles that come along with being a fundraiser in addition to raising money? Answering questions similar to these could lead to jobs that are a better fit for fundraisers and better alignment between organizations and the values that fundraisers bring to the job, thus increasing their job satisfaction.

For perceived P-O fit, employers should first recognize their own organizational culture, and then find ways during their interview process to expose candidates to what the culture is. Perhaps including more people in the interview process, or allowing the candidate time to spend in the office, would create more awareness of how the organization operates. It could be that fundraisers are seeking a different type of organizational culture than other employees typically hired by the organization. Fundraisers should also cautiously consider the difference between an organization's mission and its culture when seeking new positions. While not necessarily motivated to stay with an organization because of its mission, fundraisers are also not as motivated by material incentives as they are by perceiving a good fit between their values and the values of the organization. When their beliefs align with those of the organization, they are more likely to remain with that organization, in the short-term and long-term. Therefore, fundraisers should be careful in making assumptions about what they believe an organizational culture to be.

Lastly, in consideration of perceived P-J fit, there are at least three reasons that fundraisers might perceive there to be a low level of fit between their abilities and job tasks once they are in a position. First, they could be unclear about what the role of a top fundraiser entails. In this profession, on-the-job training has historically been the most typical form of training fundraisers receive. While degree programs in nonprofit studies are expanding, they typically offer just a class on fundraising within the program, and consequently it is challenging for someone seeking a career in fundraising to find formal education opportunities to prepare them for the profession. Additionally, the professional associations in the field can only offer so much through professional development opportunities for fundraisers that will directly lead to building their skill sets, and fundraisers can only take advantage of these opportunities if resources allow. For this reason, new individuals coming into fundraising positions may soon find that they are not prepared for the tasks at hand. The second reason that perceived P-J fit may be low is that fundraisers are not given an accurate description of the position when they apply for a job, and only find out once hired what the job actually entails. This could happen if those involved in the hiring process do not fully understand the role of a fundraiser or if they make assumptions about what the person they are interviewing already knows about the position. In both instances, education on behalf of the fundraiser and of the organization could lead to higher levels of perceived P-J fit. Lastly, low perceived P-J fit may permeate the field of fundraising if jobs are similarly structured across the nonprofit sector to include roles and responsibilities that do not naturally align. If a fundraiser has encountered low perceived levels of P-J fit in multiple positions, conclusions may be drawn that this profession is not a good fit in general. As a result, it may be a more sector-level issue to address than an organization-level problem.

Overall, if organizations can find ways to increase perceived P-J fit, perceived P-O fit, and job satisfaction, they are less likely to experience turnover intentions among their fundraising staff and an exodus of professionals leaving the field. As Dess & Shaw (2001) noted, this reduction in turnover has three potential benefits—a reduction in direct costs associated with turnover; avoidance of productivity loss with an employee leaving; and a prevention of social capital leaving, including networks of relationships, access to information, ties to stakeholders, and ability to attract other high-performing individuals to the organization. Clearly, this last perspective is of particular importance to the field of fundraising.

While nonprofit organizations certainly value savings on direct costs and the productivity of each employee, the social capital that fundraisers bring to their positions, and are able to build while in a position, are critical to the organization's ability to secure private donations. Nonprofits rely on the network of relationships that fundraisers cultivate and steward during their tenure, and when fundraisers leave an organization, it is likely that some of these networks will leave with them. The same is true for access to information and ties to stakeholders. In addition to building relationships with stakeholders, fundraisers must learn about the requirements attached to certain streams of revenue, which funders are interested in supporting their organization's mission and how these funders should be approached, and who within their organization is the right person to connect with these funders. Fundraisers coming into new positions have a steep learning curve—they must not only learn about their new employer and coworkers but also learn about each of the investors that their employer relies on for financial support. Lastly, there is the possibility that if a fundraiser leaves an organization, and is part of a larger development team, others on that team will leave with him/her. When teams leave, the

direct costs of turnover and loss of productivity become profound and the social capital deficit widens.

To reap the benefits of reduced turnover, nonprofit organizations and funders must invest up front in ways to increase perceptions of fit with the organization and the job, as well as job satisfaction. Strategies to ensure higher perceptions of fit and job satisfaction include recognizing nonprofit fundraising as a true profession, expanding the training and formal education opportunities available to those seeking or advancing a career in fundraising, offering sufficient funding to hire the appropriate number of fundraising staff and provide them with professional development opportunities, and building a shared awareness of organizational culture among nonprofit employers and those seeking fundraising positions. These strategies, while perhaps having a higher direct cost up front, will pay off in the long-run for public charities in terms of productivity and expanded social capital.

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APPENDIX A

Table 35

Overview of Theories and Corresponding Hypotheses

Perceived Person-Job Fit	Overview of Theory: “relationship between a person’s characteristics and those of the job or tasks that are performed at work” (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005, p. 284).
	Hypothesis: Perceived person-job fit will be predictive of turnover intentions.
	Corresponding Survey Question: 22) to what extent do you agree with the following statements? My organization is a good match for me in terms of my abilities
Perceived Person-Organization Fit	Overview of Theory: “the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both” (Kristof, 1996, p. 4).
	Hypothesis: Perceived person-organization fit will be predictive of turnover intentions.
	Corresponding Survey Question: 22) to what extent do you agree with the following statements? My organization is a good match for me in terms of its organizational culture
	Hypothesis: Passion about an organization’s mission will be predictive of turnover intentions
	Corresponding Survey Question: 22) to what extent do you agree with the following statements? I am passionate about my organization’s mission and field of work
Perceived Organizational Support	Overview of Theory: employees develop global beliefs about how their organizations value and care about them and this perception influences withdrawal behaviors (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa, 1986)
	Hypothesis: Perceived organizational support will be predictive of turnover intentions
	Corresponding Survey Questions Used to Create Scale: 22) to what extent do you agree with the following statements? I am included in organization-wide decisions including strategy and goal setting. I am generally satisfied with my compensation. My organization provides me access to opportunities for professional growth. There is an adequate fund development infrastructure (facilities, technology, systems, etc.) in place for me to be successful. There are realistic performance goals set for me in my position. 34) to what extent do you agree with the following statements about your organization generally/as a whole? My organization values me for my fund development skills, knowledge and expertise.

(table continues)

Perceived Leader-Member Exchange	Overview of Theory: “effective leadership processes occur when leaders and followers are able to develop mature leadership relationships (partnerships) and thus gain access to the many benefits these relationships bring” (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 225).
	Hypothesis: Perceived leader-member exchange will be predictive of turnover intentions
	Corresponding Survey Questions Used to Create Scale: 16) which of the following statements best describes how you feel about your relationship with the executive director of your organization? 17) which of the following statements best describes how you and the executive director partner in fund development work within the organization?
Job Satisfaction	Overview of Theory: although a consistent predictor of turnover (Porter & Steers, 1973; Waters & Roach, 1973), the Mobley (1977) and Mobley et al. (1978) models revealed the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover as weak to moderate
	Hypothesis: Overall job satisfaction will be predictive of turnover intentions
	Corresponding Survey Question: 14) which of the following statements best describes your level of satisfaction in your current fund development position?

APPENDIX B

Table 36

Multiple Regression Analysis for Gender Subgroups

Plans to Stay in Position: Females (n=1152)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.150	0.061	0.090	0.00
LMX	0.091	0.045	0.065	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.029	0.032	-0.024	0.00
Mission Passion	0.086	0.041	0.054	0.00
P-O Fit	0.180	0.039	0.151	0.02 ***
P-J Fit	0.035	0.040	0.023	0.00
Job Satisfaction	0.337	0.031	0.375	0.10 ***
Salary	-0.012	0.025	-0.013	0.00
Age	0.099	0.021	0.109	0.02 ***
Org Size	0.049	0.015	0.090	0.01
R ²	.420			
F	82.76***			

Note . ***p < .001 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Intent to Give Notice: Females (n=1156)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.034	0.037	-0.037	0.00
LMX	-0.075	0.027	-0.097	0.01
Culture of Philanthropy	0.055	0.019	0.081	0.01
Mission Passion	0.026	0.025	0.030	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.106	0.024	-0.163	0.02 ***
P-J Fit	0.026	0.024	0.031	0.00
Job Satisfaction	-0.179	0.019	-0.364	0.08 ***
Salary	-0.011	0.016	-0.021	0.00
Age	0.007	0.013	0.014	0.00
Org Size	-0.010	0.009	-0.035	0.00
R ²	.286			
F	45.86***			

Note . ***p < .001 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Field: Females (n=1159)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.028	0.064	-0.019	0.00
LMX	0.000	0.047	0.000	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.020	0.034	0.018	0.00
Mission Passion	0.088	0.043	0.062	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.104	0.041	-0.099	0.01
P-J Fit	0.243	0.042	0.177	0.03 ***
Job Satisfaction	0.245	0.033	0.309	0.05 ***
Salary	0.023	0.027	0.028	0.00
Age	-0.030	0.022	-0.038	0.00
Org Size	0.058	0.015	0.121	0.01
R ²	.175			
F	24.35***			

Note . ***p < .001 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Position: Males (n=306)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.215	0.128	0.123	0.01
LMX	0.052	0.092	0.035	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.046	0.064	-0.039	0.00
Mission Passion	0.022	0.093	0.014	0.00
P-O Fit	0.178	0.082	0.150	0.02 *
P-J Fit	0.144	0.086	0.097	0.01
Job Satisfaction	0.240	0.061	0.254	0.05 ***
Salary	0.011	0.051	0.015	0.00
Age	0.081	0.043	0.096	0.01
Org Size	0.013	0.032	0.026	0.00
R ²	.269			
F	10.86***			

Note. *p < .05 and $f^2 \geq .02$; ***p < .001 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Intent to Give Notice: Males (n=306)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.151	0.071	-0.159	0.02 *
LMX	-0.029	0.050	-0.037	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.061	0.035	0.096	0.01
Mission Passion	0.048	0.050	0.057	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.124	0.045	-0.194	0.03 **
P-J Fit	0.032	0.047	0.041	0.00
Job Satisfaction	-0.134	0.034	-0.264	0.05 ***
Salary	0.019	0.028	0.046	0.00
Age	-0.018	0.024	-0.040	0.00
Org Size	-0.001	0.018	-0.002	0.00
R ²	.230			
F	8.80***			

Note. *p < .05 and $f^2 \geq .02$; **p < .01 and $f^2 \geq .02$; ***p < .001 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Field: Males (n=308)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.145	0.118	-0.099	0.01
LMX	0.155	0.085	0.127	0.01
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.049	0.059	-0.050	0.00
Mission Passion	0.013	0.085	0.010	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.025	0.076	-0.025	0.00
P-J Fit	0.327	0.079	0.266	0.06 ***
Job Satisfaction	0.042	0.056	0.054	0.00
Salary	-0.041	0.046	-0.065	0.00
Age	-0.082	0.040	-0.118	0.01
Org Size	0.043	0.029	0.105	0.01
R ²	.092			
F	3.01***			

Note. ***p < .001 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Table 37

Multiple Regression Analysis for Race/Ethnicity Subgroups

Plans to Stay in Position: White (n=1295)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.161	0.059	0.095	0.00
LMX	0.091	0.043	0.064	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.018	0.031	-0.014	0.00
Mission Passion	0.065	0.040	0.041	0.00
P-O Fit	0.165	0.037	0.138	0.02 ***
P-J Fit	0.051	0.039	0.033	0.00
Job Satisfaction	0.324	0.029	0.358	0.10 ***
Salary	-0.004	0.023	-0.004	0.00
Age	0.091	0.020	0.103	0.02 ***
Org Size	0.042	0.014	0.080	0.00
R ²	.382			
F	79.52***			

Note. ***p < .001 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Intent to Give Notice: White (n=1298)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.048	0.035	-0.051	0.00
LMX	-0.068	0.025	-0.089	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.057	0.018	0.086	0.00
Mission Passion	0.034	0.024	0.040	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.103	0.022	-0.158	0.02 ***
P-J Fit	0.011	0.023	0.013	0.00
Job Satisfaction	-0.178	0.017	-0.361	0.08 ***
Salary	0.007	0.014	0.014	0.00
Age	0.005	0.012	0.011	0.00
Org Size	-0.011	0.008	-0.037	0.00
R ²	.275			
F	48.92***			

Note. ***p < .001 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Field: White (n=1303)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.061	0.061	-0.041	0.00
LMX	0.049	0.044	0.040	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.015	0.032	-0.014	0.00
Mission Passion	0.058	0.041	0.042	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.058	0.038	-0.056	0.00
P-J Fit	0.253	0.040	0.187	0.03 ***
Job Satisfaction	0.191	0.030	0.243	0.03 ***
Salary	0.014	0.024	0.019	0.00
Age	-0.034	0.020	-0.045	0.00
Org Size	0.050	0.014	0.108	0.00
R ²	.137			
F	20.55***			

Note. ***p < .001 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Position: Minority (n=170)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.114	0.166	0.075	0.00
LMX	0.141	0.131	0.102	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.136	0.078	-0.114	0.02
Mission Passion	0.076	0.118	0.044	0.00
P-O Fit	0.283	0.108	0.247	0.04 **
P-J Fit	0.111	0.094	0.079	0.00
Job Satisfaction	0.247	0.092	0.274	0.04 **
Salary	-0.021	0.078	-0.021	0.00
Age	0.161	0.064	0.165	0.04 *
Org Size	0.008	0.043	0.014	0.00
R ²	.417			
F	11.38***			

Note. *p < .05 and $f^2 \geq .02$; **p < .01 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Intent to Give Notice: Minority (n=171)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.102	0.106	-0.115	0.00
LMX	-0.140	0.083	-0.174	0.02
Culture of Philanthropy	0.056	0.050	0.081	0.00
Mission Passion	0.076	0.075	0.076	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.145	0.068	-0.218	0.03 *
P-J Fit	0.075	0.060	0.092	0.00
Job Satisfaction	-0.066	0.060	-0.126	0.00
Salary	-0.075	0.050	-0.134	0.01
Age	-0.088	0.040	-0.156	0.03 *
Org Size	0.011	0.027	0.035	0.00
R ²	.296			
F	6.73***			

Note. *p < .05 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Field: Minority (n=171)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.103	0.172	0.074	0.00
LMX	0.056	0.136	0.044	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.097	0.081	0.089	0.00
Mission Passion	0.184	0.123	0.117	0.01
P-O Fit	-0.300	0.111	-0.287	0.05 **
P-J Fit	0.231	0.098	0.180	0.04 *
Job Satisfaction	0.284	0.096	0.345	0.05 **
Salary	0.020	0.082	0.023	0.00
Age	-0.080	0.066	-0.090	0.00
Org Size	0.075	0.045	0.147	0.02
R ²	.238			
F	5.00***			

Note. *p < .05 and $f^2 \geq .02$; **p < .01 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Table 38

Multiple Regression Analysis for Field of Interest Subgroups

Plans to Stay in Position: Human Services (n=322)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.233	0.122	0.144	0.01
LMX	0.099	0.091	0.071	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.003	0.064	-0.002	0.00
Mission Passion	-0.050	0.086	-0.029	0.00
P-O Fit	0.204	0.075	0.175	0.02 **
P-J Fit	0.026	0.074	0.018	0.00
Job Satisfaction	0.293	0.066	0.317	0.06 ***
Salary	-0.004	0.053	-0.004	0.00
Age	0.064	0.041	0.072	0.00
Org Size	0.070	0.028	0.130	0.02 *
R ²	.410			
F	21.58***			

Note. * $p < .05$ and $f^2 \geq .02$; ** $p < .01$ and $f^2 \geq .02$; *** $p < .001$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Intent to Give Notice: Human Services (n=325)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.109	0.076	-0.122	0.00
LMX	-0.013	0.056	-0.016	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.040	0.040	0.058	0.00
Mission Passion	0.094	0.052	0.101	0.01
P-O Fit	-0.126	0.046	-0.195	0.02 **
P-J Fit	0.068	0.046	0.084	0.00
Job Satisfaction	-0.159	0.041	-0.310	0.05 ***
Salary	0.007	0.032	0.012	0.00
Age	0.047	0.025	0.097	0.01
Org Size	-0.014	0.017	-0.046	0.00
R ²	.246			
F	10.25***			

Note. ** $p < .01$ and $f^2 \geq .02$; *** $p < .001$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Field: Human Services (n=325)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.211	0.128	-0.149	0.00
LMX	0.078	0.095	0.064	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.044	0.067	0.040	0.00
Mission Passion	-0.004	0.088	-0.003	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.045	0.077	-0.044	0.00
P-J Fit	0.350	0.077	0.272	0.07 ***
Job Satisfaction	0.166	0.069	0.204	0.02 *
Salary	-0.004	0.054	-0.004	0.00
Age	-0.070	0.042	-0.090	0.00
Org Size	0.103	0.029	0.217	0.04 ***
R ²	.158			
F	5.88***			

Note. * $p < .05$ and $f^2 \geq .02$; *** $p < .001$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Position: Education (n=157)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.099	0.179	0.061	0.00
LMX	0.271	0.110	0.211	0.04 *
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.170	0.095	-0.141	0.02
Mission Passion	-0.054	0.118	-0.035	0.00
P-O Fit	0.249	0.108	0.226	0.04 *
P-J Fit	0.156	0.113	0.101	0.01
Job Satisfaction	0.259	0.090	0.279	0.05 **
Salary	0.031	0.068	0.039	0.00
Age	0.082	0.059	0.093	0.01
Org Size	-0.016	0.043	-0.032	0.00
R ²	.406			
F	9.99***			

Note. * $p < .05$ and $f^2 \geq .02$; ** $p < .01$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Intent to Give Notice: Education (n=158)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.040	0.119	0.040	0.00
LMX	-0.172	0.071	-0.219	0.04 *
Culture of Philanthropy	0.121	0.062	0.166	0.03
Mission Passion	0.012	0.076	0.012	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.108	0.071	-0.161	0.02
P-J Fit	-0.065	0.074	-0.069	0.00
Job Satisfaction	-0.201	0.059	-0.355	0.08 **
Salary	-0.041	0.045	-0.083	0.00
Age	0.007	0.038	0.012	0.00
Org Size	0.019	0.029	0.059	0.00
R ²	.326			
F	7.12***			

Note. * $p < .05$ and $f^2 \geq .02$; ** $p < .01$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Field: Education (n=159)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.327	0.162	-0.259	0.03
LMX	0.160	0.098	0.160	0.02
Culture of Philanthropy	0.197	0.085	0.212	0.04 *
Mission Passion	0.169	0.105	0.142	0.02
P-O Fit	-0.128	0.097	-0.151	0.01
P-J Fit	0.241	0.102	0.198	0.04 *
Job Satisfaction	0.214	0.081	0.296	0.05 **
Salary	0.080	0.061	0.127	0.01
Age	-0.130	0.053	-0.187	0.04 *
Org Size	0.002	0.039	0.006	0.00
R ²	.209			
F	3.92***			

Note. * $p < .05$ and $f^2 \geq .02$; ** $p < .01$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Position: Arts, Culture, & Humanities (n=165)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.060	0.179	0.037	0.00
LMX	0.153	0.125	0.109	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.080	0.095	-0.059	0.00
Mission Passion	-0.050	0.117	-0.031	0.00
P-O Fit	0.370	0.122	0.313	0.06 **
P-J Fit	0.033	0.102	0.024	0.00
Job Satisfaction	0.241	0.076	0.292	0.06 **
Salary	0.068	0.079	0.093	0.00
Age	0.090	0.057	0.102	0.02
Org Size	-0.010	0.060	-0.017	0.00
R ²	.412			
F	10.78***			

Note. ** $p < .01$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Intent to Give Notice: Arts, Culture, & Humanities (n=163)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.044	0.114	-0.047	0.00
LMX	-0.085	0.078	-0.105	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.003	0.059	-0.004	0.00
Mission Passion	0.064	0.073	0.068	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.146	0.076	-0.213	0.02
P-J Fit	0.010	0.065	0.013	0.00
Job Satisfaction	-0.153	0.047	-0.320	0.07 **
Salary	-0.018	0.050	-0.041	0.00
Age	-0.008	0.036	-0.016	0.00
Org Size	-0.004	0.038	-0.012	0.00
R ²	.323			
F	7.25***			

Note. ** $p < .01$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Field: Arts, Culture, & Humanities (n=165)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.002	0.176	0.002	0.00
LMX	0.177	0.122	0.149	0.01
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.065	0.093	-0.057	0.00
Mission Passion	0.120	0.116	0.084	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.021	0.119	-0.020	0.00
P-J Fit	0.216	0.101	0.184	0.03 *
Job Satisfaction	0.111	0.074	0.160	0.01
Salary	0.136	0.077	0.219	0.02
Age	-0.074	0.056	-0.100	0.01
Org Size	-0.024	0.059	-0.051	0.00
R ²	.208			
F	4.04***			

Note. * $p < .05$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Position: Health (n=96)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.163	0.228	0.090	0.00
LMX	0.050	0.160	0.035	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.031	0.114	-0.024	0.00
Mission Passion	0.204	0.142	0.135	0.02
P-O Fit	0.022	0.140	0.018	0.00
P-J Fit	-0.194	0.157	-0.125	0.02
Job Satisfaction	0.457	0.113	0.532	0.19 ***
Salary	0.089	0.079	0.106	0.01
Age	0.068	0.073	0.076	0.01
Org Size	0.044	0.039	0.101	0.01
R ²	.438			
F	8.41***			

Note. *** $p < .001$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Intent to Give Notice: Health (n=97)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.087	0.111	-0.107	0.00
LMX	0.018	0.079	0.029	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.077	0.057	0.131	0.02
Mission Passion	0.057	0.070	0.085	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.158	0.069	-0.288	0.06 *
P-J Fit	0.140	0.079	0.199	0.04
Job Satisfaction	-0.181	0.056	-0.472	0.12 **
Salary	0.023	0.039	0.061	0.00
Age	-0.008	0.037	-0.019	0.00
Org Size	0.007	0.020	0.036	0.00
R ²	.369			
F	5.02***			

Note. * $p < .05$ and $f^2 \geq .02$; ** $p < .01$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Field: Health (n=96)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.238	0.257	0.145	0.01
LMX	0.164	0.180	0.128	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.038	0.128	0.032	0.00
Mission Passion	-0.122	0.160	-0.089	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.240	0.158	-0.218	0.03
P-J Fit	-0.162	0.176	-0.115	0.00
Job Satisfaction	0.178	0.127	0.229	0.02
Salary	-0.020	0.088	-0.026	0.00
Age	0.015	0.083	0.019	0.00
Org Size	0.143	0.044	0.362	0.12 **
R ²	.226			
F	2.48***			

Note. ** $p < .01$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Position: Youth Development (n=97)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.386	0.226	0.233	0.03
LMX	0.138	0.174	0.084	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.058	0.129	0.045	0.00
Mission Passion	0.150	0.174	0.081	0.00
P-O Fit	0.003	0.126	0.003	0.00
P-J Fit	0.224	0.154	0.134	0.02
Job Satisfaction	0.293	0.110	0.311	0.08 *
Salary	0.014	0.089	0.014	0.00
Age	0.053	0.078	0.057	0.00
Org Size	-0.033	0.062	-0.048	0.00
R ²	.465			
F	7.46***			

Note. *p < .05 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Intent to Give Notice: Youth Development (n=97)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.217	0.127	-0.245	0.03
LMX	-0.081	0.099	-0.092	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.019	0.072	-0.027	0.00
Mission Passion	0.260	0.098	0.264	0.08 *
P-O Fit	-0.092	0.070	-0.138	0.02
P-J Fit	-0.032	0.089	-0.035	0.00
Job Satisfaction	-0.177	0.062	-0.352	0.10 **
Salary	0.006	0.049	0.013	0.00
Age	-0.030	0.044	-0.061	0.00
Org Size	0.025	0.034	0.071	0.00
R ²	.410			
F	5.98***			

Note. *p < .05 and $f^2 \geq .02$; **p < .01 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Field: Youth Development (n=97)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.361	0.230	0.245	0.03
LMX	0.038	0.180	0.026	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.068	0.131	0.059	0.00
Mission Passion	0.145	0.179	0.089	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.460	0.127	-0.417	0.15 **
P-J Fit	0.219	0.162	0.145	0.02
Job Satisfaction	0.261	0.112	0.312	0.06 *
Salary	-0.013	0.089	-0.015	0.00
Age	0.005	0.080	0.007	0.00
Org Size	-0.003	0.062	-0.004	0.00
R ²	.294			
F	3.59***			

Note. *p < .05 and $f^2 \geq .02$; **p < .01 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Position: Environment (n=80)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.156	0.239	0.090	0.00
LMX	-0.169	0.176	-0.116	0.01
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.042	0.107	-0.041	0.00
Mission Passion	0.360	0.151	0.269	0.08 *
P-O Fit	-0.085	0.162	-0.071	0.00
P-J Fit	0.139	0.153	0.099	0.01
Job Satisfaction	0.364	0.101	0.457	0.19 **
Salary	0.152	0.115	0.183	0.03
Age	0.109	0.089	0.128	0.02
Org Size	-0.090	0.078	-0.147	0.02
R ²	.438			
F	5.39***			

Note. *p < .05 and $f^2 \geq .02$; **p < .01 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Intent to Give Notice: Environment (n=83)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.111	0.172	0.097	0.00
LMX	-0.059	0.129	-0.062	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.108	0.079	0.158	0.03
Mission Passion	-0.161	0.111	-0.182	0.03
P-O Fit	0.088	0.116	0.112	0.00
P-J Fit	-0.133	0.112	-0.143	0.02
Job Satisfaction	-0.269	0.073	-0.513	0.19 ***
Salary	-0.031	0.083	-0.057	0.00
Age	0.083	0.064	0.149	0.02
Org Size	-0.035	0.057	-0.087	0.00
R ²	.290			
F	2.94***			

Note. ***p < .001 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Field: Environment (n=83)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.092	0.323	0.045	0.00
LMX	-0.238	0.241	-0.139	0.01
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.155	0.147	-0.127	0.02
Mission Passion	0.061	0.207	0.038	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.123	0.217	-0.087	0.00
P-J Fit	0.459	0.211	0.275	0.07 *
Job Satisfaction	0.372	0.137	0.396	0.10 **
Salary	0.011	0.156	0.011	0.00
Age	0.037	0.121	0.038	0.00
Org Size	-0.022	0.106	-0.03	0.00
R ²	.226			
F	2.10***			

Note. *p < .05 and $f^2 \geq .02$; **p < .01 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Table 39

Multiple Regression Analysis for Regional Subgroups

Plans to Stay in Position: Midwest (n=417)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.123	0.114	0.069	0.00
LMX	0.134	0.076	0.092	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.042	0.057	-0.033	0.00
Mission Passion	0.121	0.076	0.073	0.00
P-O Fit	0.056	0.072	0.045	0.00
P-J Fit	0.134	0.075	0.083	0.00
Job Satisfaction	0.310	0.055	0.326	0.08 ***
Salary	-0.042	0.048	-0.045	0.00
Age	0.145	0.036	0.165	0.04 ***
Org Size	0.076	0.026	0.144	0.02 **
R ²	.351			
F	21.92***			

Note. **p < .01 and $f^2 \geq .02$; ***p < .001 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Intent to Give Notice: Midwest (n=419)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.154	0.063	-0.168	0.01
LMX	-0.040	0.042	-0.054	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.058	0.031	0.088	0.00
Mission Passion	0.060	0.042	0.070	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.074	0.040	-0.116	0.00
P-J Fit	-0.006	0.042	-0.007	0.00
Job Satisfaction	-0.123	0.030	-0.251	0.04 ***
Salary	-0.008	0.027	-0.016	0.00
Age	-0.013	0.020	-0.030	0.00
Org Size	-0.025	0.014	-0.093	0.00
R ²	.246			
F	13.29***			

Note. ***p < .001 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Field: Midwest (n=420)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.079	0.112	-0.051	0.00
LMX	0.102	0.075	0.080	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.014	0.056	0.012	0.00
Mission Passion	0.046	0.075	0.032	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.131	0.071	-0.120	0.00
P-J Fit	0.296	0.074	0.208	0.04 ***
Job Satisfaction	0.224	0.054	0.267	0.04 ***
Salary	0.003	0.047	0.003	0.00
Age	-0.031	0.035	-0.040	0.00
Org Size	0.086	0.026	0.184	0.03 **
R ²	.180			
F	9.01***			

Note. **p < .01 and $f^2 \geq .02$; ***p < .001 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Position: Northeast (n=221)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.215	0.127	0.144	0.01
LMX	-0.039	0.096	-0.031	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.029	0.067	-0.025	0.00
Mission Passion	0.108	0.086	0.075	0.00
P-O Fit	0.238	0.077	0.238	0.04 **
P-J Fit	-0.116	0.077	-0.088	0.01
Job Satisfaction	0.299	0.062	0.376	0.11 ***
Salary	0.072	0.052	0.090	0.00
Age	0.058	0.044	0.070	0.00
Org Size	0.015	0.033	0.031	0.00
R ²	.448			
F	17.05***			

Note. **p < .01 and $f^2 \geq .02$; ***p < .001 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Intent to Give Notice: Northeast (n=220)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.052	0.093	-0.054	0.00
LMX	-0.072	0.069	-0.088	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.123	0.048	0.169	0.03 *
Mission Passion	0.025	0.062	0.027	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.125	0.056	-0.194	0.02 *
P-J Fit	0.065	0.055	0.077	0.00
Job Satisfaction	-0.201	0.045	-0.392	0.09 ***
Salary	-0.025	0.037	-0.049	0.00
Age	-0.017	0.031	-0.031	0.00
Org Size	-0.001	0.024	-0.002	0.00
R ²	.317			
F	9.72***			

Note. *p < .05 and $f^2 \geq .02$; ***p < .001 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Field: Northeast (n=221)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.211	0.148	-0.151	0.00
LMX	0.032	0.112	0.027	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.003	0.078	-0.003	0.00
Mission Passion	0.154	0.100	0.115	0.01
P-O Fit	-0.030	0.090	-0.032	0.00
P-J Fit	0.311	0.090	0.252	0.06 **
Job Satisfaction	0.170	0.072	0.228	0.03 *
Salary	-0.006	0.060	-0.008	0.00
Age	-0.076	0.051	-0.100	0.01
Org Size	0.031	0.038	0.066	0.00
R ²	.144			
F	3.53***			

Note. *p < .05 and $f^2 \geq .02$; **p < .01 and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Position: South (n=392)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.307	0.108	0.186	0.02 **
LMX	0.110	0.081	0.078	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.037	0.056	-0.030	0.00
Mission Passion	0.019	0.079	0.011	0.00
P-O Fit	0.147	0.073	0.115	0.01
P-J Fit	0.155	0.072	0.098	0.01
Job Satisfaction	0.274	0.055	0.292	0.06 ***
Salary	-0.019	0.044	-0.021	0.00
Age	0.118	0.037	0.130	0.03 **
Org Size	0.006	0.026	0.012	0.00
R ²	.400			
F	25.41***			

Note. * $p < .05$ and $f^2 \geq .02$; ** $p < .01$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Intent to Give Notice: South (n=393)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.098	0.060	-0.118	0.00
LMX	-0.068	0.045	-0.095	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.006	0.031	0.010	0.00
Mission Passion	-0.007	0.043	-0.008	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.016	0.040	-0.025	0.00
P-J Fit	-0.032	0.040	-0.039	0.00
Job Satisfaction	-0.156	0.030	-0.331	0.07 ***
Salary	-0.010	0.025	-0.023	0.00
Age	0.014	0.021	0.031	0.00
Org Size	0.014	0.014	0.052	0.00
R ²	.274			
F	14.45***			

Note. *** $p < .001$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Field: South (n=396)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.043	0.109	0.031	0.00
LMX	-0.003	0.082	-0.003	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	0.055	0.056	0.054	0.00
Mission Passion	0.123	0.079	0.083	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.069	0.073	-0.065	0.00
P-J Fit	0.130	0.072	0.098	0.00
Job Satisfaction	0.174	0.056	0.222	0.03 **
Salary	0.042	0.045	0.055	0.00
Age	-0.011	0.038	-0.015	0.00
Org Size	0.022	0.026	0.048	0.00
R ²	.113			
F	4.91***			

Note. ** $p < .01$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Position: West (n=399)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.083	0.103	0.049	0.00
LMX	0.041	0.082	0.029	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.068	0.055	-0.056	0.00
Mission Passion	0.044	0.071	0.029	0.00
P-O Fit	0.276	0.067	0.233	0.04 ***
P-J Fit	0.065	0.069	0.043	0.00
Job Satisfaction	0.334	0.056	0.369	0.09 ***
Salary	-0.028	0.041	-0.034	0.00
Age	0.052	0.036	0.059	0.00
Org Size	0.051	0.027	0.094	0.00
R ²	.381			
F	23.83***			

Note. *** $p < .001$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Intent to Give Notice: West (n=400)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	0.041	0.063	0.042	0.00
LMX	-0.107	0.050	-0.129	0.01
Culture of Philanthropy	0.084	0.034	0.119	0.02 *
Mission Passion	0.022	0.043	0.025	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.162	0.041	-0.236	0.04 ***
P-J Fit	0.044	0.042	0.051	0.00
Job Satisfaction	-0.196	0.034	-0.372	0.08 ***
Salary	0.034	0.025	0.071	0.00
Age	-0.001	0.022	-0.003	0.00
Org Size	-0.022	0.016	-0.069	0.00
R ²	.311			
F	17.53***			

Note. * $p < .05$ and $f^2 \geq .02$; *** $p < .001$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

Plans to Stay in Field: West (n=400)

Variable	B	SE B	β	f^2
POS	-0.011	0.104	-0.007	0.00
LMX	0.015	0.083	0.011	0.00
Culture of Philanthropy	-0.092	0.056	-0.086	0.00
Mission Passion	-0.036	0.072	-0.027	0.00
P-O Fit	-0.058	0.067	-0.054	0.00
P-J Fit	0.348	0.071	0.259	0.06 ***
Job Satisfaction	0.244	0.057	0.302	0.05 ***
Salary	0.001	0.041	0.001	0.00
Age	-0.059	0.037	-0.076	0.00
Org Size	0.051	0.027	0.108	0.00
R ²	.190			
F	9.13***			

Note. *** $p < .001$ and $f^2 \geq .02$

VITA

Abbi Nicole Leinwand Haggerty was born on August 13, 1981, in Montgomery County, Virginia, and is an American citizen. She graduated from James River High School, Midlothian, Virginia in 1999. She received her Bachelor of Arts in Political Science and History from Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, Virginia in 2002 and her Master of Public Administration from Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia in 2005. Leinwand's relevant work experience is outlined below.

Director of Development	August 2014-Present
Partnership for Nonprofit Excellence	Richmond, VA
Director of Development	October 2011-August 2014
John Tyler Community College Foundation	Midlothian, VA
Associate Director of Development	September 2007-October 2011
CenterStage Foundation	Richmond, VA
Grants Manager	January 2006-August 2007
Museum of Science & Industry	Tampa, FL
Development Associate	October 2004-December 2005
CenterStage Foundation	Richmond, VA